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JAMES COOK
UNIVERSITY
AUSTRALIA

International Students in English Language Programs: Their Images of Australia and Their Travel Behaviour

Thesis submitted by

Aram Son

In December 2004

For the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in School of Business
at James Cook University

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank all people who made the completion of this thesis possible. Without their help, this study would not have been possible. First of all, I would like to thank my thesis supervisor, Professor Philip Pearce who guided the conceptual development of my thesis and encouraged me throughout this study. I would like to thank Dr. Laurie Murphy for her advice in shaping this study. Special thanks also go to Robyn Yesberg , Elaine Fitzpatrick, and Anne Sharp.

I gratefully acknowledge the support provided by The English Language Centres in Sydney and Melbourne. Especially, I would like to give special thanks to Professor Berrell at Holmes Colleges in Melbourne and Ms.Chung at Embassy CES in Sydney who helped data collecting for this study.

I would like to thank to my fellow friends, Frieda, Jacinta, Pim, Allison, Lui, Erna, Ali, , Kate, and Marwata. Many thanks go to my Australian friends, Simon and Kristy who help me adapt to the new environment in Australia and gave me a chance to experience Australian culture. My warmest thanks extend to my friends Kapreen, Claire, Sally, Joy, Syu-Yun, Stephanie, Fenny, Linda, Young-Sin, In-Sook and my dear sister, Rosa who always made me smile and laugh and helped me overcome hardships throughout the long journey to complete this thesis. I was very lucky to meet such wonderful friends like you.

Finally, I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my family. I would like to give a special thank you to my brother's family. I am very thankful to my parents for their constant support, understanding, love and encouragement throughout the long years of completing this thesis. Mum and dad, thank you very much!

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ABSTRACT

The overall goal of this thesis was to examine international English language students' image of Australia as a tourist destination and their travel behaviour while in Australia. From a theoretical point of view, this research has sought to develop an enhanced conceptual framework of destination image based on multi-faceted image components. It also attempted to measure each of the image components in the most relevant and efficient way by using both structured and unstructured methods.

In all, three studies were conducted to achieve the principal objective of this thesis. The first study was conducted to understand international English language students' images of Australian cities. To identify the mental map of cities in Australia (Sydney and Melbourne) a sketch map methodology supplemented by a range of question types and styles was applied. The results of the sketch maps of the two cities indicated that Sydney is perceived as a spatially dominated city, while Melbourne is seen as a path oriented city. In terms of appraisive images as assessed by the rating scales, both cities were perceived positively. The results indicated that in spite of some limitations of the sketch map technique it could be an appropriate method to investigate tourists' orientation components of destination image.

Study 2 was conducted to investigate international students' image of Australia as a tourist destination and their travel behaviour while in Australia. A self-administered questionnaire consisted of both structured and unstructured methodologies was used in this study. The detailed findings in the study reinforced the value of creative multi-faceted image appraisals and the relevance of regional cultural analysis as an explanatory variable affecting the results. Motivation was also established as an important background variable but it was subsumed and linked to a consideration of regional cultural background. Another aim of this study was to understand international

student's travel behaviour by assessing differences and similarities in travel behaviours for international students and backpacker travellers. Both groups were likely to emphasise experiencing the Australian natural environment and they wanted to understand Australian culture and its lifestyle. It was also found that there were substantial differences between the travel patterns and preferences of the two groups. International students were more likely to travel with a group and had a strong tendency to use public transportation and motel accommodation. The results of the study also indicated that compared to backpackers, international students were more likely to be interested in city-based travel activities.

Study 3 was conducted to identify international students' images of Australian people and culture. The results of the questionnaire based from 359 respondents study indicated that the majority of the students held positive images of Australian people. The study also found that since international students were willing to learn and experience Australian culture they had no serious difficulty in adapting to the new environment. The cultural differences identified in the study appeared to be consistent with the general Eastern/Western differences discussed in the literature review.

It is hoped that this thesis will assist the development of the youth market in Australia by providing information on both the images of Australia as a tourist destination and Australian culture held by international students in English language programs. It is also to be hoped that this research showcases innovative approaches and alternative methods embedded in a conceptual framework in the area of destination image study. The framework developed in the present study could be used to identify images of other tourist destinations held by many other types of tourists.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 International Student Market in Australia
   The Importance of the International Student Market in the Australian Tourism Industry

1.2 Issues in Destination Image Research
   Theoretical Problem: Lack of a Conceptual Framework
   Methodological Problems: 1. Structured Surveys
            2. Cognitive Based Measurement

1.3 Thesis Outline

1.1 International Student Market in Australia

It is the overriding objective of this thesis to conduct a set of studies to explore how international students in English language programs view Australia and its culture and how they adapt and travel in the country. In order t`o appreciate the importance and context for these studies a consideration of the international student market is valuable.

Since the beginning of civilization, man has traveled for various reasons such as trade, relaxation, religious purpose, and education. The Chinese traded with Persian and Greek merchants through the Silk Road (Stephen & Haw, 1998) and ancient Greeks and Egyptians journeyed to attend their religious festivals (Goeldner *et al.*, 2000). Ancient people also traveled for pleasure and relaxation. For example, Romans travelled to Greece and Asia Minor for the Olympic Games, medicinal baths, and seaside resorts (Anderson, 1989).

Another main reason for travelling is for education. International education is not an exclusively modern phenomenon. During the reign of the Emperor Asoka the Great of India (273-232 B.C.), the University of Taxila became a major international institution attracting students from all over Asia Minor and in China the emperors of the Tang

Dynasty (620-907) fostered international education (Ward. *et al.*, 2001). In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when foreign travel became an integral part of an aristocrat's education, the Grand Tour of Europe became popular (Anderson, 1989). Paris and Florence, two popular cities at that time, attracted students who were interested in learning about religion, law and arts as well as experiencing other cultures. In modern times, there is a huge movement of students across cultural boundaries (Ward. *et al.*, 2001).

Like the United States and the United Kingdom, Australia is one of the most popular countries for overseas students. Australia is the top study destination for students from Singapore and is the second largest provider of onshore higher education for Indonesian students behind the United Sates (AEI, 1999). Every year, international students visit Australia for educational purposes and the number of students has been growing continuously. In 2001 Australian Education International (AEI) reported that there were more than 230,000 international students studying at Australian education institutions with a 34% increase between 1997 and 2001 (AEI, 2003). Thus, educational tourism could be viewed as one of the fastest growing parts of the Australian tourism industry.

Nevertheless, the international student market has been given little attention by the tourism industry because their numbers are relatively small in comparison to those with other reasons for travelling to Australia. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (1999), 56% of all visitors arrived for holiday purposes, while only 3.5% arrived for educational purposes. However, an overseas student market should not be overlooked for a number of reasons. First of all, international students bring an economic benefit, since their expenditure can be a means to earn foreign exchange. Australian Education International (AEI) estimated that during 1999 total overseas student expenditure was $3,085 million and about half of that amount ($1,523 million)

was spent on goods and services including accommodation, food and travel (AEI, 1999). Since international students have the opportunity to travel during semester breaks, they may be significant contributors to the total tourism market in Australia.

International students may also have socio-cultural influences, as overseas students tend to stay longer and have more chance to contact local people compared to other types of visitors. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (1999), 73% of international students stay at least 2 weeks and 45% of them stay in Australia more than 6 months. As a result of the interaction between overseas students and local people, not only do international students experience Australian culture but also local people have opportunities to learn about various cultures and different countries.

In particular international students in English language programs, called 'language study tourists' are one of the most promising potential markets (Shergold, 2002). As English becomes the primary language of communication in an increasingly globalised and internet-connected world, Australia is becoming a popular destination for learning English. As can be seen Figure 1.1, the numbers of international students in the ELICOS (English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students) sector have been growing continuously although the total number of international students in 2002 slightly decreased from 2001 (a 2% decrease). Between 1998 and 2002 the ELICOS sector grew by approximately 40%. According to Australian Education International (AEI, 2004), in 2002 more than 40,000 students studied ELICOS in Australia on student visas. Another 30,000 who came into Australia on a tourist visa or a working holiday visa undertook some English language courses while visiting Australia.

Source: Australia Education International (AEI). 2002

Figure 1.1 **Numbers of International Students in English Language Programs**

Shergold (2002) noted there is likely to be rising demand by people wanting to improve their English within an English speaking environment. In particular, the Asian student market which is the largest market segment in the ELICOS sector (Figure 1.2), has an important part of this growth. As can be seen in Table 1.1 the top three largest source countries in the ELICOS sector are Japan, China and South Korea respectively. Australia has become one of the most popular destinations for the Asian students who are willing to experience Western culture as well as to learn English.

Table 1.1

Top 10 Source Countries in ELICOS

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(Source: AEI, 2004)

The Australian Tourist Commission (ATC) has realized the importance of the

educational tourism market, in particular international students in English language programs and it is supporting the tourism industry's efforts to heighten Australia's profile as an educational tourism destination (ATC, 2003). As the international student segment has become a potential market, marketers should know what approaches should be taken to attract and satisfy the international students. Therefore, it is important for marketers in the tourism industry as well as managers of English language programs to understand overseas students' images of Australia and Australian culture, as a fundamental part of their tourism marketing.

It is worth repeating here that the overriding objective of this thesis is to conduct studies to explore how international students in English language programs in Australia view the destination and its people and how they adapt and travel while they are in Australia. In order to fulfill this objective some issues in destination image research need to be discussed.

1.2 Issues in Destination Image Research

Destination image is a valuable concept in understanding the destination selection process of tourists and destination positioning strategy, and so the concept of 'image' has received substantial attention by tourism researchers, industry practitioners and destination marketers (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Several studies based on the relationship between destination image and visitation intentions have found that there is a positive correlation between image and behaviour intention. In other words, destinations with strong and positive images are more likely to be considered and chosen in the travel decision process (Goodrich, 1978b; Hunt, 1975; Milman & Pizam, 1995). The research concluded that images are a crucial basis of destination choice and decision making (Baloglu, 2000; Goodrich, 1978b; Scott *et al.*, 1978; Stringer, 1984; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989).

Due to the importance of destination image in tourism research, several image studies have been conducted during the past two decades. These studies include the measurement of destination image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993), its components (Dann, 1996; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997), factors influencing it (Baloglu, 1997; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993), the differences between tourist image and what is projected by destinations (Andreu *et al.*, 2000; Stabler, 1988), the relationship between perceptions of and preferences for tourist destination (Goodrich, 1978b; Hunt, 1975), image modification (Chon, 1991; Gartner & Hunt, 1987), images based on consumption values (Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000), and image formation (Gartner, 1993; Lubbe, 1998).

Despite these numerous studies, destination image studies have been criticized due to conceptual and methodological problems (Reilly & Millikin, 1994). One of the basic problems with which destination image studies have been confronted is the measurement of destination image. The majority of destination image studies have relied on structured surveys developed from a researchers' point of view (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). Structured methodologies which use standardized scale are easy to administer and suit sophisticated statistical techniques. Nevertheless, there is a danger, if the attributes are not derived from visitor themselves, that only a partial view of destination image is recorded (Pearce, 1988). In addition different tourists may value the same destination attributes for different reasons.

Some researchers have criticized structured surveys developed from the researchers' viewpoint and emphasized the need to study destinations from the tourists' point of view. For example, Gottlieb (1982) noted that few authors had attempted to explore the tourists' own perspectives on the nature of the tourist destination. Dann (1996) also argued that the neo-positivist approaches, in which the check list of items in a visitor survey is generated by researchers, might not be capturing the full dynamics and

richness of travellers' destination images.

Another issue in destination tourism studies is the reliance on cognitive based measurement. Several destination image measures are based on only a limited number of cognitive attributes or belief statements that are offered in the destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). Regrettably, affective components such as how visitors feel about the destination they visit have often been overlooked. Some researchers assume that a customer's image toward a destination is defined as the sum of certain beliefs or attributes. According to Echtner and Ritchie (1991) the majority of existing studies do not include all elements of destination image. They criticize destination image studies in tourism claiming that prior work has been limited to dealing only with the cognitive component of images. On the other hand, affective components such as how visitors feel about the destination they visit as well as approaches assessing tourists' spatial orientation and sensory images including visual, auditory, olfactory, and tactile images have been overlooked.

Considering only the cognitive component may lead to an incomplete understanding of destination image. It has been established that people develop both cognitive and affective responses and attachments to environments and places (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997). Russell and his colleagues (Russell *et al.*, 1989; Russell & Pratt, 1980) proposed a structure that can represent a wide variety of affective responses to physical environments and they argued that the affective component should be separated from the perceptual or cognitive component to better understand how people assess environments. In other words, visitors are seen as having generally favourable attitudes toward destinations when they have an adequate level of supposedly positive beliefs. By way of contrast unfavourable attitudes towards destinations are seen as due to the perceived negative attributes. One of the shortcomings of this approach is that a person might have a number of positive beliefs

but still have negative feelings toward a destination (Neal *et al.*, 1999). Another problem is that each individual may evaluate the same belief differently. For example, some people may agree that 'Sydney is a big city like New York,' yet the potential travellers' affective responses are variable. To overcome these limitations, the cognitive and affective images of a destination should be measured separately (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997).

Additionally, the importance of sensory images in tourist destination research has also been underestimated. As Echtner and Ritchie (1991) argued, imagery processing depends not only on cognitive and affective attributes but also holistic impressions embracing all of the senses – smell, taste, sight, sound and touch. Lynch (1960), for example, emphasized the importance of sensory stimulation to structure and to identify the environment. He argued for the importance of "the visual sensation of colour, shape, motion or polarization of light as well as other senses such as smell, sound, touch, kinesthesis, sense of gravity and perhaps of the forces inherent in magnetic fields" (p. 3). Pearce (1988) also noted that travellers are not only motivated by the appearance of destinations and attractions, but also the location's emotional and sensory qualities which help fulfill their psychological needs.

Images are commonly referred to as "pictures in the mind's eyes" but they could as well be "sounds in the mind's ear or the taste, smell, and tactile mental representations of the various sensations" (Downs & Stea, 1977). The additional senses may play a minor role but they are not trivial. In particular since people rely so heavily on vision and hearing for sensory information the importance of smell tends to be overlooked. Importantly, smell is the sense most closely tied to memory (Wilkie, 1994). Some adults relate the smell of specific products or physical features to their childhood days while olfactory cues can consistently remind others of a visited destination.

Tourism and sensory images are inseparable since travel experiences are full of multiple sensory images as well as visual images (Dann & Jacobsen, 2002). For example, people who have travelled to New Orleans might have a variety of sensory images such as the smell and taste of Cajun food, visual images of Victorian style houses as well as auditory cues from jazz music. Thus, it is the further argument of this study that a multi-sensory assessment should be added to cognitive and affective appraisals of a destination.

Due to the limitations in image studies discussed above, Echtner and Ritchie (1991) suggested more specific, complex conceptual frameworks and methodologies which provide a more reliable and valid approach to destination image. Pearce(1982b) also argued for more subtle, more theoretical and more intra-individual approaches in measuring destination image since travellers are not only motivated by the specific qualities of a destination and its attractions, but also the suitability of the destination to fulfill their psychological needs. Therefore, appropriate conceptual frameworks and efficient methodologies should be developed to accurately measure accurately all image components held by tourists.

An enhanced conceptual framework of destination image has been developed in this study (Figure 1.3). These superordinate labels, first devised by Pocock and Hudson (1978), organise the concept of the image discussed so far and also add the spatial orientation component of image often revealed in the work of mental maps (Pearce & Fagence, 1996). It is argued in this research that a truly complete multi-faceted assessment of destination image will benefit from assessing the orientation images as well as other elements including cognitive, affective and multi-sensory images. In the next chapter, each destination component featured in Figure 1.3 as well as the methods to measure these components will be discussed in detail.

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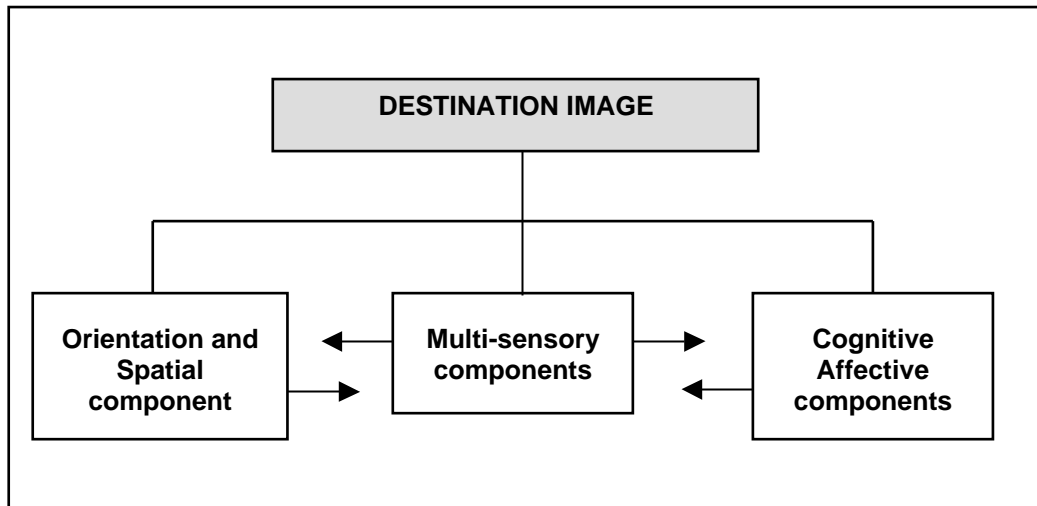
Figure 1. 3 The Components of Destination Image

1. 3 Thesis Outline

The purpose of the study is to identify international students' images of Australia as a tourist destination. As discussed in the section on issues in destination image research, previous destination image studies have been criticized as lacking an appropriate conceptual framework and relying heavily on structured measurement. From a theoretical standpoint, this study seeks to improve the shortcomings of destination image study by providing a conceptual framework for destination image analysis based on multi-faceted image components - cognitive mapping, cognitive, affective and multi-sensory images supported by multi-method approaches. These methods will be discussed in detail in the next Chapter. From a practical point of view, this study will contribute to tourism marketing approach by understanding the strengths and weaknesses of international students' images as well as assessing their travel behaviour and adjustment according to their regional cultural background.

Figure 1.4 presents a visual summary of the thesis. In Chapter 2, a literature review that explores theoretical and methodological issues in destination image work as well as applied and theoretical studies in cultural differences in cross-cultural host-tourist contact is provided. The remainder of the thesis will present the results of three

studies intended to achieve the aims of this research. Chapter 3 presents a study which was conducted to identify international students' images of two Australian cities, Sydney and Melbourne. The results of comparing images between Sydney and Melbourne are also presented.

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│   │  │ Australian   │  │ a Tourist    │  │ People &         │  │ │
│   │  │ Cities;      │  │ Destination  │  │ Australian       │  │ │
│   │  │ Sydney,      │  │ 2) Travel    │  │ Culture          │  │ │
│   │  │ Melbourne    │  │ Behaviour    │  │                  │  │ │
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Figure 1.4 Thesis Structure

Chapter 4 reports study 2 which explored both the images of Australia as a tourist destination and the travel behaviour of international students in English language programs while in Australia. Based on the main image components being used in this thesis - cognitive, affective and multi-sensory components - the images of Australia as a tourist destination were analysed. Several image factors influencing destination image such as gender, age, length of stay, travel motivation and regional cultural background were also explored. To identify respondents' travel behaviour travel motivation, travel patterns such as travel party, type of accommodation and transportation and travel activities were analysed in this chapter.

Chapter 5 reports the images of Australian people and Australian culture held by international students in English language programs. In particular the cultural differences experienced in everyday situations by the students are explored. Both negative and positive images of Australian people and culture are analysed according to the respondents' regional cultural background and the results are discussed based on cross-cultural theories including Hofstede's individualism versus collectivism (Hofstede, 2001) and Hall's low and high context culture (Hall, 1976).

Finally Chapter 6 synthesizes the three studies based on the aims of each study. Limitations of this research are discussed and then some further research efforts is suggested which can enhance the study of destination image theoretically are considered.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Definition of Image and Its Characteristics: definitional ambiguity in destination image; summary of definitions of destination image in tourism studies, differences between attitude, perception and image

2.3 Characteristics and Components of Destination Image: main characteristics of destination image and image components, cognitive, affective, orientation maps and multi-sensory images

2.4 The Process of Destination Image Formation: Gunn's (1972) image formation: organic image and inducted image: Gartner's (1993) destination image formation agents; overt induced I, overt induced II, covert induced 1, covert induced II, autonomous, unsolicited organic, solicited organic, and organic dimensions

2.5 Factors Influencing Destination Images: previous experience, tourists' geographical location, socio-demographics, information sources, length of stay, motivation and cultural background

2.6 Measuring Destination Image: summary of previous destination image studies using structured methods, methods appropriate to this study; free elicitation of descriptive adjectives, semantic differential scale, sketch map technique

2.7 Cross-Cultural Tourist-Host Contact: contact hypothesis, advantages and disadvantages of cross-cultural contact in tourism

2.8 Culture Shock: Oberg's (1960) definition of culture shock, symptoms of culture shock, stages of adjustment

2.9 Important Variables in Sojourner Adaptation: individual differences such as age, gender and travel experience, cultural differences

2.10 Cultural Difference in Social Interaction: cultural values, rules of social interaction, perception, and non-verbal communication

2.11 Theories Explaining Cross-Cultural Differences: Hofstede's (1991) cultural dimensions; power distance, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance and individualism versus collectivism; Hall's (1976) high- and low-communication

2.12 Detailed Implications Arising from the Literature and Thesis Aims

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the previous research on destination image and cultural context. Specifically, a definition of destination image, components of destination images, image formation and factors influencing destination images are presented. The methods to explore destination image that have been used in the

previous studies will also be reviewed and the measurements to be used in this study will be discussed. As a theoretical background for study 3, the international students' images of Australian people and its culture, the work on cross-cultural host-tourist contact, culture shock, as well as conceptual studies explaining cultural differences in cross-cultural interaction are presented. Finally, the overall detailed purposes and aims of the thesis are presented.

2.2 Definition of Image and Its Characteristics

The term "image" can be interpreted in various ways. Due to the lack of definition clarity, destination image studies have been criticized (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1993). Echtner and Ritchie (1991) argued that although researchers make frequent use of the term 'destination image', a clear definition of it is often avoided. Jenkins (1999) also noted that determining an exact meaning of the term 'destination image' is problematic and emphasized the importance of clarifying the term 'image' in the expression.

Primarily image means mental representation of either actual stimuli or abstract concepts. The English word "image" comes from the Latin *imago,* which in turn is derived from *imitari,(to imitate).* Berger(1972) defined image as "the visual representation of the appearance of something that is absent" (p.10). Fox (1994) also emphasized the visual characteristic of image and classified it into two kinds of visual representation. First, the image is an actual and pictorial representation, which can be represented in the media including pictures, photos, and screens. Second, it refers to a mental representation without the actual stimuli pictorial representation.

Therefore, the term "image" is closely linked to visibility so it is often referred to as a 'mental picture.' Pearce (1988) emphasized the visual component of image and argued that when image is linked to advertising, it also connotes a stereotype, a

publicly held and shared mental picture of a destination. An "image" of London for example will call to mind major tourist icons including Westminster Abbey and the Tower of London, red double-decker buses, and possibly gray skies.

Further, the term contains another set of meanings, in particular beliefs, conceptions, feelings and a holistic impression that a person has about an object (Wang, 2000). As Dann(1996) argued, image is used metaphorically at a more abstract level. An image can be set up with words and language, and not necessarily by visual means. Image has been defined as those connotative meanings in destination image research (see Table 2.1 for examples). For example, Dichter (1985) defines it as "impression of a place" and Calantone *et al.*(1989) and Phelps (1986) describes it as "perceptions of an area." Additionally, image has also been defined as "attitude toward a destination" (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

Table 2.1
Definitions of Destination Image in Tourism Studies

Researcher	Definition
Ahmed (1991)	What tourists as buyers "see" and "feel" when the destination or its attractions come to mind as a place suited for the pursuit of leisure
Baloglu & McMleary (1999)	An attitudinal construct consisting of an individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings, and global impression about an object or destination
Calantone *et al.*(1989)	Perceptions of potential tourist destinations
Crompton (1979)	Sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has a destination
Dichter (1985)	Overall impression with some emotional content
Fridgen(1987)	A mental representation of an object, person, place, or event which is not physically before the observer.
Gartner (1989)	A complex combination of various products and associated attributes
Hunt (1975)	Perceptions held by potential visitors about an area
Kotler (1994)	Net result of a person's belief, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about a place or an object
Lawson & Baud-Bovy (1977)	An expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudice, imaginations and emotional thoughts an individual has of a specific object or place
Phelps (1986)	Perceptions or impressions of a place
Richardson & Crompton (1988)	Perceptions of vacation attributes
Stringer (1984)	A reflection or representation of sensory or conceptual information
Sussmann & Unel (1999)	The result of a person's beliefs, ideas, feeling, expectations or impressions about a tourist destination
Tapachai & Waryszak (2000)	A mental prototype
Um & Crompton (1999)	A holistic construct which is derived from attitudes toward a destination's perceived tourism attributes

As Echtner and Richie (1991) note, although many studies in the tourism field make frequent use of the term "destination image" a precise definition of it is often avoided. Many definitions used in image studies are quite vague and uncertain since perception, attitudes and image are sometimes used interchangeably (Sussmann & Unel, 1999). Therefore, in order to develop a multi-faceted definition of image, it is useful to understand how image is different from the terms, perception and attitude.

Most image research treats perception and image similarly because in everyday life

people rarely make a distinction between the two (Sussmann & Unel, 1999). However, in psychological studies image differs from perception in that image is the final outcome of the perceptual process. To make clearer the difference between perception and image, Tuan (1975) noted that perception is more directly related to the information in the environment: we see what is before us. Perception is not simply a mirror of the world but an active organising process. Indeed it is defined in full as the process by which an individual selects, organizes and interprets stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture (Schiffman *et al.*, 2001). Image, by way of contrast, is the sum of impressions, beliefs and feelings resulting from the process of perception (Fridgen, 1987). In other words, image is an outcome of perception which itself is a process of mental organisation.

In most image studies, the terms image and attitude are also used vaguely. Both terms can have either a negative or a positive direction and are partially linked through cognitive and affective components. According to Ryan (1991, p.149), attitude refers to a tendency to respond either positively or negatively to certain people, objects or situations, it is a readiness to respond in a predetermined manner to the object or situation. Attitude thus consists of three components:

- The cognitive component: what is or is thought to be true about a situation;
- The affective component: the emotional aspect of attitude; and
- The conative component: the predisposition to act upon the cognitive and affective component

Due to their similar characteristics images are sometimes considered to be attitudes. However, image is different from attitude. When image is considered the multi- sensory component mentioned previously should be emphasized. Due to its multi-sensory components, image should be seen as 'a rich mental picture.' That is, image consists of not only cognitive and affective components, which are related to attitude, but also

multi-sensory components.

2.3 Characteristics and Components of Destination Image

As explained above, image has been variously linked to attitude and perception. In this study, destination image is defined according to its main characteristics. Destination image refers to the following:

> "An individual's subjective beliefs, feelings and multi-sensory representations toward a tourist destination"

Each element of the description is explained.

A destination image is formed in an individual's mind.

An image is something an individual sees when the environment stimuli do not appear to justify it (Tuan, 1975). In other words, an image is something people see through their mental eyes. Thus, an image can be formed in the absence of actual experience with a destination. Pearce (1982) emphasised that individuals could have an image of a destination even if they had never visited it.

Both visitors and non-visitors have a destination image but their images might be different (Table 2.2). Potential visitors form a destination image through non-direct sources such as news reports, magazines, books, movies, travel brochures and the opinions of family or friends whereas, returning travellers have the destination images based on their actual experiences. As a result of visiting, stereotyped images are reduced and the destination images tend to be more realistic, complex and differentiated because ideas presented by actual experience are potentially more powerful than those presented by imagination. (Chon, 1991; Pearce, 1982a).

Table 2.2
Image Comparison between Pre-Travel and Post-Travel

Pre-travel	Post-travel
- simple images based on imagination	- complex images based on experience
- common stereotyped mental picture	- unique mental picture
idealistic	- realistic
- images through the sense of sight and sound	- images through the 5 senses (sight, sound, smell, touch, and taste)

Since there are changes in destination image before and after visitation, it is useful to separate the images of those individuals who have visited and those who have not. Many image studies in tourism have been conducted to examine whether tourists' post-travel images of a destination are different from pre-travellers' images. Most of them found that a destination image was modified and enhanced as a result of the travellers' actual visitation to that destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chon, 1991; Dann, 1996; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Hunt, 1975; Phelp, 1986).

Image is subjective.

Image is a subjective concept, the tourism destination itself is neither positive nor negative. Different people will have different images of the same product based on their needs, values, and personal experiences. The image is not merely a camera-like imprint of the destination, but an expression of appraisal, and therefore a purely subjective notion (Gunn, 1972). Mayo and Javis (1981) concluded that "no two people see a destination in exactly the same way" (p. 142).

Individuals imbue the stimuli with meaning through the cognition process. Individuals select what is thought to be important using past experiences and present beliefs. (Reed, 1996). Individuals select and pay attention to only certain stimuli in which they are interested and interpret them in their own way. For example, a person who is

interested in travelling to England is more likely to notice and to read carefully relevant travel advertising in newspapers or on TV than those who are not. Through the two set of filters, perception and cognition, a mental image is formed (Page, 1995). Therefore what an individual perceives is not a simple reflection of what is "really out there" (Haynes, 1981).

When people interpret the stimuli, they imbue it with not only denotative meaning, which is an explicit definition but also connotative meaning which is an emotional or personal definition. Dann (1996) interviewed over 500 tourists visiting the Carribbean island of Barbados during the winter season of 1989 to identify tourists' image of the destination. Interviewees were shown some photographs and asked what the pictures meant to them. The study found that the interpretation of message could take place at the literal (denotative) and symbolic (connotative) level. A picture of a Rastafarian, for example, was interpreted by some respondents at a literal level, 'a man with long hair.' However most respondents interpreted the photo with connotative meanings such as 'a wild man' 'savage' 'looks like a beach bum' 'a radical' 'black consciousness' 'happy' 'religious' 'liberal minded' and 'freedom oriented.'

Interpretation of the phenomena depends entirely on the values and beliefs of the individual who perceives the phenomena, so people sometimes have positive, sometimes negative and sometimes ambivalent feelings toward the same environmental feature as their values and knowledge change (Haynes, 1981). For example, most people today who live in an industrial society have positive images of nature such as "beautiful, peaceful, inspiring, healthy and precious" while, they have some negative images of the city including "polluted and dangerous." However, for ancient people who had little knowledge of nature, forests and mountains were something of which they were afraid. Ancient people perceived nature as dangerous,

uncontrolled and useless and they considered the city to be progressive, productive and inspiring (Gold, 1980).

Image consists of not only cognitive but also affective components.

Raw sensory input by itself does not produce or explain the picture or the world that an individual possesses (Wilkie, 1994) and it is interpreted by two components of image – cognitive and affective. Most image studies agree that image is a perceptual phenomenon formed through an individual's reasoned and emotional interpretation, and it has both cognitive and affective components (Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990). People develop affective appraisals and cognitive evaluation before entering the destination, while at the destination and after leaving the destination.

The cognitive component represents one's awareness of any knowledge and belief about an object and an individual has one or more beliefs about a destination. For example, a person may have a number of beliefs about Australia as a tourist destination. The person believes that Australians are friendly, that Australia has natural beauty and that it is safe enough for travel. Each of these beliefs reflects knowledge about an attribute of Australia. The total configuration of beliefs represents the cognitive component of an image towards Australia. The cognitive images toward Australia need not be correct or true because the beliefs about the attributes are not based on ultimate truth but are subjective appraisals (Neal *et al.*, 1999).

Research suggests that some important beliefs about a destination dominate in the formation of attitudes and that the salient beliefs create a person's image toward the destination (Engle *et al.*, 1995). According to the theory of Gestalt psychology, people have a tendency to organize their perceptions into figure and ground relationships. The figure is usually perceived clearly because, in contrast to its ground, it appears to be well defined, solid and in the forefront. In contrast, ground appears to be subordinate

and therefore less important (Schiffman *et al.*, 2001). Knowledge and previous experience affect which stimuli are perceived as figure and which as ground. For instance, some people who have little knowledge and interests in a destination might have few salient beliefs, while some others who have visited the destination may have many salient beliefs. Researchers can assist tourism marketers by assisting in the identification of the existing beliefs and affective images that dominate the travellers' views of the destination.

Affective components are the appraisive images and emotional responses concerned with feeling and meaning attached to a destination (Pocock & Hudson, 1978, p. 30). In other words, the affective component reflects an individual's general feelings or emotions toward places. For instance, statements such as "I love Opera House," "I hate Australia," "I feel very peaceful whenever I go to the beach," reflect the emotional character of attitude. The way an individual feels about an object is usually tied to the person's beliefs (Neal et al., 1999). For example, if someone says, "I like Paris because I believe it's a very romantic place." The cognitive image, "Paris is a romantic place," leads to the positive affective image, "I like Paris." There is however considerable ongoing debate concerning whether affect leads to or is dependent on cognition. There may well be sets of circumstances where each system precedes and influences the other (Bagozzi *et al.*, 2002).

Russell and his colleagues (Russell, 1980; Russell *et al.*, 1989) proposed a structure that can represent a wide variety of affective responses to physical environments. They argued that people develop affective response to a place before entering the environment, while in the environment, and after leaving the environment. Russell and Pratt (1980) investigated 323 diverse environments that are directly perceivable such as a nightclub, a bathroom, an airport and a nude beach and developed a scale that measures the affective quality attributed to close and remote places.

Through their research, they demonstrated that the affective qualities of a place are captured by two-dimensional bipolar space that can be defined by eight variables falling in a circumplex. As can be seen in Figure 2.1, the proposed geometrical bipolar space identifies eight terms placed approximately 45° apart. The authors concluded that two orthogonal bipolar dimensions of pleasant-unpleasant and arousing-sleepy are theoretically needed to adequately represent the affective images. For example, exciting is a combination of pleasant and arousing, gloomy is a combination of unpleasant and sleepy, and so on. However they suggested that the reliability of environmental perception can be increased by using all four scales.

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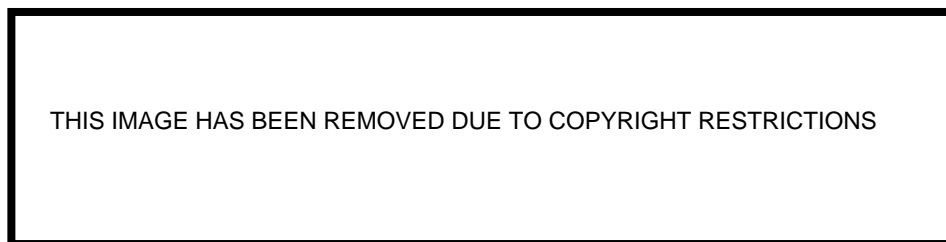
Figure 2.1 The Circumplex Model of the Affective Images
Source: Russell & Pratt, (1980, p.313)

In tourism research, Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) used the repertory grid technique to study the affective images of the north coast of New South Wales and confirmed Russell and his colleagues' model. The results indicated that the proposed affective model can be used by tourist destinations as a positioning tool, as the affective images of tourism destination countries varied across both positive (arousing, exciting,

pleasant and relaxing) and negative dimensions (sleepy, gloomy, unpleasant and distressing)

Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) also examined affective images of Mediterranean tourism destination countries by using the circumplex model of affect. The purpose of the study was to investigate whether Russell and his colleagues' proposed affective space structure is applicable to environments that are not perceived directly and to explore the usefulness of this approach in studying affective images of tourist destinations. For this study a convenience sample of 60 undergraduate students was used. Respondents were asked to evaluate 11 Mediterranean countries as a tourism destination on a 7 point bipolar scale. The result found that most European Mediterranean destinations such as Spain, Italy, France and Greece fell between the exciting and pleasant dimensions. Portugal, on the other hand, was perceived somewhere between the relaxing and sleepy dimensions. Turkey, Israel and Algeria are perceived as unpleasant and distressing destinations. The study confirmed Walmsley and Jenkin's earlier work that the Russell *et al.* affective image structure can be applied to tourism destinations and it can also be used as a positioning structure to study affective images of tourism destinations.

The distinction and the direction of the relationship between cognitive and affective components has been emphasized in tourism decision-making models (Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). In the models, tourists form their feelings (affective image) as a function of beliefs (cognitive image). The cognitive component and affective components of image are distinct, but these two components are sequentially related in the sense that affective evaluation depends on cognitive evaluation of objects (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Russell & Pratt, 1980; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). In everyday life, imagery processing might be holistic or gestalt, so the components may not be separated unless people are questioned in that way

(Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997), but from a theoretical standpoint; the separate treatment of cognitive and affective responses provides a better representation of the image structure and prediction of behaviour (Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1985). Even though questions have been raised about the inevitability of a cognitive component leading to affective dimensions, the values of collecting both kinds of information appears to be warranted (Bagozzi *et al.*, 2002).

Image refers to a reflection or representation of multi-sensory inputs

Imagery processing depends on more holistic impressions including all of the senses – smell, taste, sight, sound and touch, rather than collections of attributes. Image sources are largely dependent on the senses and an individual's experience consists of nothing but the information of senses. When people learn a new environment, visual information is predominant but the quality of distinctiveness is not solely the result of the way the environment looks. Some areas of cities are memorable because of distinctive sounds or smells they emit (Downs & Stea, 1977) and for some people, sounds and smells play an important role in the image of a place. For example, the blind from birth are able to locate objects and rooms in their own homes. On the basis of auditory, tactile and motor cues, blind people develop images of a place with a reasonable degree of accuracy (Pocock & Hudson, 1978).

Auditory senses can be important in giving individuals qualitative information about people and things in the environment. For example, in the study of auditory image, Southworth (1969 cited in Saarinen, 1976) conducted a study of the Boston soundscape and investigated the uniqueness of local sounds in particular settings and the degree to which the place's activity and spatial form were communicated by sounds. The research took blindfolded subjects on wheelchair trips through the city at different times of the day and week and under varied weather conditions. In an effort to test the interactions between seeing and hearing, he took unfamiliar trios on the same

trip. Each trio consisted of a strictly auditory subject (blindfolded), a visual subject (who wore earplugs and earmuffs) and a visual-auditory subject with normal hearing and seeing. The trip took about one hour, and throughout its duration the subjects were asked spontaneously to draw maps of the trip as they remembered it and to recall and describe their most memorable as well as their least liked settings. The result indicated that people perceived many different sounds such as the sounds of cars, people, music, and police whistles. The researcher suggested that unpleasant sounds should be reduced to improve the image of a city.

The olfactory sense can also provide considerable enrichment of an individual's sense of space and the character of place (Porteous, 1985). One interesting study was conducted by Sommer (1978) to examine whether people have mental "smell" maps. The respondents were asked to construct smell maps of the seventy-five mile journey between Sacramento and San Francisco in USA, and the study found that the smell map differed significantly from the visual map. As can be seen in figure 2.2, the respondents perceived the aroma of wood chips, hay and rotting tomatoes in the Sacramento area while, the odours from the refineries were perceived near San Francisco.

Figure 2.2 An Olfactory Map of Interstate 80 Between Scramento and San Francisco
(Source: Sommer, 1978, p. 178)

Classen and her colleagues(1994) also emphasised how much odours affected individuals on a physical, psychological and social level and stressed the meaning and power of smell by citing one paragraph written by one man who lost his sense of smell due to a head injury.

When I lost (my sense of smell) – it was like being struck blind. Life lost a good deal of its savour – one doesn't realize how much savour is smell. You smell people, you smell books, you smell the city, you smell the spring –maybe not consciously, but as a rich unconscious background to everything else. My whole world was suddenly radically poorer. (Sacks, 1987p. 159, Cited in Classen *et al.*).

Dann and Jacobsen (2002) emphasized the importance of the olfactory sense in tourists' experience. The smell of a certain object often reminds some people of a specific destination where they have traveled before. Certain smells which may not be ordinarily noticed by local people could be a strong emotional experience for visitors. Travellers often remember rich olfactory images of the places visited for the first time. These smell memories can be held passionately either positively or negatively, and can derive from particular experiences with the local cuisine, hygiene, flowers, fruits and even the climate. It is notable here that much of the early work on destination image has focused the city to be a useful scale at which to analyse the processes and understand people's responses. The opportunity to study international students' responses to the cities in which they study English exists and represents a continuing in relating the present work to existing traditions in this field.

2.4 The Process of Destination Image Formation

Understanding how destination images are formed can assist destination promoters in developing appropriate destination images for selected target markets. As competition increases, and more destinations promote their destination attributes, destination image becomes increasingly important (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). It is needed to develop guidelines for selecting an appropriate image formation mix for a particular

destination since destination promoters without an image formation strategy will find it difficult to maintain, increase, or develop their unique share of the tourism market (Gartner, 1993).

The formation of image has been described by numerous researchers (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1993; Gunn, 1972). Gunn (1972), one of the first researchers who identified the different ways in which destination images are formed, explained the formation and modification of images through the seven steps of the travel behaviour process as follows:

1.Accumulation of mental images about vacation experiences---Organic image;

2. Modification of those images by further information----- Induced image;

3. Decision to take a vacation trip;

4. Travel to the destination;

5. Participation at the destination;

6. Return home; and

7. Modification of image based on the vacation experience.

According to Gunn (1972), in phase 1, organic images are formed from the accumulation of information through various sources such as newspaper reports, magazines, books, movies and opinions of family/friends which are nor directly associated with destination marketing. In phase 2, the organic images are modified by further information called induced images. Induced images are formed by the marketing efforts of the tourism industry including advertisements, travel posters and brochures. Based on organic and induced images, a destination is selected in phase 3. In this stage, the destination image is constructed in a potential tourists' mind according to his or her needs, motivations, cultural background, preferences, prior experiences and other personal characteristics.

As a result of actually visiting the destination, more complex images are formed in phase 7. While in phases 1 and 2, destination images are formed based on secondary sources of information, in phase 7, actual experience is used to modify the destination image. In the final phase, the organic and induced images of destination are modified and the images tend to be more realistic, complex, and differentiated (Pearce, 1982a).

Gartner (1993) is another researcher who has focused on the information sources contributing to destination image formation. He identified into eight image formation agents which affect the development of destination image; namely, overt induced I, overt induced II, covert induced I, covert induced II, autonomous, unsolicited organic, solicited organic, and organic and he proposed that these image formation agents serve different roles and achieve different result.

The first agent is labeled Overt Induced I, which consists of traditional forms of advertising through television, radio, and brochures. Research has been conducted to investigate appropriate and effective advertising channels for a selected target market. Bojanic (1991) examined travellers' attitudes toward a country in Southern Europe, based on the amount of advertising to which they have been exposed. The purpose of the study was to determine if advertising can be used to improve the favourableness of travellers' image toward a country in Southern Europe. The results indicated that advertising is successful in changing people's image of a country, and effective in creating interest. The actual media that were most successful in reaching the target market were newspapers and magazines. Overt induced II includes information by tour operators, wholesalers, travel agents.   Unlike Overt Induced I, these information sources do not have a particular association with the destination.

The third image formation agent is covert induced I. The images are supported and

recommended by known celebrities such as television or movie stars, sports players, politicians and business leaders. Celebrity sources can enhance image change for a reason that celebrities attract more attention to the advertisement than would non-celebrities (Atkin & Block, 1983). Covert induced 2 agents include travel reports, stories, and articles produced by an impartial source. Since the information is transported through travel writers, reporters and special interest media group, people are not aware that the promoters of destinations are involved in the advertising.

Autonomous image formation agents consist of movies, news articles and documentaries. One of the most common autonomous image formation agents is news reporting. It is assumed that news reporting has significant impact on the image of a certain destinations due to its impartial nature. Depending on the magnitude of the event and its media coverage, the effect of autonomous image formation agents is much more immediate than other image formation agents (Gartner & Shen, 1992).

News reports depicting unstable political and economic situations can shape negative images of the country for potential tourists. Gartner and Shen (1992) studied tourism image change for the People's Republic of China resulting from media coverage of the Tiananmen Square conflict. The purpose of the study was to compare China's touristic image held by American tourists before and after Tiananmen Square. A comparison of 500 mature travelers in the United State with an interest in travelling to China was selected for each study (pre-Tiananmen Square and post-Tiananmen Square) and they were asked to rate the five major tourism resource categories; natural resources, historical, cultural, people and man-made and the quality of service. The results found that the Tiananmen Square conflict had a negative impact on the images of safety, security and the hospitality of the local people.

Another autonomous image formation agent can be popular culture. Popular culture in

the form of non-news television programs such as documentaries and sitcoms play an important image formation role. Through movies, people are induced to visit what they have seen on the screen. Riley and his colleagues (Riley *et al.*, 1998) investigated the relationship between movies and tourism industry and found that after the movies such as *The Last of the Mohicans*, *A River Runs Through IT, Crocodile Dundee* and *Dances with Wolves* were released, in the following year the annual attendance at the locations where the movie was filmed increased. The research concluded that movies could be an effective image formation source to attract potential visitors.

Unsolicited organic image formation agent is 'unrequested information received from individuals who have been to an area, or believe they know what exists there.' (Gartner, 1993, p. 203). Information about various destinations can be received in everyday life. For example, conversation about a specific place at dinner with friends or during business meetings may become an important image formation source to a person who has not developed a destination image based on previous exposure to Induced or Autonomous image formation agents.

Solicited Organic image information called 'word of mouth advertising' is formed by friends or family members. Several studies show that word of mouth is the most important source of gathering information and has a great impact on destination image. In a study of the use and evaluation of information sources by tourists, Nolan (1976) found that travel advice of friends and relatives proved to be the most frequent source. According to Jenkins' study (1982), word of mouth information is one of the most reliable sources of information for destination selection since people want to hear from others who have visited that particular destination when choosing a holiday. Capella and Greco (1987) also found that people over 60 years of age were more inclined to rely on solicited organic image formation agents than younger people as this group's destination selection was greatly influenced by family and friends.

Finally, organic formation consists of information acquired about a destination based on previous travel to the area. Since organic image formation is based on personal experience it has the highest credibility. Due to the stability of the image it is difficult to alter an image once it is formed in a person's mind (Schiffman *et al*., 2001). Especially once an organic image is conveyed and remembered, the image cannot be changed easily. Thus, as Gartner (1993) argued, a long-term marketing strategy is needed to build on positive organic images and improve negative images held by potential visitors.

The focus of the present research is on assessing destination images of Australia derived from the "organic" source of information. The studies will be concerned with students' images while in Australia and this can be viewed as built on other prior sources of information but stable and credible views due to the direct experience.

2.5 Factors Influencing Destination Images

The understanding of image variations related to socio-demographic variables and trip characteristics can be helpful in targeting specific groups, and especially for delivering appropriate promotional messages, or improving and correcting particular traveller groups' negative images. Numerous researchers have emphasized the importance of understanding the variables which influence image development (Baloglu, 1997). It is suggested that image is influenced by two major variables: stimulus factors such as the characteristics of the physical object and personal factors including values, motivations, past experience, personality and socio-demographic variables (Friedmann, 1986; Moutinho, 1987). A number of studies have analyzed pre and post visitors' image of a tourist destination and several factors have been found to identify why visitors perceive the destination that they visit differently (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3
Key Findings from Previous Destination Image Studies

Influencing Factor	Study	Key conclusions
Previous visitation or Familiarity with destination image	Ahmed (1991)	People who have travelled to a destination held significantly different views of the image components from those who have not.
	Andreu *et al.*(2000)	There were moderate differences between those who had been to Spain and those who had not in judgement of destination attributes.
	Baloglu & McCleary (1999)	Significant differences existed in images of four Mediterranean destinations between visitors and non-visitors.
	Chon (1991)	As a result of the traveller's visit to that destination, significant destination image modifications occurred.
	Crompton (1979)	The greater gap between pre and post images, the less the likelihood that an individual will opt to visit the destination.
	Dann (1996)	There were differences between pre-visitor and post visitors in terms of interpretation of the destination of image.
	Fakeye & Crompton (1991)	There were image differences between prospective, first-time and repeat visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley.
	Fridgen (1987)	Familiarity with the state of Michigan was an important factor which related to how travellers perceive the state.
	Hu & Ritchie (1993)	Post-visitors had more positive impressions about destination they had visited than pre-visitors who had not visited.
	Milman & Pizam (1995)	Those who were familiar with Central Florida had a more positive image of the destination than those who were not.
	Pearce (1982)	As a result of the visit, tourists' image toward Greece and Morocco changed.
	Phelps (1986)	Actual experience of the place influenced visitors' images of Menorca.
	Ross (1991)	Actual experience of a destination influenced the image of the destination held by the visitor.
Tourist's geographical location	Ahmed (1991)	The region of primary residence affected destination image.
	Crompton (1979)	Tourist geographical location was not a significant factor influencing a destination image.
	Fakeye & Crompton (1991)	Tourist's geographical location impacted on destination image.

Table 2. 3 (continued)

Influencing Factor	Study	Key conclusions
Tourist's geographical location	Hunt (1975)	Visitors' perception of a destination was different depending on different regional markets.
	Scott *et al.* (1978)	In term of evaluation of Massachusetts as a tourist destination, there was a significant difference between tourists living 200 miles or less from Massachusetts and those living farther away.
Socio-demographic	Baloglu & McCleary (1999)	Cognitive evaluations were impacted negatively by increasing levels of age and education.
	Fakeye & Crompton (1991)	Significant differences existed based on socio-demographics such as age and marital status.
	Fridgen (1987)	Age, income and occupation had influence in the formation of image destination.
	Pearce (1977)	There was no significant difference between male and female tourists in their sketch maps of the city of Oxford.
	Walmsley & Jenkins (1992)	In the case of sex and age, there were no clear patterns in the sketch maps drawn by visitors to Coffs Harbour.
Information sources	Baloglu (1997)	Those who used printed media had a more positive image of the USA than those who sought professional advice from travel agents.
	Baloglu (2000)	Different types of information sources had varying effects on cognitive evaluations.
	Court & Lupton (1997)	Travellers' exposure to tourism information significantly influenced their intention to visit a destination.
	Um & Crompton (1990)	The cognitive evaluation of destination attributes was formed by various sources of information.
	Woodside & Lysonski (1989)	Information sources had an impact on not only the affective component of image but on cognitive evaluations of tourist destinations.
Length of stay	Fakeye & Crompton (1991)	Those who stayed longer in the destination area established more realistic perceptions than those who stayed for shorter periods.
	Guy *et al* . (1990)	There was a positive relationship between the length of stay and number of map items and name identification.
	Pearce (1977)	Comparing to two-day tourist in Oxford, six-day tourists drew more paths and landmarks on their sketch maps.
	Walmsley & Jenkins (1992)	Cognitive maps were influenced by the length of time that visitors spend in the destination.
Motivation	Crompton *et al* (1992)	Based on push and pull benefits sought by travellers, destination images changed.
	Woodside & Lysonski (1989)	Travel motivation was a major factor influencing destination awareness and cognitive evaluation.

Table 2.3 (continued)

Influencing Factor	Study	Key conclusions
Motivation	Stabler (1988)	Travel motivation such as escape, knowledge, and social contact influenced the formation of a destination image.
Cultural background	Mayo & Jarvis (1981)	Vacation attributes were perceived differently by members of different cultural groups.
	MacKay & Fesenmaier (1997)	People interpreted and evaluated a destination image differently depending on their cultural background.
	Richardson & Crompton (1988)	There were differences between French and English Canadians in their perceptions of vacation attributes.

2.5.1 Previous Experience

One of the most important factors influencing destination image is previous experience. Actual experiences at the destination have an impact on destination image and the evaluation of future re-visitation to the destination. If a person has visited Australia, then information about Australia will be related to his or her actual experience. If the person had a bad experience, he or she could perceive new information about Australia negatively because it may evoke memories of his or her negative experiences (Mill & Morrison, 1998). Actual visitation to a destination can also influence other destinations images which a person perceives to be similar to the primary destination. For example, a person may perceive Australia and New Zealand to be similar as vacation destinations and if he or she has a positive attitude toward Australia due to his or her visitation, he or she will perceive New Zealand slightly more positively.

Previous research found that people who had travelled to a tourist destination held significantly different views of many of the image components from non-visitors (Ahmed, 1991; Baloglu, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Crompton, 1979; Pearce, 1982a). Milman and Pizam (1995) examined visitors images of Central Florida using a sample of 750 adult U.S. residents who had taken a vacation outside their home state

within the two-year period prior to the day of the interview. A series of hypotheses were tested to analyze whether consumer awareness and familiarity with Central Florida as a vacation destination had an impact on the consumer's destination image. The findings indicated that familiar visitors had a more positive image and a more accurate perception of the destination than either respondents who were aware or those who were not aware of the destination.

Andreu, Bigne and Cooper (2000) also conducted a similar study which supported the previous work. In their study the target population for the sample was British tourists over 15 years of age who visited the Spanish Tourism Office in the United Kingdom between the 14th of April and the 14th of May in 1997. One hundred and twenty interviews were carried out during one month, by randomly selecting every tenth visitor to the office. Six categories of attributes - accessibility, natural resources, culture, night-life, safety and value for money - were tested using Chi-Square. The results of the tests indicated that there were significant differences between those who had been to Spain and those who had not in relation to their judgment of value for money and culture. However there was no significant difference between those who have been to Spain and whose who have not, in relation to natural resources, entertainment, security and accessibility.

2.5.2 Tourists' Geographical Location

Perception of distance influences three crucial tourism decisions: whether to go or stay, where to go and which route to take (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992). It seems that distance can be viewed either positively or negatively in terms of its effect on travel. In this sense, geographical area of residence can be an important factor which influences visitors' destination image. Previous research has supported the fact that people from different geographical areas have disparate images of a single destination (Crompton, 1979; Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Haahti, 1986).

One of the studies to investigate differences in response to state level images according to one's geographic region of residence was conducted by Ahmed (1991). In his study, six thousand questionnaires were sent to a random sample of households in the USA and a total of 1782 (30%) usable questionnaires were returned. In order to identify and explore the components of Utah's tourist image a factor analysis was performed on 22 bipolar adjective Likert type questions. The results indicated that there were significant differences based on the region of primary residence. It was found that for the overall image, respondents from middle regions such as Arizona and Colorado were most impressed with Utah, whereas respondents from Eastern regions including Conneticut and Pennsylvania were the least impressed.

2.5.3 Socio-demographics

Most image formation and destination selection models have incorporated socio-demographic variables as conventional consumer characteristics influencing perceptions of objects, projects, and destinations (Stabler, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski 1989). Various studies have been conducted to identify the relationship between destination images and socio-demographics such as age, gender, occupation, marital status and education.

Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) studied affective images of several resorts in the North Coast of New South Wales, Australia. A principal component analysis indicated that affective images of several resorts showed variations due to gender and age. Baloglu (1997) also examined image variations of the United States based on socio-demographic characteristics of West German tourists. The researcher found some image differences due to age, marital status, and occupation and concluded that age was the most significant socio-demographic variable. On the other hand, Stern and

Krakover (1993) investigated the effects of the education level of individuals on the relationship between cognitive, affective, and overall image and chose education level as one of the most important consumer characteristics.

2.5.4 Information Sources

Travellers' images of a tourist destination are influenced by sources of information used. Gartner (1993) suggested that different image formation agents would affect destination images differently. He noted that the type and amount of information sources received would particularly influence the formation of the cognitive component of image. Mansfeld (1992) also argued that since it is assumed that various information sources have a differential effect on tourists' images of destinations, it is important to understand their marginal contribution to the development of images.

Many image studies investigated the relationship between sources of information and image formation and found that information sources had an important effect on the cognitive component but not on the affective component of image (Baloglu, 1997; Holbrook, 1978; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). In Woodside and Lysonski's (1989) traveller destination-choice model, information sources are presented as a force which influences the formation of cognitive evaluations of tourism destinations. Similarly, Um and Crompton's (1990) cognitive model of pleasure travel destination choice posits that the cognitive evaluation of destination attributes is formed by external factors which include various information sources such as symbolic stimuli (promotional efforts of a destination through media) and social stimuli (friend's and relatives' recommendations).

Baloglu (2000) conducted a study based on a cognitive model of pleasure travel destination choice and supported the previous studies. In this research, the data were collected by a self-administered questionnaire which was mailed to respondents. The sample for the study consisted of adults derived from a list maintained by the Turkish

National Tourism Office in New York. The list consisted of 4600 potential tourists who requested information about Turkey but who had not been to Turkey at the time they requested information. A systematic random procedure was employed to draw a representative sample of 1530 from the population of 4600 by selecting every 3rd person. A total of 484 questionnaires were returned, representing a 31% response rate. Four information-source categories, professional advice, word-of-mouth, advertisement and non-tourist including books and movies were used to measure the importance of type of information in forming tourist destinations. Respondents were asked to rate each information category on a four-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all important) to 4 (very important). The results found that the variety of information sources used was an important predictor of cognitive image and different types of information sources had differential effects on cognitive evaluations of destinations. Word-of-mouth had an impact on the perception of the quality of experience such as personal safety and quality of infrastructure, while advertisements influenced the image of resource items such as unspoiled environment and good climate.

2.5.5 Length of Stay

Length of stay in a destination can be another influencing factor. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) conducted a study to investigate the impact of length of stay on destination image. To achieve the objectives, data were analyzed from a sample of 568 visitors to the lower Rio Grande Valley in Texas. Thirty-two attributes were identified through a literature search, tourism business experts and tourism professionals. The respondents were asked to rate the attributes on a seven-point scale. The results found that visitors who stayed longer in the destination area established more realistic perceptions than those who stayed for a shorter time period.

Several researchers have examined the length of stay on mental maps and found that

the length of time visitors spend at a destination influenced the nature of learning about the environment. Walmsley and Jenkins (1992) studied tourism sketch mapping of unfamiliar environments. In their study, all respondents were presented with a white sheet of paper measuring 21 x 21 cm on which they were asked to draw a map of Coffs Harbour in Australia. The results indicated that the number of landmarks, paths, and distinct places known to the individual tourists increased sharply for about 3 days. Landmarks are the most important feature in the first several days immediately after arrival and paths became more important than landmarks after about 3 days. The research found a tendency for maps to change from a spatial style characterized by the prominence of landmarks, and districts to a sequential style characterized by the prominence of paths.

2.5.6 Motivation

In the destination choice process, travel motivations are considered to be a major factor influencing the development of destination images (Stabler, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1990) since images of destinations are formed in relation to travel motivations in a conscious or unconscious way (Moutinho, 1987). Gartner (1993) suggested that an individual's affective image toward a destination is influenced by his or her motivations and more research would be necessary to examine the relationship between tourists' motivations and their affective images toward tourism destinations. Pearce (1988) also emphasized that the relationship between tourist motivation and destination image should be explored to better understand travellers' behaviour.

Several researchers argued that motivations are related to image and an individual's affective image toward a destination is influenced by his or her motivations (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Dann, 1996; Gartner, 1993). Fisher and Price (1991) examined the relationship between travel motivation and visitor's post-vacation attitudes. Data were obtained from a questionnaire distributed to passengers on their exit from the U.S.

customs area of a major airport. A total of 238 passengers were approached to complete a questionnaire and 96 usable questionnaires were returned. Five motivation variables including education, escape, coping, kinship, and new people were tested. The results found that educational motivation was positively related to post-travel attitude change.

2.5.7 Cultural Background

Depending on cultural proximity/distance, tourists may have both different expectations and attitudes regarding tourism services and service quality (Weiermair, 2000). Although few cross-cultural studies in image research have been conducted, cultural difference is likely to be an important factor influencing destination image (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000). According to Triandis (1972), people within a culture share common beliefs, attitudes, customs, meanings, and behaviour norms and the influence of these differential value structures is expressed through lifestyle, work, leisure and consumer behaviour patterns (Richardson & Crompton, 1988). Therefore, the ways people perceive a tourist destination is likely to be different depending on their cultural background (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000).

Richardson and Crompton (1988) conducted a study to identify the influence of cultural background upon perceptions of the vacation attributes of the USA and Canada. Data were collected through in-home personal interviews with members of a nationwide probability sample of 3873 people living in Canada. To compare the relative influences of culture, the sample was divided into English Canadians and French Canadians. The findings of the study indicated that vacation attributes were perceived differently by different cultural groups and suggested that French and English Canadians were likely to be responsive to different marketing strategies. Compared to English Canadians, French Canadians appeared to maintain more favourable perceptions of Canada in terms of winter outdoor activities, local celebrations, and vacation value.

Destination marketers and researchers both recognize the importance of determining factors that influence destination image (Chon, 1990; Hunt, 1975). As examined in this discussion, however, it is still difficult to arrive at unequivocal conclusions due to the diversity of research findings and samples. One resolution would appear to be a close examination of select markets, such as international students, to determine the role of variables including cultural background and motivation.

2.6 Measuring Destination Image

Numerous destination image studies have been conducted in the last two decades. There has been a strong preference for structured methods in researching destination image (Jenkins, 1999). Researchers using structured methods typically ask an individual to rate a set of the attribute components of destination image. The relevant scales usually include cultural and natural attractions, climate, accommodation and personal safety using standardised rating scales such as Likert and semantic differential response formats. Table 2.4 provides the summary of previous destination image studies using structured methods.

Table 2.4
Previous Destination Image Studies Using Structured Methods

Study	Destination	Sample Size	Number of attributes	Measurement Scale
Ahmed (1991)	The state of Utah, U. S.	6000 households in six regions of the USA	22 attributes	Bipolar adjective Likert scale
Andreu et al (2000)	Spain	120 British tourists	6 attributes	A 5 point scale
Baloglu (1997)	U. S.	1212 West German overseas visitors	27 attributes	A 5 point Likert scale
Baloglu (2001)	Turkey, Egypt, Greece, Italy	313 tour operators	14 attributes	A 5 point scale
Calantone et al (1989)	Singapore	365 vacationers at the international airport in Singapore	13 attributes	A 7 point Likert scale
Chaudhary (2000)	India	200 tourists in India	20 items	A 5 point Likert scale
Chon (1991)	Korea	444 American pre and post-travellers to South Korea	19 items	A 7 point Likert scale
Crompton (1979)	Mexico	617 students from 12 universities in U.S.	30 items	Semantic differential scale
Echtner & Ritche (1993)	Jamaica, Japan, Kenya and Switzerland	600 students	35 items	A 6 point Likert scale
Fakeye & Crompton (1991)	The Lower Rio Grade Valley Region of South Texas, U. S.	289 first time visitors 297 repeat visitors	33 items	A 7 point Likert scale
Gartner (1986)	Clorado, Montana, Utah and Wyoming in U.S.	3000 households	13 items	A 5 point scale

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Study	Destination	Sample Size	Number of attributes	Measurement Scale
Goodrich (1978a)	Florida, Claifornia, Mexico, Hawaii, the Bahama, Jamaica, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Island and Barbados	900 individuals who are a member of American Express international travelers in New York state in U. S.	10 items	A repertory grid analysis
Haahti (1986)	Finland	618 of summer vacationers in Finland	10 items	A 5 point scale
Hu & Ritchie (1993)	Hawaii, Australia, Greece, France, and China	400 individuals in a large metropolitan area in western Canada	16 items	A 5 point scale
Joppe *et al* (2001)	The city of Toronto in Canada	359 visitors to Toronto	15 items	A 7 point scale
Kozak & Rimmington (2000)	The city of Mallorca in Spain	250 tourists	38 attributes	A 3 point scale
McLellan & Foushee (1983)	U.S.	536 tour operators	12 items	A 5 point Likert scale
Milman & Pizam (1995)	The central Florida in U.S.	750 adults U.S. residents	14 items	A 5 point Likert scale
Pearce (1982)	Greece and Morocco	41 travelers to Morocco 31 travelers to Greece 25 control subjects	13 attributes	A 5 point semantic differential scale
Sussmann & Unel (1999)	Turkey	296 potential visitors who already booked to travel to Turkey	21 attributes	Not mentioned

Destination image studies in tourism research have relied heavily on the use of structured methods since they are easy to administer and to analyse using sophisticated statistical techniques (Jenkins, 1999). However structured methods have been criticised for not being able to capture the holistic and unique components of destination image from the visitors' point of view (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993).

To develop an appropriate method to capture all of the image components, Echtner and Ritchie (1991) conducted an experimental study. They examined the image of Jamaica, Japan, Kenya and Switzerland. The study was conducted using respondents who had not previously visited these destinations in order to ensure that the images measured in the survey were based solely on secondary sources of information and not on first hand experience. Both open-ended and structured methods were applied. It was found that the open-ended questions were successful in drawing out the holistic and unique components and the structured questions focused attention on the functional, common and attribute based components of each destination's image. The researchers concluded that in order to obtain all of the components associated with destination image, a combination of structured and unstructured methodologies should be utilized (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). Such advice will be followed on the present studies. Unstructured methods including free elicitation of descriptive adjectives and a sketch map as well as structured techniques such as semantic differential scales will be applied to measure the multi-faceted image components.

2.6.1 Free Elicitation of Descriptive Adjectives

This method, proposed by Reilly (1990), is based upon the respondent answering questions such as "What three words best describe Turkey as a destination for vacation or pleasure travel? Replies are coded into similar categories and the frequencies of the various types of responses are recorded. Reilly (1990) used Free Elicitation of Descriptive Adjectives to examine the image of the state of Montana and

listed the advantages of this method as follows:

* Data collection is simple and the technique can be used in mail, telephone, and interview surveys;
* Data analysis is much simpler with the free elicitation method;
* The image dimensions revealed are those that are salient to the respondent rather than those imposed by the researcher;
* Free elicitation provides a mechanism for determining when there is a lack of image by recording those instances where respondents are unable to provide a descriptor; and
* Free elicitation allows analysis of differences between segments of interest. (Reilly, 1990. p. 22)

Echtner and Ritchie (1993) also emphasized a socio-linguistic approach and noted that since almost all the previous studies have used structured methodologies to measure destination image, measuring unique and holistic components has been ignored. Echtner and Ritchie (1993) illustrated that a combination of structured and unstructured methodologies is necessary to accurately measure all image components held by tourists. In particular they developed open-ended questions. A series of open-ended questions was devised based upon similar questions used in previous image research. Further they were examined by a panel of expert judges in the areas of tourism, marketing and consumer behaviour. As a result of the judges' comments, 3 definitive questions were developed as below:

What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of XXX as a vacation destination?

How would you describe the atmosphere or mood that you would expect to experience while visiting XXX?

Please list any distinctive or unique tourist attractions that you can think of in XXX.

After the open-ended questions were developed, these three questions were applied in an empirical study.   To develop a standardized set of scales four distinctive destinations, Jamaica, Japan, Kenya and Switzerland, were selected and the questionnaire was administered to a total sample of 600 students.   The results indicated that the open-ended questions were an effective method in capturing the holistic and unique components of destination image. The responses to Question 1 provided distinctive functional impressions of each destination, whereas Question 2 was effective in capturing the atmosphere or mood of the place. Finally, Question 3 was appropriate to determine some of the attractions that respondents considered distinctive or unique to the destination.

2.6.2 Semantic Differential Scale

The semantic differential scale is a procedure developed by the psychologist Charles Osgood and his associates to measure the meaning of concepts (Osgood *et al.*, 1971). It is a good instrument for exploring the connotative meaning of things, which refers to the personal meaning of something (Sommer & Sommer, 1991).   In the research of Osgood *et al.* (1971), typically the respondents were asked to rate an object or concept along a series of scales with opposed adjectives at either end.   Three major categories of connotative meaning were found: value, activity and strength. Needless to say, the value dimensions are of greatest importance in evaluative research.   Activity and strength can be important dimensions in certain circumstances.   For example, a comparison of people's images of cities and small towns can find major differences on the activity and strength dimensions. People may perceive that cities are full of bustle, hurry, and activity, while in small towns the pace is slower, more relaxed and leisurely. Cities are also rated as larger, stronger and more powerful than small towns.

Lowenthal (1972 cited in Saarinen, 1976) investigated the images of a few American cities: New York, Boston, Columbus, Cambridge. The respondents were asked to record their general impressions and to make judgments about environmental conditions in terms of 25 attribute pairs selected as significant for comparing environmental responses (Table 2.5). The study found that each of the cities was perceived in unique and different ways. New York was described as high-class, fashionable, exciting, full of tourists, and dangerous, while Boston was seen as old, and quaint. Columbus and Cambridge were considered green, and neat, but also as run-down and messy cities.

Table 2.5
Environmental Attribute-pair Responded to in Urban Walks

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Source: Saarinen, 1979, p.133

In tourism research, appraisive images, evaluative and affective, have been most widely studied in relation to verbal descriptions of environmental quality where an individual is required to state an opinion of the destination he or she has visited (Walmsley & Lewis, 1993). To measure evaluative or cognitive components of destination image, both the semantic differential and Likert type scales have been

widely used. Most image studies, however, have focused solely on the evaluation of tourism products in a destination and more holistic impressions of a destination have been overlooked (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). In order to better understand tourists' destination image that tourists have in their mind, general impressions of the destination as well as tourism attributes should be investigated and the semantic differential technique can be a useful method to understand personal meanings of a destination that each individual has (Saarinen, 1976). The kinds of descriptions used in the semantic differential technique are provided in Table 2.5.

2.6.3 Sketch Map Technique

A mental map is an individual's knowledge of what is where in the environment (Pocock and Hudson, 1978). Understanding mental maps held by visitors is important. Mental maps can be used to identify desirable or undesirable locations and they also reveal differential travel patterns and experiences within an area (Sommer, 1978). In other words, mental maps are useful in predicting where people will want to go and what they will want to do when they get there. Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) argued that tourism and mental mapping are inseparable since investigating how well tourists know the areas that they visit, what roads and landmarks they come to know, which areas they want to visit and which areas they consider to be unpleasant is essential for better understanding of tourists' behaviour and perception.

Lynch's (1960) sketch mapping is the most well known method in environmental research to investigate mental map. Lynch (1960) claimed that each individual had a visual image of a city and the image gave the city identity, structure and meaning. He focused on the visual quality of American cities and interviewed a small number of residents of Boston, Jersey City and Los Angeles. In analyzing the maps, he was concerned with two desirable urban qualities: imageability, which is the ability of objects to evoke strong emotions and legibility, which refers to the pattern or organization of the

elements of the city that allows them to be seen as a coherent whole. Depending on these two qualities, some cities have a very obvious structure which is easy to learn, while others are more difficult places in which to find one's way around. Lynch (1960) assumed that a city with a clear, coherent image would be one that is a pleasure to live in and made his point by comparing Boston with Jersey City. Bostonians had no difficulty in recognising the various elements of the cityscape and organising them into a distinctive mental map. In contrast, the residents of Jersey City had nothing like a comprehensive view of their city.

In his study, residents were interviewed to determine the characteristics of the public image of the city and were asked to sketch a map of the city, provide detailed descriptions of a number of trips through the city, and list and briefly describe the parts they felt to be most distinctive. Using the data gathered in this way, he concluded that the image of the city consisted of several main elements: paths, edges, districts, nodes, and landmarks.

According to Lynch (1960), paths, which often serve as the basic element of a mental map, are represented by any channel of street movement and include highways, bus or train lines. They are the routes by which people move from one place to another. Nodes are the places perceived as foci such as significant road junctions, squares, or any distinctive point. A district is a region or section of the city that is recognized as having a common character. It may simply have a peculiar or unique flavor (Greenwich Village in New York), it may be ethnically distinctive (Chinatown) or it may be functionally distinctive (Wall Street in New York).

If districts are distinctively large physical regions that are memorable in certain ways, on a smaller scale a critical element in imageability involves a city's landmarks. These are specific and discrete physical objects such as buildings, monuments, or fountains

that are especially distinguishable or notable. Landmarks can be important tourist attractions and may themselves serve as an element that symbolizes a city as a whole such as the Eiffel Tower in Paris, the Empire State Building in New York, or the opera House in Sydney (MacCannell, 1976). Finally, edges are barriers or lines separating one region from another. They may be physical barriers separating districts or may act as something that psychologically makes two areas distinct.

In tourism research, some image studies using a sketch map have been conducted. Francescato and Mebane (1973) investigated the images of Milan and Rome, two popular tourist cities in Italy, using Lynch's sketch map to identify the differences in the composite images of Milan and Rome (Table 2.6). One hundred eighteen people were interviewed in Rome and Milan, divided approximately between middle-class and lower-class, native and nonnative, male and female, and 30 and under and over 30 years of age. The study found that Milan was perceived as a large, flat, industrial city with a uniform radial street pattern, whereas Rome was perceived as a cultural, administrative, and artistic city with highly irregular street patterns. Paths appeared more frequently in the Milan image and landmarks more frequently in Rome. No paths were among Rome's top ten elements, while in Milan, two made the list. Furthermore, all paths except one joined other paths in Milan, while all Roman paths were shown as unconnected.

Table 2.6
Visual Cognitive Schemata of Milan and Rome

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Source: Francescato & Mebane, 1973, p. 138.

The respondents were also asked the question "Close your eyes and think about Milan or Rome. What do you see?" Ninety one percent of the Milanese responses involved nonlocational components such as concepts of social dynamism or such phenomena as chaos, smog and crowding, while only 30 percent of the Roman responses were of a nonlocational nature. The Duomo was the only locational response listed by the Milanese, while the top seven responses of the Roman sample are specifically located landmarks or nodes. In the results of image differences based on gender, male and female groups displayed few image differences in both cities. Comparing the younger and older age groups, the 30 and under categories gave more importance to streets than landmarks, while parks, gardens and other landmarks were more important to older respondents.

Pearce (1977) also applied a sketch map in tourism studies. In his study of Oxford he was concerned with the different maps produced by male and female tourists, by respondents length of stay in the city (2/6days) and by accommodation location. The result showed that cognitive maps were quick to develop. Even by the second day in the city, subjects had basic cognitive maps in place. His study found no difference

between the maps drawn by males and females except for a tendency for females to report fewer paths. In terms of the length of stay, the results found that the six-day tourists drew more paths, more landmarks and more districts and than their two day counterparts and established that there was a positive relationship between environmental learning and length of stay.

Another cognitive mapping study using a sketch map in tourism research was conducted by Guy, Curtis and Crotts (1990). The purpose of the study was to identify the factors influencing the rate and degree of environmental learning of first-time travelers to an international destination. The researchers approached 47 tourists who had no previous knowledge of the town of Wurzburg in Germany and asked them to indicate major tourist sites, business and shopping districts and landmarks of interest including churches, museums, city buildings and universities. The maps were coded to reflect three dimensions - the number of items, all items listed coded for correct identification by name, and all items coded for correct function. The results indicated that after the first 10 days, tourists were able to place approximately 5 tourist sites on their maps, identifying over half of them correctly by name and almost all of them by function. The study concluded that increasing experience and exploration had a major impact on the degree of environmental learning.

A sketch map is useful in order to understand how tourists assimilate and find their way in new and unfamiliar locations (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992). However, there are some limitations to identifying all of the image components. First of all, it can never be sure whether the qualities of each map are correct representations of the individuals' mental image or whether they are the result of poor drawing skill. It is also hard to distinguish landmarks from nodes, because a building may be both a landmark by appearance and a node by function (Pocock & Hudson, 1978). A church, for instance, might be a landmark if it is used as a reference point in navigation, but it might be a node if it is

used as a meeting place for worship. A shopping center might change from being a landmark in the early days of acquaintance with a city and might become a node if it becomes a local point of the individual's day-to day life (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992).

Another limitation is that a sketch map can not guarantee an individual's mental map of a city because places only become significant when they are given meaning through a combination of usage, emotional attachment, and symbolism (Pocock & Hudson, 1978). Franscescato and Mebane (1973) argued that "On a sketch map, people can draw streets, nodes, districts, landmarks and edges but they cannot put down how they feel about a city, what they normally do in it, what they like, dislike or deem important" (p. 147).

Finally, Lynch's sketch map only emphasizes the visual aspects of image and other sensory aspects such as sound, and smell are excluded. Several researchers have indicated that when conducting mental mapping research, it is safer to include other data collection methods; for example, asking people how to get to places or to describe the noises, smells, visual appearance, activities and attractions of different locations (Haynes, 1980). Thus, a mixture of methods should be applied to capture the full richness of visitors' destination images.

2.7 Cross-Cultural Tourist-Host Contact

Several theories related to social contact between individuals from different cultural groups have been developed. One theory, which is related to the social contact between people from different cultures is the contact hypothesis (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). According to the contact hypothesis social contact between two different ethnic groups results in changing the attitudes and relations of the interacting members and in most cases cross-cultural contact produces positive impacts (Reisinger,1994). Numerous studies have identified benefits of cross-cultural contact. Social contact

between individuals from different cultural groups frequently results in mutual appreciation, understanding, respect, tolerance and liking (Bochner, 1982). It also helps to bridge gaps between people, develops positive attitudes and cross-cultural friendship (Fisher & Price, 1991), reduces ethnic prejudices, stereotypes and racial tension (Cohen, 1971; Pizam *et al.*, 1991) and contributes to cultural enrichment and learning about others (Li & Yu, 1974). It was suggested that the longer the social contact exists, the more positive attitudes become towards the host country (Reisinger & Turner, 1998)

The contact hypothesis can be applied in a tourism context. The contact between tourists and hosts from different cultures can create awareness of each other's group, give them an opportunity to learn about each other's culture and lead to enhancement of tourists' and hosts' attitudes toward each other (Bochner, 1982; Hofstede, 1997). Tourists-host cross-cultural contact results in a positive attitude change toward hosts (Pearce, 1982b). For instance, Israleli's negative pre-holiday attitudes toward Egyptians changed after visiting Egypt (Amir & Ben-Ari, 1985). Pizam *et al.*(2000), also found that the social interaction between hosts and working tourists yielded a high degree of satisfaction and a positive attitude towards the visited group.

However, cross-cultural contact between tourists and hosts does not always lead positive outcomes (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). It has been argued that the development of positive attitudes might not occur since the tourist-host contact is superficial (Hofstede, 1997). Pizam and his colleagues (1991) investigated whether a Soviet travel experience changed the negative ethnic attitudes of American students who visited the USSR. The results of the study indicated that the actual travel experience did not change American students' opinions and attitudes towards the USSR in a positive direction. There were only minor changes in a positive direction while majority of respondents' attitudes towards their hosts changed negatively.

It appears that when there are profound differences in cultural backgrounds, social contact between tourists and hosts may turn into a negative experience. It has been argued that cross-cultural contact between tourists and hosts can create communication problems and lead to tension, loss of emotional well-being, misunderstanding and negative stereotyping due to different value systems and social rules (Albers & James, 1983; Bochner, 1982; Cohen, 1982). The level of cross-cultural contact is influenced by the cultural background of tourists and hosts (Bochner & Coulon, 1997; Reisinger & Turner, 1997). When the cultural differences are small, people are not separated by cultural distance. However when the differences are large, people are separated by large cultural distance which may create cultural conflicts between host members and tourists. In tourism interpersonal relationships play an important role (Ross, 1991). Therefore the recognition of cultural differences between tourists' and hosts' backgrounds is important in minimizing the cultural conflicts and developing positive tourist-host contact (Reisinger & Turner, 2002). An implication of this work for a study of international students is to consider the diversity of the students' cultural backgrounds rather than assuming homogeneous contact experiences and outcomes.

2.8 Culture Shock

Studies of sojourners and their relatively short-term cross-cultural adaptation were stimulated by student exchange programs and by the Peace Corps movement in the 1960's (Kim, 1988). Extensive literature has described the problems of psychological well being in encountering unfamiliar situations during their sojourn overseas. From studies of the diverse groups of sojourners, a number of theoretical and research issues have emerged. One of the concepts most extensively discussed and investigated in the field of cross-cultural study is 'culture shock' (Kim, 1988).

The differences in cultural background of sojourners and hosts create a sense of culture shock. The inability to adjust to a new culture and new standards within a short period of time makes sojourners feel inadequate and hopeless. Although the concept of culture shock can be traced back to earlier research, the anthropologist Oberg is credited with first using the term 'culture shock'. Oberg (1960) defined culture shock as the 'anxiety that results from losing all of the familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse such as customs, gestures, facial expressions or words' (cited in Furnham, 1984, p. 44).

Oberg (1960) listed a number of different aspects of culture shock:

- Psychological strain due to the effort of adjustment and adaptation to a new culture;

- A sense of loss and feelings of deprivation regarding friends, social, and professional status;

- Feelings of rejection by members of the new culture;

- Confusion in role, values, feelings, and self-identity;

- Surprise, anxiety, even disgust after becoming aware of cultural differences; and

- Feelings of impotence due to not being able to cope with the new environment (cited in Bochner, 1982, p. 168)

Jandt (1998) identified two types of symptoms of culture shock. Physical symptoms include stress on health and safety, fear of physical contact with anyone in the new country, craving, and use of alcohol. Psychological symptoms include insomnia, fatigue, isolation, loneliness, disorientation, frustration, criticism of the new country, nervousness, self-doubt, irritability, depression, anger and emotional and intellectual withdrawal.

When experiencing a new culture an individual has to go through several stages of

culture shock (Ward *et al.*, 2001). Most adjustment stages have a similar pattern and are based on the U-curve hypothesis. The idea of the U-curve has been attributed to Lysgaard (1955, cited in Kim, 1988). He investigated over 200 Norwegian Fulbright scholars in the United States and concluded that sojourners go through three phases. There is a superficial adjustment associated with the excitement of a new experience. This is followed by a period of depression. The final stage is a more integrated adjustment into the new culture. The U-curve hypothesis was extended by Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963), who argued that once sojourners return to their home country, they often undergo a similar re-acculturation process. Thus, they suggested the W-curve hypothesis of adjustment referring to the honeymoon stage, hostility stage, humour stage, at home stage, reverse culture shock stage, and readjustment stage.

Several researchers have described stages of adjustment that sojourners go through in the host culture or on return to the home culture (Church, 1982). Oberg (1960 cited in Furnham & Bochner, 1986) listed four stages of shock:

1) Honeymoon stage – An initial reaction of enchantment, fascination, enthusiasm, admiration and cordial, friendly, superficial relationships with hosts;

2) Crisis stage – initial differences in language, concepts, values, familiar signs and symbols leading to a feeling of inadequacy, frustration, anxiety and anger;

3) Recovery stage – The crisis is resolved by a number of methods such as the person learning the language and culture of the host country; and

4) Adjustment stage – The sojourner begins to work in and enjoy the new culture, although there may be occasional instances of anxiety and strain (Furnham & Bochner, 1986, p. 131).

Some other researchers also described similar adjustment stages indicating the patterns of change in satisfaction over time while living in the host society. For instance, Adler (1975) proposed five stages in the development of culture shock: 1)

contact with excitement and euphoria, 2) disintegration with tension, confusion, and depression, 3) reintegration with strong rejection of the host culture, 4) autonomy with decreased sensitivity to and skill at dealing with host nationals and finally 5) independence with an understanding of the host culture.

Hofstede (1997) also presented an acculturation curve of changes in sojourner's feelings over time. In a short phase 1, 'euphoria', individuals experience the excitement of travelling to and seeing new places. In the longer phase 2 individuals experience the different way of living and customs in the new environment. In the longest phase 3, acculturation the individuals learn about local customs and values, become more confident to function in a new cultural environment and develop social relationships. In phase 4 called the stable state, the individuals reach psychological stability. During the adjustment period of time, Hofstede (1997) argued that, sojourners may either: a) maintain negative attitudes towards a foreign environment and continue feeling isolated; b) adjust to a new environment, feel the same as at home and become biculturally adapted; or c) develop more positive attitudes towards a foreign than home environment and behave like natives.

Many tourists, as one type of sojourner, experience culture shock when they travel to a foreign culture. The same behaviour may be considered appropriate in one culture but inappropriate in another culture. There are many situations that are confusing. For instance, tourists often do not know what is appropriate to say in conversation, even how to greet others or what is suitable way to eat in a foreign culture. When the degree of cultural differences between the host and tourist culture is large individuals may experience more culture shock and it may cause a negative attitude towards the host culture and the feeling of frustration to the tourists.

Although culture shock is a distressing experience resulting from the failure to adapt or

adjust to a new culture it can be a very useful learning experience. Unlike Oberg (1960) who considered culture shock as a disease producing mental or physical disintegration, some researchers have viewed it as a challenge to personality and identity, and a natural outcome of contact with a new culture. According to Adler (1975), who construed the cultural-adaptation process as a powerful developmental experience, culture shock provides the impetus necessary to open the way to personality development and personal growth. Verthelyi (1995) also argued that culture shock should be seen as 'a normal process in situations of learning new cultural and social knowledge, providing an opportunity for growth' (p.388). Through the adaptation process, individuals can gain better understanding about cultural relativism and become aware of cultural differences so that they can prepare better for their next sojourning experience (Rogers & Steinfatt, 1999). Consequently, culture shock should not be viewed as simply a frustration reaction syndrome but should be seen as a learning process of cross-cultural adaptation.

2.9 Important Variables in Sojourner Adaptation

People differ widely in their reaction to places that they visit. Whereas some are enchanted and delighted by a new setting, others are bewildered, tense and unhappy. How individuals adjust to new cultural environments has been an important topic of research for almost 50 years and there has been a considerable effort in the sojourner-adjustment literature to specify those variables which discriminate between satisfactory and unsatisfactory adjustment to a new culture (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Searle, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1999). Previous literature has identified a number of sojourn variables and they can be classified into two broad categories: individual differences such as age, gender, education level and travel experience and cultural differences. (Bochner, 1982).

Large individual differences based on age, gender, and educational level exist in the

ability of people to cope with new environments. In particular several studies have found that gender has an influence on adjustment and satisfaction with the sojourn experience (Kim, 1988). According to Rohlich and Martin's study (1991), international female students had more concerns about housing, climate, health, homesickness and making friends. Female students were also more insecure about their academic success and self-efficacy (Manese *et al.*, 1988) and had more difficulties at reentry than their male counterparts (Brabandt *et al.,* 1990). However, Baty and Dold (1977) found that American college women had an easier time than males adjusting to cross-cultural living situations. Due to the lack of consistency in previous research, careful studies of gender difference in sojourn adjustment are needed.

Prior intercultural experience or prior transitional experience might be another important variable in sojourner adaptation (Kim, 1988). For example, Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963, cited in Kim, 1988) reported that in their study of overseas exchange students, younger sojourners who had never experienced overseas travel had more difficulty adjusting to the host culture. In Kealey's (1989) study, those with more travel experience reported greater ease of adjustment and higher levels of satisfaction.

Cultural distance has been regarded as one of the most important factors in adjustment to cultural change. Moving into an unfamiliar culture requires learning new strategies to negotiate a different set of problems encountered in day to day interactions with members of the new society (Wong-Rieger, 1984). In terms of a social learning model, individuals who are more culturally distant are likely to have fewer culturally appropriate skills for negotiating everyday situations so they have more difficulties in adapting themselves into a host culture (Furnham & Bochner, 1982).

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between the level of sojourners' adaptation and cultural distance. For example, Babiker *et al* (1980 cited

in Ward & Kennedy, 1994) developed an instrument designed to measure the difference between two cultures and demonstrated that cultural distance was related to mental health. Furnham and Bochner (1982) also investigated the relationship between cultural distance and social skills in foreign students by classifying countries of origins into three groups according to similarities in religion, language, and climate. Their results indicated that cultural distance was related to abilities to negotiate social encounters in a new culture.

2.10 Cultural Difference in Social Interaction

Cultural differences have been defined as the differences between groups of people who do things differently and perceive the world differently (Reisinger & Turner, 1998). When interacting in another culture, these people are likely to observe unfamiliar behaviours and to be challenged by new ideas. In turn, people's unfamiliarity leads to discomfort since they do not know how to engage in behaviours that are acceptable to others in the host culture (Ward *et al*., 2001). There is, thus, always an opportunity for misunderstanding and interaction difficulties when there is a meeting of cultures that differ in interpersonal conduct (Pearce, 1982b).

Culture can be defined as "an accumulated pattern of values, beliefs and behaviours shared by an identifiable group of people with a common history and a verbal and nonverbal symbol system" (Neuliep, 2000, p.15).

Triandis (1977) identified the distinction between objective and subjective culture. The term objective culture refers to the visible, tangible aspects of culture such as the artefacts people make, the food they eat, the clothing they wear, and even the name they give to things. It is relatively easy to pick up and analyze the cues and meanings of objective elements of culture. Subjective culture, on the other hand, refers to psychological components. People's values, attitudes, norms of behaviour, and social

rules fall into this category. Since subjective culture is invisible and less tangible it is much more difficult for people to observe and understand what is going on in the setting of cross-cultural encounters.

Reisinger and Turner (2002) also argued that cross-cultural misunderstandings and conflict between tourists and hosts were related to subjective culture including different cultural values, social rules and perceptions. They developed a model or the conceptual framework explaining the relationships between subjective cultures and social interaction (Figure 2.3).

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Figure 2.3 The Conceptual Framework of Relationships between Subjective Cultures and Cross-cultural Interaction (Source: Reisinger & Turner, 2002, p.375)

As can be seen in Figure 2.3, cultural values determine rules of social behaviours and both cultural values and social rules influence people's perception of each other. Social interaction and the degree of dis/satisfaction are influenced by the cultural differences in all these three concepts, values, rules of behaviours and perceptions.

Values are the core of culture in that they provide a set of rules for behaviour and are

standards of conduct and decisions making (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). According to Rokeach (1979) values are 'beliefs about desirable goals and modes of conduct' (p. 41). He also stressed that the desirable modes of conduct are abstract ideals which represent ideal states of existence such as loyalty, respect, happiness, freedom, equality, security, sincerity and justice. Values are socially shared and people judge what is good and bad, right and wrong and true and false based on the shared values in their society (Rokeach, 1973).

Social rules are another important concept influencing individuals' behaviour. Rules guide and direct how people ought or ought not to behave and what actions are appropriate or inappropriate in social interaction (Triandis, 1994). They also define the responsibilities and obligations within a given social relationship (Kim, 1988). Although there are rules of behaviour that are universal, there are many rules that vary according to dominant culture. For instance, different cultures have different rules of eating and drinking across the cultures. There are different rules about what may not be eaten or drunk, how the eating is performed - knife and fork, chopsticks, or hands - when to start to eating, how to obtain or refuse food offered by a host (Irwin, 1996).

The pattern of social relationships also takes a somewhat different form in different cultures and different skills are needed to handle these relationships. Some cultures have clearer rules about obedience to and respect for seniority and more obligations to family members than other cultures. Since the rules that are socially accepted in one culture may have different meaning in another members of different cultures may misunderstand and misinterpret the rules of other cultures and it may cause difficulties interacting with those from different cultures (Triandis, 1977).

The concept of perception is also important for social interaction because the way people perceive each other determines the way they interact with each other (Cook,

1979 cited in Resinger & Turner, 2003). How people perceive the world is strongly influenced by cultural values and rules of behaviour (Triandis, 1977; Pearce, 1982a) so people with different social values tend to perceive things differently. For instance, depending on their cultural background, people have a different perception of time. In some cultures in which time is stretchable and flexible, being in a hurry is an indication of impatience and waiting is treated as natural without anxiety. On the other hand being late and waiting can be stressful and negatively perceived by people who grow up in cultures where punctuality is highly valued. LeVine and his colleagues (1980) conducted a study of perceptions of time and punctuality in the United States and Brazil and found out that Brazilians as compared to United States residents, were more flexible in their definitions of early and late and people in the United States had more negative overall impressions of a person who is frequently late.

Differences in values, rules of behaviours and perceptions can create different forms and styles of verbal and non-verbal communication including facial expressions, body contact and distance between communicators (Gudykunst *et al.,* 1988). Individuals must meet the challenges of language barriers, unfamiliar customs and practices and cultural variations in verbal and non-verbal communication styles in order to achieve successful intercultural understanding (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Different patterns of verbal and non-verbal communications may create serious errors and lead to misinterpretation, misunderstanding and confusion. In brief, individuals may feel awkward and anxious when interacting with culturally different others (Spencer-Rodgers & McGovern, 2002).

In contact cultures including Arab, Latin American, South European, and some African culture, people are likely to touch more, face each other more directly and stand closer. In non-contact cultures people touch less, face each other less directly and stand further apart. Asian cultures are non-contact cultures. For instance, in Japan people

do not look each other in the eye much especially when they talk to the older person (Neuliep, 2000). Thus when people from these two different cultures such as a non-contact and contact culture interact, misinterpretation and misunderstanding could happen, which causes them to feel awkward, uncomfortable, and even stressed.

As discussed above, cultural differences in values, social rules, perceptions and non-verbal communication have particular influences on tourist-host social interaction. Especially when the international tourists have a distinctly different cultural background from hosts they might develop negative attitudes towards host culture. A comprehensive account of international studying in English language centers in Australia must consider cultural factors as an important influential factor in student travel behaviour, perception and adaptation. Additionally, the differences for diverse cultural groups within the student population will also need attention and will be treated as an important variable in this research.

2.11 Theories Explaining Cross-Cultural Differences

According to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961 cited in Reisinger & Turner, 2003) the cultures exhibit distinct 'orientations' towards the world and other people and these orientations represent human problems for which people in all cultures must find solutions: how to relate to 1) human nature; 2) nature; 3) human activities; 4) other people and 5) time. Different cultures may be compared on the basis of how their members solve these problems. Various theories have been developed to explain the cross-cultural differences in interpersonal interactions.

Hofstedes' theory has been known as one of the most widely cited theories and many studies have been done on cross-cultural differences based on Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). His study on cross-cultural differences

revealed that national culture differed mainly along four dimensions as below (Hofstede, 1991).

One of his value dimensions is power distance which classifies cultures on a continuum of high and low power distance. In high power distance societies, individuals accept power as part of society so people in high power distance countries such as India, Brazil, and Indonesia believe that everybody is not equal and has a rightful place in this world. On the other hand, low power distance countries such as Austria, Finland, Norway, United States and Australia emphasize the value of equality and attempt to minimize inequality in their society (Gudykunst & Kim, 1997).

Another cultural value dimension is masculinity versus femininity. Hofstede uses the words masculinity and femininity to refer to the degree to which masculine or feminine traits are valued. Cultures that value femininity as a trait stress caring for others and the quality of life while cultures that value masculinity emphasize success, money and material well-being. Generally, masculine societies tend to be male oriented and social roles for gender are clearly separated whereas feminine cultures promote gender equality and there tend to be overlapping social roles for the sexes (Hofstede, 1997).

Hofstede' third dimension is uncertainty avoidance which indicates the degree to which the members of a particular culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situation. Hofstede categorises cultures as possessing either weak or strong uncertainty avoidance orientation. In cultures with a strong avoidance orientation people feel uncomfortable with uncertain situation and they tend to believe that what is different is dangerous. High uncertainty avoidance cultures try to avoid uncertainty and ambiguity by establishing more formal rules and regulations.

On the other hand, low uncertainty avoidance cultures accept uncertainty as a normal part of life. People in low uncertainty cultures believe that what is different is curious so they are comfortable with ambiguity, willing to take risks and do not like the structure associated with hierarchy. Hofstede (1991) also found members of low uncertainty avoidance cultures are less tense and more relaxed and flexible compared to members in high uncertainty avoidance cultures.

The fourth dimension is individualism versus collectivism which describes the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. Individualism/collectivism could be the major dimension which explains why social behaviours are different in different places (Triandis, 1990). In individualistic cultures, since people view the self as independent from groups the ties between individuals are loose and people are expected to look after themselves and their immediate family only. People in those cultures also emphasize the right to a private life and opinion and they show less concern for what others think of them or whether they are liked or not (Gudykunst *et al.*, 1988).

In collectivistic cultures, by way of contrast, people are not seen as isolated individuals. People see themselves as interdependent, with shared responsibility. According to Triandis (1994) collectivistic cultures emphasize goals of the in-group over those of the individual, the social norms of the in-group rather than individual pleasure and shared in-group beliefs rather than individual beliefs. Unlike individualists who behave more or less equally well towards both ingroup and strangers, collectivists tend to pay more attention to ingroup/outgroup distinctions. When interacting with ingroup members collectivists are willing to be very cooperative and helpful, whereas when interacting with strangers they have great anxiety and tend to be competitive and less helpful (Reisinger, 2003).

As Triandis (1990) noted, regardless of culture, most individuals carry to some degree both individualistic and collectivistic tendencies. However, it has been agreed that in some cultures, individualistic tendencies tend to dominate, whereas in others, collectivistic tendencies dominate (Hui & Triandis, 1986). Hofstede (1980) studied the degree of individuals' dependence on the group. Table 2.7 shows the level of individualism of 50 countries. His study found that English speaking countries such as United Statues, Australia, Great Britain, Canada and New Zealand and most of European countries including the Netherlands, Italy, Belgium, Denmark and Sweden were individualistic cultures while collectivistic tendencies dominate in most Asian countries and South American countries.

Table 2.7
Individualism Index of 50 Countries

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(Source: Ward *et al.*, 2001, p. 12)

Besides Hofstedes' theory, another well-known theory explaining differences between cultures is low and high context theory proposed by an anthropologist, Hall. According to Hall (2000), to understand communication, individuals must look at the meaning, the context and the code all together. He also noted that there were two different types of communication styles called low-context and high-context communication and cultures could be differentiated based on these two communication styles.

A high-context communication is one in which most of the information is either in the physical context such as facial expression or internalised in the person, while very little is in the words themselves (Hall, 1987). High-context communication would be characterized as indirect, ambiguous, maintaining of harmony, reserved and understated (Samovar & Porter, 2001). In high-context cultures, indirect styles, in which the speaker's intentions are hidden or only hinted at during interaction, are preferred. Interpersonal communication is based on a great deal of guessing and reading between the lines and communicators are expected to know and understand the true meaning behind spoken communication.

A low-context communication, in comparison, is one in which the mass of the information is in the explicit code, the words themselves are important and the communication is direct, precise, dramatic, open, and based on feelings or true intentions (Gudykunst & Shapiro, 1996). According to Hall (1976), in a low-context transaction, the verbal code is the primary source of information for creating and interpreting meaning. Compared to high context cultures, individuals in low context societies are less reliant on nonverbal communication and tend to be uncomfortable with silence (Rogers & Steinfatt, 1999). People using low-context transaction are also expected to communicate in ways that are consistent with their feelings. Hence low-context communicators are expected to be direct and to say what they think.

It has been found that low- and high-context communication are the predominant forms

of communication in individualistic and collectivistic cultures, respectively (Gudykunst & Kim, 1997). Although there are exceptions, cultures Hall labels as low-context are close to individualistic cultures such as the United States, Australia, France, Switzerland, Germany, and the United Kingdom. On the other hand, collectivistic cultures including most Asian countries, Arab and African countries in which saving face and harmony in social relationships are highly valued, tend to use formal and indirect styles of language which is the main characteristic of high-context cultures (Triandis, 1990).

2.12 Detailed Implications Arising from the Literature and Thesis Aims

In this Chapter, two main concepts, destination image and cross-cultural contact were discussed. As discussed in Chapter 1, most of the destination image studies have been conducted without a clear definition of destination image and a theoretical framework. Pearce and Black (1996) argued the need for more theoretical and more innovative approaches in measuring destination image. Therefore in this Chapter the definitions of destination image which have been used in the previous tourism studies were reviewed and an attempt was made to provide a clear definition of destination image based on its main characteristics. To improve the shortcoming of lack of theoretical concepts in destination studies this study sought to develop a conceptual framework based on the multi-faceted image components presented in Chapter 1 and each of the main components of destination image was also discussed in detail.

When methodologies are concerned, previous studies have heavily relied on structured methods which measure only cognitive image by asking individuals to rate a set of the destination's attributes. To assess multi-faceted image components more appropriately this study introduced various methods which include both structured methods and unstructured methods such as the sketch map technique and open-ended questions.

Factors influencing destination images such as previous experience, tourists' geographical location, socio-demographics, information sources, length of stay, motivation and cultural background were also reviewed in this Chapter. As already discussed above, a number of studies have analysed pre- and post-visitors' image of a tourist destination and several factors have been found to influence why visitors perceive the destination that they visit differently. However, it is difficult to establish a consensus of opinion about which variables provide the better explanations of tourists' destination image differences since most destination studies employed only one or two factors at a time and different types of tourists. Baloglu (1997) also noted that more research is needed to determine the insightful factors that influence destination image. Therefore this study will extend existing research by exploring multiple factors which might influence the international students' image of Australia.

In the second part of this Chapter, cross-cultural host-tourist contact was discussed. Specifically culture shock, factors influencing sojourner adaptation and cultural differences in social interaction based on cultural values, rules of social interaction, perception and non-verbal communication were reviewed. A number of conceptual frameworks which have been applied in cross-cultural studies of tourist behaviour including Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimension; power distance, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance and individualism versus collectivism and Hall's (1976) high- and low- communication were also discussed.

Reisinger and Turner (2002) argued that understanding cross-cultural tourist-host contact has received modest attention in tourism research although it is important for developing a positive relationship between hosts and tourists. They also emphasized that cross-cultural studies of tourist behaviour with various types of subjects in different settings or contexts should be explored in depth to develop better conceptual and theoretical understanding of cross-cultural contact. Therefore this study considered the

occasions in everyday life where international students had experienced cultural differences while in Australia and attempted to explain why the respondents perceived the cultural differences in distinctive ways based on some cross-cultural theories discussed in this Chapter.

Based on the broad range of literature reviewed above, this thesis was developed to achieve two main purposes. The first and generic purpose of the thesis was to analyse the international English language student market by understanding positive and negative images of Australia as a tourist destination and the travel behaviour and adaptation of these students. A principal academic purpose of this thesis was also to develop an enhanced conceptual framework for the concept of destination image based on multi-faced image components; cognitive, affective, and orientation components as well as and multi-sensory images. More specifically it develop empirical work using a creative multi-faceted image assessment to explore the international English language students' images of Australia. To achieve these purposes, three specific studies were conducted. The aims of the studies are shown in Table 2. 8.

Table 2.8
Aims of the Three Studies

Study 1: International Students' Images of Australian Cities: Applying a Sketch Map Methodology
    Aim 1: To identify the mental maps of cities in Australia (Sydney and Melbourne) held by international students
    Aim 2: To investigate overseas students' perception of Australian cities
    Aim 3: To identify factors influencing mental mapping

Study 2: International Students' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination and Their Travel Behaviour in Australia
    Aim 1: To identify international students' images of Australia as a tourist destination
    Aim 2: To investigate factors influencing the images of Australia
    Aim 3: To examine international students' travel behaviour while in Australia

Study 3: **International Students' Images of Australian People and Culture**
    Aim 1: To examine international students' Socio-cultural Adjustment
    Aim 2: To identify international students' images of Australian people
    Aim 3: To identify international students' images of Australian culture
    Aim 4: To investigate international students' images of Australian people and its culture based on their regional cultural background

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The final chapter in this thesis interrelates the findings from the three studies and notes their connections to the generic purposes of this thesis.

CHAPTER 3
International Students' Images of Australian Cities: Applying a Sketch Map Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Large cities have often been considered as a leading type of tourist destination in international tourism. Many international tourists experience urban tourism in some form during their travel (Page, 1995). Cities function not only as a tourist attraction offering museums, historical buildings, and special events but also as a hub for accommodation, restaurants and transportation. According to Page and Hall (2003), understanding international tourists' experiences in cities and their perception of the city they visit is important since the city image that tourists have in their mind influences and their overall travel satisfaction. Berg, Borg and Meer (1995) also argued the city must have an appealing image to attract more international visitors and emphasized

the importance of understanding city images. The study was conducted, thus, to understand in more detail overseas students' images of the Australian cities as a fundamental part of the understanding destination images. In terms of the distribution of international students in the ELICOS sector by state, New South Wales had the largest number of students followed by Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia and South Australia (AEI, 1999). There were over 190 colleges and branches offering English language programs nationwide and approximately 68% of English language centers were located in either New South Wales or Victoria (Bundesen, 2001). Therefore Sydney and Melbourne, which are the two major cities of each state, were selected in this research.

The research questions for the study were;

- What do overseas students think of the city where they are living as a sojourner in Australia?

- What visual images of the cities do overseas students have in their minds?

- Which areas of the city do they like?

- Which areas of the city do they want to avoid?

- Which factors influence their mental maps of Australian cities?

To answer the research questions, three specific research aims were developed;

1) To identify the mental maps of cities in Australia (Sydney and Melbourne) held by international students;

2) To investigate overseas students' perception of Australian cities; and

3) To identify factors influencing cognitive mapping.

3.2 Methodology

3. 2.1 The Profile of Respondents

Table 3.1 presents the profile of respondents. The gender of the sample was evenly divided with 46.1% male and 50.4% female. Mean age was 23 years and approximately 70% of respondents were under 25 years of age. In terms of nationality, more than 60% of respondents were from Asian countries including Indonesia, Japan, Korea, and Malaysia. The average length of stay in Australia was 22 weeks. At the time of being surveyed, more than half of the respondents (58%) had been in Australia for more than 1 year. Almost one-half of the respondents answered that it was their first visit to Australia and the majority of them (77%) had no overseas travel experience. Approximately 74% of the respondents were staying with friends or relatives. More than 50% of the respondents answered that they usually used public transportation, such as bus or subway while about 18% of the respondents had their own car.

Table 3.1
Profile of Respondents

Categories	Frequency	Percent
Gender:		
Male	53	46.1
Female	58	50.4
Missing	4	3.5
Age :		
20 years old or younger	25	21.7
21 –25 years	57	49.6
26 years old or older	24	20.9
Missing	9	7.8
Country of citizenship		
Asian countries	76	66.1
Other countries	26	22.6
Missing	13	11.3
Length of stay in Australia		
Less than 1year	34	29.4
1 year –2 years	31	24.9
More than 2 years	36	33.5
Missing	14	12.2
Whether first visit to Australia or not		
Yes	52	45.2
No	58	50.4
Missing	5	4.3
Who are you staying with?		
Alone	23	20.0
Host family	12	10.4
Relatives	18	16.4
Friends	56	50.9
Missing	5	4.3
Type of transportation		
Own car	21	18.3
Bus	32	27.8
Subway	32	27.8
Bicycle	4	3.5
Walk	20	17.4
Missing	6	5.2
Overseas travel experience		
Yes	22	19.1
No	89	77.4
Missing	4	3.5

N=115

3.2.2 Survey Procedure

A survey was conducted for this study and to develop the questionnaire, the following steps were taken;

    1) Designing a base questionnaire,

    2) Conducting a pre-test,

    3) Modifying of the questions as a result of the pre-test, and

    4) Administering the questionnaire.

The questions were based on the three image components which were discussed in the Literature Review; sensory, cognitive and affective images. The questionnaire design will be discussed more in detail in a later section. After the base questionnaire was designed, a pre-test was conducted to assess whether it was easy to read in terms of flow, length and language level. A common way to conduct a pre-study is to give a questionnaire to a small group of individuals who are similar to the survey population (Johns & Lee-Ross, 1998). Therefore, fifteen students taking English language courses at James Cook University were approached by the researcher. The purpose of the study and the importance of a pre-study were explained and the students were asked to participate in the pre-test. Fifteen survey forms were distributed and 12 questionnaires were collected on the following day. Since English is the second language for the respondents, the level of vocabulary was the main concern in the pre-test. The respondents were asked if the vocabulary was easy to understand and if any words had vague or ambiguous meanings.

Based on results of the pre-test, the questionnaire was modified. The sketch mapping task was placed on the first page since the respondents of the pre-test suggested that the sketch mapping, which might be the most challenging exercise, should be at the beginning. One question about the purpose of visiting Australia was eliminated. Ten out of 12 respondents answered that they came to Australia both to learn English and

to travel around Australia. Since the question did not elicit a sufficiently discriminating set of responses it was deleted.

To administrate the survey, the researcher contacted the academic coordinator in Holmes Colleges, Melbourne and Sydney campuses and asked for cooperation in distribution and collection of the questionnaires (Appendix 1). The questionnaire, with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research, was mailed to the academic coordinator in Holmes College on 2 April 2002. Eighty survey forms in Melbourne and 75 questionnaires in Sydney were distributed via lecturers in the English language centres. Out of 150 distributed questionnaires, 115 useable responses were collected. Return rates for each city were Sydney 81.3% and Melbourne 72%. Therefore, the overall response rate was 76.7%.

3.2.3 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire consisted of three sections (Appendix 2 & 3). Section 1 contained the map drawing question designed to elicit the basic image factors such as paths, districts, and landmarks. Respondents were asked to fill in as many details as they could remember when they visualize a city in their mind. The wording of this question followed closely that used by Pearce's (1977) study on tourists' mental map of the city of Oxford. The instruction was given as follows:

"Please draw a sketch map of downtown area of (the name of the city). Include anything that comes to your mind when you visualise the city including buildings, parks, streets, and signs. You may write notes on the map about events or activities you recall, your feelings about places, smells, sounds that you can remember and anything you think is important. It does not have to be a realistic map. Three examples of a sketch map are included on the next pages as an idea of how to draw a sketch map. Please draw a sketch map on the blank page provided next to example 3.

Three examples of a sketch map of Cairns, Queensland (a landmark dominated map, a path dominated map and district dominated map) were included to give respondents an idea of how to draw a sketch map. The white sheet of paper given to respondents

contained no cues, scale, or orientation indicators in order to maximise flexibility of responses.

Section 2 was designed to investigate overseas students' perceptions of the two cities, Sydney and Melbourne. Francescato and Mebane (1973) argued that "On a sketch map, people can draw streets, nodes, districts, landmarks and edges but they cannot put down they how they feel about a city, what they normally do in it and what they like or dislike" (p. 147). Therefore some open-ended questions asking about sensory images, overall images and general impressions of the city were developed to capture the full richness of images of Sydney and Melbourne that overseas students have in their minds.

Question 1 in Section 2 asked about the evaluative and affective images of each city using a semantic differential scale which consists of pairs of bipolar adjectives. Sommer and Sommer (1991) recommended not to use more than 20 adjective pairs to measure a concept, so 12 adjective pairs were chosen based on previous environmental studies. (Burgress & Hollis, 1977; Kawsmar, 1970; Lowenthal, 1972; Sadalla *et al.*, 1990).

Environmental psychologists suggest that individuals react to places with two general, and opposite, forms of behaviour: approach and avoidance (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). To illicit the respondents' reactions to places in the city, question 2 and 3 asked them to identify one place they like and one place or area they dislike and to explain the reason why they like or dislike the place. The respondents were also asked what five things they want to tell their friends in their home country when they think of the city where they are living which would capture the general impression and holistic images of the city.

Several researchers have indicated that other senses including smell, sound, taste and touch play an important role in cognitive mapping although visual information is predominant (Downs & Stea, 1973; Haynes, 1981). A distinctive smell or a certain sound can give a strong impression of a place. In spite of the importance of sound or smell images in a destination image, few studies focusing on sensory images have been conducted. Therefore to meet an essentially exploratory aim, a question was developed as follows;

"*When you think of (the name of the city), do you have any sensory images in your mind such as pleasant or unpleasant smells, tastes or sounds? Please make your answers as detailed as possible.*"

Finally, Section 3 was designed to capture the demographic data considered important for the study. To examine factors influencing images of Australian cities held by overseas students, demographic variables were chosen based on previous research such as gender (Pearce, 1977, 1981; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992; Young, 1997), nationality (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000; Newell, 1997; Richardson & Crompton, 1988), and length of stay (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Ladd, 1970; Pearce, 1977; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992).

3. 2. 4 Coding Scheme for the Sketch Maps

Basically, the analysis of the maps was carried out by following the definition for city components outlined by Lynch (1960). However nodes and edges were excluded in this study for two reasons. First, the concept of nodes has been confused in previous studies (Pocock & Hudson, 1978). Walmsley and Lewis (1993) also argued that whether a place is a node or just a landmark cannot easily be discerned from the map alone, because identification of nodes requires knowledge of the purposive behaviour of the subjects. For instance, a shopping centre can be a landmark if it is used as a reference point in navigation, but it might be a node if it becomes a focal point of the

individual's day-to-day life. The element edges was not also applicable to this study because only the downtown area of a city was studied.

In Peace's (1981) and Young's (1997) studies texture, defined as items which form a general commentary, and social activity scores including eating, drinking, and chatting to local people were calculated. However, the texture and social scores had higher discrepancy scores among judges and lower reliability scores than did the other categories such as landmarks, paths and districts (Pearce, 1981). Due to low stability in previous studies, texture and social variables were not scored.

Map orientation and accuracy of location also were not measured.   In this study, the sketch map was used as a method to identify the visual images of the cities which are mirrored in the respondent's mind. Therefore the respondents were requested to draw the downtown area when they think of the each city, regardless of accuracy of location or orientation.

For the reasons explained above, the three elements -paths, districts, and landmarks - were used in the scoring. The definitions, which were used in Pearce's study (1977) follow below:

> Paths: defined as all the streets, roads, lanes drawn by subjects. They can be either named or unnamed.

> Districts: defined as a named area of any size. The concept of plurality is involved in a district. For example, "a hotel" is a landmark but "hotels" located in a specific area qualifies as a district. Examples of districts might be parks, a business area, or a residential area.

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Landmarks: defined as named singular sites of any size. Buildings, attractions or monuments located inaccurately qualify as a landmark. Examples of landmarks might be a post office, a shop, a church or a school.

3.2.5 Reliability of the Sketch Map Coding

Since the sketch maps were idiosyncratic and complex it is possible that one coder might interpret elements of a sketch map differently from another coder. Therefore inter-coder reliability was required to check the stability of the scoring (Dooley, 2001). Where there are several coders, the correlation of scores provided by the different coders on the same data set are used as a measure of inter-coder reliability and these measure are reported in the form of a reliability coefficient (Young, 1997). A coefficient takes values between 0 and 1 and a coefficient of 1 represents no difference between coders on their use of the coding scheme.

To compute a reliability coefficient, fifteen randomly selected questionnaires were chosen and the number of landmarks, paths and districts of each sketch map were counted. Two postgraduate students were then requested to score the same 15 sketch maps based on the researcher's explanation about sketch map coding. As Table 3.2 shows, the result indicated that correlations of inter-judge were high. The coefficient score for paths and landmarks was .99 and .79 for districts. Compared to the coefficient of paths and landmarks, the coefficient of districts was relatively low. The reason could be that even though it was mentioned that the concept of plurality should be considered as a district, one of the judges did not count all of the areas such as hotels, cafes and restaurants. However a reliability coefficient is regarded as reliable if it is .7 or above (Francis, 2001) indicating that the map coding scheme of inter-judge can considered reliable.

Table 3.2
Judges' Reliability Scores for Map Content

	Total item correlation	Alpha if item deleted
Number of paths		
Judge1	0.98	0.98
Judge 2	0.98	0.98
Judge 3	0.96	0.99
Alpha for paths: .99 (Estimated reliability of composites score based on 3 judges)		
Number of landmarks		
Judge 1	0.99	0.97
Judge 2	0.99	0.97
Judge 3	0.98	0.98
Alpha for landmarks: .99		
Number of districts		
Judge 1	0.71	0.71
Judge 2	0.68	0.68
Judge 3	0.66	0.76
Alpha for districts: .79		

3.3 Results

This section of the chapter deals with the results of the questionnaire. It addresses aim 1, 2 and 3. The questionnaires were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Basic descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and frequency were calculated for all questionnaire items.

The research questions tested in this study were:

1) the differences in the sketch maps of Sydney and Melbourne;

2) the differences in cognitive and affective images of Sydney and Melbourne; and

3) whether there are differences in the sketch maps by gender, length of stay,

cultural background, and main transportation respondents usually use.

To test the research questions, the Mann-Whitney U test was applied for two reasons. First of all, dependent variables (the mean score of individual map elements) were not normally distributed for independent groups such as gender, length of stay, and nationality. The result of the Levene's test also indicated that the variances for the independent groups were significantly different. This means that the standard deviations for the two independent groups are significantly different. Therefore it was decided that a non-parametric test should be used for data analysis.

3.3.1 Respondents' Mental Maps of the Cities: Aim 1

Aim 1 was to identify mental maps of the cities held by overseas students. First of all, the map pattern is discussed and the sketch maps of the cities are analyzed. Finally the sketch maps of Sydney and Melbourne are compared.

3.3.1.1 Map Pattern

The sketch maps were highly individual and idiosyncratic. The complexity of the sketch map varied from individual to individual since they are based on each individuals' experience of places and each individual's preference. Some respondents drew very simple maps which contained only symbolic impressions of the city. For example, Figure 3.1 was drawn by a 25 year old Slovakian male who, at the time of the survey, had lived in Sydney for 5 months. It is a symbolic drawing rather than a sketch map. He sketched only a few landmarks that were meaningful to him such as the Opera House, Harbour Bridge and Sydney Tower. Figure 3. 2, a sketch map of Sydney drawn by a Polish female, is a good example of a spatial-dominated map. There was only one street in her map while quite a few landmarks and districts with symbolic icons were mentioned. On the other hand, some other respondents produced more complex maps.

This can be seen in the map presented in Figure 3.3, which contains a few streets and the main districts in Melbourne. The respondent also drew visual landmarks such as Flinders Street Station, Princess Theatre, and Parliament House.
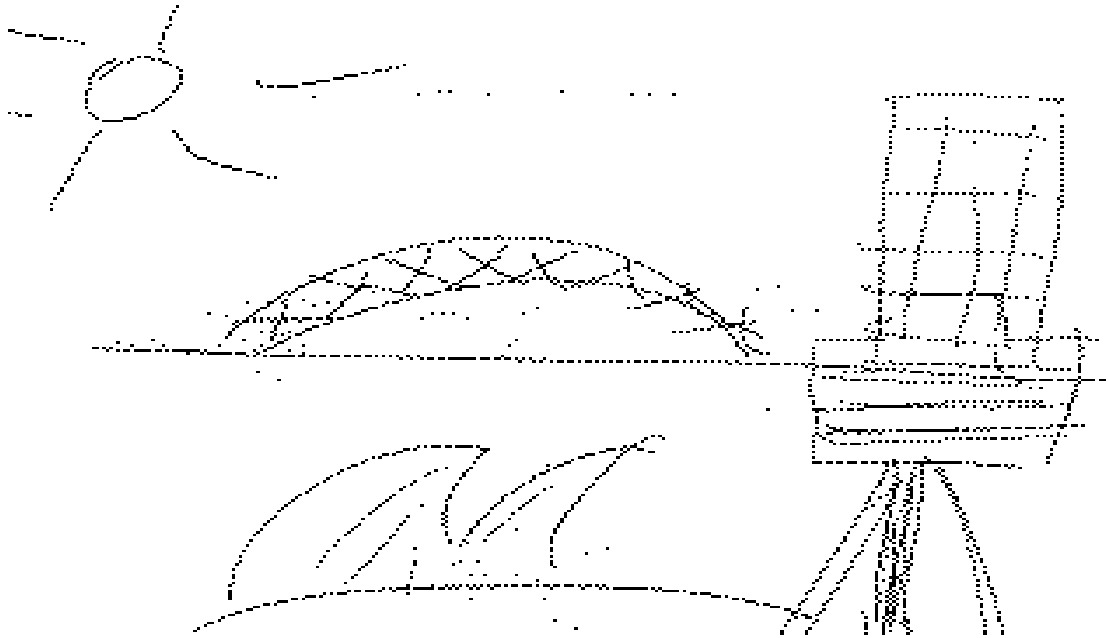
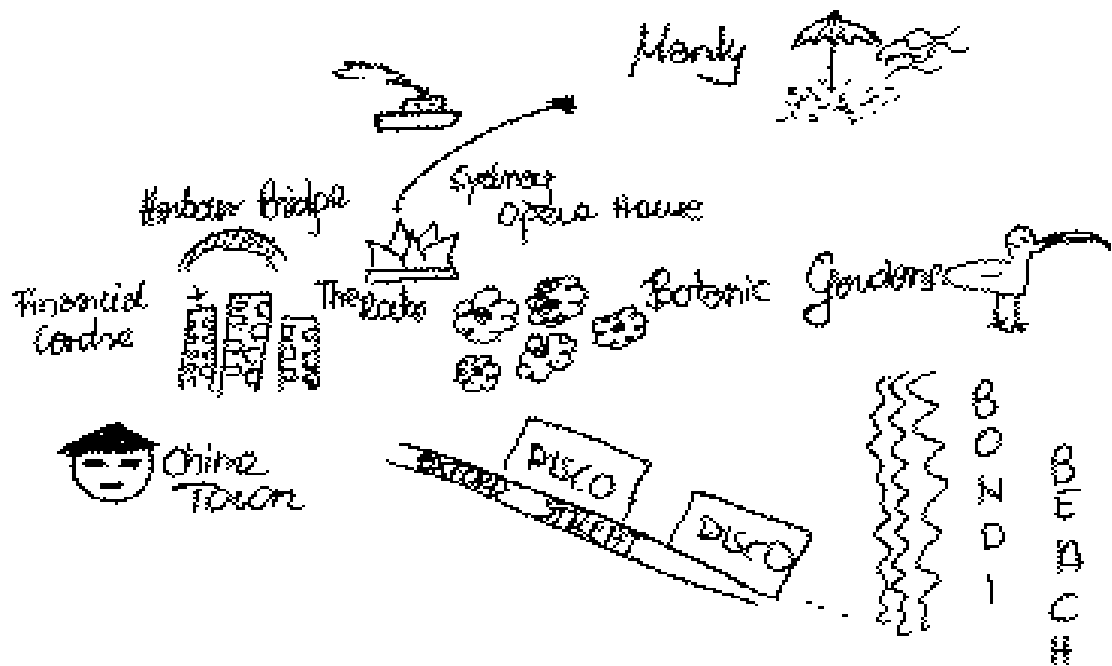**Figure 3.1 A Sketch Map of Sydney by 25 Year Old Slovakian Male**

Figure 3.2 A Sketch Map of Sydney by 21 Year Old Polish Female
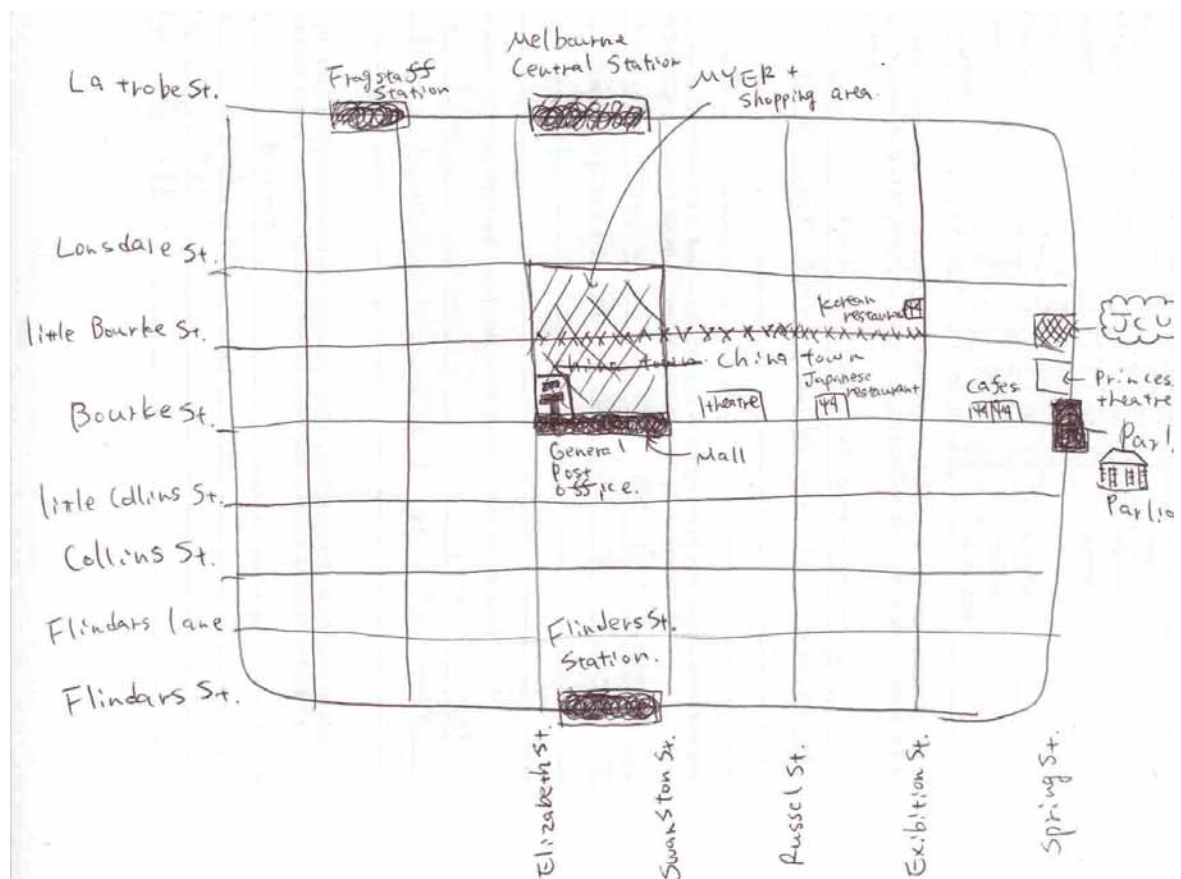
Figure 3.3 A Sketch Map of Melbourne by 23 Year Old Japanese Female

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Not surprisingly, familiarity and function of landmarks influenced the image of the city. People tend to have more detailed images of places they visit often or care about. Because of the functional meaning of the building, city landmarks such as banks, shopping malls, post offices and movie theatres were often depicted. For instance, the sketch map in Figure 3.4 drawn by a Japanese female in Sydney contains a couple of banks, a movie theatre, shopping centers and many fast food restaurants including McDonald's and KFC.
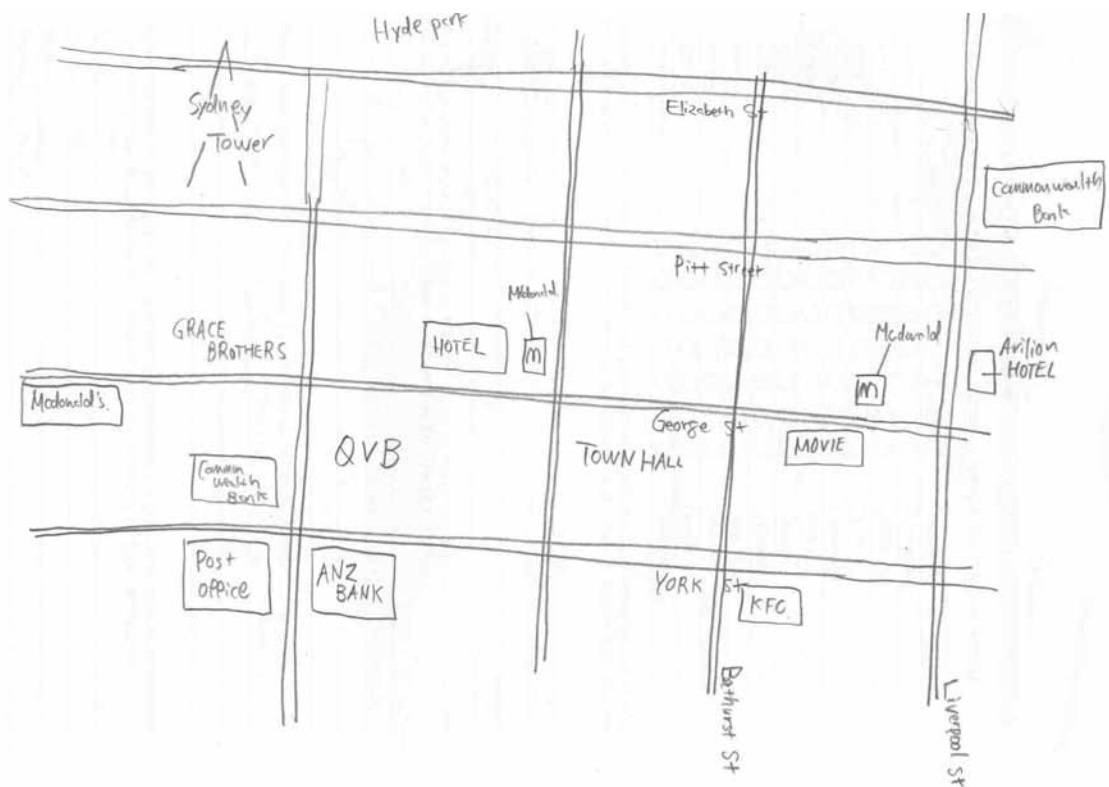
Figure 3.4 A Sketch Map of Sydney by 20 Year Old Japanese Female

The sketch maps also reflected the respondent's interest. Figure 3.5 provides a good example. A Latvian female remembered many pubs in the downtown area of Sydney. It can be assumed from her sketch map that she often visits pubs and they are meaningful to her.

Figure 3.5 A Sketch Map of Sydney by 24 Year Old Latvian Female

Overall, and based on numerous maps similar to those discussed in the Figures, the result of analysis of sketch maps showed that there was a strong congruence between image and activity. Table 3.3 reports the top ten leisure activities according to their mean frequency. The top three most frequent activities for respondents were shopping, dining out and going to the cinema. More than 70% of the respondents answered that they went shopping and dined out and approximately 60% of them went to the cinema at least 1-2 times a month. Personally meaningful landmarks including particular restaurants, pubs, and cafes that respondents often visited were also important

elements on the respondents' image maps of the cities.

Table 3.3
List of Top Ten Leisure Activities (Sydney and Melbourne combined)

Activity	Mean	SD	Activity	Mean	SD
Shopping	3.11	.89	Going to the pub	2.49	1.08
Dining out	3.00	.94	Going to the beach	2.28	.81
Going to the cinema	2.77	1.07	Playing sports	2.26	.93
Visiting public libraries	2.52	1.08	Visiting casinos	2.15	.96
Visiting parks	2.50	1.00	Going to the night club	2.08	1.03

N=115 (1=never, 2=rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often)

3.3.1.2 The Sketch Map of Sydney

Although mental images of a city are highly individual, Lynch (1960) argued that there is a public image of a city, which is the overlap of many individual images, and that cities can be differentiated according to people's ability to form legible environmental images. The public image of Sydney was identified based on the image factors frequently drawn by the respondents. Table 3.4 indicates the list of image factors which have a response rate greater than 10% and Figure 3.6 shows the public image of the downtown area in Sydney based on the top 15 image factors. The top five salient image factors for respondents were George Street, York Street, Queen Victoria building, Pitt Street and Hyde Park respectively. Sydney Tower and Opera House were ranked sixth followed by Elizabeth Street, Chinatown, Harbour Bridge, and the Commonwealth Bank in George Street.

Circular Quay area

Sydney Opera House & Harbour Bridge

Commonwealth bank

Queen Victoria Building

Darling Harbour area

York St.

Market St

Sydney Tower

Hyde Park

George St

Pitt St

Elizabeth St

Chinatown area

Town Hall

Figure 3.6 The Public Image of Downtown Area in Sydney Based on the Top 15 Image Factors

Table 3.4
The List of Elements Included in The Sketch Maps of Sydney

Rank	Element	Percent	Rank	Element	Percent
1	George St.	68.8	13	Darling Harbour	18.8
2	York St.	47.9	16	Liverpool St.	14.6
2	Queen Victoria Building	47.9	16	The Rocks	14.6
4	Pitt St.	41.7	16	Cinema	14.6
5	Hyde Park	31.3	19	Grace Bros	12.5
6	Sydney Tower	29.2	19	Botanic Gardens	12.5
6	Opera House	29.2	19	Macdonald	12.5
8	Elizabeth St.	27.1	19	Starbuck Café	12.5
8	China Town	27.1	19	KFC	12.5
10	Harbour Bridge	25.0	19	Hilton Hotel	12.5
10	Commonwealth Bank	25.0	19	State Library	12.5
12	Town Hall	20.9	19	Sussex St.	12.5
13	Market St.	18.8	27	Goulburn St.	10.4
13	Circular Quay	18.8	27	Kings Cross	10.4

N=48

In terms of landmarks, the Queen Victoria Building appeared most frequently on the sketch maps. It is assumed that its architectural beauty, its function as a main shopping centre, and its location make it a key landmark in Sydney. Needless to say, the famous tourist attractions including the Opera House, the Harbour Bridge, and the Sydney Tower were also mentioned. George Street, the most dominant element, is the one of the busiest streets in the Central Business District of Sydney. A number of cafes and fast food restaurants were noticed and various other buildings including the post office, the cinema, and the bank in George Street were identified. The three other streets frequently mentioned were York, Pitt, and Elizabeth Street. In addition to the paths and landmarks, several districts were included on the sketch maps. Hyde Park and Chinatown were included on about one third and Circular Quay and Darling Harbour appeared on about one fifth of the maps.

The majority of the respondents recalled a dominant path, George Street, and some unique landmarks such as the Queen Victoria Building, the Opera House, and the
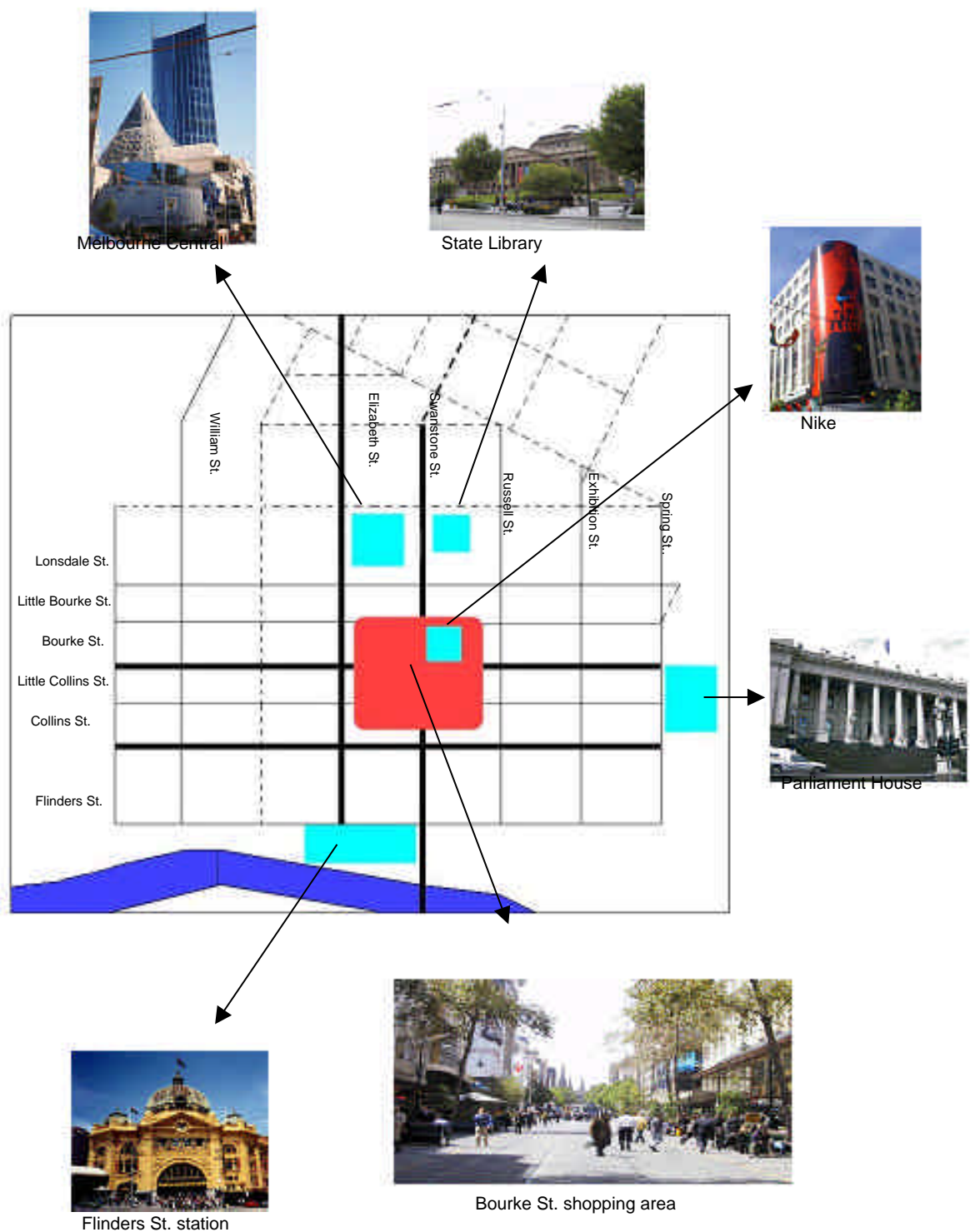
Harbour Bridge when they think of the city of Sydney. According to Saarinen(1976), formation of a map image is easy where there is a street plan with a single dominant path and unique landmarks. On this point, it can be assumed that Sydney is perceived as a legible city by the respondents.

3.3.1.3 The Sketch Map of Melbourne

The physical image factors found in sketch maps of Melbourne, which have a response rate greater than 10%, are listed in Table 3.5. There were 28 such elements included in the sketch maps and the most frequently mentioned elements were within the central business district. The public image of the downtown area in Melbourne was made up of the top fifteen physical image factors identified by the respondents. It can be seen that the combined image of Melbourne is dominated by a few main streets (Figure 3.7). Eight out of the top ten image factors were paths. Due to the grid street pattern, most respondents could easily record some major paths in correct relation to others. The three salient streets were Bourke, Swanston and Collins Street. An individual's activity strongly influences his or her mental mapping (Downs & Stea, 1973; Evans, 1980; Porteous, 1977). As mentioned in Table 3.3, the two main leisure activities in the city for the respondents were shopping and dining out. Therefore it is not surprising that these three streets, in which many shopping centres, cafes and restaurants are located, were the most frequently drawn by the respondents.

Compared to Sydney, few districts were identified. The shopping area between Bourke Street and Swanston Street was the only one district included in the top fifteen image factors. Approximately 10% of the respondents noted Chinatown and the café area in Collins streets. The Flinders Street Station was the most salient landmark due to its obvious function and size. More than a half of the respondents drew it on their sketch maps. Other important landmarks for the respondents were Parliament House,

Melbourne central, the Nike building and the State Library.

Melbourne Central

State Library

Nike

Elizabeth St.

Swanstone St.

William St.

Russell St.

Exhibition St.

Spring St.

Lonsdale St.

Little Bourke St.

Bourke St.

Little Collins St.

Collins St.

Flinders St.

Parliament House

Flinders St. station

Bourke St. shopping area

Figure 3.7 The Public Image of Downtown Area in Melbourne Based on the Top 15 Image Factors

Table 3.5.
The List of Elements Included in the Sketch Maps of Melbourne

Rank	Element	Percent	Rank	Element	Percent
1	Bourke St.	62.2	15	State Library	17.8
2	Swanston St.	60.0	15	Shopping Area	17.8
3	Flinders Street Station	55.6	15	Exhibition St.	17.8
4	Collins St.	51.5	15	Little Collins St.	17.8
5	Elizabeth St.	48.9	19	Crown Casino	15.6
6	Parliament House	44.4	19	Flagstaff Station	15.6
7	Flinders St.	37.8	19	Flinders Lane	15.6
8	Lonsdale St.	33.3	19	La Trobe St.	15.6
9	William St.	28.9	23	Spenser Station	13.3
10	Spring St.	26.7	24	Myer	11.1
10	Russell St.	26.7	24	Chinatown	11.1
10	Little Bourke St.	26.7	24	Spencer St.	11.1
13	Melbourne Central	24.4	24	Queen St.	11.1
14	Nike Building	20.0	24	King St.	11.1

N=45

3. 3.1.4 Comparison between The Sketch Maps of Sydney and Melbourne

To compare the public images of the two cities based on three map elements, the mean of paths, districts and landmarks identified by the respondents for each city was calculated. Table 6 presents the average number of map elements drawn per map. The mean scores indicate that landmarks are the most frequent element, followed by paths and districts in the sketch maps of Sydney, and paths are the most frequent, followed by landmarks and districts in the maps of Melbourne.

Table 3.6 also indicates that each respondent in Sydney was more likely to draw a greater variety of landmarks than his or her counterpart in Melbourne. On the other hand, respondents in Melbourne were more likely to draw a path-dominated map. As indicated by the mean scores in Table 6, it can be assumed that landmarks take on greater importance in the cognitive map of Sydney and paths take on greater importance in the sketch maps of Melbourne drawn by the respondents.

Table 3. 6.
Mean Number of Map Elements

Map element	Sydney (N=61)		Melbourne (N=54)	
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	SD
landmark	7.99	7.25	5.35	4.05
path	4.18	2.55	7.13	4.19
district	1.83	1.81	0.95	1.42

In order to explore whether two cities are perceived differently in terms of the elements in the sketch maps, the Mann Whitney U test was applied. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 3.7. Although respondents in Sydney tended to draw more landmarks than their counterparts in Melbourne, there was no significant difference between the two cities with respect to landmarks. In regard to districts, there was a significant difference between the maps of Sydney and Melbourne at the .05 significance level. The mean rank indicates that the respondents in Sydney drew more districts than their counterparts in Melbourne. As hypothesised, there was a significant difference in paths with a mean rank of 37.91 for Sydney and 56.70 for Melbourne with $U = 634.5$ and $p = .001$.

Table 3.7
Mann-Whitney Test for Comparison of the Map Element between the Cities

Map element	Mann Whitney U	P	Mean Rank	
			Sydney (N=61)	**Melbourne** (N=54)
landmark	890	.143	50.96	42.78
path	643.5	.001*	37.91	56.70
district	705	.002*	54.81	38.67

* significant at the .05 level

3.3.2 Respondents' Attitudes towards the Cities: Aim 2

Aim 2 was to investigate overseas students' perceptions of the cities relating to the questions in Section 2 of the questionnaire. To achieve the aim, the cognitive and affective images of the cities, Sydney and Melbourne, held by international students

were measured. The favorable and unfavorable places in each city were also identified.

3.3.2.1 The Cognitive Images of the Cities

To identify the cognitive images of each city, the respondents were asked to write five attributes that they want to tell their friends in their home country when considering Sydney or Melbourne. Table 3.8 shows the list of top ten attributes frequently mentioned in each city. Generally the respondents of both cities had positive image of the city they live in. The majority of the respondents answered that they would like to talk about clean and fresh air, friendly people and good shopping opportunities. It also seems that Sydney has a reputation for nice beaches and a multicultural society and Melbourne for beautiful gardens and variety of food. An attribute of nice beaches was ranked second in Sydney and beautiful gardens and variety of food were ranked first and second respectively in Melbourne.

"…..There are many nice beaches near Sydney. I like them very much." (28 year old Czech)

'It's very multicultural. There are many more Asian people than I thought." (23 year old Norwegian female)

"Sydney is a very modern city with a mixed culture. Asian and western culture are mixed." (19 year old Korean female)

"I really like the parks and gardens in Melbourne. There are many trees and green grass, which I've never seen in my country." (19 year old Korean female)

"… .One thing I want to talk about when I think of Melbourne is that there are many nice restaurants. We can try so many different types of food like Indian, Thai, Korean, Japanese, Chinese, Greek and African food", (22 year old Indonesian female)

Table 3.8
Top Ten Attributes of Each City

Rank	Sydney (N=51)	Rank	Melbourne (N=39)
1	Tourist attractions	1	Beautiful gardens
2	Nice beaches	2	Numerous restaurants and cafes
3	Multi cultural society	3	Good nightlife
4	Friendly/kind people	4	Cold and unpredictable weather
5	Variety of food	5	Trams
6	Good shopping opportunities	6	Boring life
7	Cleanness	7	Friendly people
8	Good nightlife and entertainment	8	Clean and fresh air
9	Big city	9	Nice beaches
10	Pleasant weather	10	Good shopping opportunity
Other: safety, convenient transportation, job opportunities, high living expenses, easy going lifestyle		Other: high quality of life, well organized streets, many international students, European atmosphere	

There were quite a few differences between Sydney and Melbourne in regard to the attributes mentioned by the respondents. One difference was that while Sydney has an image of pleasant weather, Melbourne has a negative image associated with its weather. Cold and unpredictable weather was often mentioned by the respondents in Melbourne. One respondent from Colombia complained about the unfavourable weather of Melbourne as follows:

"Melbourne is a beautiful city and people are friendly. One thing I do not like is the weather. It's too cold." (24 year old female)

Another difference was that the respondents in Sydney tended to have a stronger image of tourist attractions compared to their counterparts in Melbourne. Among attributes mentioned by the respondents in Sydney, tourist attractions including the Sydney Opera House, the Rocks, and Darling Harbour were ranked first. It seems that there is a list of "must-see" attractions in Sydney in subjects' minds.
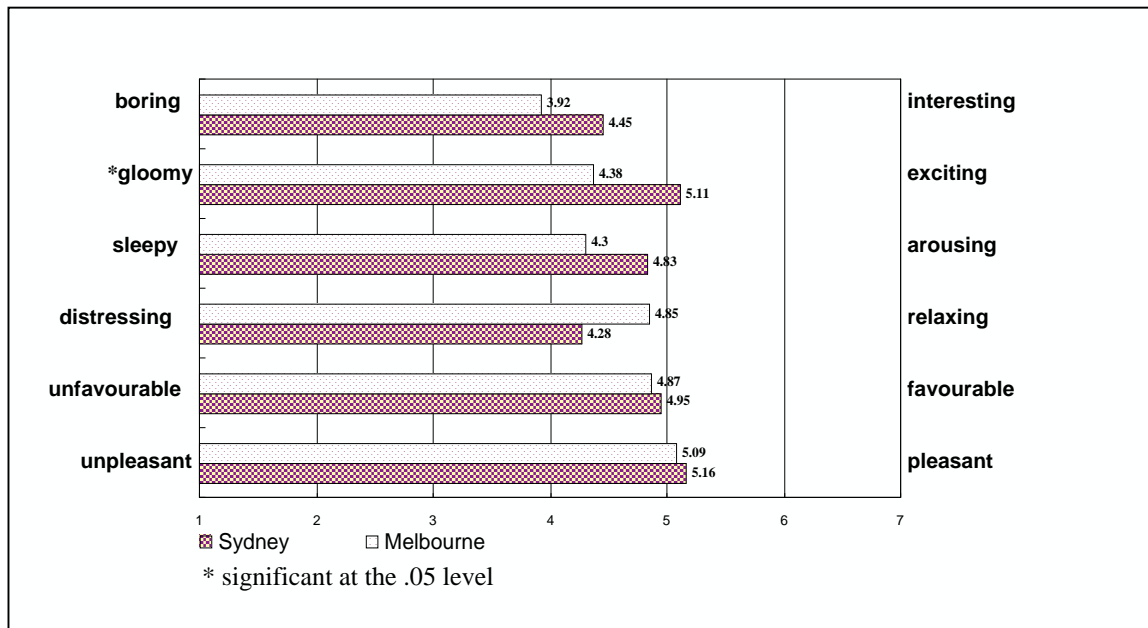
3.3.2.2. The Affective Images of the Cities

The affective images of the cities were measured by the semantic differential scales and these scales consisted of opposite adjective pairs such as boring-interesting, pleasant-unpleasant and unfavourable - favourable. A seven-point scale is used for all bipolar scales where the positive poles were assigned to higher numbers. Figure 3.8 compares the affective images of Sydney and Melbourne perceived by the respondents based on the mean score. Generally, the respondents had positive images. Both cities were perceived as pleasant and favourable. However, Sydney was likely to be perceived as more exciting than its counterpart. While more than 70% of the respondents of Sydney perceived the city as exciting, less than 40% of the respondents of Melbourne answered that Melbourne was somewhat exciting. The results of the Mann-Whitney U test supported the conclusion that the two cities were perceived differently in the degree of excitement (U= 987.0 and p=.002), while there were no significant differences between the two cities on the other 5 scales. The overall opinion about Sydney and Melbourne, which the respondents answered in the open-ended question, were also consistent with this finding. The respondents considered both cities to be pleasant. A difference between Sydney and Melbourne was that the adjectives 'exciting', 'interesting' and 'busy' tended to be used often to describe Sydney, while quite a few respondents mentioned that Melbourne is peaceful, quiet and somewhat boring.

"(Sydney is) exciting and extremely busy." (24 year old Latvian female in Sydney)

Melbourne is a good place for living but very boring because there are not so many things to do. (19 year old Hungarian female in Melbourne)

In the beginning I enjoyed living in Melbourne but 2 or 3 months later I felt bored. (21 year old Japanese female in Melbourne)

N=115

Figure 3.8 Comparison of the Affective Images between Sydney and Melbourne

3.3.2.3 The Favoured Places in the Cities

The respondents were asked to answer the question:

"Identify one place anywhere in (name of the city) that you would go out of your way to spend time at and that you feel thoroughly positive about. Please explain why you like the place."

The respondents' answers were categorised. The top five favorable places in each city

are presented in Table 3.9.

Table 3. 9
Top Five Favourite Places in the Two Cities

Rank	Sydney (N=48)	Rank	Melbourne (N=30)
1	Chinatown	1	Crown casino
2	Darling Harbour	2	Botanic gardens
3	Botanic gardens	3	St. Kilda beach
4	The Rocks	4	Chinatown
5	Pubs	5	Southbank

The most popular place in Sydney among the respondents was Chinatown because of good shopping opportunities and nice but inexpensive restaurants.

"I enjoy shopping there. Every weekend my friends and I go there to buy some food." (25 year old Taiwanese female)

"(it's) one of my favorite places because it has many Chinese, Vietnamese, Malaysian, and other Asian restaurants. The food is cheap but it's very delicious." (19 year old Japanese male)

"Food is good and it is a good place for shopping." (24 year old Indonesian female)

Another reason was its familiar atmosphere. A few respondents mentioned this as follows:

"I like to go to Chinatown because of the atmosphere and the people around. I enjoy having dinner with my friends." (21 year old Indonesian female)

"Chinatown: because I am Chinese and I like Chinese food. " (21 year old Thai male)

"I am Chinese so I like Chinatown." (22 year old Chinese male)

Many respondents are from Asian countries and it seems that they feel a strong cultural affinity with the atmosphere of Chinatown. According to Haynes (1981), place preferences are mainly made up of three components. The first is a general image of the attractive and unattractive part shared by similar cultures. The second is an attachment of one's home area, which is shared with other people from the same place. The third component consists of the unique preferences that are peculiar to each individual. Haynes (1981) also argued that people prefer places that are similar to their home environments although the degree of attachment is different from person to person.

Following these points several, reasons why the Asian respondents liked Chinatown

can be proposed. They might be able to see familiar signs and Asian looking people, to hear familiar language and to smell familiar food. All those familiar Asian atmospheres might evoke strong multi-sensory responses and make them feel more at home in their new surroundings.

The respondents had also positive feelings about places where many restaurants and cafés with nice views are located. Darling Harbour, The Rocks in Sydney, and the Rialto Tower and South Bank in Melbourne belong to this category.

> *"I like it because I can see the beautiful view and it is so relaxing to be there. It's also romantic at night." (21 year old Indonesian female)*

> *"Darling Harbour- (there are) many cafes and restaurants. You can see a good view from there." (22 year old Indonesian male)*

> *"…..a unique area with beautiful restaurants. It's a very exciting place. I also enjoy the view of Opera House at night from the Rocks." (26 year old Slovakian female)*

> *"Rialto Tower: Because I can see a beautiful night view from there." (23 year old Japanese female)*

> *"One of my favourite places in Melbourne is South Bank because of a beautiful view and many nice cafes with friendly staff." (24 year old Japanese female)*

Botanic gardens and beaches were also often nominated. Quite a few respondents in both cities mentioned that they often visit those places to relax and to spend time with their friends.

> *"I love the Botanic Gardens. It's a great place to hang out with friends, have a picnic, relax, read a book, do yoga and so on. I always have an excellent time there."* (24 year old Polish female in Sydney)

> *"If you like nature you should go to some gardens especially the Botanic gardens. You can feel relaxed and fresh." (21 year old Japanese female in Melbourne)*

"My favourite place in Sydney is Bondi beach. It's the place where I can relax, take a walk, enjoy swimming, eating and drinking." (42 year old Japanese female)

In addition to these places mentioned above, restaurants, pubs and some specific places were referred to, due to the respondents' own interests and experiences. Examples of this category are as follows:

"Scruphy Murphy's Irish pub in George St. – I read my books there at least one a week. (There is) nice music, a fireplace and great food." (24 year old Latvian female in Sydney)

"The State Library: I like the appearance of the building (because) I like the old style of buildings. I also like atmosphere of the library." (35 year old Korean male in Melbourne).

"GEOS:it's my first school in Melbourne. I met lots of friends there. GEOS is like a "LANDMARK" for me." (21 years old Korean female)

3.3.2.4 The Unfavourable Places in the Cities

The places that the respondents want to avoid and have negative feelings about were also identified. Numerous places were nominated with various reasons but generally they could be classified into two categories; dangerous places and places with bad experiences. Footscray in Melbourne and Kings Cross and Redfern in Sydney were in the first category.

'Kings Cross: Some people may think it's an exciting tourist attraction and perhaps it may be. But it is a dirty and disgusting place for me. I don't feel safe when I walk along the street. I can see many drug addicts. They can't behave themselves and disturb others." (26 year old Malaysian female)

"Kings Cross is dirty, unpleasant, noisy, and chaotic. (it's) very dangerous at night!!" (26 year old Slovakian female)

> *"Redfern is the area I don't want to go because it looks dangerous and unsafe. As well people who live around that area look scary to me."* (25 year old Thai female)

> *"I don't' want to go Footscary. It's too dangerous at night. I can see many drunken people."* (35 years old Korean male)

The second category was related to personal memory. The respondents tended to avoid and dislike the places where they had had bad a experience.

> *"I'm constantly avoiding my last work place in the Rocks where I worked as a waitress. I was treated very badly and the manager abused me mentally."* (Polish female, 24 year old in Sydney)

> *"I try not to go to Crown casino because I lost a lot of money."* (23 year old Taiwanese male)

> *"I do not like Spencer Street because of a bad memory. My purse was stolen."* (16 year old Japanese male in Melbourne)

Interestingly Chinatown in Sydney was chosen as an unfavourable place as well as a favorable place. Some respondents from European countries had somewhat negative emotional reactions there.

> *"There are too many Chinese. When I go there I always ask myself "Where is here?"* (24 year old Dutch male)

> *"(it's) very noisy. People (are) not really friendly to Europeans. Things (are) of poor quality."* (21 year old Polish female)

Clearly the same environment may have different meanings to individuals from different cultures because perception of place is influenced by an individual's social and cultural background (Ramadier & Moser, 1998). The finding of the respondents' perceptions toward Chinatown supported the concept that the same place can be perceived differently in terms of cultural background. Chinatown is strongly identified with by one

ethnic group. As a result of the cultural identity it is attractive to Asian respondents while some European respondents perceived it negatively and felt somewhat uncomfortable there. This preliminary descriptive account of city images based on subjects' verbal statements reinforces the need to consider cultural background as a major variable throughout this thesis.

3.3.3 Factors Influencing Style of Sketch Map: Aim 3

To explore differences in map style according to the independent variables, cultural background, length of stay and gender, the Mann-Whitney test was applied. For the purpose of comparison, length of stay was collapsed into 2 groups (group 1:less than 1 year duration; group 2: 1 year or longer duration). Similarly origin of country was collapsed into 'Asian countries' including Indonesia, Malaysia, Taiwan, China, Korea and Japan and 'European countries' such as the Czech republic, Holland, Latvia, Russia, Slovakia, Poland and Norway. Table 3.10 provides a summary of the results.

Table 3.10

Summary of the Mann-Whitney U Test for Independent Variables

Factor	Mean Score		
	Path	landmark	district
Cultural Background:			
Asia	6.03	7.37	1.32
Europe	3.52	5.57	2.26
	U=339.5, p=.017*	U=468.0, p=.39	U=492.0, p=.55
Length of Stay:			
Less than 1 year	6.68	6.48	1.60
1 year or longer	5.07	7.21	1.77
	U=621, p=.92	U=702, p=.36	U=743, p=.59
Gender:			
Male	5.61	5.52	1.23
Female	5.79	7.71	1.51
	U=1001.5, p=.82	U=830.5, p=.11	U=894.0, p=.25

* significant at the .05 level

In terms of cultural background, there was a significant difference between Asian respondents and European respondents. The result indicated that the Asian group tended to draw more paths than their European counterparts with U=339 and p =.017 at the 0.05 significant level. It is difficult to interpret this finding but one possible explanation is that there are different styles of cognitive mapping. According to Gittins (1969 cited in Pearce, 1977) there are two different styles of cognitive mapping. One is the aesthetic poetic style, which is based on individual's feeling of the places; the other one is the scientific functional style emphasizing the correct pattern of the streets and paths. When comparing the sketch maps of the two groups, the sketch maps of the Asian respondents were closer to the scientific functional style. Although the respondents were asked to draw the mental map held in their minds, Asian respondents tended to try to draw a map which is close to a realistic map. On the other hand, European respondents had a tendency to draw a sketch map emphasizing the

places they think are important and the landmarks that give them special meanings. If a general commentary and social activity, which were not measured in this study, are compared it may provide a better explanation for different mapping styles between the Asian groups and the European group.

Unlike previous research by Devlin (1976); Evans *et al.*(1981); and Guy *et al.* (1990) no differences relating to length of stay were found with regard to the landmarks, districts and paths in this study. Since Golledge and Spector (1978) focused on the anchor point theory of environmental learning, a few studies have supported the concept that individuals first use landmarks for orientation and then develop a knowledge of pathways (Guy et al., 1990; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992).

However, the results of this study did not support the anchor point theory. It is assumed that one of the reasons is the long duration of stay of the respondents. Pearce (1977) argued that cognitive maps were quick to develop. His study found that even by the second day in Oxford, subjects had basic cognitive maps in place. As mentioned in the respondent profile, the average length of stay of the sample was 22 weeks. More than 80 percent of the respondents in the less than 1 year duration group had been in the city for more than 3 months at the time of being surveyed. It means that the respondents in the less than the one year duration group had stayed long enough to develop detailed cognitive mapping, even if they had lived for relatively shorter terms than their counterparts.

In terms of gender difference, the results indicated that there was no significant difference in the frequencies of three elements. This finding supported the result of previous research which showed that there are no differences between the maps drawn by males and females (Blades, 1990; Francescato, 1973 ; Kitchin, 1996; Self, 1992). However some other early studies by Appleyard (1970), Everitt and

Cadwallader (1972) and Pearce (1977) found different results. They found that female emphasied districts and landmarks while males tended to draw path-based maps. Therefore, a conclusion from the conflicting findings is that there are no sex differences in overall cognitive mapping knowledge and ability but males and females might take different approaches to understanding their environment.

3.4 Conclusions

The purpose of the study was to identify overseas students' images of two Australian cities; Sydney and Melbourne. The present study supported the previous sketch map studies. Paths were the most commonly used elements in cognitive mapping. The majority of sketch maps drawn by the respondents produced path-like information and the most salient element was path in the combined image of both cities. This finding reemphasizes the importance of paths in city image. In terms of map style, as Lynch (1969) argued, sketch maps tend to emphasize the linear path-like element of cities. To explore Lynch's study, Appleyard (1970) sampled 320 Venezuelan citizens and found that the sketch maps were divided into two categories; sequential maps, which are dominated by the linkages and paths, and spatial maps which are dominated by areas and landmarks. The results of his study indicated that 75% of the respondents had path-dominated image when they think of their cities.

Comparing the sketch maps of Sydney and Melbourne, it appears that both cities are legible cities. The respondents were aware of the diverse physical environment they live in and they were able to draw a few main streets and dominant landmarks without much difficulty. Both cities were also perceived positively. The majority of the respondents considered the cities as beautiful, clean and friendly. In this way, the beliefs the students have about the cities are similar. Nevertheless the affective component of their appraisive images is different; it seems that Sydney is perceived more favorably. While the respondents of Sydney agreed that Sydney is an exciting

and interesting city to live in, the respondents of Melbourne were likely to perceive it as quiet and somewhat boring.

One possible explanation might be the characteristic of the physical image of Melbourne. According to Lynch (1960), one of the most important characteristics of a city is its legibility. To be a legible city, streets must be clearly identifiable and should be organized into a easily readable pattern. Extreme legibility, however, could rapidly lead to boredom (Porteous, 1977). In the same vein, due to the grid street pattern Melbourne is easily read and quickly understood but it is possible that extremely well organized street patterns make the respondents feel bored.

The next Chapter (Chapter 4) will look at international students' image of Australia as a tourist destination and their travel behaviour. Based on the conceptual framework discussed in Chapter 1, cognitive, affective, and multi-sensory images of Australia as a tourist destination will be measured. For better understanding of an international student market the study will also explore international students' travel behaviour while in Australia. Specifically, their travel motivation in Australia, tourist destinations visited, travel activities, and travel patterns including party size, type of transportation and accommodation will be identified.

CHAPTER 4
International Students' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination and Their Travel Behaviour in Australia

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Methodology
 Response Rate and Respondents' Profile
 Questionnaire Design
 Survey Procedure

4.3 Results
 Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination; Aim 1
     Cognitive Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination
     Affective Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination
     Multi-sensory Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination

 Factors Influencing Images of Australia; Aim 2
     Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination by **Age**
     Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination by **Gender**
     Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination by **Length of Stay**
     Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination by **Travel Motivation**
     Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination by **Cultural Background**

 Respondents' Travel Behaviour While in Australia: Aim 3
     Travel Motivations in Australia
     Tourist Destinations Respondents Had Visited or Intended to Visit in Australia
     Travel Patterns in Australia; Transportation, Type of Accommodation, Travel Size

4.4 Conclusions

4.1 Introduction

This study was conducted to investigate international students' images of Australia as a

tourist destination. As discussed in Chapter 1, the previous studies of destination

image have been criticized due to a lack of a conceptual framework and an over-

reliance on structured, scale based methodologies. Several researchers have argued

for more specific conceptual frameworks and diverse methodologies to provide a more

valid measure of destination image (Dann, 1996; Ecthner & Ritchie, 1991; Pearce &

Black, 1996). Therefore this study sought to explore international students' images of

Australia by using both structured and unstructured methods in the context of a

conceptual framework based on cognitive, affective and multi-sensory components.

Another aim of this study was to understand international students' travel behaviour while they are in Australia. Clearly the international student market is somewhat likely to overlap with the backpacker market because a number of younger travellers visit Australia and other destinations with the purpose of both travelling and learning English. For example, Cho (1996) found that Korean students travelling to Australia as backpackers had the secondary aim of improving their English, while Pearce (1990) revealed that an attraction of farm tourism in New Zealand for some younger Asian visitors included the chance to practise their English. It will also be apparent to many tourism researchers that the characteristics of the international student market bear some other close resemblances to the backpacker market.   Following previous research on backpackers' and international students' travel behaviours, it can be suggested that some points of similarity include a very close correspondence in the age range, extended periods of stay, substantial contact with Australian hosts and diverse international source markets (Buchanan & Rossetto, 1997; Murphy & Pearce, 1995; Shanka *et al.*, 2002).

Taking a broader perspective, it can be suggested that many studies of a single market fail to note the commonalities of the market under consideration with other segments (Moscardo *et al.*, 2001). This results in an increasingly fine-grained subdivision of tourism markets into related groups such as urban tourists (Law, 1993; Page & Hall, 2003), cultural tourists (Boniface, 1995) and heritage tourists (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). It is valuable to assess both the similarities and differences in such markets in order to identify subtle differences of relevance to marketers as well as to aid the understanding of contemporary tourism. Therefore in this study an explicit attempt was made to provide a better understanding of the international student market by comparing it with the backpacker market. More specifically these two markets were

compared in relation to motivation for travelling in Australia, tourist destination visited, travel activities, and travel pattern including party size, type of transportation and accommodation.

Three specific research objectives frame the structure of this Chapter:

1) To identify overseas students' images of Australia as a tourist destination;

2) To investigate factors influencing the images of Australia; and

3) To examine international students' travel behaviour including a comparison with the backpacker market.

Initially, the research methodologies including the survey procedure, and the respondents' profile as well as the questionnaire design are provided. Second, the analyses of the questionnaire based on the aims of this study are discussed and finally a discussion linking the core findings to existing knowledge is presented.

4.2 Methodology

4.2.1 Survey Procedure

A self-administered questionnaire was used in this study. To administer the survey, the researcher contacted the heads of a number of English Language Centres in Sydney and Melbourne through email (Appendix 4). Six English Language Centres in Sydney and five in Melbourne agreed to cooperate and a total of eight English Language Centres from Sydney and Melbourne, which have more than 100 international students, were chosen. The researcher sent e-mails to the English Language Centres to confirm their cooperation and to inform them of the researcher's date of visit for the survey. A total of 500 questionnaires were personally distributed between 9 July and 18 July, 2002. Three hundred survey forms in Sydney and 200 questionnaires in Melbourne were distributed via the researcher and lecturers in the English Language Centres during classes.

The questionnaire required about 30 minutes to complete but depending on their level of English, some respondents took longer to complete. Since English is the second language of the respondents, some of the respondents in the lower level of the English courses had some problems in understanding and answering questions. Thus, the researcher and the teachers provided additional explanation to help them complete the questionnaire.

Table 4.1 provides a summary of the questionnaire distribution and the return rate. Out of 500 distributed questionnaires, 365 useable responses were collected. Return rates for each city were Sydney 77% and Melbourne 67%. Therefore, the overall response rate was 73%.

Table 4.1
Return Rate

City	No. of distributed questionnaire	No. of usable questionnaire	Return rate
Sydney	300	231	77.0%
Melbourne	200	134	67.0%
Total	500	365	73.0%

4.2.2 Respondents' Profile

The demographic profile of the respondents is presented in Table 4.2. There were slightly more females (53.2%) than males (46.6%) in the sample of respondents, which was consistent with the profile of the first study. In terms of age, the mean age was 23 years. The majority of respondents were aged under 25 years (74.6%) and approximately 24% of the respondents were 26 years or older. At the time of being surveyed, the respondents had been in Australia for an average of approximately 5 months and half of the respondents had lived here between 2 – 6 months. Twenty four percent of the respondents had lived in Sydney or Melbourne under 2 months and

about 14 percent had lived more than 6 months. Eighty percent of the respondents were first time visitors to Australia and approximately 65% had no previous overseas travel experience. In terms of accommodation, almost half of the respondents (48%) had stayed with friends or relatives and 32% had stayed with host families.
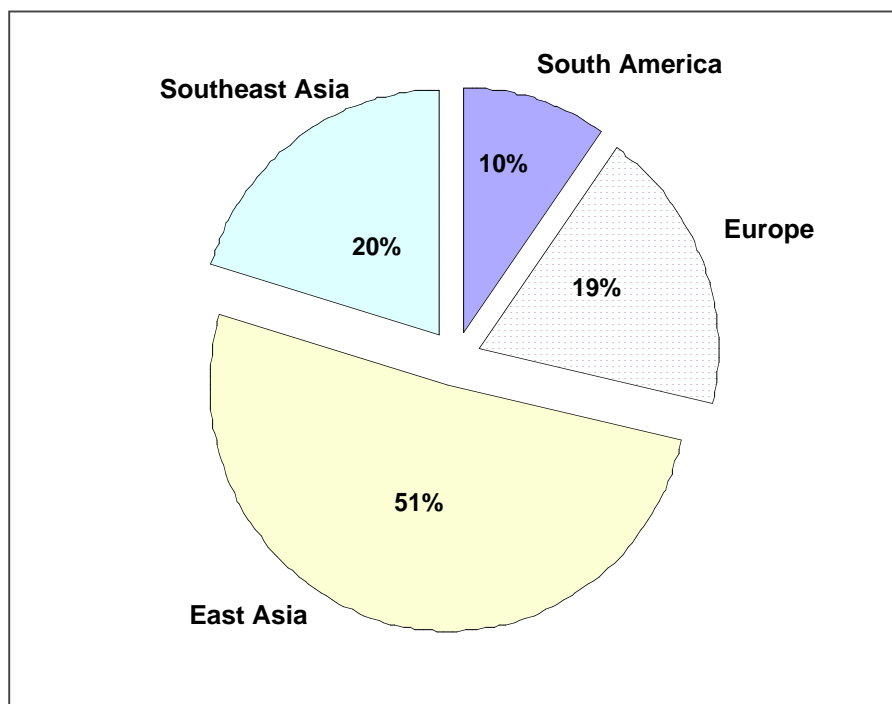
Table 4.2
Profile of Respondents

Categories	Frequency	Percent
Gender:		
Male	170	46.6
Female	194	53.2
Unknown	1	0.3
Age :		
20 years old or younger	122	34.0
21 –25 years	146	40.6
26 years old or older	91	23.8
Unknown	6	1.6
Length of stay in Australia		
Less than 2 months	86	24.4
2 – 6 months	204	57.9
More than 6 months	63	14.4
Unknown	12	3.3
Length of future stay in Australia		
Less than 6 months	122	41.3
6 –12 months	111	32.5
More than 12 months	108	19.6
Unknown	24	6.6
Whether first visit to Australia		
Yes	293	80.3
No	68	18.6
Unknown	4	1.1
Who are you staying with?		
Alone	69	18.9
Host family	118	32.3
Relatives	51	14.0
Friends	123	33.7
Unknown	4	1.1
Overseas travel experience		
Yes	128	35.3
No	235	64.4
Unknown	2	.5

As can be seen in Figure 4.1, when nationality is compared across major regions, Asian students comprised the largest portion of respondents followed by Europeans and South Americans. Approximately 71% of the respondents came from Asia. The

profile is consistent with the results obtained in the analysis of the survey of ELICOS students conducted by Australian Education International (2000) although in the present study respondents from South America are somewhat over represented. As expected Japan, Korea and China were the top three countries of origin for respondents. Brazil, Taiwan, Thailand and Indonesia were the next most common countries of origin (Table 4.3).

Figure 4.1 Distribution of Respondents by Global Region

Table 4.3
Demographic Profile of Respondent by Nationality

Country	Frequency	Percent
Japan	65	17.8
Korean	61	16.7
China	35	9.6
Brazil	33	9.0
Taiwan	27	7.4
Thailand	25	6.8
Indonesia	18	4.9
Vietnam	16	4.4
The Czech Republic	12	3.3
Germany	11	3.0
*Other	62	16.9

*Other: Argentina, Austria, Basque Country, Cambodia, Colombia. France, Hungary, India, Italy, Malaysia, Poland, Russia, Singapore, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland

4.2.3 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was designed to understand international students' images of Australia as a tourist destination and their travel behaviour (Appendix 5 & 6). Echtner and Ritchie (1991) identified two basic approaches to the measurement of image: structured and unstructured. A structured approach to image measurement can be easily administered, coded and analysed and it allows more advanced statistical analyses. On the other hand, the respondents are allowed to more freely describe their impressions of a destination by using unstructured methodologies. Therefore it was concluded that both structured and unstructured measurement techniques should be used to capture the richness and multi-components of the destination image.

Section One was designed to capture the demographic data considered important for the study. To examine factors influencing images of Australia held by overseas students, demographic variables were chosen based on previous research such as gender (Pearce, 1977; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992), length of stay (Fakeye & Crompton,

1991), previous visitation (Ahmed, 1991; Dann, 1996; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991), and cultural background (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Richardson & Crompton, 1988).

Section Two included seven questions asking about the image of Australia based on three image components, which are cognitive, affective and multi-sensory images. To determine cognitive images previous literature regarding destination images of Australia as a tourist destination were reviewed (Cho, 1996; Kim, 1996; King & Choi, 1997; Murphy, 1999b; Ross, 1991, 1993; Shanka *et al.*, 2002; Waitt, 1996). Thirteen cognitive items including scenery, climate, cultural attractions, natural attractions, food, accommodation, transportation, water sports, personal safety, entertainment, value for money, local people, and shopping opportunities were selected. Respondents were asked to rate how much Australia offers as a tourist destination compared to their home country on a 5 point scale ranging from 1(offers less than my country) to 5 (offers more than my country). This kind of implicit benchmarking approach to assessing tourists' attitudes and perceptions is gaining some favour as researchers seek to develop sensitive and less skewed visitor appraisals (Noe, 1999)

Research in environmental psychology has determined that environments have cognitive and affective images (Lynch, 1960; Russell *et al.*, 1989; Russell & Pratt, 1980). Several researchers in the tourism field also agreed that the image construct has two main components and argued that they should be measured separately because positive cognitive images do not always lead to positive affective images (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gartner, 1986). In this study, the affective image scale developed by Russell and his colleagues was applied (Russell *et al*., 1989; Russell & Pratt, 1980). The scale includes four bipolar adjectives: unpleasant – pleasant, sleepy – arousing, distressing – relaxing, and gloomy – exciting. A seven-point scale is used for all four bipolar scales. The positive poles were to be assigned higher numbers.

Multi-sensory images were also measured using unstructured as well as structured questioning. Photographs were used to measure visual images of Australia as a tourist destination. There is limited image research using photos as stimuli even though the advantages of photograph use have been mentioned by several researchers. Fairweather and Swaffield (2002) examined visitors' experiences in Rotorua, New Zealand and they used photographs as stimuli to investigate visitors' experience of landscape in major New Zealand tourism destinations. The study showed that using photos could be a useful research method for understanding destination images from a visitor's viewpoint. Brown *et al.* (1988) and Munson (1993) also noted the advantages of using photos because pictures can depict environmental situations more accurately than mere verbal description and they can present the same visual stimuli to each respondent.

According to Pearce and Black (1996), the dominance of structured techniques in image research has led to a concentration on verbal over visual techniques and they also argued that researchers need to begin to think creatively about using photographs since tourists' experiences are increasingly dominated by visual images. Therefore as an attempt to measure visual images, photographs were applied in this study.

Twelve photos were selected based on Murphy (1999). In Murphy's study the respondents were asked to list any words which described their image of Australia. Twelve attributes which represent visual images of Australia were selected from Murphy's study (Appendix 5). Respondents were asked to rate how much each photo represented their image of Australia on a 7 point scale ranging from 1(does not represent the image of Australia at all) to 7(very much represents the image of Australia).

Since visual images cannot capture the whole destination experience which includes

sound, smell and other sensory qualities (Fairweather & Saffield, 2002), an open-ended question was developed in order to measure those sensory images. As an exploratory approach to this topic, a question was developed as follows:

When you think of Australia, do you have any sensory images in your mind such as pleasant or unpleasant smells, touch or sounds? Please make your answers as detailed as possible.

Overall images was also measured since summative evaluations of cognitive and affective images are potentially different (Ahmed, 1991). An overall image measurement scale was adapted from Baloglu and McCleary (1999). Respondents were asked to rate their overall impression of Australia as a tourist destination on a 7 point scale ranging from 1 very unfavourable to 7 very favourable.

Section 3 also contained a combination of open and closed ended questions. Specifically, the research attempted to determine visitors' travel patterns and travel related activities and experiences. At first, the respondents were asked if they had taken a vacation trip in Australia. If so, they were asked to answer the questions concerning tourist destinations they had visited, travel activities that they had experienced in Australia, and travel patterns concerning such issues as the length of the trip, transportation, accommodation and expenses. To identify tourist destinations respondents had visited, maps of Australia and of the states of New South Wales and Victoria, with their main tourist destinations highlighted, were used to help the respondents recall visited destinations.

To understand their travel motivation, respondents were asked to rate the importance of travel motivation items using a 5-point Likert scale. Twenty eight motivation items (Table 4.4) were selected based on Lee and Pearce's study (2002) of travel motivation and travel career patterns. Lee and Pearce attempted to identify a broad range of

travel motivation items and selected 74 items from the existing tourism and leisure literature. The 74 motivation items were again classified into 14 motivation factors. In this study, the two highest factor loading items from each of the 14 motivation factors were selected. Finally, respondents were asked whether they were planning to visit some places that they had not yet visited in Australia and what were the important things to be experienced before leaving Australia.

Table 4.4
A List of 28 Travel Motivation Items

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</div>

To experience a well publicised new travel destination.

(Source: Lee and Pearce, 2002)

4.3 Results

The questionnaire was analysed based on the three research objectives: to identify overseas students' images of Australia as a tourist destination; to investigate factors influencing the images of Australia; and to examine overseas students' travel behaviour. First of all, this section of the chapter deals with the results of section 2 of the questionnaire containing cognitive, affective, sensory and general images of Australia as a tourist destination. It addresses aims 1 and 2 of the study. Finally, the results of respondents' travel motivation, their travel activities and travel pattern while in Australia, which address aim 3, are discussed.

4.3.1 Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination; Aim 1

4.3.1.1 Cognitive Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination

Respondents were asked to rate Australia as a tourist destination compared to their home country based on 13 cognitive attributes. Specific responses to each of the attributes are presented in Table 4.5. The results indicated that Australia's perceived major strengths are its natural attractions, its variety of water sports and its beautiful scenery. Less than 10% of respondents answered that their countries offer more in these three attributes. In the case of natural attractions, the majority of the respondents (75%) perceived that Australia offers more natural attractions than their home country with the mean score of 4.03 on a five point scale where higher number indicated greater agreement. More than half of the respondents agreed that Australia offers more than their home country in terms of variety of water sports and beautiful scenery. The results also indicated that the respondents had relatively positive images of Australia in terms of friendly people, personal safety, pleasant climate, and convenient transportation. Approximately two thirds of the respondents answered that Australia offers more than their country, or at least the same as their country, in those four attributes.

Table 4.5
Cognitive Images of Australia Held by the Respondents

	Mean[1]	Std. D.	Frequency (%)		
			Less than my country	The same as my country	More than my country
Natural attractions	4.03	1.00	29 (8.0)	61 (16.9)	272 (75.2)
Variety of water sports	3.94	.92	20 (5.5)	96 (26.6)	245 (67.8)
Beautiful scenery	3.80	.93	28 (7.7)	91 (25.1)	244 (67.2)
Friendly people	3.51	1.01	50 (13.7)	127 (34.9)	187 (51.4)
Personal safety	3.40	1.16	77 (21.2)	113 (31.1)	173 (47.7)
Pleasant climate	3.37	1.15	83 (22.9)	97 (26.7)	183 (50.5)
Convenient transportation	3.32	1.31	106 (29.0)	86 (23.6)	173 (47.8)
Suitable accommodation	3.20	1.06	83 (23.1)	139 (38.6)	138 (38.3)
Cultural attractions	3.18	1.10	98 (27.1)	120 (33.1)	134 (39.8)
Value for money	3.07	1.18	111 (30.6)	119 (32.8)	133 (36.6)
Variety of food	2.95	1.32	138 (38.0)	94 (25.9)	131 (36.1)
Good nightlife	2.93	1.20	130 (36.0)	101 (28.0)	130 (36.0)
Shopping opportunities	2.86	1.19	137 (36.7)	109 (29.9)	118 (32.4)

N=363
[1] a 5 point scale :1=offers less than my country, 5=offers more than my country

It was also found that Australia has less positive images on the variety of food (mean = 2.95), good nightlife (mean = 2.93) and shopping opportunities (mean = 2.86). Only approximately 30% of respondents agreed that Australia offers more than their own countries in terms of these three attributes. The respondents also indicated that Australia had poor images on cultural attractions and value for money. More than 60

percent of the respondents answered that Australia offers less or the same as their country in terms of cultural attractions and value for money.

The results supported previous research on images of Australia as a tourist destination. The studies found that Australia was highly evaluated on its natural environment (Cho, 1996; King & Choi, 1997; Murphy, 1999b; Ross, 1993), beautiful scenery (Prideaux, 1998; Waitt, 1996), friendly people (Murphy, 1999; Ross, 1993; Waitt, 1996), safety (King & Choi, 1997) and water sports opportunities (Cho, 1996). On the other hand, shopping opportunities, cultural attractions and cuisine were poorly evaluated in various studies. Waitt (1996) conducted a study of Korean students' images of Australia as a tourist destination and the results indicated that cultural heritage and shopping opportunities were perceived negatively. In Prideaux's (1998) study, shopping opportunities and unique cuisine ranked second last and last respectively. Prideaux's study found which is consistent with the present results that although cuisine is regarded as an important element of the holiday experience, the respondents were dissatisfied with food experiences in Australia.

4.3.1.2 Affective Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination

Affective images of Australia were measured by using four bipolar scales. The reliability and validity of the scales have been established over different cultures and environment types (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Russell *et al.*, 1989; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993; Ward & Russell, 1981). A seven-point scale is used for all four bipolar scales where the positive poles were assigned to higher numbers. As illustrated in Table 4.6, Australia was perceived as relaxing and pleasant with mean scores of 5.38 and 5.36 respectively. More than 75% of the respondents perceived Australia as pleasant and relaxing and approximately 70 percent of the respondents also viewed Australia as an exciting country as a tourist destination. The results of the affective image scales showed that respondents had relatively positive affective images of

Australia.

Table 4.6
**Affective Images of Australia Held by Respondents**

Scale	Mean[a]	Std. D.
Distressing (1) – Relaxing (7)	5.38	1.21
Unpleasant (1) - Pleasant (7)	5.36.	1.17
Gloomy (1) – Exciting (7)	5.02	1.32
Sleepy(1) – Arousing (7)	4.68	1.25

N=359
[a] based on a seven-point scale; the larger the value, the more favourable the responses

4.3.1.3 Overall Impression of Australia as a Tourist Destination

In general, the overall impression of Australia as a tourist destination held by respondents was favourable. As can be seen in Figure 4.2, less than 10% of the respondents answered that the overall impression of Australia as a tourist destination was somewhat unfavourable or very unfavourable and approximately 73% of the respondents' overall impression of Australia as a tourist destination was favourable or very favourable.
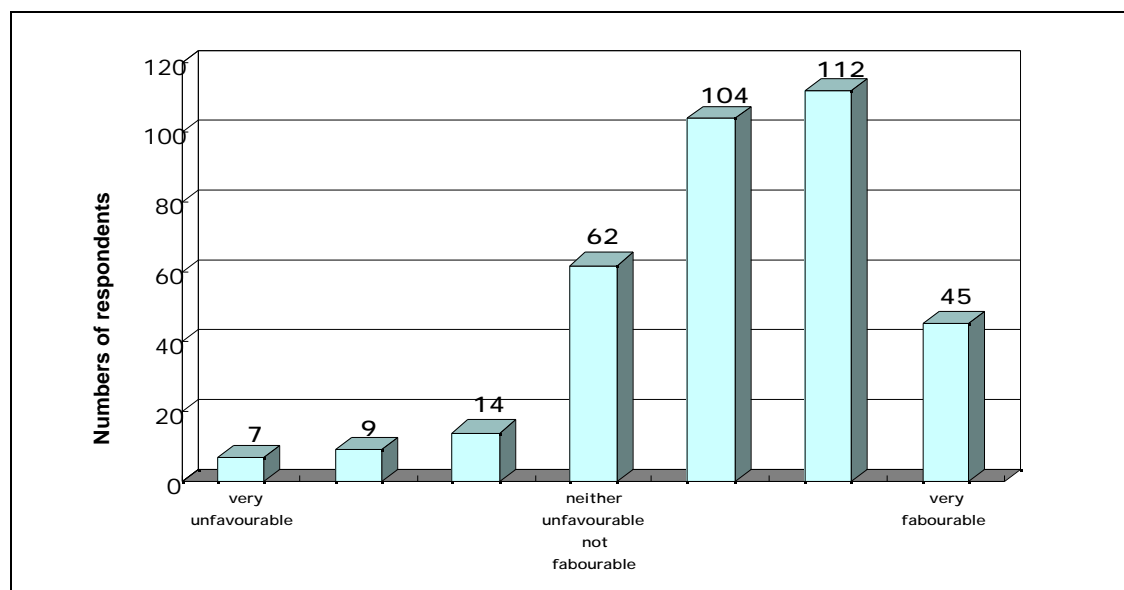
N = N=352
Figure 4.2 Respondents' Overall Impression of Australia as a Tourist Destination

4.3.1.4 Likelihood of Recommending Australia to Others

Visitors may not plan to revisit a destination but what they say through word-of-mouth to their friends, family and colleagues has a great impact on the destination images held by their friends and colleagues who have not visited. For example, Nolan (1976), amongst others, investigated the sources of travel information used by domestic tourists in The United States of America and found that the advice of friends or relatives was rated most informative. Therefore it is important to measure tourists' likelihood of recommending Australia to others.

The present results indicated that approximately 86% of the respondents would recommend to friends that they travel to Australia and less than 10 percent of the respondents answered that they were uncertain whether they would recommend it or not. Previous research findings demonstrate that there is a significant relationship among tourist satisfaction, intention to return, and positive word-of mouth communication (Ross, 1993). Therefore it can be assumed from the result of the likelihood of recommendation responses that the majority of respondents were satisfied with Australia as a tourist destination.

4.3.1.5 Main Attributes of Australia

The respondents were asked to write three things that they would like to talk about to their friends living in their home country. Table 4.7 shows the list of the top twelve attributes frequently mentioned. The attributes were selected by at least 20 percent of respondents.

Table 4.7
Top Twelve Attributes of Australia to be Reported to Friends in Home Country

Rank	Attribute
1	Australian lifestyle and its culture
2	Famous tourism attractions
3	Beautiful beaches
4	Friendly people
5	Animals (kangaroo, koala etc.)
6	Natural environment
7	Beautiful scenery
7	Weather
9	Multi cultural society
10	Australian cities
11	Australian food
12	Convenient transportation system

N=210

The top three attributes mentioned by respondents were Australian lifestyle and its culture, famous tourism attractions and beautiful beaches. The majority of the respondents mentioned that they would like to talk about the Australian lifestyle and the culture they had experienced. The most frequently mentioned comments related to Australian lifestyle were about quality of life, particularly the easygoing and slow pace-lifestyle. This topic will be developed more in the next study of this thesis.

"I was quite impressed with quality of life in Australia. I think Australian people have more time to develop their own interests and they spend more time with their family. I feel sorry for Korean people. Korean men living in a big city work from early in the morning until late evening so they can hardly enjoy leisure time." (26 year old Korean male)

"In the beginning, I was quite angry with the limited hours that shops were open. Unlike my country, the shops are closed very early. There are few places for shopping at evening here. But now I get used to it because I understand Australian lifestyle a little bit. It is inconvenient for people like me to shop at night but I think it is good for Australian people because they can spend more time with their families. (19 year old Taiwanese female)

Another Korean respondent mentioned Australians' casual clothing style:

"I think clothing style in Australia is more casual. It seems Australian people less care for appearance than Korean people. In Korea physical appearance reflects social position so people pay attention to what to wear. In Australia I don't have to wear formal style clothes. I can wear whatever I want." (25 year old Korean female)

Some respondents especially from East Asian countries where lifestyle is relatively fast viewed Australian lifestyle somewhat negatively and a couple of respondents mentioned negative comments about racism:

"……the Australian style of work is more relaxed and flexible. It seems too relaxed to me. All service here is quite slow so I need much patience. (28 year old Korean female)

"I don't like waiting buses. The bus never comes on time. It always comes late. (20 year old Japanese male)

"Australia has human problem   with Aboriginal and refugees. They killed many aborigines. I watched a documentary program about refugees on TV. The life in detention center was terrible." (26 year old Turkish male)

Weather and food they had tried in Australia were also common topics respondents would like to talk about to their friends. It seemed that the respondents had two contrary opinions toward weather and Australian food. Some would like to tell them friends about good weather and the Australian food they had enjoyed. The others, on the other hand, had negative opinions. For example, one respondent who had been lived 2 months in Melbourne complained about the cold weather:

"Usually when people talk about Australia they often mention nice weather. If someone likes the sunny sky Melbourne is not the right place to live in. I seldom see blue sky here and it's very cold." (21 year old Brazilian female)

As expected, beautiful beaches, scenery and famous tourist attractions were the popular topics respondents would like to talk about when they return home. The tourist attractions that they most often mentioned were Ayers Rock, the Sydney Opera House,

the Great Ocean Road and the Great Barrier Reef. Australian animals which were ranked fifth as an overall category and included the kangaroo, the koala, the emu, and the dingo were also one of favourable attributes of Australia for the respondents.

4.3.1.6 Multi-sensory Images of Australia

To measure visual images, respondents were asked to rate how much they thought each photo represented the image of Australia in their mind. Twelve photos were provided and Table 4.8 shows the result based on the ranking of the mean scores. Symbols can make a destination unique from other destinations. It seems that kangaroos, koalas and the Sydney Opera House were the symbols of Australia and these unique visual symbols differentiate Australia from other countries. The top three most representative visual images for respondents were the kangaroo, the Sydney Opera House, and the koala respectively. Approximately 90 percent of the respondents answered that the kangaroo represents the image of Australia very much and more than 80 percent of them had a clear visual image of the Sydney Opera House and a koala in their mind.

Table 4.8
Visual Image of Australia

Rank	Visual image	Mean[1]	SD
1	Kangaroo	6.23	1.27
2	Sydney Opera House	6.20	1.30
3	Koala	6.19	1.24
4	Ayers Rock	5.68	1.56
5	Interesting wildlife	5.52	1.42
6	Good beaches	5.49	1.42
7	Great Barrier Reef	5.44	1.55
8	Aboriginal culture	5.20	1.67
9	Open space	4.75	1.78
10	Outback	4.49	1.66
11	Good weather	4.38	1.70
12	Rain forest	4.02	1.63

N=357
[1] A seven point scale (1=does not represent image of Australia at all; 7= very much represent image of Australia)

Ayers Rock was ranked fourth followed by interesting wildlife, good beaches, the Great Barrier Reef and aboriginal culture. Rainforest was the least representative among the 12 photos. Approximately only 36% of respondents answered that image of rain forest is somewhat or very representative in their mind. Good weather was also not a very representative visual image of Australia. The result was consistent with that of the first study. In the first study, respondents were asked to write five attributes that they want to tell their friends in their home country and cold and unpredictable weather was ranked fourth in a list of attributes of Melbourne. Winter in Australia, especially in Melbourne might be unpleasant for respondents from Southeast Asian and South American countries who were not familiar with cold weather. Therefore good weather might not be a representative visual image of Australia, certainly not for all parts of Australia. The more general issue of respondents' familiarity and home based contrasts or benchmarks will be discussed in the next chapter.

Respondents were asked whether they had any pleasant or unpleasant sensory images such as smell, sound and touch image in their mind when they thought of Australia. Table 4.9 provides a summary of responses.

Table 4.9
Respondents' Multi-sensory Images of Australia

Olfactory images (N=134))	
1	Sea
2	Asian food
3	Fresh air
4	Forest, Trees, Grasses
5	Animal (Kangaroo, Koala etc.)
Others: BBQ, Tropical fruits	
Auditory image (N=109)	
1	Birds' singing (Cockatoo, Kookaburra etc.)
2	Waves
3	Various foreign languages
4	Aboriginal music
5	Birds' noise
Others: Traffic, Wind, Music on the street	
Tactile image (N=96)	
1	Animals (Kangaroo, Koala, Snake, Sheep, Camel etc.)
2	Sand
3	Trees
4	Rocks
5	Green grass
Others: Warmth of the sun, Snow, Wind	

Smell can be an important part of travel experiences since it can evoke strong emotional memories. Psychological research indicates that olfaction seems to stimulate emotional or motivational arousal, whereas visual experience is much more

likely to involve thought and cognition (Engen, 1982). Engen (1982) confirmed that while we may distinguish between smells with only 20 per cent accuracy, we are able to remember these smells with almost the same degree of accuracy up to a year later. Respondents remembered the smells of the sea, Asian food, and fresh air when they thought of Australia.

> *"When I think of Australia, the most distinctive smell is the smell of the sea……"* (19 year old Austrian male)

> *"I will remember the chill and fresh air in the early morning."* (32 year old Vietnamese female)

A certain smell can remind individuals of previous memories and one respondent mentioned that the smell of trees reminded her of home:

> *"I like the smell of trees in Hyde park. Smell of trees is similar as that of where I live in Japan. It reminds me of my hometown."* (22 year old Japanese female)

In terms of sound images, the top three most often mentioned were birds' singing, waves, and various foreign languages. Interestingly, a few respondents especially from Asian countries mentioned that various foreign languages were a memorable sound.

> *"Before I came to Australia, I did not expect that there were many many foreigners and emigrants. Wherever I go I can hear various languages. Sometimes I can't even guess what language they are speaking. It's quite interesting experience."* (22 year old Thai male)

The same sound can be pleasant to one individual but unpleasant to another person based on individual's preferences, personal experiences and familiarity. The study found that sounds of birds were perceived differently. Generally, respondents from South Asian countries and South American countries considered the birds' sounds as pleasant but East Asian respondents tended to be annoyed by them. One Korean female respondent describe her unpleasant feeling regarding birds' sound as follows:

"Australia has great sounds. The birds. WOW!! especially the laugh of the kookaburra. Sounds of the frogs….." (24 year old Brazilian male)

"Every morning birds' noise wake me up. It's very noisy and stressful!" (21 year old Korean female)

Again this may be explained by in terms of familiarity and unfamiliarity. Like olfactory senses there is a strong tendency to judge unfamiliar sounds as unpleasant. Persons are likely to judge an unfamiliar sound as unpleasant and familiar sounds as pleasant (Dann & Jacobsen, 2002). East Asian respondents who live in a big city in their home countries may not be familiar with birds' sounds and they may have never heard of sounds of tropical and subtropical birds. Therefore it is possible that the unfamiliarity of the birds' sounds engenders unpleasant feelings.

When questioned about tactile images, respondents answered that the touch of animals such as kangaroos, koalas, snakes, and sheep were the most memorable experience. The feel of sand, trees and rocks were ranked second, third and fourth respectively. Some respondents expressed their unique tactile feelings of touching snow, or feeling breezes and feeling of the warmth of the sun.

"….I enjoy walking on the beach sand with bare feet because it 's very soft." (20 year old Japanese male)

"I went to Snowy Mountain for skiing with my friends. Touching snow was unforgettable…." (20 year old Brazilian female)

4.3.2 Factors Influencing Images of Australia: Aim 2

The second objective of this study was to investigate whether destination images differ based on gender, age, length of stay, travel motivation and cultural background. To test whether there is a relationship between the characteristics of respondents and destination images, t-test and One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were applied. Independent variables were gender, age, length of stay, motivation, cultural

background and travel motivation and the dependent variables were cognitive, visual, affective and overall images. These relationships were tested at the .05 level of significance.

4.3.2.1 Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination by Age

Statistical tests were done to see if there is a relationship between age and destination images. For a more reasonable sized analysis, the sample was divided into two groups (1=20 year old or younger, 2= 21 years old or older). As shows in Table 4.10, there was no significant relationship between age and destination images. Significant differences at the .05 level were found in only two out of 13 cognitive destination items. The younger respondents tended to have more positive images of shopping opportunities and accommodation. Compared with the visual images, the older group had more vivid images of outback, wildlife, Ayers Rock and the open spaces of Australia. There was no statistical difference on affective images and general impressions by age although the older respondent group was more likely to have higher scores than its counterpart.

Table 4.10

Comparison of Images of Australia by Age

	t	Sig.	Mean	
			20 years old or younger (N=121)	**21 years old or older** (N=236)
Cognitive Images (5 point scale: 1=offers little, 5=offers much)				
Shopping opportunities	3.56	.000*	3.16	2.69
Suitable accommodation	2.87	.004*	3.42	3.08
Visual images (5 point scale: 1=does not represent at all, 5=very much represents)				
Outback	2.82	.005*	4.16	4.68
Interesting wildlife	2.08	.038*	5.29	5.62
Ayers Rock	2.62	.009*	5.38	5.83
Open space	2.14	.033*	4.48	4.90

 * significant at .05 level

4.3.2.2 Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination by Gender

The respondents' perception toward destination attributes according to their gender was tested in order to identify any differences in their images of Australia as a tourist destination. As Table 4.11 shows, generally female respondents were more likely to have higher scores than male respondents. However the results showed that male respondents did not have statistically different perceptions on any attribute compared to female respondents except for natural attractions and value for money.

Table 4.11
Comparison of Images of Australia by Gender

	t	Sig.	Mean	
			Male (N=168)	**Female** (N=194)
Cognitive Images (5 point scale: 1=offers little, 5=offers much)				
Natural attractions	2.01	.045*	3.91	4.13
Value for money	2.32	.021*	2.92	3.21
Affective Images (7 point scale, where positive poles were assigned to the higher values)				
Unpleasant-pleasant	2.32	.021*	5.20	5.49
Gloomy-exciting	2.01	.045*	4.86	5.14
Visual images (5 point scale: 1=does not represent at all, 5=very much represents)				
Outback	2.00	.046*	4.68	4.33
Ayers Rock	2.02	.044*	5.50	5.83
Overall impression (7 point scale:1=very unfavourable, 7=very favourable)				
	1.56	.119	5.04	5.25

* significant at .05 level

In terms of the item natural attraction, there was a significant difference with a mean of 3.91 for the male group and 4.13 for the female group, with t=2.01 and p=.045. The results indicated that females were more likely than males to agree that Australia offers more natural attractions more than their home countries. The female group also more positively perceived on the attribute of value for money than did the male respondents (male group:2.92; female group: 3.21). However, in general it seemed that whether respondents are male or female made no striking or powerful substantive differences in their cognitive images of Australia.

Analysis was also undertaken in order to identify any differences between male and female respondents in regards to affective image scales. There were significant differences between the two groups in terms of the scales of unpleasant-pleasant and gloomy-exciting. It was found that female group perceived Australia as more pleasant and exciting than their male counterparts.

In terms of visual images, male respondents had more vivid images of the outback with a mean of 4.68 for the male group and 4.33 for the female group while female respondents had more agreement that Ayers Rock (Uluru) represents the image of Australia. Except for these two visual images, there was no significant difference between the male and female groups.

4.3.2.3 Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination by Length of Stay

To address the relationship between length of stay and images of Australia as a tourist destination, respondents were divided into 3 groups (group 1: 2 months or less duration; group 2: 3 months – 6 months duration; group 3: more than 6 months duration). One-way ANOVA statistics were employed and a post-hoc test was conducted to see which group means are significantly different from which other group means. The Scheffe test was chosen for the post hoc test. The Scheffe is the most rigorous because its procedure allows for a comparison of all possible paired comparisons and complex comparisons between combined means (Ryan, 1995). The results of the one-way ANOVAs and post hoc comparisons of the mean score of the each group are summarised in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12
Comparison of Images of Australia by Length of Stay

	F	Sig.	Mean		
			Less than 3 months (N=121)	3 – 6 months (N=167)	More than 6 months (N=63)
Cognitive Images (5 point scale: 1=offers little, 5=offers much)					
Good nightlife	5.03	.007*	3.22^a	2.82^b	2.74^b
Shopping opportunities	9.48	.000*	3.19^a	2.74^b	2.46^b
Suitable accommodation	3.84	.022*	3.40^a	3.15	2.98^b
Affective images (7 point scale, where positive poles were assigned to the higher values)					
Unpleasant-pleasant	9.48	.000*	5.41^a	5.51^a	4.87^b
Sleepy-arousing	5.42	.005*	4.94^a	4.66	4.31^b
Distressing-relaxing	2.45	.087	5.25	5.53	5.25
Gloomy-exciting	4.11	.017*	5.24^a	4.98	4.66^b
Visual images (5 point scale: 1=does not represent at all, 5=very much represents)					
Koala	7.15	.001*	6.07^a	6.24^a	5.76^b
Kangaroo	3.89	.021*	6.30^a	6.32^a	5.82^b
Overall impression (7 point scale:1=very unfavourable, 7=very favourable)					
	7.00	.001*	5.24^a	5.30^a	4.60^b

*significant at .05 level

Note: Means with a different superscripted letter are significantly different at the .05 level

The findings indicated that there was a negative relationship between the length of stay and perception of Australia on some items; the longer respondents stayed the less positive images of Australia they had. Respondents who had lived in Australia more than 6 months (Group 3) had the most negative perceptions of shopping opportunities with a mean of 3.19 for the Group 1; 2.74 for Group 2 and 2.47 for the Group 3 at the .001 level. The majority of the respondents in Group 3 also answered that Australia offered less than their home country in terms of good nightlife and suitable accommodation.

Comparing affective images of Australia among the three groups, the longer stay respondents, tended to perceive Australia most negatively. The results of the post hoc test indicated that longer stay respondents perceived Australia as less pleasant than their counterparts. Group 3, who had stayed 6 months or longer also gave the lowest scores on the scales of sleepy-arousing and gloomy-exciting. Compared to the other two groups, group 3 felt that Australia was less arousing and exciting.

In the visual images comparisons, whether one had lived for shorter or longer periods of time in Australia made no difference except for the image of koala and kangaroo. The longer stay respondents answered that the images of koala and kangaroo were less representative in their mind compared to the respondents who stayed for relatively shorter periods of time. When comparing overall impression, there was a significant difference among groups with a mean of 5.24 for Group 1; 5.30 for Group 2; and 4.60 for Group 3. The result of post hoc test indicated that Group 3 was significantly different from the other 2 groups, which means that Australia as a tourist destination had altered impressions for the respondents who had stayed 6 months or longer.

The results provide some support for the notion that experience with a destination changes images. The findings indicated that people who stay longer hold significantly different views of many of the image components from those who have relatively shorter stays in Australia. However, the findings did not support previous research demonstrating that long stayers have more positive attitudes toward a destination than short stayers (Crompton, 1979; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Fakeye and Crompton (1991) conducted a study of image differences between first time and repeat visitors to the lower Rio Grande Valley in Texas and found that length of stay significantly influenced respondents' perceptions of the destination. The long stayers had a more positive attitude toward the destination than short stayers since those who stay longer gained a deeper experience and they were more aware of the culture through

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developing contacts with residents and using the destination's facilities.

Surprisingly, this study found that the long stayers had the least positive attitude toward Australia as a tourist destination, which is contrary to this finding of Fakeye and Crompton (1991). One possible explanation might be Lysgaard's (1955, cited in Ward *et al.*, 1998) U curve of adjustment which is the most popular and well known theory of cross-cultural adaptation. Lysgaard concluded from his study of over 200 Norwegian Fulbright scholars in the United States that people go through three phases: initial adjustment, crisis and regained adjustment. He implied that the period of adjustment took about twenty months and the greatest adjustment difficulties were encountered by those sojourners who had resided abroad 6-12 months compared to either those who had been overseas less than 6 months or more than 18 months. During the crisis stage, which is the bottom of u-curve, sojourners experienced the feelings of inadequacy, frustration and anxiety due to differences in languages, concepts, values, and familiar signs and it may lead to less positive attitude toward the host country and its people (Church, 1982). In the same vein, it might be possible that longer stayers in this study, who had been lived in Australia between 6-12 months, were in the stage of crisis or at least continuing adaptation. However, further study is needed to understand better the reason why longer stayers had less favorable images of Australia as a tourist destination compared to shorter stayers.

4.3.3.4. Respondents' Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination by Travel Motivation

Travel motivations are included in destination choice and image formation models as a major influence guiding the development of destination images (Moutinho, 1987; Stabler, 1988; Um & Crompton, 1999) and some empirical studies have provided support for this relationship (Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Hu & Ritchie, 1993). Travel destination selection models of Um and Crompton (1990) and Woodside and Lysonski

(1989) portrayed travel motivations as a major variable influencing destination awareness and perceptual/cognitive evaluations.

Several other tourism scholars have suggested that motivations are related to the affective component of image (Dann, 1996; Gartner, 1993). Gartner (1993) suggested that an individual's affective image toward a destination is influenced by his/her motivations from the travel experience. Baloglu & Brinberg (1997) also argued for the need to study the relationship between tourists' motivations and their affective images toward tourism destinations. This component of the present study attempted to investigate whether travel motivation influenced respondents' images of Australia as a tourist destination.

For a more succinct analysis of comparison of images of Australia using motivation, cluster analysis was applied to the 28 motive items. Cluster analysis is a statistical technique which places respondents into groups so that those within each group are more similar to each other than they are to members of other groups. A K-means clustering is a non-hierarchical method of efficiently clustering large number of cases into a requested number of groups (Francis, 2001). In this analysis, a K-means clustering procedure was conducted using all 28 motive statements and four clusters were identified. Three and five-cluster solutions were also run but the procedure indicated that the best solution involved four clusters. Table 4. 13 contains the mean importance ratings for each of the four clusters on the 28 motive statements. A one-way ANOVA using Duncan's Multiple Range Test identified pairs of clusters with significantly different mean importance ratings for each motive statement.

Table 4.13
Motivation Cluster-Comparison of Average Importance Ratings

Motivation	Achievers (N=76)	Passive seeker (N=24)	Self-developers (N=61)	Novelty seekers (N=59)
to take it easy and relax	3.94	2.95	3.06	3.79
to understand myself more	3.67	2.00	3.29	2.79
to experience thrills	3.80	2.45	3.47	3.45
to have romantic relationships	3.55	1.37	2.31	2.15
to experience Australian culture	4.02	3.25	3.45	4.33
to observe other people in the area	3.77	2.79	3.08	3.84
to challenge myself	3.97	2.70	3.67	3.59
to feel the special atmosphere of the vacation destination	3.89	3.04	3.13	4.20
to develop my personal interests	4.11	2.75	3.67	3.55
to be away from the crowds of people	3.50	2.00	3.11	3.40
to be with people of the opposite sex	3.27	1.33	2.08	1.98
to do things together with family	3.84	2.62	2.65	3.27
to experience landscape and nature	4.09	3.62	3.32	4.60
to experience a well publicised new travel destination	3.81	3.20	3.03	3.76
to do and experience things that I can't do in home country	4.15	3.54	3.78	4.42
to spend time with family	3.75	2.79	2.42	2.98
to enjoy isolation	3.53	1.66	2.47	2.10
to think about good times I've had in the past	3.76	1.62	2.67	1.94
to meet people with similar values	3.82	2.25	2.83	3.13
to feel the belonging to nature	4.00	2.50	2.88	3.91
to have a break from work and my daily routine	3.88	3.3	3.13	4.27
to impress other people by my travelling here	3.60	1.75	2.95	2.22
to be independent	4.02	2.25	3.68	3.50
to have adventurous experiences	4.23	2.91	3.34	4.15
to reflect on past memories	3.61	1.75	2.83	2.05
to develop my skills and abilities	4.06	2.66	3.93	3.45
to be with respectful people	3.84	2.04	3.00	2.72
to work on my personal values	4.01	1.79	3.11	3.13

Based on the pattern of mean importance ratings, the first cluster (N=76) has been

labelled 'achievers' because they are motivated to travel by the desire to accomplish

many things. Respondents of this cluster were clearly an example of a group of travellers who are multi-motive and they were particularly motivated by a desire for excitement and adventure and all the self-esteem, development and fulfillment level motives. They also had higher ratings for the importance of 'taking it easy and relaxing' (mean=3.95), 'doing things together with family' (mean= 3.84) and 'thinking about good times I've had in the past' (mean=3.76) than the other three clusters.

Cluster 2 (N=24) has been labelled as 'passive seeker' since respondents of this cluster had the lowest ratings on the most of the motivation statements. They had relatively higher ratings for the 'importance of experiencing landscape and nature' (mean=3.63), 'doing things that I cannot do in their home country' (mean=3.54) and 'having a break from work and daily routine' (mean=3.38) when compared with other motivation items. However they placed much less emphasis on statements of self-actualisation, self-development, autonomy and relationship than the other three clusters, indicating that this group are not highly motivated by travelling in Australia.

Cluster 3 (N=61) can be described as 'self-developers' because of the importance of autonomy and self-development statements. Although the achievers rated the self development motives to have greater importance than did the cluster of self-developers, this group had relatively higher ratings on the statements of 'developing my skill and abilities' (mean=3.93) and 'developing my personal interests' (mean=3.67) than the other motivation statements. The results are consistent with the finding of Murphy (1997). According to Murphy (1997), this result could happen since cluster analysis provides a multi-motive approach to segmentation.

Finally, Cluster 4 (N=59) has been labelled 'novelty seekers' because they had the highest rating for the importance of 'feeling the special atmosphere of the vacation destination' (mean=4.20) and 'doing things that I can't do in home country'

(mean=4.42). They also rated 'experiencing Australian culture' (mean=4.34), 'experiencing landscape and nature' (mean=4.66) higher than did the other clusters. Respondents of this cluster were particularly motivated by a desire for excitement and adventure and self-development and fulfillment level motives.

After respondents were classified into the four clusters using the importance of travel motivations in Australia, the study explored how respondents perceived Australia as a tourist destination in different ways depending on their travel motivation. Table 4.14 provides the result of the analysis. Overall the cluster approach based on the motivations proved to be a more insightful factor than the demographic variables already considered. It was found that respondents who had a desire for understanding Australia culture and nature (Novelty Seekers) had a positive impression of Australia as a tourist destination.

Table 4.14
Comparison of Images of Australia by Respondents' Travel Motivation

	F	Sig.	Mean			
			Achievers (N=76)	Passive seekers (N=24)	Self-developers (N=61)	Novelty seekers (N=59)
Cognitive Images (5 point scale: 1=offers little, 5=offers much)						
Good nightlife	4.23	.006*	2.73	2.56	3.20^a	2.52^b
Pleasant climate	3.78	.011*	3.59^a	2.83^b	3.13	3.48
Cultural attractions	5.68	.001*	3.40^a	2.66^b	3.34^a	2.83^b
Convenient transportation	6.61	.000*	3.63^a	3.37	3.14	2.64^b
Affective images (7 point scale, where positive poles were assigned to the higher values)						
Unpleasant-pleasant	11.93	.000*	5.34	4.62^a	5.01^a	5.98^b
Sleepy-arousing	3.69	.010*	4.52	4.25^a	4.34^a	5.01^b
Distressing-relaxing	9.34	.000*	5.54^a	4.12^b	5.19	5.59^a
Gloomy-exciting	3.78	.011*	5.16	4.79	4.57^a	5.32^b
Visual images (5 point scale: 1=does not represent at all, 5=very much represents)						
Rain forest	4.79	.003*	4.56^a	3.16^b	4.04	4.00
Sydney Opera House	5.03	.002*	6.09	5.50^a	5.86^a	6.61^b
Good beaches	6.69	.000*	5.60^a	4.37^b	5.45^a	5.47^a
Great Barrier Reef	3.00	.031*	5.55	4.91^a	5.29	5.93^b
Koala	5.01	.002*	6.18^a	5.33^b	6.00	6.52^a
Ayers Rock	5.14	.002*	5.81^a	4.66^b	5.77^a	6.01^a
Aboriginal culture	8.03	.000*	5.44^a	4.20^b	4.81	5.84^a
Kangaroo	3.89	.010*	6.26	5.70^a	5.95	6.61^b
Overall impression (7 point scale:1=very unfavourable, 7=very favourable)						
	3.33	.020*	5.27	5.18^a	4.98^a	5.64^b

* significant at .05 level

Note: Means with a different superscripted letter are significantly different at the .05 level

In terms of the cognitive images regarding 13 destination attributes, there were significant differences across the four clusters on four attributes including good nightlife, pleasant climate, cultural attractions, and convenient transportation.

Generally, achievers and self-developers had more positive images on those attributes than passive seekers and novelty seekers.

When affective images were compared among the four clusters, it was found that novelty and knowledge motivations positively influenced cognitive images. Cluster 4 labelled the novelty seekers gave the highest scores on all four affective image scales. 'Novelty seekers' perceived Australia as more exciting, relaxing, arousing and pleasant than the other three clusters. As expected, Cluster 2 who had relatively low motivation to travel Australia had less positive feelings.

In the comparison of visual images, significant differences were found in the 8 photos including rain forest, the Sydney Opera House, good beaches, the Great Barrier Reef, Koala, Ayers Rock, Aboriginal culture, and kangaroos. The result was consistent with that of affective images. The Sheffe test indicated that respondents of Cluster 4 (novelty seekers) had significantly different opinions compared to respondents of cluster 2 (passive seekers). Novelty seekers were more likely to agree that all of the eight photos represented the images of Australia than passive seekers.

Respondents of cluster 4 agreed more that the Sydney Opera House, the Great Barrier Reef and the kangaroo are very representative in their mind when they think of Australia as a tourist destination. It was also found that 'passive seekers' (cluster 2) were relatively less likely to report that these elements were representative.

There was a positive relationship between the affective images and the general impression. The post hoc test indicated that Cluster 2 and Cluster 3 which had less positive affective images of Australia tended to have a less favourable overall impression of Australia as a tourist destination, while the respondents in cluster 4 more strongly agreed that Australia as a tourist destination is very favourable. Surprisingly,

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self-developers did not perceive Australia quite so positively. It might be assumed that respondents in Cluster 3 perceived that Australia does not offer interesting tourist attractions to satisfy their main travel motivation of self-development while novelty seekers had positive images that Australia as a tourist offers exciting experiences that they cannot do in their home countries.

4.3.3.5 Respondents' Image of Australia by Regional Cultural Background

Several destination image studies have found a relationship between tourists' perceptions and their cultural background (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Richardson & Crompton, 1988). These researchers have argued that cultural background can be one of the most important factors influencing destination images. Jarvis (1981) also maintained, "no two people see a destination in exactly the same way. Perceptions are selective and they vary not only from person to person but from one country to another as well," (p.42). In this study the importance of regional cultural background on the respondents' images of Australia was investigated. It is considered here that regional cultural background might prove to be an equally compelling exploring variable as the clusters based on motivation items.

For the comparison between regional cultural background, respondents were categorized into four regions: South America (Argentina, Brazil and Colombia); Europe (Germany, The Czech Republic, Austria, France, Hungary, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and Italy); Southeast Asia (Indonesia, Thailand, Malaysia, Vietnam and Singapore); and East Asia (Japan, Korea, China and Taiwan). Due to the large number of students from Asian countries, Asian countries were divided into two regions; Southeast Asia and East Asia. Respondents from Central Asian counties such as India (N=4) and Middle Asia including Saudi Arabia (N=5) were excluded in the comparison analysis of this study due to the small number of respondents.

In this phase of the research it was investigated whether the respondents' images of Australia differed by their regional cultural background. The results of One-Way ANOVA tests found that there were large perceptual differences between the regional cultural background groups. Significant differences were found between the groups on 10 out of 13 cognitive items (Table 4.15). The Scheffe test indicated that generally South American and East Asian respondents were relatively less impressed with the attributes Australia offers than were the respondents from Europe and Southeast Asia.

Table 4.15
Comparison of Images of Australia by Respondents' Cultural Background

	F	Sig.	Mean			
			South America (N=35)	Europe (N=62)	East Asia (N=187)	Southeast Asia (N=65)
Cognitive Images (5 point scale: 1=offers little, 5=offers much)						
Variety of water sports	6.96	.000*	3.54^a	4.30^b	4.00^b	3.75^a
Personal safety	32.66	.000*	4.37^a	3.55^b	2.93^c	4.06^a
Good nightlife	3.11	.026*	2.88^a	3.12	2.80^a	3.28^b
Value for money	6.99	.000*	3.35	3.04^a	2.89^a	3.60^b
Friendly people	11.83	.000*	2.77^a	3.85^b	3.65^b	3.30
Shopping opportunities	10.43	.000*	3.00^a	3.42^b	2.57^c	3.12^a
Pleasant climate	8.76	.000*	2.60^a	3.79^b	3.34^b	3.44^b
Cultural attractions	4.54	.004*	3.60^a	2.79^b	3.19	3.26
Natural attractions	2.81	.039*	3.60^a	4.07	4.12^b	3.98
Variety of food	3.30	.021*	2.45^a	3.30^b	2.92	3.01
Suitable accommodation	4.41	.005*	3.45	3.19	3.07^a	3.56^b
Convenient transportation	33.56	.000*	4.48^a	2.82^b	2.97^b	4.21^a
Beautiful scenery	10.77	.000*	3.17^a	3.76^b	4.02^b	3.58^c
Affective images (7 point scale, where positive poles were assigned to the higher values)						
Unpleasant-pleasant	5.10	.002*	5.88^a	5.65^a	5.19^b	5.39
Sleepy-arousing	5.30	.001*	5.14^a	5.06^s	4.48^b	4.62
Distressing-relaxing	2.13	.095	5.85	5.28	5.39	5.28
Gloomy-exciting	8.09	.000*	5.42^a	5.50^a	4.70^b	5.15
Visual images (5 point scale: 1=does not represent at all, 5=very much represents)						
Rain forest	1.66	.174	3.62	4.21	4.14	3.83
Outback	7.29	.000*	5.20^a	4.92^a	4.50^a	3.83^b
Open space	10.36	.000*	4.57	5.00^a	5.09^a	3.76^b
Interesting wildlife	2.04	.107	5.85	5.73	5.48	5.23
Sydney Opera House	.45	.712	6.40	6.09	6.18	6.24
Good beaches	5.66	.001*	5.42	5.23^a	5.80^b	5.10^a
Great Barrier Reef	2.79	.040*	5.80	5.56	5.52	4.98
Koala	.907	.438	6.45	6.17	6.18	6.03
Good weather	5.45	.001*	4.40	4.76^a	4.49^a	3.66^b
Ayers Rock	5.37	.001*	5.94^a	5.98^a	5.79^a	5.04^b
Aboriginal culture	4.31	.005*	5.85^a	5.59	4.96^b	5.06
Kangaroo	2.92	.034*	6.77^a	6.31	6.09^b	6.15

* significant at .05 level

Note: Means with a different superscripted letter are significantly different at the .05 level

East Asian respondents were more impressed with water sports, natural attractions and the scenery of Australia compared to respondents from other regions. On the other hand, their responses were less favourable than those held by respondents from the other regions in terms of personal safety, good nightlife, value for money, shopping opportunities, and convenient transportation.

The respondents from South American countries perceived less positively than other respondents the attributes of pleasant climate, variety of food and friendly local people. There was also a large perceptual difference in relation to safety and security for the different cultural background groups. According to the mean score, the majority of the respondents from East Asian respondents answered that Australia offers personal safety the same as or less than their country while respondents from South America and Southeast Asia were satisfied with the personal safety of Australia.

The comparison of affective images of Australia as a tourist destination for respondents by cultural background was examined and the result is shown in Table 4.15. The affective attributes that showed significant differences between the groups were unpleasant-pleasant, sleepy-arousing and gloomy-exciting. According to the post hoc test, the group of East Asian respondents was significantly different from South American and European respondents.

In the affective images scale, except for the distressing-relaxing category, respondents from East Asian countries perceived Australia less favourably than the respondents from other regions. Their feelings toward Australia as a tourist destination were that it was less pleasant and less arousing compared to the other three groups. Interestingly, respondents from South American countries had the most positive feelings toward Australia although they had somewhat negative cognitive images.

In terms of visual images of Australia, there were significant differences across the four groups on six photos out of the 12 photos which represent Australia. The Scheffe test indicated that respondents whose home countries were in Southeast Asia were significantly less likely to agree that images of outback, open space, good weather and Ayers Rock (Uluru) represent Australia in their mind than were those whose home countries were in East Asia or Europe.

For the overall impression, South American and European respondents had more favourable impression of Australia as a tourist destination and Asian respondents had the least favourable impression, which was consistent with the result of affective images. As can be seen in Table 4.16, it was also found that the overall impression has a positive relationship with the likelihood of recommendation. The respondents were asked how much they would recommend Australia as a tourist destination to their family or their friends with a 5 point scale rating from 1=I definitely recommend it to 5=I definitely do not recommend it.

Table 4.16
Comparison of Likelihood of Recommendation by Respondents' Cultural Background

	F	Sig.	Mean			
			South America (N=34)	Europe (N=63)	East Asia (N=186)	Southeast Asia (N=61)
Overall impression (7 point scale:1=very unfavourable, 7=very favourable)						
	5.02	.002*	5.73[a]	5.54[a]	5.01[b]	5.01[b]
How would you recommend (5 point scale: 1: definitely recommend; 5:definitely not recommend)						
	6.86	.000*	1.38[a]	1.42[a]	1.78[b]	1.78[b]

* significant at .01
Note: Means with a different superscripted letter are significantly different at the .05 level

When comparing the results of images of Australia by respondents' regional cultural background with those of images of Australia by travel motivation it was found that the patterns of these two results were somewhat similar. In general, Novelty Seekers and

European respondents had more positive feelings towards Australia as a tourist destination than did Self-Developers and East Asian respondents. The relationship between these two background variables was examined. The Chi-squire statistic which is an appropriate significance test to investigate the relationship between two categorical variables (Francis, 2001) was applied and the results are shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4. 17
The Relationship between Travel Motivation and Cultural Background Variables

	European respondents	East Asian respondents
Achievers	9 (23.1%)	40 (34.8%)
Passive Seekers	6 (15.4%)	8 (7.0%)
Self-developers	4 (10.3%)	42 (36.5%)
Novelty Seekers	20 (51.3%)	25 (21.7%)

^{2}=18.96 (df=3), p<.001

The Chi-square test indicated that the motivation clusters were related to the respondents' cultural background (^{2} =18.96, df=3, p<.001). Respondents from European countries were more likely to be Novelty Seekers (51.3%) while East Asian respondents were more likely to be Self-developers (36.5%). Therefore, it is clear that the results of the two factors of motivation and regional cultural background are not independent, but rather are related and consistent.

4.3.3 Travel Behaviour While in Australia: Aim 3

The third aim of this study was to examine international students' travel behaviour while they were in Australia. As discussed in the introduction section of this Chapter this study sought to provide a better understanding of the international student market by comparing it with the backpacker market. In order to compare the international student market with the backpacker market, this study considered secondary data using the

resources of two previous backpacker traveller surveys: the data of Buchanan and Rossetto (1997) and Murphy (1997).

Buchanan and Rossetto's report results from the international visitor survey conducted from July 1995 to June 1996. Respondents were approached in the airport depart lounges of major Australian cities and 1136 completed questionnaires were collected. In Murphy's (1997) survey, a total of 778 self-administered surveys were personally distributed in YHA hostels and private backpacker hostels between October 1991 and February 1992 and 686 useable questionnaires were retuned. In both surveys, questions to identify backpackers' travel behaviours including their motivation for travelling to Australia, activity preferences and travel patterns were included. While the data employing here is not as current as the present research, the information contained in these studies provides the richest match of available data with that collected in the present work.

Additionally the respondents' profile in the two surveys was quite similar. More than 75 percent of respondents were less than 30 years of age with an average of duration of stay in Australia of approximately 20 weeks. Unlike the international student respondents, the majority of backpackers were from European countries. More than 70 percent of respondents came from European countries including United Kingdom, Ireland and German followed by North American and Asian countries.

4.3.3.1 Travel Motivations in Australia

To identify travel motivation, respondents were asked to rate the importance of 28 statements as reasons for travelling in Australia. Table 4.18 provides a summary of the motivation ratings. For all international students who responded to the survey, the need to experience excitement and cultural experiences tended to be the important travel motivations.

Table 4.18
International Students' Travel Motivation in Australia

Rank	Motivation	Mean*	SD
1	To do and experience things that I can't do in home country	4.07	1.05
2	To experience landscape and nature	3.98	1.01
3	To experience Australian culture	3.87	1.01
4	To have adventurous experience	3.82	1.06
5	To have a break from work and my daily routine	3.71	1.18
6	To develop my skills and abilities	3.70	1.18
7	To develop my personal interests	3.68	1.02
7	To feel the special atmosphere of the vacation destination	3.66	1.13
9	To challenge myself	3.65	1.13
10	To be independent	3.60	1.18
11	To take it easy and relax	3.57	1.13
12	To observe other people in the area	3.51	1.08
12	To feel the belong to the nature	3.51	1.09
14	To experience a well publicised new travel destination	3.49	1.08
15	To experience thrills	3.46	1.21
16	To do things together with family	3.22	1.23
17	To work on my personal values	3.28	1.14
18	To be away from the crowds of people	3.21	1.26
19	To understand myself more	3.18	1.21
19	To meet people with similar values	3.18	1.13
21	To be with respectful people	3.12	1.17
22	To spend time with family	3.09	1.23
23	To impress other people by my travelling here	2.87	1.19
24	To reflect on past memories	2.83	1.20
25	To think about good times I've had in the past	2.76	1.28
26	To enjoy isolation	2.67	1.26
27	To have romantic relationships	2.60	1.22
28	To be with people of the opposite sex	2.40	1.17

N=237

*A five point scale: 1=not at all important; 5=very important

The most important travel motivation was 'to do and experience things that I can't do in

home country' with mean score of 4.07. More than 70 percent of respondents (74%)

answered that to experience things that they cannot do in their home country was an important reason for travelling Australia. According to the mean score, the second most important motivation was 'to experience landscape and nature' (mean=3.98). 'To experience Australian culture' (mean=3.87) was ranked third followed by 'to have adventurous experience' (mean=3.82), and 'to have a break from work and my daily routine' (mean=3.71). On the other hand, respondents were less motivated by recognition, nostalgia, isolation and romance such as 'to impress other people by my travelling here' (mean=2.87), 'to think about good times I've had in the past' (mean=2.76), 'to enjoy isolation' (mean=2.67) and 'to be with people of the opposite sex' (mean=2.40).

The result was similar to Murphy's (1997) study of travel motivations for travelling in Australia indicating that respondents were highly motivated by novelty seeking and experiencing nature. In Murphy's study, respondents were asked to rate the importance of ten statements as reasons for travelling in Australia. As can be seen in Table 4.19, the results indicated that the most important travel motives were to seek exciting and adventurous things to do (mean=3.8), to meet local people (mean=3.7), and to enjoy and improve their knowledge of Australia's physical environment (mean=3.2).

Table 4.19
Backpackers' Travel Motivation in Australia

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N=660
Source: Murphy, 1997

According to Iso-Ahola (1982), escaping of routine or stressful environments and seeking opportunities or certain psychological rewards are the basic motivational dimensions of travel behaviour. By escaping the everyday environment, a person can leave behind their personal and interpersonal world. Individuals are also motivated by seeking authentic experiences and the development of skills and special interests. Using Iso-Ahola's (1982) concepts of escaping and seeking, both international students and backpackers are more likely to be motivated by seeking such goals as self-development and novelty, rather than escaping factors.

4.3.3.2 Tourist Destinations Respondents Had Visited or Intended to Visit in Australia

The main tourist destinations visited or intended to be visited while in Australia by the international student group and the backpacker group were compared. Figure 4.3 and 4.4 indicate tourist destinations which have a response rate greater than 10 percent. The most popular tourist destination among respondents in the international student group was Sydney. More than 76 percents of the respondents answered that they had

already visited or were planning to visit the city. The next most popular tourist destinations were Gold Coast (71.5%) Uluru (47.2%), and Brisbane (47.1%). Other popular tourist destinations mentioned were Cairns (34.7%), Alice Springs (26.5%), and Perth (23.2%) respectively.

Figure 4.3. Main Travel Destinations Visited or Intended to Visit by International Students

Figure 4.4 Main Travel Destinations Visited or Intended to Visit by Backpackers
(Source: Murphy, 1997)

Figure 4.4 represents the major tourist destinations backpackers had visited or intended to visit. Similarly, major Australian cities such as Sydney, Melbourne and Brisbane had a high rate of visitation. The most likely identified destination to be visited was Sydney (88.4%) followed by Cairns (76.4%), Brisbane (66.1%) and Melbourne (66.1%). While the Gold Coast was the second most popular tourist destination among international students it was a relatively less popular tourist destination among backpackers. On the other hand, Cairns was a more popular tourist destination among backpackers rather than for international students. Approximately seventy six percent of respondents in the backpacker group answered that they had visited or would like to visit Cairns.

As can be seen in Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4, most tourist destinations visited by backpackers had a higher percentage of visitors, which means that backpackers tended to visit more destinations on average than did their international student counterparts. Compared to the respondents from the international student group, backpackers were more likely to travel to regional areas of Australia, particularly in the Northern Territory including Darwin, Kakadu, Katherine, and Alice Springs.

Unlike backpackers whose main purpose of visiting Australia is travelling, international students have less chance to make a long-distance trip because of the limitation of time. Therefore it was assumed that they would be more likely to visit tourist destinations nearby the cities where they had lived. Respondents were asked to tick tourist destinations they had visited on the map of Victoria for respondents in Melbourne and the map of New South Wales for respondents in Sydney. Figure 4.5 and 4.6 present tourist destinations which have a response rate greater than 5%.

As Figure 4.5 shows, the most popular tourist destination among respondents in Sydney were the Blue Mountains. More than 40% of the respondents answered that

they had visited the Blue Mountains. The next most popular tourist destination were Melbourne (29.4%), Gold Coast (27.3%), Wollongong (26.6%) and Brisbane (24.5%). When compared Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6, it can be found that respondents who had lived in Melbourne tended to visit more tourist destinations around the city on average than did their counterparts in Sydney. The most likely identified destination visited by respondents in Melbourne was Geelong (33.7%) followed by Yarra Valley (30.4%), Dandenongs (29.3%) and Apollo Bay (27.1%).

Byron Bay **15.8%**

Coffs Harbour 5.8%

Port Macquarie 5.8%

Port Stephens 9.4%

Hunter Valley 15.1%

20.9%

Newcastle

41.7%

Blue Mountains

Canberra

29.4%

26.6%

Wollongong

Snowy Mountains 14.4%

Batemans Bay 5%
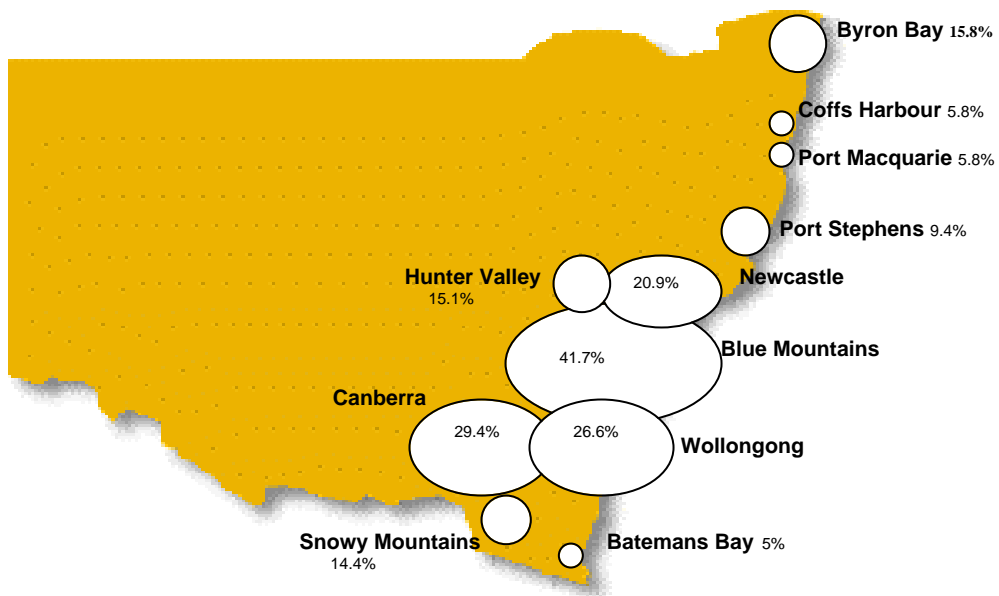
N=139

Figure 4.5 Tourist Destinations of New South Wales Visited by Respondents in Sydney

Bendigo 12%

Hanging Rock

Mt. Hotham 6.5%

32.6%

7.6%

Ballarat

Geelong 33.7%

Yarra   Valley

Lorne

19.6%

30.4%

30.4%

Apollo Bay 27.1%

Dandenongs 29.3%

34.8%

Port Campbell

7.6%

Phillip Island 18.5%

Willsons Promontory
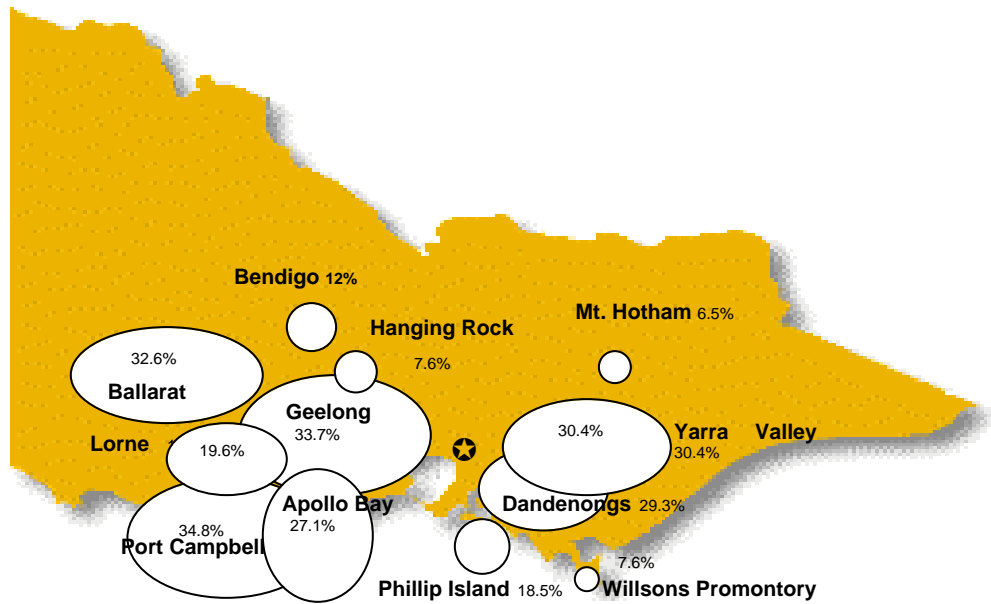
N=92

Figure 4.6 Tourist Destinations of Victoria Visited by Respondents in Melbourne

4.3.3.3 Travel Patterns in Australia

Travel patterns including the type of travel company, the type of accommodation and transportation were compared for the international group and the backpacker group. The results of the comparison of the two groups are shown in Table 4.20. Both groups were most likely to travel by bus. Rental cars were also a popular form of transportation with 37.1 percent for the international student group and 40 percent for the backpacker group. Comparatively, rail-travel was more popular as a means of travel for the international student group. While 35 percent of international students used trains only 15 percent of backpackers traveled by train. Ship or boat was the least frequently used form of transportation for both groups.

Table 4.20
Comparison of Travel Pattern between International Students and Backpackers

Characteristic	International students	Backpackers
Transportation		
Bus	47.7%	61%
Rental car	37.1%	40%
Train	35%	15%
Airline	26.9%	42%
Ship or boat	16.4%	8%
Type of accommodation		
Hotel/motel	46.3%	31%
Backpacker hostel/youth hostel	37%	90.3%
Home of friends/relatives	26%	43%
Camping	13%	26%
Rented campervan	3.2%	18%
Travel size		
Alone	14.3%	51.4%
One or more companions	85.7%	48.6%

In terms of type of accommodation, it was found that there were some differences

between the two groups. It was expected that both groups would be more likely to stay in backpacker accommodations or hostels than other types of accommodation. The result indicated, however, that the most popular accommodation for the international student group was hotels or motels. Almost half of the respondents in the international group stayed at hotels or motels while backpackers were less likely to use hotels or motels. In Murphy's study (1997) more than 70 percent of the backpackers answered they had never stayed in any type of hotel or motel.

The different preferences in accommodation for the two groups may be partly explained by the number in the travel party. The international students were likely to travel in groups. As can be seen in Table 4.20, more than 85 percent of the respondents had traveled with one or more companions and only 14 percent of the respondents answered that they had traveled alone. On the other hand the results of both Buchanan and Rossetto's study and Murphy's study indicated that more than one-half of respondents usually traveled alone and over one third of the respondents were likely to travel with one other companion. In Murphy's study only 11 percent of the respondents answered that they had traveled with a large group of people who they met in Australia. Staying in hotels or motels for a group is probably not more expensive than backpackers' hostels or other forms of budget accommodation. Therefore it could be assumed that international students who tend to travel with a group are more likely to use hotels and motels than backpackers who usually travel alone. Additionally backpackers may use the hostels as a form of social contact, a chance to meet others. This social motivation is of lesser importance if international students are travelling with friends.

4.3.3.4 Travel Activities Likely to be Experienced While in Australia

Important activities to experience while in Australia were also compared between the international student group and the backpacker group. Table 4.21 provides a summary

of travel activities that the two groups would like to experience. One of the most popular Australian travel activities for both groups was climbing Ayers Rock (Uluru). Nearly one third of the international students in this survey answered that they would like to see or climb Ayers Rock before they go back to their home countries. Seeing Ayers Rock was also ranked second after visiting the Great Barrier Reef in Murphy's (1997) backpacker survey. Experiencing Australian culture was also an important travel experience for both groups. They had a great interest in experiencing Australian lifestyle, sampling Australian food, examining aboriginal culture and making new friends from both different countries and Australia.

Table 4.21
Top 10 Important Australian Travel Experiences

Rank	International Students	Backpackers
1	Climbing Ayers Rock (Uluru)	Seeing/diving Great Barrier Reef
2	Seeing the country	Seeing/climbing Ayers Rock (Uluru)
3	Sightseeing major Australian cities	Seeing Outback
4	Visiting famous tourist attractions	Seeing the scenery and environment
5	Making friends from other countries	Getting to know locals
6	Experiencing Australian cultures	Seeing Kakadu
7	Scuba diving	Seeing wildlife
8	Visiting beautiful beaches	Seeing the country
9	Taking as many photos as possible	Experiencing Australian culture
10	Skiing	Visiting Sydney

Unlike backpackers it seemed that skiing was a popular travel activity for international students. Southeast Asian students in particular perceived Australia as a good tourist destination to experience skiing. As the travel motivation results suggested, novelty seeking was the most important motivation factor for respondents. Urry also (1990) argued that tourists seek out differences when they travel and they like to try something new they cannot do in their home countries. It is not surprising therefore that

respondents from Southeast Asian countries, where there is no cold winter season, were keen to try skiing while in Australia.

Compared to backpackers, international students were also more interested in taking photos at tourist attractions. Quite a few Asian students mentioned that they would like to take as many photos as possible at famous tourist attractions or with Australian animals including kangaroos and koalas as well as to collect many souvenirs. As Gordon (1986) argued, the behaviour of taking photos is a tangible way of capturing an extra-ordinary travel experience, of establishing personal identity and ensuring public recognition of success.

Similarly, Pizam & Jeong's (1996) study of cross-cultural tourist behaviour found that Asian tourists tended to be highly involved in photography. The researchers explained that for Asians, taking pictures in front of famous tourist destinations is a cultural way of authenticating the travel experiences, in much the same manner as buying souvenirs. For Asian tourists, it appears, taking photographs is a symbolic action to show that the traveller has mastered the foreign environment.

Another difference between the international student group and the backpacker group was that while backpackers participated more in various activities related to the natural environment international students were more interested in visiting cities and sightseeing famous tourist attractions. Although both groups would like to experience nature –based travel activities the backpacker group had a relatively greater interest in seeing natural tourist attractions such as the Great Barrier Reef, the outback, and Kakadu.

These differences might be related to their regional cultural background. Buchanan and Rossetto's study (1997) found that there were considerable differences in the

preferences of travel activities between Asian backpackers and European backpackers. According to their study, Asian backpackers had lower participation rates in water sports and they were also less likely to go bushwalking or on an outback safari while in Australia. Conversely European backpackers were more likely to visit national parks, to experience the outback, to go bushwalking and to seek aboriginal experiences by visiting Aboriginal sites. Backpackers from the United Kingdom and other European countries also tended to travel more extensively.

The finding of Murphy's research (1997) was consistent with that of Buchanan and Rossetto's study (1997). Compared to Asian backpackers, European backpackers were more likely to be novelty-seekers who were motivated by learning about environment and adventure and they had a greater interest in adventurous and nature-based activities such as experiencing wildlife, visiting rainforest, and seeing outback. Murphy's study also found that European backpackers were more likely to visit Western Australia, South Australia and Northern territory and were likely to have higher participation rates in travel activities including swimming, scuba diving, bushwalking, outback safaris and adventure activities than were Asian backpackers.

The findings of the comparison of travel experience and travel motivation in Australia between Asian respondents and European respondents in this study were also similar to those of Murphy's (1997) and Buchanan and Rossetto's study. As can be seen in Table 4.22, the result of Pearson Chi-Square indicated that European respondents tended to travel more often than did Asian respondents while in Australia (x^2 =61.381, df=4, p<.001). While only eight percent of the Asian respondents answered that they had taken more than 10 holiday trips in Australia more than 45 percent of the European respondents had taken more than 10 times of holiday trips while in Australia.

Table 4.22
Comparison of Travel Experience in Australia between Asian Respondents and European Respondents

The number of times of travelling while in Australia	Asian respondents	European respondents
0 times	92 (36.8%)	11 (17.2%)
1-5 times	106 (42.4%)	13 (20.3%)
6-10 times	32 (12.8%)	11 (17.2%)
10-15 times	10 (4.0%)	9 (14.1%)
More than 16 times	10 (4.0%)	20 (31.3%)

χ^2=61.381 (df=4), p<.001

The preferences for travel activities between Asian respondents and European respondents were also compared. As can be seen in Table 4.23, European respondents were keen to experience nature-based activities while in Australia. Adventurous activities and water sports such as experiencing wildlife, scuba diving and climbing Ayers Rock were popular travel activities the European respondents would like to experience in Australia.

Table 4.23
Comparison of Preferred Travel Activities between Asian Respondents and European Respondents

Rank	European Respondents (N=70)	Asian Respondents (N=242)
1	Travelling around Australia	Climbing Ayers Rock (Uluru)
2	Experiencing wildlife	Sightseeing major Australian cities
3	Visiting beautiful beaches	Travelling around Australia
4	Scuba diving	Sightseeing famous tourist attractions
5	Climbing Ayers Rock (Uluru)	Making friends from other countries

Asian respondents also showed a strong preference for climbing Ayers Rock. However compared to European respondents they were more likely to experience Australian city-oriented activities and Australian culture. They were keen to visit major Australian

cities, as a major tourist attraction, including Sydney, Brisbane, Melbourne, and Perth. As a part of experiencing Australian culture, they also mentioned that they would like to try various foods and make friends from different countries as well as Australian friends.

According to both backpacker studies more than 70 percent of backpackers came from European countries, while the majority of international students come from Asian countries. When the findings of both the backpacker studies and this study were synthesized, it is a possibility, thus, that at least some of the difference in travel preferences between these two groups might be explained by the different proportion of each group from regionally distinctive cultural backgrounds. Nevertheless, if one takes a holistic view of both markets the differences reported in this study are marked and are likely to matter in promoting Australia tourism products and services to each group.

4.4 Conclusions and Discussions

The main purpose of the study was to identify overseas' students' images of Australia as a tourist destination and their travel behaviour while in Australia. The findings of the study provide insights regarding respondents' positive and negative images of Australia. Generally, respondents perceived Australia as a favourable tourist destination. Australia's unspoiled natural environment and nature-based activities attracted overseas students. By way of contrast they perceived that cultural activities and Australian food offered a disappointing experience.

Food is one of main parts of the travel experience for some groups. Gmelch (1997) conducted a study of the behaviour and daily routines of American college students travelling in Europe. The researcher asked the participants to complete their travel journals and examined what the students did and learned when abroad. The study

found that food was one of the subjects most frequently mentioned in the journals. The participants were willing and interested in trying new food. They also often wrote about the different kinds of food they saw and what dishes they tried.

Hjalager and Corigliano (2000) also argued that food like other groups of factors such as accommodation, transport, attractions and activities, is a basic and crucial element of the tourist product. Importantly, food is a quintessentially multi-sensory experience and may play an important role in adding to the total destination image as defined and explored in this assessment. Since food is regarded as a crucial element of the multisensory image and travel experience, the low image of cuisine in Australia, if generalised beyond this study, may need to be improved or repositioned.

As previous studies have found out (Kim, 1997; Murphy, 1998; Ross, 1993) Australian culture and history also had a poor image in this study. According to Kim's study (1997) one possible reason might be that respondents have little knowledge of Australian culture. Kim (1997) conducted a study of pre-visit expectation of Australia as a tourist destination by using focus group interviews in Korea. Respondents demonstrated very little interest in Australian culture but once they were shown video on Australian tourism products, they showed a much higher interest in Aboriginal culture and history. Therefore, it is possible that respondents might have a more positive image of Australian culture if they were more aware of Australia's cultural diversity and its origins.

In terms of factors influencing respondents' image of Australia as a tourist destination it was found that both travel motivation and regional cultural background proved to be more insightful factors than the demographic variables. As already discussed the result of crosstabulations indicated that travel motivation and regional cultural background factors were inter-related. European respondents who were more likely to

be Novelty Seekers perceived Australia more favourably than did East Asian respondents who were more likely to be self-developers. However regional cultural background could be a more important variable for international student market segmentation due to easier access for marketing and general understanding. Some studies of the international student market also found that segmenting the student market on the basis of cultural background could be advantageous when targeting specific market groups (Chadee & Cutler, 1996; Field 1999). Therefore it was decided to investigate respondents' image of Australia as a tourist destination further using regional cultural background rather than motivation as it would be more effective in assessing the market of international students in English language programs.

The present study found that respondents held different views of Australia as a tourist destination depending on the countries from which they originated. Tourism marketers might be able to use this information to target international students more successfully. For example, the safety and low crime rate can be highlighted to attract students from South American countries whereas promotions targeting the East Asian students market should emphasise activities related to water sports and the natural attributes of Australia.

This study attempted to develop an enhanced conceptual framework of the concept of destination image and the empirical work reinforced the value of a creative multi-faceted image assessment. A limitation was also found that the method of open-ended questioning could not capture all of respondents' unique sensory images because it was quite difficult for them to express in English their sensory images. It can be suggested that studies addressing the multisensory component of image might need to employ translation approaches for international visitors so the full richness of the respondents' descriptions can be obtained.

Another aim of this study was to identify international students' travel behaviour while in Australia and to explore differences and similarities with the international backpacker market. It was assumed that the international students as a younger budget tourist market might share similar travel characteristics with international backpackers. In terms of travel motivation in Australia, both markets were highly motivated by a novel experience. Like international backpackers, international students in this study were also keen to experience different cultures and novel activities unavailable in their home country.

The comparison between the two markets indicated that there were substantial differences in the two groups in terms of travel patterns and preferences for travel activity. The majority of backpackers usually travelled alone or with one other travel companion. They also most often stayed in backpacker or youth hostel accommodation and buses were the most frequently used transportation while travelling in Australia. On the other hand, international students preferred travelling by car and they tended to stay in hotels or motels.

It was also found that international students' preference for travel activities were somewhat different from that of international backpackers although both groups sought in wide range of activities. Backpackers seemed to seek nature based activities including bushwalking, visiting rainforest, and experiencing safari tours in the outback. On the other hand, international students were considerably more likely to be interested in visiting major Australian cities and sightseeing at famous tourist attractions.

The study thus suggests that tourism products and promotional strategies to target international students should be differentiated from those for the international backpacker market. For example, for the international student market, Sydney,

Melbourne, Brisbane and Cairns should be highlighted as leading tourist destinations in Australia and city-based travel activities such as visiting botanical gardens, museums and historical places, shopping, nightlife and attending festivals could be promoted.

This study sought to understand the components of international student market in Australia. While the present study establishes some initial core differences between the markets, additional work exploring regional origins and motivational assessment of international students and backpackers is required to identify in full the relative role of cultural background variables influencing the youth travel markets.

The next Chapter (Chapter 5) will explore international students' image of Australian people and its culture. Understanding tourists' attitude towards hosts in a tourist destination is important for tourism management since to develop positive tourist-host contact is essential for a successful tourist destination (Ross 1991). Furthermore, as discussed in this Chapter, international students were highly motivated by experiencing Australian culture. It is necessary to identify what international students think of Australian people and their lifestyle and in which situation they feel cultural differences in detail since the majority of the respondents mentioned that they would like to talk about Australian lifestyle and its culture they had experienced.

Chapter 5
International Students' Image of Australian People and Culture

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Methodology

5.3 Results

5.4 Conclusions

5.1 Introduction

Tourists' attitudes and evaluation of the local people in a tourist destination constitute important variables influencing enjoyment experiences, positive destination evaluation, plans to return in the future, and willingness to recommend the destination to family and friends (Ross, 1993). For many tourists, a highlight of the travel experience is interacting with local people. According to Ryan (1991), for many tourists a reason for continuing to return to a given destination is because they have established a relationship with local people and friendships have developed. Pearce (1988) also noted that "there is really no Spain without Spaniards" (p.162) and argued that views of local people are fully integrated into the image of tourist destination. Since views of the hosts constitute an essential part of tourist destination images, this study investigated

international students' images of Australian people and their culture.

International students' social adjustment and their experience of cultural differences while in Australia were also explored. As discussed in Chapter 2, differences in cultural backgrounds may create a sense of culture shock. While international students stay in Australia they confront the challenges of language barriers and they might also have difficulty in adjusting themselves to new circumstances due to the cultural differences in values, norms, beliefs, levels of emotional expressivity, customs and non-verbal communication style (Spencer-Rodgers & McGovern, 2002). Maladjustment to Australian culture could cause feelings of anxiety and frustration for international students and generate negative attitudes toward Australian culture. Thus, the problems or difficulties that international students have in the process of adaptation to Australian culture should be monitored.

The research questions for the study were;
- How do international students perceive Australian people?
- What do they like and dislike most in Australian culture?
- On what occasions do international student feel cultural differences?
- What difficulties do they have in adapting themselves to the new environment in Australia?
- Do international students have different images of Australian people and Australian culture based on their regional cultural background?
- How much does the international students' regional cultural background influence socio-cultural adaptation?

The associated research aims for this chapter are numbered and discussed in the following order:

1) to examine international students' socio-cultural adaptation to Australian culture;

2) to identify international students' images of Australian people;

3) to identify international students' images of Australian culture; and

4) to investigate international students' images of Australian people and its culture based on regional cultural background.

This chapter is organized into three parts. First the research methodology including the respondents' profile, the survey procedure and the questionnaire design are provided. Second, the analyses of the questionnaire based on the four aims of this study are presented and discussed. Further there is a discussion linking the core findings to existing knowledge.

5.2 Methodology

5. 2. 1 The Profile of Respondents

Table 5.1 presents the profile of respondents. A total of 359 respondents were included in the analysis. Generally the respondent profile for this research effort was consistent with those of the first and second study. The gender of the sample was evenly divided with 48.5% male and 50.4% female. In terms of age, the mean age was 23. The age range was 15-48 years and approximately 70% of respondents were under 25 years of age.

Length of stay in Australia varied from 1 week to 3 years. The average length of stay in Australia was 5.25 weeks. More than half of the respondents (57.2%) had been in Australian for between 2 – 6 weeks and approximately 23% of them had lived in Australia for more than 6 months. When nationality is compared across major regions, the respondents originated predominantly from East Asian countries. More than half of the respondents (55.4%) were from East Asian countries such as Korean, China and

Japan, which were the top three countries of origin for respondents. European students (18.1%) comprised the second largest portion of respondents followed by South Americans (13.4%) and Southeast Asian students (9.7%).

Table 5.1
Profile of Respondents

Category	Frequency	Percent
Gender:		
Male	174	48.5
Female	181	50.4
Missing	4	1.1
Age :		
19 years old or younger	58	16.7
20 –25 years	178	51.1
26 years old or older	112	29.1
Missing	11	3.1
Length of stay in Australia		
Less than 2 months	56	16.1
2 – 6 months	198	57.2
More than 6 months	93	23.4
Missing	12	3.3
Country		
Korea	77	21.4
China	54	15.4
Japan	53	14.3
Brazil	22	6.3
Germany	21	5.7
Thailand	17	4.9
Taiwan	15	4.2
Switzerland	15	4.2
Czech Republic	13	3.7
Colombia	11	3.1
Indonesia	10	2.9
Turkey	8	2.3
France	7	2.0
Spain	5	1.4
Vietnam	5	1.4
Other*	25	6.8

Other*: Austria, Bangladesh, Belgium, Chile, Denmark, India, Italy, Mexico, the Netherlands, Poland, Russia
    Slovakia

5.2.2 Research Procedure

A self-administered questionnaire was applied in this research.   The survey procedure

was similar to that used in study 1 and 2. A pre-test was conducted to check if the vocabulary was easy to understand and if any words had vague or ambiguous meanings. Ten postgraduate international students in the tourism program at James Cook University participated in the pre-test. After the pre-test, the questionnaire was revised based on the suggestions of the respondents. In particular, it was suggested that the questions should be asked in even simpler English since English is the second language for the respondents. Two examples of episodes were also included to give respondents a clearer idea of how to answer the question and to encourage respondents to answer in as much detail as possible when completing the open-ended questions on their experiences of cultural differences.

To administer the survey, the researcher emailed fourteen language centres in Sydney, twelve in Brisbane and four in Cairns to ask whether they would cooperate in distribution and collection (Appendix 7). In total twelve language centers agreed to participate this research. The questionnaire, with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research, was mailed to the academic coordinators in each language centre. As Table 5.2 shows, a total of 505 questionnaires were distributed via the researcher or lectures in the English language centres during classes. Participation in the study was anonymous and voluntary. Respondents completed the self-administered questionnaire in about 30 minutes.

The questionnaires were collected between 25 May and 7 June, 2003. In a few cases completed questionnaires were returned by prepaid mail. Table 5.2 provides a summary of the questionnaire distribution and the return rate. A total of 382 questionnaires were collected. After eliminating unusable responses, 359 questionnaires were coded for data analysis giving a response rate of 71%. Return rates for each city were Sydney 71.6%, Brisbane 81.3% and Cairns 55.2%.

Table 5.2
Return Rate

City	No. of distributed questionnaire	No. of usable questionnaire	Return rate
Sydney	250	179	71.6
Brisbane	150	122	81.3
Cairns	105	58	55.2
Total	505	359	71.0

5.2.3 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was designed to identify international students' attitudes toward Australian people and culture (Appendix 8). In the first part of the questionnaire, international students' attitudes toward Australian people were measured by using semantic differential scales with seven points. A total of 16 adjective pairs, which describe individual's characteristics such as unfriendly-friendly, unhappy-happy, and easygoing-serious, were chosen based on previous research (Berry, 1969; Pearce *et al.*, 1981; Pizam *et al.*, 1991). Respondents were also asked to rate their image of people of their own nationality since this kind of measurement prevents skewed answers by allowing respondents to compare the image of people of their own country and that of Australian people.

The stereotype of Australian people held by international students was also measured. There are three commonly used stereotyping measures in the study of stereotypes. One of the measurement techniques is the stereotype-checklist technique developed by Katz and Braly (1933, cited in Stanger & Lange, 1994). Subjects are presented with the names of social groups, followed by a list of trait terms and are asked to check off those they see as most descriptive of the groups. Another common technique used to measure stereotypes is the percentage estimate technique in which subjects estimate the percentage of people within a group who possess an associated characteristic. The third one is the free-response technique which is based on a methodology in which

subjects are asked to indicate what thoughts come to mind when they think about the relevant social groups. Stanger and Lange (1994) argued that free-response technique has been considered the most appropriate measurement of stereotype since it allows respondents to freely choose their own descriptive terms to describe the relevant group. Free-response technique, thus, was applied in this study.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of open-ended questions asking about the most enjoyable experience in Australia, and aspects of Australian culture which the respondents would like to talk about. Respondents were also asked about negative elements in Australian culture so they would recall both negative and positive incidents. To identify respondents' attitudes toward Australian culture, a sentence completion task was used. It has been argued that sentence completion tasks can provide more information about participants' feelings than word association (Malhotra *et al.*, 2002).

Section three contained several questions about socio-cultural adjustment and cross-cultural experience. Most overseas students experience culture shock to some degree due to the adjustment problems already discussed. The inability to adjust to a new culture can make overseas students feel depressed (Bochner, 1982). Socio-cultural adjustment and psychological well-being are viewed as important components in international students' adaptation (Ying & Liese, 1991). In assessing attitudes to the host culture it was considered potentially valuable to identify the students' adaptation level or success.

Respondents were asked to rate the degree of difficulty they had had regarding living in Australia on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (no difficulty) to 5 (great difficulty). Previous research of sociocultural adjustment was reviewed (Martin *et al.*, 1995; Rohrlich & Martin, 1991; Searle, 1990; Tanaka, 1994; Ward & Kennedy, 1994; Ward & Searle, 1991) and 12 items (learning English, making friends, adjusting to Australian

customs, homesickness, housing, climate, food, health, using Australian currency, using local transportation, sufficient money, coursework) were selected.

In order to measure the degree of cultural difference in everyday situations Furnham and Bochner's (1982) and Spradley & Phillips's (1972) work with the social situations scale was used. The scale includes items that ask respondents about cultural differences they experienced in meeting the needs and demands of daily life, having meaningful interactions with hosts, and understanding host cultures. Respondents were asked to rate how much they had experienced cultural differences in various everyday situations using a 5 point Likert scale, where higher scores reflected greater experience of cultural differences.

The critical incident technique was also applied to measure respondents' culture shock. The critical incident technique was originated by Flanagan (1954, cited in Callan, 1998) as a means of identifying a significant or critical behaviour that contributes to the success or failure of some human event in military training. Marketing researchers have adapted it to gain an understanding of specific consumer behaviour situation (Bejou *et al.*, 1996; Burns *et al.*, 2000). The critical incidents technique has been applied to service research and interaction situations, and has become a tool for assessing customer dis/satisfaction (Roos, 1999).

The critical incident technique has been also considered to be an effective method in cross-culture research. A number of researchers such as Arthur (2001), Heppner & O'Brien (1994), and Ottavi *et al.* (1994) used it to investigate cross-cultural learning experiences. In their studies, participants were asked to describe vivid events that they remember as being meaningful in their cross-cultural experience. The study found that the critical incident technique is a more useful tool than standardized measures since it permits tracking of experiences at various times rather than a single snap shot of

cross-cultural transition. In the present study, respondents were asked to describe one episode in which they had experienced a cultural difference.

Finally, the last section contained questions asking for respondents' demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, nationality and length of stay. To obtain further insights into the international student market, the reasons respondents choose Australia as a place to study English was measured with a 5 point Likert scale (1=not at all important, 5=very important) and their overall satisfaction with their study in Australia was also asked using a 7 point scale with 1= very dissatisfied and 7=very satisfied.

5.3 Results

This section of the chapter deals with the results of analysing the questionnaires based on the research aims. First, the findings on perceived cultural differences as well as socio-cultural adaptation and its relationships to the respondents' regional cultural background are discussed. These results are all needed to assess the first aim. Then, to examine aim 2, the results concerning the respondent's images of Australian people are discussed. Next, the results of international students' images of Australian culture and their experience of culture shock are presented, all of which are pertinent to aim 3. Finally, respondents' attitudes towards Australian culture and people based on respondents' regional cultural background are provided.

All of the closed-ended questions were analysed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Basic Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, and frequencies were measured for each variable. To test whether respondents perceive Australian people and its culture differently according to their regional cultural background, One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was applied. Respondents were categorized into four regions: South America, Europe, Southeast Asia, and East Asia. The sample size for each of these groups was 37, 76, 34 and 198

respectively.

5.3.1 Respondents' Socio-Cultural Adjustment: Aim 1

The first aim of this study was to identify international students' socio-cultural adjustment. First, the reasons respondents chose Australia as a place to study English, their overall satisfaction with their study in Australia, and factors that helped respondents adjust to the new environment in Australia were asked to provide an overview of the market. Then, respondents' socio-cultural adaptation and the cultural differences experienced in everyday situations are presented. In this section, the findings are discussed by using frequencies, means and standard deviations. The differences in socio cultural adaptation by respondents' regional cultural background are also analysed by using one-way ANOVA test.

5.3.1.1 Reasons for Choosing Australia as a Place to Study English

Respondents were asked to rate the importance of a number of reasons for choosing Australia as a study destination. The results are presented in Table 5.3. The most important reason for choosing Australia as a study destination was because respondents liked the climate. Approximately 60 percent of respondents answered that the climate was one of the most important reasons with mean score of 3.64 on a 5 point scale. Other important reasons for choosing to study in Australia were safety (mean=3.51), travel opportunities while in Australia (mean=3.43), relatively cheap cost of living (mean=3.43), and the cheap cost of study compared to other countries such as the United States and Canada (mean=3.41). More than 50 percent of the respondents agreed that those 4 items were important reasons to choose Australia as a study destination. Easy entrance requirements (mean=2.56) and proximity to their home countries (mean=1.86) were comparatively less important reasons.

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Table 5.3
Respondents' Reasons to Choose Australia as a Study Destination

	Mean[1]	Std. D.	Percent		
			Not important	Neutral	Important
Because I like the climate	3.64	1.20	16.6	26.0	57.3
Because it is a safe country	3.51	1.16	18.6	25.6	55.8
Because I wanted to travel Australia	3.43	1.28	23.7	25.2	51.0
Because the cost of living was cheaper than other countries such as America and Canada	3.43	1.42	16.1	19.4	54.5
Because the cost of study was cheaper than other countries such as America and Canada	3.41	1.44	27.9	18.6	53.5
Because Australia has a good reputation	3.17	1.03	20.3	43.8	35.9
Because my friend or one of my family members recommended it to me.	2.75	1.46	42.2	23.3	34.6
Because I like the education system	2.67	1.14	41.7	36.7	21.6
Because entrance requirements are easy compared to other countries such as America and Canada	2.56	1.19	45.2	32.1	22.8
Because it is close to my country	1.86	1.20	74.0	13.4	12.5

N=353
[1] 5 point scale (1:strongly disagree 5: strongly agree)

The relationship between the reasons to study English and the respondents' regional cultural background were also examined. Table 5.4 presents the result of one-way ANOVA test and post-hoc Scheffe tests. The results indicated that there were large differences among the regional cultural background groups. Significant differences were found between the groups on nine out of ten items.

Table 5.4
Reasons to Choose Australia as a Study Destination by Cultural Background

	F	Sig.	Mean[1]			
			Europe (N=76)	South America (N=37)	Southeast Asia (N=34)	East Asia (N=197)
Because it is a safe country	9.61	.000*	2.88[a]	3.75[b]	3.77[b]	3.65[b]
Because I like the climate	9.33	.000*	4.06[a]	4.24[a]	3.54[b]	3.40[c]
Because I wanted to travel Australia	22.70	.000*	4.31[a]	3.94[b]	3.37[b]	3.06[c]
Because it is close to my country	31.50	.000*	1.08[a]	1.32[a]	3.03[b]	2.09[c]
Because the cost of living was cheaper than other countries such as America and Canada	18.72	.000*	2.41[a]	3.35[b]	3.71[b]	3.75[b]
Because Australia has a good reputation	4.09	.007*	3.11[a]	3.67[b]	3.31	3.16a
Because I like the education system	8.34	.000*	2.14[a]	2.64	3.12[b]	2.79[b]
Because the cost of study was cheaper than other countries such as America and Canada	12.71	.000*	2.58a	3.10	3.59[b]	3.72[b]
Because entrance requirements are easy compared to other countries such as America and Canada	12.07	.000*	2.05	1.97[a]	2.96[b]	2.79[b]
Because my friend or one of my family embers recommended it to me.	3.18	.024	2.43	3.10	3.25	2.75

[1] 5 point scale (1:strongly disagree 5:strongly agree)
* significant at .01 level
Note: Means with a different superscripted letter are significantly different at the .01 level

As Table 5.4 shows, the travel opportunity (mean=4.31) and the climate (mean=4.06) were the most important reasons for European respondents to choose Australia as a destination to study English while they agreed that safety, proximity to their home countries, cheap cost of study and living were relatively less important compared to the other three groups of respondents.

The Scheffe test indicated that respondents from South America agreed more strongly with the item concerning the importance of a good reputation than did European and East Asian respondents while Southeast Asian respondents agreed more with the items concerning the attractiveness of the Australian education system and proximity to

their home countries than did the other groups.

On the other hand, relatively cheap cost of living (mean=3.75) and cheap cost of study (mean=3.72) were the most important reasons for East Asian respondents to choose Australia as a place to study English. As the post hoc test indicates in Table 5.4 East Asian respondents agreed more strongly with these two items than did European respondents.

5.3.1.2 Respondents' Overall Satisfaction with Studying English in Australia

Respondents were asked to rate their overall satisfaction with studying English in Australia on a 7 point Likert scale raging from 1(not satisfied at all) to 7 (very satisfied). As can be seen in Figure 5.1, in general respondents were satisfied with studying English in Australia. More than 60 percent of the respondents answered that they were satisfied or very satisfied with studying English in Australia and less than 15 percent were dissatisfied. The mean score was 5.6 on a 7 point scale.
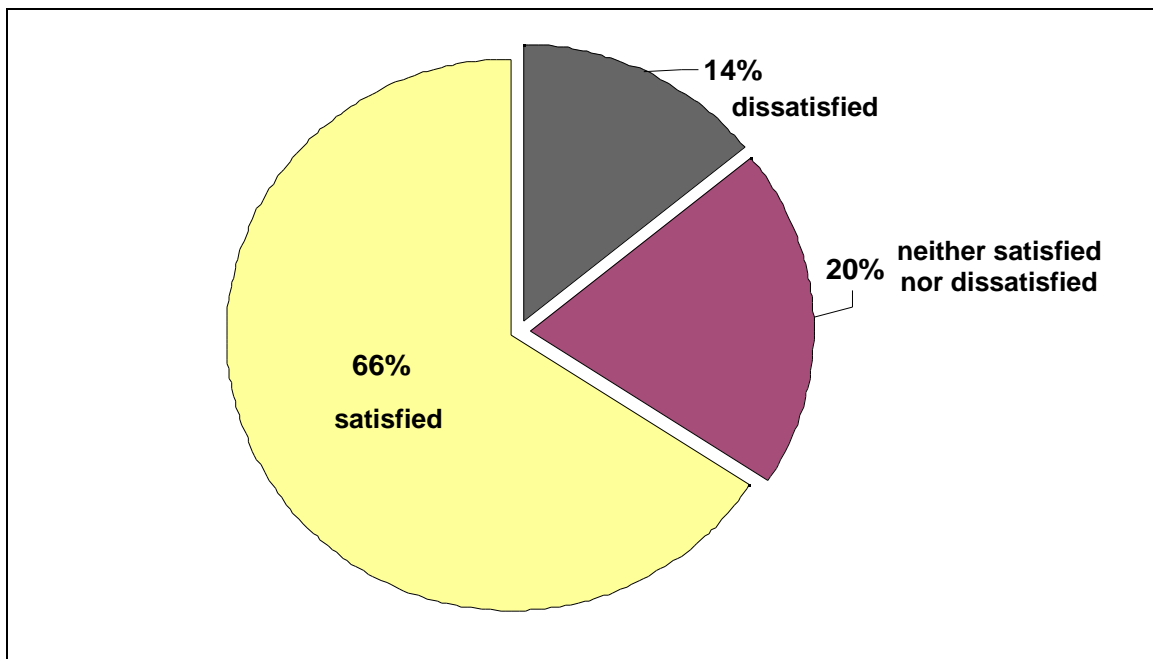
Figure 5.1 Respondents' General Satisfaction with Studying English in Australia

Differences in the level of satisfaction by respondents' cultural background were also assessed. Table 5.5 presents the results of one-way ANOVA test which found that there was a difference among groups with F=5.10 and p=.002. The Sheffe test indicated that South American respondents were more satisfied with studying English in Australia than were respondents from East Asian countries.

Table 5.5
General Satisfaction with Studying English in Australia by Cultural Background

	F	**Sig.**	**Mean[1]**			
			Europe (N=76)	**South America** (N=38)	**Southeast Asia** (N=33)	**East Asia** (N=198)
satisfaction	5.10	.002	5.14	5.69[a]	4.88	4.78[b]

[1] 7 point likert scale (1: very dissatisfied 7: very satisfied)
* significant at .01 level
Note: Means with a different superscripted letter are significantly different at the .05 level

5.3.1.3 Factors Influencing Cultural Adaptation to Australian Culture

The influential factors that helped respondents adjust to the new environment in Australia were investigated. Table 5.6 presents the factors mentioned by respondents.

The top two most influential factors were the host family and local people. A number of previous studies have found that the quality of interactions with host nationals had a positive influence on sojourners' adjustment (Berry *et al.*, 1988; Searle, 1990). A study by Rohrlich and Martin (1991) also found that, in general, the international students who interacted with host country people more frequently were more satisfied with their life in the host country than those who had less contact with local people. The result of this study confirmed the relationship between social contact with host nationals and sojourners' adjustment. A few respondents answered that staying with a host family and talking to local were very helpful for them to understand Australian culture. Several comments on host families and locals were illustrated by the following comments.

"I think staying with host family is very helpful. My host parents are good English teachers and they tell me Australian culture." (26 year old Chinese female)

"*During the first few months I lived with host family. It was a very good experience. Host parents were very kind and friendly. Home-stay gave me an opportunity to see the life of Australian people.*" (21 year old Swiss male)

"My host mother and I talk a lot. We talk about almost everything. It helps me a lot." (23 year old Brazilian female)

"I try to make chances to meet local people. Talking with local people is one of the best ways to adjust myself to host culture." (30 year old Chinese female)

Table 5.6
Influencing Factors That Helped Respondents Adjust to the New Environment in Australia

Rank	Attribute
1	Host family
2	Talking to local people
3	Friends at school
4	Friends from my home country
5	Willingness to learn Australian culture
6	Teachers at school
7	Myself
8	Time
8	Improving English
10	Travelling
Other: reading books about Australia, internet, watching TV	

N=204

Friends they met at school were also important influencing factors that helped respondents adjust to Australia. Emotional support from friends was important for managing homesickness. For example, a 24 year old Brazilian female respondent who had lived for a month in Sydney replied,

> *"My friends at school were very helpful to adjust myself to new environment. I made a lot of friends from different countries and had so much fun with them so I could not have time to think about my friends in Brazil."* (24 year old Brazilian female)

and a 26 year old Czech male,

> *"There are a lot of Czech students studying in Australia and they helped me to get over homesick."* (26 year old Czech male)

Language is one of the most distinctive differences between many cultures and one of the greatest barriers, so confidence in the use of language is a necessary condition for the adjustment of foreign students (Ward *et al.*, 2001). Some respondents also answered that improving English was an essential factor to help them adjust to new experiences in Australia.

> *"When I arrived in Sydney in the first time I felt difficulty in living here. After my English has been improved I could enjoy my life here better. Thus, studying English is a good way to adjust to Australian culture."* *(Chinese male)*

One the other hand, some other respondents mentioned that it just took some time to get used to Australian culture.

> *"I think it's time. I had a difficult time during the first couple of months. I am getting to understand Australian culture. It just takes time to adjust but once you get used to Australian custom you can enjoy life here."* (Chinese female)

Some other factors mentioned by respondents were travelling, reading books about Australia, internet, and watching TV. A few respondents answered that they did not need any help to adjust since they were willing to experiencing a different culture.

> *"I had no problem to fit in the experience in Australia. Australian culture is very different from Japanese culture in many ways. I enjoyed experiencing it because it's different!"* (25 year old Japanese female)

> "*I did not have big problem to adjust. I wanted to experience a new and different culture. That was my goal and I really enjoyed learning new cultures."* (25 year old German female)

5.3.1.4 Cultural Differences in Everyday Situations by Cultural Background

Respondents were also asked to report the occasions in everyday life where they had experienced cultural differences. As shown in Table 5.7, approximately 50 percent of the respondents had experienced cultural differences through recreation and leisure activities (Mean=3.31) and more than 40 percent of them answered that the Australian pace of life (Mean=3.21) as well as eating practices such as amount of food, time of eating and way of eating (Mean=3.17) were very different from their culture.

Table 5.7
Cultural Differences Respondents Had Experienced in Everyday Situations

	Mean[1]	Std.D.	percent		
			none	neutral	very much
type of recreation and leisure activities	3.31	1.20	24.5	26.8	48.7
the general pace of life	3.21	1.10	23.3	36.0	40.6
eating practices such as amount of food, time of eating and way of eating	3.17	1.27	28.6	29.2	42.1
the type of food eaten	3.12	1.19	26.9	35.4	37.7
the amount of privacy Australian people have	3.06	1.09	27.0	41.7	31.3
the sense of closeness among family members	3.04	1.14	29.7	35.5	34.9
ideas about what is funny	3.00	1.08	30.3	37.6	23.4
the amount of body contact such as touching or standing close	2.99	1.19	31.4	35.4	33.1
how parents treat children	2.91	1.21	37.5	6.2	32.8
the topics which should be discussed in normal conversations	2.84	1.11	35.7	36.8	27.6
how punctual most people are	2.81	1.16	38.4	33.7	27.8
the type of clothes worn	2.60	1.18	50.0	26.6	23.4

N=358
[1] 5 point scale (1:none 5:very much)

Approximately 30 percent of respondents also answered that they had experienced cultural differences due to the sense of closeness among family members (Mean=3.04), the relationship between parents and children (Mean=2.91), and the amount of privacy Australian people have (Mean=3.06). The majority of them did not perceive substantial cultural differences in the types of clothes worn and ideas about what is funny. Less than one fifth agreed that these two items made them aware of cultural differences.

The relationship between the perception of cultural differences in everyday situations and the students' regional background was tested. As can be seen in Table 5.8 the results were consistent with those of socio-cultural adaptation. In general, European respondents perceived the least cultural differences and respondents from Southeast

Asia and East Asian countries felt greater cultural differences than did European and South American respondents.

Table 5.8
Cultural Differences Respondents Had Experienced in Everyday Situations by Cultural Background

	F	Sig.	Mean[1]			
			Europe (N=76)	South America (N=37)	Southeast Asia (N=34)	East Asia (N=198)
the type of food eaten	1.93	.124	3.09	3.13	2.69	3.22
the type of clothes worn	2.97	.032	2.34	2.27	2.69	2.72
how punctual most people are	.779	.508	2.88	2.70	3.03	2.74
ideas about what is funny	3.96	.009*	2.73[a]	2.75	3.09	3.18[b]
the general pace of life	4.43	.004*	3.04	2.89	2.84	3.37
the amount of privacy Australian people have	4.59	.004*	2.82	2.70[a]	3.43[b]	3.18
type of recreation and leisure activities	6.06	.000*	3.13	2.70[a]	3.25	3.52[b]
how parents treat children	10.85	.000*	2.32[a]	2.51	3.24[b]	3.15[b]
the sense of closeness among family members	11.73	.000*	2.37[a]	3.13	3.22[b]	3.25[b]
the amount of body contact such as touching or standing close	10.92	.000*	2.37[a]	3.45[b]	3.18[b]	3.17[b]
the topics which should be discussed in normal conversations	4.25	.006*	2.50[a]	2.67	3.06	2.98[b]
eating practices such as amount of food, time of eating and way of eating	.114	.934	3.19	3.27	3.29	3.17

[1] : 5 point scale (1:none 5:very much)
* significant at .001 level
Note: Means with a different superscripted letter are significantly different at the .01 level

The results of one-way ANOVAs and the Sheffe tests indicated that compared to European respondents, East Asian respondents indicated greater cultural differences in ideas about what is funny, the type of recreation and leisure activities, and the topics which should be discussed in normal conversation. Both Southeast Asian and East Asian respondents perceived greater cultural differences in the way parents treat children and the sense of closeness among family members than did respondents from European countries.

The results supported those of McAllister and Moore (1991), who found that the cultural distance between Australian and Asian groups was greater than between Australians and Europeans. The findings of the present study also confirmed that Asian respondents perceived a greater cultural distance between Australian culture and their own culture compared to respondents from European countries.

5.3.1.5 Socio-Cultural Adaptation by Respondents' Cultural Background

To identify respondents socio-cultural adaptation, respondents were asked to rate the degree of difficulty they had living in Australia on a 5 point Likert scale ranging 1 (no difficulty) to 5 (great difficulty). Table 5.9 presents the summary of the results. As can be seen in Table 5.9, learning and using English (mean =2.93) and having sufficient money (mean=2.93) were reported as the respondents' greatest difficulties while living in Australia. Approximately 25 percent of the respondents also answered that it was difficult for them to make friends and to adapt to local food. They had little difficulty in adapting to the climate and using Australian currency. Fourteen percent of the respondents answered that they had difficulty in adapting to climate and only 7 percent of them responded they had difficulty in using Australian currency.

The findings of this study were similar to those of the study conducted by Rothlich and Martin (1991). Their study also found that the students were concerned about housing, money, coursework, and language. On the other hand, they had little difficulty in using local transportation, adjusting to the foreign culture, making friends, or in matters of health and climate. Using unfamiliar currency turned out to be the least problematic in the foreign country.

Table 5.9
Respondents' Socio-Cultural Adaptation

	Mean	Std.D.	percent		
			no difficulty	neutral	difficulty
learning and using English	2.93	1.05	35.8	35.8	28.4
having sufficient money	2.93	1.15	33.6	37.1	26.3
coursework	2.69	.98	38.4	45.0	16.5
meeting people and making friends	2.65	1.20	48.4	25.2	26.3
adapting to local food	2.58	1.29	49.1	25.4	25.4
adjusting to Australian customs	2.54	.98	49.3	36.7	14.0
housing or host family	2.49	1.11	33.4	29.7	16.9
using local transportation	2.42	1.20	58.2	21.8	20.1
dealing with homesickness	2.38	1.18	57.6	25.1	17.3
maintaining health	2.38	1.12	59.2	24.7	16.1
adapting to climate	2.14	1.14	65.2	20.7	14.0
using Australian currency	1.98	1.06	71.0	19.3	6.8

N=358
[1] : 5 point scale (1:no difficulty, 5: great difficulty)

As the mean scores indicate in Table 5.9, generally respondents did not have many problems in adjusting to the new environment. The range of mean scores of all 12 items was between 1 to 3, which means that majority of respondents answered that they did not have much difficulty in adapting. One possible explanation could be that respondents were highly motivated to learn about Australian culture. The previous study of international students' travel behaviour while in Australia (Study 2) found that the respondents were keen to experience different cultures and novel activities unavailable in their home country. Therefore, it could be assumed that they consider the process of socio-cultural adaptation as a challenge to gain new cultural experiences rather than considering it as full of difficulties to be overcome.

The relationship between respondents' social adaptation and their regional cultural background was tested. The results of the one-way ANOVAs and post hoc comparisons of the mean score of the each group are summarised in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10
Social Adaptation by Regional Cultural Background

	F	Sig.	Mean[1]			
			Europe (N=76)	South America (N=38)	Southeast Asia (N=33)	East Asia (N=198)
learning and using English	8.20	.000*	2.54[a]	2.51[a]	3.12[b]	3.13[b]
meeting people and making friends	5.44	.001*	2.43	2.10[a]	2.63	2.86[b]
adjusting to Australian customs	4.16	.007*	2.29[a]	2.27	2.63	2.69[b]
dealing with homesickness	2.53	.057	2.13	2.40	2.81	2.36
housing or host family	2.84	.038	2.26	2.19	2.60	2.62
adapting to climate	3.40	.018*	1.98[a]	2.13	2.72[b]	2.10
adapting to local food	2.57	.054	2.28	3.00	2.60	2.60
maintaining health	5.13	.002*	2.16[a]	3.02[b]	2.30	2.37
using local transportation	1.23	.296	2.45	2.10	2.33	2.50
using Australian currency	4.28	.005*	1.63[a]	1.75	2.12[b]	2.10[b]
having sufficient money	1.48	.219	1.20	1.31	1.04	1.01
coursework	6.25	.000*	2.38[a]	2.36[a]	2.78	2.88[b]

[1] : 5 point scale (1:no difficulty, 5: great difficulty)
* significant at .01 level
  Note: Means with a different superscripted letter are significantly different at the .01 level

The result of the one-way ANOVAs indicated that there were differences in social adaptation among the different cultural background groups on seven out of twelve items. Asian respondents generally were less well adjusted than European and South American respondents. The Sheffe test found that respondents from East Asian countries including Korea, Japan, China and Taiwan had significantly greater difficulties than European respondents in learning English, making friends, adjusting to Australian customs, using Australian currency and coursework. Southeast Asian students also had more difficulty than European respondents in learning English, adapting to the climate and using Australian currency.

According to Furnham (1983), there is a strong relationship between cultural distance and cross-cultural adaptation. He argued that the greater the degree of cultural distance between the host society and the sojourner's culture the more likely an individual is to experience cultural differences. This leads to a greater degree of

difficulty experienced in negotiating everyday social situations. In terms of a social learning model, individuals who are more culturally distant are likely to have fewer culturally appropriate skills for negotiating everyday situations (Ward *et al.*, 2001). Asian respondents were more highly aware of cultural differences between Australian culture and their own culture. Asians therefore had relatively more difficulty in adapting to Australian culture than did European respondents who felt less cultural distance. In the following section, respondents' images of Australian people and its culture are presented.

5.3.2 Images of Australian People: Aim 2

Respondents were asked to rate their image of Australian people by using 16 pairs of bipolar scales. As Figure 5.2 shows, the majority of respondents had positive images of Australian people. Respondents perceived Australians as relaxed. More than 85 percent of the respondents agreed that Australian people are relaxed while less than 5 percent of them viewed Australian people as tense. Australian people were also seen as open-minded (81.6%), happy (81.4%) and friendly (80.2%). More than 70 percent of respondents thought Australian people are casual and honest and more than 60 percent of them perceived Australians as honest, talkative, frank, polite and easygoing.
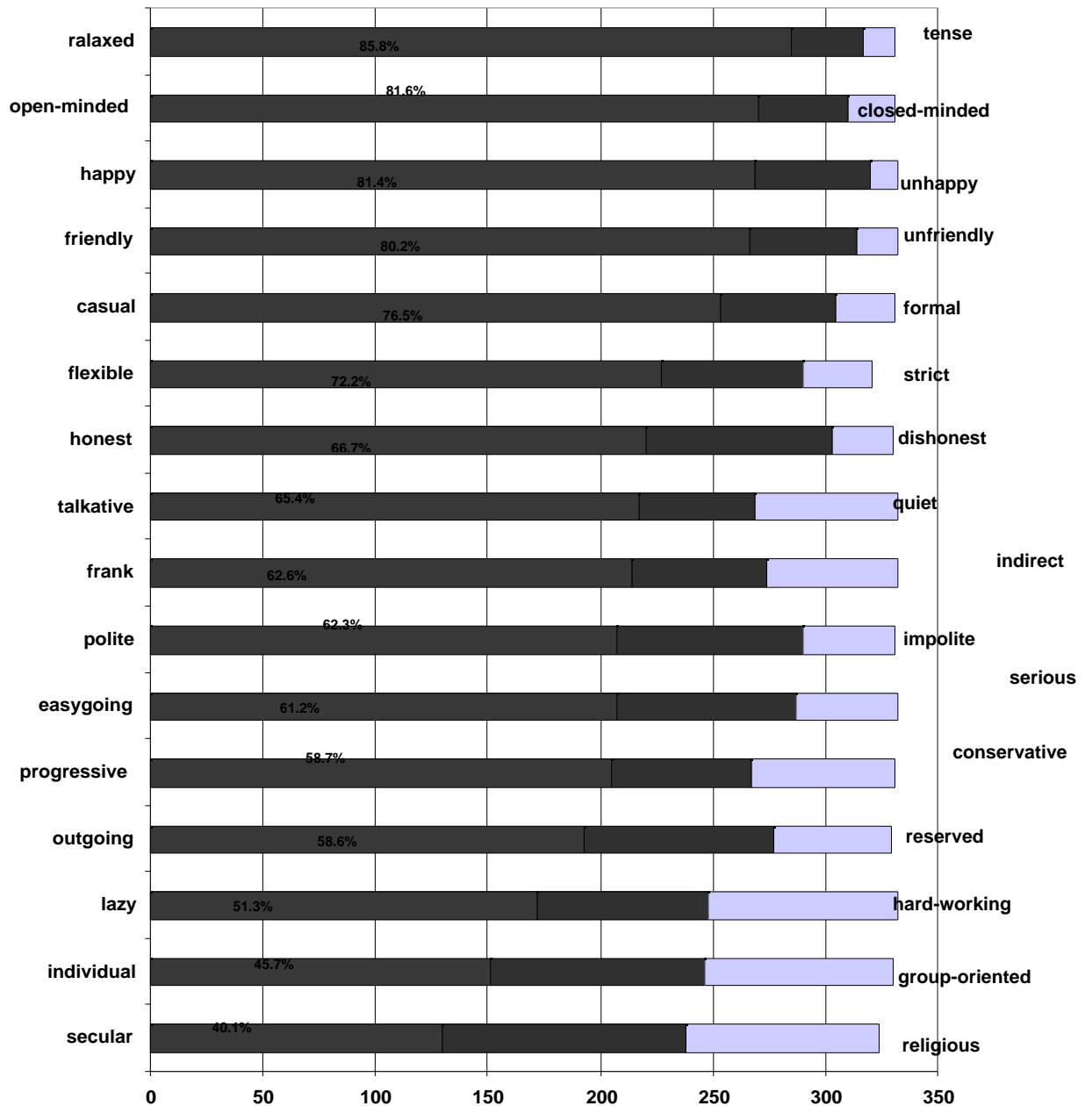
N=341
Figure 5.2 Respondents' Images of Australian People

To allow the sample to respond more freely about their image of Australian people, an open-ended question was provided. Table 5.11 displays responses which were mentioned in at least 10 percent of cases.

Table 5.11
Respondents' Image of Australian People

Rank	Attribute
1	Friendly
2	Kind (helpful)
3	Lazy
4	Easygoing (carefree)
5	Open-minded
6	Relaxed
7	Outgoing
8	Individual (self-centered minded)
8	Talkative
10	Hard drinking
Other:	impolite, happy, prejudiced, unpunctual, honest, strict, optimistic, fat, progressive, superficial, unfriendly, serious

N= 342

As can be seen in Table 5.11, respondents generally have a favourable image of Australian people and the majority of responses were personality descriptions. More than 50 percent of respondents stated that they perceived Australians to be friendly and kind.

> *"One day, I was wandering around to find the immigration building. I happened to meet a group of old people. One of old ladies asked me if I was looking for something and I told her I wanted to go to the immigration building. The lady did not know where it was so she asked other people passing us on the street for me. I was very impressed. In France people are not as helpful as Australians."* (22 year old French male)

> *"Most Australian people are more friendly than people in my country. One the first day of my school, I met an old lady on my way to the school. She said, "Hello! How are you?" I think generally Australian are very very friendly."* (28 year old Korean female)

A Koran male commented on kindness of Australian people as follows;

> *"My first of day Australia, I took a bus to go to my home-stay. The driver said that they bus did not go that direction but he took me right in front of my home-stay house. He gave me a good impression on Australian people."*

There was also a general consensus of opinion that Australian people are easygoing, open-minded and relaxed. Approximately one third of respondents considered Australians as easygoing and one fifth of them viewed Australians to be open-minded and relaxed. Some positive appraisals are highlighted in the following comments:

> *"Unlike Chinese young people, most of young Australians don't think about their future and they just enjoy today's life. They are more likely to relax than the young in China"* (22 year old Chinese male)

> *"They are very friendly and easygoing. They know how to enjoy their life.*
> (20 year old Swiss female)

> *Their life is very simple and easygoing and they are happy with it. Although they have problems they don't seem to take them seriously.*

> *"Many people with different ethnic background live together in Australia so they are very open-minded. They respect other cultures."* (26 year old Korean female)

> *"They are friendly, easygoing and open minded. They can easily accept people from different countries and they appreciate the differences."* (22 year old French male)

> *"They are very relaxed. They seem to have nothing to worry about."* (24 year old Korean female)

While the majority of general impressions of Australian people were positive or neutral, some negative comments were also mentioned. The negative response that was the most frequently mentioned laziness. Australians' easygoing and slow pace lifestyle was reflected negatively in some Asian and European eyes.

"I feel they are relaxed but sometimes they look lazy. (25 year old Korean male)

"(Australian people) are quite lazy. They don't work as hard as Asian people." (28 year old Japanese male)

"(Australian people are) lazy. They are not ambitious. They just live from day to day. It seems that they are proud of being lazy."(23 year old Swiss female)

Some respondents considered Australian people's friendliness and politeness as a superficial manner.

"(Australian people) seem to be kind and friendly. They always say "sorry" Thank you" But I cannot read their real mind. I am not sure if they treat us sincerely." (24 year old Korean female)

"I think they are very friendly but sometimes their too friendly manners makes me wonder whether they mean it." (30 year old Thai female)

"Australians look warm but when a relationship starts to become personal, they try to avoid it." (26 year old Brazilian)

Several comments on impolite manners were also mentioned. For example one Japanese female who had lived for 5 months in Cairns responded,

"They are usually kind and patient but sometimes I feel bad because of their impoliteness. They don't understand how hard for me to speak English. When I speak English incorrectly they give an unpleasant facial expression. If I ask one more time they just ignore my question."

The results of this study appear to be consistent with the two previous research efforts exploring stereotypes of Australian people. For example, Berry (1969) examined whether Australians possessed stereotypes of people in the various Australian states. Respondents drawn from different states were asked to provide a list of adjectives which were appropriate in describing residents of the Australian states. It was found that Australian people perceived themselves as easygoing, friendly, and hard-drinking.

The result of Bjerring's (1997) study was also somewhat similar as Berry's. Bjerring (1997) conducted a study to investigate image of Australian people held by the Danish and English young travellers. Respondents were asked to state what comes to mind when they think of a typical Australian people. The result indicated that respondents perceived Australian to be friendly, outgoing and happy but also to be beer drinkers.

5.3.3 Images of Australian culture: Aim 3

The purpose of incorporating open-ended questions in this section was to identify what international students think of Australian culture and identifying the occasions where international students experienced cultural differences. The results of the findings are presented in the following order; respondents' enjoyable and memorable experiences while in Australia, respondents' favourable and unfavourable attitudes toward Australian culture and their experiences of cultural differences.

5.3.3.1 Attributes Respondents Enjoyed Most While in Australia

When asked what they enjoyed most while in Australia, the student sample gave a wide range of responses. Table 5.12 lists the fifteen attributes mentioned most frequently. Making friends from different countries was the most highly ranked item. Nearly 40 percent of respondents stated that having a chance to make friends from numerous cultural backgrounds was the most enjoyable experience.

> *"…. I could get a chance to meet lots of people from all over the world. You know, it is not easy to do so in Korea."* (28 year old Korean male)

> *"My experience in Australia was very exciting. Everyday I could learn something new and different. I met a lot of people from not only Asian countries but also European countries in the language centre. Sometimes we had parties at one of our friends' house. It was so much fun."* (19 year old Mexican female)

Table 5.12
Top Fifteen Attributes Respondents Enjoyed Most While in Australia

Rank	Attribute
1	Making friends from different countries
2	Unspoiled and beautiful natural environment
3	Beaches
4	Friendly Australian people
5	Weather
6	Travel experience
6	Easygoing lifestyles
8	Studying English
9	Water sports (surfing, diving, sailing, snorkeling etc.)
10	Experiencing different cultures
10	Night life (pubs, clubs, parties etc.)
12	Travel attractions
12	Open-minded society
14	Trying various types of food
15	Parks
Other: clean city, safety, open space, shopping, being independent, freedom	

N=314

Australia's natural environment, beaches, weather and friendly people were frequently

mentioned, which confirmed the results of the researcher's previous studies.

"(Things I really enjoyed while in Australia were) almost everything. My course was nice. It was not serious but I've learned a lot. The nature is amazing. The most beautiful sight I've ever seen was the Great Barrier Reef." (19 year old Brazilian female)

"Australia is a beautiful country. Especially beaches are great." (25 year old Korean male)

"(The thing I really enjoyed in Australia was) beautiful weather . It was great especially in summer time. I could enjoy fishing, surfing and swimming until 9pm." (30 year old Japanese male)

"I love autumn here. The sky is blue and so clear. It just so beautiful!" (26 year old Thai female)
"The thing I really enjoy while in Australia was friendly people. They always ask "How are you?" and always offer help." (24 year old German female)

Some respondents appreciated having an opportunity to experience different cultures and they commented as follows:

> *"… Australian culture is very different from our culture. I enjoyed the cultural diversity very much. My way of thinking has been changed. I can understand the world in a wider way."* (26 year old Chinese male)

> *"What I really enjoyed while in Australia was learning different cultures from different countries. That makes myself more open minded."* (24 year old Chinese female)

Travel experience, water activities such as snorkelling, surfing, diving and sailing and night life including going to pubs or clubs and having parties were also important attributes respondents enjoyed while in Australia. As a part of the cultural experience, some respondents mentioned trying various types of food as an essential part of their experience in Australia.

5.3.3.2 Attributes of Australian Culture Respondents Would Like to Report about

When asked about Australian culture, the most common responses were the Australian people, Australian's multi-cultural society, and relaxed and easygoing lifestyle. A summary of responses is presented in Table 5.13. The majority of respondents mentioned the friendliness of Australian people and Australian people's interests, habits and their everyday lifestyle. In particular, respondents noted how much Australian people enjoy drinking beer, watching or playing sports and having a BBQ party.

> *"They enjoy outdoor activities such as BBQ parties, picnics…"* (33 year old Thai female)

> *"They enjoy their life very much. After their work, they go to the clubs, pubs or cinemas. On weekends, they go to the beach and have a BBQ party. They enjoy every moment of their life."* (21 year old Bangladeshian male)

"One interesting thing I've found is that after 2 pm there are a few people talking and drinking in pubs everyday. I can't think of Australian culture without pubs." (26 year old Korean male)

"Australian people are very interesting. They like to drink beer and to watch football in a pub. They have funny accent. They also like water sports very much." (18 year old Colombian male)

"Australian people love drinking beer. They drink every day and all the time. They also love BBQ and outdoor activities especially water sports such as surfing and sailing. (24 year old Brazilian female)

"*They drink heaps of beer and like picnic and BBQ very much*." (25 year old Dutch female)

Table 5.13
Top Five Attributes Respondents Would Like to Talk about Australian Culture

Rank	Attribute

1	Australian people
	    1. friendly Australian people
	    2. how much Australian people like drinking beer
	    3. BBQ lover
	    4. Type of clothing Australian people wear
	    5. sports lover
	    6. their everyday custom

2	Multi-cultural society
3	Relaxed and easygoing lifestyle
4	Aboriginal culture (dance, music, rock painting etc.)
5	Celebrations and festivals
Other: pubs, Australian food, buildings, high quality of life, Australian accent, freedom	

N=321

The multi-cultural society was the second most frequently mentioned theme by respondents. Respondents were highly aware of the diversity of culture which exists in Australia and they appreciated the cultural diversity of Australia.

"Australia is a multi-cultural country. It is very different from my country. In Korea, we eat the same food, we speak the same language, and we all have black hair and black eye. But here in Australia, you can find people from all over the world." (28 year old Korean female)

> *"I think Australia does not have one single culture because there are many foreigners. It is mixed with many different cultures such as Chinese, Greek, British, and Indian culture. Many people who came from so many different countries live together in Australia."* (19 year old Vietnamese male)

> *" …. I really appreciate the way many different people from all over the world live altogether without any conflict. In this sense Australian people are more open-minded than Italians. They are willing to accept people who are different from themselves."* (25 year old Italian female)

> *"To me it was amazing how many different ethnic groups live together in one country. I know every society has some kind of problems but it seems people here live peacefully together."* (25 year old German female)

Another common theme mentioned by respondents was the relaxed and easygoing lifestyle. Some respondents who were from European and East Asian countries appreciated Australians' easygoing lifestyle. A 25 year old German female explained that,

> *"…. Australians seems to have a happier life than Germans. They are more relaxed, easygoing and simply enjoy themselves."*

A 25 year old Korean female,

> *"When I arrived in Australia at the first time I saw many people having a BBQ party in parks. They looked happy and relaxed. People in my country work very hard and are tensed. I like Australian lifestyle in this sense."*

and a 20 year old Japanese female,

> *"Compared with Japanese lifestyle Australian lifestyle is more relaxed. They know how to enjoy their life. They work only 5 days a week so they have more time to enjoy themselves."*

Aboriginal culture such as Aboriginal dances, music, rock paintings and Australian holidays were ranked fourth and fifth respectively. In addition, pubs, Australian food, buildings and high quality of life were also mentioned.

5.3.3.3 Respondents' Negative Images of Australian Culture

Negative images of Australian culture held by international students were also investigated. The definition of culture in this study was based on Triandis' (1994) definition of culture. According to Triandis, culture refers to processes and products constructed by human beings. It includes invisible aspects such as a group of people's values, attitudes, and norms of behaviour as well as the visible elements including the artefacts people make, the food they eat and the clothing they wear. A few responses which are related to natural environment such as weather, insects, and animals were excluded since they were not regarded as a part of culture as defined in this segment of the research.

When asked what they disliked in Australian culture, some respondents indicated that there was nothing they disliked. They were aware of cross-cultural differences and tended to accept not only favourable but also unfavourable elements or episodes as a new cultural experience. For example, a 24 year old Colombian male replied,

> *"I enjoy every thing. I can find something different but I took it as a new experience."*

and a 19 year old Mexican female also answered that,

> *"not really…. I love this place!"*

A list of elements disliked by respondents is shown in Table 5.14. The majority of the negative images of Australian culture held by respondents were caused by dissimilarities in social values and customs. The most common negative response was about Australian food, which confirmed the findings of the researcher's previous study of international students' images of Australia as a tourist destination. Approximately 30 percent of respondents said that what they disliked most was Australian food and they

had a poor image of the dietary habits of Australian people.   Some comments of respondents are as follows,

> *"I used to stay with host family and I had a good time with them. One thing I did not really like was food. My host mother cooked every meal for me and the food was not tasty.   Sometimes too salty and sometimes too oily….."* (23 year old Chinese male)

> *"Everything is pretty much ok expect for food. I really don't like food here such as cheese, pasta and beef steak."* (22 year old Taiwanese female)

> *"I don't like food in Australia because it is too different from that I have. In Brazil I eat healthier food."* (23 year old Brazilian female)

> *"The food is a big problem for me. I don't like Australian style of food. I don't think Australians eat properly and they drink a lot."* (16 year old French male)

Table 5.14
Top Ten Attributes Respondents Did not Like While in Australia

Rank	Attribute
1	Food
2	Slow-pace of lifestyle
3	Short business hours
4	Inconvenient transportation system
5	Impolite and narrow minded Australian people
6	High living expenses
7	Racism
8	Aboriginal people
9	Homeless people
10	Lack of interesting culture
Other: drunken people on the street, road system, individualism, redneck attitude	

N=257

The slow-pace of lifestyle was another common theme mentioned by respondents. A few Japanese and European respondents also complained about unpunctuality and inefficiency of service provisions. Particularly they were dissatisfied with transportation system.

> *"Sometimes Australians' lifestyle make me upset. Everything is too slow and they are not punctual."* (27 year old Korean female)

> *"I think Australian people are too relaxed and easygoing. It's ok but sometimes I felt annoyed when I was in a hurry."* (30 year old Japanese male)

> *" Shops are closed very early and on Sundays, few shops are open so I can not go shopping. That makes my life bored. "* (23 year old Chinese female)

> *"I think Australians are unpunctual. For example, my flatmates are often late for their work but it seems that they take it for granted. In my culture punctuality is very important. Australians are very easygoing. That's why concept of punctuality is loose.* (30 year old Japanese female)

> *"I don't really like the transportation system in Sydney. If I miss the bus I have to wait for a long time to catch the next one."* (24 year old Japanese female)

"I am quite happy to live here expect for transportation system. The trains are too slow compared to France."(22 year old male French)

According to Brislin (1993), the major reason for difficulties in cross-cultural interaction are cultural differences categorization, differentiation, in-group and out-group distinction and attribution processes. He argued that conflicts could arise in cross-cultural tourist-host interaction because students and others categorize and perceive negatively most unfamiliar behaviours or values.

Cushner and Brislin (1996) also noted that people experience strong emotional reactions when their cultural values are violated or when their culture's expected behaviours are ignored. This is the basis for the strong and often unexpected emotional responses people experience in cross-cultural encounters. When visitors perceived that the values of host culture are dissimilar to those of their culture, they have strong affective responses and sometimes they have negative attitudes toward the host culture. In the same manner, the easygoing and relaxed lifestyle of Australian people in eyes of respondents, especially those who came from the society of relatively fast pace of lifestyle could be viewed negatively.

5.3.3.4 Respondents' Experience of Cross-Cultural Differences

Respondents were asked to write about culture shock based on their experiences. Using a critical incidents methodology, the study found both the common and unique experiences of cross-cultural differences. To develop a coding scheme the responses were content analysed. A response that contained more than one theme was multi-coded. A total of 268 episodes were categorised into forty themes. To extract the main themes forty themes re-grouped by the researcher and two other doctorial students in the tourism program at James Cook University. Finally ten main themes were extracted: drinking and eating customs, lifestyle, human relationship, ways of

expressing feelings and thoughts, clothing habits, everyday customs, communication style, the traffic system, gay and lesbian culture, and the education system. The main themes are presented in Table 5.15 in their rank order of frequency.

Table 5.15
Cultural Differences Experienced in Everyday Situations

Rank	Episode
1	Drinking and eating customs 1. Type of food eaten 2. Way of eating food 3. Amount of food people eat 4. Payment practices
2	Lifestyle 1. Type of recreation and leisure activities 2. Easygoing and casual lifestyle 3. Short business hours 4. Slow-pace of lifestyle
3	Human relationships 1. Degree of friendliness toward strangers 2. Relationship between parents and children 3. Friendship 4. Sense of closeness among family members 5. Relationship between husband and wife
4	Way of expressing feelings and thoughts
5	Clothing customs
6	Everyday customs 1. Greetings 2. Checking a bag at a supermarket 3. Early sleeping time 4. Taking a shower
7	Communication style 1. Amount of body touching 2. Degree of directness 3. Topics which can be discussed in normal conversation
8	Social rule 1. Traffic system 2. Alcohol regulation 3. Degree of strictness of social rules
9	Education system
10	Gay and lesbian culture

N=254

Many cultural differences they had experienced involved encounters in everyday situations. Drinking and eating customs such as type of food eaten, the ways of eating

food, and amount of food people eat were most commonly mentioned by respondents.

For example, Australian people's dietary habits were illustrated by a 20 year old

Bangladeshian male,

> *"Australian people love sweeties. They love chocolates and cakes. I found there are a lot of fast food restaurants here. Many people like fast food. Even old people go to the McDonald's for breakfast."*

a 25 year old Taiwanese female,

> *"One day I watched football match on TV with my host family. One thing made me surprised was that they were keeping on eating something. They never stopped eating! Meat pie, chips, hot dogs, sandwiches etc...."*

and a 26 year old Thai female,

> "Australian people eat much more amount of food than Thai people. After a big meal they can have a big piece of cake. It is interesting for me to see people eating something while they walk. (26 year old Thai female)

Other comments on eating and drinking custom were illustrated by the following comments.

> *Australian people eat very slow and eat without any noise. That does consider as polite. But in China it's not rude talking with our mouth full and making a noise. We make a big noise when we eat noodle to show how much we enjoy the food."* (27 year old Chinese male)

> *"They have dinner early and dinner time is very short. In France we have dinner from 7 pm and we have very long dinner time."* (22 year old French male)

> *It was very surprising that some restaurants allow us to bring our own bottles of wine. In my country we cannot do that."* (27 year old Swiss male)

> *"The way that Australian people pay the bill at a restaurant is strange to me. When they pay the bill they pay it separately. In my country usually we do not split the bill. When we go out for dinner with our friends, one of us pay the bill."* (33 year old Thai female)

Another common theme mentioned by respondents was related to the Australian lifestyle. Several comments were made about recreation and leisure activities of Australian people. A Chinese male respondent described it in this way,

> *"For the first time when I went to a pub I was very surprised that there were full of people. (There were) not only young people but also many old people! Later I found that going to the pub is a common leisure activity for Australians. In China only young people like to go to the pub with friends but most people prefer going to a tea house. I still do not understand how come Australians can enjoy talking in such a noise place."*

And a Japanese female respondent,

> *"Australians spend a lot of their leisure time for exercise. I can see many people jogging on the beach. In Japan we go shopping or watch movie rather than doing some kind of exercise."*

A few respondents answered that Australians' easygoing and casual lifestyle made them feel a cultural difference. Their attitude toward the Australian lifestyle was somewhat contradictory. Some respondents were able to accept the slow-pace of life and appreciated Australian lifestyle. For example, a 26 year old Chinese female who had lived for 2 months in Brisbane replied,

> *Most Australians are relaxed and easygoing. Nobody is in a hurry. Bus drivers here in Australia don't yell at us, "hurry up!" They say hello instead when we get on the bus. It's very surprising to me." "*

Another Chinese respondent commented as follows,

> *"Australian people have more freedom than Chinese people. Chinese government controls TV programs, gas and a lot of other things so we have less freedom than Australians. In here I have freedom to do something what I want to. I don't have to care what other people will think of me."*

A Korean female respondent described what she thought about Australian lifestyle in this way,

> *"Australian culture was very strange to me at first. Lifestyle is very*

different. I could not stand their slow pace of life. Koreans hurry up everything so we don't have much patience. But I now I have started to enjoy easygoing lifestyle."

On the other hand, some respondents perceived difference between their lifestyle and Australians' lifestyle rather negatively. For example, a 24 year old Czech male replied,

"Australian lifestyle is much more casual than European's. Sometime I think they are too informal. They way they wear, talk, have a meal……"

Several negative comments were also made about short business hours.

"It is my first time to travel abroad so I felt cultural difference so much and I hated it. I had difficulty on adapting Australian lifestyle. In Australia most shops are closed too early. I do not have anything to do at night. One Korean writer who had travelled to Australia mentioned that Australia is boring heaven whereas Korea is interesting hell. Now I can understand what he meant." (24 year old Korean female)

"During the first few months of my stay in Australia, I experienced cultural differences in many ways. Most of all I was quite surprised that shopping centres here are closed early evening. In my country big shopping centres are open until late because many people go shopping after their work. After dark, the streets are full of people and the city becomes lively. I don't like nightlife in Australia. It's too quiet." (19 year old Chinese female)

The findings also supported Brislin's (1993) and Cushner and Brislin's (1996) theory emphasizing the tendency to prefer similarity and familiarity. By way of contrast perceived cultural dissimilarity and a lack of familiarity can generate negative perceptions. Respondents tended to perceive unfavourably the values and behaviours which were dissimilar to those of their culture. Respondents from East Asian and European countries where time and punctuality are highly valued perceived the Australian pace of lifestyle to be slow. Some respondents from South American and Southeast Asian countries where time is more flexible and punctuality is relatively less highly valued mentioned that the Australian fast-paced lifestyle made them feel cultural differences. For example, a 20 year old Indonesian male replied as follows,

During the first week of my stay in Sydney, I experienced cultural differences in many ways. Especially the lifestyle is very different from my home country. I can see a lot of people walking very fast in the morning. It's very surprising to me. I can't hardly see people walking so fast back home."

The third most frequently mentioned theme was human relationship including degree of friendliness toward strangers, relationship between parents and children, friendship and sense of closeness among family members. Several respondents made some comments related to friendliness toward strangers.

"Australians are more friendly to strangers than the Chinese. They even talk to the person sitting next to them while they are waiting for the bus. We don't do that back home." (21 year old Chinese male)

"In general, Australia is similar to Switzerland. However here I can have a conversation with anybody much easily. When I go to a supermarket people ask me "how's it going?" and I end up chatting for 5 minutes. That's great!" (21 year old Swiss male)

Some Asian respondents perceived that it is difficult to have a long-term friendship with Australian people although it is easy to get along well with them in a short period of time. Asian people take a long time to get to know people but once they get close to each other they maintain friendships with emotionally strong bonds (Wei *et al.*, 1989). In contrast, Australians are often immediately friendly even to those they do not know well but they do not easily develop such friendship beyond a certain level (Reisinger & Turner, 1997). Therefore it is possible that Australians' friendship from Asian respondents' point of view might be considered as superficial and insincere. A few respondents criticized Australians' friendship with the following comments.

"Australian people keep friendship very formal. It's quite easy to meet people here but difficult to make a good friend. Because Australian people don't take friendship as seriously as Korean people do, sometimes I think Australian friendship is shallow." (25 year old Korean male)

"Australians are very talkative and friendly so it is very easy to meet new people here. But it is difficult to have a close relationship with them. Korean people think human relation is very important but Australians do

not seem to think so." (28 year old Korean female)

> *"Australians are always aplogising for such small things and saying thank you for this and thank you for that even to close friends. Their politeness makes me feel distant and superficial."* (26 year old Chinese female)

Other experiences of cultural differences in human relationship were related to family relationship. As has been discussed in Chapter 2, the importance of values is differ according to one's cultural background. Generally, freedom, happiness, privacy, and independence are highly valued in individualist cultures while obedience, education, sense of belonging, social harmony are highly valued in collectivist cultures (Hui & Triandis, 1986). The result of this study supported the previous literature arguing that social rules which are influenced by values are perceived differently based on cultural background. Several respondents from collectivist cultures including Korean and China experienced cultural differences due to the different social rules surrounding family relationship. For example the relationship between parents and children and between husband and wife surprised some respondents.

> *"The way parents treat their children is very different. Australian parents respect their children's opinion even though they are very young. The relationship between parents and children is open and frank."* (22 year old Chinese male)

> *"An interesting thing I want to share with my friends back home is the relationship between children and parents. The topics they talk about are very different. My host mother asks her daughter when her daughter comes back form the kindergarten that "did you have a good time? Are you happy today?" But Chinese parents ask "What have you learnt?" instead.* (24 year old Chinese female)

> *"Australian people don't take marriage as seriously as Chinese people. A lot of people here live together without marriage and once they have some problems they break up easily. It is also very easy for them to get divorced, which is very rare in my country."* (23 year old Indian female)

Australian people's friendly way of greeting also generated misunderstandings. For example a couple of European respondents mentioned they felt a cultural difference

due to Australians' greeting style.

> *"When I go to the supermarket a casher asks me always, "How are you today?" It seems that she does not expect the answer from me. That made me confused a little bit at the beginning."* (25 year old German female)

> *"When Australian people meet someone, they say, "Hey G'day, How are you?" We don't say like that back home unless we really want to know how they are. Here in Australia it is just a way of greeting."* (25 year old Dutch female)

Some other examples of respondents' experiences of cultural difference in everyday custom are as follows,

> *"Let me tell you a funny story. One day I went to Woolworths and I bought some fruits and vegetable. When I was about to pay the casher asked, "Can I check your bag please?" I was surprised. I thought she treated me like a thief. I asked her back, "Why?" I am sure that she was also surprised because of my reaction."* (29 year old Korean male)

> *"In my country we take off out shoes before we enter the room. It's very strange to me that some people walk outside with their bare feet and some people still wear their shoes in the house!"* (25 year old Japanese female)

> *"In my country it is very common to see female friends holding hands when they walk on the street. But we can't do that in Australia."* (26 year old Japanese female)

> *"When Australians sneeze they say, "Excuse me." But when they blow their nose they say nothing. I saw people blowing loudly in public area. That's a little bit strange to me. In Korea, sneezing is ok but we don't blow our nose in public."* (20 year old female Korean)

Some respondents answered that due to the different ways of expressing feelings they had experienced cultural differences. For example, a 25 year old Korean female respondent commented on Australian couples kissing in public areas.

> *"Australians often kiss with their lovers in public areas such as streets,*

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> *parks and restaurants. In my country I seldom see people kiss each other. Because we don't have such customs in my country it's very strange to me."*

and a 26 year old Thai female respondent also replied,

> *"I see people hug and kiss at coffee shops or even on the streets. Nobody thinks it is strange but if you do that in Thailand, everyone will look at you."*
> (26 year old Thai female)

Asian respondents experienced cultural difference in Australians' way of expressing thoughts since people in collectivist societies in which a sense of groupness and group harmony are highly valued, tend to be strongly influenced by other people's views and bahaviour unlike individual cultures such as Australia (Neuliep, 2000). One Japanese respondent mentioned how much freedom Australian people have to express themselves.

> *"Australians have more freedom to express themselves because they respect other people's privacy. They accept everyone is different. In Japan, they think I am strange if I act or think differently from them."* (25 year old Japanese female)

Respondents from Asian countries were also somewhat surprised by the Australians' casual manner of dress. Asian people tend to take care with their clothes and appearance since the style of dress in Asian countries reflects one's own social class, position, and sense of belonging. Dress expresses respect to other people. This is in contrast to Australian culture, in which clothing style is comparatively more casual (Riesinger & Turner, 1997). A few comments on Australians' clothing custom were illustrated by the following comments.

> *" ......The clothes Australians wear are more casual than those of Chinese people."* (35 year old Chinese female)

> *"I was very surprised that there are many people walking not wearing shoes on the streets."* (26 year old Japanese female)

> *"Type of clothes Australian women wear is very different. They don't care much about what they wear. Their style is very casual."* (33 year old Korean female)

> *"The strangest thing to me is Australians' fashion style. I often see people wearing a formal suit with jogging shoes and a big backpack. That looks very strange to me."* (27 year old Korean female)

In cross-cultural interaction between a low-context communicator and a high- context communicator misunderstanding could occur because of different communication styles (Gudykunst & Shapiro, 1996). Members of high-context and low-context cultures communicate differently in regard to the degree of directness. Low-context communicators are expected to be direct and to say what they think. High-context communicators prefer indirectness typified by extreme politeness and discretion. Some Korean respondents from a representative high context culture marked the following observation.

> *"I haven't experienced cultural differences except for degree of directness. Unlike Australians Korean people don't say directly about how they think or feel. Australian people are very straightforward."* (25 year old Korean male)

> *"My host mother talks to me very directly. Sometimes it hurts my feeling. I know she does not mean to hurt me."* (27 year old Korean female)

A couple of East Asian respondents commented on how to address a person by name. A fundamental function of many East Asian languages is to recognize the social status, degree of intimacy, age, and sex of the communicators. These types of demographics influence the degree of formality and the use of honorifics in the language code (Gass & Neu, 1996). Many Asian languages highlight status differences and asymmetrical power relationships. For instance in Korea or Japan, the speaker carefully chooses language based on the status role of the speakers. Thus Australian informality of calling people by their first names might make Asian respondents experience cultural

differences.

> *"Whenever I talk to old people, I feel strange because there is no polite way to say……" (Korean female)*

> *"On my first day of school, I was very surprised that students called their teachers' first name. the students in my class called my teacher, 'Tim 'which is his first name. In my country we have to call our teachers, 'teacher.' (23 year old Japanese male)*

Several other comments were made about traffic rules, road systems, the strictness of social rules, and alcohol regulations. Gay and lesbian culture was also commented on by some of the respondents from South American and Asian countries.

> *"When I stand to cross the street drivers stop the cars and let me go first. People in China are always in a hurry so they won't let you cross the street first. "* (21 year old Chinese male)

> *"In Australia when yellow light turns on drivers stop the car but in my country they speed up."* (23 year old Thai male)

> *"In my country cars go on the right had side of the road but here in Australia, it is opposite. I am always confused when I cross the street. "* (25 year old Korean male)

> *"The road system made me very confused because in Switzerland, we drive in the right side of the road."* (21 year old Swiss female

> "*People follow rule strictly in Australia. Buses stop only at a bus stop. They are not so flexible as Colombians."*

> *"When I realized the fact that I could not buy beers at a supermarket and could not drink alcohol in public area such as parks I was surprised."* (25 year old Korean male)

> *"I was shocked when I saw two men kissing each other on the street. There are many gay bars in Sydney. That is an interesting culture for me to know."* (18 year old Colombian male)

> *"Australian people are more open-minded compared with Taiwanese people. We don't accept gays because of our morality."* (17 year old

Taiwanese male)

"There is a shocking program called 'queer as folk' on every Monday nights. It's about gay people. We don't have that kind of program in Korea. When I saw it at the first time, I was really surprised." (32 year old Korean female)

Respondents' experiences of cross-cultural differences have been discussed above. In general most of respondents perceived those cultural differences in a positive way or a neutral way. However, differences of values and social rules from their own culture generated somewhat negative attitudes towards Australian culture. The following section will explore in detail the differences in images of Australian people and their culture based on respondents' regional cultural background.

5.3.4. Respondents' Images of Australian People and Culture by Regional Cultural Background: Aim 4

Aim 4 of this study was to identify whether respondents perceive Australian people and culture differently based on their regional cultural background. To compare respondents' images of Australian people and those of people of their own nationality paired-samples t-test was applied and One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test whether the respondents' images of Australian people differed by their home locations. All of the analyses were tested at the .01 level of significance. For the comparison between regional cultural background, respondents were classified into four groups: Europe (Germany, Czech Republic, Switzerland, France, Spain, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Russia, and Slovakia); South America (Brazil, Colombia, Chile, and Mexico); Southeast Asia (Thailand, Indonesia, Vietnam, Bangladesh); and East Asia (Korea, China, Japan, and Taiwan).

Respondents were asked to rate the image of Australian people and people of their own country by using a 7 point semantic differential scale. Table 5.16 shows the result of European respondents' image of Australian people and people of their own country and the result of the t-test is represented in Figure 5.3.

Table 5.16
A Comparison between Image of Australian People and Auto-Image by European Respondents

	t	Sig.	Mean[1]	
			European	Australian
Unfriendly - friendly	-7.47	.000*	4.41	5.68
Unhappy - happy	-6.21	.000*	4.17	5.36
Strict - flexible	-4.16	.000*	4.09	5.06
Formal - casual	-5.78	.000*	3.87	5.23
Easygoing - serious	7.15	.000*	4.82	2.91
Religious - secular	-.93	.353	4.31	4.57
Closed-minded - open-minded	-5.46	.000*	4.27	5.28
Lazy - hard-working	5.91	.000*	5.35	4.01
Dishonest - honest	-.869	.388	4.77	4.91
Impolite - polite	-2.79	.007*	4.46	5.05
Tense - relaxed	-10.6	.000*	3.72	5.78
Outgoing - reserved	6.7	.000*	4.63	3.01
Conservative - progressive	-.681	.498	4.22	4.37
Talkative - quiet	4.27	.000*	3.80	2.78
Indirect - frank	-1.87	.065	4.01	4.43
Individual - group oriented	-.815	.481	3.79	3.98

[1] A 7 point scale
 * significant at .01 level

The findings indicated that European respondents perceived themselves as hard-working, serious and honest while they considered Australians as relaxed, friendly, happy and open-minded. As seen in Table 5.16, the result of paired-samples t-test found that there were significant differences in the 11 pairs of scales out of 16 pairs of semantic scales. European respondents thought that compared to people of European countries Australian people are friendlier, and happier. Approximately 45 percent of the respondents perceived themselves as friendly and less than 30 percent of them answered that people of their own nationality were happy while approximately 80 percent of them thought that Australian people were friendly and happy. They also viewed Australians as more flexible, easygoing, talkative and outgoing than European people.

The chart plots European and Australian ratings across the following attribute pairs (top labels above, bottom labels below):

Positive (top)	Negative (bottom)
friendly*	unfriendly
happy*	unhappy
flexible*	strict
casual*	formal
serious*	easygoing
secular	religious
open-minded*	close-minded
hard working*	lazy
honest	dishonest
polite*	impolite
relaxed*	tensed
reserved*	outgoing
progressive	conservative
quiet*	talkative
frank	indirect
group oriented	individual

Legend: European (dark blue diamonds), Australian (magenta squares)

* significant at .01 level

Figure 5.3 Comparison between Image of Australian People and Auto-Image by European Respondents

On the other hand, as the patterns of graphs show in Figure 5.4, South American respondents had a different perspective. The results for the t-test of South American respondents' image of Australian people and people of the same regional cultural background are presented in Table 5.17. According to the mean scores of both groups although respondents perceived that Australian people were friendly, they saw themselves as friendlier than Australians (t= 3.31, p=.002). The result also indicated that the respondents perceived that they were more talkative (t=-3.57, p=.001) and religious (t= -3.17, p=.003) than Australians but less open-minded (t=-2.95, p=.006) and honest (t=-4.97, p=.000).

Table 5.17
A Comparison between Image of Australian People and Auto-Image by South American Respondents

	t	Sig.	Mean	
			South American	Australian
Unfriendly - friendly	3.31	.002*	6.41	5.69
Unhappy - happy	.836	.409	5.94	5.69
Strict - flexible	2.24	0.31	5.55	4.72
Formal - casual	.62	.53	5.58	5.38
Easygoing - serious	-.63	.537	3.25	3.47
Religious - secular	-3.17	.003*	3.15	4.57
Closed-minded - open-minded	-2.95	.006*	4.72	5.72
Lazy - hard-working	2.26	.011	5.05	4.19
Dishonest - honest	-4.97	.000*	4.30	5.66
Impolite - polite	-2.03	.050	4.72	5.36
Tense - relaxed	-.671	.507	5.16	5.38
Outgoing - reserved	-1.32	.195	3.19	3.66
Conservative - progressive	-.442	.661	4.82	4.94
Talkative - quiet	-3.57	.001*	2.16	3.13
Indirect - frank	1.26	.214	5.38	4.97
Individual - group oriented	1.56	.126	4.88	4.36

[1] A 7 point scale
* significant at .01 level

Figure 5.4 Comparison between Image of Australian People and Auto-Image by South American Respondents

As seen in Figure 5.5, respondents from Southeast Asian countries perceived that Australian people are as happy and relaxed as people of their own nationality. Approximately 70 percent of the respondents agreed that both groups of people are happy and relaxed. The result of Paired-Samples t-test indicated Southeast Asian respondents perceived Australian people to be significantly more progressive and frank but less religious and group oriented than people from Southeast Asian countries (Table 5.18). They also thought that while both groups of people are friendly Southeast Asians are friendlier than Australian people. More than 95 percent of the respondents perceived themselves to be friendly while nearly 70 percent of them agreed that Australian people are somewhat friendly or very friendly.
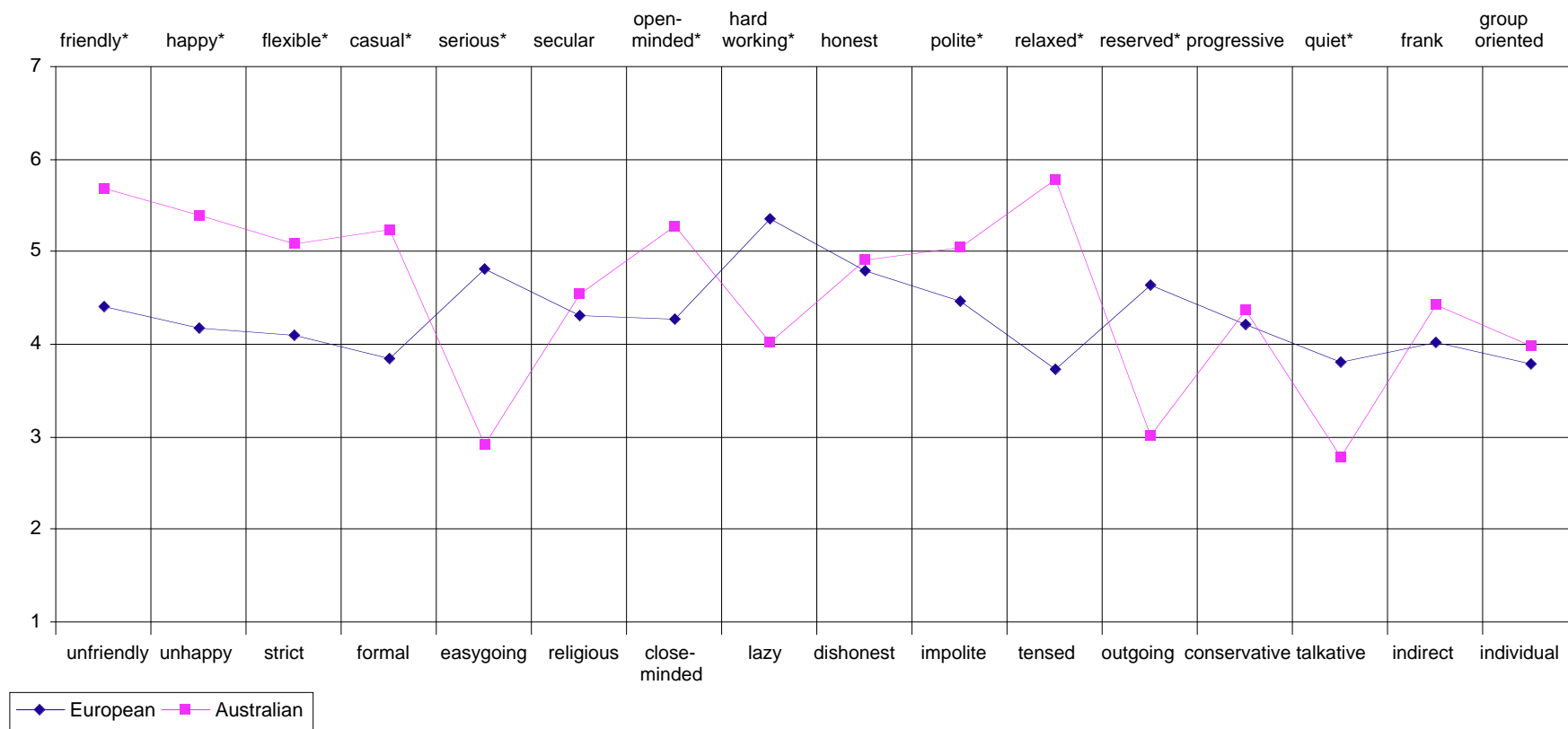
Table 5.18
A Comparison between Image of Australian People and Auto-Image by Southeast Asian Respondents

	t	Sig.	Mean	
			Southeast Asia	Australian
Unfriendly - friendly	4.31	.000*	6.06	5.00
Unhappy - happy	.406	.688	5.37	5.27
Strict - flexible	1.65	.109	5.51	4.79
Formal - casual	-.291	.771	4.82	4.93
Easygoing - serious	.0885	.933	3.70	3.66
Religious - secular	-3.395	.002*	2.93	4.53
Closed-minded - open-minded	-2.207	.035	4.66	5.56
Lazy - hard-working	.571	.573	4.76	4.53
Dishonest - honest	-.736	.467	4.80	5.03
Impolite - polite	1.409	.170	5.23	4.76
Tense - relaxed	-.456	.652	5.00	5.16
Outgoing - reserved	.800	.430	4.03	3.72
Conservative - progressive	-4.32	.000*	3.83	5.20
Talkative - quiet	-1.077	.291	3.50	3.96
Indirect - frank	-4.17	.000*	3.86	5.16
Individual - group oriented	3.88	.001*	5.33	3.80
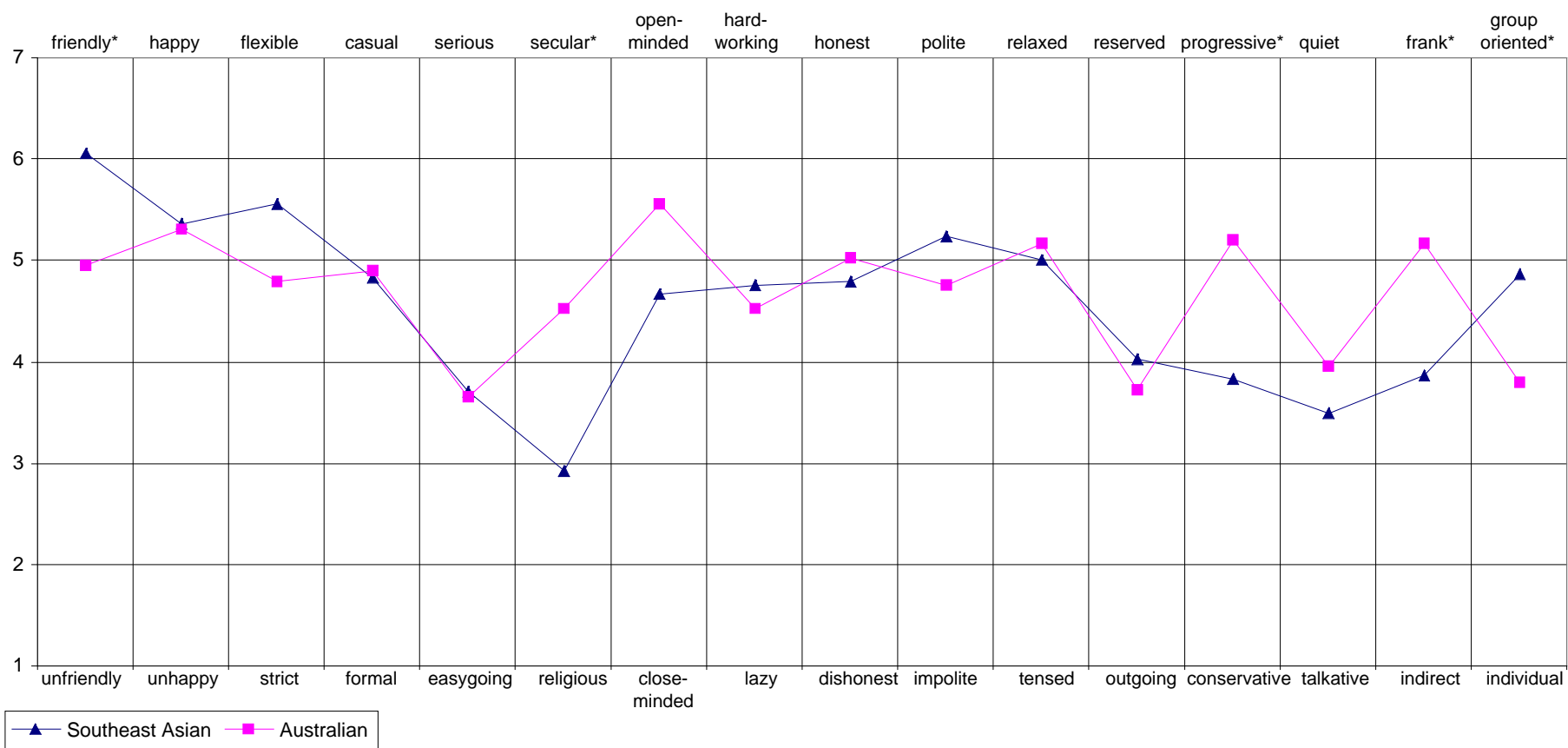
[1] A 7 point scale
* significant at .01 level

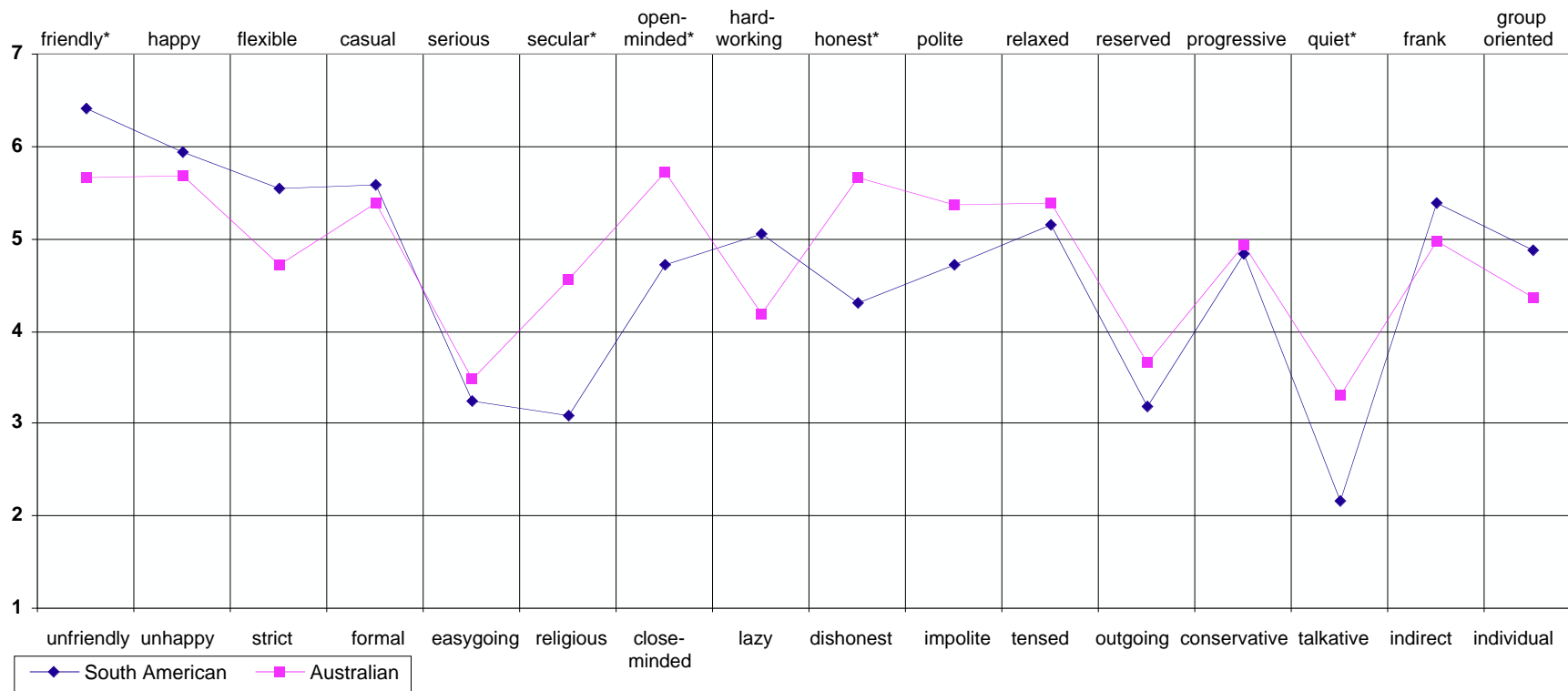**Figure 5.5 Comparison between Image of Australian People and Auto-Image by Southeast Asian Respondents**

* significant at .01 level

The responses of East Asian students were also tested. As can be seen in Figure 5.6 there is a large gap between the two graphs, which means that East Asian respondents perceived that Australian people were significantly different from themselves. Significant differences at the .01 level were found for fourteen scales out of 16 scales (Table 5.19). Approximately 90 percent of the respondents answered that people of East Asian countries are hard-working and 62 percent of them considered themselves as group-oriented. Respondents from East Asian countries also saw themselves to be formal, polite and indirect. However the respondents perceived Australians as significantly more relaxed, open-minded, and casual. The result of paired-samples t-test also indicated that compared to East Asian people, Australian people were seen as friendlier, happier, more flexible, more progressive and more individually oriented.

Table 5.19
A Comparison between Image of Australian People and Auto-Image by East Asian Respondents

	t	Sig.	Mean	
			East Asia	Australian
Unfriendly - friendly	-6.03	.000*	4.58	5.40
Unhappy - happy	-9.72	.000*	4.33	5.42
Strict - flexible	-8.24	.000*	3.67	4.98
Formal - casual	-12.05	.000*	3.68	5.48
Easygoing - serious	10.47	.000*	4.55	2.89
Religious - secular	1.87	.063	4.37	4.05
Closed-minded - open-minded	-12.68	.000*	3.70	5.52
Lazy - hard-working	21.49	.000*	5.96	2.87
Dishonest - honest	-2.039	.043	4.62	4.88
Impolite - polite	3.96	.000*	5.28	4.67
Tense - relaxed	-16.25	.000*	3.35	5.64
Outgoing - reserved	8.55	.000*	4.37	3.02
Conservative - progressive	-4.825	.000*	3.96	4.73
Talkative - quiet	9.81	.000*	4.43	2.79
Indirect - frank	-9.88	.000*	3.43	5.07
Individual - group oriented	9.46	.000*	4.88	3.07

[1] A 7 point scale
significant at .01 level

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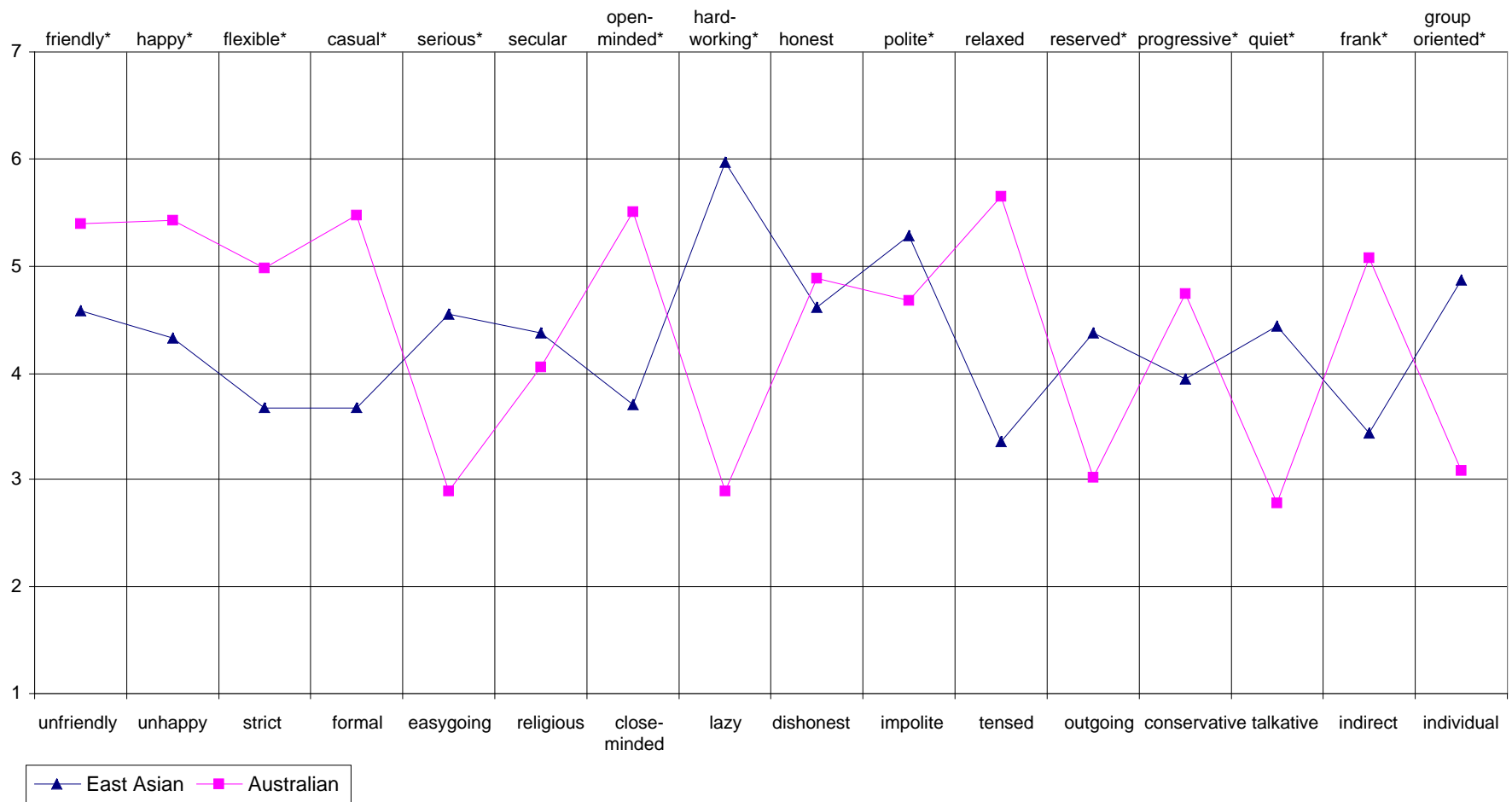
Figure 5.6 Comparison between Image of Australian People and Auto-Image by East Asian Respondents

significant at .01 level

An overall investigation of respondents' images of Australian people was conducted. The results of the one-way ANOVA and post hoc comparisons of the mean score of the each group are summarized in Table 5.20 and Figure 5.7. The data provide the images of Australian people for all the regional cultural backgrounds. It was found that there were large perceptual differences among the different regional cultural groups on the 16 scales. The result of the Sheffe test indicated that South American respondents (mean= 5.66) perceived Australian people to be more honest than did European respondents (mean=4.91) and East Asian respondents (mean=4.88) while Southeast Asian respondents saw Australian people as less friendly and talkative but more progressive than did European respondents.

Table 5.20
Image of Australian People by Regional Culture Background

	F	Sig.	Mean[1]			
			Europe (n=76)	South America (n=37)	Southeast Asia (n=31)	East Asia (n=185)
Unfriendly - friendly	3.68	.012*	5.68[a]	5.66	4.96[b]	5.39
Unhappy - happy	.926	.429	5.39	5.69	5.3	5.43
Strict - flexible	.722	.53	5.08	4.72	4.79	4.98
Formal - casual	2.19	.10	5.23	5.38	4.9	5.48
Easygoing - serious	3.46	.017	2.91	3.47	3.66	2.89
Religious - secular	3.10	.027	4.54	4.57	4.53	4.05
Closed-minded - open-minded	1.25	.29	5.28	5.72	5.56	5.51
Lazy - hard-working	23.25	.000*	4.01[a]	4.19[a]	4.53[a]	2.89[b]
Dishonest - honest	4.98	.002*	4.91[a]	5.66[b]	5.03	4.88[a]
Impolite - polite	3.48	.016	5.05	5.36	4.76	4.67
Tense - relaxed	2.29	.031	5.78	5.38	5.16	5.64
Outgoing - reserved	3.43	.017	3.01	3.66	3.72	3.02
Conservative - progressive	3.35	.016	4.37[a]	4.94	5.20[b]	4.74
Talkative - quiet	5.57	.001*	2.78[a]	3.31	3.96[b]	2.79[a]
Indirect - frank	4.62	.003*	4.43[a]	4.97	5.16[b]	5.07[b]
Individual - group oriented	12.14	.000*	3.98[a]	4.36[a]	3.80	3.08[b]

[1] 7 point semantic differential scale
* significant at .01 level
Note: Means with a different superscripted letter are significantly different at the .01 level
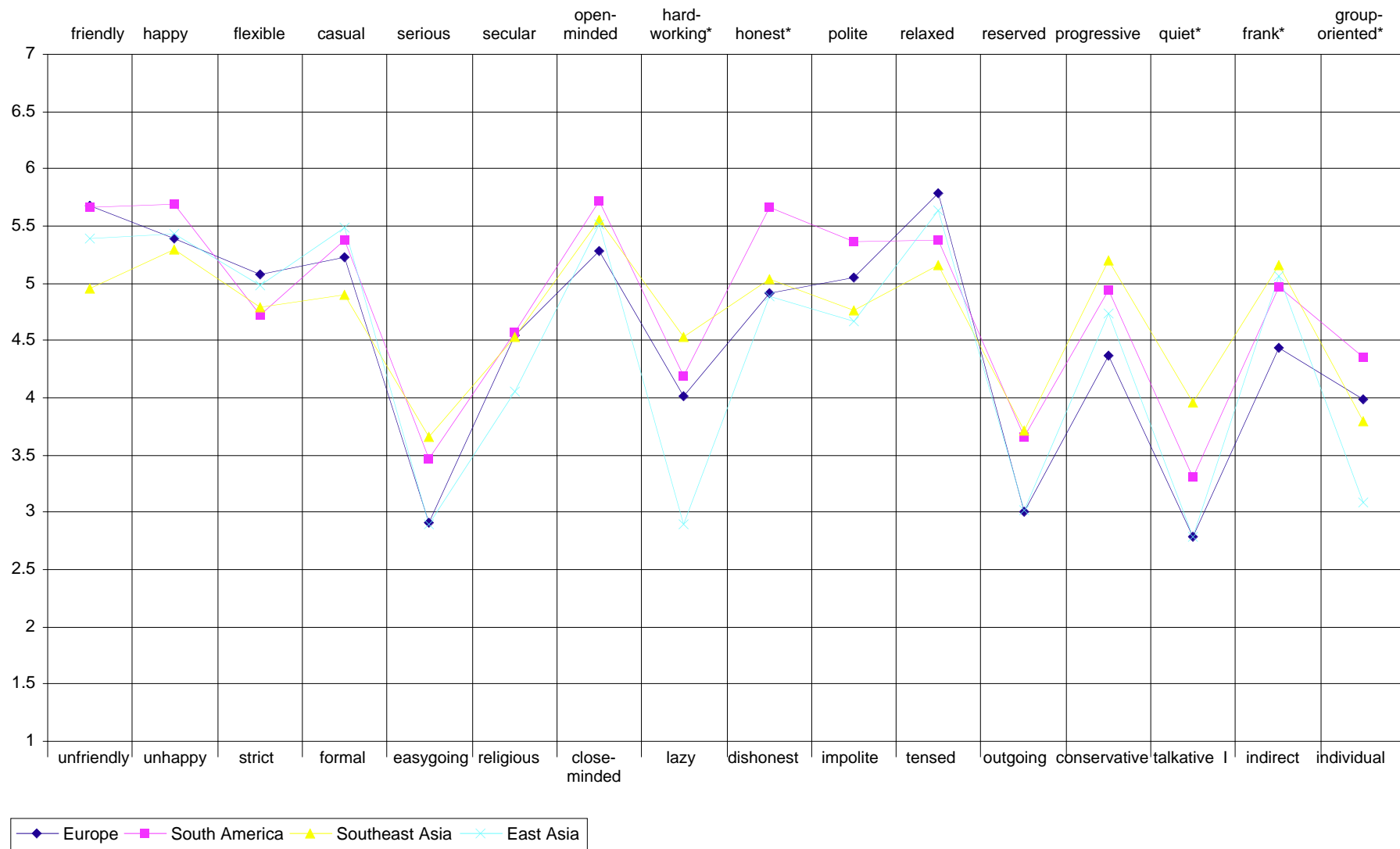
Figure 5.7 Image of Australian People by Regional Cultural Background

* significant at .01 level

The Scheffe test indicated that there was a large perceptual difference on the scale of lazy – hard working between East Asian respondents and the respondents from other regions. Compared to the other three regional groups, the respondents from East Asian countries perceived Australian people somewhat lazy. They also perceived Australians as more frank and individual than did European respondents.

To identify further how respondents perceive Australian culture according to their regional cultural background, two open-ended questions - Australian cultural elements perceived less positively and the attributes respondents would like to report about Australian culture - were analyzed. Table 5.21 presents the five attributes of Australian culture respondents would like to talk about according to regional cultural background. Both East Asian and South Asian respondents frequently mentioned Australian people and multi-cultural society.

Table 5. 21
Top Five Attributes Respondents Would Like to Report about Australian Culture by Cultural Background

Rank	Attribute
East Asian respondents (N=109)	
1	Australian people
2	Australian holidays
2	Relaxed and easygoing lifestyle
4	Australian food
5	Multi-cultural society
Southeast Asian respondents (N=24)	
1	Multi-cultural society
2	Australian people
3	Australian holidays
4	Buildings
4	High quality of life
4	Freedom of expressing feelings
European respondents (N=65)	
1	Aboriginal culture
2	Relaxed and easygoing lifestyle
3	Multi-cultural society
4	Australian people
5	No culture
South American respondents (N=29)	
1	Australian people
2	Multi-cultural society
2	Easygoing lifestyle
4	Aboriginal culture
5	Young country

In addition, some of Southeast Asian respondents appreciated Australian architecture and freedom to express.

"I like the buildings in Australia. They are very beautiful. I want to talk about how beautiful the Opera House is" (23 year old Thai male)

"In Australia I have more freedom to express my thoughts and feelings. People here can do everything they want." (22 year old Thai female)

On the other hand, the most frequently mentioned attribute by European respondents was aboriginal culture. A few European respondents had a great interest in aboriginal culture and some of them regarded it as the most unique and interesting Australian culture.

"I have nothing much to talk about Australian culture… beer , vegemite and cricket. But aboriginal culture is very interesting." (25 year old Czech male)

"*I think Australian culture is a mix between aboriginal culture and settlers' culture. Aboriginal history and art are very interesting. Aboriginal people live with their own time without thinking of tomorrow."* (22 year old French male)

"I think aboriginal art is fantastic. I am captivated by the sound of Didgeridoo!" (23 year old French female)

"I don't know much about Australian culture. It seems aboriginal culture makes Australian culture unique and interesting." (20 year old Swiss female)

"I cannot talk about Australian culture without mentioning aboriginal culture because aboriginal culture is the mother culture of Australian culture….." (21 year old German male)

The attributes of Australian culture South American respondents would like to talk about were similar to those mentioned by the other three groups of respondents. However, South American respondents were likely to talk about cultural similarity between Australian lifestyle and the lifestyle of their own culture unlike Asian respondents or European respondents who tended to emphasize cultural differences. A few Brazilian respondents explained in the following way,

" I think Australians and Brazilians are quite similar. Both are very friendly and happy. They are not so punctual like us." (25 year old Brazilian female)

"I was surprised that Australian culture is very similar as our culture. I hear

very often people say 'no worries." (30 year old Brazilian female)

Some South American respondents also perceived that Australian culture is not so rich as their culture due to a short history. For example a 19 year old Mexican female replied that,

> *"(There is) nothing much to say…… Australia does not have a long history. I mean it is a young country compared with other South American countries."*

The attributes of Australian culture respondents did not like were also analyzed. The summary of the results is presented in Table 5.22. As discussed in the previous section, 5.3.5.3, East Asian respondents were likely to dislike the slow-paced lifestyle, short business hours and transportation system. The results were consistent with those of Buchanan (1997). The finding of this study also supported the Reisinger and Turner's (1997) study of Indonesian tourists in Australia. Their study found that many Asians were aware of the White Australian policy and they developed negative attitudes towards Australian people.

Table 5.22
Attributes Respondents Did not Like While in Australia by Cultural Background

Rank	Attribute
East Asian respondents (N=134)	
1	Slow-pace lifestyle
2	Short business hours
2	Transportation system
4	Food
5	Racism
Southeast Asian respondents (N=25)	
1	High living expenses
2	Food
3	Racism
4	Aboriginal people
European respondents (N=59)	
1	Food
2	Lack of interesting culture
3	Australians' drinking habit
3	Slow-pace lifestyle
3	Aboriginal people
South American respondents (N=22)	
1	Food
2	Rude and impolite people
3	Expensive living cost
4	Fast pace of lifestyle

In addition to racism, high living expenses were also frequently mentioned by Southeast Asian respondents.

> *"…. Let me think…. There are not so many things make me crazy and unhappy. Maybe cost of accommodation.." (22 year old Thai female)*

> *"It's expensive to live in Australia. Besides it's difficult to find a job as an international student." (a Vietnamese male)*

When asked about what elements in Australian culture they perceived unfavourably European respondents frequently mentioned that they disliked Australian food. A lack

of an interesting culture was the second most frequently mentioned. A few of them perceived that Australian culture was not as interesting as European culture.

> " Australia hardly have interesting cultures. It is such a young country so they don't have many historical buildings, famous writers and painters etc. I miss out European history." (26 year old German female)

> "Because they have very short history their culture is not as rich as ours." (29 year old Italian male)

This finding again supported the Brislin's (1993) and Robinson' s (1985) theory emphasizing the tendency to prefer similarity and familiarity and arguing that perceived cultural dissimilarity and lack of familiarity could result in negative perceptions. This study confirmed that people tend to develop negative attitudes towards the values and behaviours which are dissimilar to those of their culture.

5. 4 Conclusions

This study was conducted to identify international students' images of Australian people and its culture. Several conclusions can be drawn from the findings of the study. First of all, the study found that in general, respondents had positive attitudes towards Australian people. Australian people were seen as relaxed, easygoing and open-minded. The majority of the respondents answered that they were pleased by Australians' hospitality and also agreed that Australians are kind and helpful.

The results of this study were consistent with the findings of Study 1 of images of the two Australian cities, Sydney and Melbourne and Study 2 conducted to identify international students' image of Australia as a tourist destination. Respondents were highly aware of the cultural diversity of Australia and appreciated having an opportunity to experience various cultures. The majority of the respondents considered aboriginal culture as the most unique aspect of Australian culture and had an interest in aboriginal

dancing, music and paintings.

In terms of socio-cultural adaptation, it was found that most respondents did not have great difficulties in adapting to Australian culture. The reason might be that respondents were highly motivated by learning different cultures. Most respondents thought that studying in Australia gave an opportunity to enhance cross-cultural understanding by both experiencing various cultures and encountering people from different countries. Thus, they could accept that a certain level of difficulty was inevitable to gain new cultural experiences and were willing to confront the difficulties.

This study also confirmed the importance of contact with host nationals in sojourners' adaptation. Respondents mentioned that living with a host family was the most helpful factor for their adjustment to Australian culture. How well an individual adjusts to the new environment can have direct impacts on his/her satisfaction. Rohrlich and Martin (1991) amongst others conducted a study to examine factors influencing sojourners' adaptation. In addition the relationship between sojourner adjustment and the level of contact with host nationals was identified. The study found that a higher level of interaction leads to a higher degree of satisfaction. Therefore it is suggested that programs that can provide international students with chances to have contact with local people should be encouraged.

The results supported that differences in cultural background generate different perceptions. Depending on cultural background respondents had different perceptions of Australian people and its culture. Respondents from Southeast Asian countries such as Indonesia, Vietnam, and Thailand saw Australian people as hard working while East Asian respondents perceived them as somewhat lazy. Australian lifestyle and non-communication styles such as the way of greeting and the amount of body touching were also perceived differently depending on the respondents' regional cultural background.

The cultural differences identified in the study were consistent with the general differences between collectivistic and individualistic cultures discussed in Chapter 2. Compared to European respondents Asian respondents who came from the collectivistic culture were more aware of cultural differences due to greater differences in values, social rules and behaviours between Australian culture and their own culture. On some occasions, the large gap of cultural differences caused Asian respondents to perceive Australian culture negatively. For instance, some Asian respondents viewed the values of being open, informal, and relaxed which are highly evaluated in Australia as a lack of good manner or laziness and they exhibited a negative attitudes toward Australian lifestyle.

Positive cross-cultural interactions between international tourists and hosts and minimizing negative perceptions of cultural differences held by international tourists are an essential part of establishing a favourable image of a tourist destination. Reisinger and Turner (2003) suggested that better knowledge and understanding of the cultural background of the other party could provide more positive cross-cultural interactions. Therefore, to minimize and improve negative images of Australian culture held by international students more information about Australian culture should be provided for international students.

An effective way to help international students improve cultural awareness and cross-cultural communication skills can be cross-cultural training programs. Cross-cultural training has been advocated as a means of facilitating successful cross-cultural interactions and reducing culture shock (Bhawuk, 2001; Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000; Deshpandey & Viswesnaran, 1992; Gudykunst *et al.*, 1977). Practitioners have developed different methods to train people and the range includes the use of video films, using consultants to brief or orient expatiates and using fully developed

intercultural training programs (Bhawuk, 2001). However a review of the cross-cultural training literature indicates that culture assimilators, originally developed by Fiedler, Mitchell and Triandis (Feidler *et al.*, 1971), are still the most researched and accepted method of cross-cultural training (Bhawuk, 1998; Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000; Harrison, 1992).

The purpose of the culture assimilator is to convey specific culturally relevant information about the values, customs, and beliefs of a particular target group to people of dissimilar culture who will be meeting the target group (Bochner & Coulon, 1997). The cultural assimilator consists of a collection of real-life scenarios describing puzzling cross-cultural interactions. After the trainees read an episode, they are given several alternative accounts of what caused the problem and invited to choose the one they regard as being the most plausible explanation. They are told whether that particular choice was correct or incorrect and explained why it is wrong or right.

Bochner and Coulon (1997) applied the cultural assimilator technique to train Australian hospitality industry workers serving Japanese tourists and found that this technique helped the employees working in hospitality industry understand Japanese people, their customs and values. Lussa (1994) also developed an Indonesian cultural assimilator for Australian tourists and the findings of the research indicated that the cultural assimilator technique was useful for Australian tourists to understand Indonesian customs. Especially when the respondents encountered similar cases as appearing in the Indonesian cultural assimilation booklet they had read, they were able to adjust easily in their cross-cultural contacts with Indonesians. Therefore it is suggested that the cultural assimilator technique can be one of appropriate cross-cultural training methods to help international English language students improve their adaptation to Australia. A considerable potential exists for some of the English language centers in Sydney and Melbourne to work with researchers to pioneer videos

and CDs aimed at cross-cultural training for the international student market.

CHAPTER 6
SYNTHESIS AND FUTURE IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

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-   Theoretical Implications:
      A Conceptual Framework Leading to Multi-Method Approaches Based on Multi-Faceted Image Components for Assessing Destination Images

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6.1 Introduction

The overall goal of this thesis was to examine international students' image of Australia as a tourist destination and their travel behaviour while in Australia. This concluding chapter summarises the major findings of the three studies presented in the previous chapters based on the aims of each study. It also provides a synthesis of the studies at a descriptive and interpretive level but does not repeat the full quantitative back-up for the research findings and comparisons which were detailed in previous chapters. The limitations of the research and recommendations for future research are discussed. Finally the contributions the research has made to the topic area of destination image as well as its practical implications are presented.

6.2 Synthesis of the Studies

6.2.1 Summary and Conclusions of Study 1

Study 1 presented in Chapter 3 was conducted to identify the images of the two Australian cities, Sydney and Melbourne held by international students in English language programs. It employed a sketch map methodology supplemented by a range of question types and styles. Three specific research aims were developed; 1) To identify the mental map of cities in Australia (Sydney and Melbourne) 2) To investigate international students' cognitive and affective images of the two Australian cities; and 3) To identify factors influencing cognitive mapping in this sample. The results were analyzed based on 115 completed questionnaires distributed to international students at Holmes College, an English language teaching institution with campuses in both Melbourne and Sydney. A summary of major findings is presented in Figure 6.1

Sydney

Spatial oriented city
Exciting & interesting
Famous tourist attractions
Nice beaches
Multi-cultural society
Friendly people

Melbourne

Path oriented city
Somewhat boring
Beautiful gardens
Numerous restaurants and cafes
European atmosphere
Cold and unpredictable weather

Pleasant and favourable overall impression
Cleanness
Good nightlife and entertainment
Good shopping opportunity

Figure 6.1 The Image of Sydney and the Image of Melbourne: A Summary and Comparison

The results demonstrated that Sydney was perceived more favorably when compared with Melbourne, although in general both cities were perceived positively in terms of cognitive and affective images. The findings of the cognitive images of the two cities were consistent with previous studies (King & Choi, 1997; Short, 1996). Sydney was represented as having nice beaches and a multi-cultural society. Above all, the major tourist attractions such as the Sydney Opera House, the Rocks, and Darling Harbor made Sydney an attractive and exciting city. As a linked and supplementary finding from study 2 which was conducted to examine international students' travel behaviour while in Australia, respondents also had strong preferences for visiting tourist attractions in Sydney. In Study 1, Melbourne was also positively positioned as a city of beautiful gardens and numerous restaurants and cafes. Respondents appreciated the opportunities of experiencing a wide variety of ethnic cuisine. However, there was a contrast between Melbourne and Sydney in terms of the respondents' image of weather. Melbourne was perceived somewhat unfavourably due to cold and unpredictable weather. It was also found that there was a difference in affective image between the two cities. Respondent's affective image of Melbourne was contradictory whereas respondents in Sydney had a consensus of opinion that Sydney is interesting and exciting. Some respondents who had lived in Melbourne viewed it as interesting and pleasant but the others perceived it as boring, sleepy and gloomy. As discussed in the conclusion section of Chapter 4 it might be possible that the lack of well-known famous tourist attractions and physical plan of Melbourne, which has an extremely well organized street pattern, contributed to the negative affective images of Melbourne.

The results of the sketch maps of the two cities indicated that both cities are legible cities. Most respondents were able to draw a few main streets and dominant landmarks without much difficulty. Comparing the public images of the downtown areas in Sydney and Melbourne, Sydney is perceived as a spatially dominated city while Melbourne is seen as a path-oriented city. Respondents who had lived in Sydney

tended to have a cognitive map of Sydney in their mind based on districts and landmarks. On the other hand, the majority of respondents in Melbourne were more likely to have a path-dominated map in their mind reflecting the well-organized grid street pattern of Melbourne.

With respect to map styles, the influence of length of stay and cultural background was explored. The results found that there were no significant differences in sketch map style depending on the length of stay and gender. In terms of cultural background, there was a difference between Asian respondents and European respondents. The Asian groups tended to draw more path-dominated sketch maps while European respondents were more likely to emphasize the places and landmarks. Further study of mapping style differences between the Asian groups and the European groups could help explain these results. For example, examining sketch maps drawn by the two groups of their own home cities or other visited cities in their own culture may provide evidence to further explain the finding.

This study confirmed that a sketch map technique could be an alternative or supplementary method to measure tourists' spatial orientation in a tourist destination. As Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) argued, a sketch map can be a useful tool to identify how well tourists know the areas that they visit, which places they are familiar with and what they do in those places from the visitors' point of view. There are, of course, some limitations of using a sketch map technique, which are discussed in a later section. There is also a need to be cautious about how to apply and how to interpret the sketch maps. At the very least, however, it can be argued that the tools and techniques of geography/landscape architecture research such as the use of sketch maps can stimulate tourism marketing research and destination evaluation efforts (c.f. Pearce & Fagence, 1996)

6.2.2 Aims and Conclusions of Study 2

Chapter 4 of this thesis presented the findings of the images of Australia as a tourist destination held by international students in English language programs. It also examined their travel behaviour while in Australia. Three specific research aims were: 1) To identify international students' images of Australia as a tourist destination based on multi-faceted image components - cognitive, affective, and multi sensory images; 2) To investigate factors influencing the images of Australia; and 3) To examine international students' travel behaviour including travel motivation, travel activities and travel patterns.

From a theoretical point of view this study attempted to provide a complex multi-faceted assessment of destination images based on cognitive, affective and multi-sensory components. From a practical point of view, it sought to explore international students' travel behaviour to provide guidelines to attract the international youth traveler market. The major findings of the images of Australia as a tourist destination held by international students in English language programs are summarized in Figure 6.2.

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                    ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
                    │   Dominant Images of Australia   │
                    │      as a Tourist Destination    │
                    └─────────────────────────────────┘
                                    │
          ┌─────────────────────────┼─────────────────────────┐
          │                         │                         │
```

Cognitive Image	Affective Image	Multi-Sensory Image
Strengths: - Nature attractions (beaches, outback, rainforest) - Variety of water sports **Weaknesses:** - Cultural attractions - Variety of food - Good nightlife - Shopping opportunities	- Relaxing - Pleasant - Exciting	**Visual:** - Kangaroo - Sydney Opera House - Koala - Ayers Rock (Uluru) **Olfactory:** - Sea - Fresh air - Forest (trees and grasses) **Auditory:** - Bird's singing - Waves - Aboriginal music

Figure 6.2 Summary of Dominant Images of Australia as a Tourist Destination Held by International Students in English Language Programs

As can be seen in Figure 6.2, images of Australia were analyzed based on cognitive, affective and multi-sensory components. In terms of affective images the majority of respondents perceived Australia as relaxing and pleasant, suggesting that Australia is positively positioned in their mind. The results of the cognitive image of Australia were consistent with those of studies examining images of Australia as a tourist destination held by other types of tourists (Bjerring, 1997; Buchanan & Rossetto, 1997; Cho, 1996; Kim, 1997; Kim & Lee, 2000; King & Choi, 1997; Murphy, 1999; Ross, 1991, 1993; Waitt, 1996). There is a strong consensus of opinion that Australia offers more water sports and numerous natural attractions including beaches, outback and rainforest but it offers fewer cultural attractions and shopping opportunities than other competing

tourist destinations.

This study emphasized the importance of multi-sensory components in a destination image. Respondents had numerous sensory images in their minds. The majority of them had clear visual images such as the kangaroo, the Sydney Opera House and the koala as visible icons of Australia. The smells of the sea, fresh air and the forest were likely to be memorable olfactory images of Australia and the sounds of waves, birds and aboriginal music were identified as distinguishing auditory images when respondents think about Australia. More specific localised and detailed use of these multi-sensory components in future regional destination image could more beyond these generic sensory appraisals and possibly unearth novel materials for branding and marketing applications.

As an empirical study multi-sensory images were measured using an open-ended question. Respondents were asked to write any pleasant or unpleasant sensory images in their mind when they thought of Australia. Although useful information about multi-sensory images was found in this study, due to the students' limitation in their vocabulary to describe multi-sensory images accurately, in particular olfactory images, it was difficult to capture the rich multi-sensory images respondents may have had in their mind. As Engen (1982) argued, the difficulty of naming smells known as the 'tip of the nose problem' was identified the problem. The problem is exacerbated for a non English speaking group. Since some odours cannot be named people express their olfactory experience by means of metaphors, such as 'it smells like…..' (Classen *et al*., 1994). Some respondents found it difficult to name a smell although it does not necessarily mean that they were not quite acute at distinguishing different smells nor does it imply that they do not have olfactory images of Australia. It is suggested that more creative methods to capture rich multi-sensory images should be developed. More generally, the approach of endeavouring to assess sensory components in

destination image work can be viewed as being partly justified by the data obtained.

A focus on identifying sensory images could contribute to an effective advertising strategy to attract potential visitors. For example in such contexts as tourism trade shows and travel displays, using some developing technologies potential travelers could experience various aromas in addition to sights and sounds. Even in home computing system olfactory sensory input may be possible. For example, a company called Digiscents supplies authentic aromas by adding a cartridge peripheral device to a computer (Dann & Jacobsen, 2002). Experiencing unique olfactory and auditory sensory images of a tourist destination could evoke potential visitors' interest or prompt positive recall of experiences and increase the likelihood of a visit or revisit to the destination in the future.

As the second aim of this study, the factors influencing the image of Australia as a tourist destination were explored. Field (1999) suggested that using separate marketing strategies based on the cultural backgrounds of the international student market would be insightful. This study also supported the importance of market segmentation according to cultural background. It was found that cultural background is one of the most important factors influencing international students' images of Australia as a tourist destination.

It was established in Study 2 that respondents from East Asian countries tended to have a more positive image of the natural attractions of Australia while South American respondents had a more favourable attitude toward safety than did their counterparts. The results also indicated that overall respondents from Asian countries were less likely to have a favourable impression towards Australia as a tourist destination than were South American and European respondents. Since Asian students are the major market in Australia, particular attention should be paid to this feature of the Asian

student market and there is a need for more detailed research and an investigation of how information sources may be influencing these images (c. f. Gartner, 1993).

The third aim of this second study was to examine international students' travel behaviour. Again the specific student market being considered was the student studying in English language centres. In particular, it sought to assess the differences and similarities in travel behaviours for international students and backpacker travelers. Both groups are important youth tourist markets in Australia and their relationship has not been studied in detail. The comparison of the international student and backpacker markets is presented in Figure 6.3.

International student (English language centre) market

Backpacker market

- Country of origin: Majority are from Asian countries

- Popular destination: nearby city

- Accommodation type: strong tendency to use hotesl/motels

- Travel size: with a group

-Travel activity: city-based activities

similarity

ountry of origin: Majority are from pean countries

ular destination: nation-wide

ccommodation type: strong ency to use backpacker hostels

vel size: alone or with 1 other person

vel activity: nature-based activities

- Age: Majority were aged between 20-30 years

- Motivation:
 novelty seeking
 experiencing Australian natural
 environment and its lifestyle

Figure 6.3 A Comparison of the Travel Behaviour between International Students and Backpackers

It was found that the majority of both segments were aged between 20-30 years. The

travel motivations of international students were also similar to those of backpackers. Both markets were highly motivated by novelty seeking. They were willing to do and experience things that they can not do in their home country. There were substantial differences, however, between the two groups for their travel patterns and their preferences for travel activities. Backpackers tended to be interested in nature based activities such as experiencing safari tours in the outback and visiting nature tourist attractions such as the Great Barrier Reef and Uluru while international students were more likely to seek city based activities including sightseeing and shopping.

As discussed in Chapter 4, the differences in travel preferences between the international student market and the backpacker market might be explained by the different proportion of each group from regionally distinctive cultural backgrounds. More than 70 percent of backpackers came from European countries, while the majority of international students came from Asian countries. Both the present study and the archival studies of the backpackers indicated that, compared to Asian tourists, both European students and backpackers tended to visit more destinations on average in regional areas of Australia and they were more likely to be interested in adventurous and nature based activities. Therefore, the differences in travel behaviour between the two markets might be connected to their regionally distinctive cultural backgrounds although further comparative research with larger student samples is needed to clarify the full force of the specific factors influencing these outcomes.

6.2.3 Aims and Conclusions of Study 3

In general, the majority of the respondents had positive images about the Australian people and their culture. All of three studies conducted in this thesis confirmed the view that respondents had a good impression of friendly Australian people, a multi-cultural society and an easygoing lifestyle. This study has found they used the short-term sojourns in Australia as a chance to test themselves and as an opportunity to

experience different cultures. They were also willing to make friends from different countries, participate in various leisure activities unavailable in their country, and develop close relationship with hosts. Therefore it seemed that respondents' high motivation towards experiencing a different culture generated a positive attitude toward Australian culture. Nevertheless there were some difficulties in adapting themselves in the new environment and these difficulties were linked to cultural differences between their own culture and Australian culture.

In particular, it was confirmed that cultural proximity/distance influenced respondents' attitudes towards Australian culture. As can be seen in Table 6.1, depending on their cultural background respondents perceived Australian culture in different ways. Attitudes towards Australian people and its culture for each regional group of respondents reflected the principle of cultural relativity. For example some South American respondents who come from the society where time is flexible and where people to people contact is "high" (Hall, 2000), perceived Australia as a low contact culture with a fast-pace lifestyle.

Table 6.1
Summary of International Students' Image of Australian People and Culture by Regional Cultural Background

	European respondents	South American respondents	South East Asian respondents	East Asian respondents
Reason for choosing Australia as a study destination	- Travel opportunity - Climate	- A good reputation - Safety[a]	- Safety[a] - Proximity to their home countries	- Cheaper cost of living and study than other English speaking countries
Cultural differences experienced in everyday situations	- They felt the least degree of cultural differences among the groups - Eating customs[a] - General pace of life[b]	- The amount of body contact - Sense of closeness among family members[c]	- The amount of privacy Australian people have[d] - Eating custom[a] - Sense of closeness among family members[c]	- They felt the greatest cultural differences among the groups - Type of recreation and leisure activities - The general pace of life[b] - The amount of privacy Australian people have[d]
The image of Australian people compared to the image of people in their own country	- Friendly[a] - Relaxed[b] - Easygoing[c]	- Open-minded[d] - Honest	- Progressive - Frank - Individual[e]	- Friendly[a] - Easygoing[b] - Casual - Open-minded[d] - Relaxed[c] - Individual[e] - lazy
Positive attitude toward Australian culture	- Aboriginal culture[a] - Friendliness toward strangers[b] - Relaxed and easygoing lifestyle[c]	- Easygoing lifestyle[c] - Aboriginal culture[a]	- High quality of life - Freedom of expressing feelings and thought[d] - Multi-cultural society	- Open minded society - Friendliness toward strangers[b] - Relaxed and easygoing lifestyle[c] - Freedom of expressing feelings and thought[d]
Negative attitude toward Australian culture	- Lack of interesting culture - Food[a]	- Food[a] - Expensive living cost[b] - Fast pace of lifestyle	- High living expenses[b] - Weak interpersonal bond[c] - Racism[d]	- Laziness - Slow-pace of lifestyle - Weak interpersonal bond[c] - Racism[d]

Note: The same superscripted letter highlights the similarly among the groups

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By way of contrast, several East Asian and European respondents perceived it in the opposite way. In particular some East Asian respondents developed negative attitudes towards the Australian lifestyle due to marked cultural differences in social values. The findings were consistent with those of the previous cross-cultural studies which applied Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Crotts & Erdmann, 2000; Reisinger & Turner, 1997, 1999; Soh & Leong, 2002). Responses to open-ended questions about cultural differences revealed that a number of Asian respondents considered their society to be a collectivistic culture in which group harmony, strong inter-personal relationships and hard work is highly valued, while Australia society was seen as a more individualistic culture which emphasizes independence, personal privacy, and quality of life.

Although differences between Eastern and Western culture has diminished due to the result of globalization, the Eastern-Western distinction has been found in many cross-cultural studies in tourism (Choi & Chu, 2000; Kim & Lee, 2000; Lee, 2000; Lee & Ulgado, 1997; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Reisinger & Turner, 1997; Ziff-Levin, 1990). This study also supported the view that the east-west distinction exists in cross-cultural contacts for English language students in the Australian context.

It can be suggested that international students could be exposed to broad cross-cultural training programs which might help them to get to know Australian culture. Numerous cross-cultural commentators have stressed the importance of cross-cultural training. Ward and his colleagues (2001) emphasized that culture-specific knowledge and skills provide the foundation for effective intercultural interactions and the skills can also facilitate psychological adaptation to new socio-cultural environment. According to Ptak, Cooper and Brislin (1995) successful training programs can influence the trainees' attitude and behaviours in a positive direction during their cross-cultural experience since appropriate cross-cultural training programs could help people be more observant, less judgmental and more open to new experiences.

Deshpande and Viswesvaran (1992) also noted the positive effects of cross-cultural training on self-development (psychological well-being, increased self-confidence), interpersonal skills (in interaction with host nationals), cognitive skills (better understanding of host social systems and values), adjustability (the development of expected behaviour in a new culture). If more detailed pre-trip information was available about Australian culture, international students could better prepare themselves to adjust to the new environment in Australia and it might minimize the negative images commonly associated with a lack of understanding host culture.

6.3 Research Limitations

While some important outcomes have been achieved in this thesis, several limitations need to be identified. As previous studies using the mapping methodology have pointed out (Gold, 1980; Haynes, 1981; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992) limitations in the sketch map approach have been found. One problem is that it is difficult to determine how well each sketch map represented the respondents' full cognitive map of the city. Due to lack of drawing skill and possibly effort, some respondents may have had drawn overly simplistic maps. In other words, the sketch map might not be a fully accurate spatially structured representation of the cities since there may be some components which the respondents were unable to represent. Drawing detailed sketch maps is also time-consuming. Therefore the use of this technique might not be applicable for all types of travellers in diverse survey surroundings. Nevertheless the use of examples, clear introductions, reducing performance anxiety and an unhurried time scale can produce indicative data to supplement other research approaches.

Another limitation is related to the development of the questionnaires. Only English versions of the questionnaires was used in this research and respondents were asked to answer in English. Therefore it is possible that they might have had difficulty in

completing the questionnaire since English was the second language for the respondents. Especially when they answered the open-ended questions about subtle issues such as sensory experiences they might have had difficulty in explaining their opinions in English. By way of justification, however, the study dealt with students from multiple countries speaking up to 12 languages which represented logistic severe problems in providing appropriate translations. To minimize this limitation the whole class hour was provided for respondents so that a generous amount of time was given to complete the questionnaire. The researcher and the teachers also guided them by clarifying queries on the tasks. Therefore, this limitation does not invalidate the findings of this research although the fact should not be ignored that using only English versions of the questionnaires presumably shaped the detail available for researcher analysis in this thesis.

The study also focused on differences in the image of Australia according to the respondents' regional cultural background. It should be noted that the regional cultural markets are heterogeneous with respect to national culture. For example East Asian countries are quite different from each other. Although Chinese, Japanese and Korean societies share some similar values and certain social rules, the culture of each country is heterogeneous at a particular scale (Crotts & Erdmann, 2000; Park, 2000) However a closer examination of national differences was not undertaken in this study since the main aim of the study was to provide a broad perspective.

This research has focused on the international students in English language programs. In particular in the main destination cities of Sydney and Melbourne. It is possible that other types of international students such as university students or students studying elsewhere could have different perceptions of Australia and different travel behaviour. Therefore, this research should not be widely construed to be representative of all international students in Australia. Without additional research the results of this

research should not be generalized. Galani-Moutafi (1999) reports that a particular difficulty in tourist studies is the "sin of homogenization", that is glossing over subtle and even major differences amongst groups. There is an awareness that the present research is broadly conceived and can be followed by more fine-grained studies of the country by country markets and types of students.

6.4 Future Research Directions

The first promising area for future research concerns the Asian student market. As with all the regional cultural backgrounds employed in this study, it is important to explore further whether country by country analyses are worthwhile to understand the detailed images of the potential markets, especially for Asian student markets in order to meet their needs and attempt to modify their perception. There are particular questions to explore concerning the styles of cognitive mapping used, the kinds of comparisons such students use in forming their judgments of destinations and their reactions to their travel experience.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, among the markets for international students in English language programs, the Asian student segment is a major and powerful potential market for inbound tourism to Australia. East Asian countries including China, South Korea and Japan are the three major source countries for Australian's international student population (AEI, 2000) and China in particular is acknowledged as the main emerging market to Australia (Pan & Laws, 2001). Thus, particular attention should be paid to these segments of the Asian student market. Issues of commonality and difference among the Asian students markets are well worth exploring.

This study focused only on international students in English language programs. International students in other types of educational sectors, such as higher or vocational, educational might have different images of Australia and undertake

distinctive travel behaviour while in Australia. Thus, it is also important to investigate the image of Australia held by international students in other types of educational sectors as well as those studying in regional Australia for a broader understanding of the educational tourism market.

Another avenue for future research would include potential international student markets. It has been argued that travellers' images can be modified after visiting a particular destination and differences can exist between actual visitors and potential visitors (pre-visitors) (Pearce, 1982a; Phelps, 1986). Numerous studies have found image differences between travelers who visited the destination and those who did not (Ahmed, 1991; Chon, 1991; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Milman & Pizam, 1995). For more effective marketing strategies development destination marketers should understand potential visitors' images as well as actual visitors' image of the destination because complete consistency between the two sets of images is not assessed (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Further research is needed, thus, to explore the image of Australia held by potential international students.

There are also broader opportunities for researching international students' adjustment and their attitude toward visiting an Asian culture. In general, most research about international students has been conducted in English speaking countries including USA, Canada and Australia (Redmond & Bunyi, 1993; Rohrlich & Martin, 1991; Toyokawa & Toyokawa, 2002; Ward *et al*., 1998; Westwood & Barker, 1990). Typically the research has attempted to identify the process of socio-cultural adaptation and culture shock experienced by Asian international students attending a school in Western culture. However, Western students attending a school or university in an Asian country have been paid relatively little attention. It would be interesting to explore how Western students perceive cultural differences experienced in everyday life while they study in an Eastern culture.

From an academic perspective this study sought to develop a conceptual framework leading to multi-method approaches for assessing destination images. Both structured and unstructured methods were applied to identify appropriate methods for measuring destination images. There are also broader opportunities for researching effective methods to measure destination image from the tourists' point of view. As Pearce and Black (1996) noted, a visual simulation approach can be highly useful in tourism research. In this thesis photographs were used as a stimulus to measure the visual images held by respondents. It is suggested that a visual simulation approach can also be useful to measure other destination image components such as cognitive, affective and other multi-sensory images. For example, a visual simulation approach has been developed by some tourism researchers. Brotterill and Crompton (1989) developed photo-elicitation for investigating tourist experiences from the individual tourists' perspective. The researchers invited a tourist to explore her thinking about her Mexican vacation using six snapshots she had personally photographed and the tourist was asked to identify how two of the photographs are similar and yet different from the third. The resulting constructs showed her individual perception of Mexico based on her personal experiences.

Markwell (1997) also emphasized the importance of photographs in the travel experience and conducted an empirical study of a nature-based tour experience by analyzing photographs taken by the participants. Twenty Australian university students who joined a tour to East Malaysia participated in the study and they were asked to provide the researcher with their photographs. Based on a data set of 2,680 photographs, the participants' travel activities and major tourist attractions visited were analyzed. The study found that tourists' photographs could be interpreted as reflecting, at least in part, their travel motivation as well as travel behaviour while in the tourist destination. In a similar vein, it would be interesting to explore tourists' destination

images based on multi-faceted image components by analyzing personal photographs that were taken by the tourists.

Another possible qualitative measurement that was not applied in this study but could be a highly effective method to measure destination image from tourists' point of view can be the use of tourists' travel diaries. Markwell & Bache (1998) argued that one of the most significant methodological issues for tourism research is the potential problem of reactivity in the research setting. Tourists may be reluctant to participate in studies since they may not want to be disturbed while on holiday. The researchers suggested the use of travel diary to overcome the problem and they argued the value of using personal diaries for an effective method to gain a more complete understanding of the dynamics of tourist experience.

Tourists' travel diaries can capture rich tourists' images of a destination from their perspective since the impressions and feelings about places and people they met as well as smells, sounds, sights, and experiences which had some special meaning to the tourists can be recorded. Thus, personal travel diaries could be suggested as one of alternative methods to capture full multi-faceted image components. It has been argued that the particular challenge for the researcher is to construct a research design which maximizes naturalness (Pearce, 1988). Developing creative and effective yet actual methods can be a great challenge, which future research needs to explore in destination image studies.

6.5 Research Implications

In general terms, this thesis has made contributions to several issues at the pragmatic as well as at the academic level. From a practical standpoint, this study provides some information for communication strategies to help attract the educational tourism market. From an academic standpoint, this study has hopefully made a contribution by

developing an enhanced destination image conceptual framework leading to multi method approaches for assessing such images.

6.5.1 Practical Implications

From the results, it was found that international students from different regional cultural background have different images of Australia. Hence it makes sense from the marketing point of view to segment the international student market by geographical regions. Table 6.2 presents the summary of the image of Australia as a tourist destination based on respondents' regional cultural background. It was found that the weaknesses of Australia as a tourist destination were different depending on respondent's geographical cultural background. For example, South American respondents had unfavourable images of climate, food and nightlife while respondents from European countries perceived that Australia offered less than their countries in terms of cultural attractions and transportation system. Thus, positioning strategies to improve the unfavourable images of Australia should be different according to the international student market segments by geographical regions. Additionally different parts of Australia may be able to review this information and promote their regional strengths to fit these market needs.

Table 6.2
Summary of Respondents' Image of Australia as a Tourist Destination by Their Geographical Regions

Regional cultural background	Strengths	Weaknesses
South American respondents	- Personal safety - Convenient transportation - Cleanness	- Climate - Food - Nightlife
Southeast Asian respondents	- Personal safety - Suitable accommodation - Convenient transportation	- Food
East Asian respondents	- Friendly people - Variety of water sports - Natural attractions - Beautiful scenery	- Personal safety - Nightlife - Shopping opportunities - Transportation system
European respondents	- Variety of water sports - Natural attractions - Friendly people - good weather	- Cultural attractions - Transportation system

The image strengths of Australia analysed according to the respondents' geographical cultural background can provide specific guidelines for designing advertising themes. In summary, European and East Asian respondents, who are the two major segments for the educational tourism market, evaluated Australia favourably as a tourist destination in terms of variety of water sports, natural attractions, and friendliness. Therefore promotion targeting potential international students from these two regions should emphasize these attributes. In particular the research found that European respondents were highly motivated by seeking adventurous activities. They perceived Australia as a great tourist destination offering various nature-based activities. The natural attractions such as the Great Barrier Reef, the outback, rainforest, beaches and islands as well as opportunities for water sports including snorkelling, diving, surfing and sailing should be highlighted to target the European student segment.

Sensory images identified in this research can also be used for more effective promotions. Visual images are a particularly effective tool in advertising. In television, internet or print advertisements, the appropriate and unique visual images must be communicated to the potential international students. If other sensory images such as olfactory and auditory could be added in trade shows and displays they could be more

effective in capturing potential educational tourists' attention and give them better impressions of the destination. In this sense, identifying multi-sensory images is useful for determining not only respondents' travel experiences, but also for identifying unique sensory images of Australia for effective advertising campaigns.

The study also suggests that promotion aimed at international students should focus on the opportunity to make friends from different countries and experiencing Australian culture. In particular, respondents from Asian countries appreciated the multi-cultural society. Therefore a melting pot of various cultures should be emphasized to attract potential Asian students. Managers in English language programs should also promote their role in arranging accommodation for their students with Australian families to give them a taste of 'Aussie life.'

As discussed in Chapter 5, the reasons for choosing Australia as a destination to learn English were different based on the respondents' regional cultural background. It was found that travelling opportunities were the most important reason for European respondents while the cheaper cost of living expenses and study compared to other English speaking countries were the main reasons to choose Australia as a study destination for East Asian respondents. It is anticipated that these findings can reinforce or fit into the existing knowledge base of those individuals currently marketing English language programs.

The study also suggests that host family programs should be developed since staying with the host family was the most influential factor that helped respondents adjust to the new environment in Australia. In addition host family programs could provide more chances to develop close human relationships between international students and Australian people and to understand each other's culture.

6.5.2 Academic Implications

This research has made a contribution to several important issues in destination image study. This research has sought to develop an enhanced conceptual framework of destination image based on multi-faceted image components. It also attempted to measure each of image components in the most relevant and efficient way by using both structured and unstructured methods. Figure 6.4 presents the framework of multi-faceted image assessment developed in this study.
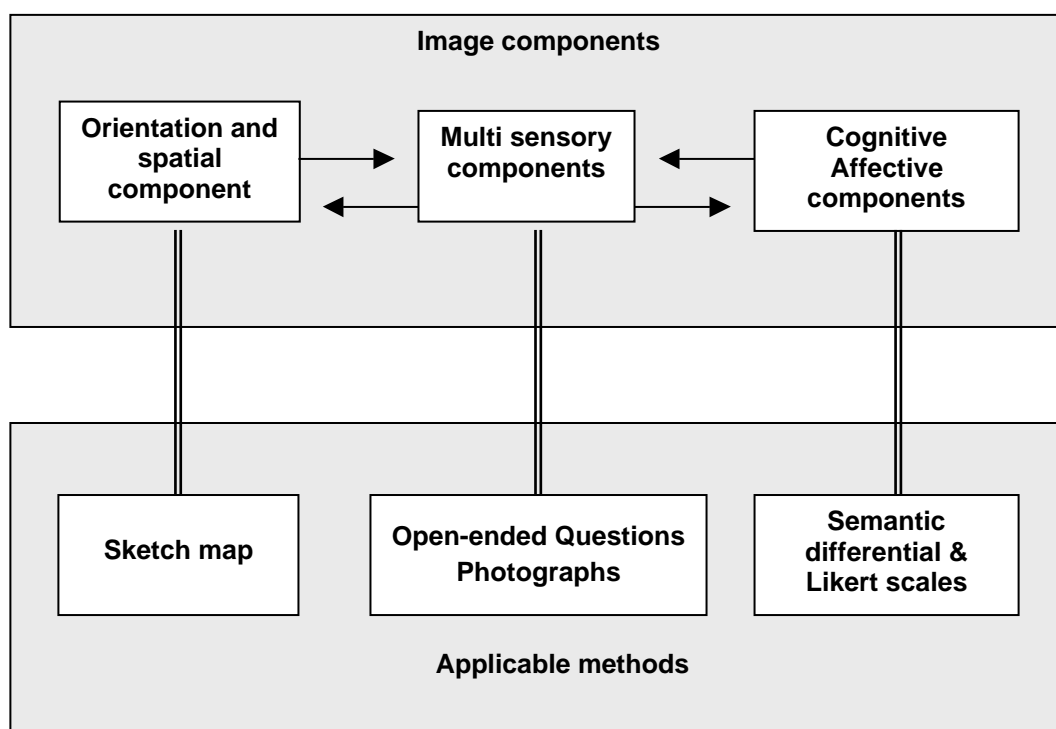
Figure 6.4 Framework of Multi-Faceted Image Assessment

This study reinforced the value of a complex multi-faceted image assessment of destination by measuring cognitive mapping, cognitive, affective, and multi-sensory components. Unlike traditional destination image studies which have typically only focused on cognitive images - individuals' beliefs about the attributes a tourist destination offers - other multi-faceted image components were also explored. This study highlighted the importance of the multi-sensory images in the travel experience. Respondents were able to recall not only visual images but also other sensory images. In particular olfactory and auditory images appeared to be of importance in

respondents' multi-sensory images of Australia.

The effort and attention given to considering the multi-sensory components of image in this thesis have been noted on several occasions. This emphasis is worth re-iterating because few existing studies have taken this topic to be an integral part of the concept and the methodological style of destination image work. For some, the level of detail about the sensory responses obtained in this study may appear to be limited and were undoubtedly affected by the verbal fluency of the group of respondents studied. This depth of material, which is arguably somewhat superficial on this occasion, should not be confused with the value of the principle on the wider applicability of the method to other destination image studies with other groups of respondents. It is suggested that spending time on the sensory qualities of destination may usher in new or at least revitalized research in understanding how individuals and markets view complex environments (c.f. Lunch, 1960).

The results of the study 2 which were discussed in Chapter 4 indicated that positive cognitive images do not always lead to the positive affective images. The South American respondents' cognitive image of Australia was somewhat negative but their affective image was more positive than that of the other regional groups. This finding confirmed the argument that affective components should be measured separately from cognitive components to better understand how visitors assess tourist destinations.

As emphasized in previous research in tourism, the combination of both structured and unstructured methodologies was desirable for measuring the various components of a destination image and added to the strength of the research findings. It was confirmed that different methods have distinctive contributions in assessing destination image. As can be seen in Figure 6. 4, the sketch map technique was applied to assess orientation

and localized information in images. This study ascertained that a sketch map technique could be a powerful tool to measure tourists' spatial orientation in a tourist destination. The sketch maps drawn by respondents provided rich information about distinguishing landmarks and areas in Sydney and Melbourne, places visited often and even respondents' personal interests.

The study has also ascertained that open-ended questions can capture respondents' unique and rich multi-sensory images. The study has also further supported the view that the critical incident technique can be an appropriate method to identify respondents' image of Australian culture, to record personal encounters and to explore how Australia is seen from their own point of view (Arthur, 2001).

It is hoped that this thesis will assist the development of the youth market in Australia by providing information on both the images of Australia as a tourist destination and Australian culture held by international students in English language programs. It is also to be hoped that this research showcases innovative approaches and alternative methods embedded in a conceptual framework in the area of destination image study. The framework developed in the present study could be used to identify images of other tourist destinations held by many other types of tourists.

In conclusion, this kind of study of destination image holds the promise of expanding tourism marketing research. The foundation literature on which this study is based directs attention to the need for researchers to distinguish between spatial, cognitive affective and multi-sensory images of destinations. Taken together these approaches represent a pathway which may provide a more complete picture of destination images. The use and conversion of these destination image analyses into marketing efforts awaits the creative skills of other tourism professionals.

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APPENDIX 1
INTRODUCTION LETTER: STUDY 1

Townsville campus
Townsville QLD 4811 AUSTRALIA
Telephone: (07) 4781 4111 Web: **www.jcu.edu.au**

Aram Son
James Cook University
T ownsville, Queensland 4811
PH : (07) 4781-5125
E-mail: aram.son@jcu.edu.

Dear Head of English Language Centre,

I am a graduate student in the Tourism department at James Cook University and now I am working on my Ph.D. thesis about "Overseas students' travel experiences and images of Australia." The purpose of my research is to identify overseas students' images of cities in Australia and to examine overseas students' attitudes toward Australians and Australian culture.

I would greatly appreciate it if you would let me collect the questionnaire in your Language centre. The questionnaire is designed to determine overseas students' mental maps and their perceptions of Sydney as a sojourner. Some questions about leisure activities in a city are also included. The results of the survey will be used to improve tourism marketing strategies by understanding the strengths and weaknesses of international students' images of Australia and also provide a promotional strategy to attract overseas students by understanding their attitudes toward Australian culture.

If you have any questions about this survey please contact me.
I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.
Thank you for your cooperation in advance.

Best regards,

APPENDIX 2
SURVEY FOR STUDY 1: SYDNEY

Aram Son
James Cook University
Townsville, Queensland 4811
PH : (07) 4781-5125
E-mail: aram.son@jcu.edu.

Dear fellow student,

I am a graduate student in the Tourism department at James Cook University and now I am working on my Ph.D. thesis, "Overseas students' travel experiences and images of Australia." As a part of this project I am exploring the images of Australian cities held by international students.

Please take 15 to 20 minutes to complete this questionnaire. This questionnaire is designed to determine your image of Sydney. Some questions about your leisure activities in the city are also included. All of your answers will be confidential and anonymous.

Please hand the completed questionnaire back to the instructor that handed out the surveys. As an incentive to completing the questionnaire, a James Cook University T-shirt will be offered to two lucky respondents. Thank you for your participation.

Best regards,

1. **Please draw a sketch map of downtown area of Sydney**. Include anything that comes to your mind when you visualise the city including buildings, parks, streets, and signs. You may write notes on the map about events or activities you recall, your feelings about places, smells, sounds that you can remember and anything you think is important. <u>It does not have to be a realistic map. Three examples of a sketch map are included on the next pages as an idea how to draw a sketch map. Please draw a sketch map on the blank page provided next to the example 3. You may use the blank space below for practice.</u>

For practice

Example 1. A sketch map of Cairns, Queensland

many boats

Esplanada

Hotels

Lake st.

Business area
(offices, banks .....)

Spence st.

shopping area

S~ ?? st.

shopping area

Sheridan st.

Example 2. A sketch map of Cairns, Queensland

Example 3. A sketch map of Cairns, Queensland

No Beach (Just mud!)   The pier

Esplanada   Cafe & Restaurants

Cairns hospital   Library   Casino

International   Cinema   Orchid Plaza   Bus terminal
Hostal

Sheridan st.   Post office

cafe seafood   police station
(very delicious)

a big   Train station
Shopping center
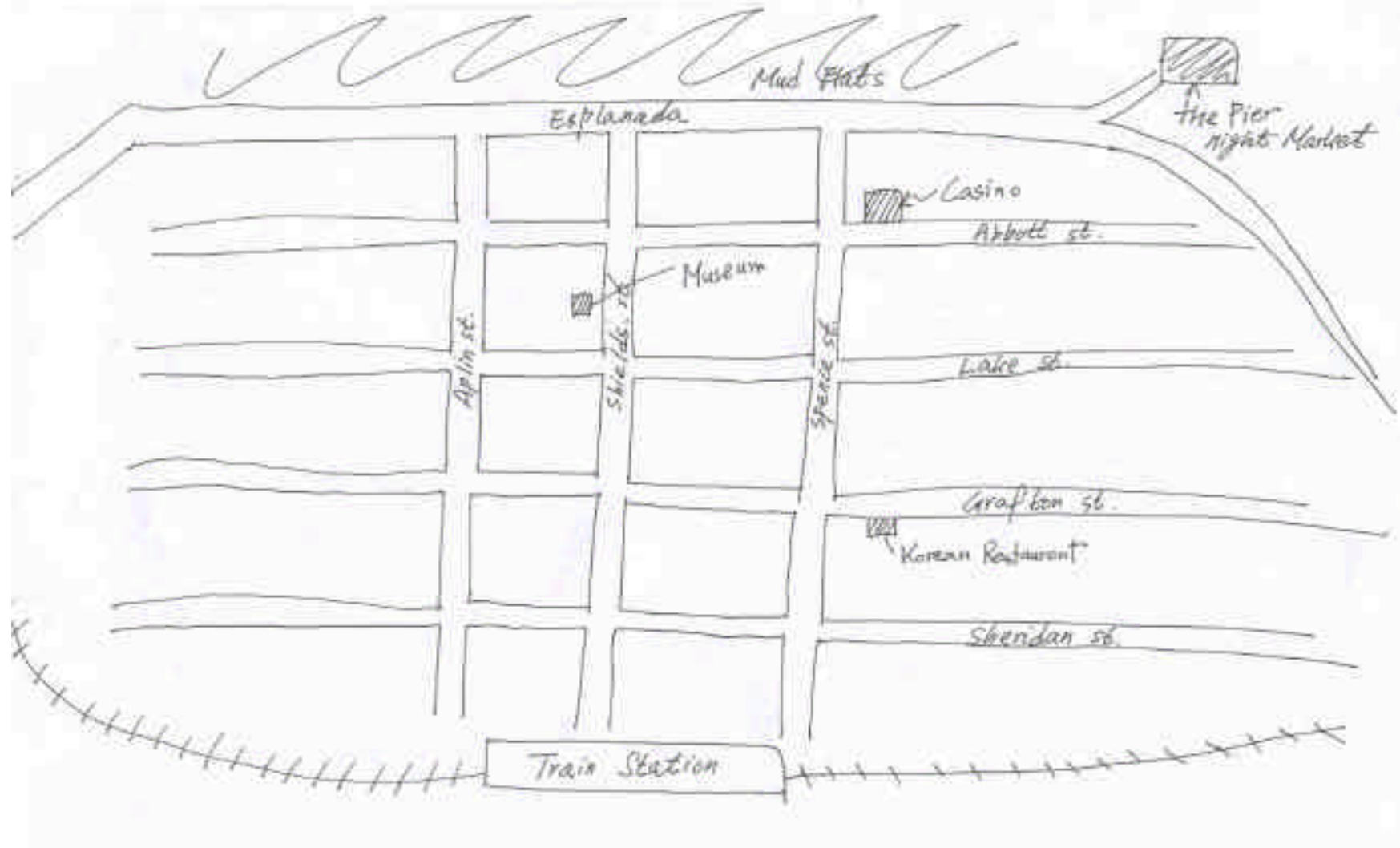
Your sketch map of downtown area of Sydney

Section 2. Image of Sydney and Leisure Activities

Please place a tick (a) in the box which most accurately reflects your image of Sydney.

ugly	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	beautiful
boring	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	interesting
dirty	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	clean
noisy	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	quiet
chaotic	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	ordered
smelly	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	fresh
unfriendly	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	friendly
unpleasant	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	pleasant
sleepy	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	arousing
distressing	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	relaxing
gloomy	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	exciting
unfavourable	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	favourable

2. Identify one place anywhere in Sydney that you enjoy being at, that you would go out of your way to spend time at and that you feel thoroughly positive about. Please explain why you like the place.

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. Identify one place anywhere in Sydney that you would go out of your way to avoid and that you feel thoroughly negative about. Please explain why you do not like the place.

_____

_____

_____

_____

4. Please close your eyes and think about Sydney overall. What do you see?

_____

_____

_____

_____

5. When you think of Sydney, do you have any sensory images in your mind such as pleasant or unpleasant smells, tastes or sounds? Please make your answers as detail as possible.

Smells: _____

Tastes: _____

Sounds: _____

Touches: _____

6. When you think of Sydney, what five things do you want to tell your friends in your country?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

7. Below is a list of leisure activities. Using the scale below, please tick the number that best describes how frequently you participate in these leisure activities.

1---- never
2---- rarely (less than once a month)
3---- sometimes (at least 1-2 times a month)
4---- often (at least 1-2 times a week)

shopping	① ② ③ ④	visiting museums	① ② ③ ④
going to the beach	① ② ③ ④	visiting public libraries	① ② ③ ④
going to the pub	① ② ③ ④	visiting aquariums	① ② ③ ④
going to the night club	① ② ③ ④	visiting zoos	① ② ③ ④
dining out	① ② ③ ④	visiting casinos	① ② ③ ④
playing golf	① ② ③ ④	visiting parks	① ② ③ ④
playing sports	① ② ③ ④	Going to the cinema	① ② ③ ④
visiting botanical gardens	① ② ③ ④	mountain/rock climbing	① ② ③ ④

Section 3. General Information

1. Gender:　　　☐ male　　　　　☐ female
2. Age : _____ years
3. Visa status:　☐ student visa　　☐ working holiday visa
4. Is this your first visit to Australia?　☐ Yes　　　　☐ No
5. What is your country of citizenship? _____
6. Who are you staying with?
☐ alone　☐ host family　☐ relative(s)　☐ friend(s)

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7. When you go somewhere in Sydney , by which of the following forms of transport do you usually use?

☐ own car   ☐ bus   ☐ subway   ☐ bicycle   ☐ walk

8. How long have you lived in Australia? _____ months

9. How many more months are you going to stay in Australia? _____ months

10. Is this your first overseas trip?

☐ Yes

☐ No : Then, how many times have you travelled outside your home country? _____ times

Please put this questionnaire in the prepaid self -envelope and put it in a mail box.
For your chance to be in the prize draw, please fill in the details below.

Name:_____

Address:_____

_____   **Postcode:**_____

Thank you for your time.

APPENDIX 3
SURVEY FOR STUDY 1:MELBOURNE

Aram Son

James Cook University

Townsville, Queensland 4811

PH: (07) 4781-5125

E-mail: aram.son@jcu.edu.au

Dear fellow student,

I am a graduate student in the Tourism department at James Cook University and now I am working on my Ph.D. thesis, "Overseas students' travel experiences and images of Australia." As a part of this project I am exploring the images of Australian cities held by international students.

Please take 15 to 20 minutes to complete this questionnaire. This questionnaire is designed to determine your image of Sydney. Some questions about your leisure activities in the city are also included. All of your answers will be confidential and anonymous.

Please hand the completed questionnaire back to the instructor that handed out the surveys. As an incentive to completing the questionnaire, a James Cook University T-shirt will be offered to two lucky respondents. Thank you for your participation.

Best regards,

1. Please draw a sketch map of downtown area of Melbourne. Include anything that comes to your mind when you visualise the city including buildings, parks, streets, and signs. You may write notes on the map about events or activities you recall, your feelings about places, smells, sounds that you can remember and anything you think is important. <u>It does not have to be a realistic map. Three examples of a sketch map are included on the next pages as an idea how to draw a sketch map. Please draw a sketch map on the blank page provided next to the example 3. You may use the blank space below for practice.</u>

<u>For practice</u>

Example 1. A sketch map of Cairns, Queensland

many boats

Esplanada

Hotels

Lake st.

Business area
(offices, banks .....)

Spence st.

shopping area

S~ ?? st.

shopping area.

Sheridan st.

Example 2. A sketch map of Cairns, Queensland

Example 3. A sketch map of Cairns, Queensland

No Beach (Just mud!)

The pier

Esplanada

Cafe & Restaurants

Cairns hospital

Library

Casino

International Hostal

Cinema

Orchid Plaza

Bus terminal

Sheridan st.

Post office

cafe seafood (very delicious)

police station

a big Shopping center

??

Train station
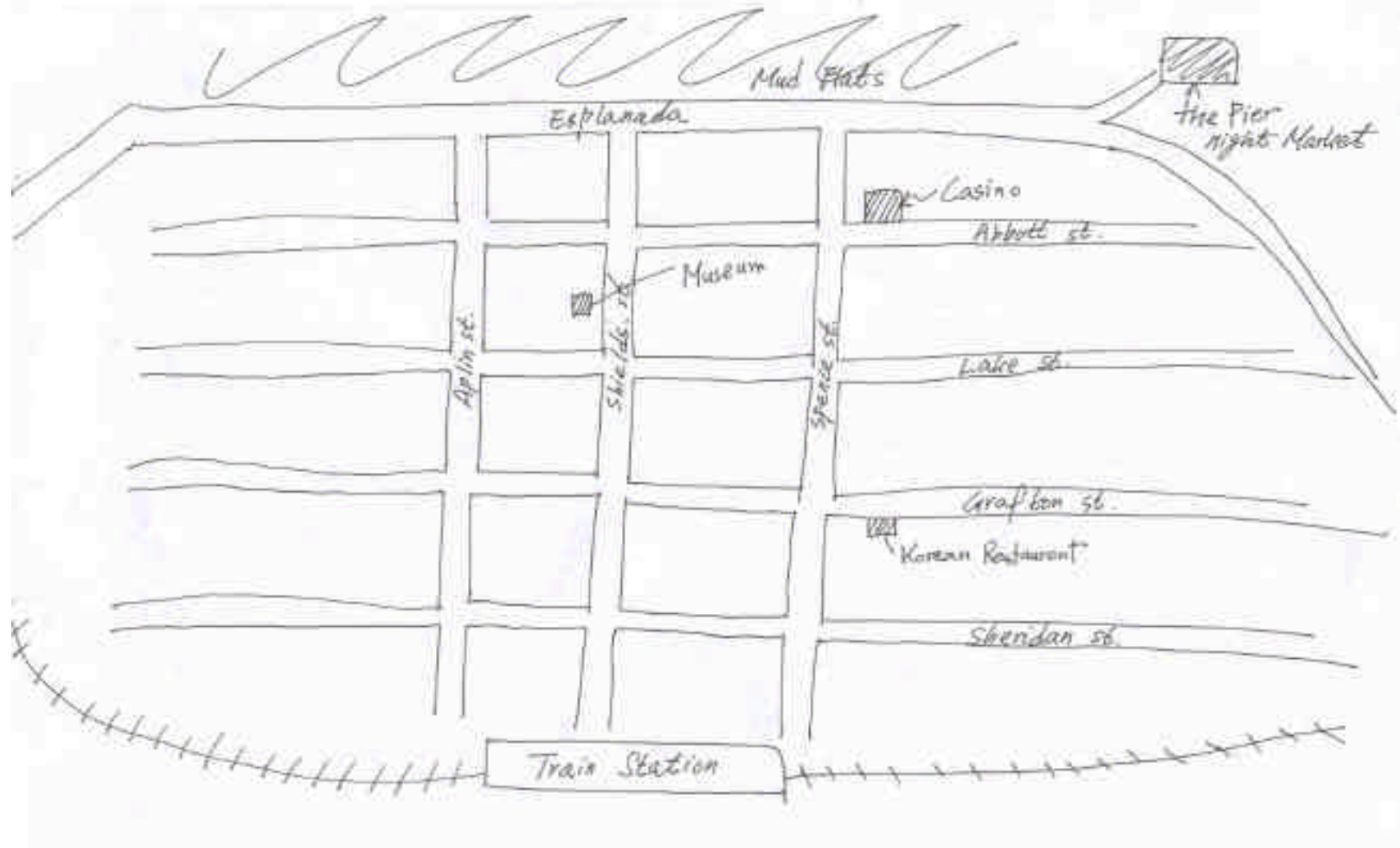
Your sketch map of downtown area of Melbourne

Section 2. Image of Melbourne and Leisure Activities

1.Please place a tick (a) in the box which most accurately reflects your image of Melbourne.

ugly	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	beautiful
boring	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	interesting
dirty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	clean
noisy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	quiet
chaotic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	ordered
smelly	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	fresh
unfriendly	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	friendly
unpleasant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	pleasant
sleepy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	arousing
distressing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	relaxing
gloomy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	exciting
unfavourable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	favourable

2. Identify one place anywhere in Melbourne that you enjoy being at, that you would go out of your way to spend time at and that you feel thoroughly positive about. Please explain why you like the place.

3. Identify one place anywhere in Melbourne that you would go out of your way to avoid and that you feel thoroughly negative about. Please explain why you do not like the place.

4. Please close your eyes and think about Melbourne overall. What do you see?

5. When you think of Melbourne, do you have any sensory images in your mind such as pleasant or unpleasant smells, tastes or sounds? Please make your answers as detail as possible.

Smells: _____

Tastes: _____

Sounds: _____

Touches: _____

6. When you think of Melbourne, what five things do you want to tell your friends in your country?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

7. Below is a list of leisure activities. Using the scale below, please tick the number that best describes how frequently you participate in these leisure activities.
  1---- never
  2---- rarely (less than once a month)
  3---- sometimes (at least 1-2 times a month)
  4---- often (at least 1-2 times a week)

shopping	① ② ③ ④	visiting museums	① ② ③ ④
going to the beach	① ② ③ ④	visiting public libraries	① ② ③ ④
going to the pub	① ② ③ ④	visiting aquariums	① ② ③ ④
going to the night club	① ② ③ ④	visiting zoos	① ② ③ ④
dining out	① ② ③ ④	visiting casinos	① ② ③ ④
playing golf	① ② ③ ④	visiting parks	① ① ② ③ ④
playing sports	① ② ③ ④	Going to the cinema	① ② ③ ④
visiting botanical gardens	① ② ③ ④	mountain/rock climbing	① ② ③ ④

Section 3. General Information

1. Gender: ☐ male   ☐ female

2. Age : _____ years

3. Visa status: ☐ student visa   ☐ working holiday visa

4. Is this your first visit to Australia?   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

5. What is your country of citizenship? _____

6. Who are you staying with?

☐ alone ☐ host family ☐ relative(s) ☐ friend(s)

7. When you go somewhere in Melbourne, by which of the following forms of transport do you usually use?

☐ own car ☐ bus ☐ subway ☐ bicycle ☐ walk

8. How long have you lived in Australia? _____ months

9. How many more months are you going to stay in Australia? _____ months

10. Is this your first overseas trip?

☐ Yes

☐ No : Then, how many times have you travelled outside your home country? _____times

For your chance to be in the prize draw, please fill in the details below.

Name:_____

Address:_____

_____ **Postcode:**_____

Thank you for your time.

APPENDIX 4
INTRODUCTION LETTER: STUDY 2

Aram Son
James Cook University
Townsville, Queensland 4811
PH : (07) 4781-5125
E-mail: aram.son@jcu.edu.au

Dear Head of English Language Centre,

I am a postgraduate student in the tourism program at James Cook University and I am working on my Ph.D. thesis "Overseas students' travel experiences and images of Australia." As a part of this project I am exploring the image of Australia held by international students as well as their travel behaviour while in Australia. The work has considerable potential to be used in the marketing of Australian locations for educational tourism. The result may also help to provide a promotional strategy to attract overseas students.

I am planning to go to Sydney to distribute the survey forms in the last week of June. I would greatly appreciate it if you would allow me to distribute the questionnaires in your language centre. If you allow me to do so, I will explain the purpose of my study to the students and ask them to complete the questionnaire.

This questionnaire will take about 15 to 20 minutes to complete. Any information that can be identified with an individual participant will be only used for this study and will remain confidential.

Could you please e-mail me to inform whether or not you will be able to assist me in this research? I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely yours,

APPENDIX 5
SURVEY FOR STUDY 2: SYDNEY

The aim of this survey is to identify overseas students' images of Australia as a tourist destination and to investigate their travel behaviour and activities. The results of the survey will be used to provide a promotional strategy to attract overseas students. Please take 10 to 15 minutes to complete this questionnaire. All of your answers will be confidential and your participation is voluntary.

Section 1. General Information

1. Gender: ☐ male ☐ female
2. Age: _____ years
3. Is this your first visit to Australia? ☐ Yes ☐ No
4. Who are you staying with?
   ☐ alone ☐ host family ☐ relative(s) ☐ friend(s)
5. What is your county of citizenship? _____
6. How long have you lived in Australia? _____ month(s)
7. How many more months are you going to stay in Australia? _____ month(s)
8. Is this your first overseas trip?
   ☐ Yes
   ☐ No : How many times have you travelled outside your home country?
   ☐ 1- 5 times ☐ 6 -10 times ☐ 10-15 times ☐ more than 16 times

Section 2. Image of Australia as a tourist destination
1. Below is a list of main tourist destination attributes. Please circle the number that best describes your opinion.

```
1------------------------2----------------------3----------------------4----------------------5
less than my country        the same as my country        more than my country
```

Compare to my home country :_____, I think Australia as a tourist destination offers

Beautiful scenery	1	2	3	4	5
Pleasant climate	1	2	3	4	5
Interesting cultural attractions (museum, festivals etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Interesting natural attractions (national parks etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Variety of food	1	2	3	4	5
Suitable accommodation	1	2	3	4	5
Convenient transportation	1	2	3	4	5
Variety of water sports	1	2	3	4	5
Personal safety	1	2	3	4	5
Good nightlife and entertainment (pubs, casino etc)	1	2	3	4	5
Good value for money	1	2	3	4	5
Friendly people	1	2	3	4	5
Good shopping opportunities	1	2	3	4	5

2. How much do you think each photo provided below represents **your image of Australia** in your mind?
   Please circle the number that best describes your opinion.

1----------------2---------------3---------------4--------------5---------------6-------------7
does not represent   very much represents
image of Australia at all   image of Australia

Rain forest   Outback   Open Space

1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7

Interesting wildlife   Sydney Opera House   Good beaches

1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7

Great Barrier Reef   Koala   Sunny (good weather)

1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7

Ayers Rock   Aboriginal culture   Kangaroo

1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7

3. How do you feel about Australia as a tourist destination? Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your feeling.

Unpleasant	1------2------3------4------5------6------7	Pleasant
Sleepy	1------2------3------4------5------6------7	Arousing
Distressing	1------2------3------4------5------6------7	Relaxing
Gloomy	1------2------3------4------5------6------7	Exciting

4. What is your overall impression of Australia as a tourist destination? (please circle)

1----------------2---------------3--------------4-------------5--------------6--------------7
very unfavourable   very favourable

5. When you think of Australia, do you have any sensory images in your mind such as pleasant or unpleasant smells,
 touch or sounds? Please make your answers as detail as possible.

Smells (e.g. smell of sea): _____

_____

Sounds (e.g. birds' singing): _____

_____

Touches (e.g. touch of sand): _____

_____

6. When you think of Australia, what 3 things do you want to talk about to your friends living in your home country?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

7. How would you recommend Australia as a tourist destination to your family or your friends?
☐ I definitely recommend it
☐ I probably recommend it
☐ I am uncertain whether I recommend it or not
☐ I probably do not recommend it
☐ I definitely do not recommend it

Section 3. Travel behaviour

1. Since you have arrived in Australia to study, approximately how many holiday trips of one night or more have you taken? (If you haven't taken any holiday trip in Australia, go to question 6)
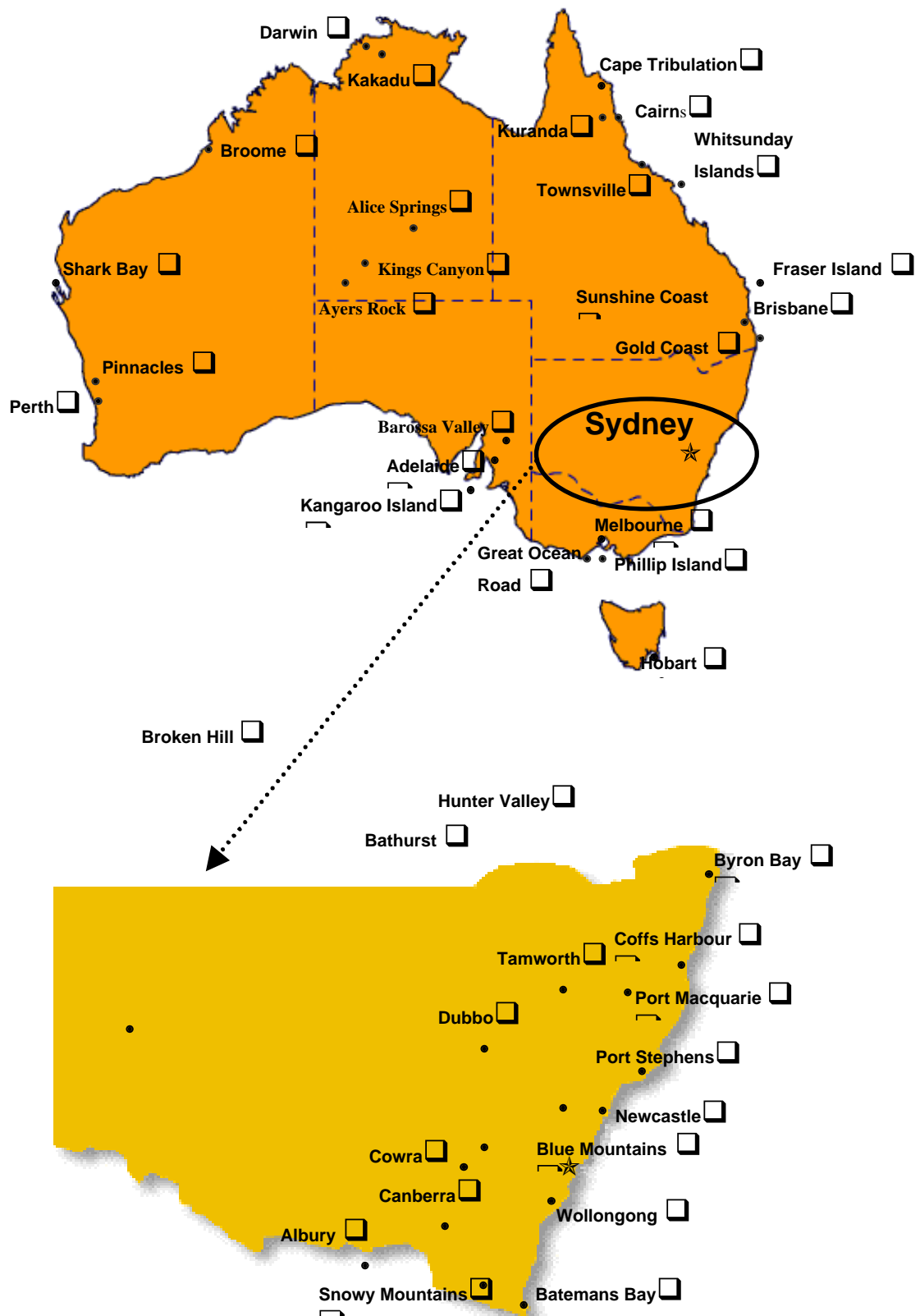
   ☐ 1 – 3 times   ☐ 4 – 6 times   ☐ 7 – 10 times   ☐ 11 times or more

2. How important to you are the following reasons for travelling around Australia while you are here studying. Please circle the number that best describes your opinion.

   1-------------------2-------------------3-------------------4-------------------5

   not at all important   very important

The reason I want to travel in Australia is					
to take it easy and relax	1	2	3	4	5
to understand myself more	1	2	3	4	5
to experience thrills	1	2	3	4	5
to have romantic relationships	1	2	3	4	5
to experience Australian culture	1	2	3	4	5
to observe other people in the area	1	2	3	4	5
to challenge myself	1	2	3	4	5
to feel the special atmosphere of the vacation destination	1	2	3	4	5
to develop my personal interests	1	2	3	4	5
to be away from the crowds of people	1	2	3	4	5
to be with people of the opposite sex	1	2	3	4	5
to do things together with family/friend(s)	1	2	3	4	5
to experience landscape and nature	1	2	3	4	5
to experience a well publicised new travel destination	1	2	3	4	5
to do and experience things that I can't do in home country	1	2	3	4	5
to spend time with family/close friend(s)	1	2	3	4	5
to enjoy isolation	1	2	3	4	5
to think about good times I've had in the past	1	2	3	4	5
to meet people with similar values/interests	1	2	3	4	5
to feel the belonging to the nature	1	2	3	4	5
to have a break from work and my daily routine	1	2	3	4	5
to impress other people by my travelling here	1	2	3	4	5
to be independent	1	2	3	4	5
to have adventurous experiences	1	2	3	4	5
to reflect on past memories	1	2	3	4	5
to develop my skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5
to be with respectful people	1	2	3	4	5
to work on my personal/spiritual values	1	2	3	4	5

3. Below is a map of Australia and the State of New South Wales with their main tourist destinations highlighted. Please mark a tick ( ) next to the tourist destination that you have visited. (**Tick all locations you have been to**.)

Darwin ☐

Kakadu ☐

Cape Tribulation ☐

Cairns ☐

Kuranda ☐

Whitsunday Islands ☐

Broome ☐

Townsville ☐

Alice Springs ☐

Shark Bay ☐

Kings Canyon ☐

Fraser Island ☐

Ayers Rock ☐

Sunshine Coast ☐

Brisbane ☐

Gold Coast ☐

Pinnacles ☐

Perth ☐

Barossa Valley ☐

Sydney ☆

Adelaide ☐

Kangaroo Island ☐

Melbourne ☐

Great Ocean Road ☐

Phillip Island ☐

Hobart ☐

Broken Hill ☐

Hunter Valley ☐

Bathurst ☐

Byron Bay ☐

Coffs Harbour ☐

Tamworth ☐

Port Macquarie ☐

Dubbo ☐

Port Stephens ☐

Newcastle ☐

Cowra ☐

Blue Mountains ☆ ☐

Canberra ☐

Wollongong ☐

Albury ☐

Snowy Mountains ☐

Batemans Bay ☐

Please turn over the page

4. Below is a list of main tourist activities. Please tick ( ) next to the activity that you have experienced in Australia.

☐ surfing	☐ snorkelling	☐ scuba diving
☐ fishing	☐ swimming	☐ skiing
☐ sailing	☐ bungy jumping	☐ biking
☐ attending sporting events	☐ camel or horse riding	☐ mountain/rock climbing
☐ visiting rainforest	☐ visiting historical sites	☐ visiting islands
☐ visiting museums	☐ visiting amusement parks	☐ visiting national parks
☐ visiting zoos	☐ visiting sanctuaries	☐ visiting casinos
☐ visiting aquariums	☐ visiting local pubs	☐ visiting farms
☐ visiting wineries	☐ taking a cruise	☐ visiting botanic gardens
☐ bush walking	☐ camping	☐ taking guided tours
☐ attending festivals	☐ viewing aboriginal art	☐ golfing

Other :

5. On your most recent trip,
 a) the length of the trip:_____ nights
 b) With whom did you travel?
   ☐ alone   ☐ family member(s)
   ☐ friend(s) from my country   ☐ friend(s) from other countries
 c) What type of accommodation did you use? (please tick as many as applicable)
   ☐ Hotel   ☐ Backpacker hostel ☐ Home of friend/relative ☐ Motel
   ☐ Camping ☐Youth hostel   ☐ Rented campervan   ☐ Boat
 d) What type of transportation did you use? (please tick as many as applicable)
   ☐ rental car ☐ bus ☐ train ☐plane ☐ ship or boat
 e) On your most recent trip, approximately, how much in total did you spend? (include transportation, accommodation,
 sight seeing tours, souvenirs, food, and entertainment etc.) A$_____

6. Are you planning to visit some places that you haven't yet visited in Australia before you go back to your country?
☐ No
☐ Yes If yes,
 a) Where would you like to travel?

 _____

 _____

 b) What do you think are very important things for you to experience before you leave Australia (e.g. climb Ayers
 Rock, have a beer in every state)?

 _____

 _____

-Thank you for your time-

APPENDIX 6
SURVEY FOR STUDY 2: MELBOURNE

The aim of this survey is to identify overseas students' images of Australia as a tourist destination and to investigate their travel behaviour and activities. The results of the survey will be used to provide a promotional strategy to attract overseas students. Please take 10 to 15 minutes to complete this questionnaire. All of your answers will be confidential and your participation is voluntary.

Section 1. General Information

1. Gender: ☐ male ☐ female

2. Age: _____ years

3. Is this your first visit to Australia? ☐ Yes ☐ No

4. Who are you staying with?

☐ alone ☐ host family ☐ relative(s) ☐ friend(s)

5. What is your county of citizenship? _____

6. How long have you lived in Australia? _____ month(s)

7. How many more months are you going to stay in Australia? _____ month(s)

8. Is this your first overseas trip?

☐ Yes

☐ No : how many times have you travelled outside your home country?

☐ 1- 5 times ☐ 6 -10 times ☐ 10-15 times ☐ more than 16 times

Section 2. Image of Australia as a tourist destination

1. Below is a list of main tourist destination attributes. Please circle the number that best describes your opinion.

1------------------------2----------------------3----------------------4----------------------5
less than my country   the same as my country   more than my country

Compare to my home country :_____, I think Australia as a tourist destination offers

Beautiful scenery	1	2	3	4	5
Pleasant climate	1	2	3	4	5
Interesting cultural attractions (museum, festivals etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Interesting natural attractions (national parks etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Variety of food	1	2	3	4	5
Suitable accommodation	1	2	3	4	5
Convenient transportation	1	2	3	4	5
Variety of water sports	1	2	3	4	5
Personal safety	1	2	3	4	5
Good nightlife and entertainment (pubs, casino etc)	1	2	3	4	5
Good value for money	1	2	3	4	5
Friendly people	1	2	3	4	5
Good shopping opportunities	1	2	3	4	5

2. How much do you think each photo provided below represents **your image of Australia** in your mind?
   Please circle the number that best describes your opinion.

1----------------2---------------3---------------4--------------5---------------6--------------7
         does not represent   very much represents
         image of Australia at all   image of Australia

Rain forest   Outback   Open Space

1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7

Interesting wildlife   Sydney Opera House   Good beaches

1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7

Great Barrier Reef   Koala   Sunny (good weather)

1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7

Ayers Rock   Aboriginal culture   Kangaroo

1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7   1----2----3----4----5----6----7

3. How do you feel about Australia as a tourist destination? Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your feeling.

Unpleasant	1------2------3------4------5------6------7	Pleasant
Sleepy	1------2------3------4------5------6------7	Arousing
Distressing	1------2------3------4------5------6------7	Relaxing
Gloomy	1------2------3------4------5------6------7	Exciting

4. What is your overall impression of Australia as a tourist destination? (please circle)

1----------------2---------------3--------------4-------------5--------------6--------------7
very unfavourable   very favourable

5. When you think of Australia, do you have any sensory images in your mind such as pleasant or unpleasant smells, touch or sounds? Please make your answers as detail as possible.

Smells (e.g. smell of sea): _____

_____

Sounds (e.g. birds' singing): _____

_____

Touches (e.g. touch of sand): _____

_____

6. When you think of Australia, what 3 things do you want to talk about to your friends living in your home country?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

7. How would you recommend Australia as a tourist destination to your family or your friends?
☐ I definitely recommend it
☐ I probably recommend it
☐ I am uncertain whether I recommend it or not
☐ I probably do not recommend it
☐ I definitely do not recommend it

Section 3. Travel behaviour

1. Since you have arrived in Australia to study, approximately how many holiday trips of one night or more have you taken? (If you haven't taken any holiday trip in Australia, go to question 6)
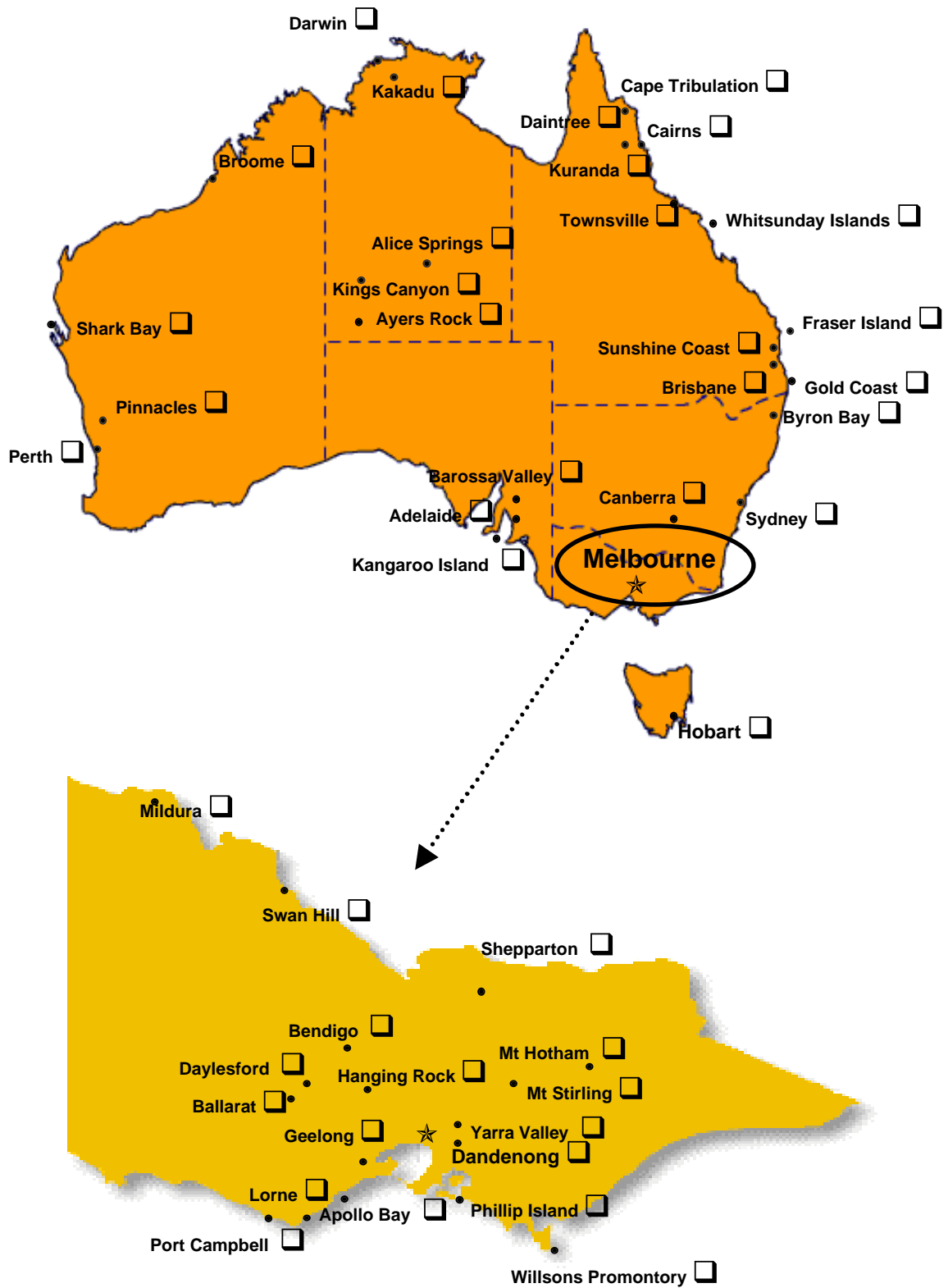
☐ 1 – 3 times ☐ 4 – 6 times ☐ 7 – 10 times ☐ 11 times or more

2. How important to you are the following reasons for travelling around Australia while you are here studying. Please circle the number that best describes your opinion.

1-------------------2-------------------3-------------------4-------------------5
not at all important   very important

The reason I want to travel in Australia is					
to take it easy and relax	1	2	3	4	5
to understand myself more	1	2	3	4	5
to experience thrills	1	2	3	4	5
to have romantic relationships	1	2	3	4	5
to experience Australian culture	1	2	3	4	5
to observe other people in the area	1	2	3	4	5
to challenge myself	1	2	3	4	5
to feel the special atmosphere of the vacation destination	1	2	3	4	5
to develop my personal interests	1	2	3	4	5
to be away from the crowds of people	1	2	3	4	5
to be with people of the opposite sex	1	2	3	4	5
to do things together with family/friend(s)	1	2	3	4	5
to experience landscape and nature	1	2	3	4	5
to experience a well publicised new travel destination	1	2	3	4	5
to do and experience things that I can't do in home country	1	2	3	4	5
to spend time with family/close friend(s)	1	2	3	4	5
to enjoy isolation	1	2	3	4	5
to think about good times I've had in the past	1	2	3	4	5
to meet people with similar values/interests	1	2	3	4	5
to feel the belonging to the nature	1	2	3	4	5
to have a break from work and my daily routine	1	2	3	4	5
to impress other people by my travelling here	1	2	3	4	5
to be independent	1	2	3	4	5
to have adventurous experiences	1	2	3	4	5
to reflect on past memories	1	2	3	4	5
to develop my skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5
to be with respectful people	1	2	3	4	5
to work on my personal/spiritual values	1	2	3	4	5

3. Below is a map of Australia and the State of Victoria with their main tourist destinations highlighted.
   Please mark a tick (   ) next to the tourist destination that you have visited. (**Tick all locations you have been to**.)

Darwin ☐

Kakadu ☐

Cape Tribulation ☐

Daintree ☐

Cairns ☐

Broome ☐

Kuranda ☐

Townsville ☐

Whitsunday Islands ☐

Alice Springs ☐

Kings Canyon ☐

Ayers Rock ☐

Fraser Island ☐

Shark Bay ☐

Sunshine Coast ☐

Brisbane ☐

Gold Coast ☐

Pinnacles ☐

Byron Bay ☐

Perth ☐

Barossa Valley ☐

Canberra ☐

Adelaide ☐

Sydney ☐

Kangaroo Island ☐

Melbourne

Hobart ☐

Mildura ☐

Swan Hill ☐

Shepparton ☐

Bendigo ☐

Mt Hotham ☐

Daylesford ☐

Hanging Rock ☐

Mt Stirling ☐

Ballarat ☐

Geelong ☐

Yarra Valley ☐

Dandenong ☐

Lorne ☐

Apollo Bay ☐

Phillip Island ☐

Port Campbell ☐

Willsons Promontory ☐

Please turn over the page

4. Below is a list of main tourist activities. Please tick next to the activity that you have experienced in Australia.

☐ surfing	☐ snorkelling	☐ scuba diving
☐ fishing	☐ swimming	☐ skiing
☐ sailing	☐ bungy jumping	☐ biking
☐ attending sporting events	☐ camel or horse riding	☐ mountain/rock climbing
☐ visiting rainforest	☐ visiting historical sites	☐ visiting islands
☐ visiting museums	☐ visiting amusement parks	☐ visiting national parks
☐ visiting zoos	☐ visiting sanctuaries	☐ visiting casinos
☐ visiting aquariums	☐ visiting local pubs	☐ visiting farms
☐ visiting wineries	☐ taking a cruise	☐ visiting botanic gardens
☐ bush walking	☐ camping	☐ taking guided tours
☐ attending festivals	☐ viewing aboriginal art	☐ golfing

Other :

5. On your most recent trip,
 a) the length of the trip:_____ nights
 b) With whom did you travel?
    ☐ alone   ☐ family member(s)
    ☐ friend(s) from my country   ☐ friend(s) from other countries
 c) What type of accommodation did you use? (please tick as many as applicable)
    ☐ Hotel   ☐ Backpacker hostel   ☐ Home of friend/relative   ☐ Motel
    ☐ Camping   ☐ Youth hostel   ☐ Rented campervan   ☐ Boat
 d) What type of transportation did you use? (please tick as many as applicable)
    ☐ rental car   ☐ bus   ☐ train   ☐ plane   ☐ ship or boat
 e) On your most recent trip, approximately, how much in total did you spend? (include transportation,
   accommodation, sight seeing tours, souvenirs, food, and entertainment etc.) A$_____

6. Are you planning to visit some places that you haven't yet visited in Australia before you go back to your country?
☐ No
☐ Yes If yes,
    a) Where would you like to travel?

    _____

    _____

    b) What do you think are very important things for you to experience before you leave Australia (e.g.
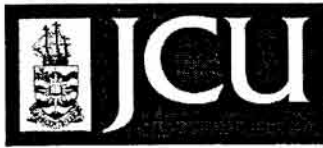   climb Ayers Rock, have a beer in every state)?

    _____

    _____

-Thank you for your time-

APPENDIX 7
INTRODUCTION LETTER: STUDY 3

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Dear Head of the English Language Centre,

I am a postgraduate student in the tourism program at James Cook University and I am working on my Ph. D. thesis "Overseas Students' Travel Experiences and Their Image of Australia." As a part of this project, I will be conducting a survey of the overseas students' images of Australian culture and its people.

The questionnaire itself could provide you with good material in your classes as it asks international students to think about Australian culture and their stereotypical images of Australian people, and under what circumstances they have experienced cultural differences.

I would greatly appreciate it if you would allow me to distribute the questionnaire in your English Language Centre. This questionnaire will take about 20 minutes to complete. Any information that can be identified with an individual participant will be only used for this study and will remain confidential.

I am sending a copy of the proposed survey. Please have a look at it and make a decision whether you will be able to assist me in this research. I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely yours,

APPENDIX 8
SURVEY FOR STUDY 3

1. Please circle a number **in both columns** (a column of people of your own nationality and a column of Australian people) to reflect your image of people of your own country and your image of Australian people.   What is your nationality?_____

People of your own nationality			Australian people		
unfriendly	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	friendly	unfriendly	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	friendly
unhappy	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	happy	unhappy	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	happy
strict	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	flexible	strict	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	flexible
formal	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	casual	formal	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	casual
easygoing	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	serious	easygoing	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	serious
religious	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	secular	religious	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	secular
closed-minded	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	open-minded	closed-minded	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	open-minded
lazy	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	hard-working	lazy	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	hard-working
dishonest	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	honest	dishonest	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	honest
impolite	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	polite	impolite	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	polite
tense	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	relaxed	tense	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	relaxed
outgoing	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	reserved	outgoing	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	reserved
conservative	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	progressive	conservative	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	progressive
talkative	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	quiet	talkative	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	quiet
indirect	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	frank	indirect	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	frank
individual	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	group oriented	individual	1—2—3—4—5—6---7	group oriented

2. Imagine that one of your friends in your home country asks you about your experience in Australia when you go back to your country. Please complete the "conversation" below.

Your friend: *Hey, I am very glad you are back. So, tell me about your experience in Australia. What did you enjoy most?*

You: *Things I really enjoyed while in Australia were_____*

_____

_____

Your friend*: Wow, it sounds like you really had a good time in Australia. Tell me more about Australian culture. Are there any interesting things to talk about?*

You*: _____*

_____

_____

_____

Your friend: *Was there anything that you didn't really like?*

You: _____

_____

_____

Your friend: *How about Australian people? What do you think of Australian people?*

You: *Well… I think Australian people are _____*

_____

_____

3. Please indicate the degree of difficulty you have had regarding living and being in Australia.

1------------------2-----------------3----------------4-----------------5
No difficulty   great difficulty

learning and using English	1	2	3	4	5
meeting people and making friends	1	2	3	4	5
adjusting to Australian customs	1	2	3	4	5
dealing with homesickness	1	2	3	4	5
housing or host family	1	2	3	4	5
adapting to climate	1	2	3	4	5
adapting to local food	1	2	3	4	5
maintaining health	1	2	3	4	5
using local transportation	1	2	3	4	5
using Australian currency	1	2	3	4	5
having sufficient money	1	2	3	4	5
coursework	1	2	3	4	5

4. Please circle the number which most accurately reflects your opinion.

1------------------2-----------------3----------------4-----------------5
None   some   very much

I have experienced cultural difference because (of)

the type of food eaten	1	2	3	4	5
the type of clothes worn	1	2	3	4	5
how punctual most people are	1	2	3	4	5
ideas about what is funny	1	2	3	4	5
the general pace of life	1	2	3	4	5
the amount of privacy Australian people have	1	2	3	4	5
type of recreation and leisure activities	1	2	3	4	5
how parents treat children	1	2	3	4	5
the sense of closeness among family members	1	2	3	4	5
the amount of body contact such as touching or standing close	1	2	3	4	5
the topics which should be discussed in normal conversations	1	2	3	4	5
eating practices such as amount of food, time of eating and way of eating	1	2	3	4	5

5. Describe one episode in which you have felt cultural differences. Please make your answers as detailed as possible.

    Example 1)
    Australians generally smile at or nod to each other when passing on the street. It was very strange to me because we don't have such customs in my country. We don't greet strangers on the street. When we pass a stranger on the street we don't look at each other. However, here in Australia when I walk on the street people say "Hello" or "Good morning" with a smile. It's quite a pleasant surprise for me.

    Example 2)
    During the first few months of my stay in Australia I experienced cultural differences in many ways. Almost everything around me was new; language, food, style of clothes, road system, and TV programs…..   One thing I remember most is "Gay festival." People freely expressed themselves as gays and lesbians. That was very shocking to me since I've never seen that kind of festival in my home country.

    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____

6. What has really helped you adjust to or fit in the experience in Australia?

    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____

7. Why did you choose Australia as a place to study English? Please circle the number that best describes your opinion.

1-----------------2-----------------3-----------------4-----------------5
No at all important   very important

Because it is a safe country	1	2	3	4	5
Because I like the climate	1	2	3	4	5
Because I wanted to travel Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Because it is close to my country	1	2	3	4	5
Because the cost of living was cheaper than other countries such as America and Canada	1	2	3	4	5
Because Australia has a good reputation	1	2	3	4	5
Because I like the education system	1	2	3	4	5
Because the cost of study was cheaper than other countries such as America and Canada	1	2	3	4	5
Because entrance requirements are easy compared to other countries such as America and Canada	1	2	3	4	5
Because my friend or one of my family members recommended it to me.	1	2	3	4	5

8. In general how satisfied are you with studying English in Australia?

1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6---------------7
Very dissatisfied   very satisfied

9. Gender: ☐ male   ☐ female

10. Age: _____ years

11. Your nationality: _____

12. How long have you lived in Australia? Approximately _____month(s)

Thank you very much for your cooperation

APPENDIX 9
PUBLICATION DETAILS PERTAINING THIS THESIS

An outline of this thesis[1] was published in International Journal of Tourism Research (2003; Vol 5). A study of the image of Australian cities[2] presented in Chapter 3 was published in the proceedings of the Second Asian Pacific Forum for Graduate Students Research in Tourism held in Busan, Korea in 2003. The results of international students' image of Australia as a tourist destination, which is a part of Study 2, have been accepted as a refereed paper for and will be published in Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing.

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[1] International students in English Language Programs: their Images of Australia and Travel Behaviour. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 5*, 235-238.

[2] Overseas students' image of Australian cities: Applying a sketch map methodology. In *Proceedings of Second Asia Pacific Forum for Graduate Students Research in Tourism.* (pp. 154-169) Busan, Korea: Dong-A University.