

Brand Salience and Destination Marketing

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Graduate Diploma of Applied Social Psychology

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Submitted 16th July 2010

For the degree of:

Master of Business (Research)

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Abstract

With the globalisation of the market economy and the growth in air travel over the last 30 years governments all over the world have come to regard tourism as a generator of 'export' income with a consequent shift in focus from the delivery of visitor services to destination development and marketing. As an outcome of this trend destination managers have become increasingly interested in creating destination brands as a focus for marketing activity. The branding strategies adopted by destination managers generally reflect an approach where destination choice is determined primarily by a favourable image and differentiation from competitors. This approach is generally consistent with an attitude based model of consumer behaviour.

This thesis examines an alternative approach to thinking about consumer behaviour, known as brand salience, and examines assumptions associated with brand salience for a category of domestic tourism. Brand salience is the propensity of a brand to be noticed or thought of in buying situations. The salience model is consistent with low involvement processing of marketing communications and the weak theory of advertising effects.

The research methodology consisted of qualitative and quantitative data collection procedures. In depth interviews were conducted with 20 Australian travellers on a face to face basis in Sydney and Melbourne. The quantitative stage consisted of a longitudinal design using a web hosted survey questionnaire and a sample of Australian travellers selected from a fulfilment database provided by the South Australian Tourism Commission. A sample of 229 interviews was achieved as a benchmark survey and 128 at a follow up survey.

The results demonstrate the stochastic nature of destination recall in response to situational and motivational cues present at retrieval and also show how a measure of destination brand salience is related to travel intention and travel behaviour for a set of Australian capital cities as travel destinations.

The findings are significant as they extend the results of brand salience research to a category of tourism and travel. The implications of the results are discussed with respect to destination marketing.

Declaration:

I declare that:

- This thesis presents work carried out by myself and does not incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university;
- To the best of my knowledge it does not contain any materials previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; and all substantive contributions by others to the work presented, including jointly authored publications, is clearly acknowledged.

Richard Trembath

/ July / 2010

Acknowledgements:

I am grateful to Associate Professor Jenni Romaniuk and Professor Larry Lockshin for their guidance as supervisors for the project.

Funding was provided by the Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre to assist with travel and transcription costs for the qualitative component of the research.

Funding was provided by the University of South Australia for shopping voucher incentives for the on-line survey component of the research.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Subject Area

The research described in this thesis examines the importance of brand salience in the context of domestic leisure travel.

Brand salience is defined as the ‘brand’s propensity to be noticed or come to mind in buying situations’ (Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a, p. 327).

The literature streams addressed by the research are:

- Brand equity
- Brand management
- Brand salience
- Category structure
- Destination branding
- Destination choice
- Human memory theory
- Travel motivation

The results of the research have implications for destination marketing practice and the measurement of brand equity for travel destinations.

1.2 Research Problem

With the globalisation of the market economy and the growth in air travel over the last 30 years governments all over the world have come to regard tourism a generator of export income with a consequent shift in focus from the delivery of visitor services to destination development and marketing. Key performance indicators are now likely to include measures such as market share, growth in tourist revenue and industry share of Gross Domestic Product (World Tourism Organization, 2003).

To meet these economic objectives destination marketing organizations (DMOs) have become increasingly interested in creating destination brands as a focus for marketing communications (Blain, Levy and Ritchie, 2005). The branding strategies adopted by DMOs reflect the dominant paradigm of brand management, represented by theorists such as David Aaker and his associates (Aaker, 1991; Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000; Blain et. al, 2005; Whitfield, 2005). Destination choice is believed to be determined primarily by favourable destination image (or brand attitude) and differentiation from competitors (Pike, 2002; Blain et. al. 2005). Under these assumptions the objective of communication strategy has been to:

- develop a brand positioning that is both appealing and unique;
- develop advertising that persuasively communicates the brand positioning.

The growth of destination branding has been accompanied by an interest in tracking studies designed to measure and track destination brand equity, or brand health, from a consumer perspective. These studies have in the main focused on measures of destination image (Park and Petrick, 2006).

In recent years brand salience has been increasingly discussed in the marketing literature (Ehrenberg, Barnard and Scriven, 1997; Miller and Berry, 1998; Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a) as a neglected determinant of consumer behaviour. The brand salience model posits that marketing communication works by increasing a brand's propensity to be elicited rather than by changing brand attitude. Increasing the likelihood of consideration will change brand beliefs as an artefact of consideration and usage (Ehrenberg, 1997).

An important assumption underpinning the salience model is that consumer goal structure is fluid and context dependent rather than static across purchase and consumption environments. Under this assumption brand retrieval will vary across situations in response to variation in goal structure (Nedungadi, 1990; Ratneshwar and Shocker, 1991; Holden and Lutz, 1992). Traditional models of consumer choice and categorization (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Rosch and Lloyd, 1978) posit that consideration sets are relatively stable and are elicited in response to the product class. Category structure is derived from functional qualities of the product offering.

The communication strategy implied by the salience model rests on increasing the likelihood of consideration and involves:

- developing advertising that will be noticed;
- developing advertising that is entertaining / likeable;
- developing advertising that is well branded.

Other marketing activities such as sponsorships, promotions and public relations can also effectively build brand salience (Miller and Berry, 1998; Ehrenberg, Barnard, Kennedy and Bloom, 2002).

There is evidence across a range of product categories (Nedungadi, 1990; Holden and Lutz, 1992; Miller and Berry, 1998) that brand choice is strongly associated with brand salience. While destination familiarity has been linked to destination choice (Baloglu, 2001; Prentice, 2004) and salience operationalised as top of mind awareness has been examined as a

component of consumer based brand equity for destinations (Pike, 2007) the relationship between brand salience and destination choice has not been systematically investigated by tourism researchers. It is proposed therefore that the specification and validation of a brand salience model of consumer behaviour for Australian travel destinations will represent a contribution to the knowledge base of the tourism industry.

In broad terms the research problem addressed by the proposed research is:

Is the brand salience model of consumer behaviour applicable to destination marketing?

1.3 Why Is This Problem Important?

In the context of the global economy tourism is a growth industry with figures published by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 2009) demonstrating that between 1950 and 2008 international tourism grew by 6.4% per annum, from 25 million trips in 1950 to 922 million trips in 2008. Over this period expenditure by international travellers increased from US \$2 billion to US \$944 billion.

The tourism and travel industry in Australia in 2007-08 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009a) directly accounted for \$40.6 billion of Australian Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (3.6% of total GDP). In that year the tourism and travel industry employed 497,800 persons (4.7% of the total Australian workforce). The economic impact of tourism is widely distributed across industry sectors.

Table 1.1 Tourism Gross Value Added by Selected Industries, 2007-08

Industry Sector	Tourism gross value added \$M	Share of total value added %
Accommodation	4,985	15%
Air & water transport	4,241	13%
Other retail trade	3,962	12%
Cafes & restaurants	3,373	10%
Travel agency and tour operator services	1,465	4%
All other industries	15,707	47%

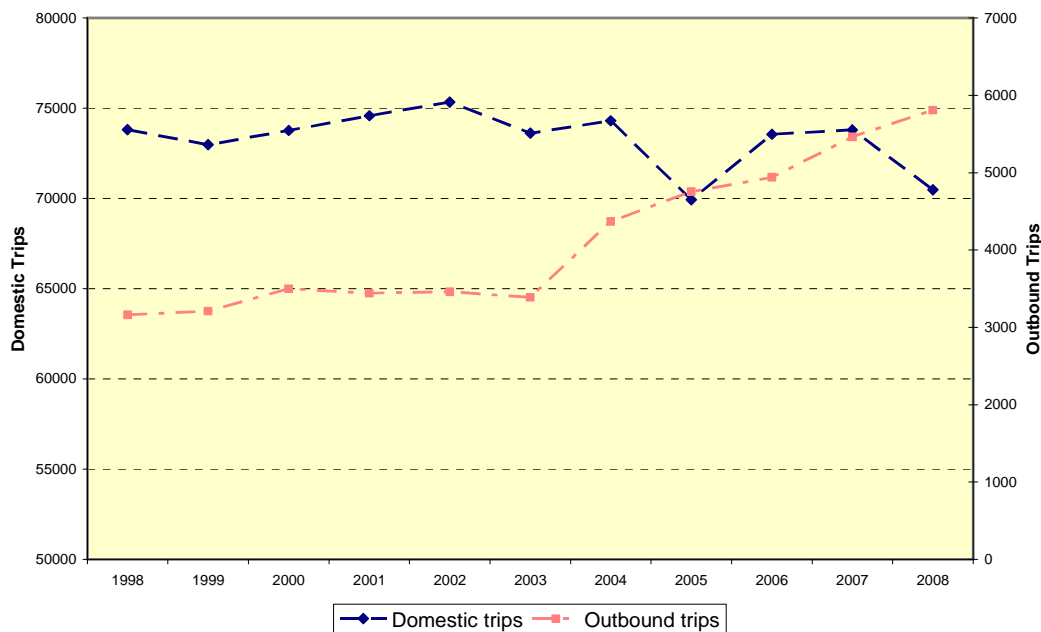
Australian Bureau of Statistics, Tourism Satellite Account, 2007-08. Cat. 5249.0

In Australia, all State and Territory governments fund tourism agencies to market their destinations to potential visitors, both domestically and overseas. In addition, Tourism Australia is responsible for promoting domestic travel generally and for marketing Australia as a holiday destination in overseas markets.

The report by the Australian Government Productivity Commission (2005) into the Australian tourism industry found that budgetary outlays on tourism promotion agencies by the Australian and State/Territory governments in 2002-03 totalled \$373 million.

While government marketing expenditure is substantial, domestic travel demand in Australia has lagged well behind growth in other sectors of the economy in recent years. The number of domestic overnight trips in Australia fell by 4.5% in the calendar year 2008 when compared to the calendar year ended 1998 and the overall trend during this period has been contraction of 0.5% per annum. In comparison overseas travel by Australians grew by 84% from calendar 1998 to calendar 2008, or 6.3% per annum. (Bureau of Tourism Research, 2000; Tourism Research Australia, 2009; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009b).

Domestic travel demand has been impacted by a range of factors such as increased personal debt; changing patterns of household consumption and the affordability of international travel due to the strength of the Australian dollar (Tourism Research Australia, 2005).



Tourism Research Australia. National Visitor Survey.

Australian Bureau of Statistics. Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia. Cat. 3401.0.

Figure 1.1 Domestic Travel by Australian Residents and Short Term Overseas Travel by Australian Residents – 1998 to 2008

In an environment of flat domestic travel demand and growing outbound travel it is important that destination management practices reflect an appropriate model of destination choice. If

destination managers commit significant resources to the development of strong, differentiated brand images for domestic travel destinations they may be allocating these resources inappropriately.

It is anticipated that the results of the research will assist destination managers to develop appropriate management strategies and develop customer based measures of destination brand equity.

1.4 Thesis Structure

The thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter 1 - Overview Chapter 1 of the thesis provides a broad introduction to the thesis including the specification of the research question and the justification for the research.
Chapter 2 - Literature Review Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature that is relevant to the thesis. Literature streams include brand salience, brand management, brand attitude, destination branding and destination choice. The literature review concludes with a formal statement of the research hypotheses.
Chapter 3 - Methodology Chapter 3 provides a detailed description of the research methodology.
Chapter 4 - Qualitative Research Findings Chapter 4 describes the findings of the qualitative research with respect to destination consideration and choice.
Chapter 5 - Quantitative Research Findings Section 5 describes the quantitative survey results. This includes descriptive statistics and tests of statistical inference to formally examine the research hypotheses.
Chapter 6 - Discussion, Implications for Destination Management and Future Research The thesis concludes with a discussion of the results, including limitations, managerial implications and opportunities for future research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a detailed review and discussion of the literature that represents the context for the research. A number of hypotheses are specified to formally examine the research problem.

2.1 Brand Management and Consumer Behaviour

Keller (2003) has described the major developments in the history of commercial branding. While manufacturers' marks can be traced back to ancient Greece and Rome the need for brands became more pressing with the industrial revolution of the mid 19th century. At this time mass production and the expansion of distribution networks meant that consumers became increasingly isolated from the producers of the goods they consumed.

Branding arose almost incidentally to identify the producer and in this context brands provided a guarantee of quality ingredients, reliable weights and consistent pricing.

From 1915 to 1929 mass marketed brands were well established giving rise to increasing sophistication of the product development and marketing process. Advertising became more creative and persuasive; marketing research began to be used to understand the consumer; sales techniques became more sophisticated with all of these factors contributing to brand management. During this period the brand management responsibility still tended to be devolved amongst a number of specialist managers which could hinder coordination and the development of an integrated strategy (Keller, 2003).

From 1930 to 1945 the great depression resulted in a weakening of large manufacturer brands and the Federal Trade Commission was established in the United States with the power to regulate advertising practices. As a result advertisers came under increasing pressure to go beyond devices such as slogans and jingles and give consumers a reason to purchase their brands (Keller, 2003).

Riezebos, Kist and Kootstra (2003) suggest that during this period advertisers focused on the communication of product advantages with an emphasis on unique selling propositions (USPs) that continued well into the 1960s.

Economic and population growth in the period from 1946 – 1985 lead to increasing demand for national (and international) branded products and services in the US and other industrialised nations. The brand management system became established during this period with one manager generally responsible for the performance of his or her brand with inputs

from a range of specialists including production, sales, market research, finance, personnel, legal and public relations (Keller, 2003).

This period also saw the publication of the first comprehensive models of consumer behaviour which borrowed heavily from disciplines such as economics, social and cognitive psychology (Lynch and Srull, 1982; Hoyer, 1984; Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005).

One of the first and most influential models was described by Howard and Sheth (1969).

These authors describe consumer choice as a rational process in which a set of choice alternatives is evoked in response to consumer needs; information regarding the choice alternatives is actively sought; and a final selection is made from the evoked set on the basis of an appropriate decision rule. The authors distinguish between new and routine purchase behaviour and suggest that as consumers become more familiar with a category information search declines and consumers purchase from a small set of alternatives with situational factors influencing the link between attitude and intention. Consumers are motivated to reduce cognitive load while seeking the brand that best meets their needs i.e. that maximizes choice utility.

Much of the early work on decision processes involved the description of decision rules, often using statistical techniques such as Bayes theorem or multiple regression as a starting point (Lynch and Srull, 1982). A commonly cited model of the consumer decision processes is the compensatory multi attribute attitude model of brand preference associated with Lawrence Fishbein (1963). The primary assumption underpinning this model is that favourable brand attitude is a necessary determinant of choice. The Awareness, Interest, Desire, Action (AIDA) model of advertising effects (Strong, 1938) also reflects this approach. While the AIDA model has a long history, a study by Hall and Maclay (1991) (cited by Gordon, 2006 p. 211) illustrates the broad acceptance of this approach with many marketing directors in the United Kingdom subscribing to sequential processing models of advertising effects with the underlying assumptions of persuasion and conversion.

Louro and Cunha (2001) have tracked the history of brand management and described four distinct approaches based on dimensions of:

- brand centrality: reflecting the brands strategic role in the broader marketing function;
- customer centrality: reflecting the extent to which customers are regarded as passive recipients of the organizations value chain.

The four approaches based on these dimensions are summarised below in Figure 2.1.

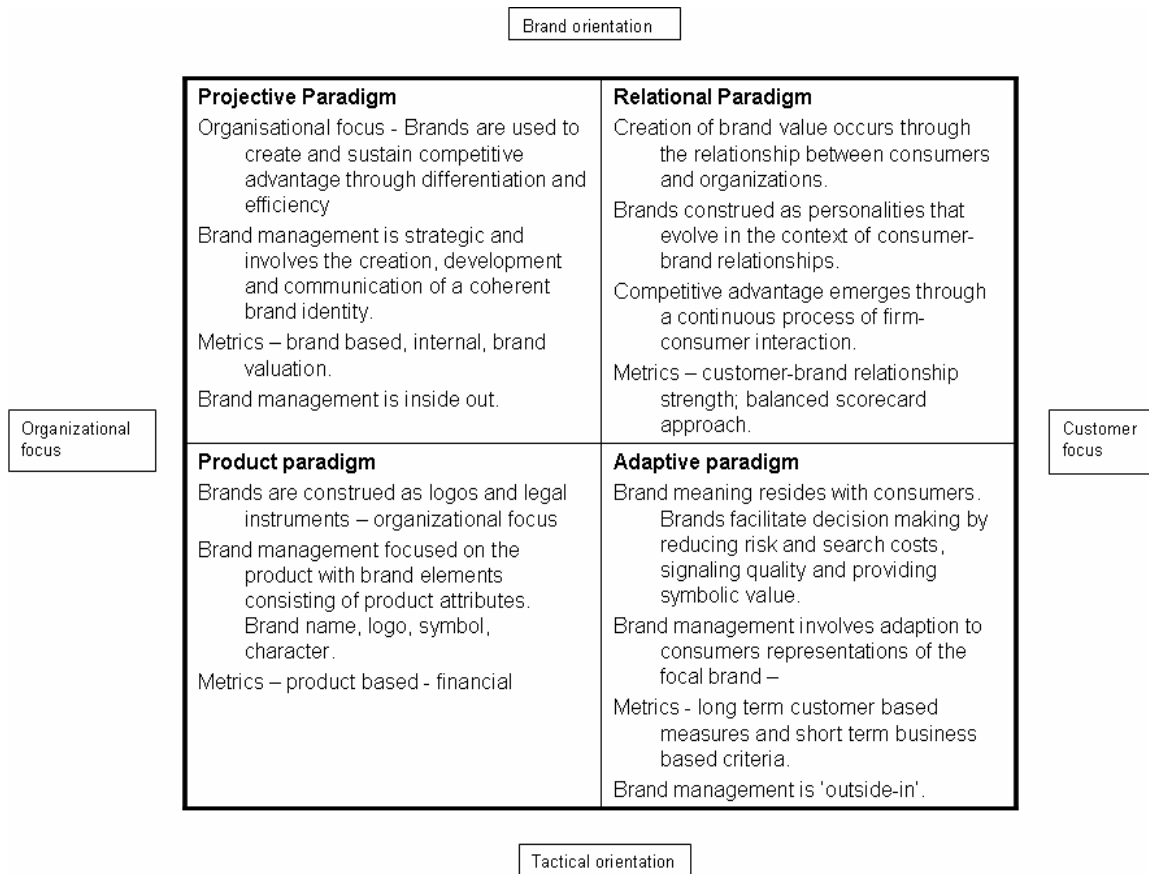


Figure 2.1 Brand Management Paradigms

The dominant brand management approach in recent years has been the relational paradigm which is represented by the writings of David Aaker and his associates (Aaker, 1991; Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000) while the adaptive paradigm is consistent with the writings of Kevin Keller (1993 and 2003).

At the centre of the modern brand management process is the building and maintenance of brand equity (Aaker, 1991; Arnold, 1992; Keller, 1993 and 2003). Brand equity was increasingly adopted as a marketing objective in the 1980s when the value of brands began to appear on corporate balance sheets as an intangible asset (Arnold, 1992). The focus of brand equity research has therefore in many instances involved the estimation of the economic value of the brand and a variety of techniques have been developed to achieve this. Over time the concept of brand equity has expanded to include a range of activities and attributes related to the marketing function and the brand – customer relationship.

David Aaker (1991) has defined brand equity as ‘a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm’s customers’ (p15).

The Aaker model of brand equity is based on four primary dimensions:

- brand loyalty;
- brand name awareness;
- perceived quality;
- brand associations.

Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) have also described the brand leadership model of brand management which implies the development and maintenance of brand equity through product differentiation, market segmentation and the management of customer relationships.

Keller (2003) has developed a demand orientated model of brand equity known as customer based brand equity (CBBE) which incorporates theory relating to human learning. For Keller the basis of the CBBE model is ‘the power of a brand lies in what customers have learned, felt, seen, and heard about the brand as a result of their experiences over time. ... the power of a brand is what resides in the minds of consumers’ (p59).

Brand equity is defined as ‘the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand’ (p60). That is, brand equity represents the difference in the likelihood of consumer response to a branded product when compared to an unbranded or fictitious brand with the same attributes. Customer based brand equity is said to occur when: ‘the consumer has a high level of awareness and familiarity with the brand and holds some strong, favourable, and unique brand associations in memory’ (p67).

Keller (2003) argues that brand awareness may be sufficient to stimulate purchase in low involvement decision settings however in most cases positive brand image, based on strong, favourable and unique brand associations, will determine choice.

‘For branding strategies to be successful and brand equity to be created consumers must be convinced that there are meaningful differences among brands in the product or service category’ (p67).

Keller’s brand equity model suggests that small brands may be strong brands if consumers believe there are meaningful differences between brands and are prepared to pay a price premium to access these brands e.g. fashion label clothing, high quality wine.

Ehrenberg (1993) argues that there is no such thing as strong or weak brands and the effects attributed to brand equity are primarily a reflection of brand size and market share. Ehrenberg (1997) has also pointed to the lack of a concise definition of brand equity and the fact that differentiation between competing brands is rarely sustainable.

Randall (1997) notes that the focus on differentiation by brand managers has resulted in increasing fragmentation between functionally similar products and greater confusion for consumers.

A number of marketing theorists (Ehrenberg, 1997; Randall, 1997; Miller and Berry, 1998) are critical of other aspects of the relational brand management paradigm including the assumptions that:

- positive brand attitude is a necessary precursor to choice;
- buyers are brand loyal.

The work of Ehrenberg (1988) demonstrates that consumers generally do not exhibit exclusive brand loyalty and purchase from a repertoire of brands within a category. Penetration rates for all brands within a category are generally consistent when compared for purchasers of each brand separately (known as the duplication of purchase law).

Ehrenberg (1974) also argues for an effects model in which trial is a function of awareness and attitude change is an artefact of consideration and behaviour (Awareness Trial Reinforcement – ATR).

Randall (1997) suggests that one of the reasons the brand attitude model has been popular in the past is because the stages in the effects sequence – awareness, preference and intention – are relatively easy to measure. Miller and Berry (1998) also point out that the brand attitude model supports the use of persuasive advertising as the primary marketing tool and is likely therefore to be supported by the advertising industry.

Over recent years an alternative model of consumer choice emphasizing the role of brand salience has become increasingly influential (Holden and Lutz, 1992; Ehrenberg, Barnard and Scriven, 1997; Miller and Berry, 1998; Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a). The brand salience model is described in further detail in Section 2.2.

Summary

The brief history of brand management, the evolution of theory relating to consumer behaviour and the brand equity concept presented in this section provides context for the discussion of brand salience which is the focus for the thesis.

2.2 Brand Salience

2.2.1 Definition

Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) trace the origin of salience within brand research to Krech and Crutchfield (1948) who suggest that saliency refers to the fact that an individual's beliefs do not have equal prominence in conscious thoughts. Certain beliefs will enter the individuals working memory more easily than others.

More recently, salience from a brand perspective has been commonly understood as 'The prominence or level of activation of a brand in memory' (Alba and Chattopadhyay, 1986, p363).

Prominence can relate to both:

- brands in working memory and;
- accessibility from long term memory (Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a).

Brand salience has been conceived as a component of brand awareness and Keller's (2003) definition reflects this approach 'aspects of the awareness of the brand e.g., how often and easily the brand is evoked under various situations and circumstances' (p76).

Under Keller's definition brand salience is a component of brand equity and a salient brand possesses both depth (frequency of recall) and breadth (across a range of situations and circumstances).

Brand salience is defined as the

Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) define brand salience as 'the brand's propensity to be noticed or come to mind in buying situations' (p. 327).

A number of researchers (Lynch and Srull, 1982; Alba and Chattopadhyay, 1985; Holden, 1993) have pointed out the situational and temporal influences on brand retrieval.

While brands may be recalled as a result of a stimulus within the immediate environment such as an advertisement (termed current prominence) for Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) brand salience is primarily related to the accessibility of the brand from long term memory across buying situations. Salience is not a transient construct.

Salience is said by Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) to influence choice through:

- cue matching – more extensive networks ensures a greater likelihood that the brand will be linked to consumer needs that determine purchase;
- assurance – buyers will feel more secure with a brand they know more about (generally buyers do not do a lot of detailed evaluation).

Research by Lee and Labroo (2004) suggests that the fluency with which consumers process information reduces uncertainty. They suggest that consumers may simply prefer ‘targets that are easier to process’ (p163).

Brand salience is related to share of mind rather than brand differentiation.

A brand’s share of mind will relate to both the quantity and quality of associations in memory. While quantity is said to relate to the number of associations, quality is said to relate to the strength of association and relevance of the attribute (Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004b).

From a marketing communications perspective Ehrenberg, Barnard and Scriven (1998) have likened brand salience to what Jones (1990) has termed the weak force theory of advertising effects in which the role of advertising is to build and reinforce memory associations for the brand as opposed to persuading the consumer to change their attitude toward the brand (the strong force theory). Brand salience is said to include ‘all of the ways in which a brand is notable or stands out for consumers’ (Ehrenberg, Barnard and Scriven, 1998, p2).

2.2.2 Brand Salience and Memory

The brand salience concept can be explored further through an understanding of memory theory. Human memory has been conceptualised as a multi storage system involving sensory stores (SS); short term store (STS) and long term store (LTS) (Bettman, 1979). Information is received from the environment continuously but is retained only momentarily unless it is attended to and processing occurs. If processed, it is transferred to the STS which is the centre of working memory. Information will be retrieved from LTS to the STS to support working memory as required. Following processing, some of the information in the STS may be transferred to the LTS and retained permanently.

The associative network model (Collins and Loftus, 1975; Anderson, 1983) describes the way in which semantic information is stored in long term memory. This approach is consistent with a salience approach to consumer behaviour. Information is received, processed and stored in long term memory as a network of nodes and associations between nodes (also referred to as links). Brands are established in memory as nodes. Information may be established as a new node (e.g. for a new brand) or as a new association (e.g. McDonalds and salads) or may strengthen existing associations (e.g. McDonalds and hamburgers).

A node in long term memory may be activated in response to a cue for which a link is present which then in turn activates links to other nodes – a process known as spreading activation (Anderson, 1983).

Under the process of spreading activation there is no distinction between short and long term memory stores. There is only one memory store and limited sections can be activated at any one time with the activated section available for current processing. The multiple store model can be viewed as an activation model however with the limits to activation explaining the processing attributes associated with the short term store. In this context Bettman (1979) distinguishes between short and long term memory as opposed to separate short and long term stores.

Information once stored in long term memory decays slowly over time. Forgetting is regarded primarily as a failure of the retrieval process (Lynch and Srull, 1982).

Retrieval will be related to (Lynch and Srull, 1982; Nedungadi, 1990)

- the strength of the activation of the brand node in memory;
- strength of association between brand node and other nodes in memory;
- the presence of self generated and externally generated retrieval cues.

Due to the limited capacity of short term memory, retrieval is a competitive process and recall will be influenced by the amount of competing information in memory within the same content domain (Collins and Loftus, 1975; Lynch and Srull, 1982). Each occasion on which a brand is recalled to working memory will inhibit recall of other brands to working memory¹. (Alba and Chattopadhyay, 1986; Nedungadi, Chattopadhyay and Muthukriaahnan, 2001). More recently learned information will inhibit the recall of older information (Tulving and Psotka 1971 cited by Lynch and Srull, 1982, p20).

The strength of activation of a brand node in memory may be determined by frequency and/or recency of exposure and, where the level of activation is sufficient, may be recalled directly to working memory in response to an identified need. In other instances the brand may be evoked as a result of spreading activation from internal or external cues (Nedungadi, 1990). For example, a game of tennis may stimulate a need for a thirst quenching drink which in turn will stimulate a set of appropriate products and brands. Nedungadi (1990) cites the example where a small brand within a category that is retrieved in response to a relevant cue may in turn elicit a larger brand from the product category.

Information processing is largely unconscious and a conscious decision is 'the result of a long chain of prior, unconscious cognitive activity' (Lynch and Srull, 1982, p19).

¹ The evoked set is defined by Alba and Chattopadhyay (1986) as brands the consumer remembers and considers acceptable.

A number of theorists (Ehrenberg, 1995; Dall'Olmo Riley, Ehrenberg, Castleberry, Barwise and Barnard, 1997; Sharp, 2002; Rungie, Laurent, Dall'Olmo Riley, Morrison and Roy, 2005) have demonstrated that individual level retrieval of brands in response to attribute prompts tends to be unstable over time with repeat rates of around 50% observed for fast moving consumer goods and consumer durable categories. The random or stochastic nature of consumer recall is found to be consistent across survey respondents.

Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) argue that 'retrieval is probabilistic, and possibly reflecting an underlying propensity that is different for each individual, in other words, their level of brand salience' (p332).

Van Osselaer and Janiszewski (2001) describe an approach to the establishment of brand associations in memory known as adaptive network models which describe the process by which brand names and brand attributes are linked to consumer benefits in memory. In contrast to the associative network model, where links between brand cues and benefits are established independently through repeated association, adaptive network models posit that brand cues interact. Brands are said to compete to be associated with evaluative attributes in memory and the strength of association between a brand and attribute will depend on the associations between the attribute and the other brands in the product class – the more unique the association, the stronger the link and the greater therefore the likelihood of choice (where the attribute is a relevant benefit). The adaptive network models of persuasive association support therefore the brand attitude paradigm.

Van Osselaer and Janiszewski (2001) conclude that there is support for both associative and adaptive learning with associative learning providing the foundation for brand associations and adaptive learning occurring when the consumer is more highly motivated and is actively processing information directed at a 'significant outcome' (p203).

This distinction between associative and adaptive learning models has some similarities to the distinction between the central/peripheral routes to persuasion (Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann, 1983) and more broadly involvement theory (Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann, 1983; Rossiter and Percy, 1987; Schiffman et. al., 1997).

There is some debate regarding the relevance of the high involvement model to most marketing decisions. While standard texts (Rossiter and Percy, 1987; Schiffman et. al. 1997; Keller, 2003) describe both high and low involvement processing models other theorists (Lynch and Srull, 1982; Miller and Berry, 1998; Heath, 2000) suggest that consumer decisions

are for the most part subconscious and intuitive, rather than rational, and brand communication is processed at low levels of attention.

In summary, the discussion presented in this section relates the brand salience model and the alternative brand attitude model to theory regarding memory and mental processes. Brand salience is consistent with an associative network model in which the likelihood of a brand being evoked from memory is related to the breadth and strength of links to a wide range of potential stimulus cues while the brand attitude model is consistent with an adaptive network model in which the likelihood of brand recall is determined by the strength and uniqueness of brand associations with key evaluative attributes (e.g. good value for money).

2.2.3 Brand Salience and Choice

Introduction

Marketing theorists (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Nedungadi, 1990; Hauser and Wernerfelt, 1990; Holden & Lutz, 1992; Roberts and Lattin, 1997) describe brand choice as a two stage process whereby:

- brands are evoked to working memory in response to relevant cues;
- a brand is selected for purchase from the evoked set following a process of evaluation.

Holden & Lutz (1992) argue that researchers in the past have tended to focus on the attributes elicited by brands and ignored the process by which brands are evoked for consideration as determinant of choice. Romaniuk and Sharp (2004b) have also commented on this suggesting that marketers are ‘obsessed with brand evaluation’ (p2).

In this section the literature relating to consideration and choice and the assumptions underpinning the brand salience and the alternative brand attitude model are explored in greater detail.

Consideration

Historically, marketing theorists (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Hauser and Wernerfelt, 1990) have assumed that consumer consideration sets are relatively static and retrieval of brands from memory is primarily determined by the strength of linkage between the brand and the product class. Howard and Sheth (1969) define the evoked set as ‘those brands the buyer considers when he (or she) contemplates purchasing a unit of the product class’ (p416).

Consumers are considered to be sufficiently motivated to make themselves aware of those brands or choice alternatives that will potentially meet their needs.

The product class is defined on the basis of functional product attributes (e.g. for beer: light vs full strength; imported vs local) and consideration sets are static within individuals across situations. This approach has been referred to as the taxonomic approach to describing market structure (Rosch and Lloyd, 1978).

An alternative model (Nedungadi, 1990; Ratneshwar and Shocker, 1991; Holden and Lutz, 1992) posits that consideration is goal orientated (e.g. a beer to impress friends at a dinner party; a beer for refreshment after sport). Goal structure is regarded as context dependent and brands evoked for consideration will therefore be context dependent. A product category may be conceived as a number of overlapping, goal derived sub categories (Ratneshwar and Shocker, 1991). Products retrieved to a goal derived sub category may be competitive or complimentary (as opposed to the taxonomic model under which products are assumed to be competitive/ substitutable).

Shocker, Ben Akiva, Boccara and Nedungadi (1991) describe a model of consideration set formation where the consideration set is defined as 'those goal satisfying alternatives salient or accessible on a particular occasion' (p183).

The derivation of the consideration set is a phased process in which consumers may use a decision heuristic to screen out unacceptable brands (inept set) and brands of insufficient utility (inert set) (e.g. Roberts and Lattin, 1997).

The consideration model proposed by Shocker et. al. (1991) includes three latent² sets: the awareness set; the consideration set; and a final choice set which consists of a small number of highly differentiated alternatives from which the final choice is made. While each set is sequentially smaller in size set formation may occur simultaneously to some extent. The rules governing the choice process may vary between the stages i.e. from awareness to consideration and from consideration to choice.

There is a clear pathway between awareness (brands that come to mind) and consideration (brands that are considered for purchase) and the process of consideration may involve a process of evaluation as brands are eliminated from the awareness and consideration sets prior to the specification of the choice set.

² Cannot be directly observed but must be inferred.

For Rossiter (1987) the usual meaning of awareness is non evaluative brand identification and excludes therefore measures of affect or familiarity. For Barwise and Ehrenberg (1985) awareness includes elements of familiarity i.e. that enough is known about the brand to provide assurance that it is suitable for trial – which Rossiter (1987) argues constitutes brand attitude.

The salience model posits brand choice is largely a function of the likelihood that a brand will come to mind in purchase situations. The salience model is consistent with the findings that information processing is largely subconscious and draws no conclusions therefore regarding the process by which consideration sets are derived. The salience model is concerned primarily with awareness in the sense that it is defined by Barwise and Ehrenberg (1985).

Holden and Lutz (1992) propose a model of brand choice in which consumers use a range of cues to evoke brands for consideration. In addition to product category and situational factors they identify brand attributes; benefits; and attitudes as eliciting cues. Negative brand attitudes are said by Holden and Lutz (1992) to function as barriers to consideration although Holden (1993) also found that situational cues directly evoked brands or products that were negatively evaluated.

Cues may elicit brands either through direct linkage or indirectly through a process of spreading activation (Anderson, 1983; Ratneshwar and Shocker, 1991; Holden, 1993).

Some theorists (Rossiter and Percy, 1987) argue that benefits sought are latent variables elicited by the consumer in response to the situation and can only be inferred rather than directly measured (e.g. ‘toothpaste for social occasions’ may be the situation where social approval is the benefit sought). The mediating effect of benefits between context and consideration has also been pointed out by Ratneshwar and Shocker (1991).

In a qualitative study of choice processes Holden (1993) found that some respondents elicited ladders of associations from the situation to benefits to brands. In a subsequent quantitative study Holden (1993) failed to find significant differences in product recall between situation and benefit cues. He concluded that the results could support an argument that situation cues operate indirectly through the benefit cues – which is consistent with mediating role of benefits proposed by Rossiter and Percy (1987).

Researchers have also identified that the impact of situational factors on retrieval will be mediated by brand size. Baker, Hutchinson, Moore and Nedungadi (1986) found that dominant brands, e.g. Coke, tended to be recalled consistently across situations while recall of

smaller brands was more variable. Recall may also be mediated by situation familiarity (Desai and Hoyer, 2000; Nedungadi et al, 2001; Chakravarti and Janiszewski, 2003).

Chakravarti and Janiszewski (2003) argue that consumers are motivated to both simplify choice options and to optimize choice outcomes. For routine purchase and usage situations where the benefits sought are strongly linked to the situation the consideration set will be narrowly defined on the basis of awareness and previous experience. For novel purchase/usage situations however, goals will be less clearly linked to situational cues and the consideration set may be specified more broadly.

Desai and Hoyer (2000) posit a somewhat contrary view to Chakravarti and Janiszewski (2003) and found support for the proposition that 'retrieving products in more familiar rather than less familiar situations will yield less stable, larger, and more varied sets' (p310). They argue that more familiar situations will have provided greater opportunities to evaluate alternatives and establish situation to product links in memory. The findings of Desai and Hoyer (2000) are consistent with associative network memory theory.

A number of theorists (Hauser and Wernerfelt, 1990; Roberts and Lattin, 1997; Crompton and Ankomah, 1993) posit decision rules for the formation of considerations sets which may involve the elimination of alternatives from an initial awareness set to the formation of a late consideration or choice set. The consideration set model proposed by Chakravarti and Janiszewski (2003) assumes a cognitive process underlying consideration set formation whereas the approach by Desai and Hoyer (2000) is related more directly to the likelihood of direct evocation on the basis of the strength and breadth of links in memory.

The salience model is consistent with the goal derived and fluid nature of consideration described by Ratneshwar and Shocker (1991) and Holden (1993). The salience model is not an information processing model and does not posit decision rules or processes in regard to choice set formation.

Evaluation

As previously discussed brand choice can be conceived as a two stage process involving retrieval of product alternatives and a subsequent process of evaluation prior to choice. It has been widely accepted (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Schiffman et. al., 1997; Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005) that brand attribute beliefs will influence the purchase decision through a cognitive process involving decision rules or heuristics. Under compensatory decision models (Wilkie and Pressemer, 1973) positive and negative brand attribute beliefs are traded off for

each brand with the selected brand offering the most attractive combination of attributes. Non compensatory models do not allow the decision maker to trade off the positive attributes of a brand against the negative attributes. A number of non compensatory decision rules have been described such as the conjunctive, disjunctive and lexicographic decision rules (Wilkie and Pressemier, 1973). Combination of compensatory and non compensatory rules are possible. As Lynch and Srull (1982) have pointed out much of the decision research conducted in the 1970's and 1980's involved the specification of decision rules on the basis of conscious/accessible mental processes e.g. conjoint analysis.

Situational variables have in the past been regarded as influencing consumer choice by altering the product attribute importance weights in a multi attribute compensatory model (Baker, Hutchinson, Moore, Nedungadi, 1986; Holden and Lutz, 1992; Keller, 1993) or by representing barriers to choice in a non compensatory model (Um and Crompton, 1992). Bird, Channon and Ehrenberg (1970) examined the relationship between brand image and brand usage and found that attitudes that relate to brand performance (e.g. taste, flavour, value for money) tend to discriminate between current and former brand users although this may not be the case for negatively worded performance related attributes (Winchester and Romaniuk, 2003). Variables that were related to brand performance were labeled by Bird et. al. (1970) as evaluative attributes in contrast to descriptive attributes (e.g. attractive packaging) which did not discriminate between current and former users. Descriptive attributes were said to relate to functional qualities of the brand (e.g. good in cold water for Coldpower), or heavily advertised messages. The authors drew no conclusions regarding the direction of the relationship between brand attribute beliefs and behaviour.

The importance generally attributed to brand attitude as a determinant of choice has subsequently been questioned by theorists who argue that the likelihood that a brand will be evoked for consideration should be given greater weight as a determinant of choice (Ehrenberg, 1997; Miller and Berry, 1998; Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a). In an experimental study of the relative influence of recall and evaluation Nedungadi (1990) demonstrated that the likelihood of brand choice (in memory based choice situations) could be increased through brand priming (i.e. external prompting) whilst brand evaluation remained unchanged.

Haley and Case (1979) compared the performance of 13 scales designed to measure brand attitude and awareness across 6 brand categories and through a factor analysis of brand evaluation scores found two underlying factors; one of which was related to evaluation and the second related to salience. The scales with the highest positive loadings on the salience factor

were brand awareness and brand choice. In addition the study found that the five scales with a positive loading on the salience factor showed the greatest discrimination among brands and demonstrated the greatest consistency with current brand usage.

This is consistent with research by Hauser (cited by Holden and Lutz, 1992, p.101) who found that the probability of inclusion of a brand in the evoked set accounted for greater variation in brand choice than brand attitude.

Miller and Berry (1998) in an analysis of tracking data for rental cars found that awareness accounted for around 70% of advertising's effect on market share compared to around 30% associated with advertising content. Salience for these authors referred to 'which brands consumers think about, not what they think about them, or how favourable they are toward them'³, (p82).

Lynch and Srull (1982) have also noted that while conjoint models have demonstrated a capacity to explain variation in expressed preferences these models are less successful in predicting actual purchase behaviour. They conclude that factors influencing retrieval may play a major and perhaps dominant role in the purchase decision process.

Ehrenberg (1997) has argued that while there is clear evidence of correlation between attitude and behaviour, attitude change tends to follow behaviour rather than precede it – I use it, therefore I like it. Ehrenberg's (1974) model of consumer behaviour, Awareness Trial Reward (ATR), reflects this ordering of effects.

In a longitudinal study of brand beliefs and brand defection and uptake in subscription markets Winchester, Romaniuk and Bogomolova (2008) demonstrated that consumers who switched brands adjusted their brand beliefs after defection to match their new user status.

2.2.4 Determinants of Brand Salience

Brand salience is based on the network structure in buyer memory. Links are developed and refreshed through:

- buying the brand;
- using the brand;
- marketing communication and word of mouth.

(Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a).

A brands accessibility from memory will depend on:

³ Interestingly Miller and Berry (1998) assert that their salience model is somewhat different to the Ehrenberg, Barwise and Scriven (1997) concept of salience which they suggest has a clear attitudinal or image component.

- the strength of activation of the brand node;
- strength of association between brand nodes and other active nodes;
- availability of retrieval cues;

(Nedungadi et. al., 2001).

- recency of consideration;
- frequency of consideration;
- prototypicality;
- distinctiveness.

(Posavac, Sanbonmatsu and Fazio, 1997; Kardes, Kalyanaram, Chandrasekaran and Dornoff, 1993).

Prototypicality is derived from research relating to category structure and is conceived as the degree to which a brand matches an ideal object evoked by a category – for example for some consumers Coke might be the prototypical brand of soft drink against which others are compared. The likelihood that the brand will be evoked will be determined on the extent to which the brand is judged to be similar to Coke (Nedungadi and Hutchinson, 1985).

‘Categories are composed of a core meaning which consists of the clearest cases (best examples) of a category, surrounded by other members of decreasing similarity to that core meaning’ (Rosch, 1973 cited by Nedungadi and Hutchinson, 1985, p. 499).

Ehrenberg et. al. (1997) relate salience to size and suggest that more salient brands will have ‘wider distribution; more shelf space and display; more sales people; more promotions; more word of mouth; more media mentions; more advertising; and probably bigger absolute profits’ (p9).

2.2.5 Measuring Brand Salience

Historically brand salience has been measured as top of mind awareness or first brand mentioned in response to a category prompt (Axelrod, 1986). In a comparison of predictive validity for ten brand measures Axelrod (1968) found that first mentioned brand awareness was the best predictor of short term purchase behaviour.

For Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) a measure of brand salience will involve the following components:

- representative range of brand attributes across purchase situations, benefits and functional qualities;

- measurement of associations will include the complete brand set rather than focusing on attribute – brand associations in isolation;
- focus is on retrieval rather than evaluation.

Holden and Lutz (1992) argue that brand cues may derive from: product category; choice situation; brand attributes; brand benefits; and brand attitudes. As discussed in Section 2.2.3 brand benefits may function as intermediary cues that are evoked in response to other elements of the situation.

Desai and Hoyer (2000) have identified six situational elements that may influence brand evocation: 1) activity e.g. shopping 2) temporal e.g. time of day 3) antecedent state e.g. mood/tired 4) location e.g. home/work 5) other people e.g. friends; 6) objects which are distinct items present in a situation. The dominant elements influencing retrieval in response to situational context are said by Desai and Hoyer to be usage occasion⁴ and location.

For Lutz (1980) situational context may relate to purchase; consumption and communication environments. Belk (1975) defines situational factors as particular to a time and place and independent of consumer and product characteristics.

Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) recommend a measure of salience derived from an attribute to brand association matrix collected through representative surveys of consumers. Associations are measured as binary responses rather than as scaled responses indicating the strength of association.

The total number of associations for each brand is summed across all attributes and brand salience is calculated as each brand's share of associations.

This measure is said to fit the theory based criteria in that:

- it is an all or none type measure;
- it incorporates multiple attributes;
- responses are given in conjunction with competitors.

The list of attributes should be a representative rather than exhaustive list. The objective is to measure the propensity to be thought of and there will be numerous of cues present in most choice situations. (Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a).

Romaniuk (2006) recommends that when measuring brand associations, respondents are prompted with the set of brands in the product category as unprompted measures are less likely to elicit responses from non brand users or for brands with smaller market share. For

⁴ Usage occasions are conceptualised by Desai and Hoyer on the basis of activity, antecedent state and temporal factors.

memory based purchase situations however, unprompted measures may be appropriate (Nenycz-Thiel, Sharp, Dawes and Romaniuk, 2010).

Ratneshwar and Shocker (1991) are critical of empirical studies examining variation in consideration across usage situation where the respondents are prompted with the choice alternatives (as external brand prompts may not be present in the usage situation).

Lynch and Srull (1982) point out that the evaluation of consumer choice may involve the presentation of a discrete set of brands to consumers for evaluation. While this is appropriate for stimulus based choice environments (where brand prompts are present within the choice environment) for memory based choice situations this approach assumes that the consideration set is accessible and static. As Holden and Lutz (1992) point out it is also the case that the strength of brand associate and associate brand linkages are not symmetrical.

While brands may be cued by a wide range of prompts, some associate to brand linkages will be stronger than the brand to associate link (for the same associate/brand pairs) and will be more likely to evoke the brand while associates with a stronger brand to associate link will be more closely associated with evaluation. The salience model rests on the likelihood of consideration and should measure therefore the strength of associate to brand links.

Measures of the strength of the brand activation in memory include: order of retrieval; latency period between stimulus and response; uniqueness of the response (size of the consideration set).

In a more recent study examining the visual salience of products at point of purchase van der Lans, Pieters and Wedel (2008) measured salience on the basis of eye movements with choice situations involving laundry detergent presented to experimental subjects via computer.

2.2.6 Summary

The literature presented in this section provides an overview and critique of the brand salience concept and the alternative brand attitude model of consumer behaviour. The literature relating to human memory that supports the salience model and the alternative brand attitude model is also reviewed.

The flexibility of individual consumer goal structures across purchase and consumption environments is identified as a central component of the salience model which contrasts with the traditional taxonomic model of consumer choice under which goal structure and consideration sets are said to be static within individuals across situations.

The review also examined the relationship between situation and benefit cues and found support for the proposition that product benefits function as intermediary rather than independent cues.

The literature review identified the following factors will influence the likelihood of consideration:

- situational context;
- situation familiarity;
- brand size;
- previous brand usage.

The review compared the assumptions underpinning the brand salience and brand attitude models of consumer behaviour. The major assumptions underpinning the brand salience and brand attitude models are summarised below in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Overview of Model Assumptions

Brand salience model	Brand attitude model
Effects model is Awareness Trial Reinforcement (ATR)	Effects model is Awareness Interest Desire Action (AIDA) or derivative
Memory structure is associative network	Memory structure is adaptive network
Information processing is largely subconscious, passive	Information processing is largely conscious, active
Consideration set is fluid / goal derived	Consideration set is static / taxonomic
Objective of advertising is to build / strengthen brand associations	Objective of advertising is to persuade / change brand attitude

2.3 Destination Marketing

2.3.1 Destination Branding

With the growth in international travel over the last 20 years and the globalisation of the market economy, countries, cities and regions are competing world wide for export markets, business investment, skilled labour and immigrants in addition to business and leisure travellers. Destination managers are increasingly applying principles derived from the marketing of products and services to the marketing of destinations with a resultant interest in the establishment of destination brands.

In an environment in which destination product offerings are also increasingly homogenous, destination branding is seen to provide a mechanism to differentiate and create a unique identity through relationship building and emotional appeal rather than differentiation on the basis of functional qualities (Morgan, Pritchard and Pride, 2004).

A destination brand has been defined by Ritchie and Ritchie (1998) as ‘a name, symbol, logo, word, mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience’ (p108).

DMOs have generally adopted brand management models under which destination branding is said to:

- convey an expectation of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination – i.e. establish a unique selling proposition;
- consolidate and reinforce the emotional connection between visitor and the destination;
- provide an assurance of quality;
- reduce search costs and risk;
- build loyalty and repeat visitation.

(Blain, Levy and Ritchie, 2005; Whitfield, 2005).

Mundt (2002) is critical of the use of the word branding in relation to destination marketing pointing out that destination management organizations do not have control over product and price and limited control over distribution. He argues that very few destinations are unique and suggests that the need to define a unique selling proposition ‘is one of the great myths in marketing’ (p343). He further argues that destination branding has arisen due to the failure by

DMO's to fully understand the marketing function. 'When it comes to traditional destinations, it seems that the words "image", "name", "logo" and "quality label" simply are being replaced by the term "brand"' (p347). He argues that a scientific approach to destination management requires the precise definition and use of marketing terms and concepts.

Further to this some theorists (Anholt, 1998; Park and Petrick, 2006) suggest that destinations are best considered as corporate rather than product brands and that from this perspective brand management is primarily about managing destination image and perceptions rather than manipulating the product offering.

Whitfield (2005), whilst arguing in favor of destination branding, also notes that destination managers do not have control over the product and represent the interests of a range of competing stakeholder groups. Under these circumstances the establishment and maintenance of a differentiated and tightly focused brand strategy may encounter significant opposition from stakeholders who feel they are not represented by the brand.

For Kotler, Haider and Rein (1993) place branding is holistic and branding for tourism cannot be separated from other place marketing objectives such as export, business investment and population. Kotler et al. (1993) cite the example of the state of Wisconsin in the US which has identified business executives who have holidayed or lived in the State as a target market for business investment. Morgan et. al., (2004) point out though that a whole of State strategy may be more difficult to manage than a tourism brand and cite the example of 'Brand Oregon' (Curtis, 2001) in this context.

Morgan et. al. (2004) also suggest that DMOs are often Government bodies with relatively modest marketing budgets when compared with private sector brand managers and their capacity to achieve brand objectives through marketing communications is generally limited. The political process will also influence strategy with political imperatives reflecting short term priorities that may work against the achievement of longer term brand objectives.

2.3.2 Measuring Destination Brand Equity

There are few comprehensive tracking models of destination brand equity described in the tourism literature. One of the best known is the Anholt Nation Brands Index (Simon Anholt/GMI, 2006) which surveys consumers worldwide on a quarterly basis to benchmark the image of 35 developed and developing countries. The index is a composite of consumer perceptions relating to cultural, political, commercial and human assets. The index is designed to meet business investment and population objectives in addition to tourism. A composite

measure is derived for each country included in the survey which is said to represent a clear index of national brand power.

The Anholt Index reflects Kotler et. al. (1993)'s view that place branding must be holistic and address the broad spectrum of destination marketing objectives. While Anholt suggests destination brand image can be a determinant of outcomes such as membership of the European Union, Mundt (2002) is critical of this claim arguing that it overstates the influence of branding and fails to recognize the real political and legislative processes that will determine such an outcome.

From a tourism perspective a destination brand is most commonly operationalised on the basis of destination image. In a survey of 8 destination brand managers Park and Petrick (2006) found that the most commonly reported brand metrics derived from market surveys were:

- destination awareness;
- destination image;
- visitor profile (demographics, travel behaviour, information sources)
- travel intention.

The authors concluded that destination branding was in the main regarded as a mechanism to manipulate destination image using brand tools such as slogan or logo. It was concluded that destination branding has been used largely as a replacement for image building.

There are numerous studies (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Pike, 2002) of destination image in the tourism literature.

Echtner and Ritchie (1993) define destination image on the basis of 3 dimensions: a) attribute – holistic b) functional – psychological c) common – unique.

Functional characteristics are those that are directly observable and measurable while psychological characteristics are less accessible and may be inferred.

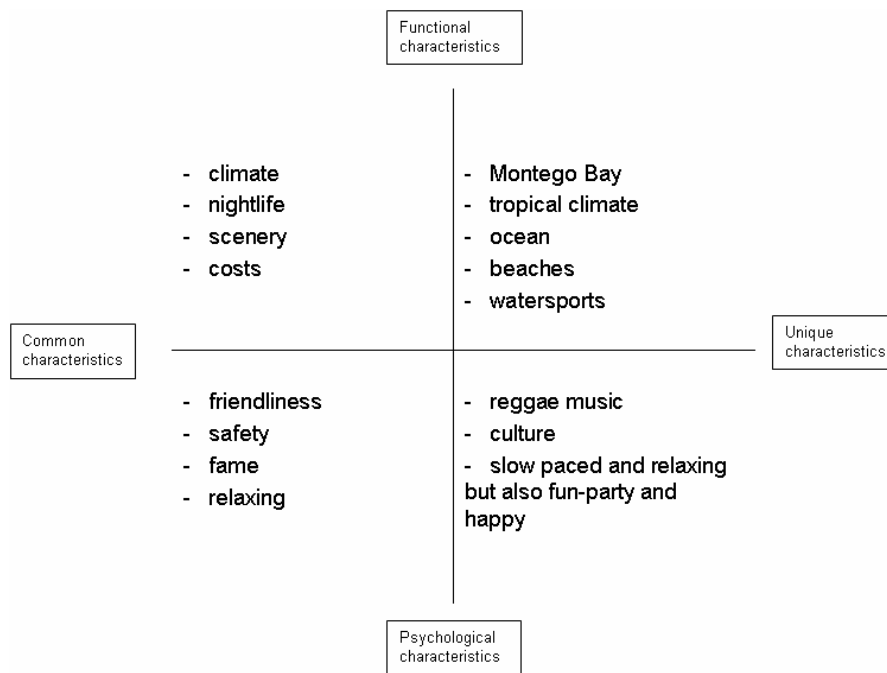


Figure 2.2 Destination Image of Jamaica

Echtner and Ritchie (1993) provided examples of destination attributes for the country of Jamaica and the dimensions they describe provide a convenient framework for the conceptualization of destination image.

Other researchers (Baloglu and McLeary, 1999; Hong, Kim, Jang and Lee, 2006) have also distinguished between the affective (emotional/feeling component) and the cognitive (rational – what is known) components of destination image. Baloglu (1999) argues that affective image is an outcome of cognitive belief structures and underlying motivation – i.e. the benefits sought from the travel experience.

Russell and Pratt (1980) have studied the affective meaning of place imagery. They found 21 clusters of adjectives that described the affective quality of places. They also found that the clusters could be reduced through factor analysis to two underlying dimensions of affect that were labeled as ‘sleepy – arousing’ and ‘unpleasant – pleasant’. An ‘exciting’ place, for example was one that was both arousing and pleasant while a ‘peaceful’ place was somewhat sleepy but pleasant.

There are very few references in the literature to studies that more broadly provide a framework for the measurement and tracking of destination brand equity or brand health beyond the measurement of destination image.

Morgan, Pritchard and Piggott (2002) include a holistic attribute which is said to reflect the brand essence or overall brand attitude.

McWilliams and Crompton (1997) have described an advertising tracking model for destinations designed to capture advertising effects for low involvement or repeat purchases. The authors point to Ehrenberg's (1974) ATR model (Awareness Trial Reinforcement) as an alternative to the attitude/image based model that generally underpins theories of destination choice. They argue that processing effects for low involvement choice may be largely unconscious and describe a method for estimating advertising impacts in absence of advertising recall.

2.3.3 Travel Motivation

Destination choice and the interpretation and response to destination attributes will be mediated by travel motivation or the benefits sought by travellers. It is also the case that under a salience model the benefits sought by consumers may function as cues that will stimulate recall (Holden and Lutz, 1992).

Perhaps the most influential theory of travel motivation is the push – pull model described by Dann (1977). Push motivations have been thought useful for explaining the desire for travel while pull motivations explain destination choice, although pull factors may be operationalised as destination attributes as opposed to benefits sought by consumers (Baloglu and Uysal, 1996). Dann (1977) distinguishes a single bipolar dimension of travel motivation with anomie at one end and ego enhancement at the other. Anomie is said to relate to the need to escape the pressures and sameness of every day life (push factors) while pull factors relate to ego enhancement.

Beard and Ragheb (1983), through a review of existing literature derived a set of 150 descriptive items relating to leisure needs which was reduced to a set of 103 items following expert review and questionnaire development. The resulting battery was pilot tested by a sample of students with the responses analysed by principle component factor analysis revealing 7 underlying factors. One factor was discarded and four other factors combined to derive four sub scales. The item battery was reduced to 48 with 12 items per subscale and validated through a field test of 1,205 persons.

The factor structure was confirmed with one factor for each sub scale which were described as follows:

Intellectual:	This factor is related to mental activities such as learning, exploring, discovering, creating or imagining.
Social:	This factor relates to interpersonal relationships and the need for the esteem of others.
Competence/Mastery:	Need to achieve, master, challenge and compete. Usually involves physical activities.
Stimulus/Avoidance:	To escape the stress of everyday life. To rest and relax.

It can be seen that these factors are consistent with Dann's theory to a degree with Stimulus/Avoidance reflecting the anomie (push) dimension and the other dimensions reflecting ego enhancement (pull) dimensions.

The model also has some similarities to the Rossiter and Percy (1987) model of consumer motivation where positive or negative motives are identified. Negative motives relate to drive reduction and would include therefore stimulus/avoidance while positive motives provide an emotional reward (ego enhancement). Positive motives identified by Rossiter and Percy (1987) are intellectual stimulation; sensory gratification; and social approval.

Travel motivation may be conceived as a stable personal construct or broad predisposition that will vary on the basis of context. For example, travel motivation when travelling with a partner will be different to travel motivation when travelling with a family. As previously discussed marketing theorists (Belk, 1975) may propose that the impact of brand attributes and contextual factors will be mediated by stable individual differences.

2.3.4 Destination Choice

The models of destination choice most commonly found in the tourism literature (Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005) have tended to be based on the so called grand models of consumer behaviour (e.g. Howard and Sheth, 1969) in which destination choice is a high involvement category of consumer behaviour.

Some researchers (McWilliams and Crompton, 1997; Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005) also posit a low involvement model of destination choice where holiday travel behaviour is routine (e.g. regular summer holiday at the same beach). Under these circumstances information search may be limited and alternative destinations may not be considered.

While there is considerable discussion of choice sets in the tourism literature, Crompton and Ankomah (1993) point out that there is a poor understanding of how a specific destination enters or leaves the consideration set. While retrieval of destinations to the consideration set will be influenced by internal and external cues within the immediate environment Crompton and Ankomah (1993) suggest that further research is required to describe the retrieval process. Reflecting the approach to buyer behaviour outlined by Howard and Sheth (1969) tourism theorists (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1992) have generally approached destination choice as a phased filtering process involving the specification of an evoked set of destinations from a larger awareness set with the final choice made from the evoked set or late consideration set. The primary determinant of destination choice is generally conceived as a favourable destination image (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Buhalis, 2000; Pike, 2002; Hankinson, 2004; Blain et al, 2005). Destination image will also determine consumer expectations and subsequent satisfaction with the experience (Buhalis, 2000).

For Crompton (1977) (cited by Um and Crompton 1990, p. 436) the preferred set of destinations is measured against an ideal or dream destination. From this perspective category structure is graded with the ideal destination representing the prototypical brand (Nedungadi and Hutchison, 1985). The awareness set is not limited by situational constraints.

One of the first comprehensive models of destination choice was described and tested by Woodside and Lysonski (1989). A number of choice sets were proposed by the authors including the consideration set, unavailable aware set, inert set and inept set. Under the model consideration is contingent on consumer characteristics (previous destination experience, lifecycle, income, age, lifestyles and values) and marketing variables (product, pricing, promotion, distribution). Preference and intention are determined by affective associations. Situational variables mediate the link between intention and choice.

The authors found weak support for the influence of marketing mix variables on consideration (in this case air access) but concluded that an experimental design would be required to explore this relationship. While product packaging may impose category structure, in many instances destination choice will be independent of product elements. Consumers may select the destination and then select supporting product (accommodation, transport, tours) that is consistent with their needs.

Um and Crompton (1990) describe a two stage model of destination choice under which perceived facilitators are traded off against perceived inhibitors at each stage using multi attribute decision rules (either compensatory or non compensatory).

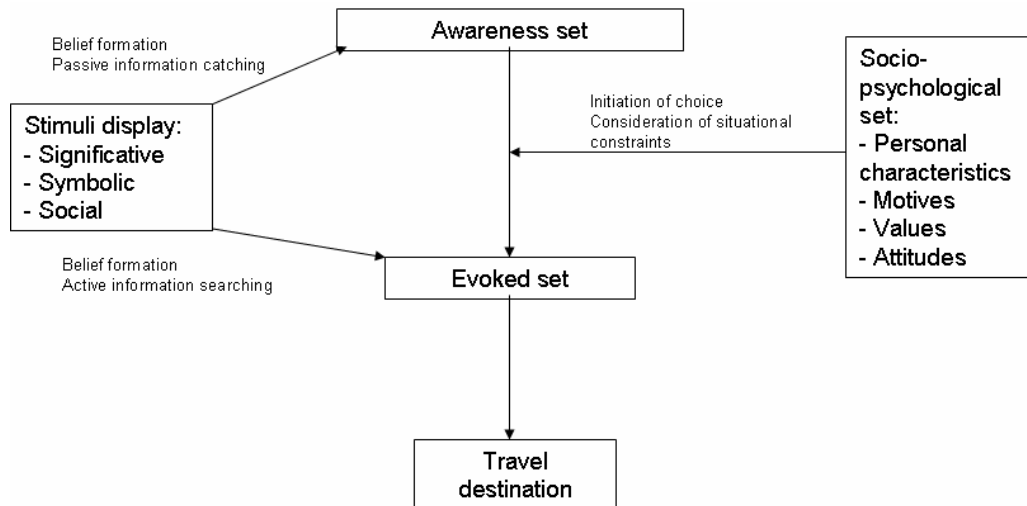


Figure 2.3 Um and Crompton’s Model of Destination Choice

An awareness set of destinations is established over time through passive learning and experience and the first stage of the choice process is stimulated by the decision to take a holiday. An evoked set is derived from the awareness set through decision rules in which existing knowledge is balanced against constraints which include situational factors such as time available, time of year etc. The destinations elicited to the evoked set are subject to active information search and a further process of evaluation to determine the final destination. Situational variables are treated as inhibiting attributes in a 2 stage multi attribute model of choice.

Following further research Um and Crompton (1992) replaced the awareness set with the initial consideration set which consists of the destinations the consumer is considering as possible vacation destinations within some period e.g. a year. Destinations are evoked to a late consideration set on the basis of affective attributes that address the consumers motivational profile – the image factors that attract the visitor. For Um and Crompton (1992) final selection from the late consideration set is primarily a process of elimination based on constraints. Constraints are defined as destination attributes that represent barriers to choice (e.g. distance, travel time, security, health, seasonality, overcrowding). The authors also found support for the proposition that the travel decision is a satisficing behaviour (Simon, 1956) that is constraint driven rather than an optimization of destination benefits as would be implied by a utility optimization model of choice.

Hu and Ritchie (1993) conducted a multi attribute model of choice based on destination attractiveness for a number of different countries and included situational constraints as a component of the model with context defined in terms of the usage context as described by Ratneshwar and Shocker (1991). Context was operationalised by asking respondents to consider either an educational trip (exploration/discovery) or a recreational trip (activities / relaxation). In a between subjects design they found that attribute importance weights in the model varied between contextual conditions. The respondents were prompted with a fixed destination set and variation in consideration set formation was not taken into account. This approach is consistent with other studies in the marketing literature (Thelen and Woodside, 1997) in which contextual variables are used to constrain the dependent variable and influence the relative importance of brand attribute beliefs.

Decrop (1999) has critiqued the cognitive information processing models of consumer behaviour that underpin the theories of destination choice described above as failing to capture the complexity of real life. He argues for a situational and experiential model of behaviour that is said to involve detailed descriptions of decision processes and outcomes in the consumers own language incorporating questions regarding the what, when, where, and how of destination choice. In contrast to the reductionist cognitive model this approach also recognizes the social construction of the travel decision – i.e. that holiday travel for a large number of people is a group activity. Decrop (1999) presents a number of propositions relating to destination choice derived from a longitudinal qualitative study of holiday decision making by twenty seven Belgian households. These include:

- most information is acquired incidentally rather than through active search;
- generic destination attributes (e.g. sun & sand) are more important than the actual destination;
- life cycle is an important determinant of destination choice.

2.3.5 Brand Salience and Destination Choice

While brand management principles have increasingly been applied to destination marketing over recent years the brand management model has tended to focus on differentiation of destination image and the building of emotional appeal as a determinant of choice and loyalty (Morgan et. al., 2004; Blain et al, 2005; Whitfield, 2005).

Ehrenberg (1988) has demonstrated across a range of product categories that consumers purchase from a portfolio of brands and that the distribution of brand penetration rates across

the consumer base as a whole is generally consistent with the distribution of brand penetration rates for the buyers of each brand i.e. consumers are generally not brand loyal. This finding, known as the Duplication of Purchase Law, has been found to hold for international travel with countries as competing brands (Dawes, Romaniuk and Mansfield, 2009) with culture (ethnicity) and proximity responsible for partitioning effects – that is, countries that are closer geographically and/or culturally are more likely to share visitors than would be expected from the theoretical distribution.

Further to this finding some tourism researchers (Baloglu, 2001; Prentice, 2004) have argued that destination familiarity should be given greater weight in the travel decision process. Baloglu (2001) conducted a survey of 448 individuals who had requested information from the Turkish National Tourism Office where familiarity was operationalised as a combination of previous visitation and the breadth of information sources accessed regarding Turkey (familiar respondents may not have previously visited the country). Image ratings for Turkey were then compared on the basis of familiarity and it was found that consumers who had greater familiarity with the destination rated its image more positively across a range of image dimensions. Baloglu concluded that the causal relationship between familiarity and image is a grey area within the tourism literature and longitudinal research or experimental studies are required to determine the direction of the relationship.

Prentice (2004) surveyed cultural tourists visiting Edinburgh and investigated familiarity across 5 dimensions labeled as: informational; experiential; proximal; self described; and educational. Propensity to visit North England was found to be significantly related to experiential and proximal familiarity and independent of the other 3 dimensions.

Experiential familiarity was operationalised as previous visitation while proximal familiarity related to cultural similarity and was operationalised as country of residence.

This finding is similar to the factors influencing the partitioning of international travel destinations reported by Romaniuk et. al. (2006). Prentice (2004) has suggested that cultural similarity provides reassurance and has a similar effect to the effect of brand salience on product choice (Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a).

Prentice (2004) also found that destination choice was not related to destination imagery and cautioned against the assumption of the generic importance of destination image as a determinant of destination choice.

In the same sense that it has been argued that brand attitude is an outcome of product usage (Ehrenberg, 1997) it may be the case that destination image is an outcome of visitation,

cultural similarity or other factors that underpin familiarity such as family history or word of mouth. To the extent that familiarity represents the breadth and strength of destination associations in memory it has some elements in common with brand salience although the definition considered above does not take into account situational factors or the process by which destinations are evoked to working memory.

2.3.6 Summary

The literature reviewed in relation to tourism and travel indicates that models of destination branding and choice have been largely derived from the grand models of consumer behaviour (e.g. Howard and Sheth, 1969). These models generally describe a process in which a consideration set of destinations is derived from an awareness set through a phased filtering process with destination choice a cognitive process characterised by information search and evaluation of choice alternatives on the basis of a decision rule or heuristic. A positive attitude to the destination, operationalised as destination image, is generally regarded as a necessary precursor of choice. Destination choice sets are generally regarded as relatively static within individuals. Situational variables mediate the link between intention and behaviour.

Some tourism researchers have identified familiarity as a component of destination image and choice. To the extent that destination familiarity has some parallels with salience these findings support for a salience model of destination choice.

2.4 Research Hypotheses

2.4.1 Knowledge Gap

The dominant destination brand management paradigm assumes an attitude based model of consumer behaviour i.e. that a favourable and differentiated destination image is the primary determinant of destination choice (Blain et al, 2005). Tourism is also assumed to be a high involvement category of consumer behaviour and is associated with information search and a rational evaluation of choice objects (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1992; Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005).

A salience model of destination choice implies that the likelihood of visitation will to a significant degree be related to the strength and breadth of associations in long term memory and the likelihood that destinations will be noticed or come to mind in buying situations (Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a).

While there is considerable discussion of destination choice sets in the tourism literature there is a poor understanding of the process by which destinations are evoked to working memory (Crompton and Ankomah, 1993) and there is little systematic investigation of the influence of contextual variables on destination image and choice (Pike, 2002). The investigation of the relationship between destination salience and destination choice represents a significant contribution to the tourism literature with implications for destination management practice.

2.4.2 Research Objective

The primary objective of the research is to examine the research question:

Is the brand salience model of consumer behaviour applicable to destination marketing?

To formally examine this question three hypotheses were addressed by the research. Two of the hypotheses relate to assumptions underpinning the brand salience model and the alternative brand attitude model with respect to the consistency and stability of destinations recalled across attribute and contextual cues while the third hypothesis relates to predictive validity.

2.4.3 Research Hypotheses

The consistency of recall

Traditional models of consumer behaviour (Howard and Sheth, 1969) posit that consideration sets are relatively static across purchase and consumption environments. Category structure is defined by the functional qualities of the product offering. Tourism models of destination choice (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1992; Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005) have developed within this tradition and generally assume a phased filtering process with cognitive evaluation of choice alternatives from a static awareness set. Situational factors are generally treated as either influences on the attribute importance weights in a multi attribute compensatory model or as constraints in the selection of a final choice from a late consideration set (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1992; Hu and Ritchie, 1993).

Some researchers (Nedungadi, 1990; Ratneshwar and Shocker, 1991; Holden and Lutz, 1992) have shown that recall may be goal orientated and consideration sets within individuals may be fluid and context dependent. These findings are consistent with the brand salience model of consumer behaviour and if a salience model is applicable to destination choice it is expected that destination recall will be variable across purchase and consumption environments.

Conversely if recall is more consistent in response to situational cues this finding will provide support for a brand attitude model of destination choice.

H1a: If a salience model is valid, there will be a low correlation between the recall of an Australian holiday destination in response to a situational or motivational cue present at retrieval and the recall of that destination in response to other cues present at retrieval.

H1b: If an attitude model is valid, there will be a high correlation between the recall of an Australian holiday destination in response to a situational or motivational cue present at retrieval and the recall of that destination in response to other cues present at retrieval.

The strength of association between variables is examined on the basis of the size of the Pearsonian correlation coefficient where coefficients between 0 and 0.3 demonstrate little or no association, between 0.3 and 0.7 are regarded as weak and above 0.7 are regarded as high (Simon, 2008).

The stability of recall

A number of theorists (Ehrenberg, 1995; Dall’Olmo Riley et. al., 1997; Sharp, 2002; Rungie et. al., 2005) have shown that consumer’s brand attribute beliefs are unstable over time with only around 50% of consumers, on average, evoking the same brand in response to a brand attribute prompt when re interviewed some period after an initial interview. The instability of brand attribute beliefs is counter to what would be expected under a brand attitude model as brand attribute beliefs would be consistently held by consumers if brand attitude is a significant determinant of loyalty and choice. If a brand attitude model of choice is applicable to destination marketing it would be expected that the recall of destinations in response to attribute cues will remain relatively stable over time.

In contrast the brand salience model posits that recall is a stochastic process and the observed instability of brand attribute beliefs is consistent with a brand salience model of consumer behaviour.

H2: If a salience model is valid, recall of Australian holiday destinations in response to situational and motivational cues present at retrieval will display limited reliability over time with repeat rates⁵ around 50%, on average.

Predictive Validity

If a brand salience model of consumer behaviour is applicable to destination choice it would be expected that a measure of salience would be associated with travel behaviour to some degree. Alternatively if a brand attitude model is applicable it would be expected that a measure of a travellers attitude toward a destination, derived from their image of the destination, would be related to their travel behaviour.

Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) recommend that brand salience is measured as a brand’s share of associations derived from a free choice attribute to brand association matrix derived from a survey of consumers. A multi attribute measure of destination brand attitude may be derived (Wilkie and Pressemer, 1973) through a survey of consumers in which brand image association data is weighted by the importance of each attribute for the consumer and summed to provide a measure for each brand. These metrics operationalise the alternative brand salience and brand attitude models and may be used to examine predictive validity.

⁵ A repeat rate is operationalised by coding whether a subject who evokes a particular destination in response to a specific cue at a benchmark survey evokes the same destination in response to the same cue at a subsequent survey. The proportion of subjects evoking the same destination in response to the same cue over time is defined as the repeat rate.

Future travel behaviour is operationalised in this thesis on the basis of intention to travel and actual travel measured over time and separate hypotheses are presented to reflect this.

H3a: If a salience model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of salience for an Australian holiday destination and intention to travel to that destination.

H3b: If an attitude model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of attitude toward an Australian holiday destination and intention to travel to that destination.

H4a: If a salience model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of salience for an Australian holiday destination and future travel to that destination.

H4b: If an attitude model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of attitude toward an Australian holiday destination and future travel to that destination.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

To examine the relationship between brand salience and destination marketing a multi stage methodology was adopted involving qualitative and quantitative data collection procedures.

The qualitative component of the research involved depth interviews undertaken with travel decision makers resident in Sydney and Melbourne in March / April 2007. This research was supported through a grant from the Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (STCRC). The qualitative research was undertaken to examine the process and structure of consideration with respect to holiday travel in Australia and to develop an understanding of the choice processes and cues most likely to evoke choice alternatives.

The quantitative component consisted of a longitudinal survey of Australian residents selected from a database of individuals who had requested information regarding holiday opportunities in South Australia from the South Australian Tourism Commission. A benchmark survey was conducted in November / December 2008 and a follow up survey in July / August 2009. The survey instrument consisted of a structured web hosted questionnaire.

Ethics approval was sought for each phase of the research and was granted prior to the commencement of fieldwork. The reference number for ethics approval was R328/07.

3.2 Qualitative Research

3.2.1 Recruitment

A total of 20 interview participants were recruited for the research. For a qualitative research study there is no formula that will specify the ideal number of participants (Patton, 1990). Rather, a sufficient number of interviews should be conducted so that additional interviews will not contribute significant levels of new information.

Pike (2003) cites examples of destination image studies with 1, 10 and 25 participants respectively. In a study of short break holiday destination attributes in New Zealand Pike found that more than 80% of associations were elicited after 7 qualitative interviews.

The interview participants were residents of Sydney and Melbourne who had travelled interstate for a holiday within the last 6 months or were considering an interstate holiday within the next 6 months. The participants were randomly selected from the White Pages telephone directory by professional market research interviewers from the Ehrenberg Bass

Institute for Marketing Science at the University of South Australia. The recruitment was conducted by telephone.

The broad topic of the study was explained to the selected householders and they were asked whether they would be interested in participating in a face to face interview lasting less than one hour for which they would receive an honorarium of \$50 as a consideration for their time. If interested, they were asked a number of questions relating to their age, sex and travel behaviour and quotas were applied on the basis of age group and travel behaviour. The respondents must have taken an interstate holiday in the past 6 months or be planning to take an interstate holiday within the next 6 months.

The quotas were as follows:

Table 3.1 Recruitment Quotas for Age and Travel Behaviour

	Interviews
Holidayed in last 6 months	
20 – 34 yrs	3
35 – 54 yrs	4
55 plus	3
Intend holidaying in next 6 months	
20 – 34 yrs	3
35 – 54 yrs	3
55 plus	4
Total	20

Where agreeable, a letter was sent to the respondent prior to the interview outlining the project and confirming the details of the appointment.

The characteristics of the respondents are summarised below:

Table 3.2 Interview Participants by Age Group, Gender and Place of Residence

Age / Sex	Melbourne – Malvern / Glen Iris / Brighton	Melbourne – Camberwell, Balwyn, Surrey Hills	Sydney – Newtown / Enmore / Camperdown	Sydney – Lane Cove / Naremburn / Woolstonecraft	Total
F 20 – 34	1	1	1	2	5
M 20 – 34			2		2
F 35 – 54		1	1	1	3
M 35 – 54	2	1			3
F 55 +			1		1
M 55 +	2	2		2	6
Total	5	5	5	5	20

The recruitment questionnaire and letter of confirmation are included in Appendix B.

3.2.2 Interview Procedure

The interviews were conducted in the respondents' homes. A check list of issues and prompts was prepared to guide the interview. Where possible Cognitive Interviewing (CI) procedures (Geiselman and Fisher, 1992) were adopted to encourage a free flowing response and to elicit a wide range of associations.

CI has been used for a range of social science applications including pilot testing of survey questionnaires (Willis, 1999). The technique is based upon cognitive memory theory and the assumption that the inaccessibility of memory traces is a consequence of limited search.

Using CI techniques the interviewer will:

- explore the physical and personal contexts of events;
- request that respondents reconstruct the context of events and remember emotional feelings and thoughts;
- encourage respondents to report all detail without editing;
- extensively probe for detail – as spreading activation will trigger further associations;
- ask respondents to recount events in a variety of orders over time;
- ask respondents to recount events from the perspective of others (self, partner, children);
- avoid direct eye contact during responses as this may inhibit recall;

- not impose time constraints.
- CI also emphasizes social communication techniques which involve:
- transfer of control from the interviewer to the interviewee;
- establishing rapport and reducing respondent anxiety;
- use of open ended questions;
- use of neutral (not leading) questions;
- not interrupting the respondent;
- timing questions with respondents retrieval patterns – i.e. questions should not break the respondents chain of thought.

The interview location should be quiet with a minimum of distractions.

The participants were asked to describe the decision process relating to a specific holiday taken within the past 6 months or the holiday they were considering within the next 6 months. They were asked to describe the situational context, their motivation and the process leading to the identification of the consideration set. Prompts were used relating to situational and motivational cues such as reading the weekend paper or a magazine; travel show on television; word of mouth; browsing the internet, advertising and any other external factors that could elicit a desire to travel e.g. accrued leave at work or school holidays.

Where possible the ordering of associations was identified as a basis for establishing the structure of consideration sets. For example, an individual's need to relax and rejuvenate may elicit a beach holiday as a type of holiday followed by an evoked set of destinations (e.g. Noosa, Pt Douglas, Bali, Fiji). Alternatively a set of goal derived alternatives (e.g. Bali, Clare Valley, Sydney, Barossa Valley) may be derived in response to a specific need such as relaxation that are functionally quite diverse.

The final stage of the interview involved a projective technique (Gordon, 2006) to elicit destination attributes and personal constructs associated with the evaluation of preferred destinations.

Gordon (2006) defines projective techniques as 'a situation or stimulus that encourages a person to project part of him or herself or an idea system on to an external object or to bring it into the interview itself' (p165). Projective measurement techniques have developed from psycho analysis and provide a mechanism for accessing the subconscious memory – giving access to feelings, desires and impulses that may otherwise be blocked from conscious thought. Conscious thought processes exist at a number of levels with stereotypical thinking

and responses present at the surface level, defence mechanisms at the second level, conscious thoughts and feelings at the third level, repressed thoughts and feelings at the fourth level and unconscious thoughts and feelings at the fifth or innermost level.

Gordon (2006) suggests that appropriate use of these techniques should allow a researcher to access thoughts and feelings below the surface level – at least to the third level of consciousness.

From a marketing perspective projective techniques provide a mechanism for accessing the meaning of brand symbols and associations that may be repressed or regarded as unimportant by consumers and rarely evoked to conscious thought⁶. As in the case with Cognitive Interviewing, projective techniques may provide access to memory traces that will not be accessible to routine verbal questioning or cues found within the normal or routine stimulus environment.

For this project a picture sort (Gordon, 2006) was adopted. Pictures include a variety of stimuli that cannot be simply conveyed by words. The research participants were given a set of 19 images and asked to sort the images and to select the 4 that they found to be most attractive. They were then asked to describe why they chose those images and discarded others. The respondent's choices were probed to elicit explanations of choice from which the researcher could infer from the respondent's explanations the underlying personal needs and constructs that influence choice.

Specific questions were also included in regard to South Australia. These questions were introduced at the end of the interview and had no bearing on the specification of destinations that form the basis of the consideration sets reported in the results section.

The discussion guide and visual stimulus material are included at Appendix B.

⁶ Under the salience model brand learning is primarily passive and sub-conscious.

3.2.3 Data Analysis

The interviews were audio taped and transcripts prepared. The interview transcripts formed the basis for the analysis presented in this thesis. The transcripts have been bound under a separate cover and will be retained by the University of South Australia research archive for a period of 7 years.

The analysis of the text was undertaken through mapping of the responses into themes and categories (Jones, 1985) to provide an understanding of consumer motivation and decision processes including the identification of market partitions, evocation cues and evaluative constructs.

3.3 Quantitative Research

3.3.1 Overview

A quantitative survey of Australian travellers was conducted to collect data that would be used to examine the hypotheses.

A longitudinal within subjects design was adopted with sampling conducted in November/December 2008 and July/August 2009.

A web hosted survey instrument was established and a sample of Australian travellers was invited by email to participate in the research by clicking on a link to the questionnaire.

The survey instrument included a choice set of 7 Australian capital cities and a number of data items designed to provide brand salience and brand attitude metrics that could then be used as a basis for testing the research hypotheses. The salience measure was based on the response to a set of situational and motivational cues used to prompt recall of the destinations in the choice set. The attitude measure involved a set of attributes which the respondents were required to scale to indicate level of association with each destination and a set of importance ratings for each attribute. Measures of travel behaviour and travel intention with respect to the destination set were also included in the questionnaire.

Online survey methods provide a number of advantages over traditional forms of data collection with respect to administration, cost and speed. There is evidence however to suggest that online surveys are also associated with lower response rates and problems associated with

coverage due to email/internet penetration and non response bias (Dillman, 2000; Gould, 2004)⁷.

Romaniuk and Sharp (2003) have pointed out that salience measures have generally been collected using telephone interview procedures where the respondents have a limited opportunity to respond to attribute prompts. This approach is said to be more likely to elicit spontaneous associations. Romaniuk and Sharp (2003) conducted three studies of the relationship between salience and defection rates in subscription markets. In the third study they used a mail survey to collect the data and hypothesised that the relationship between salience and defection observed in studies 1 and 2 using a telephone interviewing procedure would not be observed in the study using data collection by mail as the frequency effects that underpin the salience model are less pronounced when respondents have time to contemplate their answers (Alba and Marmorstein, 1987). The results of study 3 demonstrated however a relationship between salience and defection rates suggesting that a mail survey was an appropriate method of collecting salience data. It was expected that a web hosted questionnaire would provide a similar response environment to a mail survey which could have been a limitation of the quantitative methodology⁸.

3.3.2 Survey Instrument

To meet the research objectives a survey questionnaire was designed which included measures of salience and image based utility for each of the Australian capital cities. The survey instruments for the benchmark and follow up surveys are included at Appendix B.

The choice of travel destination is unlike the choice of a product from a repertoire or subscription market in which there is a discrete set of products or brands. The set of potential travel destinations is extensive. While some contextual boundaries could be used to narrow the set of travel destinations evoked in response to stimulus cues⁹ the number of choice alternatives evoked by respondents is likely to be diverse with low frequencies of response for many destinations.

⁷ PeoplePulse (2008), a supplier of on-line survey tools, reported the results of an analysis of 199 on-line surveys in the United States which showed median response rates of 26% for surveys that offered an incentive of some type and at least one follow-up email. The surveys represented a total of 523,790 invitations sent to potential respondents. It was also noted that response rates are highly variable depending on a range of factors including the target audience, personal relevance of the survey topic, the type and value of incentive, the wording and personalization of the invitation to participate, the length of the questionnaire and the number of follow-ups of non-respondents. Response rates of less than 5% may be experienced where the survey is of little relevance to the target audience and there is no incentive or reminder emails to non-respondents.

⁸ Thelen and Woodside (1996) distinguish between automatic cognitive processing and strategic thinking and limited the time for attribute cue to store associations in a telephone interview to 3 seconds as a longer period was said to allow for strategic thinking.

⁹ E.G. Thinking about adventure holidays in Australia

An alternative approach to eliciting the destination associations is to prompt respondents with a discrete destination set. Romaniuk (2006) has compared prompted and unprompted methods of determining brand associations and recommends that respondents are prompted with the brand set and associations are measured using a free choice, pick any method.

Some theorists (Lynch and Srull, 1982; Rossiter and Percy, 1987) have argued that unprompted recall should be used for purchase decisions that rely on memory based retrieval (e.g. tourism) while prompted recall should be used in situations that involve selection from a set of products present within the purchase environment (e.g. at the supermarket). As Romaniuk (2006) points out, however, it is rarely the case that brand recall is entirely memory or stimulus based, but is more likely to be a combination of factors.

In comparing prompted and unprompted brand association measures Romaniuk (2006) found that unprompted measures tended to bias against non users retrieving brand associations and brand associations for smaller brands. Unprompted measures are less likely to elicit responses from non brand users or for brands with smaller market share. It was recommended that brand prompts are used to more fully capture brand associations.

As an outcome of the qualitative component of the research it was found that Australia's capital cities provide a similar range of benefits to potential visitors and may be considered as choice alternatives. It was decided therefore to prompt respondents in the quantitative component of the research with a set of 7 Australian capital cities as a set of tourism brands or choice objects.

A battery of 13 situational and motivational cues was developed on the basis of the results of the qualitative research. While choice alternatives may be evoked on the basis of benefits sought, stimulus cues may be destination attributes; situational factors; and destination attitudes. For this study the stimulus cues used to derive the salience measure were restricted to benefits sought and situational contexts that were independent of the physical attributes of any particular destination i.e. were not descriptive of the destination set or likely to be strongly linked with a particular destination. The respondents were asked 'Thinking about a city based holiday in Australia please click on the place or places that come to mind in response to the following phrases'. The responses were recorded as binary variables: that is 1 if a city was evoked and 0 if not evoked.

The multi attribute attitude measure was defined on the basis of a battery of descriptive attribute statements. The respondents were asked to rate each of the destinations on a five point scale to indicate the extent to which they associated each city in the choice set with each

of the descriptive attributes. The scale was labeled as follows: 1 = no association; 2 = weak association; 3 = moderate association; 4 = strong association; 5 = very strong association. The respondents were also asked to rate the importance of each attribute when thinking about a city based holiday in Australia on a five point scale from 1 = not important to 5 = very important.

There were 9 attribute items with these items derived from the results of the qualitative research and previous tourism research (Pike, 2002). The attribute items were designed to reflect the perceived image of each destination and reflect therefore the brand attitude model of destination choice.

Other measures included the Australian cities visited for the purposes of a holiday or short break; the Australian cities that respondents had visited for business purposes; the cities that respondents intended to visit for a holiday or short break within the next 12 months; and demographic profile of respondents.

The survey questionnaire was web hosted and the order of presentation of the salience battery and the brand attitude statement battery was varied at random between respondents. The brand attitude statement battery was directly followed by the question relating to the importance rating of each attribute in all cases.

The survey instrument for the follow up survey included the set of stimulus cues for the salience battery; the set of destination attributes and importance ratings for the attitude measure; and the cities visited between the benchmark and follow up surveys.

3.3.3 Data Collection Procedures

The sample frame consisted of a database of consumers who had requested information from the South Australian Tourism Commission (SATC) and provided an email address.

The data collection methodology was longitudinal in design with a benchmark survey conducted in November/December 2008 and a follow up survey of the benchmark respondents conducted in July/August 2009.

The (SATC) database consisted of 13,352 records distributed across State / Territory of residence as follows:

Table 3.3 Distribution of Database Records

New South Wales	1952	14.6%
Victoria	2093	15.7%
Queensland	817	6.1%
South Australia	7261	54.4%
Western Australia	480	3.6%
Tasmania	143	1.1%
Northern Territory	70	0.5%
ACT	191	1.4%
Overseas	345	2.6%
Total	13,352	100.0%

For the benchmark survey emails were sent to the 4,045 records from New South Wales and Victoria in November 2008 inviting those individuals to participate in the survey. A survey prize draw consisting of a Myer shopping voucher valued at \$250 was offered to motivate response. An overview of the project was included as an attachment to the email. Copies of the email text and overview letter are included at Appendix B.

A reminder email was sent to the selected email addresses one week after the initial email.

As the number of completed interviews did not reach the base line target of 200 responses by the close off date for the survey prize draw the prize draw was extended and an invitation issued by email to a further 1,000 persons selected at random from the database.

The benchmark survey questionnaire was live between the 19th of November 2008 and the 11th of December 2008.

At the conclusion of the benchmark survey period a total of 232 completed interview records were received which represented a response rate of 6% after excluding bounce backs from non current email addresses.

Response rates to self completion email surveys vary considerably depending on the topic and/or sponsor however response rates ranging between 5% and 20% have been reported (Adam and McDonald, 2003; Gould, 2004).

The follow up survey was launched on 19th July 2009 and a total of 128 usable responses was received representing a re interview rate of 55%.

3.3.4 Data Analysis

The data from the benchmark and follow up surveys was established electronically as an SPSS data file.

Following preliminary analysis of the data a total of 3 records were excluded. One record was excluded as a duplicate and a further 2 records were excluded as no responses had been provided to any of the stimulus cues. The valid benchmark sample therefore was 229 responses. None of the follow up survey records were excluded following the data cleaning process.

The data was analysed descriptively through frequency count and cross tabulation. The brand salience and brand attitude models were operationalised through the calculation of scores for each of the cities in the choice set from the benchmark survey results. The salience scores were calculated in accordance with the method recommended by Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) where the number of times each city was evoked in response to the set of salience cues was summed for each respondent.

The formula was as follows:

$$\text{Sal } j = \sum_{i=1}^n S_{ij}$$

Where S_{ij} represents whether city j is evoked in response to the prompt i .

The mean salience score and standard deviation for each city is presented below in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Destination Salience Scores – Mean and Standard Deviation

	Adelaide	Brisbane	Canberra	Hobart	Melbourne	Perth	Sydney
Destination salience score:							
Mean	4.6	4.3	2.7	5.0	5.0	4.4	5.1
St. deviation	3.5	3.1	2.9	3.2	3.4	2.9	3.2

The distribution of salience scores for Adelaide is illustrated below in Figure 3.1.

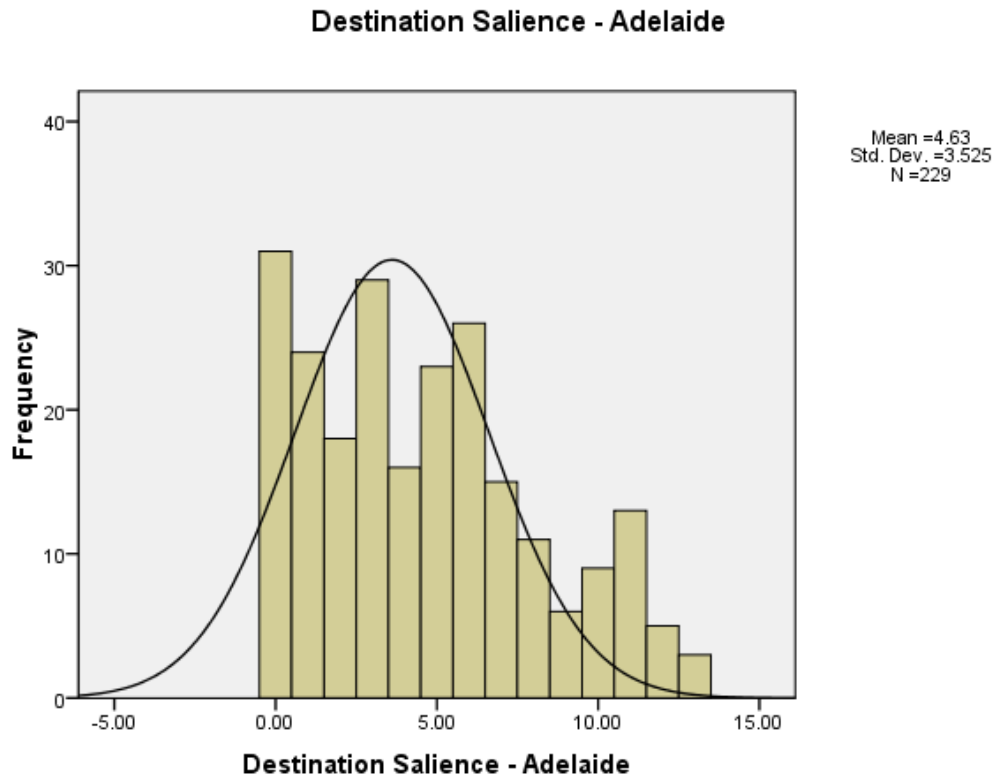


Figure 3.1. Distribution of Destination Salience Scores for Adelaide

The multi attribute destination attitude scores were calculated using the Fishbein attitude toward object model (Fishbein, 1963) where the score for each city for each respondent was the sum of the product of belief rating for each city against each attribute and the evaluative or importance rating for that attribute.

The formula was as follows:

$$\text{Attitude } j = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \bullet e_i$$

Where b_i is the strength of belief that city j offers attribute i and e_i is the evaluative component or the importance of attribute i in determining preference for the city j .

The mean and standard deviation calculated from the destination attitude scores for each city are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Destination Attitude Scores – Mean and Standard Deviation

	Adelaide	Brisbane	Canberra	Hobart	Melbourne	Perth	Sydney
Destination attitude score:							
Mean	100.4	83.9	76.9	87.9	125.6	83.9	123.8
St. deviation	32.3	31.8	31.3	31.0	36.0	32.0	37.3

The distribution of destination attitude scores for Adelaide is presented below in Figure 3.2.

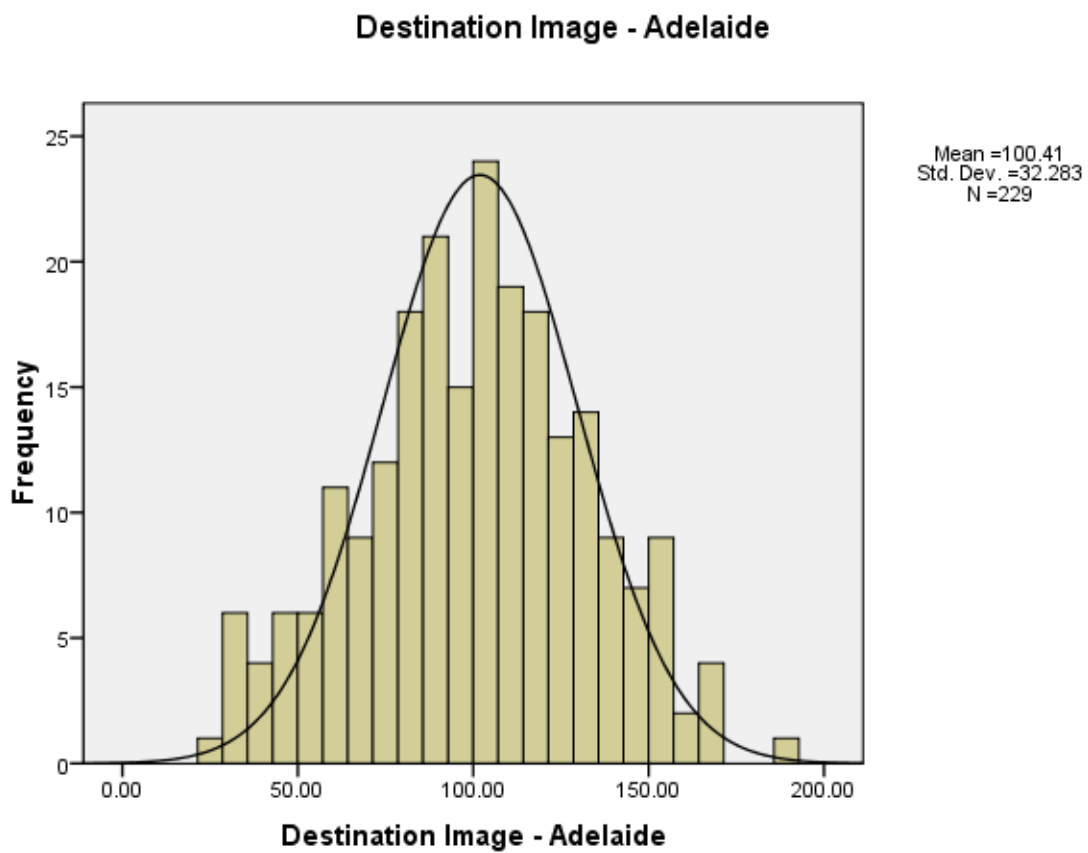


Figure 3.2 Distribution of Destination Attitude (Image) Scores for Adelaide

Logistic regression was used to test univariate and multivariate relationships between salience and attitude scores as independent variables and intention to visit and subsequent visitation as dependent variables.

Logistic regression was adopted as it is an appropriate analytical technique in situations where the dependent variable is nominal with two categories and the independent variables are

continuous. The technique preserves the power of the continuous variables without requiring any assumptions regarding their distribution (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000).

The data analysis procedures used to examine each of the research questions is described in further detail in the results section in Chapter 5.

4. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The primary objective of the qualitative research was to provide the foundation for the specification of a salience model of destination choice, the validity of which is to be tested quantitatively as a subsequent stage of the project. The specification of a salience measurement model rests on an understanding of the travel benefits sought by consumers; the consumption and purchase environments relating to destination choice; the brand attributes and attitudes that will elicit a destination for consideration.

The results of the qualitative interviews presented in this section provide a summary of the places evoked by the interview respondents when asked to think about their recent domestic travel experiences or a travel experience they were planning in Australia within the next six months. The responses have been classified on the basis of their apparent trip motivation providing therefore a classification of trip characteristics and context which is goal derived. The results of the qualitative component of the study have been published by the Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (Trembath, 2008).

4.2 Holiday Travel Motivated by Discovery / Exploration

An important goal for many travellers is the desire to explore or discover their own country and more broadly the world. While constraints such as available time, finances, interests of family/friends may inhibit this desire it was a component of travel motivation for most of the respondents.

For many individuals the discovery destination set may include overseas countries, particularly younger individuals, many of whom are exclusively focused on overseas travel. While families are generally constrained by the needs of their children and were in most cases not interested in travelling long distances or touring by car there was a component of this market that was interested in a substantial travel experience in Australia with their children that would be remembered as a significant family experience. Parents are interested in showing the country to their children. Again this may be a substitute for an overseas travel experience.

The respondents interested in a discovery orientated trip in Australia were more likely to be in the empty nest life stage.

Some examples of the places evoked for this type of holiday are summarised below in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Examples of Discovery Orientated Travel

Activities / experiences	Context / Profile	Destination attributes	Destinations
Sightseeing	Retired couple.	Iconic nature. Isolation .	Bungle Bungles, The Ghan to Darwin.
Touring by car. Sightseeing.	Retired couple.	Scenery – variety of things to see without driving long distances.	Tasmania, New Zealand.
Travelling around Australia. Camping. Enjoying food and wine in a natural environment.	Young family – trip of a lifetime. One child, 8 years. Husband had resigned from job to travel. Thought about overseas but too expensive.	Natural / undeveloped. Known for good food & wine. Crayfish – Robe Oysters – Coffin Bay Wine – Barossa / Robe / Margaret River.	Robe, Barossa Valley, Coffin Bay, Perth, Margaret River, Kimberly, East coast.
Sightseeing Spiritual experience	Retired male. Enjoyed feeling of separation from every day life.	Iconic nature.	Bungle Bungles, Kakadu.
Sightseeing. Education for children. Meeting people	Young family. Husband is self employed & finds it difficult to get away – trip was 5 days only. Flew to Uluru.	Iconic nature.	Ayers Rock, Kings Canyon.
Touring by car. Sightseeing. Cycling.	Young female student / travelling with boyfriend / constrained by money so travelling in Aus rather than overseas. Travelling for around 4 weeks. Cycling / walking for day trips.	Natural beauty. Things to see without travelling long distances. Recommended in Lonely Planet cycling guide to Australia.	Tasmania, South Island NZ.
Experiencing a different culture / aboriginal culture	As above. May feel unsure about accessing aboriginal culture in an appropriate manner. Would do this as a volunteer or attending an event such as the Ghana festival.	Cultural difference. Spirituality	Tibet / India, Arnhem Land.

Activities / experiences	Context / Profile	Destination attributes	Destinations
Aboriginal culture	Retired couple – Sydney. Had frequent flyer points so flew to Darwin and booked with a tour operator from Darwin. 1 to 2 weeks.	Aboriginal cultural experiences	Darwin, Kakadu, Arnhem Land.
Touring by car	Retired couple	New – haven't been before	Tasmania, Northern Qld – Cape York.
Touring by car Sightseeing Camping	Couple – Sydney. Like to camp in national parks for short breaks but will do this for longer touring holiday also.	National parks. Walking	Great Ocean Road, Grampians, Uluru.
Touring by car. Sightseeing.	Young male – travelling with group of friends by car. 2 weeks duration.	Iconic natural attractions. Aboriginal culture. Also freedom / release / slower pace of life in the outback.	Uluru, Kakadu, Whitsundays, Daintree, Tasmania.
Touring by car. Sightseeing.	Retired couple. Have business interests in Adelaide and enjoy driving to SA. Friends tend to talk about WA.	Scenery. Wildflowers.	Perth/ Freemantle / Margaret River, Tasmania / St Helens, Great Ocean Road, Grampians, Robe, Adelaide.
Touring by car. Learning about new places / cultures.	Mid life stage family – Sydney Nth Shore – appear to allocate significant resources to travel .	Different geographically, and / or culturally.	New Zealand, Tasmania, Kimberley, India, China.
Touring by car	Retired couple – Sydney North Shore.	Iconic nature.	Kimberly, Kakadu.
Touring by car	As above	Lots to see Not to dispersed	Tasmania – car touring Perth & car touring from Perth – Albany.
Iconic rail journeys	As above		Ghan to Darwin, Indian Pacific to Perth.

This group can be summarised into two broad experience categories consisting of:

- Travellers with an interest in experiencing the iconic natural features of the country including Uluru and the Red Centre, Kakadu, Broome, the Kimberly, the Great Barrier Reef, the Daintree.

- A second group whose members can be regarded more broadly as sightseers or tourists – these individuals are interested in seeing new parts of the country but from a broader less focused perspective – destinations in this context were Tasmania, the Great Ocean Road, South Western Australia, and also the great rail journeys – the Ghan and the Indian Pacific.

There was some interest in accessing and learning more about aboriginal culture, provided they were able to do this in an authentic and meaningful way. Respondents were unsure however in some instances about how they would achieve this.

There was an element of spreading geographic interest with travellers motivated to look around the next corner once they had become familiar with a particular destination. A couple from Sydney for example with an interest in camping in natural areas had become aware of the Grampians after attending a music festival in Ararat and planned to visit in the future in conjunction with a trip on the Great Ocean Road. Another individual had formed a desire to visit a place in Tasmania because he used to sail past it during the Sydney to Hobart yacht race and thought it looked like an interesting place to visit.

This category of travel will also include festivals and events at which there is an opportunity to experience or learn about new things such as arts festivals or writers festivals.

4.3 Holiday Travel Motivated by Socialisation / Relatedness

The research provided examples of holiday behaviour that was motivated primarily by social and relatedness needs. For young people domestic holiday activity in a number of instances was undertaken with groups of friends to socialise and have fun e.g. music festival, wine region, houseboat.

For families the annual beach holiday represents a chance to reconnect with immediate and extended family and friends in a relaxed, comfortable environment. The annual family holiday was often undertaken at a familiar location that was not too distant from the respondent's usual place of residence. Respondents would return to the same place year on year as they needed to satisfy the needs of a range of family members and did not want to take risks with this experience. If they find a place that all the members of the family enjoy they will return to it.

A number of female respondents stated that they liked meeting people while on holidays and they tended to be more outgoing and sociable in these circumstances. There is the sense that

people can perhaps let their hair down while on holidays without the consequences they might be subject to at home.

A further element of relatedness needs is social approval and places that are discussed and have aspirational appeal amongst the travellers social network or reference group will also be more likely to be considered.

Examples of holidays undertaken primarily for relatedness or social needs are summarised below.

Table 4.2 Examples of Social / Relatedness Orientated Travel

Activities / experiences	Context / Profile	Destination attributes	Destinations
Reconnecting with family & friends.	Mature family – Melb. Summer family holidays.	Activities for everyone, familiar, no surprises, not too far away.	Mt Martha.
City break with friends.	Young male and friends. Melb. Short duration. Spur of the moment trip. Jump in the car and go. Long weekend.	Things to do at the destination.	Major cities – Sydney, Brisbane, Adelaide.
Attending music festival	Young female – Melb. Large group of friends – early 20s – short break < 1 week. Influenced by one opinion leader within the group.	Music, pubs, warm weather.	Byron Bay Blues and Roots Festival.
House boating	As above – could be an alternative to a festival trip.	Food and wine / party.	Murray River.
Family holiday	Young family – Melb.	Activities for the children.	Gold Coast.
City break to visit friends	Retired couple – drove to Melbourne – 5 days. Took day trips with friends from Melb – Yarra valley.		Melbourne, Yarra Valley.
City breaks to visit friends	Young couple, Syd. May combine with day trips / sightseeing.	Friends/ new experiences.	Melbourne, Perth, Margaret River.

Activities / experiences	Context / Profile	Destination attributes	Destinations
Family holiday / Relaxation	Mid life stage mother – north shore Sydney. – may holiday with extended family – 1 week.	Beach – but not too rough. Theme parks. Kids club. Private houses available for rent (at beach). Activities for children. Sports for adults – golf, tennis, wind surfing. OK to take dogs.	Byron Bay, Gold Coast, Club Med, Lindeman Island, Kulburra.
Family holiday / relaxation	Young family, Syd north shore – may holiday with extended family.	Activities for children and adults. Secure	Hamilton Island, Hyatt Regency Coolum, Fiji.
Socialising. Eating / drinking.	Young female Sydney – travelled with group of friends.	Wineries. Not too far to travel.	Hunter Valley, Canberra.

For these families there were two main categories of destination:

- beaches and other places within a day trip, by road, from their usual place of residence, where they would make their own arrangements by renting a holiday house or taking a caravan;
- commercial resorts, often accessed by air, which offered a range of activities and support for both adults and children. For these experiences the actual destination location may be less important than the resort i.e. the consideration set is the resort rather than the place – although the Gold Coast is likely to be considered here.

The family traveller was the most constrained of all respondents. In particular, they are not interested in travelling long distances with children and tend to have limited time and potentially financial resources. The needs of their children will influence destination choice and they must be confident that the whole family will enjoy the experience.

Younger people in some instances enjoyed road trips with friends but were more likely to enjoy activities such as city breaks, music festivals, wine regions and house boating with the emphasis on socialization and having fun.

4.4 Holiday Travel Motivated by Relaxation / Indulgence

Stimulus avoidance or the need to relax is a negative, or push, motivation as opposed to a pull or ego enhancing motivational factor (Rossiter and Percy, 1987). While the need to relax and escape the everyday routine will influence travel across a range of holiday circumstances it will be the major factor for some holiday experiences and in these circumstances may be accompanied by sensory gratification e.g. sun baking, swimming, enjoyment of food and wine, spas / health treatments, romance and leisure shopping.

The destinations evoked by respondents for this type of experience were as follows.

Table 4.3 Examples of Relaxation / Indulgence Orientated Travel

Activities / experiences	Context / profile	Destination attributes	Destinations
Painting Photography Fishing	Male – 50s Melbourne.	Seaside. Not too far away / daytrip.	Port Philip Bay, Dandenongs.
Enjoying wine and food	As above – has lived in SA.	Cellar doors. Cafes. B&B accommodation.	Clare Valley, McLaren Vale, Barossa, Yarra Valley.
Enjoying food & wine, sightseeing	Young female, Melbourne – travelling with one or two friends for short break. Liked the beauty of wine regions rather than tasting wine.	Supporting infrastructure / cafes, restaurants, attractions. Markets.	Perth / Margaret River, Broome, Hobart, Adelaide.
Relaxation	Mature couple – Sydney.	Warm weather. Beach. Island.	Whitsundays, Port Douglas.
Relaxation, sightseeing, recreational shopping	Mature couple – Sydney. Had business interests in SA and knew Adelaide well.	Relaxed / charming city.	Adelaide / Glenelg
Relaxation / rejuvenation	Mid life stage mother – late 30s – 40s – Sydney north shore stress break for self – 5 days.	Health retreat. Exercise / Spa / Diet / Meditation.	Glengana, Golden Door
Relaxation / Romance	Short break with partner.	Natural beauty, Relaxing / Intimate	Lord Howe Island
Spirituality	Female Sydney – Yoga teacher	Meeting spiritual leaders Initiation	India Northern Rivers area NSW

Destination choice that is stimulated primarily by relaxation and sensory gratification will be most commonly focused on a particular destination and may also include beach resorts, city breaks and wine regions. This category also includes special events such as food and wine, music or arts festivals at which the stimulation of the senses is an important motivational factor. This type of travel may include aspirational product and luxury travel magazines were a source of ideas for one respondent in this regard.

‘When I come across things like Gourmet Traveller or something like that I love looking at those sorts of magazines, and having a bit nose about how much money is being able to go those beautiful destinations and food places that they have in there’. Female, 18 – 35 years, Melbourne.

4.5 Holiday Travel Motivated by Adventure / Physical Activity

While physical activities will represent a component of most holiday experiences, for some individuals the activity represents the main focus for the trip. For example, a holiday maker may spend some time fishing while on their family beach holiday and in another instance they may travel with a tour operator to a specific destination for a sport fishing experience.

While social factors are also important for this type of holiday the primary consideration is that the physical activity provides the basis for destination choice. There may also be a competitive element and an interest in the achievement of trophy experiences e.g. walking a famous trail such as the Overland Track or four wheel driving on an outback trail such as the Oodnadatta Track.

This category of travel will also include special events in which there is an element of participation such as the Great Ocean and Ottway Ride in Victoria, Masters Games, World Police and Fire Games.

The examples of this type of travel experience described by the respondents were as follows.

Table 4.4 Examples of Adventure / Physically Active Travel

Activities / experiences	Context / Profile	Destination attributes	Destinations
Hiking / camping	Young male and friends. Had been involved in Scouts at a senior level.	Challenging / more remote.	Victorian alps, South West Victoria, Snowy Mountains, Tasmania – Overland Track, New Zealand.
Sailing	Male (late 40's 50's), Melb. Has competed in Hamilton Island event annually over recent years. Enjoys male companionship, competition. Member of yacht squadron.	Natural beauty – opportunity to compete, other yachts.	Hamilton Island Race Week – with male friends. May visit Freycinet Peninsula / Hawkesbury River with family / friends for recreational sailing.
Golf	Group of male friends – do same trip each year.	Good quality regional golf courses. Not too far to travel between courses.	Horsham, Dunkeld, Swan Hill.
Fishing	Travel with group of male friends.	Whiting.	South Australia but not specific.
Bushwalking	Single male 50's Melb – holidays alone or with friends.	Wilderness. Natural beauty. Haven't been there before. Isolated but with access to supporting infrastructure.	Cradle Mountain, Flinders Ranges.
Cycle touring	Retired male, Melb – enjoys cycling with a group of friends. Around one week.	Mainly intrastate. Interesting countryside. Secure / good roads. Supporting infrastructure / hotels (wineries for some).	Ararat, Mt Buffalo, East Gippsland, Great Ocean Road, Penola (SA).
Bushwalking		Remote / wilderness. Unique scenery. Supporting infrastructure. Security	Grampians, Wilson's Promontory, Tasmania, Milford Track NZ, Flinders Ranges.
Bushwalking / camping	Young couple.	Bush / national park / beach.	Grampians.

4.6 Consideration Sets For Australian Holiday Travel

The choice of destination, and the importance of the destination in the travel decision process, will be determined by the consumers goals, the travel context, situational constraints and the extent to which the travel decision is determined by the consumers' needs or the needs of others in the travel party – in particular children. These elements will converge and crossover to a degree and the specification of a set of discrete product categories is an artificial process to some extent. The specification of market categories and the choice alternatives that apply within each provides a basis however for the specification of a salience based model of destination choice and a framework for thinking about product development, the competitive environment and communication issues.

On the basis of the results of the qualitative research, and the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, the following categories of Australian domestic travel are proposed.

Table 4.5 Typology of Goal Derived Consideration Sets for Domestic Travel

Category	Benefits sought	Context	Attributes	Choice alternatives
Active adventure	Adventure / activity focus. Social / relatedness. May be competitive. 'Trophy' experiences.	Couples / friends. Males may travel with group of male friends. Activity / experience determines choice of destination.	Walking. Cycling. 4WD. Hunting. Sport fishing. Sailing. Golf. Events.	Outback / 4WD trails. Walking trails Overland Track. Sailing Whitsundays. Mass participation cycling event – Great Ocean Road. Range of destinations linked to the activity.
Beach resort	Relaxation. Sensory gratification. Lifestyle / good living. Relatedness.	Short break for couple / friends / families. Will access interstate markets through direct flight access. Resort may be choice object.	Sun and sand. Water based activities. Restaurants & cafes. Activities for children.	Pt Douglas, Noosa, Broome, Coolum, Hamilton Island, Gold Coast, Byron Bay Incl. overseas – Bali, Fiji .
City break	Sensory gratification. Excitement. Relatedness.	Short break. May involve catching up with family / friends. Travel as couple or group of friends.	Nightlife / entertainment. Restaurants. Museums/ galleries. Festivals & events. Shopping. Interesting day trip.	Melbourne, Sydney, Brisbane, Adelaide, Perth, Canberra, Hobart.

Category	Benefits sought	Context	Attributes	Choice alternatives
Drive touring	Discovery. Sensory gratification / sightseeing.	Travel with partner or friend/s. Trip will be 1 week to 3 weeks. May incorporate another goal or holiday type e.g. an event, wine region, wilderness escape. Focus is on touring routes and regions rather than specific destinations.	Plenty to see and do. No long boring stretches. Nature / food & wine. Interesting towns.	Great Ocean Road, Tasmania, New Zealand, South Western Australia, Robe / Barossa / Clare Valley (itinerary built on food & wine associations).
Family & friends	Relatedness. Relaxation.	Family or extended family – often annual – 1 week to 2 weeks. Less discretionary. Will return to same place year on year.	Range of activities. Will please all members of the family. Not too far to drive. If interstate direct flight access.	Beach locations – rented house / unit. Resort – with child care facilities – secure. Theme parks e.g. Gold Coast.
Iconic nature	Discovery. May have educative component – parents showing the country to their children.	Longer duration. May be alternative to overseas trip. Couples, younger friendship groups, families. May form basis of round Australia trip. May also fly direct and stay and / or take a tour.	Well known – unique scenic attractions. World heritage.	Uluru, Kakadu, Bungle Bungles / Kimberly, Ningaloo Reef, Daintree, Whitsundays, Pt Douglas (Great Barrier Reef).
Wellness retreat	Rejuvenation.	Short break to detox, focus on self and rejuvenate. Singles / couples. One week or less. The resort may be the choice object.	Range of activities / spas, massage, meditation, exercise.	Branded retreat e.g. Golden Door, Glengana
Wilderness escape	Soft adventure. Rejuvenation. Separation / escape from the everyday.	May involve family / couple / friendship group. Destination focus.	Nature based recreation. National parks. Camping. Bush walking.	Cradle Mountain, Grampians, Flinders Ranges, Wilson's Promontory, VIC/NSW alps (more adventurous).

Category	Benefits sought	Context	Attributes	Choice alternatives
Wine region	Sensory gratification. 'Lifestyle / good living' – similar to beach resort in this respect. Celebration. Relatedness. Relaxation.	Short break for couple / friends – particularly in cooler weather. Hedonistic daytrips. Unless there is access to interstate flights may be primarily intrastate / day trip or component of a longer touring holiday.	Wine tasting. B&B accomm. Restaurants & cafes. Art galleries. Cycling / walking trails. Food and wine events.	Barossa, Clare Valley, McLaren Vale, Yarra Valley, Hunter Valley, Margaret River.

4.7 Consideration and Choice

The results of the qualitative research demonstrate that domestic travel will incorporate a wide range of goals, experiences and choice alternatives. Goal structures were fluid within individuals and the destinations considered were variable on this basis.

We usually have a family holiday, then usually an exploring holiday, where we go somewhere new, and find out about that place, and then usually just 5 days where I'll go to a health retreat and to get relaxed, back in focus and fit again, so usually 3 holidays a year. Female, 35 – 54 years, North Shore Sydney.

It was evident that consideration of a destination will be influenced by word of mouth and more broadly by references to the destination through the media, the digital environment and other sources – which may not necessarily be in a travel context.

I suppose it easier to think yes let's go to Sydney because it's a lot easier to think of stuff to do in Sydney because the national media focus is more on Sydney than Adelaide. So people go Adelaide, what do you do there. To an extent they do that. Sydney once again there is the Harbor Bridge and the Opera House. Sydney is just the first thing that comes to mind because it's where everybody else goes. Young male, 20 – 34 years, Melbourne.

You see so much on television and read so much about it and talk to people who have been and it just seems like a place to go to and see country and I like looking at scenery. Male, 35 – 54 years, Melbourne talking about Tasmania.

I guess I have never heard anybody say South Australia is amazingly beautiful. It may well be but actually when I go there I will probably think it is, but people remark so much about somewhere like Tasmania. Female, 20 – 34 years, Sydney.

I have been to Fremantle and Perth many years ago..... But we hear so much about how enjoyable it is. People talk about it more than Adelaide by the way. Retired Male, Sydney.

The research suggested that for certain types of travel the destination may be a secondary consideration when weighed against factors such as the activities offered, price, security, travel distance and access. In this circumstance the consumer may choose from a set of resort packages or experientially focused tour offerings and the consideration set will not necessarily be constructed from destinations as competing brands. A travel brand for example might be a resort e.g. Club Med where the destination is an attribute of the brand – Club Med Lindeman Island, Hyatt Regency Coolum.

The travel brand may also be a wholesaler, e.g. Qantas Holidays, with the product offerings a series of packaged tours in which the destination may be one attribute along with price and accommodation.

The type of travel in which the destinations appear to most closely function as brands was discovery orientated travel. This was also the type of travel in which the decision process appeared to approximate the process of choice described by Um and Crompton (1992) in which respondents had a set of places they wanted to visit with a prototypical or dream destination at the top of the list and a graded preference structure associated with the other destinations and the final choice of destination determined primarily by constraints.

I may have 3 or 4 things on the list but I can only get a week off of work then I will go “oh okay well that one suits my plans better”. The one that takes two weeks will still be there and if I get two weeks then I will take that one. Male, 35 – 54 years, Melbourne.

That was a bit of a sacrifice in lots of ways (returning to study) because I knew I wouldn't be working enough to have enough money really to go overseas. So I thought well this is a chance to see Australia which is something that I haven't really done I haven't been to that many places. Female, 20 – 34 years, Sydney.

Destinations associated with beaches, scenery and/or good living may also be more likely to function as brands e.g. Noosa, Gold Coast, Barossa.

The results of the qualitative research suggest that conscious evaluation of a set of destinations was rare. It was more likely that the most desired destination would be investigated and if that option was rejected the next place on the preference list would be researched. The process was sequential evaluation rather than evaluation of a competitive set at a point in time.

In a number of instances there was evidence that for family holidays familiarity is highly valued and families will return to the same place year after year if they are satisfied with the destination.

I mean, Andrew's sister they have just been to, about twelve months ago they went to the Sheraton in Fiji and they said that after spending ten years at Coolum for a similar experience it wasn't worth the effort going to Fiji..... But they just thought they would try something different, and for a very similar experience it wasn't worth the five hour flight, save your money and go to Coolum. We are quite influenced by these people closest to us. Female, 20-34 years, living with spouse and young children, Lane Cove.

For the activity focused categories destination choice was mediated through the linkage between the destination and the experience and there is potential to brand destinations in this context through appropriate product development and linkages.

4.8 Summary

The qualitative research provides a model of consideration for Australian domestic travel where consideration sets are goal and context derived and are consistent therefore with a salience model of destination choice. The results demonstrate the impact of context on destination choice and provide insights into the decision process for domestic travel.

The qualitative research provides a foundation for the development of the quantitative component of the research.

5. QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The problem addressed by the research is

Is the brand salience model of consumer behaviour applicable to destination marketing?

To formally examine this problem a quantitative survey of Australian travellers was conducted using a longitudinal design. The data was collected using an internet hosted survey instrument with data items designed to measure brand salience, or the likelihood of consideration in purchase situations, for a set of Australian capital cities (Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004a). Data items were also included relating to an alternative model of destination choice based on a Fishbein multi attribute attitude model of consumer behaviour (Fishbein, 1963).

Other data items included previous travel behaviour with respect to the destination set, the Australian cities the respondents were planning to visit for a holiday or short break within the next 12 months and demographic profile. The benchmark survey was conducted in November and December 2008 and a sample of 229 usable responses was achieved.

The follow up survey was conducted in late July and August 2009. Data items included the stimulus cues and attitudinal prompts from the benchmark survey plus travel behaviour in the period since the benchmark survey and travel intentions. A total of 128 usable responses was achieved.

The results of the analysis of the survey data are presented in this section. The detailed methodology and data analysis procedures are described in section 3. The survey questionnaires are included at Appendix B.

5.2 Survey Sample

The characteristics of the survey samples are presented below in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Sample Characteristics

Gender	Benchmark Sample	Follow up sample	Australian population aged 21 plus (1)
Female	58%	55%	51%
Male	42%	45%	49%
Total	229 100%	128 100%	100%
Age Group (2)			
21 to 35 yrs	15%	15%	28%
36 to 45 yrs	20%	21%	20%
46 to 55 yrs	37%	31%	19%
56 to 65 yrs	16%	22%	15%
More than 65 yrs	6%	6%	17%
Not stated	6%	5%	
Total	229 100%	128 100%	100%
Place of residence			
Adelaide	17%	17%	
Other SA	4%	3%	
Brisbane	1%	2%	
Other QLD	2%	2%	
Canberra	1%	2%	
Other ACT	< 1%	<1%	
Hobart	1%	2%	
Other TAS	< 1%	0%	
Melbourne	30%	29%	
Other VIC	9%	10%	
Perth	1%	1%	
Other WA	1%	2%	
Sydney	21%	20%	
Other NSW	10%	11%	
Total	229 100%	128 100%	

1. Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2008. Cat. 3235.0

2. The sample was self selecting and there were no respondents aged less than 21 years.

Table 5.1 (Continued) Sample Characteristics

Cities Visited	Benchmark Sample – Last trip	Benchmark Sample – Last two trips	Follow up sample – Cities visited since benchmark survey
Adelaide	21%	22%	18%
Brisbane	15%	17%	10%
Canberra	9%	9%	9%
Hobart	6%	5%	5%
Melbourne	25%	21%	24%
Perth	4%	6%	4%
Sydney	12%	15%	18%
None	8%	4%	12%
Total	229 100%	434 * 100%	218 * 100%

* Percentage base is responses rather than cases.

The sample was selected from a marketing database developed by the South Australian Tourism Commission and reflects therefore the characteristics of the database and sampling procedure. Initially residents of Victoria and New South Wales were invited to participate in the research. A further sample of South Australian residents was invited to participate in the study to boost the sample size. Further details of the sampling procedure are provided in Chapter 3.

Compared to the Australian population aged 21 or more years females were over represented at the benchmark survey (58% compared with 51% in the general population) as were persons aged between 46 and 55 years of age (37% compared with 19% within the general population). At the follow up survey females were again over represented (55%) as were persons aged between 46 and 65 years of age (53% compared with 34% in the general population).

The bias observed in the sample when compared to the general population restricts the capacity to generalise the results to the broader population although it does not invalidate the relationships observed between the variables included in the research with respect to the sample under consideration.

5.3 The Consistency of Consideration Over Situational and Motivational Contexts

As an outcome of the literature review assumptions were identified relating to the consistency of consideration in response to situational and motivational contexts. The salience model assumes that consideration is fluid and goal derived, with goals linked to context. In contrast the attitude model assumes that consideration is more stable and less likely to vary by context. The first hypothesis examines these issues and was posited as follows:

H1a: If a salience model is valid, there will be a low correlation between the recall of an Australian holiday destination in response to a situational or motivational cue present at retrieval and the recall of that destination in response to other cues present at retrieval.

H1b: If an attitude model is valid, there will be a high correlation between the recall of an Australian holiday destination in response to a situational or motivational cue present at retrieval and the recall of that destination in response to other cues present at retrieval.

As a component of the survey instrument the respondents were prompted with a battery of 13 stimulus cues relating to situational and motivational context and a set of 7 Australian capital cities and were asked to specify the city or cities that came to mind for a city based holiday or short break in response to each cue.

To examine hypothesis H1 the recall of each city in response to a particular cue at the benchmark survey was cross tabulated against recall of the same city in response to the other cues in the stimulus battery at the benchmark survey.

The results of the cross tabulations for the city of Adelaide are presented below in Table 5.2. The measure of association derived from the cross tabulations and reported in the table is the Phi statistic which is equivalent to the Pearsonian correlation coefficient for binary variables (Norusis, M. 1993). Correlation matrices for each of the other cities in the choice set are included in Appendix A.

**Table 5.2 Correlation Matrix for Recall of Adelaide Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit	1												
Partner would enjoy	.546(*)	1											
Like to explore	.266(*)	.203	1										
Children enjoy	.350(*)	.283(*)	.216	1									
Nice in winter	.263(*)	.255(*)	.258(*)	.426(*)	1								
Indulge my senses	.379(*)	.389(*)	.325(*)	.252(*)	.281(*)	1							
Lots of activities	.457(*)	.285(*)	.215	.441(*)	.440(*)	.370(*)	1						
Fly to for a short break	.282(*)	.304(*)	.194	.165	.276(*)	.168	.208	1					
Visit with friends	.185	.200	.231(*)	.152	.258(*)	.234(*)	.214	.290(*)	1				
Nice to visit in summer	.317(*)	.412(*)	.206	.366(*)	.194	.258(*)	.280(*)	.203	.216	1			
Where I could relax	.424(*)	.453(*)	.223	.254(*)	.291(*)	.443(*)	.380(*)	.220	.196	.349(*)	1		
For a special occasion	.298(*)	.314(*)	.209	.298(*)	.393(*)	.363(*)	.387(*)	.240(*)	.242(*)	.356(*)	.181	1	
Driving holiday	.257(*)	.268(*)	.258(*)	.147	0.088	.155	.242(*)	.393(*)	.191	.270(*)	.274(*)	.237(*)	1

* P < .001

The data presented above is the Phi statistic or Pearson correlation coefficient derived from the cross tabulation of the recall for Adelaide in response to the stimulus cues. In the case where a large number of comparisons are computed a more conservative approach should be

adopted in determining the statistical significance of the observed correlation coefficients. In one procedure, known as the Bonferroni adjusted alpha level, (Weisstein, 2009) the significance level is set at α/C , where C is the number of comparisons. On this basis of the number of comparisons presented in Table 5.2 the associations should be regarded as statistically significant where $P < .001$ (based on an initial significance level of $P = .05$). While a more conservative level of statistical significance has been applied the results presented in Table 5.2 indicate that in the majority of cases where a city had been evoked in response to one cue there was an increased likelihood that it would be evoked in response to other cues in the stimulus battery.

In examining the Phi statistic however it has been argued that statistical significance should not be the most important criteria in interpreting the meaning of the association but rather the size of the coefficient. Simon (2008) provides guidance in regard to this suggesting that coefficients between 0 and 0.3 demonstrate little or no association, between 0.3 and 0.7 are weak and above 0.7 are large.

The average correlation coefficients for the cross tabulations of recall for each city in response to the stimulus battery is presented below in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Average Correlation of Recall in Response to Stimulus Cues by City

	Average correlation coefficient (r)
Adelaide	.28
Brisbane	.21
Canberra	.26
Hobart	.22
Melbourne	.26
Perth	.18
Sydney	.22
Average	.23

The correlation coefficients for each city generally ranged between 0.10 and 0.45. The correlations, while in many instances statistically significant, were not large however and the results therefore are mixed with respect to the Hypothesis H1.

To examine the consistency of consideration further, an alternative approach to the analysis was adopted in which the question was asked ‘If a city is evoked in response to one cue what is the likelihood – once evoked – that it will be recalled in response to a second cue in the

stimulus battery?’ Under this approach if recall is random it might be expected that once recalled, the city will be evoked in response to a second cue in around 50% of cases. If consideration is more stable then the average repeated recall will be expected to be closer to 100%.

The data presented below in Table 5.4 represents the proportion of benchmark survey respondents recalling Adelaide in response to a particular cue C_i who also recalled Adelaide in response to a second cue C_j . The percentage base for each row varies and is equal to the number of respondents who recalled Adelaide in response to the cue C_i .

The format of the table is similar to a traditional duplication of purchase table for brand usage using attitudinal, as opposed to behavioural data. For further detail regarding duplication of purchase see Ehrenberg (1988).

While the analysis produces rates of repeated recall across stimulus cues the analysis is undertaken in response to Hypothesis 1 regarding the consistency of recall at a point in time.

**Table 5.4 Repeated Recall of Adelaide Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey**

	(C _j) Adelaide also recalled in response to:												
(C _i) Adelaide recalled in response to:	Where I could relax	For a driving holiday	Indulge my senses	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Fly to for a short break	Nice to visit in summer	Lots of activities	Like to explore	Children enjoy	For a special occasion	Visit with friends	Nice in winter
Fun to visit	76%	67%	70%		73%	54%	55%	55%	40%	41%	39%	32%	31%
Partner would enjoy	78%	68%	71%	75%		56%	61%	46%	37%	38%	40%	33%	31%
Like to explore	70%	74%	75%	66%	59%	54%	54%	48%		39%	39%	39%	36%
Children enjoy	74%	66%	71%	74%	67%	53%	69%	67%	44%		47%	34%	49%
Nice in winter	82%	61%	77%	70%	68%	66%	57%	73%	50%	61%	59%	46%	
Indulge my senses	75%	60%		63%	62%	47%	50%	49%	41%	35%	40%	33%	31%
Lots of activities	80%	70%	76%	78%	63%	54%	58%		41%	52%	49%	37%	45%
Fly to for a short break	66%	77%	59%	61%	61%		50%	43%	38%	33%	38%	39%	33%
Visit with friends	70%	70%	70%	60%	60%	64%	57%	49%	45%	36%	43%		38%
Nice to visit in summer	74%	70%	65%	64%	69%	51%		48%	38%	44%	44%	35%	29%
Where I could relax		66%	70%	64%	64%	49%	54%	48%	36%	34%	32%	31%	30%
For a special occasion	68%	73%	80%	70%	70%	59%	68%	62%	43%	46%		41%	46%
Driving holiday	65%		56%	56%	55%	57%	50%	42%	38%	30%	34%	31%	22%
Average repeated recall	73%	69%	70%	67%	64%	55%	57%	53%	41%	41%	42%	36%	35%
Mean absolute deviation	4%	4%	5%	6%	4%	4%	5%	8%	3%	7%	5%	4%	6%
Response level	52%	52%	48%	44%	42%	38%	38%	31%	27%	24%	24%	23%	19%

The data presented in Table 5.4 represent the proportion of respondents who specified Adelaide in response to a prompt in the left hand column who also specified Adelaide in response to a prompt from the horizontal axis. For example, the top left cell can be interpreted as: Of those respondents who recalled Adelaide in response to the prompt ‘A place that would be fun to visit’ 73% recalled Adelaide in response to the prompt ‘A place my partner would enjoy’. The average repeated recall (RR) for each cue, within columns, is presented at the foot of each table as is the mean absolute deviation (MAD) which is calculated as the absolute deviation of each column value from the column average divided by the number of observations in the column. The MAD is provided as an indication of the consistency of responses.

The response level (RL), which is the bottom row in the table, represents the overall proportion of the sample that recalled Adelaide in response to the cue specified for that column. That is, looking at the first column in Table 5.4, 52% of respondents overall recalled Adelaide in response to the cue ‘A place where I could relax’.

The analysis of the repeated recall for the city of Adelaide indicates that where the city had been recalled in response to a particular cue C_i the likelihood of the city being recalled in response to a second stimulus cue in the battery C_j varied in a range between 30% to 70%, in the great majority of cases. The average repeated recall percentage across all stimulus cues for Adelaide was 54% and the standard deviation was 15%. There were 3 observations of 80% or more (2% of all observations).

The average repeated recall rates for the cities included in the research are presented below in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Average Rate of Repeated Recall by City – Benchmark Survey

	Cue sharing rate
Adelaide	54%
Brisbane	47%
Canberra	42%
Hobart	52%
Melbourne	54%
Perth	46%
Sydney	53%
Average	50%

Across the seven cities that were included in the destination set, the repeated recall rate was 50%, on average. The results indicate that, where recalled, the probability of a city being recalled in response to a second cue in the stimulus battery is random, or around one chance in two, on average. This finding provides support for hypothesis H1a.

The results presented in Table 5.4 demonstrate generally consistent repeated recall rates for individual cues (within columns) perhaps with the exception of 'A place with lots of activities' where the MAD was 8%.

Ehrenberg (1988) in examining duplication of purchase data regards deviations between individual and average duplications of less than 5 percentage points to be fairly small. In comparing user profiles for brands Hammond, Ehrenberg and Goodhardt (1996) describe deviations below 6% as negligible.

There were some individual deviations of 10 or more percentage points from the column average. These deviations are more notable and represent interactions between the stimulus cues and provide insights into category structure. For example, where Adelaide was evoked in response to 'Lots of activities' it was also more likely to be evoked in response to 'Fun to visit' suggesting a link between these two attributes. That is, for the survey respondents a destination that has 'lots of activities' is more likely to be regarded as 'fun to visit'. For Adelaide other interactions were evident between 'nice in winter' and 'fly to for a short break'; 'nice in winter' and 'for a special occasion'; 'for a special occasion' and 'nice to visit in summer'.

While the overall repeated recall rate was around 50% the rate tended to vary between stimulus cues C_j and the likelihood of repeated recall was related to the overall response level. That is, if the overall level of recall for Adelaide, for example, in response to a particular cue was higher than average there was also an increased likelihood of repeated recall in response to that cue.

The analysis of repeated recall across other cues in the battery at the benchmark survey was conducted for each of the cities included in the research. The response levels (RL) and average repeated recall (RR) rate for each city is presented below in Table 5.6.

**Table 5.6 Response Levels (RL) and Average Repeated Recall Rates (RR) Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey**

	Adelaide		Brisbane		Canberra		Hobart		Melbourne		Perth		Sydney	
	RL	Av. RR	RL	Av. RR	RL	Av. RR	RL	Av. RR	RL	Av. RR	RL	Av. RR	RL	Av. RR
Fun to visit	44%	67%	43%	62%	23%	55%	47%	67%	50%	72%	53%	73%	57%	77%
Partner would enjoy	42%	64%	38%	57%	22%	47%	47%	63%	43%	62%	55%	76%	47%	63%
Like to explore	27%	41%	29%	40%	18%	35%	54%	66%	15%	24%	61%	69%	19%	28%
Children enjoy	24%	41%	44%	59%	23%	45%	21%	32%	32%	46%	27%	38%	45%	59%
Nice in winter	19%	35%	57%	68%	14%	26%	25%	34%	16%	25%	38%	48%	21%	32%
Indulge my senses	48%	70%	18%	32%	14%	37%	40%	58%	44%	65%	28%	41%	44%	58%
Lots of activities	31%	53%	43%	65%	32%	64%	31%	48%	66%	84%	34%	47%	73%	90%
Fly to for a short break	38%	55%	33%	46%	20%	37%	37%	54%	47%	64%	16%	24%	38%	50%
Visit with friends	23%	36%	25%	38%	14%	31%	20%	32%	51%	68%	16%	24%	40%	53%
Nice to visit in summer	38%	57%	29%	43%	19%	42%	67%	78%	28%	43%	42%	55%	30%	45%
Where I could relax	52%	73%	29%	45%	15%	33%	58%	75%	20%	33%	41%	56%	14%	22%
For a special occasion	24%	42%	20%	33%	7%	18%	22%	36%	41%	59%	21%	34%	55%	71%
Driving holiday	52%	69%	24%	29%	44%	76%	30%	37%	43%	61%	11%	12%	30%	38%
Column average	36%	54%	33%	47%	20%	42%	38%	52%	38%	54%	34%	46%	39%	53%

The data presented above in Table 5.6 demonstrates that average repeated recall rates across the stimulus battery were generally higher than the response level. Repeat recall rates were, on average, 16% percentage points higher than the response level. The relationship between response level and repeated recall is presented graphically in Figure 5.1.

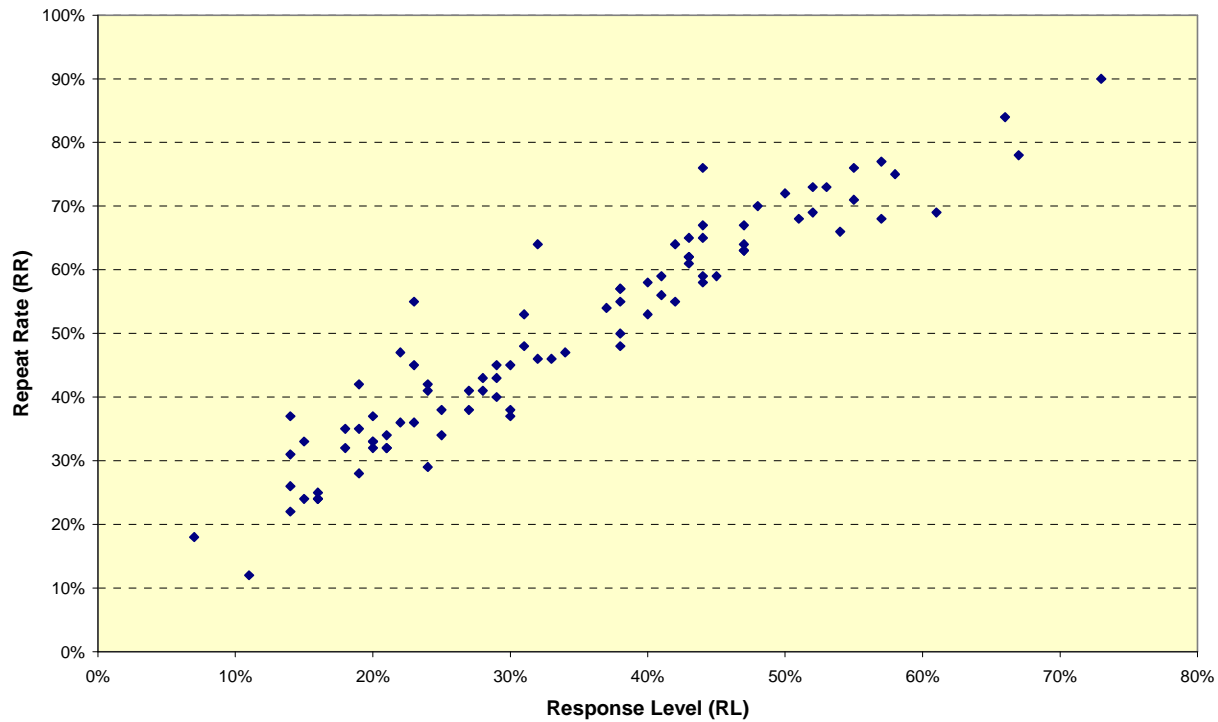


Figure 5.1 Response Level (RL) and Average Rate of Repeated Recall (RR) Across Stimulus Cues - Benchmark Survey

The linear correlation between response level and average repeated recall rate was strongly positive ($r=.95$).

The analysis presented above demonstrates a consistent relationship between recall in response to different stimulus cues at a particular point in time. There are similarities in these findings with the stability of attitudinal repeat rates over time for brands recalled in response to the same cue reported by Ehrenberg (1995) and associates (Dall’Olmo Riley et. al., 1997; Sharp, 2002; Rungie et al, 2005). When examining attitudinal repeat rates¹⁰ for brands over time the authors reported repeat rates around 50%, on average, with repeat rates also around 20 percentage points greater than the overall response levels.

The findings reported above therefore extend the work regarding the stability of attitudinal responses to a stimulus array at a point in time.

¹⁰ Defined as the proportion of respondents who at a first interview said a particular brand was associated with a particular attribute subsequently associated the brand with the same attribute at a subsequent interview.

5.4 The Stability of Consideration Over Time

The second hypothesis addressed by the research relates to the stability of consideration over time. Under the salience model retrieval is probabilistic and will be unstable within individuals over time. If an attitude model of choice is applicable to destination marketing it would be expected that retrieval of destinations in response to situational and motivational cues will be more stable over time.

As previously discussed, Ehrenberg (1995) and his associates (Dall'Olmo Riley et. al., 1997; Sharp, 2002; Rungie et. al., 2005) have noted the instability of attitudinal responses over time reporting an average repeat rate of around 50% for consumer durables and fast moving consumer goods.

The hypothesis is

H2: If a salience model is valid, recall of Australian holiday destinations in response to situational and motivational cues present at retrieval will display limited reliability over time with repeat rates around 50%, on average.

To test hypothesis H2 the cities evoked in response to the situational and motivational cues at the benchmark survey in late November/December 2008 were compared with the cities evoked by the same individuals in response to the same cues at the follow up survey conducted in late July/August 2009. The analysis was restricted to those individuals who had responded to both surveys – a total of 128 persons.

Repeat rates (RR) for a city were calculated as: Of those respondents who had evoked a city at the benchmark survey in response to a particular cue, the proportion also evoking that city at the follow up survey. The percentage base for the repeat rate is the number of individuals recalling that city in response to the specified cue at the benchmark survey. Response levels (RL) represent the proportion of respondents who evoked each city in response to each cue at the benchmark survey where the percentage base is the total sample. The response levels and repeat rates over time for each city are presented below in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Benchmark Response Levels (RL) and Repeat Rates (RR) for Cities Recalled Over Time

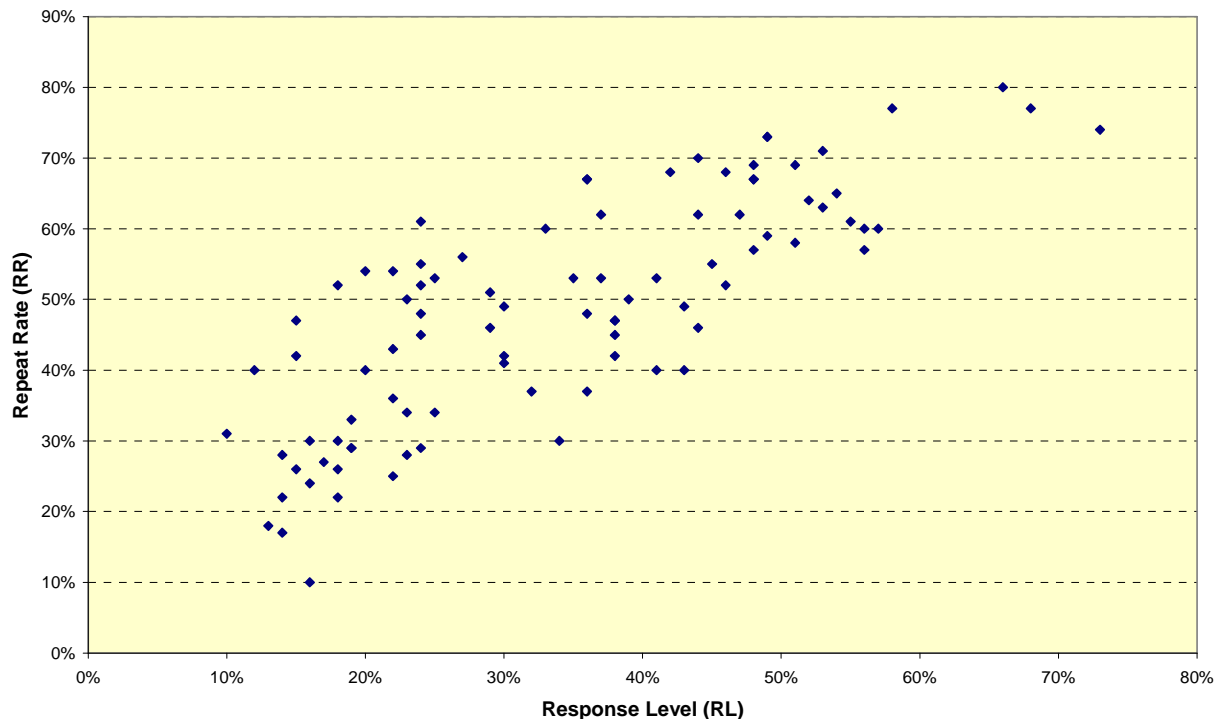
	Adelaide		Brisbane		Canberra		Hobart		Melbourne		Perth		Sydney	
	RL	RR	RL	RR	RL	RR	RL	RR	RL	RR	RL	RR	RL	RR
Fun to visit	46%	52%	44%	46%	24%	55%	47%	62%	55%	61%	51%	69%	56%	57%
Partner would enjoy	44%	62%	38%	45%	20%	54%	48%	57%	44%	70%	53%	63%	45%	55%
Like to explore	23%	50%	29%	46%	15%	26%	52%	64%	15%	42%	56%	60%	19%	29%
Children enjoy	22%	36%	42%	68%	24%	61%	20%	40%	38%	42%	24%	52%	48%	67%
Nice in winter	17%	27%	58%	77%	16%	30%	24%	45%	19%	33%	43%	49%	23%	34%
Indulge my senses	51%	58%	16%	10%	14%	22%	38%	47%	46%	68%	22%	25%	39%	50%
Lots of activities	30%	41%	43%	40%	35%	53%	32%	37%	66%	80%	34%	30%	73%	74%
Fly to for a short break	36%	67%	36%	37%	19%	29%	36%	48%	49%	73%	16%	24%	37%	62%
Visit with friends	22%	54%	22%	43%	14%	17%	18%	30%	53%	71%	13%	18%	41%	40%
Nice to visit in summer	37%	53%	25%	53%	18%	52%	68%	77%	30%	49%	36%	67%	27%	56%
Where I could relax	48%	69%	30%	42%	15%	47%	57%	60%	25%	34%	38%	47%	14%	28%
For a special occasion	24%	29%	18%	26%	10%	31%	23%	28%	41%	53%	18%	22%	54%	65%
Driving holiday	49%	73%	24%	48%	48%	67%	29%	51%	49%	59%	12%	40%	33%	60%
Column average	35%	52%	33%	45%	21%	42%	38%	50%	41%	57%	32%	44%	39%	52%

The cells in the top left corner of the table show a response level (RL) of 46% for Adelaide indicating that this proportion of the respondents evoked Adelaide in response to the cue ‘A place that would be fun to visit’ at the benchmark survey. The repeat rate (RR) percentage of 52% for Adelaide represents is the proportion of respondents who evoked Adelaide in response to that cue at the benchmark survey who evoked Adelaide in response to the same cue at the follow up survey. The average repeat rates for each city ranged between 42% and 57% with an overall average across all observations of 49%. The results provide support therefore for Hypothesis H2.

Repeat rates that were above average provide an indication of cue to destination linkages in memory that are more strongly held. For example, Adelaide was more likely to be repeated in response to the prompts ‘A place I might visit on a driving holiday’, ‘A place where I could relax’ and ‘A place I might fly to for a short break’.

As previously discussed Ehrenberg and his associates have examined the stability of attitudinal repeat rates over time across a range of product categories and found a consistent relationship between repeat rates and response levels. Ehrenberg (1995) has reported that the relationship $RR = RL + 20$ generalises across categories to within an average of + or - 7 percentage points.

The data presented in Table 5.7 demonstrates that for the travel destinations included in the research the repeat rate tended to increase with the response level. The relationship is illustrated below in Figure 5.2.



**Figure 5.2 Response Level and Repeat Rate over Time
Benchmark Survey and Follow up Survey Respondents**

When the repeat rates are compared with the response levels, the repeat rates were found to be significantly correlated with the response level ($r = 0.8$) and to be around 15 percentage points higher than the response level, on average.

The results provide support for the Hypothesis H2 and are consistent with the relationships observed for other categories ($RR = RL + 20$) and provide support for the generalisation of the relationship to a category of tourism and travel.

5.5 Predictive Validity with a Measure of Travel Intention

Predictive validity refers to the association between theoretical measures and measures of subsequent behaviour. The concept is derived from the psychometric literature (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955).

To examine predictive validity two sets of outcome measures were examined:

- intention to visit the cities in the destination choice set within the next 12 months measured at the benchmark survey;
- subsequent travel to those cities measured at the follow – up survey after an interval of approximately eight months.

Hypothesis 3 relates to the predictive validity of a measure of destination salience and a multi attribute measure of destination attitude with respect to a dependent variable measured as travel intention.

H3a: If a salience model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of salience for an Australian holiday destination and intention to travel to that destination.

H3b: If an attitude model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of attitude toward an Australian holiday destination and intention to travel to that destination.

Within the travel and tourism literature and the marketing literature more broadly intention measures have been widely used as a proxy for behaviour (Kalwani and Silk, 1982; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Romaniuk and Sharp, 2003). Intention has been found to be significantly associated with subsequent behaviour provided the intention measure is related to a specific time period and situation (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989). Intention to visit each city for a holiday or short break within the next 12 months was measured at a nominal level (will visit / will not visit within the next 12 months).

To examine the hypotheses descriptively, the recall of cities in response to the situational and motivational cues at the benchmark survey was cross tabulated against intended travel for each city, also measured at the benchmark survey. If a salience model is valid it might be expected that respondents will be more likely to evoke cities they intend visiting. The proportion of the

benchmark survey respondents recalling each city in response to each of the cues is compared in Table 5.8 on the basis of intended visitation. Respondents resident in the State in which the capital city was located were excluded from the analysis for that city.

**Table 5.8 Comparison of Cities Recalled in Response to Situational and Motivational Cues
By Intention to Visit - Benchmark Survey**

	Adelaide		Brisbane		Canberra		Hobart		Melbourne		Perth		Sydney	
	Will not visit	Intend visiting	Will not visit	Intend visiting	Will not visit	Intend visiting	Will not visit	Intend visiting	Will not visit	Intend visiting	Will not visit	Intend visiting	Will not visit	Intend visiting
Fun to visit	42%	61%*	40%	54%	18%	51%**	41%	66%**	44%	74%**	51%	67%	54%	77%*
Partner would enjoy	42%	56%	35%	47%	19%	40%*	44%	57%	37%	70%**	52%	71%*	47%	64%
Like to explore	29%	39%	28%	35%	17%	20%	51%	66%	15%	26%	60%	71%	21%	26%
Children enjoy	17%	33%*	45%	47%	19%	46%**	19%	29%	24%	39%	23%	42%*	44%	51%
Nice in winter	14%	30%*	55%	67%	15%	14%	21%	36%*	14%	26%	34%	56%**	22%	23%
Indulge my senses	43%	54%	18%	21%	12%	29%*	34%	59%**	44%	63%*	25%	40%*	40%	53%
Lots of activities	22%	47%**	38%	60%**	28%	57%**	29%	41%	56%	82%**	31%	47%	69%	87%*
Fly to for a short break	40%	63%**	28%	49%**	16%	40%**	31%	55%**	58%	87%**	11%	33%**	43%	66%**
Visit with friends	20%	42%**	24%	28%	13%	20%	15%	36%**	50%	89%**	14%	27%	41%	62%*
Nice to visit in summer	32%	51%*	26%	42%*	18%	23%	66%	71%	17%	43%**	38%	56%*	24%	40%*
Where I could relax	46%	65%*	26%	42%*	14%	23%	52%	75%**	14%	32%*	36%	60%**	11%	21%
For a special occasion	16%	39%**	16%	32%*	5%	17%*	15%	43%**	37%	56%*	16%	42%**	54%	74%*
Driving holiday	52%	75%**	19%	35%*	40%	74%**	28%	34%	41%	72%**	11%	16%	29%	34%
Average	32%	50%	31%	43%	18%	33%	34%	51%	35%	58%	31%	48%	38%	52%
Sample	123	57	165	57	191	35	169	56	86	54	179	45	110	47

Analysis for each city excludes residents of the State in which the city is located.

P < .05 ** P < .01 (Chi Squ).

The results presented above in Table 5.8 represent the proportion of benchmark survey respondents who recalled each of the cities in response to the stimulus cues on the basis of whether they intended to visit each city within the next 12 months. For example, 61% of those who intended visiting Adelaide evoked Adelaide in response to the prompt ‘A place that would be fun to visit’ compared to 42% of those who did not intend visiting Adelaide.

In general, respondents who intended visiting a particular city were more likely to evoke that city in response to the cues in the stimulus battery compared to those who were not intending to visit. Over the table as a whole the average difference in the likelihood of evoking a city where there was an intention to visit was 17 percentage points. Cues that were more strongly associated with intention to visit included ‘A place I might fly to for a short break’; and ‘A place with lots of activities’.

To further examine predictive validity composite variables were derived that reflected the competing theoretical models examined by the thesis. A brand salience score for each city was derived using the approach recommended by Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) while a multi attribute attitude score was calculated for each city on the basis of the Fishbein attitude toward object model (Fishbein, 1963). Further details are provided in Chapter 3.

The relationship between brand salience scores and the multi attribute attitude scores for each city was compared with intention to visit each city using binary logistic regression. Logistic regression was adopted as this procedure preserves the continuous nature of the independent variables while requiring no assumptions regarding the distribution of these variables. The Wald statistic is the standardised regression coefficient and provides a measure of the strength of the relationship between dependent and independent variables. The results for the analysis of the intention to visit measures are presented in Table 5.9. Respondents resident in the State in which the capital city was located were excluded from the analysis for that city.

**Table 5.9 Univariate Logistic Regression
Cities Intending to Visit for Holiday or Short Break
By Destination Salience and Destination Attitude**

Destination city and predictive variables	Beta	S.E	Wald Statistic	Proportion intend visiting in next 12 months	Sample
Adelaide				32%	180
Destination salience	.203	.049	16.89 **		
Destination attitude	.004	.005	0.71		
Brisbane				26%	222
Destination salience	.173	.051	11.39 **		
Destination attitude	.007	.005	2.28		
Canberra				15%	226
Destination salience	.225	.058	14.95 **		
Destination attitude	.001	.006	.02		
Hobart				25%	225
Destination salience	.225	.053	18.22 **		
Destination attitude	.014	.005	6.96 **		
Melbourne				39%	140
Destination salience	.359	.072	25.11 **		
Destination attitude	.018	.006	9.10 **		
Perth				20%	224
Destination salience	.268	.062	19.03 **		
Destination attitude	.010	.005	3.31		
Sydney				30%	157
Destination salience	.197	.062	10.19 **		
Destination attitude	.003	.005	.44		

* P < .05 ** P < .01

Analysis excludes the residents of the State within which each city is located.

The results demonstrate that intention to visit each of the cities included in the research was significantly associated with the destination salience scores for each city at $P < .01$.

Intention to visit was contingent on the destination attitude score for two cities, Hobart and Melbourne, at $P < .01$. Destination attitude was not significantly related to the intention to visit for the other cities.

The results provide strong support for hypothesis H3a and weak support for Hypothesis H3b.

To investigate Hypotheses 3 a multivariate analysis was undertaken using logistic regression of intention to visit each city against the combination of previous visitation, destination salience and destination attitude.

The literature described in this thesis suggests an ordering of effects in regard to consumer behaviour whereby destination choice will be determined by a combination of retrieval followed by a process of evaluation of the choice alternatives. The cognitive brand attitude model assumes that choice is most likely to be determined at the stage of evaluation with attitude to the choice object the primary factor influencing choice. The salience model posits that the likelihood of retrieval in purchase situations will have the greatest influence on choice. It is also the case that choice may be a function of previous behaviour and this should be controlled, where possible, when examining the relationship between salience and behaviour (Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004b).

To examine the relative effects of these elements a total of seven multi stage logistic regression analyses were conducted in which intention to visit each of the cities in the choice set was the dependent variable.

The independent variables entered at the first stage of the analysis were:

- visitation to the city for a holiday or short break within the last 5 years;
- visitation to the city for business purposes within the last 12 months.

At the second stage the continuous salience score for the city was entered. At the third stage of the analysis the continuous multi attribute attitude score for the city was entered.

The analysis for each city excluded the residents of the State in which the city was located.

The results of the analysis are presented in Tables 5.10 and 5.11.

**Table 5.10 Multivariate Logistic Regression Analysis of Intention to Visit
Summary of Stepwise Addition of Independent Variables
Step Chi Square¹¹**

	Adelaide	Brisbane	Canberra	Hobart	Melbourne	Perth	Sydney
Step 1 – Previous visitation	8.53*	11.53**	8.98*	10.20**	7.18*	7.04*	4.38
Step 2 – Saliency score	14.97**	7.64**	10.26**	17.96**	27.64**	22.06**	9.39**
Step 3 – Attitude score	0.10	0.18	1.22	0.51	1.53	0.18	0.46

* P < .05 ** P < .01

**Table 5.11 Multivariate Logistic Regression Analysis of Intention to Visit
Significance of Final Model and Contribution of Independent Variables**

	Adelaide	Brisbane	Canberra	Hobart	Melbourne	Perth	Sydney
Model chi squ	23.60**	19.35**	20.46**	28.68**	36.35**	29.27**	14.22**
Contribution to the model							
Visited for leis. - last 5 years							
Beta	.800	.931	.745	.532	.646	-.313	.304
S.E.	.468	.383	.423	.350	.511	.423	.433
Wald	2.92	5.91*	3.10	2.30	1.60	.55	.49
Visited for business – last 12 months							
Beta	.559	.295	.356	-20.479	-.012	1.564	.529
S.E.	.516	.435	.594	14567.812	.437	.547	.428
Wald	1.17	.46	.36	.00	.00	8.17**	1.53
Destination saliency							
Beta	.191	.152	.221	.205	.316	.273	.209
S.E.	.516	.057	.066	.056	.076	.068	.071
Wald	13.21**	7.06**	11.27**	13.48**	17.38**	16.30**	8.69**
Destination attitude							
Beta	-.002	-.002	-.007	.004	.008	.002	-.004
S.E.	.006	.006	.007	.006	.007	.006	.005
Wald	.09	.17	1.18	.51	1.50	.18	.46

* P < .05 ** P < .01

¹¹ Where the destination image score was entered at step 2 and the saliency score at step 3 the step chi square for step 2 was statistically significant for Melbourne (P<.01) and Perth (P<.05).

In all of the analyses destination salience was significantly related to intention to visit at $P < .01$ after taking into account previous visitation. In none of the analyses did the multi attribute destination attitude score contribute significantly to the model after taking into account the influence of previous visitation and salience. While it was observed that in some instances the multi attribute score was related to the intention to visit (Table 5.9) the relationship was statistically redundant after taking into account the influence of previous visitation and salience.

The results provide strong support for hypotheses H3a.

5.6 Predictive Validity with a Measure of Subsequent Travel Behaviour

Hypothesis 4 relates to the predictive validity of a measure of destination salience and a multi attribute measure of destination attitude with respect to a dependent variable measured as travel behaviour over time.

H4a: If a salience model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of salience for an Australian holiday destination and future travel to that destination.

H4b: If an attitude model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of attitude toward an Australian holiday destination and future travel to that destination.

The quantitative research design involved a longitudinal survey in which individuals who responded to the survey in November / December 2008 were invited to participate in a follow up survey in July 2009. The purpose of the follow up survey was to determine the stability of consideration over time and to determine travel to the cities included in the research over the period since the benchmark.

There were a total of 128 individuals who responded to both surveys and there were three cities which had been visited by more than 20% of these respondents between the benchmark and follow up surveys: Adelaide, Melbourne and Sydney.

To descriptively examine hypothesis H4 the recall of these cities at the benchmark survey in response to the situational and motivational cues included in the survey instrument was cross tabulated against subsequent travel for each city. The analysis for each city excluded the residents of the State in which the city was located.

If a salience model is valid it might be expected that respondents will be more likely to evoke cities at the benchmark survey that they subsequently visit.

The proportion of the benchmark survey respondents recalling each city in response to each of the cues is compared in Table 5.12 on the basis of subsequent travel.

**Table 5.12 Recall of Cities in Response to Situational and Motivational Cues
By Subsequent Visitation**

	Adelaide		Melbourne		Sydney	
	Not visited	Visited	Not visited	Visited	Not visited	Visited
Fun to visit	47%	60%	46%	79%**	55%	67%
Partner would enjoy	46%	52%	48%	57%	49%	50%
Like to explore	22%	44% *	16%	32%	20%	25%
Children enjoy	17%	32%	34%	43%	45%	58%
Nice in winter	16%	20%	20%	32%	28%	25%
Indulge my senses	48%	52%	48%	61%	35%	50%
Lots of activities	26%	40%	58%	75%	68%	83%
Fly to for a short break	43%	52%	68%	86%	48%	46%
Visit with friends	20%	44% *	56%	86%**	38%	71%**
Nice to visit in summer	30%	56% *	24%	36%	22%	33%
Where I could relax	49%	44%	26%	36%	9%	21%
For a special occasion	16%	52%**	38%	54%	52%	83%**
Driving holiday	58%	56%	46%	75% *	34%	42%
Column average	34%	46%	41%	58%	39%	50%
Sample	77	25	50	28	65	24

Excludes persons not resident in the State in which the city is located. * P < .05 ** P < .01 Chi Squ

The results presented in the top left cells under Adelaide in Table 5.11 indicate that 60% of those respondents who had visited Adelaide between the benchmark and follow up surveys recalled Adelaide in response to the prompt ‘A place that would be fun to visit’ compared to 47% of those who had not visited Adelaide. The results demonstrate that respondents who had visited the specified cities were generally more likely to have recalled those cities at the benchmark survey.

Over the table as a whole the difference in recall for those who had visited compared to those who had not visited was 14 percentage points.

Stimulus cues more strongly associated with statistically significant differences in recall between visitors and non visitors were ‘A place that would be fun to visit’; ‘A place I might visit with a group of friends’; and ‘A place I might visit to celebrate a special occasion’.

To further examine predictive validity the relationship between travel behaviour at the follow up survey and the salience and multi attribute attitude scores for the relevant cities derived at the benchmark survey was examined using logistic regression.

The results of the analyses are presented below in Table 5.13. The analysis for each city excludes residents of the State in which the city is located. The analysis excludes those cities for which visitation was less than 20% as logistic regression is not an appropriate procedure where the distribution of the dependent variable is heavily skewed to one category. The strength of the relationship between the independent variables and subsequent travel is indicated by the Wald statistic.

**Table 5.13 Univariate Logistic Regression
Subsequent Visitation by Destination Salience and Destination Attitude**

City / Destination score	Beta	S.E	Wald Statistic	Proportion visited since benchmark survey	Sample
Adelaide				24%	102
Destination salience	.132	.065	4.10 *		
Destination attitude	.012	.008	2.41		
Melbourne				36%	78
Destination salience	.246	.087	8.00 **		
Destination attitude	.015	.008	3.55		
Sydney				27%	89
Destination salience	.163	.081	4.06 *		
Destination attitude	.015	.007	4.21 *		

* P < .05 ** P < .01

The logistic regression analyses demonstrate statistically significant relationships between the salience score at the benchmark survey and travel behaviour for each of the three cities. The destination attitude score was also significantly related to subsequent travel for Sydney. The results are mixed providing support for Hypothesis H4a and weaker support for Hypothesis H4b.

Multi-variate logistic regression analyses were also conducted for subsequent visitation to Adelaide, Melbourne and Sydney to examine the relative contribution of previous visitation, destination salience and destination attitude. Again a staged approach was adopted.

The independent variables entered at the first stage of the analysis were:

- visitation to the city for a holiday or short break within the last 5 years;
- visitation to the city for business purposes within the last 12 months.

At the second stage the continuous salience score for the city was entered. At the third stage of the analysis the continuous multi attribute attitude score for the city was entered.

The analysis for each city excluded the residents of the State in which the city was located.

The results of the analysis are presented below in Tables 5.14 and 5.15.

**Table 5.14 Multivariate Logistic Regression Analysis of Subsequent Visitation
Summary of Stepwise Addition of Independent Variables
Step Chi Square¹²**

	Adelaide	Melbourne	Sydney
Step 1 – Previous visitation	8.63*	21.94**	3.04
Step 2 – Saliency score	2.05	5.30*	2.67
Step 3 – Attitude score	1.58	1.62	2.80

* P < .05 ** P < .01

The model chi square statistic at each stage of the analysis indicates that the only variable to increase the strength of the model after the first stage was the salience score where the dependent variable was visitation to Melbourne.

¹² Where destination image was entered at the second step and destination salience at the third step the step chi square for destination image was statistically significant for Melbourne and Sydney (P<.05).

**Table 5.15 Multivariate Logistic Regression Analysis of Subsequent Visitation
Significance of Final Model and Contribution of Independent Variables**

	Adelaide	Melbourne	Sydney
Model chi squ	12.26 *	28.86 **	8.51
Contribution to the model			
Visited for leis. - last 5 years			
Beta	1.191	21.071	.735
S.E.	.809	8578.069	.617
Wald	2.17	.00	1.42
Visited for business – last 12 months			
Beta	1.368	-.499	.003
S.E.	.695	.619	.576
Wald	3.88 *	.65	.00
Destination salience			
Beta	.073	.166	.097
S.E.	.073	.104	.089
Wald	1.01	2.54	1.17
Destination attitude			
Beta	.011	.012	.012
S.E.	.009	.010	.008
Wald	1.53	1.56	2.64

* P < .05 ** P < .01

While the multi variate models were statistically significant for Adelaide and Melbourne the contribution of individual variables was not significant and the analysis does not provide further support for either of the hypotheses relating to predictive validity.

6. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This chapter summarises the principal findings of the research, provides discussion regarding the theoretical implications of the findings and the implications for destination marketers.

Suggestions for further research are also provided.

6.1 Summary of Findings

The objective of this thesis was to examine the research question

Is the brand salience model of consumer behaviour applicable to destination marketing?

To address this question hypotheses were developed that reflected the theoretical assumptions associated with the brand salience model of consumer behaviour. Alternative hypotheses were developed that represented the theoretical assumptions associated with a brand attitude model.

The first hypothesis related to the consistency of consideration over situational and motivational context and was stated as:

H1a: If a salience model is valid, there will be a low correlation between the recall of an Australian holiday destination in response to a situational or motivational cue present at retrieval and the recall of that destination in response to other cues present at retrieval.

H1b: If an attitude model is valid, there will be a high correlation between the recall of an Australian holiday destination in response to a situational or motivational cue present at retrieval and the recall of that destination in response to other cues present at retrieval.

The results of the analysis presented in this thesis demonstrate that for a category of domestic tourism there is a relatively low consistency of recall of destinations across contextual cues.

The average correlation for the same destination recalled in response to a battery of stimulus cues was $r=0.23$ and the average likelihood of repeated recall across stimulus cues was 49%.

This suggests that destination choice sets are not strongly held in memory through linkages to category cues – in this case a city based holiday or short break. Rather recall of destinations is mediated through linkages to a variety of situational and motivational elements in addition to the category cue. This finding is consistent with associate memory theory and the salience model.

The literature relating to this question addresses memory structure, the way in which consumers make decisions and the stability of consideration. Under the pioneering models of consumer behaviour (e.g. Howard and Sheth, 1969) which have largely provided the foundation for models of destination choice (Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005), the evoked set is conceived to be relatively static. Consumers are motivated to optimize the utility of purchase

outcomes and will become aware of the choice alternatives that meet their needs through information search. The focus of these models has been therefore on how consumers process information and how they make decisions on the basis of this information. The availability of choice objects to the evoked set is largely ignored (Holden and Lutz, 1992).

In recent years a number of researchers (Nedungadi, 1990; Ratneshwar and Shocker, 1991; Holden, 1993; Thelen and Woodside, 1997) have demonstrated the variability of associate to object retrieval for fast moving consumer goods, consumer durables, restaurants and retail stores. This evidence suggests that retrieval is context dependent and is also largely subconscious and automatic. The current research confirms the findings of these researchers and extends the findings to a category of domestic leisure travel.

The second hypothesis tested by the research related to the stability of consideration over time and was specified as follows:

H2: If a salience model is valid, recall of Australian holiday destinations in response to situational and motivational cues present at retrieval will display limited reliability over time with repeat rates around 50%, on average.

The research found that over a period of approximately seven months the stability of individual level associate to object recall across a stimulus battery of 13 cues and 7 destinations was 49%. The results provide support for the H2 and the salience model.

The literature relating to this hypothesis reflects the work of Ehrenberg and his associates (Ehrenberg, 1995; Dall'Olmo Riley et. al, 1997; Sharp, 2002; Rungie et. al., 2005) who have questioned assumptions regarding brand loyalty and the validity of the brand attitude model on the basis that the likelihood that consumers will repeat attitudinal responses to a particular brand over time is relatively low – around 50% on average.

These findings have been found to hold across a wide range of fast moving consumer goods and consumer durable categories and the results of the current research confirm and extend these findings to a category of tourism and travel. The research also replicates the empirical findings of Ehrenberg (1995) and others where repeat rates are positively correlated with the initial response levels – with a relationship consistent with the formula $RR=RL+20$.

Dolnicar and Rossiter (2008) have investigated the instability of brand attribute associates over time and reported that some of the observed instability may be due to data collection procedures. The authors conclude that valid brand attribute associations may be transient as a result of routinised response behaviour in which specific associations may be forgotten and are

replaced by a summary attitude toward the choice object that will guide future purchase. They suggest that repeat rates of 66% could be achieved through changes to the data collection methodology.

There is still, however, a considerable proportion of the variation that cannot be explained on the basis of methodology and points to the stochastic or random nature of recall. As discussed in Chapter 2 recall is competitive and is influenced by a range of internal and external stimulus cues present within the purchase and consumption environments in addition to the process of spreading activation. The probabilistic nature of attitudinal beliefs is consistent with associative memory structure and the salience model of destination choice. As Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) have argued 'retrieval is probabilistic, and possibly reflecting an underlying propensity that is different for each individual, in other words, their level of brand salience' (p232).

The third and fourth hypotheses addressed by the research related to the predictive validity of the brand salience model and the alternative brand attitude model and was specified as follows:

H3a: If a salience model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of salience for an Australian holiday destination and intention to travel to that destination.

H3b: If an attitude model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of attitude toward an Australian holiday destination and intention to travel to that destination.

H4a: If a salience model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of salience for an Australian holiday destination and future travel to that destination.

H4b: If an attitude model is valid, there will be a statistically significant relationship between a measure of attitude toward an Australian holiday destination and future travel to that destination.

The third and fourth hypotheses directly compare the performance of measures designed to operationalise the alternative theories of destination choice addressed by the research. The salience score is a representation of memory structure providing an indication of the breadth of linkages with cues present in the purchase and consumption environments. The destination attitude score is designed to capture the way in which consumers perceive the choice objects

and consciously process the information available to them on the basis of the perceived importance of that information.

The salience score was found to be more effective in predicting both intention to visit the cities in the destination choice set and actual visitation recorded between the benchmark and follow up surveys providing support for Hypotheses 3a and 4a.

The results of the research provide support for the application of a salience model of consumer behaviour to a category of domestic tourism. The finding is particularly significant as salience has been viewed to some degree as a low involvement model whereas tourism and travel is generally regarded as a high involvement category of consumer behaviour. The findings also provide support for the method of measuring salience recommended by Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a).

6.2 Managerial Implications

Overall the findings presented in this thesis have provided strong support for a salience model of destination choice when compared to the more traditional attitude based model that reflects the consumer's image of the destination.

If a salience model is accepted as a basis for destination marketing and brand management this has significant implications for destination managers. The salience model is consistent with low involvement processing of marketing communications and the weak theory of advertising effects.

Under a salience model the objective of destination marketers will be to increase the likelihood that the destination will be recalled in response to situational and motivational cues present within purchase and consumption environments. In this context developing a strong, positive and differentiated image of a destination is less important than establishing links between the destination and a wide range of cues that will stimulate recall.

Romaniuk and Sharp (2004a) recommend that to build salience marketing communication should be distinctive, likeable and well branded. Communication should be engaging rather than persuasive. It should link to a wide variety of purchase and consumption contexts and should not aim to position the destination on the basis of a particular attribute that is seen to represent a competitive advantage or unique selling proposition (USP). Other marketing activities such as sponsorships, promotions and public relations can also effectively build brand salience. (Miller and Berry, 1998; Ehrenberg, Barnard, Kennedy and Bloom, 2002). From a brand equity perspective salience measures need to be built into tracking vehicles.

6.3 Implications for State Tourism Authorities

The promotion of domestic tourism in Australia is undertaken primarily by State and Territory tourism organisations with marketing communication generally promoting the States and Territories as choice objects with a range of regional level sub brands sitting under the State / Territory banner. The findings of the research suggest that this approach may be inefficient as it does not reflect the way in which consumers think about domestic travel.

State and Territory communication strategies may be more effective if branding is constructed bottom up from those experiences, places and touring routes that are most likely to evoke the State / Territory in a way that is salient to their needs as opposed to a broader based top down strategy in which the consumer is presented with a set of destination images that reflect the destinations core essence or brand positioning. For example, if a wilderness bushwalking experience in the Flinders Ranges is perceived to be a key opportunity for South Australia then above the line communications should build awareness of the Flinders Ranges as a destination linked to this experience rather than expecting consumers to respond to more generic communication and develop this association as a component of the State brand through below the line elements such as the web or brochures. Linking a narrowly positioned destination such as the Barossa Valley with other attributes e.g. walking in the Kaiser Stuhl national park, can also increase the likelihood of consideration.

Under the salience model brand attitude is primarily an outcome of experience and familiarity. (Ehrenberg, 1997; Winchester, Romaniuk and Bogomolova, 2008). Appropriate product development and service delivery will therefore be an important component of marketing strategy to ensure that visitors are satisfied with their experience.

6.4 Limitations

The limitations of this research are as follows:

The sample frame consisted of a database of persons who had requested information from the South Australian Tourism Commission. The response rate from the initial email database of 6% was also weak introducing the potential for non response bias.

While a biased sample limits the potential to generalise the results to the broader population it does not invalidate the relationships observed for the achieved sample between the dependent and independent variables.

The achieved sample for the follow up survey provided statistically significant results in regards to the relationship between salience and subsequent travel although the overall

strength of the relationship was weak. A longer period between the benchmark and follow up surveys would have provided potentially a larger sample of individuals who had travelled to the cities in the destination set. A larger benchmark survey would also have been valuable in delivering a statistically more powerful design overall and a larger follow up survey sample than was achieved. The number of respondents at the follow up survey was relatively poor (128 responses).

The results are derived from a single study and replication of the study would provide greater confidence in the findings (where replicated).

The use of travel intention as a proxy for behaviour is a contentious issue (Hofmeyr, 2007) however intention measures appear widely within the marketing and tourism literature as dependent variables (Kalwani and Silk, 1982; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Romaniuk and Sharp, 2003). Intention has been found to be significantly associated with subsequent behaviour provided the intention measure is related to a specific time period and situation (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989). The relationship between salience and intention as a proxy for behaviour should however be treated with caution and further validation of the relationship based on actual behaviour should be sought.

The method of measuring salience adopted for this thesis involves linking a set of destinations to a battery of internal and external cues which are likely to be present in the purchase and consumption environments. The cues included statements such as 'A place where I could relax', 'A place that would be fun to visit', 'A place I might visit to celebrate a special occasion'.

While these statements relate to benefits or circumstances that are not destination attributes, the responses of consumers in an environment in which they have enough time to consider their response could be mediated by their beliefs about the destination.

For example a 'A place where I could relax' could send the consumer down a thought pathway where he or she might think:

- what do I like to do to relax?
- I'd like to go to a place with warm weather and great nightlife;
- which cities have warm weather and great nightlife?

In this circumstance it might be argued from the way the measures were operationalised that the third hypothesis is simply testing different ways of measuring brand attitude i.e. that a pick any free choice binary method is superior to a forced choice scaling method.

Romaniuk and Sharp (2003) were concerned about this issue in a study of defection in subscription markets and they hypothesised that the relationship between salience and defection would not be observed where a mail survey method was used. They found however that the mail survey method did show a significant relationship and the hypothesis was not supported.

Thelen and Woodside (1997) in a study using telephone interviewing procedures that contrasted automatic vs strategic thinking excluded responses after a delay of four seconds as they suggested these responses would be characteristic of a more considered response. They also reported however that in most cases where the response took four or more seconds to evoke the answer selected in the majority of cases was 'none comes to mind'.

6.5 Future Research

The experiments reported by Holden (1993) and Ratneshwar and Shocker (1991) which illustrate the goal derived and variable nature of recall involved between subjects design and an unbounded choice set. The approach adopted for this research was to compare recall of a bounded choice set across a set of stimulus cues within subjects. The method was adopted as there was a need for all respondents to respond to same stimuli in order to operationalise the salience measure however it may be that the variability is subject to priming effects to some degree.

To fully explore variability of recall on the basis of associates present at retrieval it would be worthwhile undertaking a study using a between subjects design where groups of subjects are presented with one scenario that represents a systematic variation of contextual elements and asked to specify the places that come to mind for a short break or holiday in Australia. The more commonly recalled destinations could be coded and a logistic type regression analysis could be undertaken to determine the impact of the contextual elements on recall.

A further issue is the goal derived nature of consideration – is the choice object directly evoked in response to a motivational goal or does motivation mediate the relationship between the situation and the choice object?

Holden (1993) in an examination of recall across 3 product categories in response to situational and benefit cues found no significant differences in recall where benefit cues were compared with situation cues for a category of drinks – where party was the situation and socializing was the benefit. It was suggested that situation cues may be mediated by benefit cues. Rossiter and Percy (1987) also argue that situational elements are mediated by benefits

sought. Further research to examine the relationship between situational and motivational cues would be of value in providing guidance regarding the specification of appropriate prompts for brand equity measures, for example it may be the case that benefit cues are redundant if the situational context is comprehensive.

Further research could also investigate the way in which salience is measured. While the measures derived for the analysis reported in this thesis provided support for the salience model the stimulus cues were presented as text statements and the participants had unlimited time to consider their responses.

It may be the case that other methods of presenting stimulus material could be considered which are more consistent with the theoretical model, for example by limiting response time. The ongoing evolution of on line data collection procedures could provide opportunities in this regard.

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APPENDIX A. Repeated Recall and Correlation Across Stimulus Cues

**Table A.1 Repeated Recall of Brisbane Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	(C _j) Brisbane also recalled in response to:												
(C _i) Brisbane recalled in response to:	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit		64%	41%	58%	68%	33%	68%	41%	36%	43%	42%	33%	29%
Partner would enjoy	73%		41%	63%	76%	34%	69%	46%	33%	41%	46%	35%	31%
Like to explore	61%	53%		54%	74%	30%	61%	41%	32%	38%	42%	33%	29%
Children enjoy	56%	53%	35%		66%	28%	63%	39%	34%	37%	42%	29%	22%
Nice in winter	52%	50%	38%	52%		24%	48%	40%	28%	25%	37%	23%	30%
Indulge my senses	76%	69%	48%	67%	74%		79%	45%	52%	62%	52%	45%	29%
Lots of activities	68%	60%	40%	65%	64%	33%		46%	36%	46%	46%	34%	31%
Fly to for a short break	53%	53%	36%	53%	68%	25%	59%		37%	38%	45%	34%	36%
Visit with friends	61%	49%	37%	61%	65%	39%	63%	49%		49%	44%	42%	28%
Nice to visit in summer	63%	52%	37%	57%	49%	39%	67%	43%	42%		48%	34%	27%
Where I could relax	61%	60%	42%	64%	72%	33%	69%	51%	37%	48%		34%	31%
For a special occasion	71%	67%	49%	67%	67%	42%	76%	58%	53%	51%	51%		27%
Driving holiday	52%	50%	35%	43%	72%	22%	57%	50%	30%	33%	39%	22%	
Average repeated recall	62%	57%	40%	59%	68%	32%	65%	46%	38%	43%	45%	33%	29%
Mean absolute deviation	7%	6%	3%	6%	5%	5%	6%	4%	6%	7%	3%	4%	2%
Response level	43%	38%	29%	44%	57%	18%	43%	33%	25%	29%	29%	20%	24%

**Table A.2 Repeated Recall of Canberra Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	(C _j) Canberra also recalled in response to:												
(C _i) Canberra recalled in response to:	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit		62%	40%	52%	25%	48%	73%	44%	36%	42%	36%	21%	85%
Partner would enjoy	64%		40%	54%	24%	32%	62%	40%	32%	40%	30%	20%	72%
Like to explore	52%	50%		38%	28%	32%	55%	42%	25%	48%	25%	18%	60%
Children enjoy	51%	51%	28%		21%	26%	66%	28%	30%	38%	28%	19%	74%
Nice in winter	39%	36%	33%	33%		36%	54%	33%	21%	30%	30%	15%	76%
Indulge my senses	76%	48%	39%	42%	36%		79%	30%	39%	48%	48%	27%	85%
Lots of activities	52%	42%	30%	48%	25%	36%		38%	32%	40%	29%	15%	73%
Fly to for a short break	51%	44%	38%	33%	24%	22%	62%		27%	40%	24%	13%	78%
Visit with friends	59%	50%	31%	50%	22%	41%	72%	38%		50%	38%	16%	78%
Nice to visit in summer	51%	46%	44%	46%	23%	37%	67%	42%	37%		37%	16%	79%
Where I could relax	54%	43%	29%	43%	29%	46%	60%	31%	34%	46%		20%	74%
For a special occasion	69%	62%	44%	62%	31%	56%	69%	38%	31%	44%	44%		75%
Driving holiday	43%	35%	24%	38%	24%	28%	52%	34%	24%	33%	26%	12%	
Average repeated recall	55%	47%	35%	45%	26%	37%	64%	37%	31%	42%	33%	18%	76%
Mean absolute deviation	8%	6%	6%	7%	3%	7%	7%	4%	4%	5%	6%	3%	4%
Response level	23%	22%	18%	23%	14%	14%	32%	20%	14%	19%	15%	7%	44%

**Table A.3 Repeated Recall of Hobart Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	(C _j) Hobart also recalled in response to:												
(C _i) Hobart recalled in response to:	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit		69%	67%	33%	34%	61%	53%	50%	31%	81%	74%	36%	38%
Partner would enjoy	68%		66%	32%	33%	55%	44%	51%	29%	75%	73%	32%	32%
Like to explore	58%	57%		26%	31%	49%	40%	44%	23%	77%	73%	31%	33%
Children enjoy	73%	73%	67%		38%	67%	56%	65%	35%	81%	81%	38%	35%
Nice in winter	63%	63%	67%	32%		65%	40%	47%	32%	67%	81%	39%	30%
Indulge my senses	71%	64%	66%	35%	40%		52%	47%	32%	72%	76%	35%	38%
Lots of activities	79%	65%	69%	38%	32%	67%		54%	39%	85%	71%	43%	42%
Fly to for a short break	64%	65%	64%	36%	32%	51%	46%		38%	79%	79%	40%	41%
Visit with friends	72%	67%	61%	37%	39%	63%	61%	70%		83%	76%	48%	41%
Nice to visit in summer	57%	53%	62%	26%	25%	43%	40%	44%	25%		66%	27%	37%
Where I could relax	60%	60%	68%	30%	35%	53%	39%	51%	26%	76%		31%	33%
For a special occasion	76%	70%	76%	36%	44%	64%	62%	68%	44%	82%	82%		46%
Driving holiday	60%	52%	60%	25%	25%	52%	44%	52%	28%	82%	63%	34%	
Average repeated recall	67%	63%	66%	32%	34%	58%	48%	54%	32%	78%	75%	36%	37%
Mean absolute deviation	6%	5%	3%	4%	4%	7%	7%	7%	5%	4%	5%	5%	4%
Response level	47%	47%	54%	21%	25%	40%	31%	37%	20%	67%	58%	22%	30%

**Table A.4 Repeated Recall of Melbourne Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	(C _j) Melbourne also recalled in response to:												
(C _i) Melbourne recalled in response to:	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit		67%	24%	47%	24%	68%	90%	61%	63%	42%	30%	59%	59%
Partner would enjoy	79%		24%	47%	22%	66%	85%	62%	66%	45%	30%	58%	60%
Like to explore	82%	68%		47%	38%	68%	85%	76%	76%	41%	44%	65%	68%
Children enjoy	73%	62%	22%		24%	65%	91%	58%	64%	45%	32%	58%	58%
Nice in winter	73%	60%	35%	49%		78%	89%	73%	73%	35%	38%	65%	57%
Indulge my senses	76%	64%	22%	47%	28%		86%	62%	69%	47%	31%	53%	59%
Lots of activities	69%	55%	19%	45%	22%	59%		55%	60%	35%	26%	53%	52%
Fly to for a short break	65%	57%	24%	40%	25%	59%	78%		74%	35%	27%	54%	64%
Visit with friends	62%	56%	22%	40%	23%	60%	78%	68%		36%	28%	52%	60%
Nice to visit in summer	74%	68%	22%	51%	20%	74%	80%	57%	65%		42%	66%	71%
Where I could relax	74%	62%	32%	51%	30%	68%	83%	62%	70%	57%		66%	66%
For a special occasion	73%	61%	24%	46%	26%	58%	85%	62%	64%	46%	33%		63%
Driving holiday	69%	60%	23%	43%	21%	61%	79%	70%	70%	46%	31%	60%	
Average repeated recall	72%	62%	24%	46%	25%	65%	84%	64%	68%	43%	33%	59%	61%
Mean absolute deviation	4%	4%	3%	3%	4%	5%	4%	5%	4%	5%	4%	4%	4%
Response level	50%	43%	15%	32%	16%	44%	66%	47%	51%	28%	20%	41%	43%

**Table A.5 Repeated Recall of Perth Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	(C _j) Perth also recalled in response to:												
(C _i) Perth recalled in response to:	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit		80%	74%	39%	45%	42%	51%	21%	20%	56%	57%	31%	13%
Partner would enjoy	78%		76%	41%	44%	40%	46%	22%	21%	54%	54%	33%	15%
Like to explore	64%	69%		31%	39%	35%	45%	18%	17%	45%	46%	26%	8%
Children enjoy	79%	85%	70%		52%	49%	56%	23%	25%	59%	61%	33%	8%
Nice in winter	63%	64%	63%	37%		33%	45%	23%	25%	38%	52%	29%	14%
Indulge my senses	81%	81%	78%	48%	46%		57%	22%	25%	65%	65%	35%	11%
Lots of activities	78%	73%	80%	43%	49%	46%		23%	19%	56%	61%	32%	9%
Fly to for a short break	72%	78%	69%	39%	56%	39%	50%		39%	53%	58%	50%	14%
Visit with friends	68%	73%	65%	40%	60%	43%	40%	38%		60%	54%	43%	16%
Nice to visit in summer	72%	72%	66%	38%	35%	43%	46%	20%	23%		55%	33%	16%
Where I could relax	75%	73%	70%	40%	48%	44%	52%	23%	22%	56%		34%	12%
For a special occasion	79%	88%	77%	42%	52%	46%	52%	38%	33%	65%	67%		12%
Driving holiday	62%	73%	42%	19%	46%	27%	27%	19%	23%	58%	42%	23%	
Average repeated recall	73%	76%	69%	38%	48%	41%	47%	24%	24%	55%	56%	34%	12%
Mean absolute deviation	6%	6%	7%	5%	5%	5%	6%	5%	4%	5%	6%	5%	2%
Response level	53%	55%	61%	27%	38%	28%	34%	16%	16%	42%	41%	21%	11%

**Table A.6 Repeated Recall of Sydney Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	(C _j) Sydney also recalled in response to:												
(C _i) Sydney recalled in response to:	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit		68%	28%	59%	32%	55%	91%	52%	51%	44%	22%	67%	37%
Partner would enjoy	82%		28%	56%	30%	56%	87%	53%	50%	47%	18%	73%	34%
Like to explore	82%	68%		57%	36%	59%	100%	57%	59%	48%	25%	73%	36%
Children enjoy	74%	58%	24%		33%	57%	92%	40%	50%	43%	18%	65%	40%
Nice in winter	88%	67%	33%	71%		60%	92%	58%	54%	52%	25%	75%	44%
Indulge my senses	72%	61%	26%	59%	29%		89%	47%	52%	43%	25%	69%	35%
Lots of activities	70%	56%	26%	57%	26%	53%		47%	48%	37%	19%	62%	33%
Fly to for a short break	77%	65%	28%	48%	32%	53%	90%		56%	36%	20%	66%	39%
Visit with friends	72%	59%	29%	57%	29%	57%	88%	54%		43%	23%	69%	34%
Nice to visit in summer	83%	74%	30%	65%	36%	62%	90%	46%	56%		30%	81%	44%
Where I could relax	85%	61%	33%	58%	36%	76%	97%	54%	64%	64%		79%	39%
For a special occasion	69%	63%	25%	54%	29%	55%	83%	46%	50%	44%	21%		39%
Driving holiday	71%	54%	24%	62%	31%	52%	81%	50%	46%	44%	19%	72%	
Average repeated recall	77%	63%	28%	59%	32%	58%	90%	50%	53%	45%	22%	71%	38%
Mean absolute deviation	6%	5%	2%	4%	3%	4%	4%	4%	4%	5%	3%	5%	3%
Response level	57%	47%	19%	45%	21%	44%	73%	38%	40%	30%	14%	55%	30%

**Table A.7 Correlation Matrix of Recall for Brisbane Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit	1												
Partner would enjoy	.477(**)	1											
Like to explore	.229(**)	.203(**)	1										
Children enjoy	.237(**)	.285(**)	0.128	1									
Nice in winter	.203(**)	.294(**)	.224(**)	.161(*)	1								
Indulge my senses	.320(**)	.308(**)	.197(**)	.211(**)	.163(*)	1							
Lots of activities	.439(**)	.397(**)	.223(**)	.353(**)	0.121	.338(**)	1						
Fly to for a short break	.140(*)	.219(**)	0.104	0.115	.166(*)	0.121	.227(**)	1					
Visit with friends	.217(**)	.138(*)	0.102	.195(**)	0.095	.301(**)	.232(**)	.195(**)	1				
Nice to visit in summer	.259(**)	.195(**)	0.121	.158(*)	-0.098	.340(**)	.311(**)	.138(*)	.251(**)	1			
Where I could relax	.239(**)	.294(**)	.184(**)	.254(**)	.193(**)	.241(**)	.330(**)	.240(**)	.185(**)	.262(**)	1		
For a special occasion	.283(**)	.297(**)	.219(**)	.220(**)	0.099	.305(**)	.323(**)	.258(**)	.325(**)	.238(**)	.238(**)	1	
Driving holiday	0.102	.143(*)	0.078	-0.022	.173(**)	0.056	.159(*)	.198(**)	0.061	0.050	0.118	0.036	1

** P < .01 * P < .05

**Table A.8 Correlation Matrix of Recall for Canberra Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit	1												
Partner would enjoy	.521(**)	1											
Like to explore	.327(**)	.314(**)	1										
Children enjoy	.370(**)	.387(**)	.157(*)	1									
Nice in winter	.163(*)	.144(*)	.171(**)	0.099	1								
Indulge my senses	.520(**)	.265(**)	.237(**)	.188(**)	.256(**)	1							
Lots of activities	.479(**)	.342(**)	.228(**)	.402(**)	.200(**)	.413(**)	1						
Fly to for a short break	.335(**)	.271(**)	.265(**)	0.119	.141(*)	0.110	.322(**)	1					
Visit with friends	.353(**)	.275(**)	.146(*)	.257(**)	0.086	.301(**)	.346(**)	.181(**)	1				
Nice to visit in summer	.327(**)	.287(**)	.338(**)	.266(**)	0.121	.312(**)	.367(**)	.269(**)	.322(**)	1			
Where I could relax	.320(**)	.216(**)	0.124	.199(**)	.171(**)	.379(**)	.256(**)	0.126	.249(**)	.293(**)	1		
For a special occasion	.301(**)	.270(**)	.190(**)	.256(**)	.131(*)	.327(**)	.217(**)	0.123	.137(*)	.175(**)	.217(**)	1	
Driving holiday	.437(**)	.292(**)	.143(*)	.321(**)	.258(**)	.333(**)	.386(**)	.331(**)	.272(**)	.334(**)	.254(**)	.168(*)	1

** P < .01 * P < .05

**Table A.9 Correlation Matrix of Recall for Hobart Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit	1												
Partner would enjoy	.413(**)	1											
Like to explore	.247(**)	.220(**)	1										
Children enjoy	.270(**)	.266(**)	0.129	1									
Nice in winter	.190(**)	.184(**)	.145(*)	.150(*)	1								
Indulge my senses	.393(**)	.279(**)	.200(**)	.278(**)	.290(**)	1							
Lots of activities	.440(**)	.246(**)	.208(**)	.275(**)	0.110	.366(**)	1						
Fly to for a short break	.259(**)	.270(**)	.145(*)	.293(**)	0.122	.163(*)	.239(**)	1					
Visit with friends	.251(**)	.203(**)	0.068	.197(**)	.165(*)	.234(**)	.318(**)	.337(**)	1				
Nice to visit in summer	.288(**)	.164(*)	.226(**)	.158(*)	-0.002	0.086	.258(**)	.196(**)	.168(*)	1			
Where I could relax	.307(**)	.296(**)	.329(**)	.246(**)	.269(**)	.306(**)	.181(**)	.329(**)	.187(**)	.240(**)	1		
For a special occasion	.310(**)	.242(**)	.232(**)	.195(**)	.234(**)	.257(**)	.348(**)	.338(**)	.315(**)	.170(**)	.261(**)	1	
Driving holiday	.177(**)	0.056	0.080	0.064	0.002	.150(*)	.177(**)	.193(**)	0.127	.214(**)	0.074	.189(**)	1

** P < .01 * P < .05

**Table A.10 Correlation Matrix of Recall for Melbourne Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit	1												
Partner would enjoy	.490(**)	1											
Like to explore	.268(**)	.210(**)	1										
Children enjoy	.314(**)	.270(**)	.132(*)	1									
Nice in winter	.200(**)	.148(*)	.250(**)	.153(*)	1								
Indulge my senses	.471(**)	.379(**)	.194(**)	.283(**)	.299(**)	1							
Lots of activities	.508(**)	.349(**)	.174(**)	.364(**)	.219(**)	.392(**)	1						
Fly to for a short break	.285(**)	.269(**)	.249(**)	.158(*)	.231(**)	.270(**)	.238(**)	1					
Visit with friends	.240(**)	.271(**)	.216(**)	.178(**)	.196(**)	.322(**)	.258(**)	.434(**)	1				
Nice to visit in summer	.298(**)	.317(**)	0.118	.248(**)	0.066	.371(**)	.192(**)	0.129	.176(**)	1			
Where I could relax	.246(**)	.194(**)	.244(**)	.204(**)	.188(**)	.241(**)	.187(**)	.153(*)	.199(**)	.328(**)	1		
For a special occasion	.379(**)	.309(**)	.205(**)	.246(**)	.217(**)	.225(**)	.338(**)	.259(**)	.229(**)	.327(**)	.262(**)	1	
Driving holiday	.322(**)	.296(**)	.206(**)	.207(**)	0.120	.282(**)	.244(**)	.402(**)	.332(**)	.350(**)	.233(**)	.337(**)	1

** P < .01 * P < .05

**Table A.11 Correlation Matrix of Recall for Perth Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit	1												
Partner would enjoy	.543(**)	1											
Like to explore	.277(**)	.342(**)	1										
Children enjoy	.307(**)	.366(**)	0.116	1									
Nice in winter	.156(*)	.147(*)	0.033	.180(**)	1								
Indulge my senses	.342(**)	.321(**)	.210(**)	.292(**)	0.102	1							
Lots of activities	.367(**)	.268(**)	.277(**)	.269(**)	.170(**)	.293(**)	1						
Fly to for a short break	.164(*)	.198(**)	0.074	0.120	.156(*)	0.110	.141(*)	1					
Visit with friends	0.126	.158(*)	0.034	.138(*)	.194(**)	.155(*)	0.056	.267(**)	1				
Nice to visit in summer	.309(**)	.280(**)	0.089	.214(**)	-0.056	.295(**)	.209(**)	0.099	.160(*)	1			
Where I could relax	.365(**)	.301(**)	.149(*)	.246(**)	.177(**)	.307(**)	.298(**)	.156(*)	0.120	.242(**)	1		
For a special occasion	.267(**)	.336(**)	.168(*)	.175(**)	.150(*)	.211(**)	.191(**)	.308(**)	.240(**)	.241(**)	.273(**)	1	
Driving holiday	0.059	.130(*)	-.138(*)	-0.060	0.060	-0.005	-0.057	0.035	0.067	0.118	0.012	0.019	1

** P < .01 * P < .05

**Table A.12 Correlation of Recall for Sydney Across Stimulus Cues
Benchmark Survey Respondents**

	Fun to visit	Partner would enjoy	Like to explore	Children enjoy	Nice in winter	Indulge my senses	Lots of activities	Fly to for a short break	Visit with friends	Nice to visit in summer	Where I could relax	For a special occasion	For a driving holiday
Fun to visit	1												
Partner would enjoy	.471(**)	1											
Like to explore	.247(**)	.205(**)	1										
Children enjoy	.318(**)	.192(**)	0.112	1									
Nice in winter	.319(**)	.201(**)	.185(**)	.263(**)	1								
Indulge my senses	.271(**)	.244(**)	.152(*)	.240(**)	.174(**)	1							
Lots of activities	.451(**)	.292(**)	.294(**)	.391(**)	.213(**)	.311(**)	1						
Fly to for a short break	.327(**)	.279(**)	.184(**)	0.037	.211(**)	.155(*)	.293(**)	1					
Visit with friends	.258(**)	.198(**)	.193(**)	.191(**)	.152(*)	.221(**)	.267(**)	.257(**)	1				
Nice to visit in summer	.343(**)	.352(**)	.187(**)	.261(**)	.246(**)	.247(**)	.245(**)	0.107	.225(**)	1			
Where I could relax	.233(**)	0.111	.147(*)	0.100	.155(*)	.265(**)	.219(**)	.136(*)	.200(**)	.300(**)	1		
For a special occasion	.274(**)	.344(**)	.174(**)	.190(**)	.207(**)	.247(**)	.249(**)	.173(**)	.232(**)	.345(**)	.196(**)	1	
Driving holiday	.181(**)	0.094	0.071	.213(**)	.158(*)	0.102	0.111	.155(*)	0.078	.198(**)	0.087	.223(**)	1

** P < .01 * P < .05

APPENDIX B: Survey Questionnaires and Associated Research Tools

Dear Respondent,

Thank you for your interest in participating in this survey.

The research project is being conducted by Richard Trembath, a post graduate student at the University of South Australia, to investigate a range of issues relating to tourism and travel in Australia. Your assistance in answering the following questions will be greatly appreciated. A statement providing background to the research was provided as an attachment to the email that you received inviting you to participate in the research. If you require further information please contact the principal researcher, Richard Trembath, at Richard.Trembath@postgrads.unisa.edu.au or by phone on 0438 762 122.

Please complete the questionnaire by clicking on the buttons corresponding to your answer or by writing in the answer where requested. Please be assured that the information collected will be treated with strictest confidence and used only for the purposes of the research.

Q1. Thinking about a city based holiday in Australia please click on the place or places which come to mind in response to each of the following phrases. If nothing comes to mind leave blank.

	Adelaide	Brisbane	Canberra	Hobart	Melbourne	Perth	Sydney
A place that:							
Would be fun to visit							
My partner would enjoy							
I would like to explore and find out more about							
That children would enjoy							
Would be nice to visit in winter							
Where I could indulge my senses							
With lots of activities and things to do							
I might fly to for a short break							
I might visit with a group of friends							
That would be nice to visit in summer							
Where I could relax							
I might visit to celebrate a special occasion							
I might visit on a driving holiday							

Q2. The grid below includes a range of things that you might associate with a city as a place to visit for a holiday. Could you please rate each attribute on a scale of 1 to 5 to indicate the extent to which you would associate the attribute with each of the listed cities.

Please place a rating in each box where 1 = no association 2 = weak association 3 = moderate association 4 = strong association and 5 = very strong association. By leaving a box blank you are recording a score of 1 or ‘no association’ .

	Adelaide	Brisbane	Canberra	Hobart	Melbourne	Perth	Sydney
Exciting nightlife							
Fine dining							
Well preserved history and heritage							
International standard of entertainment and theatre							
Unique museums and galleries							
Good value hotels and boutique accommodation							
Great shops and shopping							
A range of dynamic festivals and events							
Interesting day trips and nearby attractions							

Q3. And again on a scale of 1 to 5 please rate the importance of each characteristic to you when thinking about a place you would like to visit for a city based holiday in Australia. Please click on the appropriate number where 1 = ‘not important’ and 5 = ‘very important’.

	Not important				Extremely important
Exciting nightlife	1	2	3	4	5
Fine dining	1	2	3	4	5
Well preserved history and heritage	1	2	3	4	5
International standard entertainment and theatre	1	2	3	4	5
Unique museums and galleries	1	2	3	4	5
Good value hotels and boutique accommodation	1	2	3	4	5
Great shops and shopping	1	2	3	4	5
A range of dynamic festivals and events	1	2	3	4	5
Interesting day trips and nearby attractions	1	2	3	4	5

Q4. Which Australian city did you last visit for a holiday or short break?

Adelaide	1
Brisbane	2
Canberra	3
Hobart	4
Melbourne	5
Perth	6
Sydney	7
None of the above	8

Q5. How long ago was that trip?

Within the last 6 months	1
6 mnths – 1 year ago	2
1 – 2 years ago	3
3 – 5 years ago	4
6 – 10 years ago	5
More than 10 years ago	6

Q6. And which Australian city did you visit for a holiday or short break prior to your last trip (ie before the trip described in Q4)?

Adelaide	1
Brisbane	2
Canberra	3
Hobart	4
Melbourne	5
Perth	6
Sydney	7
None of the above	8

Q7. How long ago was that trip?

Within the last 6 months	1
6 mnths – 1 year ago	2
1 – 2 years ago	3
3 – 5 years ago	4
6 – 10 years ago	5
More than 10 years ago	6

Q8. Have you visited any other Australian cities for a holiday or short break within the last five years? If yes – Please click on the cities visited.

Adelaide	1
Brisbane	2
Canberra	3
Hobart	4
Melbourne	5
Perth	6
Sydney	7

Q9. Which Australian city or cities are you planning to visit for a holiday or short break in the next 12 months? Click on all that apply.

Adelaide	1
Brisbane	2
Canberra	3
Hobart	4
Melbourne	5
Perth	6
Sydney	7

Q10. Do you travel within Australia for business purposes?

Yes

No – Go to Q13.

Q11. If Yes – How often do you travel for business purposes?

At least once per month	1
At least once per quarter	2
A few times per year	3
Once per year or less	4

Q12. Which cities do you visit for business purposes? Click on all that apply.

Adelaide	1
Brisbane	2
Canberra	3
Hobart	4
Melbourne	5
Perth	6
Sydney	7

Q13. Where do you usually live?

Adelaide	1
Other SA	2
Brisbane	3
Other Qld	4
Canberra	5
Other ACT	6
Hobart	7
Other TAS	8
Melbourne	9
Other VIC	10
Perth	11
Other WA	12
Sydney	13
Other NSW	14

Q14. What was your year of birth?

Q15. Your gender?

Female	1
Male	2

Q16. If you would like to participate in the survey prize draw please click the button below and enter your email address for contact if you are the winner.

Please include me in the survey prize draw	1
My email address is	

Dear Respondent,

Thank you for your interest in participating in this survey.

The research project is being conducted by Richard Trembath, a post graduate student at the University of South Australia, to investigate a range of issues relating to tourism and travel in Australia. Your assistance in completing this questionnaire will be greatly appreciated. A statement providing background to the research was provided as an attachment to the email that you received inviting you to participate in the research. If you require further information please contact the principal researcher, Richard Trembath, at Richard.Trembath@unisa.edu.au or by phone on 0438 762 122.

Please complete the questionnaire by clicking on the buttons corresponding to your answer or by writing in the answer where requested. Please be assured that the information collected will be treated with strictest confidence and used only for the purposes of the research.

Q1. The grid below includes a range of things that you might associate with a city as a place to visit for a holiday. Could you please rate each attribute on a scale of 1 to 5 to indicate the extent to which you would associate the attribute with each of the listed cities.

Please place a rating in each box where 1 = no association 2 = weak association 3 = moderate association 4 = strong association and 5 = very strong association. By leaving a box blank you are recording a score of 1 or 'no association' .

	Adelaide	Brisbane	Canberra	Hobart	Melbourne	Perth	Sydney
Exciting nightlife							
Fine dining							
Well preserved history and heritage							
International standard of entertainment and theatre							
Unique museums and galleries							
Good value hotels and boutique accommodation							
Great shops and shopping							
A range of dynamic festivals and events							
Interesting day trips and nearby attractions							

Q4. Which Australian city or cities have you visited for a holiday or short break within the last six months – since you completed the survey questionnaire in late November or early December 2008? Please select all that apply.

Adelaide	1
Brisbane	2
Canberra	3
Hobart	4
Melbourne	5
Perth	6
Sydney	7
None of the above	8

Q5. Which Australian city or cities are you planning to visit for a holiday or short break in the next 12 months? Please select all that apply.

Adelaide	1
Brisbane	2
Canberra	3
Hobart	4
Melbourne	5
Perth	6
Sydney	7

Q6. If you would like to participate in the survey prize draw please click the button below and enter your email address for contact if you are the winner.

Please include me in the survey prize draw	1
My email address is	

BRAND SALIENCE AND DESTINATION MARKETING DEPTH INTERVIEW – INTERVIEW GUIDE

Lowercase – spoken questions / prompts

Uppercase – interviewer instructions.

INTRODUCE SELF AND OBTAIN WRITTEN PERMISSION TO PROCEED.

The objective of this interview is explore how people think about holiday travel in Australia. The interview is relatively informal so please say anything that comes to mind in response to the questions no matter how insignificant or irrelevant it might seem. I'll take a few notes but your responses will be captured on the audio-tape so I'll have plenty of opportunity to go over your answers later on. Again please be assured that your responses will be treated with strictest confidence and the tapes will be destroyed once the interviews have been transcribed. Information that could identify you as the respondent will not be retained with the transcript.

1. I'd like to start of with your last holiday in Australia. Can you describe that holiday for me?

PROBE:

- PLACES VISITED
- TRAVEL GROUP
- TIME OF YEAR
- MODE OF TRANSPORT
- LENGTH OF TRIP
- ACTIVITIES/BENEFITS SOUGHT

2. Are you thinking about your next holiday in Australia? Can you describe that holiday?

PROBE:

- PLACES
- TRAVEL GROUP
- TIME OF YEAR
- MODE OF TRANSPORT
- LENGTH OF TRIP
- ACTIVITIES/BENEFITS SOUGHT

3. Can you recall anything you've recently seen or heard about Australian holiday destinations?

PROBE FOR CIRCUMSTANCES:

- WHAT WERE THEY DOING?
- WHEN WERE THEY DOING IT? – TIME OF DAY / DAY OF WEEK
- WHERE WERE THEY?
- HOW WERE THEY FEELING AT THE TIME?
- WHO ELSE WAS THERE?
- WHAT MEDIA WERE PRESENT IN THAT ENVIRONMENT EG NEWSPAPERS, TV, MAGAZINES, INTERNET?
- SPECIFIC PRODUCT OFFERS – PACAKAGES, AUCTIONS, DEALS?
- WHAT OTHER ELEMENTS WERE PRESENT IN THE SITUATION?

WHAT DO THEY DO FOR GENERAL RECREATION – DOES THIS INFLUENCE LIKELIHOOD OF CONSIDERATION.

4. So thinking about your last holiday – or the one you're currently planning – can you say how many places you might have thought of regardless of whether you seriously considered going there. Also include any overseas destinations.

WHAT COMES TO MIND FIRST – THE EXPERIENCE OR THE PLACE?

5. How many places did you seriously consider?
6. Why do you think those places were more seriously considered?
7. What research did you do before making your final decision?

PROBE:

- NAME OF TRAVEL AGENT, BROCHURES, WEB SITES ETC

8. Can you recall how you made the final decision about the place/s you ended up selecting for your holiday (or you are most likely to visit if considering a holiday in the next 6 months)? PROBE FOR DETAIL RE: EVALUATIVE ATTRIBUTES & CONSTRAINTS

SUMMARISE DECISION PROCESS AS A DECISION TREE AND CHECK WITH RESPONDENT
WHAT IS THE TIME PERIOD OVER WHICH THE PROCESS OF CONSIDERATION TAKES PLACE?

PICTURE ASSOCIATION – PASS IMAGE SET TO RESPONDENT

9. I'd now like you to look through these images of Australian holiday destinations and pick out the four images that you find most attractive.

RECORD THE IMAGE REFERENCES AND PROMPT WITH THE FIRST SELECTED IMAGE

10. And what comes to mind when you look at this image. PROBE FOR DETAIL
11. Is there anything particularly different about this image when compared to the images you didn't select.

PROBE FOR DETAIL

FOR EACH DIFFERENCE - Is this difference important? IF YES – Why? USE LADDERING PROCEDURES TO PROBE FOR EVALUATIVE CONSTRUCTS.

12. Do you associate these images with any particular part of Australia? IF YES - SPECIFY

REPEAT QUESTIONS 10, 11 & 12 FOR EACH SELECTED IMAGE.

13. I'd now like you to look through the images and pick out the four images that you would associate with your last holiday in Australia (or the holiday you are planning).

COMPARE IMAGES SELECTED WITH THE IDEAL SET AND ASK RESPONDENT TO EXPLAIN REASONS FOR ANY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE IDEAL SET AND LAST HOLIDAY SET.

IF TIME IS AVAILABLE ASK RESPONDENT TO CONSIDER ANOTHER SPECIFIC DOMESTIC HOLIDAY AND REPEAT QUESTIONS 2 THROUGH 8 IN REGARD TO THAT HOLIDAY.

THANK RESPONDENT & ASK WHETHER THEY HAVE ANY FURTHER COMMENTS OR QUESTIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH

Notes:

Cognitive Interviewing:

Using CI techniques the interviewer will:

- explore the physical and personal contexts of relevant events;
- extensively probe for detail – as spreading activation will trigger further associations;
- ask respondents to recount events in a variety of orders;
- ask respondents to recount events from the perspective of others (self, partner, children).

CI also emphasizes social communication techniques which involve:

- transfer of control from the interviewer to the interviewee;
- use of open ended questions;
- not interrupting the respondent;
- timing questions with respondents retrieval patterns – i.e. questions should not break the respondents chain of thought.

Projective Picture Sort:

To explore the relative importance of constructs respondents are prompted to explain why particular differences are important. For example, a destination may be regarded as more exciting than another. When asked why that is important the respondent might suggest that it is exciting because 'it's a chance to meet new people'. Further probing might elicit that it is 'a change from the usual routine at home'.

The use of why questions takes the interviewer 'up' the ladder to those constructs which are central to their personality and motivational structure.

The following strategies may be used to facilitate the laddering process. These include:

- evoking situational context;
- negative laddering (probing why consumers don't do or feel certain things);
- moving backwards in time to consider changes in behaviour or attitude;
- third person perspective - how would someone else view this behavior or attitude;
- reflecting and silence to elicit further detail.