Two-stage Model of Destination Image:

Exploring the Consequences

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Abstract

In the globalized world tourism industry is acknowledges as an opportunity to enhance a country's overall development. As research suggests, a destination's main tool to become attractive is the destination image – the main pull factor in tourists' decision-making process. Hence, there has been extensive research on destination image to examine its formation and relationships with other tourist decision-related constructs. Although acknowledged as a dynamic process for its feature of developing over time in several stages, there has been no attempt to examine pre- and post-visit destination images in integration. Therefore, based on the call by several scholars and theoretical support of its importance, the study set its purpose to examine the direct and indirect impact of pre-visit destination image on post-visit image and destination image evaluation outcome variables.

For this purpose, a structural equation modelling of the relationships among pre- and postvisit images, perceived value, overall satisfaction, and word-of-mouth intentions was established. The data was collected from international tourists in Uzbekistan at two different points in time to test the hypotheses outlined in the model. In total, 178 paired questionnaires were collected. It was analysed on SmartPLS3. The findings confirmed the statistically significant direct impact of pre-visit image on post-visit image, and indirect impact of the pre-visit image through the post-visit image on the variables closely linked to the evaluation of the destination like satisfaction, value, and word of mouth intentions, hereby referred as destination image evaluation outcomes.

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CHAPTER 1 Introduction

1.1 Justification of the research topic

Mass tourism as a leisure activity started becoming popular in the mid-1960s (Lo & Lee, 2011), and since then, it has become a crucial part of life (Yan, Zhou, & Wu, 2018) with an increasing number of holidays per individual (Almeida-Santana & Moreno-Gil, 2018). Perhaps the main reason is that tourism is a social psychological experience; although the sociological factors such as income affect tourism behaviour, they are nevertheless significant determinants of the quality experiences, since what is important are tourists' cognitions and feelings (Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991).

Hence, tourism is 'very much an image-driven industry' (Elliot, Papadopoulos, & Kim, 2011, p. 521). According to Lynch (1960, cited in Son & Pearce, 2005), the visual image that an individual has of a place gives 'identity, structure and meaning' (p. 280) to that place, and it offers 'a pre-taste of the destination' (Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou, & Kaplanidou, 2015, p. p. 302). Therefore, image is the main factor for destinations to compete in the globalized competitive world (King, Chen, & Funk, 2015). In fact, in the tourism literature, the image of a destination has been acknowledged as the most potent pull factor in encouraging destination development (Gartner, 1994). Therefore, offering a unique image is the key toa marketing strategy (Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006; Kislali, Kavaratzis, & Saren, 2016).

According to Wang and Hsu (2010), the notion that human behaviour is encouraged by perceived image rather than objective reality was put forward in the late 1950s by Boulding and Martineau. Therefore, acknowledging its role, tourism destination image has become a research area with significant focus (Elliot et al., 2011). In analysing about 3000 citations from tourism research articles, Crouch and Perdue (2015) reported that 'the number of citations per article has grown from 12.1 in 1980 to more than 50 in 2010, while 'journal citations have increased from 26.8% to 60.3%' (p. 575).

Li (2012) recognized that tourism destination image has proven equally critical in both demand and supply sides; from the demand perspective, research studies have focused on its role in destination choice processes, and from the supply perspective, it has been studied for destination positioning and competition purposes. As such, increased interest in destination

image is the result of realizing that destination image is crucial in impacting preferences towards a destination (Dolnicar & Grün, 2013).

From the supply side, there is a view that the destination is an essential component of marketing strategy that captures and increases tourist loyalty to gain revenue, enhance employment and contribute in regional development (Palau-Saumell, Forgas-Coll, Amaya-Molinar, & Sánchez-García, 2016) - the direct economic impacts of tourism (Song, Li, & Cao, 2017). Therefore, understanding consumer behaviour, known as tourist behaviour in tourism research, is the central point of a marketing strategy (Cohen, Prayag, & Moital, 2014). As Petrick, Morais, and Norman (2001) suggested, knowledge about constructs that are best predictors of behavioural intentions is useful for the development of destination's marketing plans, because 'when destinations have appropriate knowledge in hand, they can maintain a competitive advantage in terms of response time to problem-solving and quality decisions' (Pyo, 2012, p. 1157). Thus, identifying the determinants of tourist behavioural intentions is still in the centre of destination image research. As such, the image remains to emerge as an essential pull factor in the tourist decision-making process. For example, Wong, Xu, Tan, and Wen (2019) showed that with favourable cognitive destination image even tourists with low satisfaction might still be willing to remain loyal, and thus proved the importance of destination image.

Indeed, the effect of destination image on behavioural intentions appears as the most dominant subject by testing it's direct (Chaulagain, Wiitala, & Fu, 2019; Huang, van der Veen, & Song, 2018; Stylos, Vassiliadis, Bellou, & Andronikidis, 2016; Xu, Chan, & Pratt, 2018), and indirect effects through variables such as satisfaction (Bhat Suhail & Darzi Mushtaq, 2018; Eid, El-Kassrawy, & Agag, 2019; Hasan Md, Abdullah Shamsul, Lew Tek, & Islam Md, 2019a; Li & Yang, 2015; Liu, Li, & Kim, 2017; Maghsoodi Tilaki, Hedayati Marzbali, Abdullah, & Bahauddin, 2016; Sanz-Blas, Buzova, & Carvajal-Trujillo, 2019), perceived value and quality (Hasan Md, Abdullah Shamsul, Lew Tek, & Islam, 2019b; Heydari Fard, Sanayei, & Ansari, 2019; Kim, Lee, Petrick, & Hahn, 2018; Moon & Han, 2019; Palau-Saumell et al., 2016; Yap, Ahmad, & Zhu, 2018). Therefore, studying destination images support destination marketing organizations 'to better understand how to control existing destination images, to repair the damage inflicted by negative events occurring at a destination, and, ultimately, to project desirable images of the destination in economically important markets' (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010, p. 576).

1.2 Gaps in the literature

Although studies have immensely contributed to the development of this research area by establishing the primary antecedents of tourist behaviour, a systematic understanding of how destination image contributes to its consequences is still absent because these findings are mostly based on cross-sectional data (e.g., Chen & Phou, 2013; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016). For this reason, Iordanova (2015) stated that a characteristic common to these studies is that they measured images either prior to, during, or after the trip to the destination.

On the other hand, recent studies have illustrated growing interest in incorporating pre-, during-, and post-travel destination images. These studies can be reviewed in two categories: (1) studies on change in the destination image, and (2) studies on the impact of change in the destination image. Studies in the first category have used keywords such as change, difference, shift, variation, modification, and decay in the destination image, and can be generalized as studies of change in the destination image. For example, a pivotal study by Kim, Stylidis, and Oh (2019b) confirmed variations among three-time points of travel and confirmed a change of destination image over time. Jani and Hwang (2011) identified a positive shift in image perceptions after the visit. King et al. (2015) ascertained decay in destination image was dimensionally specific, with affective and conative images more inclined to change, while cognitive image maintained stable. An important finding of these studies is that they unanimously indicate a positive shift in the image after experiencing the destination.

The main characteristic of the studies in the second category is that they went beyond identifying a change in destination image by illustrating the influence of this change on outcome variables (Lee, Kang, Reisinger, & Kim, 2012; Park & Nicolau, 2019), but these studies are not free from limitations that need attention. These studies have not tested the role of a pre-visit image in shaping post-visit consequences (Kim, Jung, Kim, & Fountoulaki, 2015; Manhas, Manrai, & Manrai, 2016). Also, some of these studies are limited in their focus by excluding the impact of before travel destination image, but rather measuring the impact of after travel destination images on outcome variables, such as satisfaction and behavioural intentions (e.g., Kim et al., 2019b). Therefore, approaches of existing studies fail to pull along the influence of pre-trip destination image on post-trip constructs.

This needs to be addressed because there is an indication that formation and change of destination are interdependent and continuous processes. King et al. (2015) correctly argued that the formation and change of destination image are related and is a continuous process, and therefore isolating them as unconnected is not plausible. Similarly, Cohen et al. (2014) stressed, the steps that an individual undergoes as a tourist is acknowledged as a process with varying yet inter-linked stages that are best analysed as a whole. Besides, there is theoretical support to claim the relationship of the pre-visit image on post-visit variables. Specifically, the stage and consistency seeking theories can serve as a foundation to hypothesize these relationships (discussed in the Literature Review).

Still, limited attention is paid to multilevel issues and theoretical integration in the research of destination development (Haugland, Ness, Grønseth, & Aarstad, 2011) because research on destination image mainly focuses on destination image as a static structure by examining the relationship between a specific image form (pre or post) and tourist behaviours (pre-visit decisions or post-visit future intentions) (King et al., 2015).

1.3 Contribution of the study

The purpose of this section is to discuss the contribution of the study. Mainly, two contributions stem from this research: theoretical and context-based. Firstly, from the theoretical point, the study proposes and tests an integrated conceptual model of pre- and post-stages of the destination image. Despite several calls that point to the need for a comprehensive model that incorporates the dynamic notion of destination image, such a model does not find mention in the extant literature. Secondly, by collecting the primary data in Uzbekistan, it addressed the need to focus on destinations that have not been researched before.

1.3.1 The need to examine the impact of pre-visit destination image on post-visit evaluation outcomes

As discussed, it has become clear that many studies that have attempted to study destination image formation process through longitudinal designs prove the widely held belief about the dynamic nature of the destination image formation process because destination image evolves. Moreover, there are empirical findings that indicate the dynamism of the destination image and the importance of pre-visit and post-visit images. For example, Smith, Li, Pan,

Witte, and Doherty (2015) used a longitudinal method to come to this conclusion. Before the trip, the participants completed a pre-visit survey. After that, they were asked to record their thoughts and feelings about what they saw four times during their trip. Next, they completed a post-visit survey one month after the trip. As a result of their analysis, they concluded that the destination image is dynamic, which evolves continuously throughout the tourist's trip. Interestingly, the study also found that the most important impressions are those that are shaped upon arrival and departure. Therefore, this empirical finding indicates the importance of the calls to integrate the pre-visit destination image in the relationships among post-visit perceptions.

To conclude, the cross-sectional studies repeatedly have researched the effect of destination image on travelers' behavioural intentions. Further, the longitudinal studies have tested the impact of pre- and post-visit destination image incongruence on satisfaction and other variables. These studies undoubtedly provide the advancement of establishing the influence of destination image on relative constructs, and thus, the importance of destination image in tourist behaviour. However, from the review of the extant literature, it is clear the studies that try to understand the complex relationships that link both pre-trip and post-trip destination images with critical trip-related outcome variables (e.g., satisfaction and behavioural intentions) have not been conducted so far, despite the repeated calls for such studies. Therefore, the role of the pre-visit destination image in shaping the constructs that evolve in the subsequent phases of the travel experience remains unknown. Considering the gap and the calls to address this gap in the literature, the current study attempted to explore this theme by hypothesising the capacity of pre-visit destination image perceptions to directly influence post-visit destination image (perceptions) and to indirectly influence post-trip destination image evaluation outcomes (i.e., perceived value, satisfaction, and word-of-mouth intentions). Doing so, it offers a new model for understanding the root of tourists' post-visit evaluations and choices. The generalized overview of the model is given in Figure 1.

Figure 1 Generalized overview of the conceptual model



1.3.2 Uzbekistan – data collection site

The majority of studies on destination image and tourist behavioural intentions were conducted in the West (Sun, Geng-Qing Chi, & Xu, 2013; Wang & Hsu, 2010). Examining the destination image studies published during 25 years, Josiassen, Assaf, Woo, and Kock (2016b) identified that the focus on Western destinations dominated, followed by Latin America, Africa, Middle East, Northern and Southern Asia, and Oceania. Therefore, there is scarcity in research on Central Asian destinations. The systematic review conducted as part of the current research identified one empirical study by Lee et al. (2012), which examined the image of Central Asia, but exceptionally by Korean tourists. Also, it has a general focus on all Central Asian regions. So, the literature points to the need to pay attention to underresearched destinations.

Therefore, the current study is the first empirical study with the choice of Uzbekistan as the data collection site – an under-researched destination, though with a highly developed tourism industry. In general, the destinations that see success in tourism strive to use their cultural and other resources to expand the economy (Du, Lew, & Ng, 2014; Lban, Kaşli, & Bezirgan, 2015). Uzbekistan also has been promoting its touristic image to develop its inbound tourism. Therefore, the results of the study also hold significant practical implications by determining its image as a tourism destination because, as O'Leary and Deegan (2005) noted, a combination of pre- and post-visit questionnaires is 'an essential

component of the image appraisal process' (p. 251) so that destination marketing efforts can be made to match expectations with reality.

To sum up, the originality of the current study stems from, firstly, its attempt to examine the role of pre-trip destination image on post-trip consequences. Secondly, having chosen its data collection site as Uzbekistan, it hopes to contribute to increasing research interest in destinations like Uzbekistan.

1.4 The methodology of the study

This part of the research is an overview of the study's data collection method and its sample population. The main purpose is to explain the reasons behind the choice of the method of collecting the longitudinal data and, therefore, the methodological contribution of the study. The choice of international tourists as the sample population is also discussed.

Methodologically, studies with a focus on more than a single stage of a trip have adopted either of the three methods: (i) a retrospective method, which implies measuring the pre-trip destination image after the trip; (ii) different samples method, which means measuring preand post-trip destination images of arriving and departing tourists and (iii) same samples method, which implies measuring pre- and post-trip images from the same sample before and then after their trips.

The first two methods are quite common despite recognized limitations; based on the systematic literature review, 31 studies out of 45 were identified in these categories (e.g., Assaker & Hallak, 2013; Iordanova & Stylidis, 2019; Martín-Santana, Beerli-Palacio, & Nazzareno, 2017). The main drawback of the first method is that the application of retrospective measure is susceptible to memory recall (Kim, McKercher, & Lee, 2009) because it measures pre-trip destination image after the trip based on the respondents' memory. Besides, it has received empirical confirmation that destination image changes and weakens as a result of the impact of memory decay over time (King et al., 2015). As per the second method – the different samples method, Jani and Nguni (2016), pointed out that the studies on differences between pre- and post- destination images are rather a proxy of image development due to study design completed by different samples. Therefore, the use of the same respondents with a more objective measurement method is necessary while incorporating more than a single trip stage (Wang & Davidson, 2010). Such an approach is

guaranteed to capture actual changes without the interference of externalities (e.g., individual and travelling differences) (Jani & Nguni, 2016).

Although the third – same samples method, is the most appropriate design to reduce these limitations, it is difficult to reach to the same respondents repeatedly. Therefore, the studies in this category have used during and after trip data collection, or they have used a sample population of participants of sports events, such as marathons and Olympics. Li and Vogelsong (2006) and Vogt and Andereck (2003) collected data from the same respondents but first during and then after the trip. King et al. (2015) collected data from sport tourists three weeks after the event and again, ten months after the event.

The current study chose to collect its data from the same sample of tourists at two points in time to control the issues such as intrapersonal differences. The data was collected at the start and then at the end of their tours at the destination. However, it also has limitations due to the difficulties to reach the respondents before they arrive at the destination and after they leave the destination.

1.5 Rationale behind the choice of the sample population

Further, the scope of the study is the perceived image by international tourists. According to Sekuler and Blake (2002, cited in Wang & Davidson, 2010), perception is 'the acquisition and processing of sensory information to see, hear, taste, smell, or feel objects in the world' and more importantly, it 'guides an organism's actions concerning those objects' (p. 113).

In this study, *perceived image* is defined as the image constructed in the tourists' minds before and after their visits to the destination and the *tourists* are international visitors to the destination. Theoretically, the reason behind the choice of the sample population is the empirically confirmed differences between international and domestic tourists, while practically the purpose is to support inbound tourism growth in the destination under the study by identifying international tourists' perceptions of the destination's image.

Firstly, empirical studies report differences between international and domestic tourists' perceived images. For example, Slak Valek and Williams (2018) examined perceptions of Abu Dhabi's image of locals and foreign tourists and identified that the associations with the destination's image by residents significantly differed from those of foreigners. Similarly,

Aziz and Zainol (2009) identified that destination images of domestic tourists were higher than foreign tourists. Another study by Bui and Le (2016) found differences between domestic and international tourists, with international tourists having higher standards and being more critical in their perceptions and expressing lower satisfactions. Also, an interesting finding of the study by Eusébio and Vieira (2013) showed a significant impact of a destination's attributes on willingness to recommend the destination was evident in international tourists than in domestic tourists. As such, a study cannot combine international and domestic tourists as a single population.

Secondly, the data collection point of this study was Uzbekistan. International tourism development is critical for countries in the state of transition, like Uzbekistan (Zaman, Moemen, & Islam, 2017), due to its socio-economic importance through an increase in income, employment rates and government revenues (Darbellay & Stock, 2012; Lban et al., 2015; Smallman & Moore, 2010). Nevertheless, there is a lack of academic research in Uzbekistan despite the attempts by the destination's stakeholders to promote it to the world outside the destination. By conducting primary data collection in this destination with its international tourists, the hope is to provide some practical usefulness to the destination's tourism stakeholders because it is important for tourism destinations to be aware of the image that tourists have so that they can enhance the competitiveness of their destinations.

1.6 Aim and objectives

Considering the identified gap and the specific calls made by scholars of the importance of examining pre- and post-visit destination images as a continuous process, this study attempted to address this gap. Therefore, the aim of the study is: to establish the impact of pre-visit destination image perceptions on post-visit destination image perceptions and destination image evaluation outcomes. The following are the broad objectives of this study:

- to explore extent theories and empirical studies to establish pre- and post-visit destination image as an integrated process;
- to identify the destination image evaluation outcome variables;
- to develop a conceptual model that incorporates the relationships between pre- and post-visit destination image and the destination image evaluation outcome variables;
- to validate the relationships in the conceptual model using longitudinal data.

1.7 Specification of the terms

The purpose of this subsection is to clarify the application of a country at a destination level, and the usage of 'visit' in the context of this study.

1.7.1 A country as a tourist destination

World Tourism Organization (2019) defines a tourism destination as 'a physical space with or without administrative and/or analytical boundaries in which a visitor can spend an overnight' (p. 10). Gallarza, Saura, and García (2002) identified five destination levels as object variables of destination image studies: countries, cities, states, ski-stations, areas such as valleys and islands. Similarly, Echtner and Ritchie (2003) counted states, regions, and countries as representatives of destinations. Further, Josiassen et al. (2016b) identified that destination image is the most studied destination level. Similarly, the destination on the focus of this study is Uzbekistan – a country with several touristic ancient cities visited by tourists as a single-route trip.

In the consumer behaviour literature, country image and destination image have been investigated and found as two different constructs, and the studies have represented the country image as an antecedent of destination image (Palau-Saumell et al., 2016). Lee and Hsu (2013) stated that the concept of the country image should be considered different from the idea of destination image based on their analysis, which showed the individuals rated Turkey as a tourism destination more positively than as a country. These studies indicate that country image covers factors different than destination image. As such, even when the destination level is a country tourists still evaluate it as a tourist destination. Therefore, in instances like Uzbekistan where the tourists visit several cities kilometres away from each other, it allows to generalize it as Uzbekistan, instead of referring to each of its specific touristic cities.

1.7.2 'Visit' in the scope of the study

As stated, the pre-visit data of this study were collected at the destination before the tours, and post-visit data were collected again at the destination after the tours. Therefore, the question was whether it would be appropriate to use 'visit' when, the data collection did not cover the actual start and endpoints of the visit.

Although destination image studies have used words like 'trip' (e.g., Chen, 2019; Jani & Nguni, 2016; Tasci, 2006; Wang & Davidson, 2010; Yilmaz, Yilmaz, İçigen, Ekin, & Utku, 2009) and 'travel' (e.g., Akhoondnejad, 2015; Kim et al., 2019b) interchangeably in their studies of destination image perceived by tourists, 'visit' is the most used word in this sense. Using 'visit' is a common practice particularly with the prefixes 'pre' and 'post' (i.e., pre-visit, post-visit) (e.g., Beerli-Palacio & Martín-Santana, 2019; Beerli-Palacio & Martín-Santana Josefa, 2017; Chen, Ji, & Funk, 2014; Chon, 1991; Florek, Breitbarth, & Conejo, 2008; Jani & Hwang, 2011; Kim & Chen, 2016; Kim et al., 2009; Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2014a; Lim, Chew, Lim, & Liu, 2014; Martín-Santana et al., 2017). The studies that collected data while tourists were at the destination also used 'visit' even though collecting data after tourists have arrived at the destination might be insufficient to measure the 'visit,' but rather 'experience' at the destination. Yilmaz et al. (2009) used pre- and post-trip, although their sample population was arriving and departing tourists. Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana Josefa (2017) also obtained post-visit questionnaires at the destination.

On the other hand, some studies used 'experience,' but not as synonymous to 'visit.' Pujiastuti, Nimran, Suharyono, and Kusumawati (2017) explained the experience as a perception established during an event. For example, as they explained, consumption experience is 'awareness and feelings' (p. 1171) of the consumers during product consumption. The authors operationalized the construct through items like 'joy, cheerful, pleasure, etc.'. Similarly, Lee, Chang, and Luo (2016) operationalized recreation experience through the feelings that resulted from interacting with the destination. Therefore, tourist experience is a tourist's subjective perceptions during the trip activities and tourist's feelings that are aroused after the visit.

Considering the scope of use in most studies, the terms 'pre- and post-visit' were used in the current study, although the study's data collection method puts the image measured analogous to the destination image before and after experiencing the destinations' touristic attractions.

1.8 Outline of the study

This thesis is organized into five chapters, which are outlined in Table 1. After the fifth chapter, the conclusion of the study, the limitations of and possible implications from the study are also stated.

Table 1 Outline of the study

Study chapter	Chapter content
Chapter 1. Introduction	 the importance of studying destination image is discussed the originality of the study is stated based on the discussion of the gap in the literature data collection methods used by the empirical studies are briefly discussed, their limitations are indicated, and the method of the current study is justified. The choice of the sample population is also justified the rationale behind using 'country' as a destination level, and usage of 'visit' is explained the study's aim and objectives are stated
 Chapter 2. Literature Review Objective 1: to explore extent theories and empirical studies to establish pre- and post-visit destination image as an integrated process Objective 2: to identify the destination image evaluation outcome variables; Objective 3: 	 destination image is discussed with related disciplines definitions of the destination image are reviewed, and main categories of the definitions are identified based on empirical and conceptual studies, the destination image is explained as a dynamic process that goes through several stages. Theoretical foundations (i.e., stage theory and consistency seeking theories) are also presented. Based on the attitude theory and empirical studies, destination image is identified to comprise cognitive, affective, and overall images the findings identified based on the 363 studies as a result of the systematic literature review are presented. The relationships among the image components, and the studied evaluation outcome constructs after the visit and their relationships are identified. The

to develop a conceptual model that	gap in the literature is discussed based on the studies that examined destination image		
incorporates pre- and post-visit destination	as a multi-stage process		
image and the destination image evaluation	• the hypotheses of the study are set, and the conceptual model of the study is outlined.		
outcome variables			
Chapter 3. Research Methodology	• the research methodology is discussed based on the 'research onion' by (Saunders,		
• Objective 4	Lewis, & Thornhill, 2015)		
• Objective 4:	• the operationalization of the variables is discussed with their sources		
to validate the relationships in the	• the longitudinal data collection procedure is detailed		
data	• the ethical procedure is reported		
uata	• Uzbekistan – the data collection site is described as a tourism destination		
	• the piloting study details are provided		
Chapter 4. Uzbekistan – data collection site	discussion of Uzbekistan as a tourism destination		
Chapter 5. Data analysis	the chapter includes the analysis results on the SmartPLS3:		
	• data screening results		
• Objective 4:	• descriptive statistics		
to validate the relationships in the	 paired t test results of the pro- and post cognitive images 		
conceptual model using longitudinal data	• parted t-test results of the pre- and post-cognitive images		
	• results of the open-ended questions		
	measurement model evaluation		
	• structural model evaluation, including direct and indirect hypotheses testing results		

Chapter 6: Discussion of the findings	meaning and importance of the findings are discussed in relevance to the study's theoretical	
	basis and existing studies	
Conclusion, limitations and implications	• the conclusion states summary of the study argument and the main findings	
	• the limitations of the study are acknowledged	
	• theoretical and possible practical impacts are given	

CHAPTER 2 Literature review

The purpose of this subchapter is, firstly, to examine destination image construct and to reveal the destination image as a process that incorporates more than a single stage, which leads to the fulfilment of the objective one (i.e., to explore extent theories and empirical studies to establish pre- and post-visit destination image as an integrated process). Secondly, in this chapter, the relationships between destination image and post-visit outcome variables are established in light of the conceptual and empirical literature in this research field. By doing so, it allows us to present the current state of research and to demonstrate the gap that this study has addressed and to achieve objective two of the study (i.e., to identify the destination image evaluation outcome variables). Thirdly, it contains the hypotheses and the conceptual model of the study to fulfill the objective three (i.e., to develop a conceptual model that incorporates pre- and post-visit destination image and destination image evaluation outcome variables).

2.1 The roots of destination image

The roots of the destination image as a field of study goes back to multiple disciplines (Prebežac & Mikulić, 2008). Before the introduction to the tourism research, 'image' has been studied in the disciplines of social and environmental psychology, marketing, and consumer behaviour (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). Further, Konecnik and Gartner (2007) stated that destination image has been broadly studied with roots in marketing and has been analysed in disciplines such as anthropology, geography, and sociology. They identified the destination image concept as mostly being investigated under the 'tourism decision process' (p. 404) topics rooted in consumer behaviour studies. So, the literature shows that the origins of the destination image concept stem from disciplines of psychology, philosophy, geography, anthropology, sociology, and consumer behaviour. Before proceeding to the meaning of destination image, therefore, it is worth reviewing how destination image has developed in light of these disciplines to better understand the concept of the destination image.

Mainly, psychology can be pointed as the principal among these disciplines (Skavronskaya et al., 2017), since image formation is closely related to the concept of imagery (i.e., mental picturing). Imagery is fulfilled by any or all the senses (e.g., smell, taste), which in turn makes it 'a distinct way of processing and storing multisensory information in working

memory' (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003, p. 39). Psychologists outline imagery as visualization of past or future happenings through mentally formed images (Iordanova, 2015), and define the image as a way of processing and holding information received through multiple senses in the cognitive system (i.e., working memory) (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003). It is also searching for objects, such as scenes, symbols, or people, in the long-term memory (Pearce, 1982, cited in Galvani & Pirazzoli, 2013). Furthermore, the notion of destination image that confirms positive feelings as important components of the travel experience is characteristic of hedonic psychological views (Skavronskaya et al., 2017). Therefore, image formation as a mentally developed process heavily relies on the guidelines in psychology.

Contributions of other disciplines namely, anthropology and sociology play an equally crucial role in conceptualizing destination image as a mental construct (Prats, Camprubí, & Coromina, 2016). Furthermore, based on the philosophical stance, image reflects the relationship between reality and individuals' perceptions (Iordanova, 2015). Geographers take a more holistic viewpoint towards place images through impressions, knowledge, and emotions (Jenkins, 1999). These points highlight core notions of destination image construct, and their significance for destination image research becomes even more evident in their use of the key terms, such as 'impressions' and 'a mental construct,' which are active in definitions of the destination image. For example, Dichter (1985) defined the image concept as the total impression that an object makes in the minds of individuals, while, as per Foroudi et al. (2018), image is the development of a memory code or a mental construct that is triggered by the provided information. As seen, anthropology, sociology, philosophy, geography, and several other disciplines are valuable in the development of destination image research.

Another closely related field that has contributed to the development of destination image research is consumer behaviour with its concept of 'product image' (Madden, Rashid, & Zainol, 2016). Pan and Li (2011) ascertained that the notion of the image had been widely applied by marketing scholars in regard to individuals' perceptions of a product, store, or entity. After that, the concept of image entered the tourism area to mean people's perceptions of a place. As such, it is not surprising that the image of a product and of a destination hold similar definitions. For example, like most definitions of destination image, the definitions by Herzog (1963), Dichter (1985), and Hampton et al. (1987) (cited in Echtner & Ritchie, 2003) described product image is the sum of impressions received from multiple sources or the

experience and is subjective, as well as multidimensional. The two constructs (i.e., product image and destination image) also share views on how the perceptions (about images) are developed through. A study by Price (1987, cited in Echtner & Ritchie, 2003) is significant in explaining this because it suggests that discursive and imagery modes are active while processing product information. Discursive processing is about processing information based on individual attributes, while imagery processing takes place through holistic information. What this means is that perceptions of a product are based on its individual attributes and holistic features; the same point ascertained in destination image research.

Another concept in consumer behaviour – the construct of brand image is also in line with the destination image. As per Dobni and Zinkhan (1990), the notion of brand image in consumer behaviour research was introduced in the 1950s, while destination image as a concept started to emerge in the 1970s (Bruwer, Pratt, Saliba, & Hirche, 2017). The concept of brand image combines the importance of feelings nearby physical attributes for consumer's choice of a particular brand (Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990). Definitions of the brand image define the concept as the sum of impressions that the consumer has about a brand that are established by various sources (Newman 1957, cited in Barnes, Mattsson, & Sørensen, 2014), a group of ideas, feelings and attitudes towards the brands (Gardner and Levy 1985, cited in Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990), or as overall perceptions and impressions about the brand (Lee, James, & Kim, 2014b; Zhang, 2015). Also, brand image is defined as the associations, such as characteristics and aspects of a brand in the consumer's minds (Keller, Parameswaran, & Jacob, 2011; Kotler & Keller, 2016). This implies that, like the destination image, the brand image bears holistic, attribute-based, and affective perceptions.

2.2 Destination image definitions

Up to here, it became clear that the relatively recent discipline of destination image relies on other related disciplines to establish its principles. As such, the next task is to understand what destination image is by reviewing its proposed definitions.

There are numerous definitions of destination image, and the existence of multiple approaches to define destination image highlights the vagueness of the construct. Despite an increase in the number of destination image studies, little consensus has been achieved among the alternative conceptualizations (Stylos & Andronikidis, 2013), resulting in a lack of uniform definition (Galvani & Pirazzoli, 2013). One reason for this might be that destination image studies are conducted by researchers with a diverse academic background, including tourism, hospitality, business, psychology, and sociology (Keller et al., 2011; Tasci, 2009). For example, studies have used component, dimension, factor, and attribute as synonyms (Iordanova, 2015). The application of different terminologies towards the same concept by the researchers with diverse backgrounds, perhaps, is the main reason for inconsistency among some definitions. Existing definitions of destination image are cited in several studies (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Gallarza et al., 2002; Nghiêm-Phú, 2014; Rodrigues, Correia, & Kozak, 2012; Su, Hsu, & Swanson, 2017; Tasci, Gartner, & Tamer Cavusgil, 2007; Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014). Therefore, the definitions have been derived from these studies and blended into a single Table 2.

Holistic-focused definitions				
A totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas,	The result of composite perceptions which	Not individual traits but the total		
expectations, and feelings accumulated	are, in turn, dictated by attitudes to result in a	impression an entity makes (Reilly, 1990)		
toward a place over time (Kim and	positive or negative image (Susssmann and	The set of meanings by which an object is		
Richardson, 2003)	Unel, 1999)	known and through which people describe,		
A composite of various products (attractions)	The image of a place is the sum of beliefs,	remember and relate to it. Result of the		
and attributes woven into a total impression	ideas, and impressions that a person holds of	interaction of a person's beliefs, ideas,		
(MacKay and Fesenmaier, 2000)	it (Kotler, 1994)	feelings, expectations and impressions about		
A sum of associations and pieces of	Overall impression or attitude that an	a destination (Chon, 1990)		
information connected to a destination, which	individual acquires of a specific destination	Overall impression which is formed as a		
would include multiple components of the	(Degostar and Isotalo, 1992)	result of the evaluation of individual		
destination and personal perception (Murphy,		attributes which may contain both cognitive		
Pritchard, and Smith, 2000)		and emotional components (Dichter, 1985)		
Attitude-based definitions				
An attitude-like construct consisting of	Destination images are developed by three	The perceptions of individual destination		
cognitive and affective evaluations (Faulland,	hierarchically interrelated components:	attributes and the holistic impression made by		
Matzler and Füller, 2008)		the destination (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991)		

An individual's mental representation of	cognitive, affective, and conative (Gartner,		
knowledge, feelings, and global impressions	1993; 1996)		
about a destination (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999)	Destination image comprises attribute,		
	holistic, functional, psychological, common		
	and unique components (Echtner and Ritchie,		
	1993)		
Attribute-focused definitions	·		
An expression of knowledge, impressions,	Images represent a simplification of a large	Image is the mental construct developed by a	
imaginations, prejudice and emotional	number of associations and pieces of	potential tourist on the basis of a few selected	
thoughts an individual or group has of a	information connected with the place. They	impressions among the flood of total	
particular destination (Lawson, 1977)	are the product of the mind trying to process	impressions (Fakeye, 1991)	
Image is a mental representation of attributes and benefits sought of a product (Santos Arrebola, 1994)	and essentialize huge amounts of data about a place (Kotler, Haider and Rein, 1993)		
Subject-focused definitions			
	1		
The subjective interpretation of reality made	People's beliefs, ideas or impressions about a	Ideas or conceptions held individually or	
by the tourist (Bigne et al., 2001)	place (Choi, Chan, and Wu, 1999)	collectively of the destination under	
		investigation (Embacher and Buttle, 1989)	

Perceptions or impressions of a destination	Visual or mental impression of a place, a	Perceptions held by potential visitors about
held by tourists with respect to the expected	product, or an experience held by the general	an area (Hunt, 1975)
benefit or consumption values including	public (Milman and Pizam, 1995)	
functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and		
conditional benefits of a destination		
(Tapachai and Waryszak, 2000)		
Relatively imprecise definitions		
A common structure or schema of evaluations	Perceptions of potential tourist destinations	Perceptions or impressions of a place (Phelps,
that can be used to differentiate between	(Calantone et al., 1989)	1986)
tourism destinations (Walmsley and Young,		
1998)	Perceptions of vacation attributes	
,	(Richardson and Crompton, 1988)	

Source: Echtner and Ritchie (2003); Gallarza et al. (2002); Li, Ali, and Kim (2015); Nghiêm-Phú (2014); Rodrigues et al. (2012); Su et al.

(2017); Tasci et al. (2007); Zhang et al. (2014)

For more clarity, it could be valuable to analyse these definitions by categorizing them based on the approaches they have undertaken. Some studies have proposed some categories that emerge from these definitions. For example, Josiassen et al. (2016b) highlighted four reasons behind the disagreement in the definitions. Firstly, they differ in terms of the receiver of the image – an individual versus a group. Secondly, scholars do not agree whether destination image is an overall or attribute-based concept. The other two are related to the antecedents and consequences of destination image, which are not the destination image itself, rather the factors that have relationships with destination image. Thus, at the same time, there are no clear categories set to differentiate the definitions. As such, five groups of definitions have been proposed to better explain the characteristics of the definitions included in Table 2: holistic-focused, attitude-based, attribute-focused, subject-focused, and relatively vague definitions.

In setting up these categories, the main attention was to identify the approaches that they have undertaken. Firstly, in the holistic-focused definitions, the keywords such as 'overall,' 'set of,' and 'composite of' are perceptible. As per these definitions, the destination image takes generalised form in the minds of the receiver. Secondly, contrary to this group is the attribute-focused definitions, which highlight certain attributes of the destination as imagegenerators. Thirdly, similar to this latter group are attitude-based definitions, which also highlight certain attributes as active in image formation. However, they explicitly spotlight cognitive, affective, and conative components that make up the process of destination image formation, which is the central concept of attitude theory. Fourthly, unlike these groups, subject-based definitions specifically define the recipient. Further, they can be divided into individual-based (e.g., a tourist) and group-based (e.g., people, potential visitors) definitions. Fifthly are the definitions that do not cover the aforementioned characteristics and are relatively vague in their depictions. Nevertheless, some definitions might be included in more than a single group. For example, Choi, Chan, and Wu (1999) illustrated the attributes of the destination and specified the subject. Therefore, these five categories of definitions have been provided for the grounds of clarity; to better understand proposed meanings of destination image by reviewing each perspective through their similarities and differences.

Specifically, among these definitions, the one by Echtner and Ritchie (1993) has been cited as the most influential (Madden et al., 2016). This study proposed that destination image has attribute-based and holistic components. They also suggest that three axes , namely

functional-psychological, common-unique, and holistic-attribute are involved in the construction of destination image. Theoretically, holistic and attribute-based definitions contradict each other because the high involvement, piecemeal-based, and systematic processing theories ascertain an individual as a logical thinker who evaluates an object based on its every attribute to form an impression (Tasci et al., 2007). Therefore, attribute-based definitions are built upon these assumptions. On the opposite are low involvement, heuristic, and category-based processing theories that do not assume such cognitive capability of an individual, but rather who prefer simplification and, thus, a holistic way to form impressions. Although attribute and holistic approaches seem to contradict each other, Echtner and Ritchie's proposition has gained popularity and adopted in many empirical studies.

Not included in the table are more recent definitions, and they are comparatively complex. One of them is by Iordanova (2015): 'a construct consisting of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time gathered from a variety of information sources and shaped through an individual's socio-demographic and psychological characteristics' (p. 49). The authors accentuated that their definition considers the dynamic structure of the destination image and the important role of time in destination formation. Besides dynamic, this definition illustrates cognitive and affective characteristics of destination image, points to the subjectivity of the construct, and the influence of personal characteristics on it.

Although existing definitions are varied, they cover certain aspects that represent destination image and can be viewed as complementing each other. Also, 'expectations' noted in these definitions can be viewed as pre-visit destination image because expectations are the individuals' beliefs of the predicted performance of an object (Oliver, 1987, cited in del Bosque & Martín, 2008).

Having considered that a more precise and uniformly accepted definition of the construct is yet to be achieved, taking advantage of existing definitions pertinent to the scope of this study for this specific study, the following definition is proposed:

Perceived destination image is the construct comprised of hierarchically related cognitive, affective, and overall perceptions, each developed at the pre-visit stage, and re-evaluated at the associated post-visit stage as a result of experience with the destination

2.3 Destination image – a dynamic process

In destination image literature, there is an advancing approach to treating destination image as a continuously evolving dynamic structure (Iordanova, 2017). In the social sciences, the main feature of dynamical systems is time dependency, and thus change over time, and their future states are dictated by their past states (Gilbert et al., 2015). This is also true in the context of destination image studies. For example, Lee et al. (2014a), by referring to the dynamic destination image, explained it as the characteristic of an image that differs by the time of the travel stage. Similarly, as per Cardoso, Dias, de Araújo, and Andrés Marques (2019b), the dynamic nature of the image is represented by its gradual formation in the long-term memory throughout the time. Alternatively, Iordanova (2015) used the expression 'overtime' as synonymous to express the dynamic structure of the image. Another explanation is the model of destination image in the study by Teodorescu, Pârgaru, Stancioiu, Matei, and Botos (2014), which has 'image dynamics' – a representation of the evolution of image over time, as one of the five functional blocks. These studies have coherently showed that destination image's dynamic structure reflects its gradual development that takes place with time.

Equally, empirical studies have concluded that change in destination image occurs over time based on the findings that confirmed positive change throughout and after the travel experience (Kim et al., 2019b; Lee et al., 2014a). Dynamic nature of the image formation process has received significant support in extant literature (e.g., Chon, 1991; Iordanova, 2017; Lee et al., 2014a; Martín-Santana et al., 2017; O'Leary & Deegan, 2005). As a result, these studies strongly emphasised destination image formation as a process that develops in more than a single-stage throughout the travel experience.

In fact, the literature recognizes three stages of tourist behaviour: pre-visit decision making, during-visit experience evaluations, and post-visit behavioural intentions (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Prayag & Ryan, 2012), and asserts three fundamental periods that the process of travel-related decision-making takes place: before, during and after the trip (Martín-Santana et al., 2017). Similarly, images are assessed in terms of prior visitation, during visitation, and after trip evaluations (Prayag, 2008). Alternatively, some scholars, like Fayed, Wafik, and Gerges (2016), ascertained tourist behaviour as an aggregate construct with four stages: pre-trip, on-

site, post-trip, and future decision-making. Nevertheless, the important point is that destination image is a process updated in response to the time frame it passes.

Despite these claims, there are two drawbacks of destination image studies. Firstly, crosssectional destination image studies with tourists' behavioural intentions as an outcome variable concentrated on empirically testing their hypotheses applying 'destination image' as a general term without establishing the correct position of destination image in terms of time frame. In fact, after scrutinizing their sample population and data collection site, it becomes evident that the 'destination image' under investigation is either a during-visit destination image (that continues to evolve until the end of the visit) or a post-visit destination image, although they uniformly test its impact on tourists' behavioural intentions, which leads to the assumption that during- and post-visit destination images are equal in influencing the behavioural intentions.

Secondly, a lack of theoretical justification for their claims is the weakness of most empirical studies. Indeed, the conceptual studies highlighted the absence of a clearly defined theoretical base that guides empirical destination image studies (Gallarza et al., 2002; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). As such, the studies that have applied statistical models without developing theoretic bodies predominate. Therefore, they have been portrayed as 'insufficiently theory-based'(Beerli & Martín, 2004, p. 658; Hallmann, Zehrer, & Müller, 2015, p. 94), and as 'devoid of a theoretical base' (Prayag & Ryan, 2012, p. 343).

The first conclusion is that increasingly there is a realisation that image formation and substantiation are dynamic processes and should not ideally be studied as a static construct. Next, a conceptual model should be established based on its theoretical justification. Taking these points into consideration, current study has distinguished between pre- and post-visit stages and identified the foundations of stage theories and consistency seeking theories well serve to explain the multi-stage property of destination image and the linkages between the stages.

2.3.1 Stage theory

Gunn's stage theory of organic and induced images can be explored to trace back the multistage destination image formation paradigm. The multi-stage property of destination image is used to define destination image as a continuous process developed throughout several stages that a tourist passes. Proposed in 1972, Gunn's imagery modification model involves constant development and modification of images at different levels of travel behaviour (Iordanova & Stylidis, 2019; Prats et al., 2016) through seven stages: accumulation of mental image about the experience (1), modification of those images through information (2), decision to take a trip (3), travel to the destination (4), participation at the destination (5), return travel (6), and new accumulation of images (7) (Chon, 1991). To summarize, the development of the image starts before the trip and continues with modification at the destination and image accumulation after return (Kim et al., 2019b). In empirical tourism studies, this model has been applied in exploring the impact of information sources in the destination image formation process (Ku & Mak, 2017; Siriwardana, Chaminda, & Rathnayake, 2019). On the other hand, several studies referred to this work in investigating the change in destination image after the experience. For example, through Gunn's model, Lee et al. (2014a) explained that tourist destination image changes throughout the stages of the travel experience. Similarly, Jenkins (1999) suggested the difference between visitors and non-visitors based on Gunn's concept that the destination image is constantly built and modified. Also, based on this model Iordanova (2015) propositioned that the image of visitors, repeat visitors, and nonvisitors are different. These studies lead to the conclusion that the stage theory has its empirical evidence in explaining image change.

Although proposed in tourism research, Gunn's stage theory has roots in consumer behaviour research, and several models of consumer behaviour have been advanced to date. Based on the classical buyer behaviour school of thought, consumer behaviour models treat consumers as rational decision-makers (Cohen et al., 2014), therefore focus on decision-making stages from a rational approach (Hall, Towers, & Shaw Duncan, 2017a). Earlier consumer behaviour models include Andreason (1965), Nicosia (1976), Howard-Sheth (1969), Engel-Kollat-Blackwell (1968), Bettman's (1979) information-processing models and are referred as 'grand models' (Prasad & Jha, 2014). These models' theoretical and practical importance is that they concentrate on the factors that play vital roles in the decision-making process and the stages that a consumer undergoes throughout this process (Prasad & Jha, 2014). Although similar variables appear in each of these models (e.g., attitude, motivation), the main difference is the technique that each model implements.

Among these models, the Consumer Decision Model by Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard, originally established by Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell in 1968 (Ashman, Solomon, & Wolny,
2015) is one of the most detailed models to describe the buying behaviour. It extends the original five-stage problem-solving process in educational philosophy by John Dewey (1910, cited in Ashman et al., 2015). As depicted in Figure 1, in the Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell (EKB) model, the decision process has the stages of need recognition, search, alternative evaluation, purchase, and outcome (Stankevich, 2017). Despite its power in explaining the buying process in more detail, the model has been criticized for its difficulty to be applied in practice by information overload, and for missing possible links between different factors. Nevertheless, the EKB model helps structure a framework that systematically defines the consumers' decision-making steps (Ashman et al., 2015). Also, Chae, Black, and Heitmeyer (2006) supported the relationship between pre- and post-purchase satisfaction with the application of the third and fifth stages of the consumer decision-making model by Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard.

Figure 2 EKB model of consumer decision-making



Source: Prasad and Jha (2014, p. 342)

As seen, besides identifying critical mechanisms in the image formation process, the important message of the EKB model is that the mental images about the product (in this case, destination) keep developing and reshaping throughout the stages. Following this assumption, it can be concluded that destination image development does not stop in the previsit stage, or that post-visit destination image does not cut the link with that developed in the pre-visit. Also, the decision process of the model shows that the order of effects follows beliefs – attitude – intentions – purchase – outcomes – satisfaction sequence. However, the flow of sequence is not fixed, but rather flexible, and the steps can be skipped or even reordered (Karimi, Papamichail, & Holland, 2015). Broadly, this means that in accordance with the factors such as the nature of the purchase, or the consumer's personality, not all stages might take place because depending on whether the situation is either extended or

limited problem solving the degree of the involvement in each stage can be modified. Therefore, it can be a basis on the current study's stance that *destination image can be integrated as pre- and post-visit destination images and outcomes and that there is a direct link between pre- and post-visit destination images.*

2.3.2 Consistency seeking theories

Although stage models ascertain image formation as a multi-stage process, the linkage between pre-purchase (or pre-visit in the case of destination image) beliefs and post-purchase variables is not clear. On the other hand, there is a stream of consistency seeking theories that support the impact of beliefs on actions.

The impact of pre-visit attitudes on post-visit attitudes can be based on the 'consistencyseeking motivation of individuals whereby individuals often use a perceptual screen and tend to assimilate only information that is consistent with their prior beliefs. A set of theories in psychology known as 'consistency theories' suggest that individuals often desire to pursue consistency as an end in itself (Aronson, 1997; Bem, 1972) and try to engage in behaviour consistent with a prior behaviour (Fishbach, Ratner, & Zhang, 2011).

Having emerged in 1950, consistency theory has been widely and successfully applied to the area of attitude change, and relations between beliefs and actions. Despite being proposed under different names (i.e., congruity, symmetry, dissonance, etc.) and varying aspects contemporaneously by several scholars, they shared the notion that an individual tends to maintain an internal consistency among their beliefs, feelings, and behaviour. So, the point that the cognitive consistency theories share is that individuals are motivated towards coherent beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours. If they contradict one another, they cause tension, and every time this tension is produced, the individual takes actions to eliminate it by reaching consistency among these cognitions (McGuire, 1966). One of the major cognitive consistency theories that made a considerable influence in the behavioural sciences is the cognitive dissonance theory.

Festinger in 1957 by proposing cognitive dissonance theory, explained intrapersonal consistency (Cooper, 2011; Cooper & Carlsmith, 2015; Gawronski, 2012; Harmon-Jones, Harmon-Jones, & Levy, 2015; Metin & Camgoz, 2011; Sweeney, Hausknecht, & Soutar, 2000). According to the theory, while a pair or more elements of knowledge are relevant but

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contradict each other, it causes a state of discomfort, which is named as dissonance (Harmon-Jones & Harmon-Jones, 2012). Since this state causes psychological conflict, the individual takes action to eliminate it. One of the modes that individuals use to ease this condition is by processing experiences in terms of pre-existing beliefs. So, as per the theory, cognitive adjustments take place after the decision; the relations of belief and action can take place in the reverse form, where an action causes a belief to justify the action. In marketing, cognitive dissonance theory has been adopted to explain consumer behaviour (Telci, Maden, & Kantur, 2011). Whenever, as a result of a product purchase, the consumer feels psychological tension, then there is an imbalance between the consumer's expectations for and performance of that product, and as a result, the consumer tries to reduce this tension by adjusting their perceptions and expectations to the level of consistency (Rojas-de-Gracia & Alarcón-Urbistondo, 2018).

In destination image studies, cognitive dissonance was used to test the impact of during visit information use on tourists' behaviours (Kah & Lee, 2016). Tasci (2006) identified that visitors held significantly more positive images than non-visitors. The author, based on cognitive dissonance theory, put forward assumptions that some dimensions of destination image perceptions might improve, and as a result, to achieve consonance, tourists would adjust other dimensions towards a positive shift.

In other words, what the cognitive dissonance theory says is that people like when their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours are consistent. Because whenever this consistency breaks it produces cognitive dissonance. This state of repercussion, then, urges to establish consistency among these cognitions. If, for example, the behaviour is inconsistent with the pre-existing beliefs, the individual tries to modify those beliefs to match the behaviour and tend to downgrade negative perceptions that have emerged after the behaviour; since the behaviour has already occurred, what is left are beliefs and attitude that can be changed. In the case of tourists, this is quite likely to happen; because tourists make high commitment decisions, they tend to defend their choices and keep consistency between pre-visit and post-visit perceptions (Lin & Kuo, 2018). Furthermore, it was identified that consumers who make planned buying face lower dissonance because they are more confident about their purchases (Hasan & Nasreen, 2014). A tourist makes a trip that involves effort and financial contributions with the belief that this trip would fulfil the expected motivations. Thus, having chosen to visit a destination of free will, visitors to a destination would try their best to avoid information that

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could show the initial preference in a bad light. Visitors with a prior-positive attitude about a destination would, thus, try to consciously assimilate as many positive cues about their destination as possible during their visit, as well as avoid as many negative experiences as possible during their visit. This could reinforce their positive attitude or reduce the chances of encountering negative feelings.

Besides, Chon (1990) advanced the notion that a tourist's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their experience is a function of evaluative congruity between expectations and outcomes of their experience. Chon (1992) further distinguished four conditions of evaluative congruity: positive incongruity (i.e., negative expectations, but positive outcome), which causes the highest satisfaction, positive congruity (i.e., both expectations and outcome are positive),, which causes moderate satisfaction, negative congruity (i.e., both expectations and outcome are negative) which causes low satisfaction, and negative incongruity (i.e., positive expectations, but negative outcome) which causes the least satisfaction. As per the author, the pre-visit image is reconditioned in comparison with post-visit experiences, which results in a state of either congruity or incongruity. Therefore, in the application to the destination image, it allows us to assume that *there is a direct positive link between pre- and post-visit destination image*.

2.4 Systematic literature review

In the previous subchapter, the theoretical basis for conceptually integrating pre- and postvisit images was established. Therefore, in the rest of the chapter, the destination image is distinguished as pre- and post-visit destination images.

The aim of the current study is to establish the impact of pre-visit destination image perceptions on post-visit destination image perceptions and destination image evaluation outcome variables. In order to achieve this, the initial stage was to review the available studies related to the research interest of the current study. This was operationalised through two electronic databases: Scopus and EBSCOhost.

The articles on these databases were retrieved between 03.09.2019 - 11.09.2019. Several search terms, such as 'brand image', 'country image', 'tourist', were used to provide good search results. However, the results that these terms gave were mostly irrelevant, as indicated by the abstract and conclusion of the articles. As a result, the keyword 'destination image'

was chosen as the best to provide the most relevant results. This produced a total of 3261 results (i.e., 1508 results in Scopus, 1753 in EBSCOhost). Next, the results were refined to the articles in English and scholarly peer-reviewed journals, with no restriction on the year of publication. After that, there were 1584 results in total. The next step was to include or exclude a study based on its title. Further, if the abstract suggested it is potentially eligible, the full text has been obtained and further checked for relevance. The total result was 363 articles to include in the systematic literature review.

Also, to make sure no eligible study is missed out at the database searching: (1) relevant studies were identified in the reference section of the studies located through database searching, and (2) the tourism journals (i.e., Annals of Tourism Research; Tourism Management; Journal of Travel Research; Current Issues in Tourism; International Journal of Tourism; Journal of Destination Marketing; Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research; Journal of Sustainable Tourism; Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism; and Tourism Analysis) were manually searched.

Next, the search results have been examined, and relevant articles are identified. The relevance of the studies was judged based on the abstract, methodology, and conclusion of the studies. Some irrelevant studies had to be excluded from the review. Examples of excluded studies include studies that are focused to merely identify the image of a destination under investigation, virtual destination image studies, those based on web-content analysis, and stakeholders' image perceptions. Some studies were eliminated for context-specific differences, such as their specific focus on medical tourism or car tourism. This selection of which studies to exclude was reached after scrutinizing such studies, thus, making sure they do not provide essential information relevant to the current study.

The studies that have been selected for a more thorough review have been explored for their approach to destination image and the relationships of this construct with other variables. As a result, the final number of studies was 363. Table 3 summarizes these studies in the alphabetical order by the authors' surnames. There are five columns in the table. The first column (i.e., study focus) states the focus of the study. Generally, this is done in the form of stating the relationships that they have focused on. The second column contains methods and analysis of the study, while the third column provides context and sampling information, therefore are more relevant to empirical studies. If the study is purely conceptual, then it is stated as 'conceptual'. Also, not all studies are clear in their methodologies and data analysis

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techniques, so the information is dependent on the clarity of these details. In the fifth column are the key findings of the studies. If the study mainly tested the relationships between variables, then this last column states whether the impacts were confirmed or not.

It must be noted that studies have used different terms in relevance to the same concept. This is especially evident in the concept mainly known as 'behavioural intentions', which are operationalized through intentions to revisit the destination and to recommend the destination. The terms used in regard to this concept include, but are not limited to, 'future behaviour', 'future behavioural intentions', 'patronizing intentions', 'loyalty', and 'behavioural intentions. Therefore, in Table 3 'behavioural intentions' appears to cover these synonyms, despite the term applied in the original study.

Study	Study focus	Method/Analysis	Context/Sampling	Key findings/Confirmed effects
Abdalla, Ribas, and da Costa Vieira (2014)	Affection, service quality, hedonic value, utilitarian value and satisfaction as antecedents of intentions to recommend	Quantitative SEM	Brazil 203 tourists	Impact of Satisfaction and hedonic value on intentions to recommend
Agapito, Oom do Valle, and da Costa Mendes (2013)	Hierarchical relationship among destination image dimensions	Quantitative FA, SEM – PLS	Lagos, Portugal 379 tourists	Impact of cognitive image on affective image direct and indirect effect of cognitive image on conative image through affective image
Akgün, Senturk, Keskin, and Onal (2020)	Relationships among nostalgic emotion, destination image and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – PLS	Istanbul, Turkey 150 tourists at the end of their tours, 200 during their tours	Cognitive image as a multidimensional construct Impact of: nostalgic emotion on cognitive and affective images affective and cognitive images on behavioural intentions
Akhoondnejad (2015)	Pre- and post-travel destination images. Relationships among destination image, trip	Quantitative	Iran 298 tourists	Positive differences after the visit Impact of:

Table 3 Summary of the studies in the systematic literature review

	value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Sign Test analysis, FA, SEM – LISREL		post-travel image on trip value and satisfaction trip value and satisfaction on behavioural intentions
Akroush Mamoun, Jraisat Luai, Kurdieh Dina, N., and Qatu Laila (2016)	Relationships among destination image, service quality and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, Structural path analysis – EQS	Dead Sea, Jordan 237 international tourists	Impact of service quality on destination image mediating impact of destination image between service quality and loyalty
Aksoy and Kiyci (2011)	Factors that influence destination image	Quantitative FA	Amasra, Turkey 430 visitors	The most important factors that shape the destination image: historical and cultural heritage, restful atmosphere, shopping, and food
Aktaş, Çevirgen, and Toker (2010)	Relationship among destination image, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative	Alanya, Turkey 2125 tourists	Impact of destination image on overall satisfaction, and positive relationship between satisfaction and behavioural intentions
Alamgir and Nedelea (2016)	Antecedents of perceived value	Quantitative SEM – PLS	Bangladesh 202 tourists	Perceived quality, perceived cost, tourist expectation and destination image as antecedents of perceived value impact of perceived value on satisfaction
Al-Ansi and Han (2019)	Relationships among halal-friendly destination performance, perceived	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	South Korea 358 Muslim tourists	Impact of: halal-friendly performance on perceived value

	value, satisfaction, trust and loyalty			 perceived value on satisfaction and destination trust satisfaction on destination trust and on loyalty moderating effect of halal friendly destination image between destination trust and loyalty
Alcañiz, García, and Blas (2005)	Influence of destination image on residents' evaluations of travel experience and behavioural intentions	Quantitative Path analysis	Valencia, Spain 1255 tourist - residents	Relationships among destination image, quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions
Al-Kwifi Osama (2015)	Impact of destination image and attitude on visit intentions through functional technological- oriented magnetic resonance imaging approach (fMRI)	Qualitative (fMRI experiment) t-test, Statistical Parametric Mapping Software	A blocked design experiment 4 focus group participants for MRI scan	Increase in the level of brain activation at the ventromedial prefrontal cortex while assessing attractive destination images versus less attractive ones impact of attitude towards the destination on visit intentions
Allameh Sayyed, Khazaei Pool, Jaberi, Salehzadeh, and Asadi (2015)	Relationships among destination image, perceived quality, perceived value, satisfaction and revisit intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Iran 886 sport tourists	Impact of destination image, perceived quality and perceived value on satisfaction and revisit intentions

Almeida-Santana and Moreno- Gil (2018)	Analysed horizontal loyalty and the impact of socio-demographics, previous behaviour and conative loyalty	Quantitative Binomial Logit analysis	Canary Islands, Spain 6964 tourists	Demonstrated the differences between determinants of horizontal and single- destination loyalty
Alvarez and Campo (2011)	Impact of controllable and uncontrollable information sources on destination image	Quantitative paired-samples t- test	Turkey 157 students in Spain	Higher impact of controllable sources compared to uncontrollable sources
Añaña, Anjos, and Pereira (2018)	Composition and internal arrangement of destinations in light of three theories: The Means-End, the Service Dominant Logic of Marketing and the organizational triad for local development	Quantitative FA, SEM	4 seaside destinations in Brazil 177 respondents	Interconnection among tourism destination image dimensions impact of some personal values on destination image assessment
Assaker (2014)	Determinants of destination image	Quantitative PCA, SEM – PLS	Australia 600 residents in China, UK, US, and South Korea	Confirmed operationalization of destination image as a second-order factor model with six first-order factors identified attractions (i.e., natural and well-known), and accessibility as the main factors forming destination image
Assaker and Hallak (2013)	Moderating effect of novelty-seeking on the relationships among	Quantitative	Mediterranean destinations	Moderating effect of novelty seeking, with high novelty seekers demonstrating significantly weaker relationship

	destination image, satisfaction and revisit intentions	Cluster analysis, multigroup invariance analysis, SEM – AMOS	405 German, French and English tourists	between destination image, satisfaction, and short-time revisit intentions
Assaker, Hallak, Assaf, and Assad (2015)	A model of destination image, satisfaction and loyalty across gender and age	Quantitative EFA, SEM – PLS	Australia 500 UK and USA tourists	Impact of destination image on satisfaction and loyalty moderating impact of gender
Assaker, Vinzi, and O'Connor (2011)	Impact of destination image, satisfaction, novelty seeking on immediate and over-time revisit intentions	Quantitative Latent growth SEM – AMOS	450 French, English, and German travellers	Based on a four-wave longitudinal data set of repeated measures the study identified impact of: novelty seeking and satisfaction on immediate revisit intention positive destination image on immediate and future revisit intention
Atadil, Sirakaya-Turk, and Altintas (2017)	Importance and expected performance of destination image attributes based on potential tourists' perceptions from two emerging markets	Quantitative FA, importance- performance analysis, t-test	Turkey 426 prospective Chinese and Arab tourists	Identified three factors of destination image at the importance level confirmed perceived importance and expected performance gap between Chinese and Arab samples is statistically significant
Awaritefe (2004)	Examine types of tourism valued by tourists and non-tourists, and identify	Quantitative	Nigeria	Non-tourists value natural destinations, while tourists value built destination environments

	factors that influence destination selection	FA, Cluster analysis	240 non-tourists to Nigeria,265 actual tourists	Personal factors as determinants for non- tourist in their destination selection decisions, and environmental factors for tourists
Bairrada, Vieira, and Fontes da Costa (2019)	Detailed analysis of the global destination image	Quantitative CFA, SEM — AMOS	Coimbra, Portugal 255 international and domestic tourists	Impact of: memorable experience, affective image and brand on the global image global image on satisfaction
Baloglu (1997)	Destination image variations based on socio- demographic and trip characteristics	Quantitative FA, ANOVA	Context – USA 330 West German travellers National probability cluster sampling	Influence of socio-demographics and trip characteristics (e.g., trip season) on destination image
Baloglu (2000)	Examine relationships among informational, motivational and mental constructs, and visit intentions	Quantitative FA, path analysis	Turkey 448 non-visitors	Variety and type of information sources and motivations as determinants of cognitive image Impact of: cognitive image on affective image cognitive and affective image on visit intentions

Baloglu and McCleary (1999)	Determinants of destination image formation	Quantitative FA, Path analysis	Turkey 448 enquirers Systematic random sampling	Stimulus and personal factors in the formation of destination image
Baloglu, Henthorne, and Sahin (2014)	Impact of destination image and brand personality on behavioural intentions in the case of first time versus repeat visitors	Quantitative Subgroup analysis, multiple regression	Jamaica 312 first-time and repeat visitors Convenience sampling	Significant differences in the relationships tested between first-time and repeat visitors. E.g., overall image, destination personality, affective and cognitive images as antecedents of behavioural intentions for first time visitors. For repeat visitors behavioural intentions were shaped by overall image, affective image, and destination personality
Batoteng, Suharno, and Hidayati (2019)	Relationships among destination image, tourist attitudes, promotions, satisfaction, word of mouth and revisit intentions	Quantitative SEM – AMOS	East Kalimantan, Indonesia 186 tourists	Impact of: destination image, promotion and tourist attitude on satisfaction satisfaction on WoM and revisit intentions
Bédiová and Ryglová (2015)	Methods, models and approaches of destination studies that focused on destination choice, satisfaction and loyalty of ski resort visitors	Conceptual	Empirical studies of ski tourism destinations	Table of ski destination studies' research methodologies and findings satisfied experience as the main determinant of loyalty

Beerli and Martín (2004)	Formation of post-visit destination image	Quantitative FA, ANOVA, regression analysis	Lanzarote, Spain 616 tourists	Impact of travel agency staff, organic and autonomous sources, the level of experience, motivations and number of visits on destination image
Beerli and Martín (2004)	Relationships among destination image, motivations, travel experience and socio- demographic characteristics	Quantitative FA, path/regression	Lanzarote, Spain 616 tourists	Impact of: motivation on affective image travel experience and socio- demographics on cognitive and affective images
Beerli, Meneses, and Gil (2007)	Relationships among self- congruity, destination image and visit intentions	Quantitative FA, logistic regression analysis	Gran Canaria, Spain 463 residents	Positive relationship between self- concept and destination image increase visit intentions
Beerli-Palacio and Martín- Santana (2019)	Impact of the level and content of information sources on destination image gap between pre- and post-visit	Quantitative SEM	Canary Islands, Spain 411 tourists	Impact of content of information sources on the gap between pre- and post-visit cognitive image perceptions, with more high-content information sources resulting in smaller gap
Beerli-Palacio and Martín- Santana Josefa (2017)	Impact of confirmation of motivations on destination image change	Quantitative	Canary Islands, Spain 411 tourists	Impact of confirmation of motivations on cognitive and global image gap between pre- and post-visit
Bergmeister (2015)	Methodology for evaluating destination image in economic terms	Quantitative	Spain, Greece, Turkey, Cyprus, and Tunisia	Confirmed utility of a new methodology for measuring image in economic terms

		Multinomial logistic regression	1200 potential tourists in Germany	
Bhat Suhail and Darzi Mushtaq (2018)	Relationships among destination image, satisfaction and tourist loyalty. Moderating effects of gender, experience, and tourist origin (i.e. domestic vs international)	Quantitative FA, multigroup analysis, SEM – AMOS	Jamnu and Kashmir Purposive sampling	Cognitive, affective, and unique images as significant destination image dimensions moderating effects of gender, experience and tourist origin Impact of: destination image on satisfaction, and tourist loyalty satisfaction on tourist loyalty
Bigné Alcañiz, Sánchez García, and Sanz Blas (2009)	Examines cognitive image from a three-continuum perspective: functional, mixed and psychological, and relevant influence of them on the overall image and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, Structural equation analysis (SEA)	380 tourists visiting Peniscola, Spain Convenience sampling	Psychological components had the greatest influence on overall image, followed by functional component. overall image influenced behavioural intentions. the functional component was relevant for revisit intention and the psychological for the intention to recommend
Bigné Alcañiz et al. (2009)	Antecedents of short- and long-run revisit intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Spain 400 residents	Past switching behaviour, switching costs and variety seeking as antecedents of short run revisit intentions

			Random route sampling	satisfaction and variety seeking as the antecedents of long run return intentions
Bonn, Joseph, and Dai (2016)	Domestic versus international tourists' image perceptions	Quantitative MANOVA	Florida 1698 international visitors, 5495 domestic visitors from Florida, 7012 domestic visitors from non- Florida	Difference in perceptions among in- state, domestic and international tourists impact of country of origin on destination image
Boo and Busser (2006)	Visitors characteristics as determinants of destination image	Quantitative Hierarchical regression analysis	Jeju, Korea 385 tourists Convenience sampling	Age, visit frequency, information use and familiarity as significant determinants of destination image
Bosnjak, Sirgy, Hellriegel, and Maurer (2011)	Predictive power of self- congruity on destination loyalty	Quantitative SEM - EQS	973 German tourists	Relative impact of self-congruity, functional, hedonic, leisure and safety congruity on post-visit loyalty
Bui and Le (2016)	Differences in destination image, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative ANOVA	Vietnam 650 domestic and international tourists	International tourists are more critical in their evaluations

	between domestic and international tourists			
Byon and Zhang (2010)	Developing the scale of destination image	Quantitative FA, SEM	USA 199 potential tourists	Applicability of the scale of destination image in examining impact of destination image on behavioural intentions
Calderón García, Gil Saura, Carmelo Pons García, and Gallarza Martina (2004)	Establish a methodological approach for the measurement of destination image	Quantitative ANOVA, linear regression	Caribbean destinations 200 residents in Valencia, Spain Simple random sampling	A combination of several methodologies and techniques to measure destination image
Camprubí, Guia, and Comas (2013)	The image generating role of tourists through Web 2.0 tools	Conceptual		Destination image formation effects of Web 2.0 tools in terms of market penetration, credibility and cost criteria
Cardoso et al. (2019b)	Processing of the destination imagery in tourists' working memory	Qualitative Content analysis	23446 respondents' perceptions associated to dream and favourite destinations	Structural differences between the imagery of dream and favourite destinations a destination imagery model for future research
Cardoso, Araújo Vila, de Araújo, and Dias (2019a)	Destination imagery processing upon receiving	Qualitative	1186 European and Asian tourists	Predominance of holistic interpretation in destination image processing upon

	verbal stimuli of a food tourism destination	Categorical content analysis		receiving verbal stimuli of a food tourism destination
Castro, Martín Armario, and Martín Ruiz (2007)	Impact of destination image on behavioural intentions, and moderating role of market heterogeneity	Quantitative FA, path analysis, latent cluster analysis	Spain 1526 tourists	Moderating role of tourist clusters on the relationships among destination image, service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions
Ceylan and Çizel (2018)	Measurement scale of destination image invariant across nationalities	Quantitative FA, multigroup confirmatory factor analysis	Antalya, Turkey 1495 British, German and Russian tourists	Destination image as a three- dimensional construct with cognition, affect and conation invariance of the proposed measurement scale across three nationalities under study
Chahal and Devi (2016)	Relationships among local community quality of life, sustainable tourism development and destination image	Quantitative FA, SEM	Jammu, India 504 residents 508 domestic tourists	Impact of quality of life on sustainable tourism development and destination image partial mediating role of destination image in the relationship between quality of life and sustainable tourism development
Chang, Chou, and Wu (2017)	Relationships among information sources, quality and behavioural intentions	Quantitative EFA, ANOVA, multiple regression	Jibei Island, Taiwan 514 tourists Convenient sampling	Impact of: demographic variables on quality, Impact of quality on behavioural intentions

Chang, Stylos, Yeh, and Tung (2015)	Tourists' pre- and post- visit behaviours	Quantitative ANOVA, Hierarchical regression	Kinmen, Taiwan 563 tourists	Impact of: pre-visit behaviour (i.e., motives, information search, destination image) and decision making on post-visit behavioural intention marital status, education level on tourists' pre-visit behaviour significantly, but not on destination image
Chaudhary (2000)	Pre- and post-trip perceptions of India	Quantitative t-test, ANOVA	India 152 tourists	Expectations and satisfaction gap analysis revealed strengths and weaknesses of India's perceived image
Chaulagain et al. (2019)	Relationships among destination image, country image and visit intentions. Moderating effect of familiarity	Quantitative FA, SEM - AMOS	Cuba 353 US residents	Impact of country image on destination image, and of the two on visit intentions moderating effect of familiarity between country image and destination image, and destination image and visit intentions
Chen (2019)	Pre- and post-trip destination image perceptions through longitudinal interviews	Qualitative Content analysis	Macau 15 tourists	Positive and enriched destination image after direct experience impact of post-trip destination image on revisit intentions

Chen and Lin (2012)	Effectiveness of segmenting by familiarity to predict destination image perceptions and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, ANOVA, MANOVA	Taiwan 324 Chinese residents	Impact of informational and experiential familiarity on destination image and behavioural intentions effectiveness of familiarity as a segmentation variable
Chen and Phou (2013)	Relationships among destination image, destination personality, tourist-destination relationship and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Cambodia 428 international tourists	Impact of: destination image on destination personality, and tourist-destination relationship (i.e., satisfaction and trust) destination personality on satisfaction and trust
Chen and Tsai (2007)	Relationships among destination image, perceived value, quality, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Taiwan Convenient sampling 393 tourists	Impact of: destination image on behavioural intentions destination image on trip quality trip quality on perceived value perceived value on satisfaction satisfaction on behavioural intentions
Chen, Chen, and Okumus (2013a)	Relationship between travel constraints and destination image	Quantitative	Brunei 328 potential and past visitors	Identified four dimensions of travel constraints: unfamiliar cultural, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and structural travel constraints

		FA, MANOVA (canonical analysis),		impact of travel constraints on destination image formation in the early decision-making stage
Chen, Hua, and Wang (2013b)	Mediating effect of destination image between travel constraints and visit intentions (pre-test and post-test promotional videos)	Quantitative FA, SEM	China 217 hospitality employees in the US	Destination image fully mediates negative impact of travel constraints on visit intentions
Chen et al. (2014)	Destination image decay over time (longitudinal repeated measures)	Quantitative General linear models repeated measures	US 50 non-local marathon event participants	Significant decay in the affective and conative images, while cognitive image remained more stable place attachment as a moderator in the conative image decay
Chen, Lin, Gao, and Kyle (2015)	A market-specific scale of destination image	Quantitative FA, multigroup analysis, SEM – AMOS	Taiwan 314 Chinese tourists	Validated the conceptualization of cognitive image of a destination as the composite of common, unique, and atmospheric images
Cheng and Lu (2013)	Relationships among destination image, novelty, hedonics, perceived value and revisit intentions	Quantitative CFA, SEM - AMOS	Green Island, Taiwan 355 tourists	Impact of: destination image on novelty, hedonics, perceived value

			Systematic sampling	novelty perceptions about the destination on hedonics hedonics on perceived value perceived value on revisit intentions
Cheng, Wong, and Liu (2013)	Cross-cultural differences between domestic and international tourists' destination images	Quantitative FA, ANOVA, MANCOVA	Hue, Vietnam 304 international and domestic tourists	Differences in destination image perceptions between domestic and international tourists; international tourists had more favourable image perceptions towards comfort, security and inexpensiveness
Cherifi, Smith, Maitland, and Stevenson (2014)	Characteristics and formation of non-visitors' destination images	Qualitative Thematic analysis	London 300 residents of the Czech Republic Quota sampling	Relativist nature of imagery – images of a non-visited destination are compared with the visited places' images
Chi (2011)	Impact of demographics on loyalty formation through a systematic approach	Quantitative SEM - LISREL	Arkansas, USA 345 visitors Proportionate stratified sampling, systematic random sampling	Impact of gender and education on destination image, but not on satisfaction, and loyalty no impact of age and income on destination image, satisfaction, and loyalty formation

Chi (2012)	Behavioural intentions of first-time and repeat visitors	Quantitative SEM – LISREL	Arkansas, US Stratified sampling 345 visitors	Higher behavioural intentions of repeat visitors than first timers moderating effect of previous experiences between tourist satisfaction and behavioural intentions
Chi and Qu (2008)	Relationships among destination image, satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative FA, SEM	Arkansas, US 345 visitors Systematic random sampling	Impact of: destination image on attribute satisfaction, and of the two on overall satisfaction attribute and overall satisfaction on loyalty
Chiu, Zeng, and Cheng (2016)	Relationships among destination image, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Seoul, South Korea 311 Chinese tourists Convenience sampling	Impact of cognitive image on affective image, and of the two on satisfaction impact of satisfaction on loyalty
Choi and Cai (2016)	Impact of each country image dimension on that of destination image	Quantitative FA, SEM	USA 572 South Korean, 653 Chinese general public Quota sampling	Impact of country image dimensions on those of destination image differences in antecedents of visit intention between Chinese and Koreans

Choi, Tkachenko, and Sil (2011)	Destination image as a determinant of destination choice and intentions to recommend	Quantitative Regression analysis	Korea 131 current, 149 prospective Russian tourists	Impact of destination image on intentions to recommend
Chon (1991)	Tourist destination image modification through travel to the destination	Quantitative t-statistic	South Korea 204 first-time American travellers, 240 American travellers who completed their visits	Destination image perceptions of post- visitors were more positive than the pre-visitors
Chung and Chen (2018)	Impact of country stereotypical image and destination image on tourist loyalty in the case of long-haul and short- haul tourist destinations	Quantitative MANOVA, ANOVA, FA, SEM, multi-group analysis	USA, Australia, South Korea, Japan 500 Taiwanese residents	Impact of destination image and stronger effect of country stereotypical image on loyalty
Chung and Petrick (2013)	Question order effects in the example of overall and attribute satisfaction with destination experience and the role of information satisfaction.	Quantitative Wilcoxon-signed ranks analysis	Tourism destinations across the USA 12807 information inquirers who have visited the destination since	Demonstrated the sum of attribute- specific satisfaction was not equivalent to overall satisfaction

			they had requested information	
Cini and Saayman (2013)	Relationships among destination image, socio- demographic and socio- psychological characteristics	Quantitative FA, t-test, ANOVA	Tsitsikamma National Park, South Africa 165 visitors	Respondents' country of origin, and education correlated only with overall image Correlation between: level of past exposure and cognitive image cognitive image and satisfaction satisfaction and behavioural intentions
Çoban (2012)	Impact of destination image on satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative FA, regression analysis	Cappadocia, Turkey 170 tourists	Impact of: Cognitive and emotional image on satisfaction satisfaction on loyalty
Cohen et al. (2014)	Contemporary trends in consumer behaviour research and emerging topics	Conceptual	Articles published between 2000 – 2012 in Annals of Tourism Research, Tourism Management and the Journal of Travel Research	Five research contexts for future research: group and joint decision- making, under-researched segments, cross-cultural issues in emerging markets, emotions and consumer misbehaviour.

Correia, Oliveira, and Silva (2009)	Impact of motivations, perceptions and expectations on destination image	Quantitative FA, correlation analysis, cluster analysis	Algarve, Portugal 100 golfer tourists Random stratified sampling	Inter-correlation among motivations, expectations and perceptions
Cruz Ruiz, Bermúdez González, and Tous Zamora (2018)	Types of cruise passengers and their destination image, satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative Cluster analysis, ANOVA	Malaga 470 cruise passengers Stratified probability sampling	Four segments of cruise passengers with respect to perceptions of destination image, satisfaction and loyalty
Dalimunthe, Suryana, Kartini, and Sari (2019)	Antecedents of behavioural intentions	Conceptual	Tourism journal articles	A conceptual model with experience quality, destination image, perceived value and customer engagement as antecedents of behavioural intentions
Das, Mohapatra, Sharma, and Sarkar (2007)	Relationships among perceived attractiveness, destination image, demographic characteristics, expectation and satisfaction	Quantitative FA, Multiple regression analysis	Varanasi, India 192 tourists	Importance of destination image, demographic, expectation and satisfaction in explaining destination's perceived attractiveness
Day, Cai, and Murphy (2012)	Impact of destination image formation factors on consumption process	Quantitative Regression analysis	Australia	WOM as the most important information source in generating awareness of destination image and travel intentions.

			 24 US travel wholesale managers, 76 Australian tourist product managers 	Next information sources in importance were travel media and advertising
de la Hoz-Correa and Muñoz- Leiva (2019)	Relationships among destination image, information sources, e- WOM and visit intentions of a medical tourism destination. Moderating effect of culture	Quantitative t-test, FA, SEM – AMOS	534 European and American former and potential medical tourists	Impact of information sources on destination image, and of the two on visit intentions moderating effect of culture
De Nisco, Mainolfi, Marino, and Napolitano (2015)	Relationships among satisfaction, country image, destination image and post-visit intentions	Quantitative	Italy 542 tourists Random systematic sampling	Mediating effects of country and destination image between satisfaction and behavioural intentions
Deng, Liu, Dai, and Li (2019)	Differences in destination images between Eastern and Western tourists through user-generated images	Qualitative Automatic content parsing analysis	Shanghai 34799 Flickr images	Differences in cognitive and affective destination images based on photos and comments by Eastern and Western tourists
Dolinting, Yusof, and Chee (2015)	Differences in push and pull motives between	Quantitative	Sabah, Malaysia	Differences in push motives between domestic and international tourists, but

	domestic and international tourists	t-test, logistic regression	106 domestic and international sport tourists Convenience sampling	not with respects to pull factors (i.e., destination image)
Dolnicar and Grün (2013)	Comparison of destination image measures	Quantitative Test-retest reliability, t-tests	Seven continents 2532 panel respondents from North America, Australia, Europe, and Asia	'Forced-choice full binary' measure of destination image as the best performing by presenting more stable results, compared to multi-category and pick- any measures
Dolnicar and Huybers (2007)	Destination image measurement based on differences between tourist groups	Quantitative Topology- representing network analysis	6 tourism destinations in Australia 575 prospective tourists from Sydney, Australia	Perception-based market segmentation approach
Draper (2015)	Differences in destination images among visitors, potential visitors and residents	Quantitative PCA, ANOVA	Austin, Texas 627 inquirers of the Convention and Visitors Bureau	Significant differences among visitors, potential visitors and residents in their destination image perceptions

Echtner and Ritchie (2003)	Conceptualization and measurement of destination image	Conceptual	Scholarly articles in psychology, marketing and destination image research that conceptualize and/or measure the image construct	A framework of conceptualizing image as a continuum of functional- psychological, attribute-holistic and common unique components.
Eid et al. (2019)	Relationships among destination attributes, destination image, political (in)stability, tourist satisfaction and recommend intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	UAE 829 tourists	Impact of destination attributes and political (in)stability on destination image, and the two on tourist satisfaction and recommend intentions
Elliot and Papadopoulos (2016)	Relationships among country image, product beliefs, product familiarity, product receptivity, destination beliefs, destination familiarity and destination receptivity	Quantitative FA, SEM – LISREL	US, Japan, Australia, South Korea, Canada Travel shows attendees in South Korea (n=349), in Canada (307)	Impact of: cognitive country image on product evaluations affective country image on destination evaluations product beliefs on tourism
Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Szamosi (2013)	Relationships between tourism destination image and product country image	Quantitative SEM – LISREL	Australia 349 travel show attendees in South Korea	Impact of affective country image on product and destination receptivity

			307 attendees in Canada Purposive sampling method	
Fayed et al. (2016)	Relationships among motivations, perceptions, satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative ANOVA	Egypt 232 tourists	Impact of: motivations and perceptions on satisfaction and loyalty satisfaction on loyalty
Florek et al. (2008)	Destination image change after direct experience	Mixed method Repeated measures longitudinal method	Germany New Zealand football fans who completed pre- and post- questionnaires (n=24),	Significant improvement of destination image after direct experience
		Content analysis, Paired t-tests	interviewees (n=3) for pre-, during, and post- interview stages Convenience sampling	

Frías, Rodríguez, Alberto Castañeda, Sabiote, and Buhalis (2012)	Moderating impact of culture in the destination image formation	Quantitative ANOVA	Andalusia, Spain 371 European tourists	Moderating effect of uncertainty- avoidance in the relationship between information sources used and destination image formation
Frías, Rodríguez, and Castañeda (2008)	Information sources affecting destination image formation	Quantitative ANOVA	Andalusia, Spain 592 international tourists Convenience sampling	When used together travel agency and Internet negatively affect destination image perceptions
Gallarza et al. (2002)	Conceptualization and measurement of destination image	Conceptual		Classification of the methodological and statistical procedures for destination image measurement more comprehensive conceptual model of destination image
Galvani and Pirazzoli (2013)	Application of Semiotics and Sociology of Architecture to destination image	Conceptual		Proposed a three-component model of expected, checked and spread image in the image formation process
Gannon et al. (2017)	Examined links among cosmopolitanism, self- identity, social interaction desire, destination image and behavioural intentions	Quantitative SEM – PLS	Mecca 538 Iranian Muslim travellers	Impact of: cosmopolitanism, self-identity, social- interaction desire on destination image

			Convenience sampling	destination image, cosmopolitanism, self-identity, and social interaction on behavioural intentions
Gibson, Qi, and Zhang (2008)	Relationships among destination image, travel intentions and travel experience	Quantitative FA, hierarchical regression analysis	Athens, Greece 350 students from the US Spatial-location and systematic random sampling	Impact of destination image on travel intentions, and its mediating role between experience and travel intentions
Giraldi and Cesareo (2014)	Relationships among destination image, previous experience and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, t-test, multiple regression	Rome 312 domestic and international tourists	Impact of: destination image on behavioural intentions previous experience on destination image
González-Rodríguez, Martínez-Torres, and Toral (2016)	Online reviews related to Barcelona	Qualitative Sentiment analysis	200 online reviews about Barcelona	Users are hesitant to leave extreme polar reviews, such as very negative or very positive impact of expertise on perceived helpfulness.
Govers and F.M (2003)	Traditional multi attribute-based destination image measurement technique to predict	Qualitative	4 target groups of respondents based on the levels of awareness of and	Traditional multi-attribute technique of destination image measurement failed to capture image differences among visitors and non-visitors

	destination choice behaviour in the technology-based environment		patronage to destination	New information technology-based approach for measuring destination image is necessary in order to capture unique and holistic attributes
Gursoy, S. Chen, and G. Chi (2014)	Antecedents of destination loyalty	Conceptual		A 'Destination Loyalty Formation' model previous experience, place attachment and involvement as most influential determinants of destination loyalty impact of destination image on service quality and satisfaction, and of the two on destination loyalty
Guthrie and Anderson (2010)	Examining visitor experiences through narratives	Qualitative Thematic analysis	Edinburgh, Greenwich 56 visitors	Effectiveness of narratives in evaluating consumption experiences and its impact on destination image
Guzman-Parra, Vila-Oblitas, and Maqueda-Lafuente (2016)	Relationships between destination image, tourist satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative SEM	Malaga, Spain 398 tourists	Positive relationship between destination image, satisfaction and loyalty
Haarhoff (2018)	Push and pull factors that impact destination image	Quantitative Chi square tests	Kimberley resorts, South Africa 400 visitors	Difference in perceptions (i.e., destination image, satisfaction and revisit intentions) between first-time and repeat visitors

			Convenience sampling	did not find impact of gender, employment status, marital status and education level on overall satisfaction
Hahm, Tasci, and Terry (2019)	Relationships among destination image, country image and Olympic Games image before and after the Olympics in four country contexts	Quantitative Chi-square test, t- test, ANOVA	Greece, UK, Brazil, Russia 484 respondents Random sampling on an Internet survey marketplace	Positive relationships among country, destination and Olympics images identified the Olympics image as significantly better than country and destination images in regard to the whole sample
Hallab and Kim (2006)	Destination image of visitors and non-visitors	Quantitative MANOVA	Mississippi, US 134 visitors, 101 non-visitors	Differences in destination images of visitors and non-visitors Impact of past visit on visit/revisit intentions
Hallab and Kim (2011)	Impact of socio- demographics on destination image and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, MANOVA, Tukey test, Chi-square analysis	Mississippi, USA 234 non- Mississippi US travellers	Impact of cultural distance on destination image and behavioural intentions
Hallmann et al. (2015)	Structure of destination image, and its impact on revisit intentions	Quantitative SEM – AMOS	Germany, Austria 795 winter sports tourists	Destination image as a multidimensional construct with affect and cognition

				impact of destination image on revisit intentions
Hanlan and Kelly (2016)	Role of information sources in destination image formation	Mixed method Mean importance score	Australia 21 international backpackers from the UK and Europe	Word of mouth and autonomous information sources as the key media in the destination image formation, and little or no role of mainstream media in this process
Harun, Obong, Bin, and Lily (2018)	Effect of destination image and perceived risk on revisit intentions	Quantitative FA, multiple regression	Malaysia 171 tourists	Impact of destination image on revisit intentions, but not of perceived risk.
Hasan Md et al. (2019b)	Relationships among destination image, attitudes, service quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative SEM – PLS	Bangladesh 601 tourists Convenient sampling	Impact of: service quality and perceived value on destination image, tourist attitudes and satisfaction impact of destination image and satisfaction on tourist attitudes and behavioural intentions
Hasan Md et al. (2019a)	Relationships among perceived destination risk, destination image, satisfaction, attitudes towards revisiting and revisit intentions	Quantitative SEM – PLS	Bangladesh 601 tourists	Destination image and satisfaction on attitudes related to revisit intentions
Hau and Omar (2014)	Relationship between service quality and tourist satisfaction	Quantitative Multiple regression	Rantau Abang, Malaysia 165 visitors	Impact of service quality dimensions (i.e., destination image, support services and security, cleanliness and facilities) on tourist satisfaction
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Hernández-Lobato, Solis- Radilla, Moliner-Tena, and Sánchez-García (2006)	Relationships among destination image, satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative Path analysis	Ixtapa-Zihuatanejo, Mexico 140 American tourists	Affective image as the main antecedent of loyalty Impact of: cognitive image on loyalty destination image, satisfaction on attitudinal loyalty attitudinal loyalty on behavioural loyalty cognitive image also indirectly influences attitudinal loyalty through satisfaction
Heydari Fard et al. (2019)	Relationships among destination image, perceived authenticity, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions of medical tourists	Quantitative FA, SEM – PLS	Iran 384 medical tourists Convenience sampling	Impact of: perceived authenticity on destination image, and the two on perceived value and satisfaction satisfaction on behavioural intentions
Högström, Tsiotsou, Rosner, and Gustafsson (2010)	Contribution of quality dimensions to destination-	Quantitative Sensitivity analysis, attribute	Norway 270 members of the Norwegian	Greater impact of physical conditions, than the interactions, on destination- specific experience

Hosany et al. (2006)	specific experience quality and satisfaction Relationship between destination image and destination personality	importance analysis, t-tests Quantitative FA, MANOVA	Snowboard Association UK 148 British nationals	Destination image and destination personality as related concepts, with affective image representing more variance on destination personality
Huang and Gross (2010)	Multi-faceted image assessment	Qualitative Content analysis	Australia 3 Chinese past visitor groups, 3 non-visitor groups	No significant differences in cognitive and affective image perceptions between visitors and non-visitors past visitors identified more multi- sensory image features
Huang and van der Veen (2019)	Relationships among destination image, tourist attitude and visit intentions. Moderating effects of gender and generation	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Australia 705 Chinese potential tourists Convenience sampling	Impact of destination image on tourist attitude, and tourist attitude on visit intentions moderating effect of gender and generation in these relationships
Huang, Chen, and Lin (2013)	Impact of destination image on travel intentions	Quantitative FA, t-test, multiple regression	Taiwan 316 Mainland Chinese actual visitors 314 potential visitors	Cultural proximity factor of destination image as the most effective determinant of travel intentions

Huh, Uysal, and McCleary (2008)	Assessment of expectations and satisfaction with a destination. Relationship between destination image and satisfaction.	Quantitative	Virginia Historic Triangle 201 tourists	Significant relationship between destination attributes and overall satisfaction.
Hung, Lin, Yang, and Lu (2012)	An image formation model	Quantitative SEM – AMOS	Macao, China 817 Taiwanese tourists Random sampling	Relationships among information, motivations, destination image and experiential value
Hunter and Suh (2007)	Perceptions of Jeju standing stones through multimethod approach	Mixed method Content analysis, FA, ANOVA	South Korea 269 visitors and residents Purposive sampling	Application of visual responses in capturing image perceptions
Hyun and Perdue (2010)	Relationships among previous trip satisfaction, destination image favourability and repeat visit intentions	Quantitative FA, correlation & regression analysis	USA 500 tourists	Impact of previous trip satisfaction on repeat visit intentions, when controlling the effect of destination image favourability
Iordanova (2017)	A composite loyalty index	Quantitative FA, ANOVA	Linz, Austria 400 visitors	Impact of image on composite loyalty

			Convenience sampling	Stronger effect of affective image on loyalty than cognitive image
Iordanova and Stylidis (2019)	Impact of direct experience and nationality on pre-travel and on-site destination images	Quantitative PCA, MANOVA	Linz, Austria 400 international and domestic tourists	Significant differences between domestic and international tourists' a priori and in situ destination images impact of direct experience on destination image formation both for domestic and international tourists
Isaac and Eid (2018)	Determinants of destination image perceptions and behavioural intentions of tourists engaged in alternative tourism	Qualitative Thematic analysis	Palestine 33 tourists	Tourists who had visited the destination had more positive destination images compared to media images identified political factors, information sources and personal factors as key determinants of destination image formation
Ishida, Slevitch, and Siamionava (2016)	Effect of WOM on destination image	Quantitative FA, multiple linear regression, ANOVA	Branson, MO, USA 976 tourists Convenience sampling	Greater impact of traditional WOM on destination image than electronic WOM less impact of negative traditional WOM on destination image than negative electronic WOM
Ivanov, Ilium, and Liang (2010)	Destination brand molecule approach to destination image, and organization of destination brand	Qualitative (brand concept mapping approach)	Las Vegas, Nevada 43 students in Bulgaria, 50 students in the US	Application of a destination brand molecule process to assess destination image perceptions

	perceptions in people's minds		Convenience sampling	
Jalilvand (2017)	Impact of WOM and mass media information sources on destination image, tourist attitude and travel intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – LISREL	Shiraz, Iran 323 tourists	Impact of: WOM and mass media on destination image and tourist attitude (towards the destination) destination image and tourist attitude on travel intentions
Jani and Hwang (2011)	Destination image in user-generated electronic content	Qualitative Content analysis	Zanzibar, Tanzania 214 posts by 89 potential tourists, 125 by actual tourists in Lonely Planet	After the visit dominance of cognitive attributes were replaced by psychological attributes and destination image was more positive
Jani and Nguni (2016)	Destination image change between pre- travel and post-travel	Quantitative t-test, ANOVA	Tanzania 294 international tourists	Compared to pre-trip destination image post-trip image was more positive
Jenkins (1999)	Destination image attributes examined in 14 studies		6 international image studies, 8 Australian image studies	Most measured image attributes

Jeong and Holland (2012)	Impact of exposure time to travel information on destination image	Experimental design – guidebook and website travel information, - questionnaire MANOVA, quadratic regression analysis	Korea 312 students	Linear and quadratic trend in the effect of travel information exposure time on destination image
Ji and Wall (2011)	Comparison of visitor and resident images. Impact of information sources, socio- demographics and place attachment on destination image	Quantitative Mann-Whitney U, Spearman's rank correlation tests	Qingdao, China 578 tourists, 337 residents	Difference in destination images between visitors and residents weak correlation between place attachment and destination image partial correlation of age, education and information sources with destination image
Jiang, Ramkissoon, and Mavondo (2016)	Conceptualization of the relationships between destination image and visitor delight and place attachment	Conceptual		A conceptual model that integrates destination image, fun, customer orientation, visitor delight and place attachment
Jin, Lee, and Lee (2013)	Relationships between sporting event quality, destination image, perceived value and revisit intentions	Quantitative SEM	Daegu, South Korea 264 tourists leaving the IAAF World Championship	Impact of: event quality and perceived value on behavioural intentions destination image on perceived value.

Josiassen et al. (2016b)	Review of image and imagery concepts	Conceptual		Destination image and destination imagery as different concepts
Kantarci (2007)	Assess destination image of Central Asia countries (i.e., Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Turkmenistan)	Quantitative FA, ANOVA	Mersin, Turkey 151 residents	Identified motivations to visit the destination, and the attributes perceived as positive and relatively negative
Kaplanidou (2006)	Relationships among trip purpose, socio- demographics, trip characteristics, event and destination images, and return intentions	Quantitative MANCOVA, regression analysis	Athens, Greece 224 international tourists attending the Olympic Games	Impact of: age and continent of residence on affective image destination image on return intentions
Kaplanidou (2009)	Relationships among event image, destination image, spectators' geographic regions (i.e., continents of origin) and behavioural intentions	Quantitative MANCOVA, regression analysis	Athens, Greece 224 Olympic Games spectators	Impact of: continents of origin on return intentions, event and destination images event image on destination image
Kaplanidou and Gibson (2012)	Impact of number of visits on destination image, event image and behavioural intentions	Quantitative MANCOVA	USA 470 tourist spectators	No differences among first-, second-, and third-time visitors in their destination image, event image, and behavioural intentions
Kaplanidou and Vogt (2007)	Relationships among sport event image, destination image,	Quantitative SEM	Great Lakes, USA 344 sport tourists	Impact of: event image on destination image

	satisfaction, experience and revisit intentions			destination image and experience on revisit intentions
Kaplanidou, Jordan, Funk, and Ridinger (2012)	Relationships among event image, destination image, place attachment and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, regression analysis	USA 2015 tourist participants of the marathon event	Impact of destination image on place attachment and behavioural intentions
Kassianidis (2013)	Crete's image perceived by tourists, and impact of destination attributes on overall image	Quantitative FA, multiple regression analysis	Crete 216 tourists visiting Convenience sampling	Important attributes in determining Crete's image the most important factors that predict the overall image are those that are highly rated
Kastenholz (2010)	Impact of cultural proximity on destination image	Quantitative Kruskall-Wallis, Mann-Whitney U tests	North Portugal 2280 domestic and foreign tourists	Impact of cultural proximity on destination image, with tourists from quite closer distances expressing the most positive destination image
Kesić and Pavlic (2011)	Impact of information sources, demographics and motivations on destination image	Quantitative Multiple regression	Dubrovnik 355 tourists	Impact of: information sources on cognitive image motivations on affective image
Khan, Chelliah, and Ahmed (2017)	A model of prospective young women's travel behaviour	Quantitative	Malaysia 370 young women students	Impact of travel motivation travel constraints on destination image

Khan, Haque, and Rahman (2013)	Factors that lead to tourist satisfaction	Quantitative FA, multiple regression	Malaysia 256 tourists Convenience sampling	Destination image, motivation and service quality as determinants of tourist satisfaction
Kim (2018)	Effect of memorable tourism experiences (MTEs) on behavioural intentions	Quantitative Process analysis - PROCESS macro	Taiwan 301 visitors Quota sampling	MTEs impact behavioural intentions both directly and indirectly through destination image and satisfaction
Kim and Chen (2016)	Before, during and after the trip destination image formation	Conceptual		Proposed a destination image formation model through before, during and after trip stages.
Kim and Malek (2017)	Effects of self-congruity and destination image on loyalty, and moderating effect of culture	Quantitative FA, SEM	South Korea 316 tourists	Impact of self-congruity and destination image on loyalty moderating impact of culture
Kim and Morrsion (2005)	Image change after the visit	Quantitative Paired t-tests, ANCOVA	South Korea 223 tourists from Japan, 143 from Mainland China, 173 from the US	Positive image change after the visit in all three national groups impact of nationality, educational level, age and occupation on the image change
Kim and Park (2015)	Impact of previous experience on destination image	Quantitative FA, t-test	Weh Island, Indonesia	Impact of repeat visit on cognitive and overall images, but not on affective image

Kim and Perdue (2011)	Relative impact of cognitive and affective images on destination attractiveness	Quantitative t-test, logistic regression	 245 domestic tourists Stratified sampling USA ski destinations 1230 potential visitors 	Impact of cognitive and affective images on destination attractiveness moderating role of experience
Kim and Yoon (2003)	Formation of destination image	Quantitative FA, Second-order factor analysis	Seoul, South Korea 231 Overseas travellers Convenience sampling	Operationalization of destination image as a second-order factor through cognitive and affective images higher impact of affective image than cognitive image in the destination image formation
Kim et al. (2019b)	Variations of perceived image over three time points using repeated measures approach. Relationships among destination image, satisfaction, knowledge and destination attachment	Quantitative – (longitudinal repeated measures) FA, General Linear Model, ANOVA with repeated measures, regression analysis	Vietnam 161 South Korean tourists	Significant variations in image perceptions across time. Confirmed the differences among pre-, during-, and post-destination images for cognitive, affective and overall images, with images shifting towards more positive direction. partially supported the hypotheses on the effects of destination image components on satisfaction, attachment and knowledge

Kim, Hallab, and Kim (2012)	Moderating effect of travel experience between destination image and revisit intention	Quantitative FA, hierarchical multiple regression	South Korea 770 American students	Travel experience reinforced destination image and revisit intention, but not the cultural attractiveness factor
Kim, Holland, and Han (2013)	Relationships among destination image, service quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Orlando, US 581 tourists Convenience sampling	Impact of: destination image on service quality and perceived value perceived value on satisfaction and behavioural intentions
Kim et al. (2015)	Relationships among destination image, motivations, perceived quality, perceived value, satisfaction, complaints and revisit intentions Moderating role of tourist expenditure	Quantitative FA, SEM – PLS	Crete, Greece 250 British tourists	Impact of: destination image, motivations, and perceived quality on satisfaction satisfaction on perceived value perceived value on complaints and revisit intentions
Kim et al. (2018)	Relationships among destination image, event quality, motivation, value and revisit intentions. Moderating effect of attachment avoidance	Quantitative k-means clustering, FA, SEM – PLS	Weifang, China 406 Expo attendees	Impact of: quality and motivation on value value on destination image and behavioural intentions moderating effect of attachment avoidance in these relationships

Kim et al. (2009)	Destination image change through repeated measures over three time periods	Quantitative FA, GLM repeated measures	Australia 303 Korean tourists	Image change over time cognitive image as more stable than affective image
Kim, Park, and Kim (2016)	Mediating effect of destination image between spectator satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Shanghai International Circuit, China 572 spectators	Mediating effect of destination image between satisfaction and behavioural intentions
King et al. (2015)	Destination image decay, and structural stability of destination image	Quantitative (longitudinal repeated measures) FA, ANOVA	Miami 234 non-local marathon event participants	Destination image decay in affective and conative components, while cognitive component remaining relatively stable moderating role of tourists' psychological connection in the pattern of image decay
Kislali et al. (2016)	Formation of destination image	Conceptual		Destination image formation model that incorporates socio-cultural and technological factors
Klabi (2012)	Relationship between destination-personality- congruity and destination preference	Quantitative FA, regression analysis	Tunisia 442 tourists Convenience sampling	Impact of congruity on personality traits enhances tourist's preference of the destination

Kock et al. (2016)	Conceptualization and operationalization of destination image. Relationship between destination image and behavioural intentions	Quantitative Partial least squares path modelling	Germany and Spain 337 Denmark residents	Impact of destination imagery and affect on destination image impact of destination image and affect on behavioural intentions
Költringer and Dickinger (2015)	Representation of brand image in online information sources	Qualitative Co-occurrence analysis, correspondence analysis	Vienna, Austria 5719 UGC documents (i.e., online travel communications and social travel guides), DMO (i.e., websites of destination management organizations), Anglo-American news media website documents	Difference in image representation of different online information sources user generated content (UGC) as the richest online information source
Kozak, Bigné, Gonzalez, and Andreu (2003)	Cross-cultural differences in tourist behaviour	Quantitative FA, ANOVA	Comunidad Valenciana, Spain 2879 tourists in 1999, 2511 tourists in 2000	Destination image perceptions of a specific destination are not homogeneous

Ku and Mak (2017)	Differences between residents' and tourists' destination image	Quantitative Importance- performance analysis	Hualien, Taiwan 335 domestic tourists, 307 residents Purposive sampling technique	Differences between residents' and tourists' perceptions in environmental issues and visit purposes
Kwanisai and Vengesayi (2016)	Contribution of the attribute satisfaction towards overall satisfaction	Quantitative Multiple linear regression	Zimbabwe 702 tourists Convenience sampling	Out of 9 attributes 7 found as significant in explaining overall satisfaction; accommodation had the greatest contribution towards overall satisfaction. the role of transport and intermediaries statistically insignificant.
Ladeira, Santini, Araujo, and Sampaio (2016)	A meta-analysis of tourism and hospitality empirical studies on the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction	Meta-analysis	125 articles	Destination image, quality, environment, perceived value, hedonic value, utility value, and monetary value as antecedents of satisfaction, loyalty, trust, purchase and word-of- mouth intentions as consequences of satisfaction.
Lai and Li (2012)	Core-periphery structure of destination image	Mixed method Thematic, FA	Beijing, China Quantitative - 895 tourists	Existence of core-periphery structure in destination image

			Qualitative – 51 tourists	
Lai and Li (2016)	Conceptualization of destination image from a modernist perspective	Conceptual	45 tourism destination image definitions	Proposed a definition of destination image with the purpose to increase its internal and external clarity
Lban et al. (2015)	Relationships between destination image, perceived value and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Burhaniye, Turkey 405 festival visitors	Impact of: destination image on perceived value and WOM perceived value on revisit likelihood and WOM
Lee (2009a)	Relationships among destination image, interpretation services, satisfaction and future behaviour in the case of community-based sustainable tourism	Quantitative FA, SEM - LISREL	Taomi eco-village, Taiwan 64 tourists	Direct and indirect effect of destination image on satisfaction and future behaviour interpretation services directly impacted satisfaction and indirectly future behaviour impact of satisfaction on future behaviour
Lee (2009b)	Relationships among destination image, attitude, motivations, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM - LISREL	Cigu, Sihcao and Haomeiliao, Taiwan 1244 tourists	Direct impact of destination image, tourist attitude, motivations on satisfaction, and their indirect impact on behavioural intentions

			Systematic sampling	
Lee and Lee (2009)	Impact of culture on destination image and tourist behaviour	Quantitative FA, t-tests, Importance- performance analysis	Guam 238 Korean 231 Japanese tourists	Difference in perceptions between the two nationality groups
Lee and Lockshin (2012)	Impact of country-product image on destination image. Moderating effect of familiarity	Quantitative t-test, SEM – AMOS	Chile Australia 135 Australian university students 235 Chinese tourists	Reverse country-of-origin image effect, whereby country's product image impacted destination image moderating impact of product familiarity on destination image
Lee et al. (2014a)	Dynamic nature of destination image. Relationship between satisfaction and image modification	Quantitative ANOVA	South Korea 520 tourists	Significant differences between pre- and post-trip images impact of extent of image modification on satisfaction
Lee et al. (2016)	Relationships among destination image, recreation experience and perceived authenticity	Quantitative FA, SEM – LISREL	Taiwan 536 tourists	Impact of cognitive and affective images on recreation experience, and of the latter on perceived authenticity mediating effect of recreation experience between cognitive image and perceived authenticity

Lee et al. (2012)	Incongruence between pre- and post-travel destination images, and its impact on satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative (longitudinal repeated measures) FA, regression analysis	Central Asia 205 Korean tourists	Positive change in destination image after the trip Impact of: positive incongruence on satisfaction satisfaction on behavioural intentions
Lee, Lee, and Lee (2005)	Relationships among destination image, service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, Covariance matrix, structural analysis	South Korea 412 tourists	Impact of: destination image on service quality service quality on affect, satisfaction and revisit and recommend intentions, affect on satisfaction and behavioural intentions satisfaction on behavioural intentions
Lee, Lockshin, Cohen, and Corsi (2019b)	Halo effect of tourists' destination image on their product image of that destination through latent growth modelling	Quantitative (longitudinal) Latent growth modelling - AMOS	Australia Chinese tourists Time 1 n=317, time 2 n=140, time 3 n=111	Positive impact of destination image on product evaluations exported by that destination product-image decay over time in low- involvement visitors versus high- involvement visitors
Lee, Pan, and Chung (2019a)	Relationships among destination image, service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Dapeng Bay Scenic Area, Taiwan 407 visitors	Impact of: destination image on service quality and satisfaction

				Impact of satisfaction on behavioural intentions
Li and Stepchenkova (2012)	Destination image perceptions of the US by Chinese long-haul outbound travellers	Qualitative Perceptual mapping	US 1600 long-haul Chinese outbound tourists	Perceptual mapping as a method of linking image components
Li and Vogelsong (2006)	Compare two methodologies for measuring destination image change	Quantitative t-test	Jacksonville 130 festival attendees Systematic sampling	The two methods provided contrasting results: the objective method of measuring same respondents' perceptions of destination image during and after event participation resulted in negative image change the subjective method of directly reporting image change indicated positive change
Li and Yang (2015)	Relationships among destination image, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Moderating role of gender	Quantitative FA, SEM – LISREL	Macau, China 514 domestic tourists Convenient sampling	Impact of: destination image on satisfaction and behavioural intentions satisfaction on behavioural intentions no impact of gender in the relationships tested

Li et al. (2015)	Analysis of destination image research between 1991 - 2011	Conceptual		Summary of the destination image literature during 20 years by citation records, statistical procedure, data collection, survey methods, image attributes and constructs used and destination image definitions proposed
Li, Cai, Lehto, and Huang (2010)	Relationships among motivations, destination image and revisit intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM - AMOS	Indiana, USA 882 visitors	Impact of: motivations on cognitive and affective images, and revisit intentions impact of affective image on revisit intentions
Li, Petrick, and Zhou (2008)	Relationships between destination knowledge and loyalty	Conceptual		Relationship between destination knowledge and destination loyalty
Lim et al. (2014)	Pre- and post-visit destination image perceptions	Quantitative FA, regression analysis, multivariate analysis	China 196 Singaporean Generation Y tourists	Significant positive change in image perceptions after visit to the destination
Lin, Morais, Kerstetter, and Hou (2007)	Multi-attribute perspective to the role of cognitive and affective images in the destination preferences formation	Quantitative FA, SEM	Taiwan 857 Taichung residents	Impact of cognitive on affective component, and of the two components on destination preferences

Lin, Wu, and Chang (2006)	Destination images and visit intentions of Yahoo! –Taiwan's travel community	Quantitative FA, Regression analysis	Hualien, Taiwan 993 members of Yahoo! – Taiwan	Four image attributes positively influence, and one negatively influences visit intentions
Lindblom, Lindblom, Lehtonen, and Wechtler (2018)	Relationships among country images, destination beliefs and travel intentions	Quantitative SEM	Japanese non- travellers and travellers to Finland (n=593), Sweden (365) and Denmark (305)	Impact of: country image on destination beliefs destination beliefs on travel intentions
Liu (2014)	Image-based segmentation of cultural tourists	Quantitative FA, cluster analysis, ANOVA	Taiwan 945 international tourists	Four tourist segments based on image dimensions tourist segment differences in terms of socio-demographics, number of visits and travel motivations
Liu, Li, and Fu (2016)	Perceived freedom of choice, destination image and satisfaction as antecedents of behavioural intentions	Quantitative CFA, SEM	Macau, China 514 tourists from Mainland China Convenience sampling	Impact of: perceived freedom of choice on destination image, satisfaction, behavioural intentions destination image on satisfaction, behavioural intentions. Satisfaction influenced behavioural intentions
Liu et al. (2017)	Relationships among destination image,	Quantitative	Macau	Impact of:

	satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Moderating role of travel experiences	FA, SEM – AMOS	514 Mainland Chinese tourists	destination image on satisfaction and behavioural intentions satisfaction on behavioural intentions moderating role of travel experience, with higher impact of destination image on satisfaction for first-time visitors
Liu, Lin, and Wang (2012)	Relationships among destination image, self- congruity, destination personality and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Yilan Shangrila Recreation Farm, Taiwan 326 visitors Convenience sampling	Impact of destination image on self- congruity, destination personality, and loyalty significant differences between first-time and repeat visitors in self-congruity and behavioural intentions relationships
Llodrà-Riera, Martínez-Ruiz, Jiménez-Zarco, and Izquierdo- Yusta (2015)	Relative impact of information sources on forming destination image	Quantitative FA, ANOVA	Mallorca, Spain 541 tourists and residents	Grouping web platforms as organic, induced, and autonomous sources relative impact of these sources in forming information source construct
Lu and Cai (2011)	Impact of image (of a destination, event, and venue) on (event and destination) loyalty	Quantitative FA, SEM	China 242 convention exhibition attendees	Impact of: event, venue and destination image on event loyalty venue and destination image on destination loyalty

Lubbe (1998)	Primary image construction as a dimension of destination image	Qualitative Cluster matrix	South Africa 29 interviewees of Saudi Arabia nationals Non-probability judgement sampling	Different perspectives between expatriates and Saudi nationals in constructing primary images culture as an important determinant of these differences
Machado, Santos, and Sarmento (2009)	Relationships among information sources, motivations, attributes' consumption, destination image, quality, destination choice, satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative Logistic regression	Madeira 346 departing international tourists	Service quality, information sources, motivations, consumption of good, satisfaction, return intentions as strengthening factors of the destination image
MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997)	Effects of visuals on destination image construction and interpretation	Mixed method FA, ANCOVA	Riding Mountain National Park, Manitoba, Canada 240 survey respondents, 28 focus group participants Quota sampling, Purposive criterion sampling	The visuals as the most significant predictors of destination image individual characteristics as weaker predictors of destination image impact of familiarity on destination image

MacKay and Fesenmaier (2000)	Role of culture in tourist destination images	Quantitative Multidimensional scaling	10 students from US and Taiwan Convenience sampling	Commonalities and differences between the two cultural groups
MacKay and McVetty (2002)	Impact of visitation and information on image formation and change	Quantitative	Gwaii Haanas National Park Reserve on the Queen Charlotte Islands	Before visits tourists primarily had cognitive image, but after visit it shifted towards more affective features of the destination visitors' images shifted towards more positive perceptions
Madden et al. (2016)	A critical review of the literature on the definitions, measurements and antecedents of destination image	Conceptual		Antecedents of destination image for future studies
Maghsoodi Tilaki et al. (2016)	Relationships among destination image, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – PLS	Penang, Malaysia 420 international tourists	Impact of: destination image on satisfaction satisfaction on behavioural intentions
Martín-Santana et al. (2017)	Antecedents of destination image change, and impact of image change on satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative FA, SEM	Tenerife, Spain 411 tourists	Impact of: positive gap between pre- and post- visit images on satisfaction satisfaction on behavioural intentions

Mat Som, Mostafavi Shirazi, Marzuki, and Jusoh (2011)	Relationships between image, satisfaction and destination loyalty	Quantitative ANOVA	Penang, Malaysia 123 international tourists	Relationship between satisfaction and loyalty
McCartney (2008)	Influence of culture on destination image	Quantitative Multivariate analysis	Macao Tourists at airport departures in Hong Kong (n=456), Beijing (n=406), Shanghai (n=313), and Kaohsiung (n=287) Random sampling	Impact of cultural backgrounds and travel motivations on destination image formation
McCartney, Butler, and Bennett (2008)	Influence of information sources on destination selection	Quantitative Cross-tabulation analysis	Macao Random sampling Tourists at airport departures in Hong Kong (n=456), Beijing (n=406), Shanghai (n=313), and Kaohsiung (n=287)	Importance of information sources were different in relation to cultural backgrounds
Mendes, Do Valle, and Guerreiro (2011)	Impact of promotional campaign on destination image	Quantitative FA, SEM – PLS	Algarve, Portugal	Strong positive effect of Algarve campaign on destination image

			282 departing tourists	
Mohamad, Ali, Ghani, Abdullah, and Mokhlis (2013)	Impact of destination image on behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Malaysia 312 departing European tourists	Impact of destination image on behavioural intentions
Mohamad, Ghani, Mamat, and Mamat (2014)	Mediating role of satisfaction between destination image and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Malaysia 312 European tourists	Direct and indirect effect of destination image (through satisfaction) on behavioural intentions
Moon and Han (2019)	Relationships among experience quality, perceived value, perceived price reasonableness, satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative K-means cluster analysis, FA, SEM	Jeju Island, South Korea 465 international tourists	Impact of experience quality on perceived value and perceived price reasonableness, and of the two on satisfaction, and the latter on tourist loyalty Moderating effect of destination image in the relationship among perceived value, price reasonableness and satisfaction
Moon, Ko, Connaughton, and Lee (2013)	Relationships among destination image, service quality, perceived value and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Tour de Korea bicycling stage race, South Korea 451 spectators	Impact of: service quality on perceived value, destination image and behavioural intentions

				perceived value on destination image, and its negative impact on behavioural intentions mediating role of destination image between service quality and behavioural intentions
Morais and Lin (2010)	Destination image and destination attachment as antecedents of patronizing intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Taiwan 160 first-time, 156 repeat visitors	Destination image for first-time visitors, destination attachment for repeat visitors as the main determinant of patronizing intentions
Musa, Putit, Yusrina Hayati Nik Muhammad, and Husin (2011)	Impact of destination image on tourist experience and loyalty	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Perhentian Island, Malaysia 173 tourists	Island image and country image as determinants of tourist experience impact of tourist experience on loyalty
Mwaura, Ingram, Acquaye, and Jargal (2013)	Destination image of actual and potential tourists	Quantitative t-test	Mongolia 44 UK actual and potential tourists	Tourists that experienced the destination had more positive perceptions than potential tourists destination image as an important factor in determining visit intentions
Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly, and Luk (2008)	Relationship between tourism destination and product-country images, and its impact on behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM - LISREL	Nepal 307 international tourists	Direct impact of country image on destination image and its indirect impact on behavioural intentions

Nghiêm-Phú (2014)	Development of destination image research	Conceptual	177 articles published between 2008 – 2012	Perceived and projected destination image studies as the two broad categories of destination image research destination image studies in terms of constructs investigated
Nghiêm-Phú (2015)	Structure of destination image	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Vietnam 367 international tourists	Destination image as a four-structure construct with functional psychological, mixed and affective components impact of all destination image components on behavioural intentions
Nghiêm-Phú (2018)	Correlation between destination image and satisfaction	Meta-analysis		Impact of destination image, quality and attribute satisfaction on overall satisfaction
Nicoletta and Servidio (2012)	Impact of two sets of images (i.e., promotional and non-promotional) on destination evaluations	Quantitative Logistic regression	Amantea, Italy 225 non-visitors	Impact of non-promotional images than promotional images, on evoking more emotional excitement in tourists and visit intentions
O'Leary and Deegan (2005)	Ireland's image as a tourism destination in France	Quantitative Importance- performance analysis	Ireland 281 French tourists	Identified 17 attributes important to French tourists for most attributes confirmed importance/pre-visit performance and importance/post-visit performance discrepancies between pre- and post- visit destination image were for the

				price-quality ratio, litter and access dimensions
Oom do Valle, Correia, and Rebelo (2008)	Motivations, expectations, travel characteristics, socio-demographics as determinants of return behaviour	Quantitative CFA, logit regression model analyses	Brazil 112 Portuguese tourists	Impact of pull and push motivations, expectations, frequent travel behaviour and socio-demographics on return decisions no impact of trip cost on return decisions
Ozretic-Dosen, Previsic, Krupka, Skare, and Komarac (2018)	Impact of familiarity on destination image	Quantitative t-test, importance- performance analysis	Turkey 838 Croatian citizens Convenience sampling	Impact of travel experience on destination image no impact of overall familiarity on destination image
Ozturk and Qu (2008)	Impact of destination image on expectations, perceived value and recommend intentions	Quantitative FA, multiple regression	Kizkalesi, Turkey 233 domestic tourists	Impact of destination image on expectations, perceived value and recommend intentions
Palau-Saumell et al. (2016)	Relationships among country image, destination image, value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – EQS	Cancun, Mexico, and Lloret de Mar, Spain 1206 international tourists Convenience sampling	Country and destination images as two different constructs Impact of: country image on destination image destination image on value, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions

				value on satisfaction satisfaction on behavioural intentions
Pan and Li (2011)	Linguistic structure of destination image	Mixed method Google search volume data Correlation, regression analysis, ANOVA	China 3263 American leisure travel population	Power-law distribution and long tail pattern of destination image phrases: few well-known phrases and attractions and many niche phrases collectively in large volume linkages of destination image phrases with search engine keywords
Papadimitriou et al. (2015)	Relationships among destination personality, affective image, overall image and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Athens, Greece 160 past visitors, 201 non-visitors	Impact of destination personality and affective image on overall image mediating role of overall image in the impact of destination personality and affective image on behavioural intentions
Papadimitriou, Kaplanidou, and Apostolopoulou (2018)	Differences in destination image and behavioural intentions among residents, past and prospective tourists	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Patras, Greece 207 residents, 158 past tourists, 175 prospective tourists Systematic sampling	Hierarchical sequence of cognition – affect – overall image differences among residents, past and prospective tourists in the relationships tested: e.g., for residents and past tourists cognitive and affective images had direct impact on WOM intentions, while for

				prospective tourists' overall image also impacted WOM intentions
Park and Nicolau (2019)	Impact of destination image difference between pre- and post- trips on satisfaction and revisit intentions	Quantitative Regression analysis – the Tobit model	South Korea 12024 departing international tourists Stratified sampling	Asymmetric effects in the impact of the difference between pre- and post- travel destination images on satisfaction and revisit intentions
Park and Njite (2010)	Impact of destination image on satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Jeju Island 310 tourists Convenient sampling	Impact of: destination image on satisfaction and behavioural intention travel characteristics on destination image
Park, Lee, Kim, and Kim (2019)	Relationships among destination image, network density, degree centrality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative Social network analysis, FA, SEM – AMOS	Seoul, South Korea 468 Chinese tourists	Impact of destination image on network density (i.e., connectivity of a destination's touristic attractions) and degree centrality, and of the two on satisfaction, and of the latter on behavioural intentions
Pavesi, Gartner, and Denizci- Guillet (2016)	Impact of a negative experience at a destination on tourists' decisions	Quantitative Wilcoxon signed- rank test	Albania 110 student travellers	Impact of travel experience on tourists' decisions

Pechlaner, Dal Bò, and Pichler (2013)	Relationship among destination image, event quality and customer satisfaction with motivations as a moderator	Quantitative Kruskal-Wallis, Mann-Whitney U, regression analysis	Manifesta 7 festival 764 visitors Systematic random sampling	Impact of image and event quality on satisfaction motivation as significant moderator in determining images, satisfaction and event quality
Peña, Jamilena, and Molina (2012)	Dimensions in the formation of rural destination image	Quantitative FA, SEM -	Andalusia, Spain 199 tourists	Destination characteristics, service characteristics, cultural activities, nature- based activities, local products and gastronomy as dimensions in the formation of perceptions of a rural destination image
Permana (2018)	Relationships among destination image, perceived value, satisfaction and revisit intentions	Quantitative SEM – PLS	Kepulauan Seribu, Indonesia 265 tourists Purposive sampling	Impact of perceived value on satisfaction, and the latter on revisit intentions
Phau, Shanka, and Dhayan (2010)	Impact of information sources on destination image and destination choice	Quantitative FA, multiple regression	Mauritius 388 students in Australia Convenience sampling	Impact of information sources on destination image and destination choice
Phillips and Jang (2007)	Influence of destination image on visit intention.	Quantitative	NYC, USA 387 students	Impact of cognitive and affective images on visit intentions

	Moderating role of motivations	FA, Hierarchical regression analysis		moderating role of motivations between only affective image and visit intentions
Phillips and Jang (2008)	Influence of destination image on tourist attitude towards the destination	Quantitative FA, SEM	New York, USA 749 University staff	Direct effect of affective image, and indirect effect of cognitive image on tourist attitude
Phillips and Jang (2010)	Impact of previous visit on destination image and visit intention	Quantitative t-test	NYC, USA 749 University faculty and staff	More positive image of visitors than non-visitors Impact of destination image on visit intention No impact of previous visit on visit intention
Phillips, Wolfe, Hodur, and Leistritz (2013)	Relationships among destination image, value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative Path analysis – AMOS	North Dakota, US 317 tourists	Direct impact of destination image on value and revisit intentions, and its indirect effect on satisfaction and recommendation intentions
Pike (2002)	Review destination image papers published between 1973 - 2000	Conceptual		Classified 142 destination image papers by number of destinations of interest, attributes used, methods used, techniques used and sample population
Pike (2011)	Review of 120 destination image studies published between 2001 – 2007	Conceptual		Organized the studies in categories such as region, destination type and data analysis

Pike and Ryan (2004)	Comparative analysis of market positions through cognitive, affective and conative perceptions	Quantitative FA, importance- performance analysis	5 holiday destinations in New Zealand's North Island 763 Auckland residents	Effectiveness of comparative positioning analysis importance of factor analytic importance performance analysis and affective response matrix
Pike, Gentle, Kelly, and Beatson (2018)	Destination brand positioning and destination image over time	Quantitative (longitudinal)	5 destinations in Australia Brisbane residents 2003 n=521 2007 n=444 2012 n=541 2015 n=158	Identified minimal change in the destinations' market positions and destination images over 12 years
Prats et al. (2016)	Effect of familiarity, information sources, length of stay and satisfaction on destination image	Quantitative FA, SEM	Sagrada Familia, Barcelona, Spain 603 tourists Systematic random sampling	Familiarity has no impact on Length of stay impact of cognitive and affective image on satisfaction
Pratt and Chan (2016)	Relationship between destination image and intention to travel to	Quantitative	Japan	Impact of destination image factors on travel intention

	Japan for the 2020 Tokyo Olympic Games	FA, Mann – Whitney U test, logistic regression	315 Hong Kong Generation Y potential tourists	
Prayag (2008)	Relative impact of destination image attributes on satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative Multiple regression, SEM	Cape Town, South Africa 585 international tourists	Direct and indirect impact of destination image on loyalty differing impact of image dimensions on behavioural intentions
Prayag (2009)	Relationships among destination image, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM - AMOS	Mauritius 705 tourists	Direct and indirect effect of destination image (through satisfaction) on behavioural intentions
Prayag (2010)	Impact of demographics and travel characteristics on the perceived importance of image factors	Quantitative FA, cluster analysis	Cape Town 585 tourists	Impact of demographics, rather than travel characteristics, on defining tourist segments
Prayag (2011)	Impact of nationality on image perceptions	Quantitative Importance performance analysis	Mauritius 705 tourists Quota sampling	Impact of nationality on importance- performance perceptions of destination image
Prayag (2012)	Impact of socio- demographics on destination image	Quantitative	Mauritius 705 hotel guests	Tourist segments by nationality, marital status, and travel characteristics as useful segmentation variables, and their impact

	satisfaction and behavioural intentions	<i>k</i> -means clustering, discriminant analysis		on destination image and behavioural intentions impact of satisfaction with destination image on behavioural intentions
Prayag and Ryan (2011)	Relationship between 'push' and 'pull' factors of destination image and nationality	Qualitative Thematic analysis, content analysis	Mauritius 103 departing tourists	Relationship between motivations and destination image impact of nationality on these relationships
Prayag and Ryan (2012)	Relationships among destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Mauritius 705 tourists	Indirect impact of destination image, personal involvement and place attachment on behavioural intentions through satisfaction
Prebežac and Mikulić (2008)	Image of Hawaii and Croatia	Quantitative Importance- perception (IPA), Importance grid analysis (IGA)	206 students Convenience sampling	Applicability and usefulness of combined measurement approach of open-ended questions, IPA and IGA for measuring destination image
Pujiastuti et al. (2017)	Impact of customer experience on trust and behavioural intention	Quantitative Generalized structured component analysis	Yogyakarta, Indonesia 155 local tourists	Impact of customer experience on trust and behavioural intentions

			Accidental sampling	
Qu, Kim, and Im (2011)	Relationships among destination image components and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – LISREL	Oklahoma 379 domestic visitors	Overall brand image as a mediator between destination's cognitive, affective and unique images and behavioural intentions
Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011)	Relationships among destination imagery, motivations, perceived authenticity, information search behaviour and behavioural intentions	Quantitative Structural equation modelling, Hierarchical multiple regression	Mauritius 600 tourists	Positive influence of perceived authenticity, information search behaviour, destination imagery on behavioural intentions moderating effect of perceived authenticity on these relationships
Ramkissoon, Uysal, and Brown (2011a)	Cross-cultural similarities and differences in tourists' behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, Multinomial logistic regression, ANOVA	Mauritius 541 tourists	Impact of culture on behavioural intentions, perceived authenticity, information search behaviour and destination image.
Ramkissoon, Uysal, and Brown (2011b)	Impact of destination image on behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – LISREL	Mauritius 300 tourists	Impact of destination image on behavioural intentions towards cultural attractions
Rey-Moreno, Medina-Molina, and Rufín-Moreno (2014)	Visitors' future behaviour model by applying to two different destinations: urban, sun and sea	Quantitative Structural Equation Modelling with PLS 3.0	Seville, Spain (n=424), York, UK (n=195), Cartagena de	Existence of different patterns between urban and seaside destinations relationships among destination image, satisfaction and loyalty
			Indias, Colombia (n=200)	
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Reza Jalilvand, Samiei, Dini, and Yaghoubi Manzari (2012)	Relationships among e- WOM, destination image, tourist attitude, travel intentions and socio- demographics	Quantitative ANOVA, SEM – AMOS	Isfahan, Iran 264 tourists Convenience sampling	Impact of: e-WOM on destination image, tourist attitude, and travel intentions destination image on tourist attitude, and the two on travel intentions sociodemographics on e-WOM, destination image, tourist attitude and travel intentions
Rice and Khanin (2019)	Relationships among attribute satisfaction, push and pull motives and revisit intentions. Moderating effect of age and gender	Quantitative FA, SEM – PLS	USA destinations 986 tourists	Impact of attribute satisfaction and push motives on revisit intentions Moderating effect of age on pull motives
Rodrigues et al. (2012)	Evolutionary analysis of scientific progress in destination image through the life-cycle model	Conceptual		three stages of destination image research process destination image concepts through a life-cycle model theoretical and methodological progress needed for future research

Rodrigues, Correia, and Kozak (2011)	Destination image construct	Conceptual	Alqueva Lake, Portugal	Multidisciplinary approach towards a destination image model
Rodríguez Molina, Frías- Jamilena, and Castañeda- García (2013)	Moderating effect of prior experience in the relationships among destination image, satisfaction and recommend intentions	Quantitative FA, Multi-group analysis	Andalusia, Spain 512 tourists Convenience sampling	Moderating effect of experience on cognitive image formation, and between satisfaction and overall image
Ruzzier (2010)	More comprehensive measurement of destination image through destination awareness, quality and loyalty dimensions	Quantitative Second-order FA, correlation analysis	Slovenia, Austria 402 German, 404 Croatian tourists	Destination image as the main determinant of destination choice and destination evaluation
Ryan and Ninov (2011)	Impact of specific place image (within a destination) on wider destination image	Quantitative Thematic analysis, PCA	Dubai Creek, Dubai 102 visitors	Simultaneous existence of multiple place images in the tourists' minds no impact of a specific place image on a wider destination image
Sahin and Baloglu (2011)	Impact of nationality on destination image and brand personality	Quantitative FA, ANOVA	Istanbul, Turkey 272 first-time tourists from USA, UK, Europe, and East Asia	Impact of nationality on cognitive and overall image, brand personality, and behavioural intentions

Sampaio (2012)	Indirect impact of destination image on satisfaction, mediated by tourist involvement in the case of wine tourism	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Madeira Island 303 tourists	Direct impact of tourist wine involvement indirect impact of destination image on tourist satisfaction
San Martín and Rodríguez del Bosque (2008)	Relationship between destination image and psychological factors	Quantitative FA, ANOVA, cluster analysis	Spain 807 tourists Convenience and quota sampling	Image as a multidimensional concept consisting of cognitive and affective evaluations impact of culture and motivations on pre-visit destination image
Sánchez-Rivero and Pulido- Fernández (2012)	Difference in destination image perceptions between cultural and other tourists	Quantitative Simultaneous latent class analysis	Andalusia 1822 tourists	Difference in valuation of destination image attributes between cultural and non-cultural tourists
Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010)	Destination image formation	Quantitative FA, covariance analysis, SEM	Mexico 202 residents in Spain	Impact of: motivations on cognitive and global image affective image on global image age and education on cognitive image indirect effect of cognitive image on global image through affective image

Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018)	Relationships between destination image, its antecedents and behavioural intentions	Quantitative SEM - PLS	Bahia, Brazil 396 tourists	Direct impact of cognitive and affective components on overall image, and indirect impact of unique components cognitive image had the strongest influence on other image components Impact of: overall image on behavioural intentions impact of familiarity, socio- demographics and motivations on cognitive image
Santos Silva, Albayrak, Caber, and Moutinho (2016a)	Application of artificial neural networks (ANNs) in assessing antecedents of behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, regression analysis, ANN analysis	Antalya, Turkey 332 tourists	Value for money as the first important determinant of behavioural intentions, followed by basic functional attributes and tourist behaviour multidimensionality
Sanz-Blas, Buzova, and Carvajal-Trujillo (2017)	Moderating role of information sources in destination image formation and in the relationships among destination image, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative Multigroup analysis – PLS	Valencia, Spain 492 cruise passengers	Moderating effect of information sources in the destination image formation, in the relationships between destination image and satisfaction, and between satisfaction and behavioural intentions
Sanz-Blas et al. (2019)	Relationships among destination image,	Quantitative	Valencia, Spain	Impact of:

	satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Moderating effects of visit characteristics and familiarity	PLS path modelling	492 cruise tourists	destination image on satisfaction destination image and satisfaction on behavioural intentions moderating effects of familiarity and visit arrangements (i.e., excursion and independent visits) in these relationships
Sarli and Baharun (2013)	Relationships among destination image, personality, lifestyle, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia 212 tourists	Impact of: destination image on lifestyle lifestyle and destination image on satisfaction satisfaction on loyalty
Schofield, Phillips, and Eliopoulos (2005)	Warrington's image of visitors and non-visitors, and moderating effect of socio-demographic and behavioural variables	Mixed method FA, ANOVA, MANOVA, regression analysis	Warrington, England 211 visitors, 179 non-visitors	Visitors had more positive images than non-visitors visit frequency, familiarity positively influenced destination image
Shanka and Phau (2008)	Impact of socio- demographics on the destination choice and consumption values	Quantitative FA, t-tests, ANOVA	Mauritius 388 students with no travel experience to the destination	Influence of socio-demographics on destination choice and consumption values

			Convenient sampling	
Shankar (2018)	Insights into concepts of destination image and destination personality	Conceptual		Tables on items and scales used to measure destination image, motivational factors which influence destination image and destination personality scales used in the studies
Shankar (2019)	Impact of socio- demographics on destination image	Quantitative MANOVA	Coimbatore, India 448 tourists	Impact of socio-demographics on destination image
Shin (2009)	Factors that generate tourist expectations	Quantitative second-order FA	Cantabria, Spain 298 tourists	Destination image as the main determinant of tourist expectations other determinants of destination image: experience, external communication and word-of mouth
Silva, Kastenholz, and Abrantes (2013)	Relationships among tourism development perceptions, destination image and place attachment	Quantitative FA, SEM – LISREL	European mountain destinations: Peaks of Europe, the Alps, Serra da Estrela 315 tourists	Impact of tourism development perceptions on destination image and place attachment
Singh, Krentler, and Ahuja (2016)	Attributes that attract tourists to India, and	Quantitative	India 500 tourists	Four segments of tourists

	tourist segments based on motivations	FA, cluster analysis, ANOVA		
Sirgy and Su (2000)	A model of destination image, self-congruity and travel behaviour	Conceptual		An integrated model of self-congruity and functional congruity in explaining travel behaviour, and the role of moderators in this process
Siriwardana et al. (2019)	Pre-visit image perceptions towards Sri Lanka, and the role of information sources	Qualitative Thematic analysis	Sri Lanka 25 potential tourists	Overall favourable image of Sri Lanka importance of WOM
Skavronskaya et al. (2017)	Concepts of cognitive psychology for explaining mental processes between tourist behaviour and stimuli	Conceptual	165 studies in cognitive psychology and pleasure travel	Relevance and benefits of the application of cognitive psychology in tourism research
Smith et al. (2015)	Change to tourists' image of a destination	Mixed method Autoregressive pattern analysis, regression analysis	Peru 17 student travellers	Tourists' destination image is dynamic and evolving

Son (2005)	Image of Sydney and Melbourne	Qualitative (sketch map)	Melbourne & Sydney 115 international students	Sketch map as a useful tool to obtain rich information on tourists' destination image
Son and Pearce (2005)	Multi-faceted assessment of destination image, and the role of cultural background	Quantitative ANOVA	Australia 365 international students	Positive perceptions towards Australia South American respondents' perceptions were more favourable than Asian respondents
Song, Su, and Liaoning (2013)	Multiple mediation in the relationships among destination image, satisfaction, perceived value and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	China, 371 tourists	Individual and joint mediating effects of satisfaction and perceived value in the relationship between destination image and behavioural intentions
Stepchenkova and Li (2012)	Impact of travel horizons on destination image perceptions	Quantitative Chi-square analysis, pairwise t-test, ANOVA	US 400 Mainland Chinese outbound travellers in each of four groups: US travellers; outside- Asia travellers; Within-Asia travellers; non- travellers	No significant differences in image perceptions among the four travel horizon-based segments

Stepchenkova and Mills (2010)	Review of destination image research between 2000 – 2007	Conceptual	152 articles on destination image	Trends in destination image literature
Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008)	Visitor and non-visitor images	Quantitative Content analysis, FA	Russia 54 American visitors 283 non-visitors	Non-travellers' images as more negative compared to travellers' images
Stepchenkova, Kim, and Kirilenko (2015)	Role of culture in the destination's pictures taken by tourists	Qualitative Content, chi- square, co- occurrence, geospatial analysis	Russia 658 images posted by 295 American tourists, 597 images posted by 139 Korean tourists	Differences in the content and geographical locations of the images taken by American and Korean tourists
Stepchenkova, Kirilenko, and Shichkova (2019)	Determinants of intentions to visit a tourist destination country in conflict with home country	Quantitative FA, hierarchical linear regression, logistic regression, decision tree analysis	USA and Russia 535 residents in Nizhni Novgorod	General animosity, destination and country images as determinants of visit intentions of a destination country in conflict with home country
Stylidis and Cherifi (2018)	Perceived destination image characteristics by visitors and non-visitors	Qualitative Thematic analysis	London, UK	Difference between visitors' and non- visitors' perceptions of destination image characteristics

			Snowball and convenience sampling 42 Czech and Greek visitors and non-visitors	
Stylidis, Belhassen, and Shani (2017a)	Interrelationships between destination image, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Eilat, Israel 240 domestic tourists	Relationships among destination image, quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions affective image exerted more impact on overall image compared to cognitive image
Stylidis, Shani, and Belhassen (2017b)	Applicability of destination image and recommend intentions model to residents and tourists	Quantitative FA, multigroup confirmatory factor analysis, SEM	Eilat, Israel 440 tourists and residents	Compared to cognitive and overall images affective image had the highest impact on intentions to recommend both for residents and tourists
Stylidis, Sit, and Biran (2016)	Destination image from the residents' perspective	Quantitative FA	Kavala, Greece 481 residents	Destination-specific and community- specific attributes are mutually inclusive in the case of residents' place image
Stylos and Andronikidis (2013)	Structure of cognitive destination image	Quantitative PCA	Greece 325 tourists	Four cognitive image generating dimensions: must-be conditions, attractive conditions, appealing activities, and natural environment

Stylos et al. (2016)	Relationship between destination image and revisit intentions. Moderating role of personal normative beliefs	Quantitative PCA, FA, SEM – AMOS	Macedonia, Greece For study one with 270 departing Russian tourists For study two: 1244 Russian tourists	Mediating effect of holistic image for affective and conative images on revisit intentions
Su et al. (2017)	Relationships of visitor perceptions with destination loyalty	Quantitative SEM - AMOS	Wuyi Mountain National Park, China 314 domestic tourists Convenience sampling	Impact of: service fairness and service quality on satisfaction and trust towards service providers destination image on satisfaction, but not on trust mediating effect of satisfaction in perceptions-loyalty relationship
Suhartanto, Clemes, and Wibisono (2018)	Impact of the cultural attraction experience on satisfaction, destination image and loyalty	Quantitative SEM – PLS	Indonesia 331 tourists visiting Purposive sampling	Uniqueness and learning, and the escapism factors as important determinants of overall experience quality impact of experience quality on satisfaction, destination image and loyalty

Suhartanto, Ruhadi, and Triyuni (2016)	Relationships among loyalty, destination image and satisfaction	Quantitative SEM – PLS	Indonesia 563 domestic and international tourists	Impact of destination image on satisfaction and loyalty
Sun et al. (2013)	Determinants of behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – LISREL	China 498 domestic tourists	Destination image, familiarity, perceived value and satisfaction as antecedents of behavioural intentions
Sung Moon, Kim, Jae Ko, Connaughton, and Hak Lee (2011)	Relationship between event quality and destination image	Quantitative FA, SEM - AMOS	Korea 451 participants of Tour de Korea	Impact of event quality on destination image
Tang (2014)	Relationships among destination image, travel motivations and satisfaction	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Sichuan, China 346 tourists	Impact of destination image on travel motivations and satisfaction
Tapachai and Waryszak (2000)	Impact of beneficial image on decisions to visit	Quantitative Content and frequency analysis	Thailand & USA 400 students who have never visited Thailand and the US Convenience sampling	Usefulness of the beneficial image model for destination image and holiday choice, by revealing more specific and meaningful characteristics of the destination that potential tourists consider

Tapia, Mercadé Melé, and Almeida-García (2019)	Relationships among destination image, corporate image and motivations	Quantitative FA, multigroup analysis, SEM	Spain 289 students in Korea	Impact of: corporate image on cognitive image motivations on cognitive and affective images
Tasci (2006)	Influence of visit on destination image using longitudinal data set	Quantitative t-test, Multiple regression	Michigan, USA 20704 tourists	Visitation improves destination image
Tasci (2009)	Terminology confusion in destination image literature	Conceptual		Different terms used interchangeably in destination image literature visual representation of relationships between different types of images
Tasci and Gartner (2007)	Relative influence of factors on destination image using a longitudinal dataset	Quantitative FA, multiple regression	Michigan, USA 3554 tourists	Impact of race and previous visitation on destination image
Tasci and Gartner (2007)	Comprehensive conceptualization of destination image through supply-side and demand- side aspects	Conceptual		A destination image conceptual model that contains relationships of supply- side, demand-side, independent aspects and consumer behaviour through reciprocal relationships
Tasci and Holecek (2007)	Destination image change over time using longitudinal data set	Quantitative	Michigan, USA 20704 tourists	Significant improvement in image dimensions over time

Tasci and Kozak (2006)	Experts' views of destination branding concept	Quantitative	19 academics in the member lists of the International Association of Scientific Experts in guideism, the Travel and Tourism Research Association, the TRINET	Existence of confusion between "brand" and "image" a model of branding
Tasci et al. (2007)	Evolution of destination image studies	Conceptual		relationships studied, definitions proposed and methodologies applied in destination image studies
Tasci, Hahm, and Terry (2019)	Influence of mega-event on destination image over time	Quantitative (longitudinal) ANOVA, ANCOVA	Brazil Mix of visitors and followers of the Olympics: n=101, n=96, n=98, n=94 Random sampling	No systematic impact of the Olympics on either country or destination images
Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013)				

				moderating effect of perceived risk in these relationships
Tegegne, Moyle, and Becken (2018)	Application of a qualitative system dynamics model to evaluate destination image	Qualitative System analysis	Ethiopia 34 Japanese tourists, 7 Japanese tour operators, 5 destination marketing organizations Snowball sampling	Through qualitative system dynamics model illustrated complex and nonlinear nature of destination image
Teodorescu et al. (2014)	Conceptualizing destination image through a systematic approach	Quantitative Scalar analysis	Transalpina, Romania 161 tourists	A model of destination image through five functional blocks: buying decision process, image formation, image intensity, image specificity and image dynamics
Teviana, Ginting, Lubis, and Gultom (2017)	Relationships among marketing mix, destination image, tourist satisfaction and loyalty	Quantitative FA, SEM	Indonesia 286 tourists Purposive sampling	Impact of: marketing mix on satisfaction and loyalty destination image on satisfaction satisfaction on loyalty
Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele, and Cretchley (2015)	A vacationer-driven approach to destination image	Quantitative	Fraser Coast, Australia	By enabling the tourists to indicate destination attributes confirmed

		Content analysis - Leximancer	517 tourists	cognitive and affective components of destination imagedestination imagedestination image is modified during experiencecognitive elements dominate prior experience, while affective elements
Toudert and Bringas-Rábago (2016)	Relationships among destination image, satisfaction, visit experience and behavioural intentions	Quantitative PLS path modelling	Port of Ensenada, Baja California 77 cruise ship passengers	Impact of: destination image on visit experience visit experience on satisfaction and behavioural intentions
Van Dyk, Tkaczynski, and Slabbert (2019)	Impact of destination image factors on behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, linear regression	South Africa 337 repeat tourists	Professionalism and experiential destination image factors as significant determinants of behavioural intentions
Vitouladiti (2013)	Comparison between secondary and primary destination images	Quantitative (longitudinal repeated measures) Paired samples t- test	Corfu, Greece 376 first-time British tourists	Experience significantly and positively modifies secondary image elements

Vogt and Andereck (2003)	Change in cognitive and affective images with the influence of experience. Prior experience and length of stay as moderators	Mixed A 16-page diary to complete during visit and pre-paid envelope ANOVA analysis	748 Motorists traveling through Arizona	Moderators had no impact in determining the level of image change. cognitive image strengthens, but affective image did not result in significant change
Wang and Davidson (2010)	Pre- and post-trip destination image perceptions	Quantitative Paired samples t- test	Australia 380 Chinese tourists	Significant improvement in destination image perceptions after experience
Wang and Hsu (2010)	Relationships among destination image, satisfaction and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Zhang-Jia-Jie, China 550 Chinese tourists	Impact of cognitive and affective images on overall image indirect impact of overall image on behavioural intentions through satisfaction
Wang, Qu, and Hsu (2016b)	Tourist expectation formation, and moderating role of gender	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Macao, China 774 domestic tourists	Impact of travel motivation, advertising and WOM on cognitive image cognitive and affective image interaction to form travel expectations moderating impact of gender in these relationships

Wang, Wu, and Yuan (2010)	Impact of visit purpose, experience, destination image and marketing communication tools on visit and revisit intentions	Quantitative FA, multiple regression analysis	Lukang, Taiwan 197 visitors of cultural festival	Visit purpose, overall travel perception, destination condition, direct sale and promotion on revisit intentions
Wang, Zhang, Gu, and Zhen (2009)	Antecedents and consequences of tourist satisfaction	Quantitative FA, SEM - LISREL	Guilin, China 608 departing tourists	Expectations, destination image, perceived quality and perceived value as antecedents of satisfaction impact of satisfaction on tourist complaints and loyalty
Whang, Yong, and Ko (2016)	Interrelationships between pop culture involvement, destination image and visit intention	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Korea 255 Chinese and Russian tourists	Relationships between situational and enduring pop culture involvement, destination image and visit intentions situational and enduring involvement, and nationality as moderators on the structural relationships
White (2005)	Difference between terms 'image' and 'perception'	Qualitative	Sri Lanka 45 interviewees	Questions on image and perceptions of a destination resulted in mostly identical responses
White Christopher (2004)	The concept of image	Conceptual		Discussion of the 'image' construct in comparison to 'attitudes' and 'perceptions'
Wong, Lee, and Lee (2016)	Influence of destination marketing narratives on	Quantitative FA, t-test	Sio House, Taiwan 405 general public	Impact of narrative content on destination images and visit intentions

	destination image and visit intentions			
Wong et al. (2019)	Mediating effects of destination image between event value and destination loyalty. Moderating effect of satisfaction	Quantitative FA, SEM — LISREL	Macau, China 810 inbound tourists	Impact of event value on behavioural intentions through destination image moderating effect of satisfaction between event value-destination image, and destination image-behavioural intentions
Wongsawat and Deebhijarn (2019)	Relationships among destination image, brand equity, 8Ps tourism marketing, destination satisfaction and destination loyalty	Quantitative SEM – LISREL	Thailand 680 tourists	Impact of: destination image and brand equity on satisfaction 8Ps of tourism marketing on loyalty
Wu (2016)	Destination image, travel experience and satisfaction as antecedents of behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM – AMOS	Taiwan 475 international tourists	Destination image, travel experience and satisfaction as key determinants of behavioural intentions impact of destination image and travel experience on satisfaction
Xu and Ye (2018)	Core-periphery structure of destination image in examining its formation and change	Qualitative	Lijiang, China 31 tourists, 14 staff and entrepreneurs	Multi-faceted and dynamic nature of destination image by identifying changes in core and periphery images of the destination as the effect of information sources

			Snowball sampling and convenience sampling	
Xu et al. (2018)	Destination image of Taiwan perceived by Hong Kong residents	Quantitative FA, SEM – LISREL	213 Hong Kong residents	Affective image as a stronger predictor of travel intention than cognitive image, and its mediating effect between cognitive image and behavioural intention
Yacout and Hefny (2015)	Role of demographics and culture in destination image formation and tourists' information selection	Quantitative Logistic regression, MANOVA	Egypt 201 tourists	Impact of: culture on selection of information sources previous experience on cognitive image the Internet on affective image
Yamaguchi, Akiyoshi, Yamaguchi, and Nogawa (2015)	Relationships between service quality, experience, destination image and behavioural intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM - AMOS	Okinawa, Japan 261 spectators	Impact of: service quality and past experience on destination image and behavioural intentions destination image on behavioural intentions
Yang (2016)	Impact of tourist-to- tourist interactions on destination image.	Quantitative FA, SEM	Macau, China 650 tourists	Impact of: T2T interaction incidents on interaction quality

	Moderating effect of interaction intensity		Convenience sampling	T2T interaction quality on destination image T2T interaction intensity as a moderator between interaction quality and destination image
Yang, He, and Gu (2012)	Implicit measurement of destination image	Quantitative t-test	Japan, Hong Kong 120 Chinese tourists	No explicit, but implicit difference between Japan and Hong Kong's destination image perceptions
Yang, Yuan, and Hu (2009)	Impact of familiarity on tourist decision-making, and impact of destination image on visit intentions	Quantitative FA, SEM	Shanghai, China 388 Chongqing residents	Impact of familiarity on destination image, and of the two on visit intentions
Yap et al. (2018)	Relationships among destination image, perceived value, tourist satisfaction, loyalty and complaining behaviour	Quantitative PLS path modelling	Malaysia 317 tourists	Impact of: destination image and perceived value on satisfaction satisfaction on tourist loyalty
Yeung, Kim, and Schuckert (2016)	Differences in preferences, behaviour and perceptions of Hong Kong	Quantitative t-test, Duncan's Multiple Range test	Hong Kong 345 Japanese tourists Convenience sampling	Differences between leisure and non- leisure tourists, gender, first-time and repeat visitors

Yilmaz et al. (2009)	Destination image differences between pre and post trip, and impact of visit frequency on return intentions	Quantitative FA, t-test	Antalya, Turkey 601 arriving tourists, 636 departing tourists	Departing tourists had more positive image perceptions no impact of visit frequency on return intentions
Yue-qian and Gong-min (2008)	Impact of national culture on multidimensionality of destination image	Quantitative FA, regression analysis	173 Japanese,140 Korean tourists	Different destination image multidimensionality perceptions between different nationalities
Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar (2015)	Impact of cognitions, affect, and personality of a country on product and service purchase, travel and business investment intentions	Quantitative SEM – LISREL	Austria, Italy and Germany 411 Australian residents	Revealed affect, personality, and cognitions of a country important in impacting purchase, travel and investment intentions
Zhang et al. (2014)	Relationship between destination image and tourist loyalty through a meta-analysis	Meta-analysis	ScienceDirect, EBSCO, SAGE, and Taylor & Francis 66 studies	Identified destination image's significant impact on tourist loyalty, with the greatest impact of overall image, while the impact of cognitive and affective images was not consistent
Zhang, Wu, and Buhalis (2018a)	Relationships among destination image, country image, memorable tourism	Quantitative FA, SEM – PLS	Huangshan, China 261 tourists from Korea	Memorable tourism experiences as a mediator in the impact of destination and country images on revisit intentions

	experience and revisit intentions			
Zhang, Wu, Morrison, Tseng, and Chen (2018b)	Relationships among country image, destination image and destination evaluation. Moderating effect of familiarity	Quantitative t-test, PROCESS analysis, simple slope analysis	Beijing, China 378 tourists	Impact of country image on destination image Direct and moderating effect of familiarity on destination image mediating effect of destination image in the impact of country image on destination evaluations.
Zhang, Xu, Leung, and Cai (2016)	Relationships among country image, destination image and visit intention	Quantitative SEM	UK and the USA 556 students Systematic sampling	A destination-country image concept which combines common attributes of the two

Note: FA – Factor Analysis; PCS – Principal component analysis; SEM – Structural Equation Modelling; PLS – Partial Least Squares; WOM – word-of-mouth intentions

In Table 3, three main categories of the studies were identified. The categories were established based on the relationships of constructs that they examined. First are either conceptual studies that have proposed or empirical studies that have proposed and tested direct effects of destination image and related concepts. Second, are those that have hypothesized mediating impacts. Third, are the studies that focused on the dynamic nature of the destination image.

While some conceptual studies proposed conceptual models of destination image or tourists' behavioural intentions, some empirical studies focused on a single hypothesis with no conceptual model. Therefore, the next step was to pinpoint the studies that contain conceptual models to guide the formation of the conceptual model of the current study. After that, these studies were scrutinized for the variables they have examined and the relationships they have tested among these variables. These relationships were divided into frequently, and infrequently tested direct effects. Table 4 frequently contains direct effects that have been examined at least in four studies. Less frequent direct effects included variables not relevant to the study's focus, such as brand equity, personality, novelty, and hedonics, thus, were excluded from further review.

The studies either have measured the impact of merely destination image on outcome variables or cognitive, affective, and overall image on these variables. Although some studies depicted 'destination image' in their conceptual model, their measurement items indicate either to cognitive (Eid et al., 2019; Sanz-Blas et al., 2017; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2016), cognitive and affective (Bhat Suhail & Darzi Mushtaq, 2018; Lu & Cai, 2011) or overall image (Rey-Moreno et al., 2014; Suhartanto et al., 2016). In Table 4 they were grouped as it appears in the studies. For example, if the relationship in a study appears as an impact of destination image on behavioural intentions, they are placed in the 'destination image on behavioural intentions, if a study tested the impact of cognitive image on behavioural intentions, it is in the column of 'cognitive image on behavioural intentions and destination image were merged into a single column, whether the destination image on focus is simply destination image or a component of destination image (i.e., cognitive, affective, overall), because these studies are relatively smaller in number.

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Direct impact of	Authors	
Affective image	Agapito et al. (2013)	Lee et al. (2005)
on	Almeida-Santana and Moreno-Gil (2018)	Li et al. (2010)
behavioural intentions	Baloglu (2000)	Papadimitriou et al. (2018)
	Chiu et al. (2016)	Stylidis et al. (2017b)
	Çoban (2012)	Whang et al. (2016)
	De Nisco et al. (2015)	Wong et al. (2019)
	Elliot et al. (2013)	Xu and Ye (2018)
	Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006)	Yamaguchi et al. (2015)
	Kaplanidou (2006)	Yang et al. (2009)
	Khan et al. (2017)	Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar (2015)
	Kim and Malek (2017)	Zhang et al. (2014)
	Kock et al. (2016)	
Affective image	Bairrada et al. (2019)	Papadimitriou et al. (2015)
on	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)	Qu et al. (2011)
overall image	Baloglu et al. (2014)	Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010)
	Beerli and Martín (2004)	Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018)
	Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana Josefa (2017)	Stylidis et al. (2017a)
	Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana (2019)	Stylidis et al. (2017b)

Table 4 Frequently studied variables and their direct relationships

	de la Hoz-Correa and Muñoz-Leiva (2019)	Stylos et al. (2016)
	Hung et al. (2012)	Wang and Hsu (2010)
	Kesić and Pavlic (2011)	Whang et al. (2016)
	Lin et al. (2007)	
	Papadimitriou et al. (2018)	
Affective image	Chiu et al. (2016)	Lee et al. (2005)
on	Çoban (2012)	Prats et al. (2016)
satisfaction	Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006)	
Attitude	Al-Kwifi Osama (2015)	Jalilvand (2017)
(toward destination)	Huang and van der Veen (2019)	Reza Jalilvand et al. (2012)
on		
behavioural intentions		
Cognitive image	Agapito et al. (2013)	Lindblom et al. (2018)
on	Baloglu (2000)	Martín-Santana et al. (2017)
affective image	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)	Papadimitriou et al. (2018)
	Beerli and Martín (2004)	Phillips and Jang (2008)
	Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana Josefa (2017)	Prats et al. (2016)
	Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana (2019)	Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010)
	Boo and Busser (2006)	Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018)
	Chiu et al. (2016)	Stylidis et al. (2017a)
	de la Hoz-Correa and Muñoz-Leiva (2019)	Stylidis et al. (2017b)

	Elliot et al. (2013)	Tapia et al. (2019)
	Hung et al. (2012)	Wang and Hsu (2010)
	Kesić and Pavlic (2011)	Wang et al. (2016b)
	Kock et al. (2016)	Whang et al. (2016)
	Lee et al. (2005)	Yang (2016)
	Li et al. (2010)	Yang et al. (2009)
	Lin et al. (2007)	Yeung et al. (2016)
Cognitive image	Agapito et al. (2013)	Kim and Malek (2017)
on	Bigné Alcañiz et al. (2009)	Li et al. (2010)
behavioural intentions	Almeida-Santana and Moreno-Gil (2018)	Papadimitriou et al. (2018)
	Baloglu (2000)	Stylidis et al. (2017b)
	Chiu et al. (2016)	Stylos et al. (2016)
	Chung and Chen (2018)	Whang et al. (2016)
	Çoban (2012)	Wong et al. (2019)
	de la Hoz-Correa and Muñoz-Leiva (2019)	Xu and Ye (2018)
	Elliot et al. (2013)	Yamaguchi et al. (2015)
	Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006)	Yang et al. (2009)
	Khan et al. (2017)	Zhang et al. (2014)
Cognitive image	Bigné Alcañiz et al. (2009)	Martín-Santana et al. (2017)
on	Assaker (2014)	Papadimitriou et al. (2018)
overall image	Bairrada et al. (2019)	Prayag (2008)

	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)	Prayag (2009)
	Baloglu et al. (2014)	Qu et al. (2011)
	Beerli and Martín (2004)	Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010)
	Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana (2019)	Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018)
	de la Hoz-Correa and Muñoz-Leiva (2019)	Stylidis et al. (2017b)
	Hung et al. (2012)	Stylidis et al. (2017a)
	Kesić and Pavlic (2011)	Stylidis et al. (2016)
	Kock et al. (2016)	Stylos et al. (2016)
	Lin et al. (2007)	Wang and Hsu (2010)
	Maghsoodi Tilaki et al. (2016)	Whang et al. (2016)
Cognitive image	Chiu et al. (2016)	Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006)
on	Çoban (2012)	Prats et al. (2016)
satisfaction		
Country image	Chaulagain et al. (2019)	Yeung et al. (2016)
on	Chung and Chen (2018)	Zhang et al. (2018a)
destination image	Hahm et al. (2019)	Zhang et al. (2018b)
	Lindblom et al. (2018)	Zhang et al. (2016)
	Palau-Saumell et al. (2016)	
Destination image	Al-Kwifi Osama (2015)	Jalilvand (2017)
on	Hasan Md et al. (2019b)	Reza Jalilvand et al. (2012)
attitude	Huang and van der Veen (2019)	Phillips and Jang (2008)

Destination image	Akroush Mamoun et al. (2016)	Li and Yang (2015)
on	Alcañiz et al. (2005)	Mohamad et al. (2013)
behavioural intentions	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Mohamad et al. (2014)
	Assaker and Hallak (2013)	Sung Moon et al. (2011)
	Assaker et al. (2015)	Moon et al. (2013)
	Assaker et al. (2011)	Morais and Lin (2010)
	Bhat Suhail and Darzi Mushtaq (2018)	Nadeau et al. (2008)
	Bui and Le (2016)	Ozturk and Qu (2008)
	Castro et al. (2007)	Palau-Saumell et al. (2016)
	Chang et al. (2015)	Park and Nicolau (2019)
	Chaulagain et al. (2019)	Lindblom et al. (2018)
	Chen and Tsai (2007)	Liu et al. (2016)
	Chen et al. (2013b)	Liu et al. (2017)
	Chen et al. (2013b)	Liu et al. (2012)
	Choi and Cai (2016)	Lu and Cai (2011)
	Chung and Chen (2018)	Phillips et al. (2013)
	De Nisco et al. (2015)	Pratt and Chan (2016)
	Eid et al. (2019)	Prayag (2008)
	Fayed et al. (2016)	Prayag (2009)
	Gannon et al. (2017)	Pujiastuti et al. (2017)
	Gibson et al. (2008)	Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011)

	Bigné, Sanchez, and Andreu (2009)	Ramkissoon et al. (2011a)
	Hallmann et al. (2015)	Ruzzier (2010)
	Hasan Md et al. (2019a)	Sanz-Blas et al. (2017)
	Hasan Md et al. (2019b)	Sanz-Blas et al. (2019)
	Mohd Isa and Ramli (2014)	Sarli and Baharun (2013)
	Jalilvand (2017)	Song et al. (2013)
	Reza Jalilvand et al. (2012)	Suhartanto et al. (2016)
	Jin et al. (2013)	Toudert and Bringas-Rábago (2016)
	Kaplanidou and Vogt (2007)	Byon, Tsiotsou, and Zhang (2010)
	Kaplanidou et al. (2012)	Wongsawat and Deebhijarn (2019)
	Kim (2018)	Wu (2016)
	Kim et al. (2018)	Yue-qian and Gong-min (2008)
	Kim et al. (2016)	Zhang et al. (2016)
	Lban et al. (2015)	
Destination image	Alamgir and Nedelea (2016)	Lban et al. (2015)
on	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Ozturk and Qu (2008)
perceived value	Chen and Tsai (2007)	Palau-Saumell et al. (2016)
	Cheng and Lu (2013)	Phillips et al. (2013)
	Heydari Fard et al. (2019)	Sun et al. (2013)
	Jin et al. (2013)	Wang et al. (2009)
	Kim et al. (2013)	Yap et al. (2018)

Destination image	Alcañiz et al. (2005)	Liu et al. (2017)
on	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Lu and Cai (2011)
satisfaction	Assaker and Hallak (2013)	Mashwama, Chiliya, and Chuchu (2019)
	Assaker et al. (2011)	Mohamad et al. (2014)
	Assaker et al. (2015)	Palau-Saumell et al. (2016)
	Bhat Suhail and Darzi Mushtaq (2018)	Park and Nicolau (2019)
	Bui and Le (2016)	Park and Njite (2010)
	Castro et al. (2007)	Permana (2018)
	Chen and Phou (2013)	Prayag (2008)
	Chen and Tsai (2007)	Prayag (2009)
	Chi (2011)	Prayag and Ryan (2012)
	Chi (2012)	Rey-Moreno et al. (2014)
	Chi and Qu (2008)	Sampaio (2012)
	Eid et al. (2019)	Sanz-Blas et al. (2017)
	Fayed et al. (2016)	Sanz-Blas et al. (2019)
	Enrique Bigné, Gnoth, Sánchez, and Andreu (2009)	Sarli and Baharun (2013)
	Hasan Md et al. (2019a)	Song et al. (2013)
	Kaplanidou and Vogt (2007)	Su et al. (2017)
	Khan et al. (2013)	Suhartanto et al. (2016)
	Kim (2018)	Sun et al. (2013)
	Kim et al. (2013)	Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013)

	Kim et al. (2015)	Toudert and Bringas-Rábago (2016)
	Kim et al. (2019b)	Wang et al. (2009)
	Lee (2009a)	Wongsawat and Deebhijarn (2019)
	Lee (2009b)	Wu (2016)
	Lee et al. (2019a)	Yap et al. (2018)
	Li and Yang (2015)	Yue-qian and Gong-min (2008)
	Liu et al. (2016)	
Destination image	Alcañiz et al. (2005)	Lee et al. (2019a)
on	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Rey-Moreno et al. (2014)
perceived quality	Castro et al. (2007)	Ruzzier (2010)
	Chen and Tsai (2007)	Stylidis et al. (2017a)
	Kim et al. (2013)	Wang et al. (2009)
	Lee et al. (2005)	
Experience	Almeida-Santana and Moreno-Gil (2018)	Pujiastuti et al. (2017)
on	Zhang et al. (2018a)	Suhartanto et al. (2018)
1 1 1 1 1 1	Musa et al. (2011)	Vamaguahi at al (2015)
behavioural intentions		Tamaguchi et al. (2015)
Experience	Bairrada et al. (2019)	Suhartanto et al. (2018)
Experience on	Bairrada et al. (2019) Beerli and Martín (2004)	Suhartanto et al. (2018) Tasci (2006)
behavioural intentions Experience on destination image	Bairrada et al. (2019) Beerli and Martín (2004) Beerli and Martín (2004)	Yamaguchi et al. (2013)Suhartanto et al. (2018)Tasci (2006)Yamaguchi et al. (2015)
behavioural intentions Experience on destination image	Bairrada et al. (2019) Beerli and Martín (2004) Beerli and Martín (2004) Gibson et al. (2008)	Suhartanto et al. (2013) Tasci (2006) Yamaguchi et al. (2015)
behavioural intentions Experience	Bairrada et al. (2019)	Suhartanto et al. (2018)

on	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)	Kesić and Pavlic (2011)
destination image	Beerli and Martín (2004)	Prats et al. (2016)
(following variables are	Boo and Busser (2006)	Ruzzier (2010)
also included as	de la Hoz-Correa and Muñoz-Leiva (2019)	Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018)
familiarity: advertising,	Hung et al. (2012)	Sun et al. (2013)
Information sources,	Mohd Isa and Ramli (2014)	Wang et al. (2016b)
mass media, eWoM,	Ishida et al. (2016)	Yang et al. (2009)
WoM)	Jalilvand (2017)	Yeung et al. (2016)
	Reza Jalilvand et al. (2012)	
Familiarity	Almeida-Santana and Moreno-Gil (2018)	Jalilvand (2017)
on	Chang et al. (2015)	Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011)
behavioural intentions	de la Hoz-Correa and Muñoz-Leiva (2019)	Yang et al. (2009)
Motivations	Almeida-Santana and Moreno-Gil (2018)	Mohd Isa and Ramli (2014)
on	Chang et al. (2015)	Li et al. (2010)
behavioural intentions	do Valle, Correia, and Rebelo (2008)	Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011)
	Fayed et al. (2016)	Rice and Khanin (2019)
Motivations	Baloglu (2000)	Khan et al. (2017)
on	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)	Li et al. (2010)
destination image	Beerli and Martín (2004)	Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010)
	Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana Josefa (2017)	Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018)
	Hung et al. (2012)	Wang et al. (2016b)

	Kesić and Pavlic (2011)	
Motivations	Fayed et al. (2016)	Lee (2009a)
on	Khan et al. (2013)	Tang (2014)
satisfaction	Kim et al. (2015)	
Overall image	Almeida-Santana and Moreno-Gil (2018)	Prayag (2009)
on	Baloglu et al. (2014)	Qu et al. (2011)
behavioural intentions	de la Hoz-Correa and Muñoz-Leiva (2019)	Rodríguez Molina et al. (2013)
	Kock et al. (2016)	Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018)
	Lin et al. (2007)	Stylidis et al. (2017a)
	Maghsoodi Tilaki et al. (2016)	Stylidis et al. (2017b)
	Papadimitriou et al. (2015)	Wang and Hsu (2010)
	Prayag (2008)	Zhang et al. (2014)
Overall image	Bairrada et al. (2019)	Prayag (2009)
on	Maghsoodi Tilaki et al. (2016)	Stylidis et al. (2017a)
satisfaction	Martín-Santana et al. (2017)	Wang and Hsu (2010)
	Prayag (2008)	
Perceived quality	Alcañiz et al. (2005)	Lee et al. (2005)
on	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Lee et al. (2019a)
behavioural intentions	Castro et al. (2007)	Moon et al. (2013)
	Chen and Tsai (2007)	Rey-Moreno et al. (2014)
	Jin et al. (2013)	Ruzzier (2010)

(Studies on service	Kim et al. (2013)	Stylidis et al. (2017a)
quality and trip quality		
are also included)		
Perceived quality	Abdalla et al. (2014)	Kim et al. (2018)
on	Alamgir and Nedelea (2016)	Moon and Han (2019)
perceived value	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Moon et al. (2013)
	Chen and Tsai (2007)	Rey-Moreno et al. (2014)
	Jin et al. (2013)	Wang et al. (2009)
Perceived quality	Abdalla et al. (2014)	Kim et al. (2013)
on	Alcañiz et al. (2005)	Kim et al. (2015)
satisfaction	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Lee et al. (2005)
	Castro et al. (2007)	Stylidis et al. (2017a)
	Chen and Tsai (2007)	Su et al. (2017)
	Hasan Md et al. (2019b)	Wang et al. (2009)
	Khan et al. (2013)	
Perceived value	Abdalla et al. (2014)	Kim et al. (2018)
on	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Lban et al. (2015)
behavioural intentions	Chen and Tsai (2007)	Moon et al. (2013)
	Cheng and Lu (2013)	Palau-Saumell et al. (2016)
	Bigné et al. (2009)	Song et al. (2013)
	Jin et al. (2013)	Sun et al. (2013)

	Kim et al. (2013)	
	Kim et al. (2015)	
Perceived value	Abdalla et al. (2014)	Moon and Han (2019)
on	Alamgir and Nedelea (2016)	Palau-Saumell et al. (2016)
satisfaction	Al-Ansi and Han (2019)	Permana (2018)
	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Phillips et al. (2013)
	Chen and Tsai (2007)	Rey-Moreno et al. (2014)
	Bigné et al. (2009)	Song et al. (2013)
	Guzman-Parra et al. (2016)	Sun et al. (2013)
	Hasan Md et al. (2019b)	Wang et al. (2009)
	Heydari Fard et al. (2019)	Yap et al. (2018)
	Kim et al. (2013)	
Satisfaction	Abdalla et al. (2014)	Maghsoodi Tilaki et al. (2016)
on	Al-Ansi and Han (2019)	Martín-Santana et al. (2017)
behavioural intentions	Alcañiz et al. (2005)	Mohamad et al. (2014)
	Allameh Sayyed et al. (2015)	Moon and Han (2019)
	Assaker and Hallak (2013)	Palau-Saumell et al. (2016)
	Assaker et al. (2015)	Park and Njite (2010)
	Assaker et al. (2011)	Park et al. (2019)
	Bairrada et al. (2019)	Permana (2018)
	Castro et al. (2007)	Phillips et al. (2013)
Chen and Phou (2013)	Prayag (2008)	
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Chen and Tsai (2007)	Prayag (2009)	
Chi (2011)	Prayag and Ryan (2012)	
Chi (2012)	Rey-Moreno et al. (2014)	
Chi and Qu (2008)	Rodríguez Molina et al. (2013)	
Çoban (2012)	Sanz-Blas et al. (2017)	
Eid et al. (2019)	Sanz-Blas et al. (2019)	
Fayed et al. (2016)	Sarli and Baharun (2013)	
Enrique Bigné et al. (2009)	Song et al. (2013)	
Guzman-Parra et al. (2016)	Stylidis et al. (2017a)	
Hasan Md et al. (2019a)	Su et al. (2017)	
Hasan Md et al. (2019b)	Suhartanto et al. (2016)	
Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006)	Suhartanto et al. (2018)	
Heydari Fard et al. (2019)	Sun et al. (2013)	
Kim (2018)	Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013)	
Kim et al. (2013)	Toudert and Bringas-Rábago (2016)	
Lee (2009a)	Wang and Hsu (2010)	
Lee (2009b)	Wongsawat and Deebhijarn (2019)	
Lee et al. (2005)	Wu (2016)	
Lee et al. (2019a)	Yap et al. (2018)	
Liu et al. (2016)	Yue-qian and Gong-min (2008)	

	Liu et al. (2017)	
	Lu and Cai (2011)	
Socio-demographics	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)	Kaplanidou (2006)
on	Beerli and Martín (2004)	Kesić and Pavlic (2011)
destination image	Chang et al. (2015)	Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010)
	Gibson et al. (2008)	Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018)

Although the concepts in destination image have their broadly accepted denominations, it appears that some studies have chosen to use different wordings to express these concepts. For example, the destination image is referred as customer experience (Pujiastuti et al., 2017), destination experience (Choi & Cai, 2016), visit experience (Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2016), or destination imagery (Ramkissoon & Uysal, 2011); the affective image is stated as an emotional image (Çoban, 2012) and affection (Abdalla et al., 2014); the cognitive image appears as a functional image (Kim & Malek, 2017). Similarly, while the majority of studies have used behavioural intentions and tourist loyalty towards the concept operationalized through the visit, revisit, and recommend intentions, some studies opted for the terms attitudinal loyalty (Hernández-Lobato et al., 2006), conative image, and future behavioural intentions (Jin et al., 2013). In Table 4 the terminological differences have been ignored, provided that they have measured the same concept.

Also, some studies have measured the image gap on outcome variables. Here, as well, they have been treated the same as the studies that measured the impact of image on outcome variables. To illustrate, if the study measured the cognitive image gap on the affective image gap (Beerli-Palacio & Martín-Santana, 2019; Martín-Santana et al., 2017) it has been included in the group under 'cognitive image on affective image'.

The main finding is that these studies confirmed that in accordance with attitude theory, image is empirically studied in terms of cognitive and affective components, while overall image either appears alongside these constructs or as a single measure of the destination image. Next, the literature review revealed destination image, perceived quality, perceived value, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions as the most frequently examined variables in destination image research. Further, in post-visit tourist behaviour studies, destination image appears as the predictor variable, while the other four are outcome variables.

However, the literature review shows that the concept of quality in destination image studies is vague. One of the reasons is that quality and satisfaction have not successfully been distinguished, which allows confusion between these concepts in the marketing literature (Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001). Žabkar, Brenčič, and Dmitrović (2010) stated that 'the difficulty in clearly separating the constructs of customer satisfaction and service quality stems from the high correlation between the two constructs typically observed in empirical studies across various industries' (p. 537), continuing that it is even problematic in tourism because both satisfaction and destination quality are often evaluated through the

characteristics of the tourist offerings. Similarly, Ladeira et al. (2016) identified that the concept of quality is often confused with the concept of satisfaction. Furthermore, as per the authors, some studies position quality as a consequence of satisfaction, while others do the opposite by positioning quality as an antecedent of satisfaction. Furthermore, its measurement is also problematic (Bigné et al., 2001; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Um, Chon, & Ro, 2006; Žabkar et al., 2010). Some studies measuring service quality, not the experience quality, while others measured service quality as a factor of destination image (Hallmann et al., 2015; Kim, 2018). Also, studies have measured trip or experience quality through the same items as destination image perceptions (e.g., Bigovic & Prašnikar, 2015; Lee, Jeon, & Kim, 2011). Therefore, the operationalization of experience quality is not clear in destination image studies, with some operationalizing service quality, while others made it difficult to distinguish between experience quality and satisfaction, or between experience quality and destination image. The current study is focused on the interrelationships among destination image, perceived value, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions.

2.5 The variables and their relationships

Having established the important variables studied in relation to destination image in the post-visit stage, the next task is to scrutinize the destination image and these constructs closer to understand what they represent and how they are related.

2.5.1 Destination image and its components

The literature review points to the destination image construct as composed of cognitive, affective, and overall images. Attitude theory was identified as the best theoretical ground to suit the purpose of establishing the operationalization of destination image. According to Kock et al. (2016), the notion in the attitude theory, which affirms the linkage between mental states and behavioural intentions, makes the attitude theory the most suitable to examine tourist behaviour. In agreement, Jiang et al. (2016) and Zhang et al. (2018b) stated attitude theory as the basis of destination image structure. Also, as Ceylan and Çizel (2018) identified, destination image studies widely follow attitude based research methods of social psychology, though some excluding one or two of its dimensions, to set the structure of destination image.

Well-known for their theory of reasoned action, Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) defined attitude as a degree of favourableness or unfavourableness of an individual towards an object under question. Otherwise said, it is a psychological tendency, preference, and inclination to an object or an action, among other available alternatives (Anilkumar & Joseph, 2012). Attitude theory puts forward the notion that both cognition and affect jointly form an attitude towards an object (Taut & Baban, 2012). As such, with the influence of attitude, an individual is predisposed to a certain act (Reza Jalilvand et al., 2012).

A review of the destination image attitudinal components presents a plethora of approaches (González-Rodríguez et al., 2016, p. 2612), generally: cognitive, cognitive-affective, and cognitive-affective-conative. Among them, cognitive-affective is the mainly applied approach. After further scrutinizing the literature to better understand the concept behind each one, the current study also chose to follow the cognitive-affective approach. Although the cognitive-affective-conative approach might sound as more comprehensive, the literature shows certain drawbacks in the use of 'conative image'.

Lately, following this latter approach, some destination image studies have theorized the concept of destination image as a product of hierarchically related cognitive, affective, and conative (destination) image components. According to Rosenberg and Hovland (1960, cited in Kroesen, Handy, & Chorus, 2017), attitudes are multidimensional with its three attitude-relevant responses, which can be categorized into cognitive, affective, and conative responses (Ajzen, 1993). Also, findings by King et al. (2015) confirmed that partitioning destination image into cognitive, affective, and conative components 'affords the diagnostic capacity to examine modifications to the destination image structure' (p. 19). However, what is meant by the conative image and how it is constructed is quite unclear.

Reza Jalilvand et al. (2012) explained that cognition is based on the tourist's evaluation to form an attitude, and affect expressing preference as a result of psychological response, while by verbally indicating their intention towards the destination makes up the behavioural component. So, it leads to the conclusion that by conceptualizing destination image, these studies equalize the concept of the conative image to tourists' behavioural intentions. The discussion by Tasci (2009) shows that it is not a recent approach, with Gartner in 1994 proposing the conative component equal to behaviour, in line with cognitive and affective destination image components. Gartner (1994) also visualised conative image as an action component which is analogous to behaviour. The terminology continues to be depicted in

some recent studies and is operationalized the same as behavioural intentions. Zhang et al. (2018b) explained it as the decisions and actions made by tourists during their travels. Correspondingly, Kim, Lee, Shin, and Yang (2017) counted the intention to visit the destination and positive word of mouth as an example of the conative component of the destination image. Again, Ceylan and Çizel (2018) measured the conative image through recommend and revisit intentions. As per Chen, Lai, Petrick, and Lin (2016), as well, conation is the act that is led by the individual's thoughts and feelings. Further, King et al. (2015) conceptualized destination image through cognitive, affective, and conative dimensions. Also, in the study by Agapito et al. (2013), conative image is conceptualized as intentions to revisit, recommend, and positive word of mouth. So, the conative image is operationalized through behavioural intentions and is an antecedent of cognitive and affective images.

Depicting conative image identical to behavioural intentions is observable in its definitions as well. According to Becken, Jin, Zhang, and Gao (2017), it is a process 'that integrates cognitive and affective aspects of the mind to turn thoughts and feelings into behaviours' (p. 132). As per White (2005), 'the conative component is the likelihood or tendency that one will behave in a particular way toward the object' (p. 517), and 'conative images are strong or weak intentions formed from place images' (Noh & Vogt, 2013, p. 457). In other words, the conative image component 'represents the 'decision stage' of destination image formation' (Iordanova & Stylidis, 2019, p. 985). Some other definitions also bear similar characteristics. In the study by Gartner (1994) and Pike and Ryan (2004), the conative component is recognized as travellers' acts towards the destination influenced by cognitive and affective image perceptions make up the conative dimension of destination image (Hallmann et al., 2015; Kim, 2018; Noh & Vogt, 2013; Prayag, 2009).

However, not all scholars approach to the conative image as synonymous to behavioural intentions, but present a different view to conative image. Stylos et al. (2016) noted that although the conative image has been seen synonymous to intentions, there is also evidence that they are distinct constructs. As per the authors, conative image is an 'idealized and desired future situation' (p.42) that an individual strives towards. This meaning of the concept is also evident in the measure that the authors developed (e.g., X as a tourism destination was always a dream destination to visit, expresses as a suitable vacation choice,

helps me put in use knowledge that I have..., etc.). On the other hand, Prayag (2012) explained that tourist loyalty is divided into two components in the tourism and marketing literature, first being conative or behavioural loyalty associated with repeat purchase, and the second is affective or attitudinal loyalty represented by positive attitudes. As seen, there are varied and unmatching views on how the concept of conative image is interpreted.

Given the above, the concept of conative image in destination image studies increases vagueness in the operationalization of destination image and behavioural intentions. Firstly, some studies have conceptualized it as synonymous with behavioural intentions. Next, other studies have argued it as a desired future state. Another view is that it represents repeat purchase, but not a positive attitude. The fact that the studies operationalize conative image through behavioural intentions shows that it is rather synonymous to behavioural intentions, rather than being part of the destination image. So, in fact, the conative image is not an evaluation of destination image; instead, it represents a tourist's behaviour. Taking the uncertainty in its conceptualization and the fact that few empirical studies have included in their operationalization of destination image.

2.5.1.1 Cognitive image

Traditionally, an individual is a rational being, in other words, a cognitive information processor who processes external information to form beliefs and knowledge (Heider 1958, cited in del Bosque & Martín, 2008). Based on this belief, destination image research has evolved from a focus on the cognitive aspects of the destination image formation. Therefore, and for its ability to specify characteristics of a destination cognitive attributes were in the centre of research focus (Kim, 2018). Even up to date, cognitive image is the most generic construct of destination image models (Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015).

Mostly repeated definition of the cognitive image depicts it as a set of beliefs and knowledge about a destination (Becken et al., 2017; Hallmann et al., 2015; Kim, 2018; Noh & Vogt, 2013; San Martín & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2008; Stylidis et al., 2017b; Stylos, Bellou, Andronikidis, & Vassiliadis, 2017). Therefore, in this study cognitive image is *the beliefs and knowledge about the destination*.

This means knowledge and beliefs that an individual has about a destination's attributes establish perceptions of a cognitive component of the destination image. Other definitions

that use different terms also lead to this same conclusion. For example, Scott 1965, cited in Gartner (1994) identified the cognitive image component as an evaluation or intellectual understanding of the product's attributes that are familiar to the individual. Also, Lban et al. (2015) explained that cognitive image is an individual's evaluation of the destination's attributes to the best of their knowledge. Similarly, according to Line, Hanks, and Miao (2017), the cognitive image of a place is an individual's perception of 'what is here' (p.298). Another definition by Stylidis et al. (2017b) explains that the cognitive component 'includes a set of attributes that mainly correspond to the resources of a tourist destination' (p. 185). As such, two main characteristics of the cognitive image can be concluded: it represents tangible attributes of a destination, and its evaluation is subjective.

2.5.1.2 Affective image

Generally, the predominance of cognitive image studies can be observed until the late 1990s when the affective image emerged as another determinant of destination image (Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009). While some authors still measure the cognitive component as the only valid image component, since then, recognizing both cognitive and affective components has gained wide application.

As Yan et al. (2018) stated, emotions play a crucial role in our everyday life since they are part of attitude. Despite this, feelings of tourists about the place have often been omitted by the research, with only a few studies, including in their operationalization of destination image (Pezenka, 2016; Pike, 2002). However, the pivotal role of attitude theory did not remain unnoticed, with expanding interest in the destination image in tourist behaviour, practicing both cognitive and affective images in their measurements is becoming a standard, which is especially evident in recent studies (e.g., Becken et al., 2017; Fu, Ye, & Xiang, 2016). These studies agree that an individual's feelings towards a destination constitute an affective component of the destination (e.g., Becken et al., 2017; Chen & Uysal, 2002; Hallmann et al., 2015; Kim, 2018; Noh & Vogt, 2013; Stylidis et al., 2017b; Stylos et al., 2017). Therefore, in this study, the affective image is *the feelings of a tourist towards a destination*.

Indeed, Becken et al. (2017) claimed each component's unique input to the formation of the destination image is legitimate, since there is empirical evidence to confirm the significant contribution of the affective image in line with cognitive one, and studies continue making a call to adopt this relatively exhaustive approach. Several scholars (e.g., Kock et al., 2016;

Papadimitriou et al., 2015) have stated the significance of affective image necessitates a closer investigation of the emotional components separate from the cognitive component. Son and Pearce (2005) discussed the notion that awareness of the positive attributes leads to favorable attitudes is not able to define a tourist's destination image, because in the existence of positive attributes, an individual can still have negative feelings towards a destination and that a belief of one individual might not be necessarily the same with the one by another individual. They suggest building a strong image through affective component as a capacity for a successful strategy. Furthermore, affective image, compared to cognitive image, is believed to have a longer life in the memory of a tourist (Hernández-Lobato et al., 2006).

Nawijn and Biran (2019) stated 'affect is not a particular psychological process per se but an umbrella term, referring to a range of more specific mental processes including emotions and moods' and 'emotions are felt, short-lived responses to external stimuli' (p. 2386 – 2387). As per Walls, Okumus, and Wang (2011) affect is understood to be a psychological dimension equal to feelings and emotions. Similarly, Son (2005) stated an affective component represents the general feelings and emotions of an individual towards an object. Another description in regard to tourists says that affective image can represent their mental response to the delivery of the service (Maghsoodi Tilaki et al., 2016). As per Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008), these feelings towards a destination can be 'favourable, unfavourable, or neutral' (p. 549). In terms of the cause of these emotions, San Martín and Rodríguez del Bosque (2008) accentuated that these emptions are those evoked by the destination image. Therefore, an affective image of a destination is the emotional response of an individual towards a destination.

Still, there is another contrast in destination image operationalization; approaches to the concept of destination image through other components, like cognitive and affective image, are also heterogeneous (González-Rodríguez et al., 2016). One of the reasons is the presence of different views regarding image components (Rezende-Parker, Morrison, & Ismail, 2003), and empirical studies differ in how they represent the construct of the destination image. Some authors suggest the cognitive component as the only image structure, while others recognize both cognitive and affective components. Predominance of cognitive image studies can be observed until the late 1990s until the affective image emerged as another determinant of destination image (Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009). Besides, although not directly discussed as part of the attitude construct in destination image studies, operationalizing destination image

as cognitive-overall or overall only image forms are the favoured methods. This is reflected in the review by Cohen et al. (2014), who stated that travel behaviour research relies on the attitude construct, sometimes measuring attitude towards key attributes of an object (e.g., destination attributes forming destination image) and at other times measuring overall attitude (e.g., overall image). So, the operationalization of destination image might take through cognitive, affective, and overall images.

Wang and Hsu (2010) suggested that 'the evaluation of the overall image and its two main components should all be measured in order to understand the positioning of a destination' (p. 831). Reasonably, Kislali et al. (2016) also noted that the term destination image covers cognitive, affective, and global (overall) aspects of destination image, depending on constructs included in a specific study. Still, overall image does not appear in several studies (Agapito et al., 2013; Baloglu, 2000; Baloglu, Pekcan, Chen, & Santos, 2004; Bigovic & Prašnikar, 2015; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; del Bosque & Martín, 2008; Prayag, 2012; San Martín, Herrero, & García de los Salmones, 2019; Sun et al., 2013). On the other hand, Bigné et al. (2001) and Assaker et al. (2011) presented the destination image only from a holistic perspective. The study by Papadimitriou et al. (2015) captured affective image and overall image. Prayag (2009) captured the overall image and cognitive image. Constructing a more complete destination image in terms of the cognitive, affective, and overall image is performed by Molinillo, Liébana-Cabanillas, Anaya-Sánchez, and Buhalis (2018); Stylidis et al. (2017a); Wang and Hsu (2010); Whang et al. (2016). So, the literature exhibits that the discrepancy in empirical studies (on destination image operationalization) is ongoing.

Three main points arise from this discussion. Firstly, attitude is either a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of an object based on cognitive responses in the form of beliefs and affective responses in the form of feelings. Secondly, although some authors include conation as part of attitude, its mainly adopted definition indicates conation as the intentions followed by and based on attitudes. Thirdly, there is an overall attitude, sometimes captured as the outcome of cognitive and affective components. Therefore, to take a comparatively comprehensive approach, based on these points, current study follows the assumption that *cognitive, affective and overall responses represent destination image.*

2.5.1.3 Overall image

As discussed, travel behaviour research relies on the attitude construct, sometimes measuring attitude towards key attributes of an object (e.g., destination attributes forming destination

image), but at other times it measures overall attitude (e.g., overall image) (Cohen et al., 2014). This is reflected in existing definitions of destination image with some scholars defining the construct as a set of few associations with the destination, and others defining it as an overall evaluation of a destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Gallarza et al., 2002; Li et al., 2015; Nghiêm-Phú, 2014; Rodrigues et al., 2012; Su et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2014). Therefore, the overall image is the *holistic impression of the destination*.

Empirically, Baloglu and McCleary (1999) introduced holistic impressions as part of destination image in line with its cognitive and affective components. Similarly, Echtner and Ritchie (2003) proposed that to achieve a more complete measure of destination image, a mix of attribute-based and holistic impressions of a destination should be examined. Besides, some studies have hypothesized the impact of only overall image on outcome variables, despite measuring affective and cognitive components (Stylidis et al., 2017a). Since then, this approach has been adopted by many studies, which presented overall destination image in line with cognitive and affective image components (Almeida-Santana & Moreno-Gil, 2018; Alvarez & Campo, 2011; Assaker, 2014; Assaker et al., 2011; Atadil et al., 2017; Bairrada et al., 2019; Baloglu et al., 2014; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Bhat Suhail & Darzi Mushtaq, 2018; Chen et al., 2013a; Choi et al., 2011; Hallmann et al., 2015; Hung et al., 2012; Kassianidis, 2013; Kim et al., 2019b; Kim & Morrsion, 2005; Kock et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2007; Maghsoodi Tilaki et al., 2016; Martín-Santana et al., 2017; Nghiêm-Phú, 2014; Papadimitriou et al., 2015; Papadimitriou et al., 2018; Pratt & Chan, 2016; Qu et al., 2011; Sahin & Baloglu, 2011; Santana & Sevilha Gosling, 2018; Stylidis et al., 2017a; Teviana et al., 2017; Whang et al., 2016; Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015). Indeed, based on a meta-analysis of studies from 2008 – 2012, Nghiêm-Phú (2014) identified the structure of destination image as composed of the affective, cognitive, and overall image. This approach follows the belief that the intangible and experiential nature of tourism activities causes the choice of a destination considering both holistic and psychological factors, and thus the attribute-based measurement to examine image perceptions becomes insufficient (Choi et al., 1999).

It should be accentuated that the overall destination image is not purely the sum of the cognitive and affective evaluations. It is more than that since studies suggest the importance of overall image by claiming that it covers much more than the sum of its attributes (Kim et al., 2019b; Qu et al., 2011). A common agreement is that overall image consists of cognitive

and affective evaluations and that overall image is 'a holistic perception that is greater than the sum of the parts' (Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009, p. 715), or 'greater than the sum of its attributes' (Stylos et al., 2016, p. 43). Josiassen et al. (2016b) took a different stance in explaining the image concept. They suggest differences between imagery and image concepts and emphasise that associations with the destination represent destination imagery. In contrast, an overall image that individuals hold is referred to as a destination image, which is a shortcut to efficient and quick decision making. Therefore, it can be concluded that *cognitive, affective, and overall images interact with each other and altogether produce destination images more exhaustively*.

2.5.2 Relationships among cognitive and affective image

Interestingly, like the approaches towards the components that destination image integrates, there are differences in how studies conceptualize their hierarchical linkages. Traditionally, cognition is accepted as an antecedent of affect. For example, as per the influential expectancy-value model of attitudes by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) affect is the response to attribute beliefs. Also, grounded in appraisal theories, an individual's affective response to a psychological object is argued to be based on their cognitive understanding of the object (Kock et al., 2016). Otherwise said, as per the cognition-affect approach, 'people first recognize what is happening around them, then feel according to their perception' (Lee et al., 2005, p. 843). del Bosque and Martín (2008) as well explained the notion that emotions are evoked as a result of cognitive interpretations is based on the Theories of Appraisal, since the theory 'explains the elicitation of emotion as the consequence of a tourist evaluating an experience' (Choi & Choi, 2018, p. 734). Hence, tourists tend to interpret and emotionally respond differently to the same stimulus.

Empirically, affection has been proven as a function of cognition in the 1900's studies by authors such as Lynch (1960), Burgess (1978), Mayo, and Jarvis (1981) (cited in Baloglu, 2000). Truly, from a theoretical point of view, literature has established affect is the evaluative response to cognition (knowledge about the object), and empirical studies of image formation concentrate on the interaction between cognition and affect and reveal predominance of the cognitive view of information processing (Hernández-Lobato et al., 2006).

In destination image research, one of the first empirical evidence for the interrelationship between cognitive and affective components is tested by Baloglu and McCleary (1999). As per their findings, cognition is the first step causing affective attributes to take place. Their finding is supported by a number of other studies (Baloglu, 2000; Becken et al., 2017; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Chiu et al., 2016; Fu et al., 2016; Kesić & Pavlic, 2011; Lee et al., 2005; Phillips & Jang, 2008; San Martín & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2008; Stylidis et al., 2017a; Tan & Wu, 2016; Wang & Hsu, 2010). Especially, Papadimitriou et al. (2018), by exploring differences of cognitive, affective, and overall image perceptions among residents, past tourists, and prospective tourists, confirmed that in the case of all three groups, cognitive image influenced affective image. Moreover, Baloglu and McCleary (1999) noted the notion that affective evaluation is developed with the influence of cognitive assessment is a common agreement in other disciplines as well.

On the other hand, Lee et al. (2005) stated there are two schools of thought regarding the hierarchy of relationship between cognition and affect: one in favour of the cognition-affect approach and the other in favour of affect-cognition. In the affect-cognition approach, affect can be generated by biological or sensory events without cognitive process causing feelings and then making the individual think about what made them feel that way. Likewise, Stylidis et al. (2017b) wrote that 'in line with a stream of researchers, the first level of response to a place is affective and this governs subsequent actions toward that place' (p. 185), and that the environmental psychology studies have empirically confirmed that higher levels of affection cause more positive evaluations of the cognitive attributes.

Kim and Chen (2016) suggested that cognitive and affective components are simultaneous, while Zajonc (1980) argued that affect might either be the initial step without the influence of cognition, or even be the only component of attitude, and thus independent from cognition.

These heterogenous views might be because some attitudes are uniquely cognition-based (e.g., exam preparation), while others are affect-based (e.g., blood donation) (Lee & King, 2015). Another way to look at it is through the strategies that identify the sequence of the process, depending on the level of involvement in the purchase. Proposed by Vaughn (1986), these four strategies are (1) informative, (2) affective, (3) habitual, and (4) satisfaction. The first instance follows the sequence of cognition-affect-conation and is related to products that require high-involvement, such as insurance. In the second instance, the initial stage is affective because the consumer first feels and then learns, and this concerns the products like

cosmetics and fashion clothing, which are about satisfying self-esteem needs. The habitual strategy applies to products purchased routinely, such as cleaning appliances, when consumers learn about the product after purchasing them. The last strategy works best for low-involvement products that serve for little pleasure purposes, such as greeting cards. Following the theoretical logic and comparatively stronger empirical evidence, the current study proposes the hypotheses:

H1a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit affective image H1b: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit affective image

2.5.3 Hierarchical relationships of the cognitive, affective and overall image

Baloglu and McCleary (1999), among the first, proposed that the overall image is formed as an interaction of cognitive and affective components. In agreement, Frías et al. (2008) explained that the overall image is a positive or negative evaluation of the object and is produced as the consideration of cognitive and affective evaluations. Giraldi and Cesareo (2014) suggests that cognitive image consists of knowledge and beliefs, and affective image is composed of feelings about the destination. They are both influencers of the overall image. In other words, the overall image is the assessment of those elements.

Table 4 shows that 26 studies have examined the cognitive-overall image effect, while 21 studies measured the affective-overall image effect. Some studies have tested both effects simultaneously. Stylidis et al. (2017b) reported the path between affective and overall image and the cognitive and overall image revealed a statistically significant positive effect. Similarly, Molinillo et al. (2018), Whang et al. (2016), Wang and Hsu (2010), and Qu et al. (2011) found that cognitive and affective images lead to the overall image. The interrelationship of image components has also been explained through creating an interactive system pictorial demonstration by (Tasci et al., 2007). They located cognitive and affective components at the centre of the interactive system, and as the interaction of these two components, they depicted the holistic/overall image which, as they stated, is used to simplify the decision-making task.

Regarding their relevant impact on the overall image, studies seem to advocate the influence of emotions as higher than the cognition. In findings by Baloglu and McCleary (1999)

affective image appears as a highly influential attribute on the overall image. Their path analysis illustrates the role of the affective component on the formation of the overall image since its impact even surpasses the influence developed by cognitive and affective evaluations together. Kim and Yoon (2003), in their model of hierarchical effects of image components, found the impact of the affective image has more impact on building destination image than has the cognitive image. Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018), in the target population of tourists to Brazil using the online data collection method, showed that affective image had a greater impact on overall image than the impact of the cognitive image. In the study by Stylidis et al. (2017b) as well, affective image is proposed to account for more effect on overall image compared to the cognitive image.

On the other hand, although smaller in number, there are still studies that confirmed cognitive image as the most influential factor in overall image formation (e.g., Becken et al., 2017; Hallmann et al., 2015; Qu et al., 2011). Stylidis et al. (2017b) explained that the findings in favour of a greater effect of affect might be associated with the context of the study. For example, while the cognitive image is the major determinant for natural destinations, for developed destinations, it is the affective image that appears to have the most impact on the overall image. This reasoning might be sound because the application of their model to the residents' perceptions identified the equal effect of both cognitive and affective images on the overall image. Another concern is the methodology (the survey instrument) that the studies have undertaken since some studies were tested among tourists with direct experiences, while others were conducted among potential visitors. Also, a closer look at some studies' methodologies shows the sample population included both locals and foreigners and data collection was a mix of face-to-face and online surveys. Another explanation is that some environmental psychology studies have proposed that affect may become the dominant component after experiencing an actual visit to the destination (Baloglu, 1998).

As seen, though there are discrepancies in their relative effect on the overall image, the impact of both cognitive and affective components on the overall image is well-established. Hence, both the cognitive and affective images both have a direct impact on the overall image. As such, the next hypotheses are:

H2a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image
H2b: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit overall image
H3a: Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image

2.5.4 Perceived value

The importance of perceived value has begun to receive scholarly attention because pure concentration on satisfaction and ignoring perceived value does not provide sufficient 'customer's voice' (Petrick et al., 2001, p. 42) for the practitioners to set up their strategies. As per Pandža Bajs (2015), the concept of perceived value has been capturing scholars' attention for the last twenty years, and Eggert and Ulaga (2002) stated that perceived value captured scholars' attention in the 1990s and that the exchange theory has been applied as a basis of examining the concept. The point that this theory puts forth is a market exchange where buyers and sellers are willingly involved in market transactions, which make both parties better off after the exchange compared to before the exchange. As discussed by Gallarza and Gil Saura (2006), perceived value has been proven as a key for competitive advantage, though it is a relatively new construct to gain interest compared to service quality and satisfaction in the tourism marketing research area. Similarly, Patterson Paul and Spreng Richard (1997) noted studies of satisfaction as a well-investigated topic, while there was only little empirical research on value. The study by Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007) is valuable in gaining a deeper insight into the perceived value concept with its comprehensive and systematic review of discussions and comparisons of the research on this concept. The study informs that perceived value was included in the list of research priorities for 2006 – 2008 by the Marketing Science Institute, which is an indication of the immense role of this concept in consumer behaviour.

Gallarza and Gil Saura (2006) explained that perceived value and consumer value are used interchangeably and that consumer value has evolved as a function of two dimensions of consumer behaviour: the economic and the psychological, and has been applied to explain consumer behaviour, such as product choice and purchase/repurchase intentions. Patterson Paul and Spreng Richard (1997) explained value as a concept with different meanings among industries. In economics, it is utility and desirability; in industrial settings, it is maintaining standards with reduced costs, while in marketing, the concept is defined from consumers' perspective. Therefore, tourism research, which is closely related to consumer research in marketing, follows its concepts in investigating tourist behaviour.

According to Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007), the concept of perceived value is sometimes misunderstood because 'value' is poorly differentiated from other concepts, such as 'quality,' 'price' and 'values,' while, especially, the difference between value and values should be familiar. As the authors define 'value is the outcome of evaluative judgment, whereas the term values refer to the standards, rules, criteria, norms, goals, or ideas that serve as the basis for such an evaluative judgment' (p. 429). Confusion also exists in differentiating perceived value from satisfaction, although distinct features of each construct that have been presented by some scholars. As per Eggert and Ulaga (2002), value is similar to satisfaction with its benefit-sacrifice discrepancy evaluation. However, Sweeney and Soutar (2001) explained that perceived value could occur pre-, during- and post-consumption, or in the absence of actual consumption, while satisfaction is a post-consumption evaluation and is a result of actual purchase.

Eid and El-Gohary (2015) highlighted perceived value as an abstract concept since customers make their judgments of the perceived value of products and services based on their experiences. This is reflected in the definitions of the concept. For example, Wu and Li (2014) cited that generally, it is defined as 'consumer's perception of the subjective worth of some activity or object considering all net benefits and costs of consumption' (p. 6). Eggert and Ulaga (2002) highlighted three common elements of definitions of perceived value: it owns multiple components of value, it is subjective, and it can give a competitive advantage. In most definitions, perceived value is generally represented from a holistic perspective, stating it is an overall evaluation of a product, service, or experience (Dlačić, Arslanagić, Kadić-Maglajlić, Marković, & Raspor, 2014). For example, the definition by Pandža Bajs (2015) says the value is 'the sum of the different dimensions of value, which have different effects in different situations' (p. 123). In Hellieret's (2003, cited in Gursoy et al., 2014) definition, perceived value is 'the customer's overall appraisal of the net worth of the service, based on the customer's assessment of what is received (benefits provided by the service), and what is given (costs or sacrifice in acquiring and utilizing the service)' (p. 813). Similarly, Prebensen, Woo, Chen, and Uysal (2012) investigated experience value and defined it as an 'overall provider of value for tourists' (p. 253). Another group of definitions are more simplified and state it as 'benefits received for the price paid' (Chen & Tsai, 2007, p. 1115).

Notably, the most universally accepted definition in tourism and, generally, in consumer behaviour research is the one by Zeithaml (1988) (Gallarza & Gil Saura, 2006), which also bears a holistic approach. According to this definition, perceived value is 'the overall assessment of the utility of a product based on the perceptions of what is received and what is given' (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 14). To have a more in-depth insight into the concept of perceived value, Zeithaml adopted an exploratory study method with focus groups and in-depth interviews with consumers. As a result of respondents' expressions of value, the author categorized meanings of perceived value into four distinct groups (Ye, Li, Wang, & Law, 2014): low price, what consumer wants in a product, quality for the price paid, and what consumer gets for what they pay. Also, Zeithaml's definition includes a measure of value in all stages of consumer behaviour: pre-purchase, during purchase, and post-purchase (Sabiote Ortiz, Frías-Jamilena, & Castañeda García, 2017).

It should be noted that sacrifice elements of perceived value are not purely measured in monetary terms. Besides monetary costs, nonmonetary costs such as time, mental and physical efforts are part of the perceived sacrifices (Pandža Bajs, 2015). More exhaustively, Liu, Zhao, Chau Patrick, and Tang (2015) listed search, learning, emotion, physical efforts, which simultaneously bear financial, psychological, and other risks. In fact, it might be more logical to think about these aspects when it comes to tourists because they are required to sacrifice more than money in the process of travelling. Therefore, in this study's context, perceived value is *the consumer's perceptions of the subjective worth of the visit based on the monetary and non-monetary benefits and costs*.

2.5.4.1 Destination image as an antecedent of perceived value

The role of brand image in the creation of perceived value has been proven in different contexts of consumer behaviour research (Huang & van der Veen, 2019). Tourist behaviour studies as well have found a statistically significant impact of destination image on perceived value. Specifically, in Table 4 fourteen studies have been identified that tested the impact of destination image on perceived value. This might seem relatively small compared to the number of studies that tested destination image impact on satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Nevertheless, these empirical findings allow the conclusion that destination image is an antecedent of perceived value in tourist behaviour.

A closer look at these studies shows that this effect has been tested in different contexts and that studies operationalized perceived value from overall and other aspects. Kim et al. (2013)

specifically concentrated on economic and overall value, while Phillips et al. (2013) confirmed the influence of destination image on overall perceived value in the context of rural tourism. These two studies were conducted in the USA. Similarly, Lban et al. (2015) also focused on total perceived value but tested this relationship based on the survey with domestic festival tourists in Turkey. Furthermore, Wang, Yang, Han, and Shi (2016a), in the context of car tourism, found a significant relationship between perceived value and destination image. Again, Akhoondnejad (2015) showed that the post-visit image directly affected trip value in Iran's cultural tourism. Generally, almost all studies that tested the impact of destination image on the perceived value established this effects as statistically significant (Alamgir & Nedelea, 2016; Cheng & Lu, 2013; Heydari Fard et al., 2019; Jin et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2013; Lban et al., 2015; Palau-Saumell et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016a). Following these studies, the assumption is that the destination image has an impact on perceived value. Hence, the hypotheses are:

H4a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the perceived valueH4b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts the perceived valueH4c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts the perceived value

2.5.5 Tourist satisfaction

Agyeiwaah, Adongo, Dimache, and Wondirad (2016) discussed that no clear consensus over the definition of customer satisfaction exists among researchers, with some scholars conceiving satisfaction as an outcome, with others considering it as a process, while differences also exist in treating it either a cognitive evaluation or an emotional state or a cognitive-affective evaluation. Phillips et al. (2013) also confirmed that though one of the most researched variables in the marketing literature, the definition of satisfaction has not reached unanimous recognition. Therefore, the definitions of satisfaction remain varied (Prayag, 2012).

Taylan Dortyol, Varinli, and Kitapci (2014) explained that the construct of customer satisfaction is a type of customer's attitude, and thus reflects their favourable or unfavourable appraisal of the experienced service. Indeed, the study by Pizam, Neumann, and Reichel (1978) - one of the earliest studies that empirically measures tourist satisfaction, defines it as 'a collection of tourists' attitudes about specific domains in the vacationing experience' (p. 317). Also, theories of expectancy-disconfirmation, equity, perceived performance (Assaker et al., 2011), comparison-level theory (Hapsari, Clemes, & Dean, 2016), assimilation contrast, attribution, generalized negativity, and value percept (Wong & Law, 2003) have served as a basis for most consumer satisfaction studies. The norm theory of satisfaction highlights that consumer's comparison takes place between the purchased product and such other products or alternatives (Assaker & Hallak, 2013). The needs-based definition of satisfaction claims satisfaction is the outcome of matching needs and motives. In contrast to the needs-based approach to satisfaction, the appraisal approach does not consider the role of motivation but sees satisfaction as a comparison between expectations and experiences, which inspired the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm (Albayrak & Caber, 2018).

The disconfirmation paradigm has received the broadest application (Wong & Law, 2003), and is the most frequently cited in the tourism literature (Zehrer, Crotts, & Magnini, 2011). Proposed by Oliver in 1977, the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm evaluates satisfaction as a comparison between expectations (developed about a product or service before purchase) and actual performance (Assaker & Hallak, 2013; De Nisco et al., 2015; Zehrer et al., 2011). It states a consumer is satisfied as a result of positive disconfirmation, that is when the performance exceeds expectations. On the other hand, a consumer is unsatisfied in the case of negative disconfirmation, that is when the performance is worse. As such, customer satisfaction is formed by the comparisons of what was expected and what is received, and thus is subjective (Maghsoodi Tilaki et al., 2016), and is a function of predefined expectations and desires (Patterson Paul & Spreng Richard, 1997).

The initial definition of satisfaction as per the disconfirmation paradigm is based on what the consumers do, not on its psychological meaning. Otherwise said, as discussed by del Bosque and Martín (2008), satisfaction had been treated as purely a cognitive approach, in accordance with the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm (Oliver, 1980). This is true, but until the emergence of the affective approach, that ultimately led to a more consolidated cognitive-affective approach, which states cognitive judgments and emotions as stimulus factors of satisfaction. Thus, Oliver (1999, cited in Hernández-Lobato et al., 2006) later introduced a further definition of satisfaction as 'pleasurable fulfilment' (p.346), meaning it is 'the tourist's sense that consumption provides outcomes against expectations and a standard of pleasure versus displeasure' (p. 346). Also, satisfaction is 'the degree to which one believes that experience evokes positive feelings' (Rust and Oliver, 1994, cited in Kim et al., 2016, p. 276). Following several other proposed similar definitions. Liat, Mansori, and Huei

(2014) defined it as 'the feeling of pleasure that a customer experiences after receiving services that meet or exceed the expectations of the customers', p. 317). Indeed, the nature of satisfaction makes the concept complex; it is a cause of affective state as a result of the cognitive process (Eggert & Ulaga, 2002).

Despite being popular, certain drawbacks of the disconfirmation paradigm have been pointed out. For instance, as per the paradigm, a decrease in expectations lead to an increase in satisfaction, which might mean satisfaction could be achieved with poor experience based on poor expectations, which is against the reality (Assaker et al., 2011; Petrick et al., 2001). Another proposed limitation is the intangibility of tourism services and products, which makes realistic expectations difficult (Assaker et al., 2011). In regard to these criticisms, a global measure of tourist satisfaction has been suggested as a better measure.

Afterward, consumer satisfaction has been distinguished as overall satisfaction and satisfaction with individual attributes. Overall satisfaction is a holistic evaluation, which is not the sum of individual attributes (Bigné et al., 2001), and attribute satisfaction significantly and directly effects overall satisfaction (Oliver, 1993). However, satisfaction with a specific attribute does not guarantee overall satisfaction (De Nisco et al., 2015). Therefore, overall satisfaction is a way to have an insight into a broader picture than the sum of attributes, as a single unpleasant incident could force dissatisfaction, depending on its importance to the individual (Ryan, 1999, cited in Bigné et al., 2001). Huang and Hsu (2009) accentuated that 'global satisfaction over a destination can be a good proxy of the subjective and qualitative evaluation of the past experience in the destination' (p. 31).

Indeed, overall satisfaction is widely adopted by empirical studies of destination image (Akhoondnejad, 2016; Assaker & Hallak, 2013; Baloglu et al., 2004; Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Eusébio & Vieira, 2013; Kim, Kim, & Goh, 2011; Moutinho, Albayrak, & Caber, 2012; Phillips et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2013). Phillips et al. (2013) explained that overall satisfaction is the result of subjective evaluation of all the elements of the tourist's experience. Furthermore, Lee et al. (2005) affirmed that performances of more specific aspects of customers' experiences relate to service quality, but satisfaction refers to a more holistic experience. Aktaş et al. (2010) also expressed it proficiently, saying that 'satisfaction with the total holiday experience is dependent on all the links in the experience chain' (p. 243) many of which 'are not even located within one destination' (p. 244). Another point in preference for overall satisfaction in tourist behaviour is explained by Wu and Li

(2014). The authors examined experiential satisfaction in distinction to service satisfaction. As per the authors, experiential satisfaction is a broader concept relative to service satisfaction since it unites consumers' overall evaluation of their after-consumption experiences. The authors defined experiential satisfaction as a tourist's overall satisfaction with the cultural heritage site visit. Empirically, the research by Chung and Petrick (2013) focused on investigating attributes and overall satisfaction and found that the sum of attribute-based satisfaction is not equal to overall satisfaction. Therefore, they concluded that overall satisfaction represents more than aggregate satisfaction. Therefore, satisfaction in this study can be represented as *the tourist's overall evaluation after experiencing the destination*.

2.5.5.1 Destination image as an antecedent of satisfaction

With its expectation, generating feature image is considered as a driver of satisfaction (del Bosque & Martín, 2008). Nghiêm-Phú (2018), in their meta-analysis, identified that majority of the studies confirmed a positive correlation between destination image and tourist satisfaction. Indeed, a positive relationship between destination image and tourist satisfaction has been repeatedly confirmed in studies with different contexts and varied sample population, such as cultural and medical tourists or international and domestic tourists in the Western and Eastern tourist destinations (Assaker & Hallak, 2013; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Kim, 2018; Mashwama et al., 2019; Prayag, 2008, 2009; Sun et al., 2013; Swart, George, Cassar, & Sneyd, 2018).

Meanwhile, some studies tested the relative impact of destination image components on tourist satisfaction. The findings differ, with some showing a higher impact of the cognitive image, with others confirming affective or overall image as better predictors. In the study by Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006) cognition turned up as the main antecedent of satisfaction, meaning principal antecedents of satisfaction are cognitive attributes. Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013) found several dimensions of destination image, namely the quality of hotels and restaurants, cultural and natural attractions, had a significant effect on overall satisfaction, which again represents the cognitive image. Chiu et al. (2016), in their analysis, revealed cognitive image affected satisfaction at both direct level and indirect levels through affective image. On the other hand, they identified affective image as critical in establishing tourist satisfaction. In the study by Prats et al. (2016) as well, affect had a greater influence on satisfaction than cognition. Moreover, other studies empirically established a relationship between overall image and satisfaction. Bigné et al. (2001); Prayag (2008, 2009); Prayag,

Hosany, Muskat, and Del Chiappa (2017); Stylidis et al. (2017a); Wang and Hsu (2010) are among these studies that confirmed significant impact of overall image. Yet, some studies that have hypothesized the effect of only overall image on satisfaction and have considered neither direct nor mediating effect of the other two image components (Molinillo et al., 2018; Stylidis et al., 2017a; Wang & Hsu, 2010).

On the contrary, there are studies that did not confirm the destination image as an antecedent of satisfaction. For example, the image failed to appear as a direct antecedent of satisfaction in the study by del Bosque and Martín (2008). Also, a study by Kim et al. (2013) found no significant relationship between destination image and overall satisfaction.

Nevertheless, as seen, the positive relationship between destination image and satisfaction is empirically well established, leading to the conclusion that *cognitive, affective, and overall destination image are antecedents of satisfaction*. Therefore, the hypotheses are:

H5a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction
H5b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction
H5c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction

2.5.5.2 Perceived value as an antecedent of satisfaction

In line with destination image, perceived value has its empirical evidence as an antecedent of satisfaction. Um et al. (2006) found perceived value for money had a significant effect on satisfaction based on the survey collected during a four-year period from pleasure tourists in Hong Kong. They also tested relative weights of evaluative constructs that tourists use to determine their revisit intentions and identified perceived value as a significant determinant of satisfaction. Ye et al. (2014) examined the impact of price – an aspect of perceived value on customers' satisfaction and post-purchase intentions, and found a significant influence of price on both pre- and post-purchase decisions. Notably, Moutinho et al. (2012) showed that satisfied tourists would have positive behavioural intentions if they also have developed positive value perceptions about their travel experience. Furthermore, a significant effect of perceived value on satisfaction was reported in the studies by Akhoondnejad (2016); Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous (2013); Chen and Tsai (2007); Hapsari et al. (2016); Kim et al. (2013); Sun et al. (2013). Therefore, the literature established that *perceived value is an antecedent of tourist satisfaction*. So, the hypothesis is:

2.5.6 Word-of-mouth intentions

On the basis of the literature review, current study focused on word-of-mouth intentions as a representative of tourist behavioural intentions. This subchapter reviews operationalization of tourist loyalty – represented as behavioural intentions in destination image studies and discusses the rationale behind its choice of word-of-mouth intentions as the outcome variable.

2.5.6.1 The concept of tourist loyalty in destination image studies

The study of loyalty grabbed scholarly attention, starting from the 1930s (Almeida-Santana & Moreno-Gil, 2018). In the tourism context, attitudinal loyalty is a common measure of tourist loyalty, and as per Palau-Saumell, Forgas-Coll, Sánchez-García, and Prats-Planagumà (2013), attitudinal loyalty is considered as an adequate measurement for the evaluation of consumers' loyalty. In tourism research, it is represented by behavioural intentions, including intentions to revisit and recommend the destination to others (e.g., Dalimunthe et al., 2019; Iordanova, 2017; Palau-Saumell et al., 2013; Suhartanto et al., 2016; Wu & Li, 2014). Similarly, Phillips et al. (2013) stated it is a common practice to apply revisit intentions and intentions to recommend as a measure of post-trip behavioural intentions. Also, the discussion by Suhartanto et al. (2016) noted whether conceptualized as behavioural or attitudinal loyalty; tourist loyalty has been measured through variables length of stay, number of visits, intentions to re-visit, and to recommend.

As per Wong et al. (2016), intention serves as a mode to predict one's future behaviour and can be defined as a tendency or an expectation to take certain actions or plans in the future. Similarly, Gannon et al. (2017) explained that behavioural intention is about tourists' future behaviour of acting in a specific way, while Li, Lien, Wang, Wang, and Dong (2020) emphasized it as subjectively taking decisions about actions concerning the future.

2.5.6.2 The need to study word-of-mouth intentions as an independent construct

Interestingly, in destination image studies, tourist loyalty (e.g., Moon & Han, 2019; Prayag, 2012; Sun et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014), future behavioural intentions (e.g., Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009; Fayed et al., 2016; Jin et al., 2013; Prayag, 2009) and behavioural intentions (e.g., Liu et al., 2016; Palau-Saumell et al., 2016; Sanz-Blas et al., 2019; Stylidis et al.,

2017a) are applied interchangeably. It can be said so because these studies, despite using different terms, appear operationalizing the construct exactly the same or similarly.

Besides the application of different terms towards tourist loyalty, the studies can also be differentiated according to the methods of measuring these constructs. The most popular measure of the construct is through revisit and recommend intentions, with numerous studies following this approach (e.g., Bairrada et al., 2019; Bui & Le, 2016; Fayed et al., 2016; Gannon et al., 2017; Heydari Fard et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2016; Palau-Saumell et al., 2016; Sanz-Blas et al., 2019; Stylidis et al., 2017a; Wongsawat & Deebhijarn, 2019). Next, also not as frequent, there are studies that concentrated on purely revisit intentions as a proxy to behavioural intentions (e.g., Allameh Sayyed et al., 2015; Hallmann et al., 2015; Hasan Md et al., 2019b; Kim et al., 2015; Park & Nicolau, 2019; Rice & Khanin, 2019; Stylos et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018a). Finally, a less adopted measure of behavioural intentions is WoM only measure.

However, numerous scholars have called to differentiate WOM intentions as an independent construct. For example, Akroush Mamoun et al. (2016) pointed to word-of-mouth as 'one of the most important forms of loyalty' (p. 20). Agapito et al. (2013) referred to intentions to recommend as a better indicator for the assessment of loyalty. Also, Papadimitriou et al. (2015), who identified intent to visit is higher for non-visitors compared to revisit intents of actual tourists, stated word-of-mouth as an outcome variable that is worth investigating separate from revisit intentions. Further, Hanlan and Kelly's (2016) study indicates the immense importance of WOM and its predominance over traditional media as a source of destination image promotion and, in general, as a means of destination image creation. They ascertained the need for marketing entities to understand how the word-of-mouth process works (e.g., what includes its triggers) so that the business can be managed to generate positive WOM. Chi and Qu (2008) also suggested that for potential tourists, recommendations of actual tourists might serve as the most reliable information source. Jalilvand (2017) identified the influence of WOM on destination image and visit intentions was much stronger than that of mass media and emphasized the importance of WOM marketing strategies. Indeed, Kim and Perdue (2011), applying cognitive dissonance theory empirically found that negative WOM can have a significant impact even on satisfied customers because the service industry involves high risk to purchase and therefore consumers tend to rely on WOM. In fact, for the tourism industry influence of word-of-mouth

on image formation and tourist behaviour is far more effective than any other form of means (Jalilvand, 2017).

Considering these points, the WOM and its importance were further examined. It was identified that the interest in WOM only measure of behavioural intentions is growing with some late studies opting for this approach (e.g., Abdalla et al., 2014; Eid et al., 2019; Ozturk & Qu, 2008; Papadimitriou et al., 2018; Rodríguez Molina et al., 2013; Stylidis et al., 2017b).

2.5.6.3 Importance of word-of-mouth

In order to understand the importance of WOM, its meaning and the value it provides is worth reviewing. As per Hamidizadeh, Cheh, Moghadam, and Salimipour (2016) WOM is 'the communication between people who have not to trade identity and they do not follow their own interests' (p. 109). Adopting this definition, in the context of this study, word-of-mouth intentions can be defined as *the willingness to communicate about the destination with no purpose of trade and own interests*.

Munar and Jacobsen (2013) affirmed that the pleasure of travel is partly achieved by sharing the aspects of travel with others. On the other hand, this means that the consumers are also a source of destination image determinants since they are influencing other destination image perceptions. In fact, for the tourism industry influence of word-of-mouth on image formation and tourist behaviour is identified as far more effective than any other form of means (Jalilvand, 2017). Particularly, due to the intangible and experience-based nature of the tourism industry influence of WOM is not surprising, especially today when it has taken a highly prevalent form as electronic word of mouth (González-Rodríguez et al., 2016). This then also leads to the conclusion that WOM can be the most effective marketing tool for the tourism organizations (Phillips et al., 2013), and provide valuable data for them to understand the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of customers (Tseng, Wu, Morrison, Zhang, & Chen, 2015).

Indeed, WOM recommendations are critical in tourism marketing and are acknowledged as the most reliable source by potential tourists. Especially, as Tham, Croy, and Mair (2013) stated, when information and referrals are received from friends and family, it serves as a key aspect of decision making. The study by Ishida et al. (2016), as well illustrated the position friends and relatives maintain with the strongest influence on tourists' destination image.

Even in the case of recommendations from individuals outside family and friends, this variable has been empirically proven as the credible information source in the destination

choice decisions and became more influenced with the technological advances that provided electronic access to these sources in the form of social media (Agapito, Pinto, & Mendes, 2011). Several studies can be cited to prove this claim. One of them is the study by Siriwardana et al. (2019), which identified WOM as the primary source through which potential tourists obtained information about the destination. Also, Abdalla et al. (2014) identified WOM tends to be accepted as more reliable and effective compared to other information sources particularly in the intangible service sector. Camprubí et al. (2013) accentuated the new role of tourists as the most influential image formation agents by outperforming other information agents in credibility and market penetration measures. Nicoletta and Servidio (2012) showed that non-promotional images compared to promotional images evoked more motivational attributes and increased visit intentions. Through the survey of US and Australia tourism product managers, Day et al. (2012) also identified WOM as the most important source in generating destination awareness and also travel intentions. Again, the main reason for its immense impact on destination image and choice decisions is that WOM because it was perceived to be relatively credible compared to induced information sources (González-Rodríguez et al., 2016).

Another reason for the importance of WOM can be explained by the novelty-seeking nature of tourists since novelty seeking has been identified as the core travel motivation (Som & Badarneh, 2011). In general, the literature suggests differentiating loyalty into exclusive and reinforcing types (Jang & Feng, 2007). An exclusive loyalty, over time, consumers tend to go for an alternative, while in reinforcing loyalty, customers have a high tendency to repurchase alternatives. This latter condition is explained variety-seeking nature in consumers, which is extended in the tourism research as novelty seeking, also termed as curiosity drive and sensation-seeking – a contrast of familiarity (Jang & Feng, 2007). In the tourism context, the novelty-seeking theory (replaced by the variety-seeking theory) explains the choice behaviour of tourists since novelty seeking is a common feature in travellers (Assaker et al., 2011), which is the basis for tourists' preferences for new destinations regardless of their satisfaction with previously visited destinations. According to Rohrer's (2011, cited in Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2019), typology of tourists, there are familiarity seekers and novelty seekers. Basala and Klenosky (2001) examined preferences for travel experience factors based on the degree in familiarity and novelty sought by tourists and detected that even familiarity-seeking tourists were not against novelty given that accommodation, travel companion, and language factors contained familiarity aspects. Similarly, Assaker and Hallak (2013) noted that 'certain

customers switch products and make new purchases despite being satisfied with their original purchase' (p. 602). Also, as per Almeida-Santana and Moreno-Gil (2018), motivations, such as knowing different places and new cultures, negatively influence destination loyalty, meaning that tourists with these motivations satisfy their needs with a single visit as a result, decreasing the likelihood of a return visit.

Furthermore, Bigné et al. (2001) highlighted that tourists could be unsure of their return intentions since it is common for tourists to seek variety and so prefer new destinations. This has been empirically proven in another study in which Bigné Alcañiz et al. (2009) compared the results of R² for intentions to revisit and recommend intentions, and reported this value is less for the revisit intentions than the latter. Again, the authors explain this with the variety-seeking behaviour of tourists despite having positive perceptions of the visited destination. Indeed, intentions to switch products have been detected among satisfied customers (Assaker et al., 2011). In fact, using a four-wave longitudinal dataset Assaker et al. (2011) established the negative impact of novelty seeking on immediate revisit intentions. They further confirmed immediate revisit intention negatively effects revisit intentions in the long turn, meaning that higher levels of immediate revisit intention are likely to lead to decreased revisit intention over time. Furthermore, there exist complex factors besides destination image that tourists encounter in their visit decisions and the reality that tourists can still recommend the destination in the existence and absence of return visits.

To conclude, word of mouth intentions can be a valuable method to reinforce the success of the destination in promoting its tourism, and a number of factors indicate the truthfulness of this claim. Mainly, the intangibility feature of tourism products pushes potential tourists to seek as much experience-based information as possible, and the Internet has extended their opportunity. As a result, WOM recommendations are rated as the most credible source in the view of tourists. Also, the novelty-seeking nature of tourists intensifies the importance of their recommendations to the audience who have not been to the destination yet. Furthermore, tourists can recommend the destination, whether they return or not. Despite this, the literature indicates the lack of attention on WOM as a separate construct from revisiting intentions. Although it might not be appropriate to claim WOM only measure as an indicator of tourists loyalty, for its credits, this research chose WOM as the outcome variable to represent tourists' behavioural intentions with the purpose to emphasize its importance.

has been collected – a destination that mostly attracts elderly tourists with cultural interests, it is necessary to accentuate the role of WOM and to identify its antecedents.

2.5.6.4 Destination image as an antecedent of word-of-mouth intentions

The analyses of the antecedents of tourist behavioural intentions almost unanimously establish destination image as the most important determinant of behavioural intentions, and affirm destination image bears a direct impact on behavioural intentions or loyalty, both operationalized through both or either one of intentions to return and to recommend variables (Agapito et al., 2013; Akroush Mamoun et al., 2016; Chi & Qu, 2008; Hallmann et al., 2015; Hernández-Lobato et al., 2006; Kim, 2018; Kock et al., 2016; Li & Yang, 2015; Liu et al., 2016; Prayag et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2013; Swart et al., 2018).

In particular, Kim et al. (2012), in the case of American students who visited South Korea, confirmed destination image positively influenced their revisit intentions. Wu (2016) found a significant influence of destination experience on loyalty. Although referred to as destination experience, its operationalization indicates this construct is identical to the cognitive image. An interesting finding by Kim (2018) reported that compared to satisfaction, the magnitude of influence of destination image on behavioural intentions was greater. Also notable is the study by Al-Kwifi Osama (2015), which applied a different approach to establish the impact of destination image on visit intentions. They tracked brain response towards attractive and unattractive destinations using a functional technological-oriented magnetic resonance imaging approach.

While these studies generally refer to 'destination image', in other studies, the link between destination image and intentions to recommend are studied separately for each component of destination image, namely cognitive, affective, and overall (e.g., Chew & Jahari, 2014; Stylidis et al., 2017b). Some of these studies confirm the direct impact of all destination image components on behavioural intentions, while another group of studies finds not all, but one or two of the components have an impact on behavioural intentions, while others identify both direct and indirect or indirect only effect of destination image on behavioural intentions. Zhang et al. (2014) noted that the inconclusion in the literature regarding the relationship between the destination image and loyalty is because of the multidimensional nature of these concepts.

Some of the studies that have examined the effect of each image component on behavioural intentions have found that at least two of them are significant antecedents. Kock et al. (2016) treated cognitive, affective, and overall components of the image as a drive for tourist behaviour. Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006) and Vo Thanh, Cam Tran, and Dang (2018) confirmed cognitive image, affective image as direct antecedents of destination loyalty. Prayag (2008) confirmed the direct and indirect effect of destination image, comprised of cognitive and semi-affective images, on loyalty. Chew and Jahari (2014) showed that cognitive and affective components had a direct impact on behavioural intentions. Papadimitriou et al. (2018) conducted their study in regard to three groups, namely local residents, past and prospective tourists. As a result, both cognitive image and affective image had a significant impact on word of mouth intentions in all cases, though the overall image had a significant impact on word of mouth intentions only for prospective visitors, which indicates that prospective tourists might require more information to induce their WOM recommendations from. Regarding the relative impact of image components, Fu et al. (2016) report, affective image significantly influences behavioural intentions but less than cognitive image. Unlike them, Stylos et al. (2017), having explored the relative direct and indirect influence of three image components, identified the overall image as the only direct antecedent of behavioural intentions.

Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar (2015) explained that cognitive beliefs serve as qualifiers during the destination choice process by a tourist; a destination that cannot offer certain standards might be rejected in the stage of destination choice. Their claim appears true since, Prayag (2012), Fu et al. (2016), and several others (Table 4) have reported cognitive image as a statistically significant predictor of intentions to revisit and recommend the destination, and have highlighted the importance of cognitive image in travel destination choice. Also, Wong et al. (2019) specifically pointed out that by forming positive cognitive image, tourists express increased willingness to spread positive word of mouth.

White (2005) wrote that the impact of affection on behaviour should not come as a surprise since the attitude model has long proposed that attitude is developed through the interaction of cognition, affect, and behavioral intentions. According to Tanford (2013), 'emotional commitment is a key antecedent to loyalty', and 'is linked to trust in the brand' (p.286). Indeed, there is evidence that in some contexts, impact of affective image on behavioural intentions might outperform the cognitive image. To name a few, Becken et al. (2017), in

their online survey, found a significant influence of affective image on intentions to visit, while this impact was not significant in the instance of a cognitive image. Again, Palau-Saumell et al. (2016) and Chiu et al. (2016) found only affective image had a direct influence on tourist loyalty, and cognitive image was confirmed to have an indirect effect through affective image on tourist loyalty. Of course, each finding needs to be approached with consideration of its methodology and study context. Whang et al. (2016) associated the impact of affective image on visit intention, but not of the cognitive image, which might be because of its focus on Korean pop culture.

On the other hand, some studies ascertain the behavioural intentions of tourists develop as a result of the overall image. In fact, most of the studies prove the importance of overall image on the outcome variable. The studies by Bigné Alcañiz et al. (2009); De Nisco et al. (2015); Qu et al. (2011); Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018) are in this line by revealing the significant influence of overall image on revisit and recommend intentions. Likewise, Prayag et al. (2017) identified positive direct and indirect (through satisfaction) relationship between the overall image and intentions to recommend. Papadimitriou et al. (2015), with a sample population of domestic tourists in Greece, excluded other image components in their model and hypothesized and confirmed the impact of overall image on behavioural intentions. Similarly, de la Hoz-Correa and Muñoz-Leiva (2019) affirmed the impact of total impressions on intentions to recommend with no role of distinct image components. The same is seen in the study by Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018), who applied online data collection with tourists to Brazil. Zhang et al. (2014), in their meta-analysis, based on the syntheses of 66 published articles, identified overall image had the greatest influence on tourist behavioural intentions.

Nevertheless, there are study results with relatively less or no impact of destination image on behavioural intentions. In examining the factors with influence on revisit intentions in the tourists visiting sun and sand destinations in Spain, Campo-Martínez, Garau-Vadell, and Martínez-Ruiz (2010) identified that perceived image had the least influence on revisit intentions. Wang and Hsu (2010) found no significant relationship between destination image and behavioural intentions. In the analysis by Jin et al. (2013), destination image was a determinant of perceived value but was insignificant in shaping behavioural intentions. Lban et al. (2015) confirmed the positive effect of destination image on intentions to recommend, but not on revisit intentions.

As always, the results should be evaluated with precautions. Stylos et al. (2016) explained the statistically insignificant effect of cognitive image on revisit intentions with the lack of a distinct image of the destination (Greece) with other destinations like Turkey and Spain, whose offerings are similar in terms of quality, pricing, landscapes, and etc. Whang et al. (2016) measured cognitive image through three items (i.e., historical monuments, historic buildings, exotic culture), which might be another reason to consider. Kim and Malek (2017) did not confirm cognitive image and behavioural intentions relationship, again, which might be due to the operationalization of cognitive image through only 3 items (i.e., the activity in X is diverse, X has a moderate climate, X is a clean place). Although in the case of Asian groups, the authors found that this effect was increased. In the study by Sanz-Blas et al. (2019) that did not confirm the relationship between destination image and behavioural intentions sample population was cruise tourists in Valencia. Jin et al. (2013) did not find a statistically significant effect between destination image and behavioural intentions. These findings also might be because of the measurement of the destination image. Specifically, the authors measured destination image through items friendliness of locals, accommodation offerings, safety, and structure of the stadium, but not the destination (in total 4 items). Also, in their study, previous experience of the respondents with the destination was not controlled.

As discussed, the majority of the findings indicate that *cognitive, affective, and overall image each has an impact on behavioural intentions*. Therefore, the hypotheses are:

H7a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentionsH7b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentionsH7c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions

2.5.6.5 Perceived value as an antecedent of word-of-mouth intentions

In line with conceptual claims, empirical findings confirm perceived value as recognized determinant of behavioural intentions (e.g., Akhoondnejad, 2015; Chen & Chen, 2010; Cheng & Lu, 2013; de Oliveira Santini, Ladeira, & Sampaio, 2018; Dlačić et al., 2014; Kim & Park, 2017; Kim et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2013; Moutinho et al., 2012). Sun et al. (2013) in their study of Chinese domestic tourists found significant effect of perceived value on tourists' loyalty. In the study by Lban et al. (2015) the impact of perceived value is confirmed specifically on word of mouth intentions. Jin et al. (2013), who reported destination image as insignificant in shaping behavioural intentions, found that perceived value exerted direct effect of behavioural intentions. Likewise, Cheng and Lu (2013) found no direct effect of

destination image on behavioural intentions, but direct effect of perceived value on behavioural intentions. The findings by Pandža Bajs (2015) even claimed that the effect of perceived value on behavioural intentions is much stronger than that of satisfaction. More convincingly, based on the data collected over a-three-year period Um et al. (2006) found perceived value for money had a significant effect on satisfaction and revisit intentions, and these relationships were confirmed for each year of the three-year period. From another stance, in their application of artificial neural network analysis Santos Silva et al. (2016a) identified 'value for money' as the most important determinant of behavioural intentions indicating that satisfaction alone does not necessarily affect behavioural intentions.

Pandža Bajs (2015) stated 'perceived value represents the sum of the different dimensions of value, which have different effects in different situations' (p. 123). Therefore, again, the studies that did not find statistically significant relationship between perceived value and behavioural intentions should be reviewed with their methodological, contextual approaches, and techniques of statistical analysis. Palau-Saumell et al. (2016) is one of the few studies that did not confirm this relationship, and maybe due to the destination's characteristics, which was a sun-and-sand destination. Sun et al. (2013) study describes Chinese tourists - the sample population, as price sensitive, which might be the reason for the lack of direct relationship between PV and Loyalty. Also, the sample population was domestic tourists, which calls for caution in interpretation. In the analyses by Akhoondnejad (2016), Phillips et al. (2013), Sun et al. (2013), as well, direct impact of perceived value on loyalty revealed insignificant, while Jin, Lee, and Lee (2015) found perceived value as a significant predictor of behavioural intentions for repeat visitors, but not for those who are visiting the destination for the first time.

The bottom line is that again, more than less studies suggest that perceived value is likely to play significant importance in shaping tourists' behavioural intentions. This leads to the hypothesis:

H8: Perceived value directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions

2.5.6.6 Satisfaction as an antecedent of word-of-mouth intentions

Widely supported and verified premise in the tourism and marketing literature is the relationship between satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Yuksel, Yuksel, and Bilim (2010) stated that 'the strong relation between customer satisfaction and loyalty has led the

maximization of visitor satisfaction to become one of the primary objectives of destination managers' (p. 276), and refers to the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty as "a classic relationship" in consumer behaviour studies' (p. 367). Bigovic and Prašnikar (2015) confirmed that their detailed analysis revealed satisfaction as the most frequently used predictors of tourist loyalty. It has also been asserted that increase in the level of satisfaction provides increase in a destination's reputation, which results in positive future behaviour of visitors (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Also, Baloglu et al. (2004) stated that in the customer satisfaction literature overall satisfaction has been evaluated as a good and strong predictor of intentions to repurchase. As a critical component of actual visit experience strong influence of satisfaction on tourist behavioural intention is well established in empirical findings.

Many empirical studies confirmed positive relationship between satisfaction and intentions to recommend. These studies affirm that tourists willing to revisit and recommend are those who are satisfied with their experiences, and that possibility for intentions to recommend increases with the increase in satisfaction level (Hosany & Prayag, 2013). Agyeiwaah et al. (2016) also ascertained that gaining customer loyalty is the benefit that has been linked to customer satisfaction. Prayag and Ryan (2011) in their study of antecedents of loyalty confirmed positive relationship between satisfaction and loyalty, stating that as satisfaction levels increase so does the levels of recommend and revisit intentions. Jang and Feng (2007) examined impact of satisfaction on repeat travel behaviour and confirmed direct impact of satisfaction on short-term revisit intention, but not on mid-term and log-term revisit intention, since novelty seeking appeared to directly influence the two latter cases. Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013) tested moderating effect of perceived risk, and in both high and low risk cases found positive effect of overall satisfaction on behavioural intentions. As well, data analysis by Kim (2018) and Ribeiro, Woosnam, Pinto, and Silva (2018), Cevdet Altunel and Erkurt (2015), Moutinho et al. (2012), Lee et al. (2019a) and Lee and Hsu (2013), Kim et al. (2013), Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García (2017) and Hall, O'Mahony, and Gayler (2017b), Prayag et al. (2017); Sun et al. (2013), Akhoondnejad (2016), Stylidis et al. (2017a), Sun et al. (2013) and Martín-Santana et al. (2017), Bigovic and Prašnikar (2015), and Jin et al. (2015) all have exhibited that tourist satisfaction is a strong determinant of their behavioural intentions.

Meanwhile, this impact is found absent in several studies. One of them Heydari Fard et al. (2019) limited their sample population with medical tourists, which, according to the authors, might be caused with the motive to keep confidential their travels for medical treatment.

Bigné et al. (2001) found satisfaction insignificant on intentions to return in data collected in Penascola, but in the case of Torrevieja though satisfaction turned as a significant predictor of return intentions, it was less significant than perceived value. Also, Um et al. (2006) did not find satisfaction a significant antecedent of revisit intentions, both in the case of Europe/North America and Asia/Australia tourist groups. Contrary, Phillips et al. (2013) found its significant influence on revisit intentions, not on intentions to recommend. Overall, the empirical evidence leads to the next hypothesis:

H9: Overall tourist satisfaction directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions

2.6 Empirical studies on the dynamic destination image

So far, it has been identified that destination image is a process that undergoes several stages. Nevertheless, the literature review revealed that relatively few studies have taken this feature into consideration. Therefore, next step was to understand the approaches and findings of the studies that have examined destination image as a dynamic process. To accomplish this purpose, among the 363 studies in Table 3, 45 studies have been chosen for further review, because they have recognized destination image as more than a single stage. To avoid repetition, these studies are highlighted in bold in Table 3 for the study's focus and findings.

To obtain a structural review of these studies Table 5 was created. The first column of Table 5 identifies whether the study's purpose is to confirm image change (that takes place with the visit to the destination). As a result, 39 studies out of 45 were identified to belong to this category. They are uniform in their conclusions by confirming that image perceptions are more positive after visiting the destination. Among these studies, though, Chen et al. (2014) and King et al. (2015) have taken slightly different approach by aiming to measure image decay. They concluded that affective image is prone to change while cognitive image is more stable. The study by Kim and Chen (2016) is purely conceptual; they proposed a destination image formation model through before, during and after trip stages. Kim et al.'s (2015) focus is different, because although they collected data in two time points (at visitors' arrival and departure) the questions were not paired, instead each questionnaire measured different constructs. Tourists at arrival were surveyed on destination image and motivations. The same tourists in departure were surveyed on perceived quality, satisfaction, perceived value, complaint, and revisit intentions; hence the questionnaires were not paired. Although these

studies are valuable in confirming destination image as an evolving process, they do not provide information about the role of this characteristic of image in the tourists' behaviour.

Next, five of the remaining six studies have calculated the image gap between pre- and postvisit image perceptions and tested its relationship with other variables. Some studies have used the terms 'gap' or 'incongruence' to refer to this difference between the pre- and postvisit perceptions. Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana (2019), then, tested the impact of content of information sources on image gap (between pre and post visit image). Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana Josefa (2017) examined the impact of confirmation of motivations on image gap (between pre and post visit image). Others (e.g., Lee et al., 2012; Martín-Santana et al., 2017; Park & Nicolau, 2019) hypothesised the outcomes of this difference as impacting tourist satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Only one study (i.e., Kim et al., 2015) attempted to measure direct impact of pre-visit image. However, their path model tested the impact of pre-visit destination image is not conceptualised as a predictor of post-visit destination image.
Study	Research design	Does the study collect data from two or more points in time?	Does the study use the same respondents for pre and post image measurement?	Does the study focus on the differences between pre and post image measures of respondents?
Beerli-Palacio and Martín-	Data collected from 411 tourists	No		
Santana (2019)	who visited Tenerife about gap in			
	the pre-visit and post-visit image			
Chen (2019)	In-depth interviews with 18 tourists	Yes	Yes	Yes
	to Macau pre-visit and then post-			
	visit			
Hahm et al. (2019)	Online survey about the image of	Yes	No	
	South Korea around the winter			
	Olympics across four points in time.			
	The sample size was 100 for each of			
	the phases			

Table 5 Structural review of studies in destination image formation with pre- and post-visit measurement of image

Iordanova and Stylidis (2019)	Data collected from 400 visitors to Linz – a city in Austria about pre- visit and in-situ opinion of the destination	No		
Kim et al. (2019b)	Data collected from 161 Korean tourists to Vietnam before, during and after visiting the destination	Yes	Yes	Yes
Park and Nicolau (2019)	Data were collected from 12024 international travellers to South Korea in the same time period	No		
Tasci et al. (2019)	Online survey about the image of Brazil in four points of time around the Olympics in 2016. Sample size was 100 for each phase	Yes	No	
Papadimitriou et al. (2018)	Survey among 540 domestic tourists to Patras.	No		
Pike et al. (2018)	Four annual surveys across 12 years in the city of Brisbane	Yes	No	

Stylidis and Cherifi	42 semi-structured interviews with	Yes	No	
(2018)	Czech and Greek visitors and non-			
	visitors to London			
Beerli-Palacio and Martín-	Survey among tourists visiting	No		
Santana Josefa (2017)	Tenerife. The sample comprising of			
	411 respondents			
Martín-Santana et al.	Survey among Tourists visiting	No		
(2017)	Tenerife. The sample comprising of			
	411 respondents			
Jani and Nguni (2016)	Survey among 294 tourists visiting	No		
	Tanzania			
Pavesi et al. (2016)	92 Students visiting Albania	Yes	Yes	Yes
Akhoondnejad (2015)	Survey among tourists to Isfahan in	No		
	Iran. The sample comprising of 298			
	respondents			
Draper (2015)	4619 inquirers of the Austin, CVB	No		

Kim et al. (2015)	Survey among 253 British tourists to Crete	Yes	Yes	No
King et al. (2015)	Online survey among 234 non-local marathon event participants in the southeast of the USA, three weeks after and 10 months after the event	Yes	Yes	Yes
Smith et al. (2015)	Pre-trip, arrival, half-way, departure, and post-trip survey and trip photos from 17 student visitors to Peru	Yes	Yes	Yes
Tkaczynski et al. (2015)	Survey among 517 tourists to the Fraser Coast	Yes	No	
Chen et al. (2014)	Online survey of 50 marathon participants across three time periods	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lee et al. (2014a)	Survey among 593 tourists who were leaving South Korea conducted at two airports	No		

Lim et al. (2014)	196 Gen Y respondents in Singapore who visited China	No		
Mwaura et al. (2013)	Online survey among 44 actual and potential UK tourists to Mongolia	No		
Vitouladiti (2013)	repeated survey among 376 British visitors visiting an Island in Greece	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lee et al. (2012)	Repeated survey among 205 Korean visitors to Kazakhstan	Yes	Yes	Yes
Jani and Hwang (2011)	214 user-generated posts by potential and actual tourists to Zanzibar Island	No		
Huang and Gross (2010)	Three visitor and three non-visitor focus groups of Chinese tourists to Australia, with 5 – 7 participants in each	No		

Phillips and Jang (2010)	Survey among 749 Midwestern USA University staff visitors and non-visitors to NYC	No		
(2010)	Chinese tourists in Australia			
Kim et al. (2009)	repeated measures of 303 Korean tourists to Australia measured across three time periods	Yes	Yes	Yes
Yilmaz et al. (2009)	Survey among arriving and departing tourists from Anatalya in Turkey	Yes	No	
Florek et al. (2008)	24 pre- and post-questionnaires and 3 in-depth pre-, during, and post- interviews among New Zealand football fans to Germany	Yes	Yes	Yes
Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008)	Survey among 337 America's travel club members of visitors and non- visitors to Russia	Yes	No	

Tasci and Holecek (2007)	Large scale longitudinal study among visitors to Michigan across four years	Yes	No	
Hallab and Kim (2006)	Survey among 235 domestic tourists to Mississippi	No		
Li and Vogelsong (2006)	repeated survey among 130 attendees of a festival in Jacksonville	Yes	Yes	Yes
Tasci (2006)	Large scale longitudinal study among visitors to Michigan across four years	Yes	No	
Kim and Morrsion (2005)	Data were collected from 617 tourists to Korea comprising of Japanese, Chinese and US tourists	No		
O'Leary and Deegan (2005)	281 French Tourists to Ireland	Yes	Yes	Yes

Schofield et al. (2005)	Survey among 179 domestic visitors and non-visitors to Warrington	No		
Vogt and Andereck (2003)	A survey among 748 motorists travelling through Arizona using a diary	Yes	Yes	Yes
MacKay and McVetty (2002)	Survey among visitors to a National Park in British Columbia. The survey was administered to 594 respondents	No		
Chaudhary (2000)	Survey of 162 foreign tourists who visited India	No		
Chon (1991)	Survey among 204 Americans travelling to South Korea, and 240 Americans who completed their visits	No		

To address this gap, the first step was to establish the structure of destination image; as the destination image is a construct with its multiple independent but hierarchically related components, simply hypothesizing impact of 'destination image' would increase its vagueness. Based on the attitude theory and cross-sectional studies, in the literature review on the operationalization of the destination image it was identified that *the destination image is represented by cognitive, affective and overall responses*. Further, following the theoretical logic that destination image is a cognition-based attitude, and comparatively stronger empirical evidence it was proposed that *cognitive image precedes affective image*, and that *cognitive and affective image both have direct impact on overall image*.

Having established the structure of destination image allows to proceed to the next step of establishing the relationship between the pre- and post-stages. It is evident that despite the vast majority of destination image literature being dedicated on examining the relationship of destination image with other variables in tourist behaviour, the role of pre-visit destination image in the post-visit stage remains unexamined. Besides, as discussed, the stage and consistency seeking theories allow to assume that: *there is a direct link between pre- and post-visit destination image*. It was also highlighted that these assumptions might be particularly true in the case of tourists who travel to the destination of free will through planned decisions and make high commitment decisions that cover much more than financial contributions. Thus, to address this gap, current study set the aim of investigating the role of the pre-visit image perceptions of tourists in the post-visit image perceptions and evaluations. To achieve this, it hypothesized direct impact of pre-visit image on post visit image and its indirect impact on outcome variables:

H10a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit cognitive image H10b: Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the post-visit affective image H10c: Pre-visit overall image directly impacts the post-visit overall image

The common feature of these hypotheses is that they state the direct relationships of the past and present for the constructs that has exactly the same nature. For example, post-visit cognitive image has the same nature as pre-visit cognitive image, and can be generalized as cognitive image which represents the knowledge and beliefs about the tangible attributes of the destination (Becken et al., 2017; Hallmann et al., 2015; Kim, 2018; Noh & Vogt, 2013; Stylidis et al., 2017b; Stylos et al., 2017). Similarly, despite distinguished as pre- and postaffective images they represent feelings towards the destination. The attitude theory and the empirical findings state the hierarchical direct relationships between the image components, but they assume the same time point. Also, the consistency theories put forward the notion of the relationships between the constructs of the same nature, which was discussed in the case of empirical studies (e.g., Chon, 1991). Therefore, there is no theoretical and empirical support to hypothesize the direct relationship between pre-cognitive and post-affective image because it might not be appropriate in the presence of the direct relationship between the pre-and post-visit affective images – the variables that are same in nature. However, they might be related indirectly, for example the pre-cognitive image might indirectly impact post-affective image through the pre-affective image. However, this is outside the scope of this study given the interest in the direct relationships between the pre- and post-visit images.

2.6.1 Indirect impacts among the variables

Through Table 4 of direct effects, it was identified that the studies have established the key constructs (e.g., destination image, satisfaction, etc.) and the direct relationships among them, but whether there are indirect effects among these variables needs further examination. As Kim et al. (2013) accentuated, there is a need to increase a 'predictive power' (p.314) of a conceptual model of a tourist behaviour. One of the ways is, probably, to consider possible mediating effects among the variables. Certainly, the call to increase number of complementary mediating variables to study correlations between variables have been made in several empirical studies (e.g., Bigné et al., 2001; Chiu et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2013; Prayag, 2012; Sun et al., 2013; Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015).

2.6.1.1 Indirect effects examined in the destination image studies

Out of the 207 studies that proposed a conceptual model (Table 4), only 16 studies were identified that have tested for mediating effects. These studies are summarized in Table 6. Mainly, there are two patterns that emerge from their findings. First, most of these studies support influential role of overall image by proposing it as a mediator between image components (i.e., cognitive and affective) and outcome variables. For example, Papadimitriou et al. (2015) confirmed overall image as a mediator between affective image and behavioural intentions, using sample population of domestic tourists in Greece. Again, Qu et al. (2011) tested the direct effect of only overall image on intentions to visit and separately on intentions to recommend and proposed only indirect effects of affective and cognitive images on the intentions through overall image. Stylidis et al. (2017b) also confirmed mediating effect of overall image and recommend intentions. However, their sample

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population was tourists during their visits, whose perceptions might still continue to develop until the termination of their visits. Stylos et al. (2016) hypothesized the indirect effect of cognitive image on behavioural intentions through overall image in the case of Russian tourists visiting Greece. However, the hypothesis was not supported. The authors explain this with the lack of distinct image of the destination (Greece) with other destinations, like Turkey and Spain, whose offerings are similar in terms of, for example, quality, pricing, and landscapes.

Second pattern is that satisfaction serves as a mediator in the effect of destination image on behavioural intentions. Bhat Suhail and Darzi Mushtaq (2018) and Su et al. (2017) confirmed satisfaction as a mediator between destination image and behavioural intentions. In the study by Liu et al. (2017), as well, destination image influenced the intentions through the mediating effect of overall satisfaction. Nevertheless, as Song et al. (2013) pointed out the existing destination image conceptual models are predominantly simple mediation models. Therefore, there is a need to examine possible mediating effects. Table 6 Mediating effects examined in destination image studies

Authors	Endogenous variable	Mediating variable	Outcome variable	Result
Akroush Mamoun et al. (2016)	Service quality	Destination image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Bhat Suhail and Darzi Mushtaq (2018)	Destination image	Satisfaction	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Chi and Qu (2008)	Cognitive image	Overall satisfaction	Behavioural intentions	Supported
	Attribute satisfaction	Overall satisfaction	Behavioural intentions	Not supported
Kim et al. (2018)	Perceived value	Cognitive image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Lee (2009b)	Destination image	Satisfaction	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Liu et al. (2017)	Destination image	Overall satisfaction	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Maghsoodi Tilaki et al. (2016)	Cognitive image	Overall image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
	Overall image	Overall satisfaction	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Moon et al. (2013)	Perceived value	Destination image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Papadimitriou et al. (2015)	Affective image	Overall image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Qu et al. (2011)	Destination brand images (i.e., cognitive, affective and unique images)	Overall image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Santana and Sevilha Gosling (2018)	Cognitive image	Affective image	Overall image	Supported
	Cognitive image	Overall image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
	Affective image	Overall image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Stylidis et al. (2017b)	Cognitive image	Overall image	Behavioural intentions	Supported

	Cognitive image	Affective image	Overall image	Supported
Stylos et al. (2016)	Cognitive image	Overall image	Behavioural intentions	Not supported
	Conative image	Overall image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
	Affective image	Overall image	Behavioural intentions	supported
Su et al. (2017)	Destination image	Satisfaction	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Xu and Ye (2018)	Cognitive image	Affective image	Behavioural intentions	Supported
Zhang et al. (2016)	Cognitive image	Affective image	Behavioural intentions	Supported

2.6.1.2 Indirect impact of pre-visit destination image on destination image evaluation outcomes

It is essential to recall that from the systematic literature review perceived value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions were identified as key outcome variables in relation with destination image. It was, then, decided that examining word of mouth as a dependent variable is crucial given the evidence of WOM as the primary source that potential tourists obtain information about the destination; it is treated as more reliable and effective in the intangible service sector. Besides, the novelty seeking nature of tourists puts WOM more importance, especially when the destination is the one like Uzbekistan – a developing tourism destination that mostly attracts senior tourists with cultural interests. Further, the new role of tourists as image formation agents with the most influence is constantly reminded, hence, a shift towards WOM intentions as a representative of behavioural intentions is noticeable in late studies.

Based on the empirical evidence direct impacts of post-visit destination image on perceived value, overall satisfaction and word-of-mouth intentions were hypothesized. Also, direct impact of pre-visit image on post-visit image was hypothesized. Therefore, for example, if there is direct impact of pre-cognitive image on post-cognitive image, and post-cognitive image then directly impacts the outcome variables it allows the following hypotheses:

H11a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts the perceived value through the post-visit cognitive image

H11b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts the perceived value through the post-visit affective image

H11c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts the perceived value through the post-visit overall image

H12a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction through the post-visit cognitive image

H12b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction through the post-visit affective image

H12c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction through the postvisit overall image

H13a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions through the post-visit cognitive image

H13b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions through the postvisit affective image H13c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions through the postvisit overall image

2.7 Conceptual model of the study

So far, firstly, through theoretical grounds the study identified that a destination image constantly evolves and thus, is a dynamic process. By systematically reviewing empirical studies that have examined destination image under this assumption, it has established the uniformly reported empirical evidence for this claim. Next, the structure of destination image was identified to include cognitive, affective and overall image perceptions which are hierarchically interrelated. Following was the finding that the key variables in post-visit tourist studies are destination image, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. However, the literature revealed that the relationship between pre- and post-visit stages has not been empirically examined. Also, investigating possible mediation effects was another call highlighted in the literature. Therefore, current study put forward the hypotheses that directly link pre-visit and post-visit destination images, and indirectly link pre-visit image on post-visit outcome variables (i.e., perceived value, satisfaction and word-of-mouth intentions).

The proposed hypotheses of this study are collected below. The hypotheses H10a – H13c were proposed to fulfil the aim of this study, and therefore, to address the gap in the literature. Further, based on the hypotheses a theoretical model of the study was established. Following Figure 2 is the conceptual model of the study. The pre-visit and post-visit destination image stages are depicted in a single model, and therefore, addressed the call by the scholars to integrate these stages as a continuous process. It measured the direct impact of pre-visit destination image on post-visit image, and its indirect impact on the outcome variables which has not been performed by previous studies. Further, it used repeated measures of destination image to overcome possible interpersonal bias.

H1a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit affective image
H1b: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit affective image
H2a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image
H2b: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit overall image

H3a: Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image H3b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts the post-visit overall image H4a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the perceived value H4b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts the perceived value *H4c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts the perceived value* H5a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction H5b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction H5c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction H6: Perceived value directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction H7a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions H7b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions H7c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions H8: Perceived value directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions H9: Overall tourist satisfaction directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions H10a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit cognitive image H10b: Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the post-visit affective image H10c: Pre-visit overall image directly impacts the post-visit overall image H11a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts the perceived value through the post-visit cognitive image H11b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts the perceived value through the post-visit affective image H11c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts the perceived value through the post-visit overall image H12a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction through the post-visit cognitive image H12b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction through the post-visit affective image

H12c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction through the postvisit overall image

H13a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions through the post-visit cognitive image

H13b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions through the postvisit affective image H13c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions through the postvisit overall image



Figure 3 Detailed overview of the conceptual model of the study

CHAPTER 3 The methodology of the study

As stated in the introduction chapter, the research aim was to establish the impact of pre-visit destination image perceptions on post-visit destination image perceptions and destination image evaluation outcome variables. The objectives were set as following:

- to explore extent theories and empirical studies to establish pre- and post-visit destination image as an integrated process;
- to identify the destination image evaluation outcome variables;
- to develop a conceptual model that incorporates pre- and post-visit destination image and the destination image evaluation outcome variables;
- to validate the relationships in the conceptual model using longitudinal data.

So far, to achieve the first three objectives, the hypotheses were established in the previous chapter by setting up the theoretical and empirical grounds. Mainly, the gap that the study identified and is addressing is whether the pre-visit destination image has direct and indirect impact on the post-visit destination image and the post-visit evaluations (i.e., perceived value, satisfaction and word-of-mouth intentions).

Thereafter, the purpose of this chapter is to present the methodology that was followed in order to fulfil the fourth objective of the study in a systematic way, since research methodology is the process that the researcher determines as their choice of methods to reach to the expected outcome and to ensure that the findings are meaningful (Bryman, 2015a; Hair, Wolfinbarger, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2015). Kumar (2014) accentuated that in order to achieve the research aim and objectives, a researcher needs to follow a framework of philosophies, certain methods and techniques that have been proved to be valid and reliable.

Overall, the methodology of the study is based on the Research Onion proposed by Saunders et al. (2015); it is the research design framework adopted in this study for its clarity in defining each stage in the research process (Figure 3). Therefore, having established its research purpose and the assumptions as the foundational stage for the rest of the research levels, the rest of the presentation of the study's methodology is based on the six key levels of the research process that Saunders et al. (2015) distinguished. Accordingly, the rest of the chapter is organized to present the research purpose, assumptions, philosophy, approach, method, strategy, time horizon and the techniques of data analysis (summarized in Table 7).



Figure 4 The research 'onion' by Saunders et al. (2015)

Source: Saunders et al. (2015)

Table 7 Summary of the research methodology

Ontological assumption of the study	Objectivism	The aim of the study is to establish the role of destination image as an antecedent construct.
		concept of destination image was objective
Epistemological assumption of the study	Objectivism	To achieve the study's aim required larger numeric data and objective facts
Axiological assumption of the study	Value-free	In this study the researcher was independent from the data
Research purpose	Explanatory and descriptive	The study established relationships among the variables. Also, it presented the obtained information about the perceptions of the destination
Research philosophies	Positivist	The contribution of the study is based on the direct and indirect relations of pre-visit destination image with post-visit outcome variables

Research approach	Deductive	The study conducted research based on
		predetermined theoretical basis
Research method	Quantitative	The concepts under examination were
		measured through numerical values
Research strategy	Survey	The research involved obtaining larger
		numeric data through quantitative method of
		data collection
Time – horizon	Longitudinal	The aim of the study required measurement
		of the same variable (i.e., destination image)
		tracking the same sample at two points in
		time
Data analysis technique		Limitation to two time points, presence of
		skewness in the data, and the formatively
		measured construct made the structural
		equation modelling using the SmartPLS as
		the best option for the analysis of the data

3.1 Research purpose and research assumptions

From the methodological perspective, Saunders et al. (2015) distinguished three main types of research: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. The type of research is dictated by the study's aim and objectives. Therefore, current study is mainly an explanatory research, because it is interested in examining relations among the constructs. However, it has descriptive pattern as well, because it describes the facts identified through the primary data analysis, like the destination image perceptions of the destination under investigation. Hence, from the point of the research purpose, it is a 'descripto-explanatory' (Saunders, 2019, p. 188) research.

As Saunders (2019) explained, in philosophy, ontology and epistemology represent the two main positions that are taken towards knowledge. Ontology is the study about the nature of reality, and thus, it examines the concepts of the reality and their relationships (Easterby-Smith, 2018). It is 'the view of how one perceives a reality' (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 69). On the other hand, epistemology is the assumptions about knowledge, 'what constitutes acceptable, valid and legitimate knowledge' (Saunders et al., 2015, p. 127). Easterby-Smith (2018) defined epistemology as assumptions that guide the ways to inquire the reality. Thus, it is the way that the researcher undertakes in order to find the truth. Mainly, its purpose is to define the relationship between the researcher and knowledge.

As such, ontological assumptions shape the ways that the research objects are approached (Saunders et al., 2015), while epistemology is the way for seeking the knowledge. They have two main aspects: objectivism and subjectivism. Ontological subjectivism stance argues that the world is socially constructed. Correspondingly, in epistemological subjectivism, opinions of the individuals are acceptable as knowledge and attributed meanings is the way to achieve good-quality data. In contrast, ontological objectivism defends the assumption that the research object is external to the researcher and other social actors. Following this, epistemological objectivism considers facts as acceptable knowledge and obtains its data through numbers. Therefore, from the ontological perspective current study seeks a single reality and adopts a more objective epistemological standpoint. In accordance it further follows principles of positivist paradigm.

3.2 Research philosophy

Saunders et al. (2015) defined research philosophy as 'a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge' (p.124). As such, the main task of the research philosophy can be explained as the source of knowledge. The five diverse philosophies that Saunders et al. (2015) presented are positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, post-modernism and pragmatism.

Among them, interpretivism and positivism can be claimed as two prominent and mostly contradicting each other research philosophies. The interpretivism sees humans 'different from physical phenomena because they create meanings' (Saunders et al., 2015, p. 140). So, researchers with this stance consider multiple meanings attached by each individual to a particular phenomenon. As a result, the interpretivist research has the purpose to deeper comprehend and interpret the social world. In contrast, As per Myers (2013), positivism treats the reality as objective, quantifiable, and free from the researcher. The interest of positivist research is in the data in the form of verifiable facts. Therefore, current study holds positivist position; as seen in the literature review and the conceptual model, the focus of the study is based on the verifiable causal relations that require measurement of values and a larger dataset.

3.3 Research approach

In terms of the approach that the research follows, Saunders et al. (2015) distinguished deduction, induction and abduction in their 'onion' diagram. The main characteristic of the inductive process is that it utilizes specific observation to obtain a general inference. Also, it might avoid any conceptual framework or construct it after the empirical observations have taken place (Kovács & Spens Karen, 2005).

On the other hand, as Bryman (2015b) explained deductive approach involves establishing causal relationships beforehand, prior to data collection. In this approach 'there is the search to explain causal relationships between concepts and variables' (Saunders et al., 2015). According to Blaikie and Priest (2019) deductive approach is progressed through six essential steps:

- putting forward a tentative idea, conjecture, hypothesis or a set of hypotheses that form a theory;
- specifying the conditions under which the hypotheses are expected to hold, deduce a conclusion, or a number of conclusions, with the help of previously accepted hypotheses;
- examining the conclusions and the logic of the argument that produced them, comparing this argument with existing theories to see if it constitutes an advance in our understanding;
- testing the conclusion by gathering appropriate data;
- if the test fails that is, if the data are not consistent with the conclusion the theory must be false. If the original conjecture does not match the data, it must be rejected;
- if the conclusion passes the test that is, the data are consistent with it the theory is temporarily supported.

From this discussion it is evident that explanatory and descriptive in nature, the research approach that current study adopted is deductive; its foundation is built upon the established theories and set hypotheses to test the relationships among the variables.

3.4 Research methods and research strategy

So far, the research was identified to follow objective reasoning, with its position of positivist paradigm and deductive approach and its key words, like 'quantifiable', 'hypotheses' and 'free from the researcher'. Correspondingly, the method it has adopted emphasizes objective measurements of the constructs through numerical data which is known as the quantitative research method.

Generally, the quantitative method of data collection is dominant in destination image studies. As can be seen in Table 3, 311 studies out of 363 have applied quantitative methods, while only 24 studies used qualitative methods, and the rest are conceptual studies. Similarly, Riley and Love (2000) by comparing the number of qualitative and quantitative articles published in four major tourism journals revealed dominance of positivism paradigm, which applies quantitative methodologies. Xu and Ye (2018) wrote these empirical studies are 'heavily oriented' (p. 1) towards quantitative data collection methods with structured

questionnaires. Also, Marius and Luisa (2016) referred to the quantitative method as the 'master paradigm' (p. 176) in the research field of social sciences.

Next in question is the research strategy – an overall plan of actions for conducting the research. Although there are several strategies for collecting quantitative data, survey comprised of a questionnaire with close-ended questions is the prominent strategy in this field of research. In fact, Pike's (2002) meta study identified 114 articles, out of total 142, published from 1973 to 2000 applied structured techniques consisted of purely close-ended questions to operationalize destination image. Also, Dolnicar and Grün (2013) stated that 75% of all the reviewed empirical studies assessed destination image of tourists using a questionnaire with a list of destination's attributes. Similarly, and again based on its focus, current study has collected primary data using mainly close-ended questions, with two open-ended questions.

3.5 Time horizons and data collection techniques

The systematic literature review of the studies on the dynamic destination image process identified that some studies have applied retrospective method and others more appropriate repeated measured method. Last two columns in Table 5 is helpful in determining whether the studies have used longitudinal design to assess pre and post visit perceptions. 22 studies out of 45 used retrospective method by simultaneously asking the respondents their pre- and post-visit image perceptions. 13 studies used repeated measures; they collected their data in at least two time points from the same respondents. However, in the study by Chen (2019) sample population is limited to 15 tourists, and in it is limited to 17 student travellers. Also, in the study by Florek et al. (2008) the sample population is 24 travellers of New Zealand football fans. Further, O'Leary and Deegan (2005) surveyed the respondents during their visits to identify their pre-visit perceptions, which is not ideal.

On the other hand, other longitudinal studies are homogenous in their sample population. In the study by Lee et al. (2012), the respondents were limited to Korean visitors to any of the Central Asian countries. The sample population in the study by Kim et al. (2019b) there were 161 South Korean tourists to Vietnam; by Pavesi et al. (2016) 110 student travellers to Albania; by Vitouladiti (2013) 376 British tourists; in Kim et al. (2009) study 303 Korean tourists. As well, King et al. (2015), and Chen et al. (2014) collected data from (234 and 50 non-local, respectively,) marathon event participants. Vogt and Andereck (2003) collected

data from (748) motorists traveling through Arizona. Although these studies have applied better research designs to collect longitudinal data, their sample population belong to a single cultural group or are not tourists, rather, event participants. Hence, most of these studies have suffered some flaws in research designs.

The limitations of these methods have been criticized. For example, Yilmaz et al. (2009) stressed that conducting the survey with departing and arriving tourists is a common method in destination image studies on image change. Kim et al. (2009) noted the studies investigating change in image perceptions over time are 'susceptible to measurement frequency deficiencies' and are 'vulnerable to limitations of memory recall' (p. 715), as they are one-off studies conducted either on-site or before tourists' arrival or after their departure. As such, they are not free from 'recall inefficiencies' (San Martín & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2008, p. 268). Also, as per Jani and Nguni (2016) studies on differences between pre- and post- destination image are rather a proxy of image development due to utilizing study designs that involve different samples.

For pre- and post-destination image studies it would be preferable to collect pre-visit data before tourists' arrival and post-visit data after their departure, and with heterogenous sample. However, as the empirical studies show it is quite difficult to achieve due to practical obstacles. Similarly, the data collection of the study involved survey of the same participants and repeated measurement of the same variable (i.e., destination image) in two time point. Therefore, in terms of time horizon, it is a longitudinal study – a study that involves data collection over time from the same participants, since its aim is to examine the dynamics of the variable (Saunders et al., 2015). However, the pre-visit questionnaire was collected before the tour of the participants, and the post-visit questionnaire was collected after the tour.

Also, due to limitations in access to the relevant data, it was not possible to obtain the sampling frame. Therefore, it was opted for convenience sampling. As a non-probability sampling, convenience sampling method enables to reach to the sample population without major obstacles (Saunders et al., 2015). Generally, this method is common in empirical studies of destination image for enabling easier access sample population (Akroush Mamoun et al., 2016; Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2016; Iordanova & Stylidis, 2019; Jani & Nguni, 2016; Noh & Vogt, 2013; Palau-Saumell et al., 2016; Park, Hsieh, & Lee, 2017; Ramires, Brandão, & Sousa, 2018; Salvatierra & Walters, 2016). Further, the sampling can be approached as purposive. According to Easterby-Smith (2018), purposive sampling is

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selecting participants that are eligible to meet the predetermined criteria. The data collection procedure is given in more detail in the following subchapter.

3.6 Data collection

The literature shows that majority of studies in destination image have been conducted on the Western countries (Wang & Hsu, 2010). Likewise, majority of studies on tourist behavioural intentions were conducted in the West (Sun et al., 2013). It was identified that considerable tourism potential of Uzbekistan – a country in Central Asia, is manifested in some studies of Central Asia (Airey & Shackley, 1997; Lee et al., 2012; Werner, 2003). Nevertheless, at the same time, they signal of the country's weak cognitive destination image.

Therefore, Uzbekistan was chosen as the data collection site with the purpose to shift interest towards the developing destinations of Central Asia. Moreover, the destination is increasing their effort in improving its tourism management and attracting more tourists (more information on this is provided in later in this chapter).

Bulai, Eva, and Rosu (2016) stated international visitation to Uzbekistan is strongly seasonal with the peak tourist season between August – October. Indeed, the first two months of autumn are referred in Uzbekistan's travel agencies' websites as the best time to travel to the country. This is also in match with the information provided by the tour guides. The reason that summer months June and July are unpopular for tourism is mostly due to the country's weather temperature, which reaches 47 degrees Celsius. Therefore, the survey was conducted during the months of autumn and December of 2017.

According to the report by (World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2015) 63% of the tourist survey respondents in Uzbekistan were travellers as part of pre-purchased tours. Considering majority of first-time tourists travel to the destination through travel organizations, and the difficulties encountered during the on-site piloting survey the best way to reach the respondents to conduct the survey was through travel organizations. However, it should be considered that this method of data collection is limited to sample population that were part of chartered tour. They have visited the same destination in the same sequence, hence might have had the same experience.

In total more than twenty tour operators, travel agencies, and tour guides were contacted for the assistance in conducting the survey. The decline rate was high since the post-visit survey had to be collected from the same respondents who completed the pre-visit survey. As a result, there were four tour guides (reached through travel organizations) who agreed to assist in the data collection.

The questionnaires were distributed by the tour guides just before and just after the tours that lasted about a week and included itinerary along historical cities of Uzbekistan. Based on the consumer behaviour model consumers' experiences can be assessed during, after and just before post purchase behaviour (Um et al., 2006). Furthermore, King et al. (2015) noted that attitudes are prone to change and decay because of factors like time, memory, personal characteristics and external stimuli. Therefore, the method involved increased recall effects. Even though it cannot be claimed as pre- and post-visit, the data collection allowed to measure pre- and post-visit destination images. To match the responses of pre- and post-visit questionnaires by the same respondents the name of the respondent was written down on the front page of each questionnaire. After completing the second questionnaire an embroidered handmade purse by Uzbek craftsmen was given to express appreciation (Figure 5).

Figure 5 Gift to the participants



3.7 Sample population

Studies have identified that the images are different between international and domestic tourists. For example, Eusébio and Vieira (2013) tested a model integrating tourists' evaluation attributes of the destination, overall satisfaction and behavioural intentions in comparison of domestic and international tourists and found differences between the samples. Therefore, a questionnaire for international tourists might not be appropriate for domestic

tourists. Also, since the objective was to examine image of Uzbekistan in the international viewpoint the target population was international tourists. Further, in accordance with the aim of the study, which differentiated pre-visit from post-visit, the sample population was first time tourists who have not visited the destination before and who were in the destination for leisure travel activities.

3.8 Sample size

During a four-month data collection the number of completed paired pre- and post-visit questionnaires reached 178. To collect more questionnaires would mean to wait until tourism season in April, which would require going over the process of findings, convincing and negotiating with tour operators. Therefore, 178 questionnaires were decided adequate taking into account relatively low non-response which was due to data collection through tour operators. In general, it is common in empirical studies in this nature to involve less than 200 participants. For example, Kim et al. (2019b) has 161 respondents. Also, as per do Valle and Assaker (2016), Reinartz, Haenlein, and Henseler (2009) showed that PLS SEM' is able to achieve sufficiently high statistical power even if the sample size is relatively small (i.e., 100 observations)' though 'to be on the safe side in terms of sample size, one might recommend 100 cases with the objective of improving accuracy' (p.700).

3.9 Data analysis technique

Latent-growth modelling (LGM) is frequently applied statistical technique in longitudinal studies. LGM, unlike structural equation modelling (SEM), operationalizes intra-individual change by taking into account varying means of multi-wave data - the data collected in more than one time point among the same respondents. As discussed by Finch and Shim (2018) longitudinal data is important for observing over time change. However, as the authors suggested, to apply this approach the data should contain information at more than two time points. Likewise, Roemer (2016) also stated the use of growth rates of the indicators as appropriate if the data includes more than two time points. Similarly, Lee et al. (2019b) explained the necessity of the data with at least three points in time with the two central parameters of latent growth modelling – the intercept and the slope. As per Finch and Shim (2018), as well, in situations with only two data points growth curve modelling is not appropriate due to insufficient degrees of freedom. Further, as per Little, Deboeck, and Wu

(2015) research questions and the timing of the measurements are critical elements that need to be considered for the suitability of growth curve modelling.

Nevertheless, there are circumstances, such as resource scarcity, that limit data collection to two or even one time points. In the case of the current study the major obstacle of data collection was the characteristic of the destination – more closed to outsiders and where research is not in the central interest of the professionals. Furthermore, taking into account the characteristics of tours in the destination convenience was the main reason for the data collection intervals, because the data needed to be collected in the start and at the end of tours. Therefore, since the data was limited to two time points, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using SmartPLS 3 software was chosen as the most suitable technique to analyse the collected data. Besides, there are studies that have relied on PLS to analyse longitudinal data (Roemer, 2016). Johnson, Herrmann, and Huber (2006) and Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul, and Gremler (2006) analysed longitudinal data using the PLS methodology.

SmartPLS software has gained popularity in recent destination image studies (e.g., Akgün et al., 2020; Hasan Md et al., 2019a; Heydari Fard et al., 2019; Maghsoodi Tilaki et al., 2016; Permana, 2018; Rice & Khanin, 2019; Zhang et al., 2018a). do Valle and Assaker (2016) identified the main reasons for the use of the PLS-SEM as the application of the predictive focus (in 31 studies), small sample size (in 21 studies), normality concerns (in 21 studies) and the use of formative model (in 15 studies). To clarify, Mikulić and Ryan (2018) explained that with the reason that the tourists travel with expectations of satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction, it should not come as a surprise that data aiming to evaluate the experience is heavily skewed. Therefore, partial least squares structural equation modelling again comes handy by giving ease to regression-based assumptions. Further, Kock et al. (2016) justified their choice of PLSPM because of its ability to handle models that contain formative aspects. Indeed, the PLS-SEM would be appropriate in the application of formative constructs and complex models, since its important feature is the ability to integrate reflective and formative measures (do Valle & Assaker, 2016).

Similarly, the SmartPLS 3 was decided the most suitable to test the proposed theoretical path model because the data is limited to two time points and the path model of the current study contains a formative measure (page 238). Also, the scores for some variables are skewed and the sample size is relatively small (page 248).

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3.10Social desirability bias

To make the respondents comfortable to provide genuine answers to survey questions social desirability bias issues need to be addressed. Larson (2019) explained that this kind of bias occurs because of predefined socially preferred norms, and when the person answers the questions based on those norms, despite having beliefs opposite to those norms. In the case of the current research, for example, the respondents might overstate the destination as positive, maybe because of the respect to the residents.

Up to date some methods have been identified as effective to at least reduce this bias. Using anonymous, self-administered surveys, adding statements to encourage honesty by assuring confidentiality and neutralizing answers are some of these methods (Bäckström & Björklund, 2014; Dodou & de Winter, 2014; Larson, 2019). In order to reduce this bias current research also followed several measures. Firstly, international tourists are sample population of this research, and this itself is believed to have decrease social desirability bias. Next, the respondents were well reassured of the anonymity and confidentiality of the questionnaire, and a participant information sheet was included along with the questionnaire. Furthermore, the questionnaire was self-administered to assure anonymity, to increase carefulness and accuracy in responding. Also, sequence of the questions was considered in order to reduce the bias. For example, open-ended questions were asked before closed-end questions of destination image perceptions with the precaution of having the answers free from hints from the closed questions. Also, dependent and independent variables were positioned so that they do not appear in sequence.

3.11Structure of the questionnaires

As mentioned, two sets (pre- and post-visit) of self-administered questionnaires were developed (Appendices 1, 2). A pre-visit questionnaire consisted of 16 questions. The first three questions (i.e., Questions 1, 2 and 3) asked about types and frequency of information sources used and relevant importance of information sources. Questions 4 on environmental responsibility as a tourist was included for the purpose of common method bias. Question 5 consisted of the affective image scale. Questions 6 and 7 were open-ended questions; as suggested and implemented by Jenkins (1999) and Hsu, Wolfe, and Kang (2004) the open-ended questions were put before structured image questions to 'offer a spontaneous window

on the image held by tourists' (p. 8). Question 8 asked perceptions of overall image. Question 9 contained statements about cognitive image. Question 10 included motivational items to measure respondents' motivations to travel to the destination. Question 11 and 12 served for the screening purpose to enable exclusion of repeat visitors from the analysis and to select only the leisure travellers. Questions 13, 14, 15 and 16 were to identify gender, age group, country of residence and educational level, respectively. To sum up, the pre-visit questionnaire can be divided into 4 sections:

- Information sources and a marker variable questions 1 to 4;
- Destination image perceptions questions 5 to 9;
- Motivations question 10;
- Demographics questions 11 to 16.

The post-visit questionnaire contained 10 questions. Questions 1 to 5 repeated the destination image questions in the pre-visit questionnaire. Question 6 was on quality perceptions, while question 7 was on value perceptions. Question 8 asked to rate overall satisfaction with the trip experience. Question 9 captured the level of difference in the cultural perceptions in comparison of the respondent's home country and the tourist destination. The final question included the items on word-of-mouth intentions. So, to sum up following four sections can be differentiated in the post-visit questionnaire:

- Destination image perceptions questions 1 to 5;
- Evaluation outcome variables of perceived quality, perceived value and satisfaction questions 6, 7, 8;
- Cultural differences question 9;
- Future behavioural intentions question 10.

As discussed in the literature review chapter, it should be reminded that the variable quality was excluded from the analysis, as it appeared to test service quality, rather than experience quality. Major issue was that the measurement of quality is problematic in destination image area; some studies have used cognitive image items as a measure of quality, while others used service quality measures. As such, correct measure could not be found. Also, questions on familiarity (i.e., information sources), motivations and cultural differences had to be eliminated from further analysis. The purpose from these questions was to test for moderating effects, but it was not possible due to limited variance in the sample.

3.12 Measurements of the variables

The purpose of the current chapter is to present how the variables were measured in the questionnaires. Table 8 summarizes the measurement items and scales of the variables examined. Further, the measurement of each variable is discussed in more detail.

Based on the articles in several tourism journals (i.e., Journal of Travel Research, Tourism Management and Annals of Tourism Research) for the past ten years (Dolnicar & Grün, 2013) found that 89% of all empirical research on destination image used five- or seven-point Likert scales. Similarly, Hosany et al. (2006) confirmed five- or seven-point Likert-type semantic differential scales with structured research designs is dominant in destination image studies. Jenkins (1999), as well, identified the predominance of the structured method in destination research area which involves subjectively rating a priori list of items measured on a Likert-type and semantic differential scales. Following existing studies (Agapito et al., 2013; Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009; Chen Joseph & Gursoy, 2001) and for its established validity and reliability by previous studies (Chiu et al., 2016; Dolnicar & Grün, 2013) the Likert-type scale was applied for most of the variables, and were measured through a 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree) (Table 8).

Table 8 Conceptual constructs and their measurement

Constructs	Authors	Variables	Measurement
Cognitive image	Baloglu and McCleary (1999); Beerli and	It has interesting historical sites	A five-point Likert-
	Martín (2004); Chen and Phou (2013); Choi	It has beautiful architecture	type scale
	and Cai (2016); Eusébio and Vieira (2013);	It has unique customs and culture	(1=strongly disagree;
	Huang et al. (2013); Lai and Li (2012); Lee et	It has appealing local food	5=strongly agree)
	al. (2014a); Li and Stepchenkova (2012);	It has appealing lakes, mountains and deserts	
	Martín-Santana et al. (2017); Prayag and Ryan	It has unpolluted/unspoiled environment	
	(2012); Qu et al. (2011); Stylidis et al. (2016)	It has pleasant climate	
		It is not overcrowded	
		It offers good facilities for travel information	
		It has modern roads and airports	
		It has good standard hygiene and cleanliness	
		It is a safe destination to travel	
		Local people are hospitable and friendly	
Affective image	Baloglu et al. (2014); Baloglu and McCleary	Sleepy – arousing	A four-point bipolar
	(1999); Hosany et al. (2006); Lee et al.	Unpleasant – pleasant	scale
	(2012); Papadimitriou et al. (2015); Qu et al.	Gloomy – exciting	(Very much;
	(2011); Rodríguez Molina et al. (2013);	Distressing - relaxing	somewhat; neither;

much)
Bipolar scale
-

Perceived value	Chen and Tsai (2007); Palau-Saumell et al.	Trip in X is good value for my money	A five-point Likert-
	(2016)	Trip in X is good value for my time	type scale
		Trip in X is good value for my effort	(1=strongly disagree;
		Prices are low in X	5=strongly agree)
Overall satisfaction	Assaker and Hallak (2013); Baloglu et al.	Very unsatisfied	Bipolar scale
	(2004); Bigné et al. (2001); Chen and Tsai	Unsatisfied	
	(2007); Phillips et al. (2013); Stylidis et al.	Neutral	
	(2017a)	Satisfied	
		Very satisfied	
Word-of-mouth	Eid et al. (2019); Lee et al. (2005)	I would recommend X to family and friends	A five-point Likert
intentions		I would say positive things about X to others	scale
		I would recommend X to those who want	(1=not at all likely;
		advice	5=extremely likely)
3.12.1 Operationalization of the cognitive image

As stated in the above research methods section, research in destination image is wellestablished with tested scales of quantitative approach (Becken et al., 2017), and structured questionnaire is widely applied measurement of cognitive attributes (Pike & Kotsi, 2016). Nonetheless, an agreement over cognitive image measurement has yet to be achieved, whereas affective image measurement is consistent in most studies (Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009). This is still true despite destination studies practicing cognitive image measurement far before the introduction of affective image. Therefore, practicing different cognitive attributes of destinations is common in empirical studies, and the number of cognitive attributes used varies from study to study.

Again, as Eusébio and Vieira (2013) posited, the number and nature of the attributes of a destination varies for each destination. Most studies have used more than ten attributes, but there are also studies that used less than ten. For instance, Phillips et al. (2013) in their study of North Dakota, USA, used eight attributes, while Chiu et al. (2016) in their study of Korea's image used seven items to operationalize cognitive image. Also, there are studies that have taken less-attentive measuers. For example, Kim (2018) (on the impact of memorable tourism experiences on loyalty behaviors) used six items, Park et al. (2019) five items (i.e., good shopping facilities; beautiful nature; food diversity; good accommodation system; clen environment), Hasan Md et al. (2019a) four items (scenery and natural attractions; climate and weather; unpolluted and unspoiled environment; exciting and interesting place), Su et al. (2017), Whang et al. (2016) (i.e., historical monuments; historical buildings; exotic culture), and Prats et al. (2016) (transport infrastructure; tourist infrastructure; leisure and recreation possibilities) three items.

Although a standard scale might be preferable to generalize the findings, the existence of various tourism types (e.g., cultural, wetlands, religious) can explain the abundance of different items used in the measurement scale of each study. Also, as Crompton (1979, cited in Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000) noted, certain evaluation attributes , but not all attributes of image have impact on tourists' decision making. Above all, each tourism destination is unique (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003) because there always exist destination-specific attributes (Gallarza et al., 2002).

The empirical studies (e.g., Chiu et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2013; Stylidis et al., 2017b) still rely on existing literature to structure the attributes for measuring cognitive image and integrating several empirical studies to measure destination image is a common practice (Santana & Sevilha Gosling, 2018). At the same time, the characteristics of the destination should be considered. For this purpose, the studies usually seek expert opinions.

Following this practice, the first step was to identify universal attributes through literature review bearing in mind that the primary data collection context is a cultural toruistic destination. The items were derived from existing studies as shown in Table 9. The attributes were appropriate on the context of the destination under the research (i.e., Uzbekistan). Also, the attributes used in these studies are corresponding, and the studies are published in highly ranked journals (i.e., Annals of Tourism Research; Tourism Management; Journal of Travel Research).

Furthermore, the identified attributes from these studies are reported as frequently measured in the studies that provided a list of cognitive attributes adopted by majority of empirical studies (Assaker, 2014; Gallarza et al., 2002; Govers & F.M, 2003; Jenkins, 1999; Li et al., 2015; Stylidis et al., 2016; Yilmaz et al., 2009). For example, Jenkins (1999) identified attributes scenery, natural attractions, climate, friendliness and hospitality of local people have been used in 28 studies, while Gallarza et al. (2002) reported 16 attributes commonly used by destination image researchers. According to these studies, natural and cultural attractions, hospitality of locals, safety, climate are among the frequently measured attributes. Further, based on the analysis of user generated content Serna, Gerrikagoitia, and Alzua (2013) reported that among the dimensions included to capture destination image the dimension covering natural and cultural resources had a major effect in shaping cognitive destination image.

Next thing to note was that the attributes should not be limited to either functional or psychological characteristics. Echtner and Ritchie (2003) posited that the product information processing put forward by MacInnis and Price (1987) holds its application in the case of destination image processing in tourists. As per this notion, the product information is processed through a combination of discursive (i.e., attribute-based) and imagery (holistic) modes. With reference to this point and an examination of definitions of destination image, the authors postulated that destination image is the combination of three continuums within attribute and holistic impressions: functional-psychological, attribute-holistic, and common-

unique. The authors suggest being considered complete a destination image measurement should contain attributes and holistic impressions with both functional and psychological characteristics. This approach has gained its empirical support. Functional attributes are those that are easy to directly observe (e.g., weather, accommodation), while psychological attributes are relatively vague (e.g., safety, friendliness).

Having identified the frequently measured attributes, the second step was to identify destination-specific characteristics. For this purpose, the projected attributes were scrutinized through a review of information sources, such as websites of tour agencies in Uzbekistan. After that, the cognitive image items selected through the literature review for the application in the questionnaire have been compared with promoted images. Further, in preparation of the final version of the questionnaire the study relied on the experience from the piloting study and the advice of the practitioners (i.e., tour guides). As a result, the attributes selected for the final list of the cognitive image measurement comprised 13 items (Table 9).

To sum up, the process of constructing cognitive image measurement included creating the first list based on the frequently cited attributes from the empirical studies. After that the second list was prepated based on the promoted attributes of the destination. Based on the promoted images irrelevant attributes from the first list were deleted. Consequently, the final list was consisted of 26 items. However, after the piloting it was reduced to 13 items because based on the response rates and the practitioners' advice only most relevant items were maintained. The differences between the piloting and the end questionnaires are discussed later in this chapter (page 220).

Table 9 Sources of the cognitive image measurement

Authors	Items	Scale
Baloglu and McCleary (1999) Beerli and Martín (2004) Eusébio and Vieira (2013) Stylidis et al. (2016) Prayag and Ryan (2012) Martín- Santana et al. (2017) Li and Stepchenkova (2012) Lai and Li (2012) Lee et al. (2014a)	It has interesting historical sites	A 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree)
Stylidis et al. (2016) Choi and Cai (2016) Lai and Li (2016)	It has beautiful architecture	A 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree)
Baloglu and McCleary (1999) Beerli and Martín (2004) Chen and Phou (2013) Qu et al. (2011) Stylidis et al. (2016) Prayag and Ryan (2012) Li and Stepchenkova (2012) Lai and Li (2012) Lee et al. (2014a)	It has unique customs and culture	A 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree)
Baloglu and McCleary (1999) Qu et al. (2011) Stylidis et al. (2016) Martín-Santana et al. (2017) Huang et al. (2013)	It has appealing local food	

Beerli and Martín (2004) Chen and Phou (2013) Lai and Li (2012);	It has appealing lakes, mountains and	A 5-point Likert scale
Lee et al. (2014a)	deserts	(1=strongly disagree;
		5=strongly agree)
Baloglu and McCleary (1999) Qu et al. (2011) Martín-Santana et al.	It has unpolluted/unspoiled environment	A 5-point Likert scale
(2017) Lee et al. (2014a)		(1=strongly disagree;
		5=strongly agree)
Baloglu and McCleary (1999) Beerli and Martín (2004) Qu et al.	It has pleasant climate	A 5-point Likert scale
(2011) Martín-Santana et al. (2017) Lai and Li (2012)		(1=strongly disagree;
		5=strongly agree)
Beerli and Martín (2004) Lai and Li (2012)	It is not overcrowded	A 5-point Likert scale
		(1=strongly disagree;
		5=strongly agree)
Beerli and Martín (2004) Qu et al. (2011) Lai and Li (2012) Huang	It offers good facilities for travel	A 5-point Likert scale
et al. (2013)	information	(1=strongly disagree;
		5=strongly agree)
Beerli and Martín (2004) Martín-Santana et al. (2017) Lai and Li	It has modern roads and airports	A 5-point Likert scale
(2012) Huang et al. (2013)		(1=strongly disagree;
		5=strongly agree)

Baloglu and McCleary (1999) Beerli and Martín (2004) Stylidis et	It has good standard hygiene and	A 5-point Likert scale
al. (2016) Martín-Santana et al. (2017) (Lai & Li, 2012) Lee et al.	cleanliness	(1=strongly disagree;
(2014a)		5=strongly agree)
Baloglu and McCleary (1999) Beerli and Martín (2004) Chen and	It is a safe destination to travel	A 5-point Likert scale
Phou (2013) Qu et al. (2011) Lai and Li (2012) Lee et al. (2014a)		(1=strongly disagree;
		5=strongly agree)
Baloglu and McCleary (1999) Beerli and Martín (2004) Chen and	Local people are hospitable and friendly	A 5-point Likert scale
Phou (2013) Qu et al. (2011) Stylidis et al. (2016) Lai and Li (2012)		(1=strongly disagree;
Lee et al. (2014a)		5=strongly agree)

3.12.2 Operationalization of the affective image

As stated in the literature review chapter, in the scope of attitudes, affect is defined as feelings and emotions that an individual experiences towards the object – in this case, the destination (van Harreveld, Nohlen, & Schneider, 2015). Majority of the studies have adopted Russel, Ward and Pratt's (1981, cited in Becken et al., 2017) response-grid for the measurement of affective image. However, they differ in the importance that they give to the items in this scale; some using its two (Agapito et al., 2013; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Pike & Ryan, 2004), three (King et al., 2015) or all four items (Baloglu, 2001; Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; del Bosque & Martín, 2008; Hosany et al., 2006; Qu et al., 2011; Son & Pearce, 2005; Stylidis et al., 2017a). As per the discussion by Agapito et al. (2013) the rationale to use two dimensions instead of four is that the two scales serve as the main scales with their feature as a combination of the two others. However, as Baloglu and McCleary (1999) suggested the application of all the four items in the scale is a way to increase its reliability. Therefore, following the original scale, current study applied all four bipolar items (i.e., sleepy-arousing, distressing-relaxing, gloomy-exciting, unpleasant-pleasant) for the measurement of affective image.

3.12.3 Operationalization of the overall image

There exist two measures of overall image: calculating the average of attributes and directly determining the level of favourableness of overall image perceptions (Prayag, 2008). The former approach bears a risk of omitting some relevant attributes (Castro et al., 2007) and average of attribute scores is not equal to overall image (Stylidis et al., 2017b). Therefore, measuring overall image through levels of positive and negative perceptions has gained a wide application; it has been approached as a better technique for the inclusion of destination's all relevant attributes compared to calculating the sum of the attributes (Prayag, 2009). Furthermore, Bergkvist and Rossiter (2007) empirically showed no difference in the predictive validity of the multiple- and single-item measures, meaning that theoretical tests and empirical findings would be equal no matter if single- or multi-item measures were to be used, concluding that for many constructs in marketing a single-item measure are well suitable if the object under measure can be easily and uniformly imagined. Hence and following majority of the studies (e.g., Baloglu et al., 2014; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009; Bigné et al., 2001; Papadimitriou et al.,

2015; Prayag, 2009; Qu et al., 2011; Stylidis et al., 2017a), current study measured overall image perceptions on a single item 5-point scale (1=very unfavourable and 5=very favourable).

3.12.4 Open-ended questions of unique image

The application of structured-only questionnaires has been criticised to bear negative effect on the validity due to its risk to omit salient attributes specific to the destination (Pike & Kotsi, 2016). Therefore, Echtner and Ritchie (2003; 1993) proposed a mix of structured and non-structured survey methods as an imperative in order to capture the unique components. Since then, several studies have incorporated open-ended questions to identify unique features of the destination image (Choi et al., 1999; Huang et al., 2013; Iordanova, 2015; Li & Stepchenkova, 2012; Tasci et al., 2007). However, not all the studies adopted the three questions approach. Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008) applied the two open-ended questions of Echtner and Ritchie (2003). On the other hand, Sahin and Baloglu (2011) used two more questions in addition to the three.

Similarly, current study asked open-ended questions to identify unique features for the descriptive purposes, and to confirm the cognitive image measurement the study applied did not miss any important attributes. One out of three questions of Echtner and Ritchie (1993) was dropped out due to high non-response and highly matching in the piloting questionnaires; the piloting respondents repeatedly commented 'same as', 'as above' to question three or left it unanswered (details are included under 'The pilot testing'). First and second of the following questions by Echtner and Ritchie were directly adopted without modification:

- What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of X as a vacation destination? (functional holistic component)
- How would you describe the atmosphere or mood that you would expect to experience while visiting X? (psychological holistic component)
- Please list any distinctive or unique tourist attractions that you can think of in X. (unique component).

3.12.5 Operationalization of the perceived value

Despite often being recognized as a multidimensional concept value is mostly operationalized as a single-item scale through the quality received for the price paid, or as value for money

paid (Gallarza & Gil Saura, 2006). Nevertheless, authors in favour of a multi-dimensional construct of value affirm it is narrow and too simplistic accepting value as a trade-off between quality and price (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001), and thus, a single-item scale is not enough to capture the whole concept of perceived value. Moreover, measurement of its affective factors is equally important with measurement of its cognitive factors (Prebensen et al., 2012).

In agreement with advantages of measuring perceived value as a multi item construct, current study measured it through time value, money value and effort value, following Chen and Tsai (2007) and Palau-Saumell et al. (2016). Compared to overall measure of value this approach would prevent limiting value perceptions purely in monetary terms, because for a tourist – who is traveling far away from home destination, time and effort might be equally or even more important than money.

3.12.6 Operationalization of the overall satisfaction

Similar to overall image, satisfaction has a single item and attribute-based measurement. Nevertheless, overall satisfaction is the heavily applied approach. This is probably due to vagueness in attribute-based measurements. For example, to measure attribute satisfaction with the festival Pechlaner et al. (2013) used items like 'satisfaction with the variety of cultural offerings' and 'satisfaction with the information about cultural offerings. Next, Rice and Khanin (2019) measured attribute satisfaction with items such as environment, attractions, and activities. In other studies, these items are used as a measure of destination image. Similarly, Um et al. (2006) affirmed that the measurement of attribute satisfaction through the evaluation of destination attributes 'could not be regarded differently from quality of destination performance' (p. 1445).

Moreover, studies affirm that satisfaction with a specific attribute does not guarantee overall satisfaction (De Nisco et al., 2015). Therefore, overall satisfaction is a way to have an insight into a broader picture than the sum of attributes. According to Prayag (2009) global evaluations of overall image and overall satisfaction is adequate to understand the relationships of these constructs with other evaluation constructs. Indeed, the research by Chung and Petrick (2013) focused on investigating attribute and overall satisfaction and found that the sum of attribute-based satisfaction is not equal to overall satisfaction. Therefore, they concluded that overall satisfaction represents more than aggregate

satisfaction. Hence, a single item measure of satisfaction is a widely accepted approach in this study area (e.g., Assaker & Hallak, 2013; Baloglu et al., 2004; Bigné et al., 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Phillips et al., 2013; Suhartanto et al., 2016; Tang, 2014). Considering these points, current study conceptualized overall satisfaction is more than the sum of attribute satisfaction and measured overall satisfaction with a single item.

3.12.7 Operationalization of the word-of-mouth intentions

In the literature review chapter, it was argued that studies heavily concentrate on revisit intentions, and rarely measure word-of-mouth intentions as an independent variable. Several factors were discussed to stress the importance of word-of-mouth intentions. For example, tourists are mostly novelty seekers, especially, those that travel with cultural motivations to a destination like Uzbekistan – the destination that the current study chose for its primary data collection. Therefore, they tend to choose different destinations for their next travel. Easy access to information and online reviews is another reason that word-of-mouth probably deserves more attention.

Studies, again, differ in the number of items they chose to measure tourists' revisit intentions. The same applies to those that operationalized behavioural intentions through intentions to recommend. For example, Eid et al. (2019) used four items, Papadimitriou et al. (2018) three items, while Stylidis et al. (2017b) chose a single item measure.

Current study adopted a three-item measure of word-of-mouth on a 5-point scale (1=not at all likely and 5=extremely likely) (Eid et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2005).

3.13 Ethical considerations

In accordance with the ethical guidelines of the University of Salford an ethical approval was obtained from the Research, Innovation and Academic Engagement Ethical Approval Panel prior to commencing the data collection process (Appendix 3).

Conducting research requires to prioritise dignity of the participants. As such, the researcher was bound to follow certain ethical considerations since obtaining the primary data of the current study involved human subjects. Upon collecting the data, it was ensured that the participant is fully informed of the research purpose, the data collection process, and the ethical procedure that the study guaranteed to undertake. For this purpose, in approach to

every potential respondent the intention of inviting them to participate in the survey was expressed. If they agreed to spare a couple of minutes the explanation of ethical matters was followed. Firstly, the researcher and the University that reviews the study was introduced and their contact details revealed. Next, the purpose for conducting the survey (which is related to the research aim and objectives), the data collection points, the reason why the sample population chosen is international tourists in Uzbekistan were all revealed. Further, the ways that would be followed for maintaining the confidentiality and anonymity were explained, which included storage of the data in locked cabinets and on a password protected computer and the right to choose not to expose their names, but instead to use a research code. Moreover, average time that might be required was stated and the right to withdraw from the survey at any time was assured. Finally, it was explained that there is no foreseeable risk, except a possibility of failure of data collection. Also, a participation information sheet (Appendix 4), which stated these in written form, was handed in alongside with the questionnaire, and each questionnaire included a cover page with the research title, name and contact details of the researcher and the University.

3.14 The pilot testing

To test the validity and clarity of the survey questions, and to determine the best method to approach international tourists in Uzbekistan one-time point pilot testing was conducted with international tourists visiting Hast Imam Architectural Complex in Tashkent, Uzbekistan in April 2017. En-route survey collection method with actual tourists was chosen for its ability to reveal real challenges that might arise during the data collection, which was especially necessary for the destination like Uzbekistan where academic research with primary data collection in the destination has not been reported. Besides, on-site survey is a popular method in destination image research (Chiu et al., 2016; Noh & Vogt, 2013).

In total 152 tourists were approached, which resulted in 31 completed questionnaires. The piloting questionnaire was handed in together with a participant information sheet which ensured strict confidentiality and explained that participation in the survey is voluntary and that the respondent can pull out of it at any time. It also contained information on what the survey is about and the timing that might take to complete it (i.e., 15 minutes).

Several useful findings were obtained from the piloting process. Firstly, it revealed the difficulty of conducting on-site data collection in the selected destination, because the tourists

were mainly travelling in group tours and the tour leaders expressed their concern of approaching tourists in their groups. Secondly, the attempt to ask for respondents' emails for the follow-up post visit questionnaire was unsuccessful. Thirdly, the tourists complained about the length of the questionnaire and unsuitability of some questions for them since they are at the start of their tours. Fourthly, the questionnaires were considered time consuming by the respondents.

The piloting experience showed that tourists travel to the destination mostly in groups through tour agencies, and that reaching tourists directly was challenging. Therefore, travel agencies in Uzbekistan had been contacted for four weeks to request their assistance in conducting the survey with tourists for actual data collection. However, on receipt of the questionnaires they expressed disagreement about the length of the questionnaire.

Furthermore, the piloting test revealed the questions with low response rate. For example, non-response was high in questions like cognitive image and motivations. Also, the respondents gave the same answer or wrote down "see above", "same as" to open-ended questions. Table 10 and 11 present frequency analysis to open-ended questions performed on SPSS. As can be seen questions 'What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of Uzbekistan as a vacation destination?' (Table 10) and 'List any distinctive or unique tourist attractions that you can think of in Uzbekistan' (Table 11) were given same answers.

Table 10 Frequency analysis of the open-ended questions on images and characteristics of Uzbekistan

Table 11 Frequency analysis of the open-ended
question on unique image of Uzbekistan

Images and characteristics about Uzbekistan	Responses	
	N	%
Nice weather	1	2.0
Coran, mosques	2	3.9
Blue domes, couples, colours	3	5.9

Unique image of	Responses	
Uzbekistan	N	%
Coran	2	5.7
Architecture	1	2.9
Historic	1	2.9
Nature	1	2.9

Architecture	13	25.5	Samarkand	12	34.3
Clean public	11	21.6	Khiva	13	37.1
spaces, green					
spaces,					
Landscapes,					
Nature					
History, historical	7	13.7	Bukhara	5	14.3
place					
Samarkand,	2	3.9	Total	35	100
Samarkanda					
Cultural heritage	1	2.0			i
Interesting	3	5.9	-		
Friendly people	8	15.7			
Total	51	100			

As a result of the piloting process which revealed increase in non-response due to similarity in questions and scale items, and the strict request made by the travel agencies the questions had to be reviewed for possible amendments with precautions considering the frequency of use by other studies, relative importance and relevance in the study's context. The accuracy and structure of the questionnaire were also amended accordingly. Table 12 in the next page gives the content of the piloting questionnaire and implemented adjustments with the steps taken before applying the changes.

Question N	Final questionnaire	Changes applied	Construct
			measured
Q1. Have you heard/seen about	Have you heard or seen	The piloting results, information from the tour guides and	Type of
Uzbekistan from following	about Uzbekistan from	further review of online sources revealed the options not	information
information sources? (tick all	following information	relevant to the tourists to Uzbekistan. Therefore, the	sources
relevant)	sources? (tick all	answer options that were not relevant were excluded, and	
• Tour operators	relevant)	replaced with the one that are relevant	
• Brochures/travel guides	• Tour operators/travel		
• Direct mail from the	agents		
destination	• Brochures/travel guides		
• Travel agents	• Advertisements		
• Advertisements	• Articles//news/books		
• Airlines	Social media		
Articles/news	• Friends and family		
• Friends/family members			
Q2. How often have you seen,	No change implemented	·	Frequency of
heard or read information about			information
Uzbekistan?			sources
			1

Table 12 The piloting questionnaire and the changes implemented

• Never			
• Rarely			
Occasionally			
• Often			
Q3. Please indicate importance of	Please indicate	The reason in the above Q1 applies	Importance of
information sources in your travel	importance of these		information
destination choice. For each item	information sources in		sources
on the left tick one of the five	your travel destination		
categories (1=very important,	choice. For each item on		
5=not important)	the left tick one of the		
	five categories		
• Professional advice (tour			
operators, travel agents,	Professional advice		
airlines)	(tour operators, travel		
• Word-of-mouth (friends,	agents, airlines)		
relatives, social clubs)	• Friends and relatives		
• Advertisements (print or	• Advertisements		
broadcast media)	Books/news/movies		
Books/movies/news	• Social media		

Q4. Please indicate the extent of	Excluded from the final	Following the guidelines for common method bias by	Common
your agreement/disagreement for	questionnaire	Simmering, Fuller, Richardson, Ocal, and Atinc (2015) and	method bias
each item on the left. Tick one of		Siemsen, Roth, and Oliveira (2009) the piloting questions 4	
the five categories (1=Strongly		and 5 were included as marker variables to control for	
agree, 5=Strongly disagree)		common method bias. However, the response rates were	
• Generally speaking, the		very high for these questions. Besides, since the final pre and post visit questionnaires were ensured to be completed	
higher the price of the		from the same respondents, but in different time points	
product, the higher the		common method bias was not a threat. For these reasons	
quality		these questions were excluded from the final questionnaire	
• The old saying "you get			
what you pay for" is			
generally true			
• You always have to pay a			
bit more for the best			
• The price of a product is a			
good indicator of its			
quality			
Q5. Please indicate the extent of	The same as in Q4 applies		L
your agreement/disagreement for			
each item on the left. Tick one of			

the five categories (1=Strongly disagree, 5=Strongly agree)

- It is difficult for a visitor to behave in an environmentally responsible way
- When holidaying I give myself a break from being too strict on being careful environmentally
- I am responsible for my environmental behaviour even with limited choices, such as a tourist
- I continue vigilance about the environmental impact of my behaviour, when visiting another city

Q6. What images or	What images or	In the final questionnaire to facilitate comparisons it was	In accordance
characteristics come to mind	characteristics come to	asked to limit the answer to up to three words	with frequently
when you think of Uzbekistan as	mind when you think of		cited guidelines
a vacation destination?	Uzbekistan as a vacation		by Echtner and
	destination? Please		Ritchie (2003)
	describe your answer in		open-ended
	up to three words		questions were
			used to capture
			holistic and
			unique features
Q7. How would you describe the	How would you describe	As in the previous open-ended question it was asked to	The same in Q6
atmosphere or mood that you	the atmosphere or mood	limit the answer to up to three words	applies
would expect to experience while	that you would expect to		
visiting Uzbekistan?	experience while visiting		
	Uzbekistan? Please		
	describe your answer in		
	up to three words		

Q8. List any distinctive and	Excluded from the final	This is one of the three open-ended questions by Echtner and	Ritchie (2003)	
unique tourist attractions that you	questionnaire	that meant to capture holistic and unique images. In the piloting (Tables 1 and		
can think of in Uzbekistan		2), this gained low response and most responses contained co	omment "see	
		above". Similarly, Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008) also re-	eported that this	
		question in addition to other two open-ended questions were	responded as	
		"same as", "see above" comments. Therefore, taking into con	nsideration the	
		practicality this question was excluded in the final questionn	aire	
Q9. How important are the	How important are the	The piloting Q9 contained 14 items. It was reduced to 12 in	Motivations of	
following criteria in the choice of	following criteria in the	the final questionnaire. As a result of the piloting and the	tourists to	
your travel destination? For each	choice of your travel to	advice from the tour guides, irrelevant items were	Uzbekistan	
item on the left tick one of the	Uzbekistan?	removed, and wording was slightly amended. In		
five categories (1=Not important,		destination image studies, no study has used the same		
5=Very important)	• Experience cultures and	measure for tourists' motivations, since motivations of		
	ways of life	tourists change in accordance with characteristics of the		
• Experiencing new	• Experience different	destination		
cultures/ways of life	new places			
• Discovering different new	• Rest and relax			
places	• Take break from routine			
Developing close	• Interact with local			
friendships	people			

• Meeting people with	• Enjoy time with friends		
similar interests	who travel together		
• Rest and relaxation	• Enjoy peace and		
• Escaping from the routine	tranquillity		
• Seeking recreation and	• Enrich myself		
entertainment	intellectually		
• Going to places that	• Experience local food		
friends have not visited	• Experience unexpected		
• Getting away from crowd	• Have an adventure		
• Intellectual improvement	• Fulfil curiosity about		
• Attending cultural events	Uzbekistan		
• Alleviating stress and			
tension			
• Seeking adventure and			
pleasure			
Q10. Please indicate your opinion	Based on your	The final questions were adjusted in accordance with pre	Affective
on Uzbekistan as a travel	expectations from your	and post visit questionnaires, through words "expectations"	destination
destination (tick one)	visit, please tick one of	in the pre-visit and 'experience' in the post-visit	image
 Sleepy – arousing Distressing – relaxing 	the five categories on each item to indicate your	questionnaire	perceptions

Gloomy – exciting	opinion about Uzbekistan		
• Unpleasant – pleasant	as a travel destination		
	 Sleepy – arousing Unpleasant – pleasant Gloomy – exciting Distressing - relaxing 		
Q11. How would you describe	How would you describe	The pre visit question was adjusted with "before your	Overall
your overall image towards	your overall image	visit", and post visit question with "after your visit"	destination
Uzbekistan?	towards Uzbekistan	statements	image
• Very unfavourable	before your visit?		
• Unfavourable	Very unfavourable		
• Neutral	• Unfavourable		
• Favourable	• Neutral		
• Very favourable	• Favourable		
	• Very favourable		
Q12. On the left are statements	On the left are statements	The piloting question contained 26 statements, while it was	Cognitive
about Uzbekistan. Please indicate	about Uzbekistan. Please	13 in the final questionnaire.	destination
how you feel about each statement. Tick one of the five	indicate how you feel about each statement based on your	The reason for the change was the piloting results and advice from the tour guides. Not a single destination image	image

categories (1=Strongly agree,	expectations from your	study has used the same items since destinations differ	
5=Strongly disagree)	visit.	from each other. However, studies have identified mostly	
 5=Strongly disagree) It is a destination with strong oriental culture It has interesting historical sites and museums It has beautiful scenery It has beautiful architecture It has pleasant climate It is a sunny destination 	 It has interesting historical sites It has beautiful architecture It has unique customs and culture It has appealing local food It has appealing lakes, 	from each other. However, studies have identified mostly used destination image attributes (e.g., Gallarza et al., 2002; Govers & F.M, 2003; Madden et al., 2016; Yilmaz et al., 2009). Therefore, the items to be remained in the final questionnaire considered the mostly used items in other destination image studies, and the features of Uzbekistan based on online sources and the literature (Fayzullaev, Cassel, & Brandt, 2018).	
 It has appealing lakes, mountains and deserts It has unpolluted/unspoiled environment It is a restful and relaxing place It is an exotic destination 	 mountains and deserts It has unpolluted/unspoiled environment It has pleasant climate It is not overcrowded It offers good facilities for travel information It has modern roads and airports 		

• It is destination with	• It has good standard
unique customs and	hygiene and cleanliness
culture	• It is a safe destination to
• It is an urbanized	travel
destination	• Local people are
• It has interesting cultural	hospitable and friendly
attractions	
• It offers many events and	
attraction	
(fairs/exhibitions/festivals)
• It has convenient local	
transport	
• It offers good facilities for	
information/tours	
• It offers suitable	
accommodations	
• It is a holiday place for the	
family	
• Local people are	
hospitable and friendly	
• It has appealing local food	

• It has modern roads and			
airports			
• It has good standard			
hygiene and cleanliness			
• It is a safe destination to			
travel			
• It is not overcrowded			
• It is a good place for			
trekking			
• It is a destination with			
strong oriental culture			
Q13. Have you ever been to	Have you ever been to		To identify
Uzbekistan before? (tick one)	Uzbekistan before?		first-time
• Vas (plaase continue to	(please tick one)		tourists to
• Tes (please continue to			Uzbekistan
question 14)	• Yes		
• No (please proceed to	• No		
question 16)			
Q14. When did you last visit	Excluded because only the	first-time travellers were decided as sample population in acco	ordance with the
Uzbekistan?	study's aim		

Q15. How many times have you	Excluded. The same in Q14 applies		
been to Uzbekistan?			
016 Please indicate your gender	012 Vou are?		For descriptive
Q10. I lease indicate your gender			
• Male	• Male		anarysis
• Female	• Female		
Q17. Give your age on September	Q13. Please tick your age	Slight change in the wording of the question	For descriptive
2017	category as appropriate		analysis
- 19 24	- 19 04		
• 18 – 24	• 18 – 24		
• 25 - 34	• 25 - 34		
• 35-44	• 35 – 44		
• 45 – 54	• 45 - 54		
• 55 - 64	• 55 - 64		
• 65+	• 65+		
Q18. What is the highest level of	Q15. Please tick your	'No education' was excluded from the answer category in	For descriptive
education you have completed?	level of education	accordance with piloting results, and information from the	statistics
		tour guides	
No education	Grade school		
Grade school	High school		

• Higher school	Lower University
• Lower University degree	degree
• Higher University degree	Higher University
	degree
Q19. What is your nationality?	Excluded, instead only country of residency question remained to increase practicality
Q20. What is your country of	No change implemented
residency?	

CHAPTER 4 Uzbekistan – the data collection site

Tourist destinations can be in several forms, such as cities, towns and countries, as long as they offer touristic features (e.g., accessibility, infrastructure and attractions) (Madden et al., 2016). As per Zhang et al. (2016), country image has been studies in the marketing as a factor that is related to the products. Further, Palau-Saumell et al. (2016) empirically confirmed country and destination image as different constructs and that the former is an antecedent of the latter. Despite, countries as tourist destinations are in the centre of vast amount of studies. In fact, Pike (2011) identified countries as the most researched type of destination. Likewise, Li et al. (2015) provided a table of studies based on destination types examined and identified countries as the most frequently investigated geographical destination levels, followed by geographical regions and cities. Similarly, Zhang et al. (2016) gave a list of studies that measured the destination image in the country context, and defined destination-country image 'as tourist' impression of a given country as a tourist destination' (p. 818).

Similar to these studies, a tourist destination under this study is Uzbekistan – a country that attracts tourists because of its three main ancient cities (i.e., Bukhara, Khorezm and Samarkand) stretched alongside different parts of the country. Almost all the tourists' itineraries include trips to these cities which requires at least three days in total.

Tourism development is critical for countries in the state of transition (Zaman et al., 2017), which is identical to Uzbekistan. Therefore, it is not surprising that the role of tourism in Uzbekistan is being recognised by the government as one of the strategic pillars to the country's economy. This is reflected in the positioning strategies for enhancing the destination's attractiveness. Part of Uzbekistan's attempt to develop tourism is reflected in "Great Silk Road Seminar" in 1994 – 2500th anniversary of Bukhara and the Silk Road project (Airey & Shackley, 1997). A Presidential decree 'Measures towards the revival of international tourism in Uzbekistan' assigned in 1995 manifests some attempts towards creating productive conditions for the development of international tourism (Airey & Shackley, 1997). For instance, it seeks to reduce barriers of issuing visas to international tourists. Another decree to support private travel enterprises, specifically 'Services Industry Development Program' was assigned in 2007 (Alieva, 2010). Kantarci (2007) stated that in 2007 there were over 500 licensed tourism enterprises in Uzbekistan, while in 1995 this number was reported as 200 (Airey & Shackley, 1997). Recently, in July 2018 Uzbekistan

introduced e-visa system for 51 countries and a 5-day transit visa-free procedure for 101 countries (United Nations, 2018). Nevertheless, limited literature in tourism has been conducted on Central Asia regions, including Uzbekistan (Airey & Shackley, 1997; Lee et al., 2012), while Western destinations have been in the central interest of empirical studies (Josiassen et al., 2016b). To address this gap Uzbekistan was chosen as the data collection site to achieve the empirical objectives of the study.

Officially the Republic of Uzbekistan is located in Central Asia (CA), which is consisted of Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, and Turkmenistan – the five former Soviet republics (Lee et al., 2012). 'Uzbekistan occupies a dominant geographical, political, and cultural position in CA. It is home to CA's most productive agricultural fields, river valleys, and irrigated lowlands called Fergana Valley, which is considered a strategic place in CA' (Kantarci, 2007, p. 310). It is a presidential republic and comprises of twelve provinces and one autonomous republic. In 1924 the country obtained the title of Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic and in 1991, following the Soviet Union breakup, became an independent country: The Republic of Uzbekistan (Appendix 5).

The sources report Uzbekistan's great potential for the tourism industry with its rich historical sites (Kurzman, 1999) associated with its large number of unique natural, cultural and historical heritage sites (Bulai et al., 2016). Besides, international inbound tourism of Uzbekistan has well developed roots from soviet regime (Airey & Shackley, 1997). Therefore, it is not surprising that Uzbekistan (25%) comes as the second most popular Central Asia destination, after Kazakhstan (58.3%) (Kantarci, 2007). A significant potential for tourism in Uzbekistan is associated with its large number of unique natural, cultural and historical heritage sites (Bulai et al., 2016). Nevertheless, up to date no empirical study has been conducted on the destination image of Uzbekistan (Airey & Shackley, 1997; Lee et al., 2012).

According to the report by World Travel & Tourism Council (2018) total contribution of travel and tourism in Uzbekistan was 2.8% of GDP in 2017 and is forecasted to rise by 6.0% per annum by 2028. Moreover, as this data provides travel and tourism generated 98500 jobs in 2017, which was equal to 0.8% of total employment. Bulai et al. (2016) stated international visitation to Uzbekistan is strongly seasonal and the peak tourist season is between August – October. As per the authors, summer months June and July are unpopular for tourism because the country's weather temperature reaches 47 degrees Celsius. 'Cox & Kings saw a 163%

increase in passengers travelling to Uzbekistan in 2012 over 2011, and reports a 30% increase in bookings for its 2013 group trip' (Kellaway, 2013). According to the statistics by World Travel & Tourism Council (2018) international tourist arrivals was over 2 mln in 2018, and this number is expected to total 2,066,000 by 2028.

In general, Ramires et al. (2018) stated in recent years exponential growth in cultural motivations for travel has become the most prosperous. This is, as well, true in the case of Uzbekistan. Truly, in their survey of Mersin, Turkey residents Kantarci (2007) found cultural interest was the main travel motives to visit Central Asian countries. The culture and historical attractions of Uzbekistan have been admitted as its high potential for tourism development in international level (Airey & Shackley, 1997; Kantarci, 2007). Baxtishodovich, Suyunovich, and Kholiqulov (2017) reported the country has over 4000 historical and cultural monuments, with 140 of them listed in the UNESCO World Heritage List. Most importantly to the country's tourism are the ancient cities Bukhara, Samarkand, Khiva, and Shahrisabz which are the four cultural sites of Uzbekistan included on the World Heritage List (Mentges, 2012). As per Wu, Chen, Chen, and Cheng (2014) heritage image represents the temporal dimension in the tourist's impression of cultural heritage sites. Bui and Le (2016) explained that the sites of global importance are recognized as World Heritage Sites (WHS) by the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which leads the purpose to identify, promote, and protect unique cultural and natural sites. This title is proposed to call tourists' attention and affect their motivations to visit the site (Poria, Reichel, & Cohen, 2011). Although, in the case of tourists visiting Basilica of the Annunciation in Nazareth (Israel) the study by Poria et al. (2011) found having World Heritage title did not serve to attract tourists. Nevertheless, Ramires et al. (2018) stressed this title has a major impact on the flow of tourists. Empirically, Palau-Saumell et al. (2013) in the case of La Sagrada Família, Spain) demonstrated awareness that a site is listed as a UNESCO World Heritage Site has a positive moderating effect on tourists' emotions and their satisfaction with their experience. Further, scholarly articles consistently highlight Uzbekistan as the ancient Silk Route – the trade route between China and Europe. For example, relatively recent research identified the Silk Route as the centre of online discussion of travel to Uzbekistan (Baxtishodovich et al., 2017). The Silk Route has a twentyfive-century long history which served as a communication network and trade routes from Asia to Europe. As Lee et al. (2012) expressed, for almost two thousand years it has served an essential sea and land network of routes that facilitated exchange of not only commercial

goods, but also innovation, religion and philosophies among several nations in the East and West.

Besides scholarly sources, long-established sources such as guidebooks and more recent media forms like travel-blogs, were examined to gain experience-based insights of the images of Uzbekistan. While compared the consensus of information on the country's tourism resources provided in these sources and scholarly articles becomes evident. Although there are a number of tourism packages that are offered by the suppliers such as recreational tourism, ecotourism, ethnographical and adventure tourism, the main type that attract tourists remains as historical and cultural tourism (González-Rodríguez et al., 2016). Therefore, the cultural tour to ancient cities with historical buildings and monuments is the most amphasized one of all the referred categories. For example, the Lonely Planet's description of Uzbekistan includes general qualifications of the region as cultural and architectural with its ancient cities and the Silk Route (Lonely Planet, 2020).

4.1 Cultural sites of Uzbekistan

Four cultural cites of Uzbekistan are acknowledged on the World Heritage List: Bukhara, Samarkand, Khiva, and Shahrisabz (Mentges, 2012). The tourist perception of the site as world heritage is conceptualized based on studies in human geography and the geography of heritage, suggesting that the perception of a space affects visitation patterns as well as site experiences' (Poria et al., 2011, p. 484). Although, in the case of tourists visiting Basilica of the Annunciation in Nazareth (Israel) the study by Poria et al. (2011) indicated having World Heritage Title did not serve as a 'magnet for tourists' (p. 490), nevertheless, Ramires et al. (2018) stressed its major influence on increase in tourist arrivals. Palau-Saumell et al. (2013) also demonstrated awareness that a site is listed as a UNESCO World Heritage Site has a positive moderating effect on tourists' emotions and their satisfaction with their experience. So, having cultural sites recognized in the World Heritage List might be another indication for Uzbekistan's potential to develop as a tourism destination.

Bukhara is more than two thousand years old and is crossed along the Silk Road. Bukhara is stated as one of the best examples of well-presented Islamic cities of the 10th to 17th centuries (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2019). Among locals and in the Islamic world Bukhara is known as the birth-place of Imam Bukhari – 'one of the most distinguished scholars of Hadith in Islamic history' (Blake, 2017). Also, Bulai et al. (2016) in his study that

focused on 'Imam Al Bukhari Complex' in Samarkand emphasized great potential for the destination's religious tourism.

As the historical sources report, Samarkand was found in the 7th century B.C. as ancient Afrasiab. It reached significant advancement during the 14th and 15th centuries – the realm of Timurid sultans (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2017). The Registan mosque and madrasahs, the Shakhi-Zinda compound, the ensembles of Gur-Emir, and the Bibi-Khanum Mosque and Mausoleum are among major monuments in the city.

Khiva was the first to be listed in the World Heritage List in 1991. The records of Khiva go back to the 10th century. Khiva was divided into Ichan Kala (inner city) and Dishan Kala (outer city). 'Itchan Kala has a history that spans over two millennia' (UNESCO, 2019). Ruled by the dynasty of Genghisid Astrakhans it became the capital of the Khanate of Khiva in the 17th century.

CHAPTER 5 Data analysis

This chapter includes the discussion of the specification of the constructs, evaluation of the measurement model and the structural model, and the hypotheses testing results. The evaluation of the structural model comprised verification of the R^2 – the coefficients of determination, f² – an evaluation of the effect sizes, Q² – an evaluation of the predictive relevance, collinearity check, and the significance of the path coefficients.

5.1 Specification of the constructs

The model contains nine constructs, six of which are a multi-item and three single-item constructs. Specifically, the constructs are pre-visit cognitive image, pre-visit affective image, pre-visit overall image, post-visit cognitive image, post-visit affective image, post-visit overall image, perceived value, overall satisfaction and word-of-mouth intentions. Among these affective image, perceived value and word-of-mouth are reflective measures, indicated by the arrows from the constructs to the indicators. Cognitive image is a formatively measured construct with thirteen indicators. The rest of the constructs are operationalized by a single item for which distinction between formative and reflective measures is not applicable.

As per construct validity guidelines an initial step is specifying whether the construct is formative or reflective because incorrect specification exposes to the risk of Type I and Type II errors (Olaru & Hofacker, 2009). Besides, behind the concern of correctly conceptualizing the destination image are practical consequences for the management and marketing of the destination, since the decisions like identifying the focus, priorities and solutions for the destination management are determined by the scope and nature of the underlying concept (Pearce, 2014).

The concepts and guidelines are handy to decide which measure is appropriate for the construct under consideration. On the basis of the classical test theory, the reflective indicators reflect and depend on the underlying latent construct, and they represent a sample of all the items that might reflect the construct (Olaru & Hofacker, 2009). As such, this means that the indicators are manifestations of the construct (Bigovic & Prašnikar, 2015). In contrast, in the formative measure it is the combination of the indicators that establish the latent construct. Jarvis, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2003) provided a comprehensive

guideline to determine whether a construct should be modelled as formative or reflective. They note that based on classical test theory a construct is a function of the true score plus an error term, and a latent construct is assumed to cause observed variations in its measures, which is indeed appropriate in many instances. However, in other instances it is the measures that cause the latent construct, therefore direction of causality flowing from the measures to the latent construct. Another important nature of reflective indicators is that all the indicators are equally valid, and therefore an interchange between any two indicators is permissible. Consequently, this also means that removing a single indicator could lead to lower reliability estimates, such as Cronbach's alpha, but would not necessarily cause change in the construct validity. On the contrary, a formative construct assumes that each measure has a unique impact on the construct, and therefore dropping an indicator should be approached with caution. The criteria provided by the authors to specify the type of indicator measurement models is in Table 13, derived from the paper by Jarvis et al. (2003), and is presented with some modifications to keep it as simple and concise as possible through the main points.

	Formative model	Reflective model	Decision for the current study – is the
			construct formative or reflective?
1. Direction of causality from	Direction of causality is from	Direction of causality is from	Cognitive image: directions of causality is from
construct to measure implied	items to construct	construct to items	items to construct because items in different
by the conceptual definition			nature in combination are causing the construct
			Affective image: direction of causality is from
			construct to items because the underlying
			construct is causing the items
			Perceived value: direction of causality is from
			construct to items because the underlying
			construct is causing the items
			WOM: direction of causality is from construct to
			items because the underlying construct is
			causing the items
Are the indicators (items) (a)	Indicators are defining	Indicators are manifestations	Cognitive image: the indicators are defining
defining characteristics or (b)	characteristics of the	of the construct	characteristics of the construct. For example,
	construct		interesting historical sites and appealing local

Table 13 Decision rules for determining whether a construct is formative or reflective

manifestations of the			food are different in nature, but still both are
construct?			main attributes of destination image
			Affective image: the indicators are
			manifestations of the construct. For example,
			sleepy-arousing and gloomy-exciting are
			manifested by the underlying construct
			Perceived value: the indicators are
			manifestations of the construct. For example,
			value for effort and value for time are
			manifestations of the underlying construct
			WoM intentions: the indicators are
			manifestations of the construct. For example,
			recommend to family and friends and
			recommend to those who want advice are
			manifested by the underlying construct
Would changes in the	Changes in the indicators	Changes in the indicator	Cognitive image: Changes in the indicators can
indicators/items cause changes	should cause changes in the	should not cause changes in	cause changes in the construct
in the construct or not?	construct	the construct	

			Affective image: Changes in any of the
			indicators would not cause changes in the
			construct
			Perceived value: Changes in any of the
			indicators would not cause changes in the
			construct
			WOM: Changes in the indicator would not cause
			changes in the construct
Would shares in the construct	Changes in the construct do	Changes in the construct de	Cognitive images Change in the construct would
would changes in the construct	Changes in the construct do	Changes in the construct do	Cognitive image: Change in the construct would
cause changes in the	not cause changes in the	cause changes in the	not cause change in the indicators
indicators?	indicators	indicators	Affective image: Changes in the construct do
			cause changes in the indicators
			Perceived value: Changes in the construct do
			cause changes in the indicators
			WOM intentions: Changes in the construct do
			cause changes in the indicators
2. Interchangeability of the	Indicators need not be	Indicators should be	Cognitive image: The indicators are not
---------------------------------	-----------------------------	------------------------------	---
indicators/items	interchangeable	interchangeable	interchangeable. For example, beautiful
			architecture cannot be replaced by appealing
			local food because it is a unique attribute among
			the other measured attributes
			Affective image: the indicators can be
			interchanged. For example, sleepy-arousing can
			be replaced by gloomy-exciting
			Perceived value: the indicators can be
			interchanged. For example, value for effort and
			value for time allows to be replaced
			WOM: the indicators can be interchanged. For
			example, say positive to others and recommend
			to those who want advice allows to be replaced
Would dropping one of the	Dropping an indicator may	Dropping an indicator should	Cognitive image: dropping an indicator may
indicators alter the conceptual	alter the conceptual domain	not alter the conceptual	alter the conceptual domain of the construct
domain of the construct?	of the construct	domain of the construct	Affective image: dropping an indicator should
			not alter the conceptual domain of the construct

	Perceived value: dropping an indicator should
	not alter the conceptual domain of the construct
	WOM: dropping an indicator should not alter the
	conceptual domain of the construct

Source: Jarvis et al. (2003)

Destination image studies that apply reflective measures commonly use information reduction techniques as a preliminary data analysis step (e.g., Chen et al., 2016; Kim, Lehto, & Kandampully, 2019a; Papadimitriou et al., 2015; Stylidis et al., 2017b).

As Jarvis et al. (2003) reported, information reduction techniques, especially factor and principal component analysis, are implemented by the majority of tourism studies as a measure of destination image construct. This is also confirmed by the study of Hui and Wan (2003) which identified multidimensional scaling, principal component analysis and factor analysis as the most commonly used statistical procedures for measuring destination image. Similarly, Pike (2002) in his meta-analysis of 142 papers from the period 1973 to 2000 identified factor analysis as the most popular data analysis technique applying it for the analysis of cognitive component of destination image.

Mikulić and Ryan (2018) identified that out of 75 articles 66 (88%) operationalized destination image as a reflective construct, while only 3(0.4%) captured it as a formative construct, and the rest either used a single-item or simply did not model the destination image construct. However, Mikulić and Ryan (2018) argued that unless specified correctly, reflective approach can be problematic. Still, in many studies the specification errors are very evident. For example, Bigné Alcañiz et al. (2009) through confirmatory factor analysis verified the applicability of three components of the cognitive image and classified "good quality and infrastructure" and "unpolluted/unspoiled natural environment" under the same factor (Stylos & Andronikidis, 2013). However, there are few studies that have applied proper classifications. For example, EFA conducted by Santos Silva, Albayrak, Caber, and Moutinho (2016b) to determine destination attributes contains closely related items in each factor, such as comfort of local vehicles and frequency of transport services. Majority of studies, though, seem misinterpret measurement items under a reflective construct. As Santos Silva et al. (2016b) pointed out in order to achieve desired internal consistency misspecified as a reflective construct causes a drop-off of important indicators, despite the whole construct having satisfactory reliability and validity. For instance, a destination rich with cultural and historical sites would maintain more of its indicators and achieve a higher internal consistency value. On the other hand, using the identical indicators to measure perceptions of a destination with less cultural and historical sites would not fit the data well and would require removal of one or more of the indicators in order to achieve internal consistency, and thus resulting in 'forced internal consistency and construct reliability' (Mikulić & Ryan,

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2018, p. 467), as a result becoming the cause for other problems – a consensus upon measurement operationalization and replication of studies.

Although reflective measures are popular in destination image studies, in recent studies it has become noticeable that formative constructs are gaining more attention (e.g., Bigovic & Prašnikar, 2015; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2016). do Valle and Assaker (2016) reported that in tourism research studies involving formative measurement models are mostly published after 2012. After the discussion of the formative measurement issue in Annals of Tourism Research Prasnikar, Rajkovic, and Žabkar (2010) conceptualised perceived service quality as a formative latent construct. Also, the research paper by Žabkar et al. (2010) adopted 'a novel methodological approach in tourism research (p. 538) by operationalizing the perceived quality as a formative construct. It mentions that business research generally practices reflective measurement based on the classical test theory wherein the causality direction runs from the latent construct to its indicators and that recently some constructs have been recognized to be indeed a combination of its measures where the practice of applying reverse causality, wherein the causality runs from indicators to the latent construct, is the most appropriate.

Nevertheless, as accentuated by Kock et al. (2016) the crucial reason for the choice of formative construct is that reflective measure is not feasible for the measurement of destination image because the associations that individuals have of the destination are diverse and therefore is better incorporated by the formative approach. The authors measure destination imagery as a formative construct which is consisted of statements such *as everything is in order* and items *good infrastructure, friendly people, cold weather, rich culture,* etc. Most of these items are commonly measured as cognitive image items in other destination image studies. Further, Josiassen et al. (2016b) affirmed that the studies benefit from utilizing a higher-order formative construct approach to analyse destination image, because it is unlikely that an individual holds a schema of destination's elements reflecting an image held in the individual's mind which is utilized to efficiently make related decisions. Formative construct is formed from the individual's knowledge of destination's elements. In other words, it is unlikely that destination's attributes pre-exist in individuals' minds in the form of a schema since destination image is developed based on various sets of knowledge and elements.

Taking into consideration the aforementioned points that have received recent attention in destination image area current study attempted to apply the appropriate measure cognitive image as a formative measure and tested a combination of reflective-formative path model. Although it is impossible to identify every item relevant to the destination a number of studies have provided a review of mostly measured items which can be treated as the most important and unique items for capturing the image of the destination. Besides, to reduce the risk of omitting crucial touristic elements of the destination informational sources including promotional materials like websites of tour operators and travel agents (e.g., Advantour, Frontiers), and guidebooks (e.g., Lonely Planet) give attributes specific to the destination under question.

5.2 Missing values and distribution of the scores

Each item in the questionnaire was tested for missing values, normality and reliability assumptions. The test revealed relatively small (i.e., less than 5% missing per indicator) number of missing values in the dataset. In the case of less than 5% missing values per indicator Hair (2017) suggest the application of mean value replacement to treat the missing values. However, since the questionnaire consisted of Likert scale items replacement with a median of all nearby points has been preferred. For most Likert scale indicators, the kurtosis and skewness values are within the -1 and +1 acceptable range. The highest deviation from this range is for the indicator of post-visit affective image *unpleasant-pleasant* with a skewness value of -1.362 and a kurtosis value of 2.585. However, following Hair (2017) this deviation from acceptable range of skewness can be interpreted as not severe, and because these constructs are one of the four indicators measuring the post-visit affective construct, this deviation from normality is not considered an issue. Thus, the indicators should not be removed.

SmartPLS 3 enables basic data screening by providing descriptive statistics (e.g., mean, standard deviation and skewness). These are presented in the following Table 14.

Table 14 Descriptive statistics of the measures

Item	Missing	Mean	Median	Min	Max	Standard deviation	Excess Kurtosis	Skewness
Pre-visit Cognitive Image				-	1			
Interesting historical sites	0	4.567	5	3	5	0.598	0.115	-1.057
Beautiful architecture	0	4.404	4	3	5	0.622	-0.604	-0.55
Unique customs and culture	0	3.848	4	2	5	0.803	-0.825	-0.045
Appealing local food	0	3.455	3	2	5	0.842	-0.532	0.228
Appealing lakes, mountains and								
deserts	0	3.517	3	2	5	0.823	-0.542	0.312
Unspoiled environment	0	3.23	3	1	5	0.733	0.716	0.472
Pleasant climate	0	3.287	3	1	5	0.869	-0.455	0.132
Not overcrowded	0	3.567	4	1	5	0.771	0.612	-0.563
Facilities for travel information	0	3.298	3	2	5	0.818	-0.191	0.453
Modern roads and airports	0	3.208	3	1	5	0.739	0.226	-0.102
Good hygiene and cleanliness	0	3.157	3	1	5	0.755	0.359	-0.113
Safe destination	0	3.596	4	1	5	0.775	0.529	-0.323
Hospitable and friendly locals	0	4.129	4	3	5	0.779	-1.324	-0.231
Pre-visit Affective Image		1						
Sleepy – arousing	0	3.994	4	3	5	0.753	-1.238	0.009
Unpleasant – pleasant	0	4.056	4	3	5	0.777	-1.342	-0.098
Gloomy – exciting	0	4.079	4	2	5	0.775	-0.883	-0.284

Distressing – relaxing	0	3.708	4	2	5	0.737	-0.909	0.442
Pre-visit Overall Image	0	3.978	4	2	5	0.807	-0.846	-0.218
Post-visit Cognitive Image			1	1		1	•	
Interesting historical sites	0	4.719	5	4	5	0.449	-1.045	-0.983
Beautiful architecture	0	4.663	5	3	5	0.484	-0.913	-0.844
Unique customs and culture	0	4.348	4	3	5	0.611	-0.651	-0.371
Appealing local food	0	4.073	4	2	5	0.75	-0.46	-0.363
Appealing lakes, mountains and								
deserts	0	3.674	4	2	5	0.739	-0.868	0.521
Unspoiled environment	0	3.281	3	2	5	0.734	-0.28	0.103
Pleasant climate	0	3.691	4	2	5	0.906	-0.609	-0.354
Not overcrowded	0	4.073	4	2	5	0.757	0.443	-0.671
Facilities for travel information	0	3.399	3	2	5	0.83	-0.383	0.385
Modern roads and airports	0	3.124	3	1	5	0.859	-0.465	-0.027
Good hygiene and cleanliness	0	3.213	3	2	5	0.718	-0.57	-0.07
Safe destination	0	4.281	4	3	5	0.609	-0.595	-0.239
Hospitable and friendly locals	0	4.618	5	3	5	0.551	0.196	-1.09
Post-visit Affective Image	•	•						
Sleepy – arousing	0	4.393	5	2	5	0.721	-0.27	-0.846
Unpleasant – pleasant	0	4.444	5	1	5	0.711	2.585	-1.362
Gloomy – exciting	0	4.433	5	2	5	0.702	-0.02	-0.937

Distressing – relaxing	0	4.096	4	1	5	0.805	-0.131	-0.502
Post-visit Overall Image	0	4.612	5	3	5	0.552	0.131	-1.062
Hierarchical component model of	Cognitive	Image		•	•			-
				-				
Pre-visit cognitive image	0	0	-0.08	2.41	2.261	1	-0.435	0.106
				-				
Post-visit cognitive image	0	0	0.083	2.25	1.967	1	-0.777	-0.153
Perceived Value				1	•			-
Value for money	0	4.376	4	3	5	0.644	-0.644	-0.548
Value for time	0	4.388	4	2	5	0.663	0.633	-0.862
Value for effort	0	4.253	4	2	5	0.725	-0.636	-0.518
Prices are low	0	3.972	4	2	5	0.738	-0.718	-0.125
Overall Satisfaction	0	4.674	5	3	5	0.481	-0.798	-0.902
Word-of-mouth intentions	1	1		1				
Recommend to family and friends	0	4.618	5	3	5	0.53	-0.228	-0.941
Recommend to others	0	4.579	5	3	5	0.516	-1.121	-0.568
Recommend to those who want								
advice	0	4.539	5	3	5	0.552	-0.641	-0.662
Country of Residence	1	1	L			1		-
Germany	0	0.489	0	0	1	0.5	-2.021	0.045
France	0	0.399	0	0	1	0.49	-1.847	0.417

Switzerland	0	0.051	0	0	1	0.219	15.291	4.138
Austria	0	0.039	0	0	1	0.194	21.091	4.781
Belgium	0	0.022	0	0	1	0.148	40.691	6.499
Age Groups								
18-24	0	0.079	0	0	1	0.269	8.058	3.157
25-34	0	0.011	0	0	1	0.105	86.454	9.353
35-44	0	0.017	0	0	1	0.129	55.943	7.571
45-54	0	0.208	0	0	1	0.406	0.11	1.452
55-64	0	0.197	0	0	1	0.397	0.374	1.54
65+	0	0.489	0	0	1	0.5	-2.021	0.045
Education								
Grade School	0	0.084	0	0	1	0.278	7.193	3.019
High School	0	0.163	0	0	1	0.369	1.405	1.841
Lower University	0	0.213	0	0	1	0.41	-0.011	1.41
Higher University	0	0.539	1	0	1	0.498	-1.997	-0.159

5.3 Descriptive statistics

In Table 15 is the demographic profile of the respondents. The gender of the respondents was almost evenly distributed with 55.1% females and 44.9% males. As per the age of the respondents the majority (48.9%) were within 65 and older age brackets, followed by 45-54 (20.8%) and 55-64 (19.7%) age brackets, which allows to say that 89.4% of the respondents were aged 45 years or older. Majority of the respondents (75.2%) had a University degree, of which 53.9% were highly educated. A big proportion of the respondents were residents of France (48.9) and Germany (39.9%), with Switzerland, Austria and Belgium residents representing only 11.2% of the sample population.

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	98	55.1
Male	80	44.9
Total	178	100
Age category		
18-24	14	7.9
25-34	2	1.1
35-44	3	1.7
45-54	37	20.8
55-64	35	19.7
65+	87	48.9
Total	178	100
Education		1
Grade school	15	8.4
High school	29	16.3
Lower University degree	38	21.3
Higher University degree	96	53.9
Total	178	100
Country of residence	•	1
Germany	87	48.9
France	71	39.9

Table 15 Profile of the respondents

Switzerland	9	5.1
Austria	7	3.9
Belgium	4	2.2
Total	178	100

5.4 Paired t-test of the cognitive image items

To identify how the tourists rate the destination before and after their experience, statistical difference between pre- and post-visit perceptions of destination image items were tested using a paired-samples t-test. Table 16 contains mean difference of each pre- and post-visit items with its significance value.

Attribute	Pre-visit expectation mean	Post-visit performance mean	Paired correlations	Mean difference	p value
Cognitive image					
Historical sites	4.57	4.72	.321	152	.001
Beautiful architecture	4.40	4.66	.322	258	.000
Unique customs & culture	3.85	4.35	.485	500	.000
Appealing local food	3.46	4.07	.392	618	.000
Appealing lakes, mountains, deserts	3.52	3.67	.065	157	.052
Unpolluted environment	3.23	3.28	.245	051	.456
Pleasant climate	3.29	3.69	.370	404	.000
Not overcrowded	3.57	4.07	.324	506	.000
Good facilities for travel information	3.30	3.40	.627	101	.060
Modern roads & airports	3.21	3.12	.561	.084	.140
Good hygiene & cleanliness	3.16	3.21	.673	056	.212
Safe destination to travel	3.60	4.28	.169	685	.000
Hospitable & friendly local people	4.13	4.62	.167	489	.000
Affective image					
Sleepy-Arousing	3.99	4.39	.325	399	.000
Unpleasant-Pleasant	4.06	4.44	.280	388	.000

Table 16 Mean score differences between pre- and post-visit destination image

Gloomy-Exciting	4.08	4.43	.247	354	.000
Distressing-Relaxing	3.71	4.10	.217	388	.000
Overall image	3.98	4.61	.447	635	.000

As Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008) interpreted in their analysis, attributes are accounted as positively or negatively perceived according to their mean values; those higher than the neutral value '3' are positive, and less than the neutral value are negative. As the table shows, pre-visit expectations for the attributes hospitability and friendliness of locals, beautiful architecture, historical sites, and customs and culture indicated the most positive expectations. After the visit, these items remained to be the most positively perceived and with statistically significant increased positiveness than before the visit. So, positive disconfirmation of these items can be concluded. The highest difference between the expectations and performance perceptions occurred for the item 'safe destination to travel', with statistically significant -.685 mean difference; before the visit the mean for the item was 3.60, and after the visit it was 4.28. Similar statistically significant difference towards positive shift occurred for the items appealing local food, not overcrowded, and pleasant *climate*. Although, the expected mean was generally 3.5 for these items, after the visit it was 4.7, 4.7, and 3.69 respectively. Overall, the mean values of cognitive items indicate positive disconfirmation, with only three items with the mean value 4 and above before the visit, and seven items with the mean value 4 and above after the visit. However, lakes, mountains and deserts, good facilities for travel information, modern roads, hygiene & cleanliness, and unpolluted environment were given lower, nevertheless slightly above 3.00, mean scores in both pre- and post-visit survey.

As per affective image, all four items of affective image were positively perceived, with statistically significant increase in the positiveness after the trip. Positive perceptions of overall image also increased with statistically significant -.635 mean difference, so overall the respondents perceived the destination highly positive after their visit. Table 17 gives frequency analysis of the responses for the 'overall image'. As seen, before the trip most respondents (41.6%) perceived the destination overall favourable, while this has shifted towards very favourable (64.6%) after the trip.

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	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Pre-visit overall image		
Unfavourable	4	2.2
Neutral	48	27.0
Favourable	74	41.6
Very Favourable	52	29.2
Post-visit overall image		·
Neutral	6	3.4
Favourable	57	32.0
Very Favourable	115	64.6

Table 17 Frequency of overall image items

5.5 Open-ended questions

Following Jenkins (1999) the responses to the open-ended questions were coded into similar categories and frequencies of these categories were counted manually. Pre-visit and post-visit responses were grouped under the same title and contained the same or similar expressions under pre- and post-visit categories. As a result, 20 categories were generated, which is presented in Table 18. Following, Figure 1 is the plot of relative frequency of these categories in Table 18.

Pre-visit response	es	Post-visit responses			
Category	Freq.	Words included	Freq.	Words included	
General	53	Amazing, astonished,	44	Beautiful, beauty,	
impressions		beautiful, beauty, beautiful		exciting, enrichment,	
		sites, exciting,		interesting,	
		extraordinary travel,		impressions, joy,	
		favourable, good,		lively,	
		interesting, positive		nice, nice atmosphere,	
		surprising, pleasant,		super, so good,	
		surprized, serious, very		surprising, very good	
		nice			
Friendly locals	53	Atmosphere, friendship,	48	Friendly, friendly	
		friendly, friendly people,		people, hospitality,	
		good relationship with		hospitable people,	
		local people, hospitality,		people, relationships,	
		hospitable & frank people,		smile, welcome,	
		kind, kindness, kind		welcoming,	
		people, positive attitude,		welcoming people,	
		smile, super people, very			
		friendly, very kind people,			
		welcome, welcoming,			
		open-minded locals			
Historical	47	Historical sites, history,	39	History, historical,	
		historical people, historical		more history, remains	
		cities, incredible sites, rich		of the past	
		in history, rich history			
Architecture	38	Architecture, amazing	36	Arts, architecture,	
		architecture, buildings,		beautiful	
		extraordinary monuments,		monuments,	
		historical monuments,		monuments, old	

Table 18 Stereotypical image aspects identified through open-ended questions

		magic architecture,		architecture, oriental	
		monuments		architecture, old	
				monuments	
Culture	51	Beautiful culture, cultural,	50	Culture, cultural,	
		culture, customs,		traditional, tradition,	
		enchanting culture, old		traditions	
		culture,			
		rich culture, traditional,			
		traditional wears			
Exotic	33	Curiosity, different,	37	Curious, curiosity,	
		different scenery, different		different way of life,	
		way of life, discover,		discovery, discovered	
		discovery, diversified,		civilization,	
		exotic, experience, oriental		experience, exotic,	
		mood, originality,		language, oriental,	
		unexpected, unknown,		sweetness of the	
		unique		orient, unexpected	
				discovery, unknown	
				unknown civilization,	
				unusual	
Warm	11	Warm	7	Warm	
Food	8	Food, good food, special	0		
		food			
Bazar	0		7	Bazars	
Safe	7	Safe, safety, security	0		
Historical cities	17	Beautiful cities, Bukhara,	11	Bukhara, famous	
		Fergana, Khiva, Registan,		cities, Samarkand	
		Samarkand			
Hot weather	20	Dry, heat, hot, hot climate,	12	Dry, hot, hot weather,	
		sunny, sunshine, very hot,		sun, sunny	
		very hot climate			
Islamic	19	Beautiful madrasa,	23	Art, Islam, Islamic art,	
representation				Islamic culture,	

		Islam, Islamic art, Islamic		madrasa, moderated
		culture, madrasa, mosque		Islam, Muslim
				country, religion,
				religious
Relaxing	13	Calm, relaxing, relaxed,	7	Calm, relaxing, rest
		people without stress,		
		smooth life		
Scenery	11	Astonishing landscape,	27	Beautiful landscape,
		beautiful scenery, scenery,		beautiful nature,
		sites		desert, desert nature,
				landscape, landscapes,
				nature, scenery
Silk road	5	Silk Road	48	History of silk road,
				Silk Road, Silk street,
Clean	5	High standards, clean	7	Clean
Tamerlane	1	Tamerlane	5	Tamerlane
Negative		Crowded, dirty country,		Crowded, not women
association		dirty countryside,		friendly, poor,
		geopolitical, political		stressing, unorganized,
		regime, unorganized		under development
Other		Aral Sea, cotton, emerging		Asian, Central Asia,
		market, green cities, local		colours, crafts,
		Ikat, warm colours		emerging market,
				food, Oxus

5.6 Measurement model evaluation

The measurement model evaluation involved two stages. In the first stage the five reflective constructs were evaluated and in the second stage the two formative constructs were assessed.

5.6.1 Reflective model evaluation

The conceptual model of the study contains five reflective latent constructs: pre-visit affective image, post-visit affective image, perceived value, and word-of-mouth intentions. Like in CB-SEM, 'the most important measurement model metrics for PLS-SEM are reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity' (Hair, 2017).

Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were examined to evaluate internal consistency reliability, since the former is more conservative while latter is prone to overestimating (Hair, 2017). An initial step was to test for inner model outer loadings (Table 19). For the perceived value construct outer loading of the item 'low prices' was very low (.285), thus this item has been eliminated. The Cronbach's values were between .800 – .850. Composite reliability values were above .70 and below .90, which represent sufficient levels of reliability.

Items	Outer loadings					
Pre-visit affective image						
Sleepy-Arousing	.841					
Unpleasant-Pleasant	.833					
Gloomy-Exciting	.824					
Distressing-Relaxing	.796					
Post-visit affective image						
Sleepy-Arousing	.797					
Unpleasant-Pleasant	.806					
Gloomy-Exciting	.866					
Distressing-Relaxing	.698					
Perceived value						
Value for effort	.853					
Value for money	.888					
Value for time	.888					
Word-of-mouth (WOM)						
Recommend to friends & family	.830					
Recommend to others	.838					
Say positive	.866					

Table 19 Inner model outer loadings

Next step was to examine the convergent validity. Since reflective indicators should be interchangeable, convergent validity of a construct checks if each indicator highly and positively correlates with other indicators. Convergent validity was evaluated through an indicator reliability (i.e., outer loading²) and the average variance extracted (AVE). Standardized outer loadings of the reflective constructs were above the threshold value of .70 at a 0.01 p-value. This indicates sufficient level of indicator reliability (Hair, 2017). The exception was for the item *distressing-relaxing* of the post-affective image construct, with 0.487 (0.698²) indicator reliability. According to Hair (2017) 'indicators with outer loadings between .40 and .70 should be considered for removal only if the deletion leads to an increase in composite reliability and AVE above the suggested threshold value, (p.113). Since the composite reliability and AVE values were already above the threshold values, <.70 and <.50 respectively, the indicator distressing-relaxing was remained. The nature of the study, which is to measure pre- and post-visit destination image perceptions of the same sample, served as a rationale to remain this indicator. This allowed both pre-visit and post-visit affective images to contain the same indicators.

Table 20 Cronbach's Alpha (CA), Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance
Extracted (AVE) values of the reflective latent constructs

Construct	CA	CR	AVE
Pre-visit affective image	0.843	0.894	0.678
Post-visit affective image	0.803	0.872	0.630
Perceived value	0.850	0.909	0.768
WOM	0.800	0.882	0.714

As presented in Table 20 the Cronbach's alpha values for all reflective constructs were above the threshold value of .70. The composite reliability - a measure of internal consistency reliability, as well, was higher than the threshold value of .70 for each reflective construct. Likewise, all the reflective constructs met the requirement for the convergent validity with AVE values above the threshold value of .50.

The assessment of discriminant validity involves validating that the latent constructs are in fact measures of different concepts. The results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion assessment, a measure of the discriminant validity, indicated the reflective constructs are valid measures of unique concepts (Table 21). Specifically, it displayed that the square roots of the AVEs for

the four reflective constructs under the study were all higher than the correlations of these constructs with other latent variables in the path model. Hair (2017) suggest Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) as a more reliable criterion for the evaluation of discriminant validity. All HTMT values were far lower than the conservative threshold value of 0.85. The results of the bootstrap confidence interval obtained through the Complete Bootstrapping provided with the original HTMT values for each combination of constructs in the model, along with the average HTMT values from the bootstrap sampling. The confidence intervals for these values did not contain the value 1, confirming initially evaluated 0.85 threshold criterion for the model. Table 22 summarizes evaluation of the reflective constructs

	Overall	Perceived	Post-	Post-cognitive	Post-	Pre-	Pre-cognitive	Pre-	WOM
	satisfaction	value	affective	(hierarchical)	overall	affective	(hierarchical)	overall	
Overall satisfaction	1								
Perceived value	0.413	0.876							
Post-affective image	0.354	0.358	0.793						
Post-cognitive	0.45	0.558	0.496	1					
(hierarchical)									
Post-overall image	0.456	0.379	0.404	0.508	1				
Pre-affective image	0.289	0.259	0.339	0.465	0.427	0.824			
Pre-cognitive	0.353	0.404	0.393	0.731	0.441	0.541	1		
(hierarchical)									
Pre-overall image	0.198	0.387	0.391	0.487	0.447	0.413	0.576	1	
WOM intentions	0.432	0.236	0.17	0.146	0.113	0.148	0.157	0.043	0.845

Table 21 Discriminant validity	analysis based on Fornell-Larcker criterion
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Table 22 Summary of Reflective Construct Evaluation

		Convergent Validity			Internal Consistency		Discriminant	
							validity	
Latent	Indiactors	Loading	Indicator	AVE	Composite	Cronbach'	HTMT	
construct	Indicators		Reliability		Reliability	s	Confidence interval	
						Alpha	doesn't contain one?	
		>0.70	>0.50	>0.50	>0.70	>0.70		
Pre-visit	Sleepy – arousing	0.841	0.707					
affective	Unpleasant – pleasant	0.833	0.693	0.678	0.804	0.843	Vac	
image	Gloomy – exciting	0.824	0.679	0.078 0.094		0.045	105	
	Distressing – relaxing	0.796	0.633					
Post-visit	Sleepy – arousing	0.797	0.635					
affective	Unpleasant – pleasant	0.806	0.650	0.630	0.872	0.803	Ves	
image	Gloomy – exciting	0.866	0.750	0.050 0.072		0.005	105	
image	Distressing – relaxing	0.698	0.487					
Perceived	Value for effort	0.853	0.728					
value	Value for money	0.888	0.788	0.768	0.909	0.850	Yes	
value	Value for time	0.888	0.788	_				
	Recommend friends and family	0.830	0.689					
WOM	Recommend others	0.838	0.702	0.714	0.882	0.800	Yes	
	Say positive	0.866	0.750					

5.6.2 Formative model evaluation

Cognitive image of the destination is a formative measure with a thirteen-indicator latent construct, as discussed in page 207. Increased number of formative indicators reduce the value of outer weights, which might result in nonsignificant outer weights for one or more indicators. Creating a hierarchical component model is a way to overcome this potential issue (Becker, Klein, & Wetzels, 2012; Hair, 2017; Kuppelwieser & Sarstedt, 2014). Cognitive destination image was created as a higher-order component formed by three lower-order components: functional, psychological and mixed. The technique proposed by Echtner and Ritchie (2003) for the measurement of destination image has served as a significant contribution for the development of image scale in destination image research (Bornhorst, Brent Ritchie, & Sheehan, 2010). They structure destination image using three-continuums attribute-holistic, functional-psychological, and common-unique, and demonstrate their application through 35 attributes derived from destination image studies. Also, Gallarza et al. (2002) provided a table of mostly used common attributes in empirical studies allocating them in the sequence of functional-psychological continuum. For the current study their guidelines served as a reference to form a conceptually aligned lower-order formative components made up of cognitive image items grouped into functional, psychological and mixed continuums (Table 23). Functional component is made up of more tangible and easy to measure perceptions, such as accommodation and historical sites, while psychological component includes more abstract and intangible attributes (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003) (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993).

Functional Continuum	Attributes w/in middle	Psychological Continuum
Beautiful architecture	Crowdedness	Customs and culture
Climate	Environmental condition	Local food
Historical sites	Hygiene and cleanliness	Local people
Lakes, mountains and deserts	Safety	
Roads and airports	Travel information	

Table 23 Conceptual grouping of the cognitive image attributes

As per Hair (2017), assessment for the convergent validity is the first stage towards the evaluation of the formative measurement construct. Convergent validity assessment requires

including a global single-item measure of the construct in the questionnaire. The questionnaire for the current study did not include global item measures for the reflective constructs, limiting performance of redundancy analysis to test convergent validity.

The first step to examine formative indicators involved a collinearity check. Collinearity of formative indicators was evaluated through their VIF values. All the VIF values are above 0.20 and below 5 threshold levels (Hair, 2017). Therefore, it can be concluded that collinearity is not an issue since collinearity did not reach critical levels in any of the formative constructs. Next step was to check for the formative indicators' outer weights: their relative importance. The report obtained through the bootstrapping procedure displayed significant outer weights, at a level of 1% and 5%, for the formative indicators of the cognitive construct. 'Post-visit not crowded', 'post-visit appealing lakes, mountains and deserts', and 'pre-visit safe destination to travel' are the exception with non-significant outer weights. Table 24 displays outer weights and outer loadings of the formative indicators with their p-values. 'Nonsignificant indicator weights should not automatically be interpreted as indicating poor measurement model quality' (Hair, 2017). Therefore, next step involved checking value and significance of the outer loadings, their absolute contribution, for these three indicators. All the formative indicators display significant outer loadings. Furthermore, as discussed in the methodology chapter, these indicators were major facets of cognitive destination image. Consequently, these indicators were retained based on their significant outer loadings and their importance. So, the number of indicators for the cognitive image attribute remained thirteen.

Formative	Formative indicators	Outer	р	Outer	р
construct		weights	value	loadings	value
Pre-visit	Beautiful architecture	0.198	0.037	0.540	0.000
cognitive	Pleasant climate	0.373	0.000	0.716	0.000
image	Unique customs & culture	0.215	0.000	0.812	0.000
	Not overcrowded	0.263	0.011	0.596	0.000
	Unpolluted environment	0.388	0.000	0.653	0.000
	Good hygiene & cleanliness	0.313	0.023	0.783	0.000
	Historical sites	0.247	0.004	0.560	0.000
	Appealing local food	0.636	0.000	0.869	0.000
	Appealing lakes, mountains,	0.401	0.000	0.619	0.000
	deserts				
	Friendly local people	0.080	0.350	0.303	0.009
	Modern roads & airports	0.425	0.000	0.564	0.000
	Safe destination	0.165	0.089	0.423	0.000
	Travel information	0.379	0.000	0.725	0.000
Post-visit	Beautiful architecture	0.470	0.000	0.626	0.000
cognitive	Pleasant climate	0.380	0.000	0.566	0.000
image	Unique customs & culture	0.568	0.000	0.860	0.000
	Not overcrowded	0.068	0.400	0.229	0.033
	Unpolluted environment	0.296	0.008	0.727	0.000
	Good hygiene & cleanliness	0.248	0.036	0.678	0.000
	Historical sites	0.238	0.009	0.542	0.000
	Appealing local food	0.546	0.000	0.830	0.000
	Appealing lakes, mountains,	0.091	0.256	0.422	0.000
	deserts				
	Friendly local people	0.122	0.256	0.487	0.009
	Modern roads & airports	0.501	0.000	0.646	0.000
	Safe destination	0.599	0.000	0.774	0.000
	Travel information	0.213	0.037	0.647	0.000

Table 24 Formative Constructs Outer Weights/Outer Loadings Significance testing results

The analysis for the evaluation of reflective and formative indicators exhibited satisfactory level of quality, which allowed to proceed with the analysis of the structural model. However, the structural model needs to be examined for collinearity before proceeding to the structural model evaluation to ensure the path coefficients of the structural model contains no bias due to collinearity above critical levels between predictors. Above-mentioned threshold VIF values between 0.20 and 5 applies as critical levels of collinearity. Collinearity analysis results for the structural model exhibited satisfactory VIF values between each set of predictor constructs. Therefore, with a conclusion that there is no collinearity issue in the structural model, the next step was the evaluation of the structural model.

5.6.3 Structural model evaluation

Following Hair (2017) the evaluation of the structural model contained assessing the model's predictive capability and the relationships between the constructs. R^2 value represents the coefficient of determination which is a measure of the model's predictive power. In other words, it is the amount of variance in the endogenous variables explained by all its predictor constructs (Hair, 2017). Table 25 contains R^2 values of the endogenous latent variables. The rule of thumb, as per Henseler, Ringle Christian, and Sinkovics Rudolf (2009), 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 is considered as substantial, moderate, and weak relatively in PLS path models. Accordingly, R^2 for the word-of-mouth intentions and the pre-visit affective image is weak, while for the rest of the endogenous constructs it is moderate.

Endogenous construct	R ²
Pre-visit Affective Image	0.299
Pre-visit Overall Image	0.356
Post-visit Cognitive Image	0.534
Post-visit Affective Image	0.272
Post-visit Overall Image	0.327
Perceived Value	0.316
Overall Satisfaction	0.312
Word-of-mouth	0.199

Table 25 R² values of the endogenous latent constructs

Hair (2017) suggest eliminating evaluation of the model solely based on \mathbb{R}^2 value as this value is susceptible to the number of paths pointing towards the endogenous construct. Therefore, next step was the evaluation of an exogenous construct's contribution to an endogenous variable's \mathbb{R}^2 value. This evaluation is achieved by the f² value of the exogenous construct (on the endogenous construct). The guidance indicates 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 as small, medium, and large effect, respectively, of the exogenous construct on an endogenous construct.

Table 26 f² values

	Hypothesis	\mathbf{f}^2
H1a	Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit affective image	0.439
H1b	Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit affective image	0.208
H2a	Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image	0.280
H2b	Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit overall image	0.108
H3a	Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image	0.030
H3b	Post-visit affective image directly impacts the post-visit overall image	0.035
H4a	Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the perceived value	0.473
H4b	Post-visit affective image directly impacts the perceived value	0.026
H4c	Post-visit overall image directly impacts the perceived value	0.013
H5a	Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.040
H5b	Post-visit affective image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.022
H5c	Post-visit overall image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.095
H6	Perceived value directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.043
H7a	Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.012
H7b	Post-visit affective image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.002
H7c	Post-visit overall image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.013
H8	Perceived value directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.014
H9	Overall tourist satisfaction directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.249
H10a	Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit cognitive image	1.149
H10b	Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the post-visit affective image	0.029
H10c	Pre-visit overall image directly impacts the post-visit overall image	0.069

The f^2 values of statistically significant paths assist in understanding the relative impact of each exogenous construct on its associated endogenous construct. Table 26 shows f^2 effect size of the exogenous variables. The effect of cognitive image on affective image is large (f^2 =.415) prior to visit, while after the visit cognitive image bears medium effect on affective image (f^2 =.208). This might be due to the increase in the number of exogenous constructs as a result of the actual experience with the destination. Next, compared to affective image cognitive image has relatively more effect on overall image in both pre- and post-visit phases. With its f^2 of 0.287, cognitive image is of higher importance for determining perceived value, compared to affective image which has f^2 of only .026. The predictor variables of overall satisfaction, namely cognitive and overall image, and perceived value displayed small effect size. Lastly, overall satisfaction has moderate effect on word-of-mouth intentions.

Perceptions of the destination image components before the visit were hypothesized to effect on those of after the visit. As per the f^2 values, pre-visit cognitive image appears to have large effect on post-visit cognitive image ($f^2=1.149$) and has the largest f^2 compared to other image components, with pre-visit overall image having f^2 of .069 on post-visit overall image, and pre-visit affective image having f^2 of .024 on post-visit affective image.

To judge the predictive relevance of the path model, Stone-Geisser's Q^2 – out-of-sample predictive power of the model, should be examined in addition to the R² assessment (Hair, 2017). For the model to bear predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct Q^2 values should be larger than zero. So, the dependent construct's Q^2 value higher than zero allows to conclude that the model accurately predicts data that is not included in the model estimation. The blindfolding procedure was performed on SmartPLS3 to obtain Q^2 values of the endogenous constructs. The Q^2 values of all the endogenous constructs are considerably above zero (Table 27). So, it can be concluded that evaluation of the model's predictive power indicates a clear support for the model's predictive relevance regarding the endogenous latent constructs.

Table 27 Q² Values

Endogenous Latent Constructs	Q ²
Pre-visit Affective Image	0.181
Pre-visit Overall Image	0.326
Post-visit Overall Image	0.303
Post-visit Cognitive Image	0.523
Post-visit Affective Image	0.145
Perceived Value	0.232
Overall Satisfaction	0.263
Word-of-mouth	0.124

5.7 Path coefficient analysis

The bootstrapping procedure was performed with 5000 bootstrap samples to assess the significance of the path coefficients. The bootstrapping results showed that out of twenty-one hypothesized direct effects seven were insignificant, and that out of nine hypothesized indirect effects six were insignificant; these are given with their t-values in Table 28. Therefore, these direct paths were removed from the model, and the bootstrapping procedure was repeated with the remaining relationships in the model.

Hypothesis	t-value
H4b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts the perceived value	1.349
H4c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts the perceived value	1.315
H5b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	1.279
H7a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.983
H7b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.696
H7c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	1.573
H8: Perceived value directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	1.594

Table 28 Insignificant effects

As a result of the repeated bootstrapping, all the remaining fourteen direct effects were identified as significant. Table 29 displays the path coefficients, t-values and the significance levels of the direct and indirect effects that were confirmed as statistically significant. As the table shows, seven of the direct effects were significant at a p-value of less than 0.001, five of them were significant at a p-value of 0.005. However, the hypotheses H3b and H10b were significant at a p-value of 0.1.

Further, the hypothesized mediating effects were tested through the total indirect effects output of the Bootstrapping analysis. As shown in Table 29, the H11a, H12a and H12c that hypothesized indirect effects from the pre-visit to the post-visit evaluation outcome variables were confirmed as statistically significant.

Hair (2017) recommend relying on the bootstrap confidence intervals for significance testing. Generally, by examining more detailed overview of the results it is seen that the obtained bootstrap confidence intervals do not contain zero for any of the path coefficients. Table 29 Significance testing of the structural model path coefficients

	From	То	Std. beta	t value	p value	95% CI
H1a	Pre-visit cognitive image	Pre-visit affective image	0.544	9.117	0.000	[0.443; 0.628]
H1b	Post-visit cognitive image	Post-visit affective image	0.432	6.593	0.000	[0.317; 0.530]
H2a	Pre-visit cognitive image	Pre-visit overall image	0.496	7.899	0.000	[0.390; 0.600]
H2b	Post-visit cognitive image	Post-visit overall image	0.314	4.056	0.000	[0.197; 0.450]
H3a	Pre-visit affective image	Pre-visit overall image	0.149	2.140	0.032	[0.032; 0.249]
H3b	Post-visit affective image	Post-visit overall image	0.160	1.924	0.052	[0.019; 0.284]
H4a	Post-visit cognitive image	Perceived value	0.559	10.312	0.000	[0.457; 0.640]
H5a	Post-visit cognitive image	Overall satisfaction	0.197	2.171	0.025	[0.056; 0.344]
H5c	Post-visit overall image	Overall satisfaction	0.283	3.107	0.002	[0.129; 0.423]
H6	Perceived value	Overall satisfaction	0.195	2.733	0.006	[0.075; 0.311]
H9	Overall satisfaction	WOM intentions	0.437	6.571	0.000	[0.312; 0.534]
H10a	Pre-visit cognitive image	Post-visit cognitive image	0.730	19.439	0.000	[0.665; 0.787]
H10b	Pre-visit affective image	Post-visit affective image	0.144	1.891	0.059	[0.012; 0.251]
H10c	Pre-visit overall image	Post-visit overall image	0.231	2.745	0.006	[0.091; 0.367]
H11a	Pre-visit cognitive image	Perceived value	0.408	8.316	0.000	[0.322; 0.484]
H12a	Pre-visit cognitive image	Overall satisfaction	0.145	2.140	0.032	[0.038; 0.261]
H12c	Pre-visit overall image	Overall satisfaction	0.065	2.032	0.042	[0.000; 0.024]

To summarize, the study tested in total thirty hypotheses, of which seventeen were substantiated. The hypotheses testing is summarized in Table 30. Also, Figure 5 is the final bootstrapping results on SmartPLS. SmartPLS.

Specifically, the pre-visit cognitive image had statistically significant impact on the pre-visit affective image, thus supporting H1a ($\beta = .544$, p < 0.01).

The post-visit cognitive image had significant impact on the post-visit affective image, thus supporting H1b ($\beta = .432$, p < 0.01).

The pre-visit cognitive image had significant impact on the pre-visit overall image, thus supporting H2a ($\beta = .496$, p < 0.01).

The post-visit cognitive image had significant impact on the post-visit overall image, thus supporting H2b ($\beta = .317$, p < 0.01).

The pre-visit affective image had significant impact on the pre-visit overall image, thus supporting H3a ($\beta = .149$, p < 0.05).

The post-visit affective image had significant impact on the post-visit overall image, thus supporting H3b ($\beta = .160$, p < 0.1).

The post-visit cognitive image had significant impact on the perceived value, thus supporting H4a ($\beta = .559$, p < 0.01).

The impact of the post-visit affective image on the perceived value was not significant, thus H4b is not supported ($\beta = .103$).

The impact of the post-visit overall image on the perceived value was not significant, thus H4c is not supported ($\beta = .109$).

The post-visit cognitive image had significant impact on the overall satisfaction, thus supporting H5a ($\beta = .197$, p < 0.05).

The impact of the post-visit affective image on the overall satisfaction was not significant, thus H5b is not supported ($\beta = .101$).

The post-visit overall image had significant impact on the overall satisfaction, thus supporting H5c ($\beta = .238$, p < 0.01).

The perceived value had significant impact on the overall satisfaction, thus supporting H6 (β = .195, p < 0.01).

The impact of the post-visit cognitive image on the word-of-mouth intentions was not significant, thus H7a is not supported ($\beta = .17$).

The impact of the post-visit affective image on the word-of-mouth intentions was not significant, thus H7b is not supported ($\beta = .001$).

The impact of the post-visit overall image on the word-of-mouth intentions was not significant, thus H7c is not supported ($\beta = .035$).

The impact of the perceived value on the word-of-mouth intentions was not significant, thus H8 is not supported ($\beta = .026$).

The overall satisfaction had significant impact on the word-of-mouth intentions, thus supporting H9 (β = .437, p < 0.01).

The pre-visit cognitive image had significant impact on the post-visit cognitive image, thus supporting H10a ($\beta = .730$, p < 0.01).

The pre-visit affective image had significant impact on the post-visit affective image, thus supporting H10b (β = .144, p < 0.1).

The pre-visit overall image had significant impact on the post-visit overall image, thus supporting H10c (β = .231, p < 0.01).

The pre-visit cognitive image had significant indirect impact on the perceived value through post-visit cognitive image, thus supporting H11a ($\beta = .408$, p < 0.01).

The indirect impact of the pre-visit affective image on the perceived value through the postvisit affective image was not significant, thus H11b is not supported ($\beta = .013$).

The indirect impact of the pre-visit overall image on the perceived value through the postvisit overall image was not significant, thus H11c is not supported ($\beta = .025$). The pre-visit cognitive image had significant impact on the overall satisfaction, thus supporting H12a ($\beta = .145$, p < 0.05).

The indirect impact of the pre-visit affective image on the overall satisfaction through the post-visit affective image was not significant, thus H12b is not supported ($\beta = .003$).

The pre-visit overall image had significant indirect impact on the overall satisfaction through the post-visit overall image, thus supporting H12c ($\beta = .065$, p < 0.05).

The indirect impact of the pre-visit cognitive image on the word-of-mouth intentions through the post-visit cognitive image was not significant, thus H13a is not supported ($\beta = -.071$).

The indirect impact of the pre-visit affective image on the word-of-mouth intentions through the post-visit affective image was not significant, thus H13b is not supported ($\beta = .006$).

The indirect impact of the pre-visit overall image on the word-of-mouth intentions through the post-visit overall image was not significant, thus H13c is not supported ($\beta = -.027$).



Figure 6 SmartPLS 3 final bootstrapping modelling window

Notes: 'PreCog_Hierarch' ('PostCog_Hierarch') – the pre-visit (post-visit) cognitive image score obtained through hierarchical modelling; 'PreOI' (PostOI) – the pre-visit (post-visit) overall image; PV – the perceived value; OS – the overall satisfaction, WOM – the word-of-mouth intentions.

Table 30 Results of the hypotheses testing

Hypothesis	Std. Beta	Std. Error	t value	Result
H1a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit affective image	0.544	0.059	9.117***	Supported
H1b: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit affective image	0.432	0.066	6.593***	Supported
H2a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image	0.496	0.063	7.899***	Supported
H2b: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit overall image	0.317	0.078	4.056***	Supported
H3a: Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image	0.149	0.067	2.140**	Supported
H3b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts the post-visit overall image	0.160	0.081	1.924*	Supported
H4a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the perceived value	0.559	0.054	10.312***	Supported
H4b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts the perceived value	0.103	0.077	1.349	Not supported
H4c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts the perceived value	0.109	0.111	1.315	Not supported
H5a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.197	0.091	2.171**	Supported
H5b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.101	0.022	1.279	Not supported
H5c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.238***	0.090	3.107	Supported
H6: Perceived value directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.195	0.072	2.733***	Supported
H7a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.017	0.017	0.983	Not supported
H7b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.001	0.001	0.696	Not supported
H7c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.035	0.022	1.573	Not supported
H8: Perceived value directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.026	0.012	1.594	Not supported
H9: Overall tourist satisfaction directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.437	0.066	6.571***	Supported
H10a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit cognitive image	0.730	0.038	19.439***	Supported
H10b: Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the post-visit affective image	0.144	0.073	1.891*	Supported
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H10c: Pre-visit overall image directly impacts the post-visit overall image	0.231	0.084	2.745***	Supported
H11a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts the perceived value	0.408	0.049	8.316***	Supported
through post-visit cognitive image				
H11b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts the perceived value	0.013	0.011	0.970	Not supported
through post-visit affective image				
H11c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts the perceived value	0.025	0.023	1.097	Not supported
through post-visit overall image				
H12a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.145	0.068	2.140**	Supported
through the post-visit cognitive image				
H12b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.003	0.003	0.852	Not supported
through the post-visit affective image				
H12c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction	0.065	0.032	2.032**	Supported
through the post-visit overall image				
H13a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	-0.071	0.070	0.986	Not supported
through the post-visit cognitive image				
H13b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	0.006	0.004	0.539	Not supported
through the post-visit affective image				
H13c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions	-0.027	0.020	1.310	Not supported
through the post-visit overall image				

***p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.1

CHAPTER 6 Discussion of the findings

The aim of the study was: to establish the impact of pre-visit destination image perceptions on post-visit destination image perceptions and destination image evaluation outcome variables. The objectives were:

- to explore extent theories and empirical studies to establish pre- and post-visit destination image as an integrated process;
- to identify the destination image evaluation outcome variables;
- to develop a conceptual model that incorporates pre- and post-visit destination image and the destination image evaluation outcome variables;
- to validate the relationships in the conceptual model using longitudinal data.

The purpose of the previous chapters was to achieve the aim and objectives. Thereafter, the purpose of this chapter is to overview the findings based on the tested relationships in comparison with the prior research and the theoretical grounds. Where appropriate, the findings are discussed by comparing their relative effect in predicting the endogenous variable which can be implemented through the relative sized of the significant path relationships (Hair, 2017). Most importantly, the purpose is to interpret and highlight the importance of the major findings.

In light of the stage and the consistency theories, and the empirical findings that positive image change occurs after being at the destination, the study argued that the destination image should be conceptualized as a dynamic process and therefore, the impact of pre-visit destination image on post-visit experience consequences has to be established.

6.1 The antecedents of the affective image

H1a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit affective image (the standardized coefficient: 0.544***)

H1b: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit affective image (the standardized coefficient: 0.432***)

As discussed in the literature review, following the discussion that some attitudes are cognition-based (Lee, Martin, Thomas, Guillaume, & Maio, 2015) and because of the degree of involvement concept (Vaughn, 1986) the study took the stance that affection is a

consequence of cognition. Also, this choice was based on many empirical studies (e.g., Becken et al., 2017; Chiu et al., 2016; Fu et al., 2016; Kesić & Pavlic, 2011; Stylidis et al., 2017a; Tan & Wu, 2016). Indeed, through the hypotheses H1a and H3a, the study was able to confirm statistically significant impact of cognitive image on affective image. Besides, this impact was strong both in the pre and post stages. Also, in the pre-visit stage the precognitive image was the only antecedent of the pre affective image and explained almost 30% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.299$).

6.2 The antecedents of the overall image

H2a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image (the standardized coefficient: 0.496***)

H2b: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit overall image (the standardized coefficient: 0.317***)

H3a: Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the pre-visit overall image (the standardized coefficient: 0.149***)

H3b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts the post-visit overall image (the standardized coefficient: 0.160**)

Based on the attitude theory destination image was identified to comprise cognitive, affective and overall images. Further, following the empirical studies (Giraldi & Cesareo, 2014; Molinillo et al., 2018; Qu et al., 2011; Stylidis et al., 2017b; Wang & Hsu, 2010; Whang et al., 2016) the direct impact of each of these components on overall image was hypothesized.

As expected, the overall image was confirmed to be influenced by cognitive and affective images. The effect of cognitive image was significant at a p-value less than 0.01, while the effect of affective image was significant at a p-value of 0.05 in the pre-stage and at a p-value of 0.1 in the post-stage. Also, the results enabled to determine that cognitive image had the strongest effect on overall image both in the pre and post stages. While this is in line with some studies (Becken et al., 2017; Hallmann et al., 2015; Qu et al., 2011), it contradicts some other studies that found the impact of the affective image on overall image is greater than the cognitive image (Santana & Sevilha Gosling, 2018; Stylidis et al., 2017b).

Further, as per the results, in the pre-stage the cognitive image and affective image together explained 35% of the variance in the overall image. Also, in the post-stage the variance that

the two constructs explained in the overall image was almost the same (i.e., 33%). Therefore, it can be concluded that the two constructs together explained moderate variance in the overall image. Also, the path coefficient from cognitive to overall image appeared higher (0.495) in the pre-visit phase, while in the post visit phase it was relatively lower (0.321). This might be due to more complex nature of post-visit phase in which a tourist confronts with more variables.

6.3 The antecedents of the perceived value

H4a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts the perceived value (the standardized coefficient: 0.559***)
H4b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts the perceived value (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)
H4c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts the perceived value (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

The study tested direct impact of each image component on the perceived value. However, as per the results, the cognitive image was the only antecedent of the perceived value and appeared as a moderately strong predictor with the path coefficient value equal to 0.559 and explained 32% of the variance in the perceived value. As stated in the literature review, the studies have hypothesized impact of destination image in general on perceived value, and hence, not distinguished effect of each image component. Almost all of these studies found this effect as significant (e.g., Alamgir & Nedelea, 2016; Heydari Fard et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2013; Lban et al., 2015; Palau-Saumell et al., 2016; Phillips et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016a). Therefore, still, the results allow to support that in line with the empirical studies the impact of destination image on perceived value was confirmed.

6.4 The antecedents of the overall satisfaction

H5a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction (the standardized coefficient: 0.197**)

H5b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

H5c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction (the standardized coefficient: 0.283***)

H6: Perceived value directly impacts overall tourist satisfaction (the standardized coefficient: 0.195***)

Three exogenous variables were confirmed to have statistically significant effect on the overall satisfaction: cognitive image, affective image and perceived value. The effect of affective image was statistically insignificant. Relative importance of cognitive image and perceived value on overall satisfaction was almost the same because the path from the cognitive image was 0.197, while it was 0.195 from the perceived value. The overall image had relatively stronger effect with the path coefficient of 0.283; in general, it is still considered as small effect. Also, the three constructs jointly explained 31% of the variance in the overall satisfaction.

These findings agree with the literature because it confirmed that as visitors' perceptions of a destination improve, so does their satisfaction levels with their experience (Chiu et al., 2016; Mashwama et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2013). Also, the perceived value appears as an important predictor in the empirical studies by Akhoondnejad (2016), Bonnefoy-Claudet and Ghantous (2013), Hapsari et al. (2016), Kim et al. (2013), Moutinho et al. (2012) and Sun et al. (2013). However, there are studies that did not find impact of image as significant (e.g., del Bosque & Martín, 2008; Kim et al., 2013). Also, it contradicts the findings by Chiu et al. (2016) that identified affective image as critical in establishing tourist satisfaction, and the findings by Tavitiyaman and Qu (2013) that identified cognition as the main antecedent of satisfaction.

6.5 The antecedents of the word-of-mouth intentions

H7a: Post-visit cognitive image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

H7b: Post-visit affective image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

H7c: Post-visit overall image directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

H8: Perceived value directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

H9: Overall tourist satisfaction directly impacts word-of-mouth intentions (the standardized coefficient: 0.437***)

In the conceptual model the five constructs were set as predictors of the WOM intentions. Nevertheless, the impact of only overall satisfaction was significant. With the path coefficient of 0.438 it can be considered as a moderate predictor.

Although, the impact of destination image on behavioural intentions (i.e., revisit and recommend) is well-established in empirical studies, there are different findings when it comes to the impact of each component. Chew and Jahari (2014) confirmed the influence of both cognitive and affective images on behavioural intentions. In addition, Stylidis et al. (2017b) reported overall, cognitive and affective image each had influence on intentions to recommend. Agapito et al. (2013); Chiu et al. (2016); Whang et al. (2016) identified that only affective image was significant to impact the behavioural intentions. On the other hand, Jin et al. (2013) and Wang and Hsu (2010) found no significant relationship between destination image and loyalty. Therefore, the results are contradictory to these empirical studies. However, it is in line with several other studies. For example, Almeida-Santana and Moreno-Gil (2018), Fu et al. (2016), Prayag (2012), Wong et al. (2019) and Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar (2015) specifically pointed out that by forming positive cognitive image tourists express increased willingness to spread positive WOM. Also, Stylos et al. (2017) identified overall image as the direct antecedent of behavioural intentions.

Similar can be said about the findings on the relationships between perceived value and behavioural intentions. Many empirical findings confirm perceived value as recognized determinant of behavioural intentions (Akhoondnejad, 2015; Chen & Chen, 2010; Cheng & Lu, 2013; de Oliveira Santini et al., 2018; Dlačić et al., 2014; Kim, 2018; Kim & Park, 2017; Kim et al., 2013; Moutinho et al., 2012). However, like the current study, Akhoondnejad (2016), Palau-Saumell et al. (2016), Phillips et al. (2013) and Sun et al. (2013) did not confirm this relationship.

Probably the well-established antecedent of the behavioural intentions is overall satisfaction. For example, Akhoondnejad (2016); Antón et al. (2017); Bigovic and Prašnikar (2015); Cevdet Altunel and Erkurt (2015); Hall et al. (2017b); Jin et al. (2015); Kim (2018); Kim et al. (2013); Lee et al. (2019a); Lee and Hsu (2013); Martín-Santana et al. (2017); Moutinho et al. (2012); Prayag et al. (2017); Ribeiro et al. (2018); Stylidis et al. (2017a); Sun et al. (2013) are few of the studies that confirmed overall satisfaction as a strong determinant of behavioural intentions. In line with these studies, satisfaction is as an antecedent of WOM intentions with fairly strong effect of 0.437. So, in the analysis of the current study the overall satisfaction was the only direct antecedent of behavioural intentions.

6.6 Reasons to different findings in the literature

The studies on tourist behaviour replicate the exact relationships, such as the impact of destination image on tourist satisfaction. Nevertheless, the findings among the studies are sometimes contradictory. The same applies to the current study. As seen, the results of the analysis are similar to the findings in many empirical studies. However, it was also noted that the results differ with some of the studies. There are several assumptions that could explain this difference.

First, as explained by Cohen et al. (2014) the problem is that despite the replications the results are not comparable because of distinct tourist samples or destinations. Indeed, some empirical studies indicate the role of sample population. For example, Jin et al. (2015) found perceived value as a significant predictor of behavioural intentions for repeat visitors, but not for those who are visiting the destination for the first time. Second, as mentioned in the discussion of the overall satisfaction the attention should be paid on how the study operationalized the construct; Žabkar et al. (2010) indicated that insignificant results found in some studies might be due to operationalizing more than one construct using similar measures. Therefore, comparative discussion of the analysis should be approached with differences such as in measures and sample population. Third, Phillips et al. (2013) explained the lack of direct impact of destination image on behavioural intentions might be that some tourists are reluctant to share opinions. Also, there might be mediating effect, not direct effect as found in some studies satisfaction serves as a mediator in the effect of destination image on behavioural intentions (Bhat Suhail & Darzi Mushtaq, 2018; Liu et al., 2017; Su et al., 2017). Therefore, factors such as these should be considered while comparing the results among the studies.

6.7 The impact of pre-visit destination image on post-visit destination image

H10a: Pre-visit cognitive image directly impacts the post-visit cognitive image (the standardized coefficient: 0.730***)

H10b: Pre-visit affective image directly impacts the post-visit affective image (the standardized coefficient: 0.144*)

H10c: Pre-visit overall image directly impacts the post-visit overall image (the standardized coefficient: 0.231***)

The hypotheses H10a, H10b and H10c were proposed to fulfil part of the study's aim – to establish the impact of pre-visit destination image perceptions on post-visit destination image perceptions and destination image evaluation outcomes. The hypotheses proposed direct impact of each image component on its subsequent component based on the stage and consistency seeking theories and the nature of the constructs. All the three hypotheses were confirmed as statistically significant. To highlight, the relationship was strong for the cognitive image with the standardised path coefficient of 0.730 (H11a). The effects of the affective and overall images were also significant but relatively smaller (H11b, H11c).

In the literature review chapter it was discussed that the destination image is a dynamic structure because it is continuously evolving (Iordanova, 2017), and their past states dictate their future states (Gilbert et al., 2015). Primarily, the stage theories and the consistency seeking theories were identified to support the multi-stage property of destination image and the impact of pre-visit on post-visit consequences. The stage theory states the image develops before the trip and continues to modify at the destination (Kim et al., 2019b). On the other hand, the notion of the consistency seeking theories allows to assume that the post-visit perceptions are the result of the direct impact of the pre-visit perceptions. This is quite likely to apply to tourists because their decisions involve high commitment (Lin & Kuo, 2018). Next, this claim was empirically supported with the studies which found that the destination image perceptions become more positive after the travel experience (Akhoondnejad, 2015; Iordanova & Stylidis, 2019; Kim et al., 2009). Current study as well, can confirm that positive image change takes place after experiencing the destination.

However, taking a step further it confirmed direct impact of the pre-visit image on post-visit image. This finding is important to identify how significant the role of destination image shaped before experiencing the destination is in shaping the perceptions that tourists develop experiencing the destination. As the results show, the pre-visit cognitive, affective and overall images all played role in this process. Particularly, the impact of pre-visit cognitive image on post-visit cognitive image was the strongest of all, which has potential practical implications. Most importantly, these findings indicate that indeed the pre- and post-stages should be investigated in integration so that the predictive capability of the model increases and that the root cause of the outcome variables is properly addressed.

6.8 The indirect impacts of destination image on post-visit destination image evaluation outcomes

H11a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts the perceived value through the post-visit cognitive image (the standardized coefficient: 0.408***)

H11b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts the perceived value through the post-visit affective image (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

H11c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts the perceived value through the post-visit overall image (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

H12a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction through the post-visit cognitive image (the standardized coefficient: 0.145**)

H12b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction through the post-visit affective image (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

H12c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts overall tourist satisfaction through the postvisit overall image (the standardized coefficient: 0.065**)

H13a: Pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions through the post-visit cognitive image (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant) insignificant)

H13b: Pre-visit affective image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions through the post-visit affective image (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)
H13c: Pre-visit overall image indirectly impacts word-of-mouth intentions through the post-visit overall image (the standardized coefficient statistically insignificant)

Through the hypotheses H1a – H13c the study proposed indirect impact of the pre-visit destination image on the post-visit evaluation outcome constructs (i.e., perceived value, overall satisfaction and word-of-mouth intentions). The complexity of the conceptual model created a possibility to explore numerous mediating mechanisms but given the scope of the study these mediating effects were proposed based on the theoretical foundation of that the study is based on (i.e., stage and consistency seeking theories).

The pre-visit cognitive image indirectly impacted the perceived value through the post-visit cognitive image. Also, the pre-visit cognitive and overall images indirectly impacted the overall satisfaction through the post-visit cognitive and overall images. Although the pre-visit affective image had no direct impact on these outcome variables, generally it can be concluded that pre-visit destination image indirectly impacted the perceived value and overall satisfaction. However, the pre-visit destination image had no impact on the word of mouth intentions.

As discussed in the previous sections of this chapter, the post-cognitive image was the only dimension of destination image with direct impact on perceived value. Also, the post-cognitive and overall images, but not affective image, were direct antecedents of overall satisfaction. Given the characteristics of tourism it is recognized that a tourist shapes their perception based on the information they receive. This is confirmed through empirical evidence; it was seen that that pre and post stage studies repeatedly identified predominance of cognitions before visit, while affection was relatively salient. For example, Jani and Hwang (2011), and MacKay and McVetty (2002) reported before visits tourists primarily had cognitive image. These studies could assist in understanding the insignificant result of the path from the pre-affective image on the post-visit consequences.

However, the word-of-mouth intentions was not impacted by the post-visit destination image. This agreed with some of the studies, while at the same time contradicted with others. Possible reasons for the differences among the studies' findings were also reviewed. Therefore, the results of the indirect effects can be accepted as satisfactory. The most important finding from these indirect impacts is that, again, the pre-visit image is a construct that maintains its impact throughout the tourist's experience at the destination. Given the significant attention in the literature on destination image as the important antecedent of the destination image evaluation outcome variables, these results showed the need to focus on integrated conceptual models; the studies that test impact of image on tourists' post-visit

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behavioural intentions maybe benefit in better understanding this impact if the image is properly specified as 'post-visit image' instead of 'destination image'.

6.9 Findings of the destination image of Uzbekistan

Generally, the results confirmed that Uzbekistan is perceived as favourable cultural destination by the international tourists. The t-test findings identified that the historical sites, architecture and culture were highly positively rated in the pre and post visit questionnaires, and they were rated even higher after the visit. These three items represent the cultural features of the destination. Therefore, it can be concluded that the destination has an image as a cultural destination, which matches its promoted image.

Still the image perceptions were vaguer before the visit because the respondents had more holistic image of Uzbekistan as a cultural destination and used indistinct positive expressions like 'nice' and 'exciting', and more general expressions like 'history' and 'culture'. It is interesting that despite being promoted as a Silk Road destination, only after the visit more tourists knew the destination as a Silk Road. In the pre-visit phase only 5 respondents mentioned the Silk Road, though Uzbekistan comes in parallel with the Silk Road in the tourism promotional materials, while in the post-visit phase it was mentioned by 48 respondents, which might be due to enriched image by experiencing the routes of this ancient road which connected trade between the East and the West. This shows that promotion materials could be more influential in highlighting the uniqueness of Uzbekistan so that it becomes the premier attribute in the potential tourist's minds, because with its ability to create a competitive advantage 'a strong, unique image is the essence of destination positioning' (Qu et al., 2011, p. 466). Therefore, strong elements that uniquely differentiate a destination should be the first step of a positioning strategy.

In addition, there were certain factors that the tourists were indeterminant about. The results showed that the perceptions about some of these attributes improved after the visit. One of them is the safety of the destination, because before their visit they rated the safety attribute as neutral, while after the visit it received a positive shift. Also, the tourists were unsure about the food and the climate of the destination they were pleased about these attributes after their visit. Therefore, to encourage more certainty in potential tourists, it might be beneficial for the destination marketers to consider providing better insights into these features of the destination in their promotions.

On the opposite, perception of some attributes remained the same after the visit. Also, the tourists' expectations about the natural attractions of the destination did not change much after the visit. This might be due to the sample population of the study because their itinerary was along the cultural attractions. Further, the hygiene and cleanliness ratings pre visit was neutral and remained the same after the visit; this indicates the need for improvement because the tourists might have been sceptical to give negative ratings but instead rated the same neutral after their visit. These factors (i.e., cleanliness, infrastructure and unpolluted environment) received relatively lower scores in other studies as well (e.g., Kantarci, 2007; Yilmaz et al., 2009). However, in the importance-satisfaction study by Joppe, Martin, and Waalen (2001) cleanliness was rated as important by the tourists. Similarly, Lee and Lee (2009) found safety and cleanliness as the most salient attributes with effect on tourists' destination choices. Therefore, these factors might need to be handled carefully by the marketing parties while attracting new tourists. On the other hand, there are empirical findings that identified the most important factors that shape the destination image are historical and cultural heritage, restful atmosphere, shopping, and food (Aksoy & Kiyci, 2011). Therefore, another possibility is that how the attributes are perceived might be dependent on the nature of the attributes. For example, unique attributes with more tangible features like historical buildings might be expected to increase positive perceptions, while general attributes like cleanliness might not guarantee positive change.

Nevertheless, it can be concluded that the destination is quite successful in pleasing the tourists because the cognitive and affective image perceptions were mainly positive after the visit. More importantly, the overall image was positive in both phases, and more positive than pre-visit; most rated their overall perceptions of the destination as very favourable. Hall et al. (2017b) empirically confirmed that not every attribute is necessary to be satisfied with in order to achieve overall satisfaction and positive behavioural intentions. Likewise, although not all the attributes of image were perceived positive, overall image was perceived highly positive.

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Conclusion, Implications, Limitations

Conclusion

Overall, the study tested a conceptual model of pre-visit destination image – post-visit destination image – perceived value – overall satisfaction – word-of-mouth intentions. Therefore, generally, it can be concluded that the findings confirm the conceptual framework.

In the literature chapter it was discussed that the destination image is a dynamic structure because it is continuously evolving (Iordanova, 2017), and their past states dictate their future states (Gilbert et al., 2015). Primarily, the stage theories and the consistency seeking theories were identified to support the multi-stage property of destination image and the impact of pre-visit on post-visit consequences.

The stage theory stated the image develops before the trip and continues to modify at the destination (Kim et al., 2019b). When comparing the findings of this study with the stage theory, similarities and differences exist. Following the stage theory, the findings confirmed that the pre-visit destination image is the preceding stage of the post-visit image which together provide more complete picture of destination image. However, there are other stages in between the pre- and post-stages as per the stage theory. Nevertheless, as earlier stated, the stages and their sequence are not fixed. Besides, the literature indicated the pre- and post-stages as the most important in shaping the destination image. Therefore, considering the practical difficulties in testing the model based on the longitudinal data, the findings provided a valuable insight into examining the pre- and post-stages as a complex process.

Further, the concept of the consistency theories was applied to propose positive impact of pre-visit image on post-visit image and consequences. Particularly, this is quite likely to apply to tourists because their decisions involve high commitments (Lin & Kuo, 2018). Indeed, the pre-visit image maintained considerably significant direct impact on the post-visit image and positive indirect impact on the post-visit consequences through the post-visit image.

To conclude, the findings revealed the destination image develops in more than a single stage in which the stages are independent, and at the same time are integrated. The destination image developed before experiencing the destination is crucial because it continues to have its impact on the post-visit consequences.

Theoretical implications

Although extensive research has been carried out on destination image from the perspective of tourist perceptions and have made immense contributions, previous studies haven't yet explored the real impact of pre-visit image dimensions on post-visit image dimensions that then goes on to impact the visitor perceptions of satisfaction, value and word of mouth intentions. Firstly, the current study, using an appropriate longitudinal research design, shows that pre-visit image dimensions can positively impact post-visit image dimensions and then result in changing the tourist perceptions of destination image evaluation outcomes. The results from the empirical study find support to the tri-component model of destination image (ie. cognitive, affective and overall). This result therefore endorses conclusion from previous studies (eg. Lin et al, 2007; Stylidis, Shani and Belhassen, 2017 etc.) which recommend a tricomponent model of destination image. However, the study extends this model by identifying the pre-visit tri-component model as an antecedent to the post-visit tri-component model. The study also explores the mediating mechanism through which pre-visit destination image translates into the post-visit destination image evaluation outcomes. This result provides interesting insights into the image formation process and leads for future research studies. Therefore, theoretically, this study reveals the need to pay closer attention to the root cause of the consequences, and to be more specific so that the conceptual models adhere to the theoretical concepts, such as the stage and consistency theories, and that practical implications are directed more precisely.

Secondly, the study by employing a true-longitudinal design that measures destination image from the same respondents at two points in time fulfils the calls made in several previous studies (e.g., Eusébio & Vieira, 2013; Lee & Bai, 2016; Martín-Santana et al., 2017) for employing such longitudinal designs to understand the dynamic nature of destination image change.

Thirdly, the study finds the vital role played by cognitive image rather than affective or overall image in the final destination image formation process. While affective image and overall image perceptions do play a role, it is the cognitive image that is found to have the greatest and the most crucial impact in the image formation process. This result supports the

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findings from several previous studies where cognitive image is recognised as the most important component of the tri-component model.

Fourthly, in this study cognitive image is operationalised as a formative construct. This is a methodological contribution to the existing knowledge on cognitive destination image. While most previous studies have used an attribute based model for measuring cognitive image of a destination, the belief was that as a reflective construct, the cognitive image of a visitor will be reflected in the perception of each of the attributes used to form the cognitive image (e.g., Stylidis et al., 2017b). However, the current study proposes that the assessment/perception about each of the attributes contribute to form the cognitive image of a destination. Empirical proof for the measurement model therefore contributes to this debate and provokes a relook at the prevalent methodology to measure cognitive image.

To sum up, current study achieved to address, with empirical validation, several conceptual and methodological weaknesses in the area of destination image research.

Practical implications

Understanding how tourists evaluate and choose a destination is important for all tourism stakeholders; for destinations it means increased tourism and as such increased employment, for tourism firms it provides a key for strategic decisions such as where the business should be located, while for tourists themselves the results from deeper understanding of their choice behaviour provide with better fulfilment of their needs and wants by the destinations and tourism industries (Josiassen, Assaf, Woo, & Kock, 2016a).

From a practical standpoint, the study's managerial implication relates to the results which show the crucial role played by pre-visit image on the post-visit image formation process. The study shows that strong pre-visit image perceptions can impact the visitors image formation process through a consistency-motivation model. In this model, positive pre-visit image could persuade the visitor to frame the visit experiences in a positive way by possibly filtering off mild negative incidents or amplifying positive incidents. Thus, creating a strong positive destination image may actually be very beneficial for the destination marketing organisations. The study therefore recommend that; rather than a guarded promotion of the destination image in order to avoid any disconfirmation shocks destination marketing organisations will benefit more by projecting a strong positive image about the destination so

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that the visitors will in fact try to reinforce their pre-visit positive image perceptions throughout their visit. This is an important message that destination marketing organizations could adopt in their promotion and pre-visit communication to visitors.

Further, based on the consistency theories it confirms that once developed destination image before the visit bears its impact on tourists' evaluations of their experience and therefore, on their perceived value, satisfaction and word-of-mouth intentions – main factors that the practitioners strive to achieve. Therefore, again, this indicates that the practitioners should be cautious in their promotions and should strengthen the efforts of gaining the desired destination image perceptions in tourists before the visit to the destination. Practically, the study also identified the image of Uzbekistan as a tourist destination, which might be of interest to the tourism bodies of the destination.

Limitations

While the study adopted a paired data collection approach and followed the longitudinal research design methodology, there are still several methodological limitations that impact the generalisability of the study.

Firstly, the study collected the data in Uzbekistan through the tour guides, therefore the findings are limited to this context. Also, this meant that the perceptions of the sample population were limited to the experience that they were exposed to by the pre-determined tours. Besides, this also meant that the entire sample population experienced the destination from the same perspective. Therefore, these limitations should be considered in interpreting the findings.

Secondly, all the inherent limitations of a convenience sample are present in the study as well as the issue of a relatively small sample size. Thirdly, unlike previous studies the longitudinal data of this study was collected from international tourists arriving from different countries to increase heterogeneity in the sample. Still, the sample population was limited in number in each group, for example, by nationality and other factors. Therefore, it was not possible to test effects of possible moderators in the model.

Future research areas

Several topics arise to extend the conceptual framework of this study in the future research. Firstly, future research might consider extending longitudinal nature of the study by collecting data in more than two time periods. Secondly, in their longitudinal studies future studies could attempt to examine moderating effects like the culture and motivations. Thirdly, there is an opportunity for future research to take this study a step further by investigating the conceptual model through a comparative study.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 The pre-visit questionnaire

Pre-visit questionnaire

Destination image change in tourist subgroups: The case of Uzbekistan

The responses are treated with **strictest confidence** The questionnaire does **not** ask for any **personal details**

This questionnaire is designed for: **18 years and older first-time travellers** who are staying in Uzbekistan **more than one day** and **less than a year**

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Q1. (*Question 1 measured 'variety of information sources' for multigroup analysis*)

Have you heard or seen about Uzbekistan from following information sources? (tick all relevant)

□ Tour operator/ Travel agent	Articles/ News/ Books	Social Media
□ Advertisements	□ Brochures/ Travel guides	□ Friends and Family

Q2. (*Question 2 measured 'frequency of information sources' for multigroup analysis*)

How often have you seen, heard or read information about Uzbekistan?

 \Box Never \Box Rarely \Box Occasionally \Box Often

Q3. (Question 3 measured 'importance of information sources' for multigroup analysis)

Please indicate importance of these information sources in your travel destination choice. For each item on the left tick one of the five categories.

	Not	Slightly	Moderately	Important	Very
	important	important	important		important
Professional advice	1	2	3	4	5
(tour operators, travel agents, airlines)					
Advertisements	1	2	3	4	5
Social media	1	2	3	4	5
Books/movies/news	1	2	3	4	5
Friends and Relatives	1	2	3	4	5

Q4. (*Question 4 was included for the purpose of 'a marker variable'*)

Please indicate the extent of your agreement/disagreement for each item on the left.

	Strongly	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly
	disagree				agree
It is difficult for a visitor to behave in an	1	2	3	4	5
environmentally responsible way					
When holidaying I give myself a break from being too	1	2	3	4	5
strict on being environmentally careful					
I am responsible for my environmental behaviour even	1	2	3	4	5
with limited choices, such as a tourist					
While travelling abroad I continue vigilance about the	1	2	3	4	5
environmental impact of my behaviour					

Q5. (Question 5 measured 'pre-visit affective image')

Based on your expectations from your visit, please tick one of the five categories on each item to indicate your opinion about Uzbekistan as a travel destination.



Q6. (*Question 6 measured 'pre-visit functional holistic unique image'*)

What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of Uzbekistan as a vacation destination? *Please describe your answer in up to three words*.

Q7. (Question 7 measured 'pre-visit psychological holistic unique image')

How would you describe the atmosphere or mood that you would expect to experience while visiting Uzbekistan? Please describe your answer in up to three words.

Q8. (Question 8 measured 'pre-visit overall image')

How would you describe your overall image towards Uzbekistan before your visit?



Q9. (Question 9 measured 'pre-visit cognitive image')

On the left are statements about Uzbekistan. Please indicate how you feel about each statement based on your expectations from your visit.

	Strongly	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly
	disagree				agree
It has interesting historical sites	1	2	3	4	5
It has beautiful architecture	1	2	3	4	5
It has unique customs and culture	1	2	3	4	5
It has appealing local food	1	2	3	4	5
It has appealing lakes, mountains and deserts	1	2	3	4	5
It has unpolluted/unspoiled environment	1	2	3	4	5
It has pleasant climate	1	2	3	4	5
It is not overcrowded	1	2	3	4	5
It offers good facilities for travel information	1	2	3	4	5
It has modern roads and airports	1	2	3	4	5
It has good standard hygiene and cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5

It is a safe destination to travel	1	2	3	4	5
Local people are hospitable and friendly	1	2	3	4	5

Q10. (*Question 10 measured 'motivations' for multigroup analysis*)

How important are the following criteria in the choice of your travel to Uzbekistan?

	Not important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Important	Very important
Rest and relax	1	2	3	4	5
Take break from routine	1	2	3	4	5
Enjoy time with friends who travel together	1	2	3	4	5
Enjoy peace and tranquillity	1	2	3	4	5
Enrich myself intellectually	1	2	3	4	5
Experience cultures and ways of life	1	2	3	4	5
Experience different new places	1	2	3	4	5
Experience local food	1	2	3	4	5
Interact with local people	1	2	3	4	5
Experience unexpected	1	2	3	4	5
Have an adventure	1	2	3	4	5
Fulfil curiosity about Uzbekistan	1	2	3	4	5

Q11. Have you ever been to Uzbekistan before?

 $\Box \ Yes \quad \Box \ No$

Q12. You are travelling for? (*tick one*)

 \Box Business \Box Holidays \Box Other

Q13. You are? (tick one)

 \Box Male \Box Female

Q14. Please tick your age category as appropriate.

□ 18 - 24	□ 25 - 34	□ 35 – 44
□ 45 - 54	□ 55 - 64	□ 65+

Q15. What is your country of residence?

Q16. Please tick your level of education.

□ Grade School □ High School □ Lower University degree □ Higher University degree

THANK YOU!

If you are happy to be contacted by the researcher in the case of missing responses, please write down your e-mail address in **BLOCK CAPITALS**

Appendix 2 The post-visit questionnaire

Post — visit questionnaire

Destination image change in tourist subgroups: The case of Uzbekistan

The responses are treated with **strictest confidence** The questionnaire does **not** ask for any **personal details**

This questionnaire is designed for: **18 years and older first-time travellers** who are staying in Uzbekistan **more than one day** and **less than a year**

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Q1. (Question 1 measured 'post-visit cognitive image')

On the left are statements about Uzbekistan. Please tick one of the five answer categories to indicate how you feel about each statement based on your experiences from your visit.

	Strongly	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly
	disagree				agree
It has interesting historical sites	1	2	3	4	5
It has beautiful architecture	1	2	3	4	5
It has unique customs and culture	1	2	3	4	5
It has appealing local food	1	2	3	4	5
It has appealing lakes, mountains and deserts	1	2	3	4	5
It has unpolluted/unspoiled environment	1	2	3	4	5
It has pleasant climate	1	2	3	4	5
It is not overcrowded	1	2	3	4	5
It offers good facilities for travel information	1	2	3	4	5
It has modern roads and airports	1	2	3	4	5
It has good standard hygiene and cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5
It is a safe destination to travel	1	2	3	4	5
Local people are hospitable and friendly	1	2	3	4	5

Q2. (Question 2 measured 'post-visit overall image')

How would you describe your overall image towards Uzbekistan as a result of your visit?



Q3. (*Question 2 measured 'post-visit functional holistic unique image'*)

What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of Uzbekistan as a vacation destination? *Please describe your answer in up to three words.*

Q4. (*Question 4 measured 'post-visit psychological holistic unique image'*)

How would you describe the atmosphere or mood that you would expect to experience while visiting Uzbekistan? *Please describe your answer in up to three words*.

Q5. (*Question 5 measured 'post-visit affective image'*)

Please tick one of the five categories on each item to indicate your opinion about Uzbekistan as a travel destination.



Q6. (*Question 6 measured 'perceived value'*)

Please tick one of the five answer categories to indicate how you feel about each statement on the left based on your experience from your visit.

	Strongly	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly
	disagree				agree
Trip in Uzbekistan is good value for	1	2	3	4	5
money					
Trip in Uzbekistan is good value for my	1	2	3	4	5
time					
Trip in Uzbekistan is good value for my	1	2	3	4	5
effort					
Prices are low in Uzbekistan	1	2	3	4	5

Q7. (Question 7 measured 'perceived quality')

Please tick one of the five answer categories to indicate how you feel about each statement on the left based on your experience from your visit.

	Strongly	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly
	disagree				agree
Businesses in Uzbekistan offer timely services	1	2	3	4	5
Service providers in Uzbekistan are knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5
and skilful about their service offerings					
Service providers in Uzbekistan are friendly	1	2	3	4	5
Service providers in Uzbekistan are courteous and	1	2	3	4	5
polite					
Service providers in Uzbekistan are always willing to	1	2	3	4	5
help					

Q8. (Question 8 measured overall tourist satisfaction')

Overall, how satisfied are you with your stay in Uzbekistan?



Q9. (*Question 9 measured 'cultural differences' for multigroup analysis*)

Based on your experience, please indicate how different you found the items on the left in Uzbekistan from those in your home country?

	No difference	Slight	Moderate	Great	Extreme
		difference	difference	difference	difference
Food	1	2	3	4	5
Clothes (dressing style)	1	2	3	4	5
Architectural style	1	2	3	4	5
Lifestyle and customs	1	2	3	4	5

Q10. (Question 10 measured 'word-of-mouth intentions')

Please tick one of the five answer categories for each statement on the left.

	Definitely	Probably	May or	Probably	Definitely
	would not	would not	may not	would	would
I would recommend Uzbekistan to family and	1	2	3	4	5
friends					
I would say positive things about Uzbekistan to	1	2	3	4	5
other people					
I would recommend Uzbekistan to those who	1	2	3	4	5
want advice					

Appendix 3 Ethics approval letter



Research, Innovation and Academic Engagement Ethical Approval Panel

Research Centres Support Team G0.3 Joule House University of Salford M5 4WT

T +44(0)161 295 7012

www.salford.ac.uk/

5 April 2017

Dear Mamlakat Khudaykulova

<u>RE: ETHICS APPLICATION SBSR1617-20</u> TITLE : Destination image change in tourist subgroups: The case of Uzbekistan

Based on the information that you provided, I am pleased to inform you that your application SBSR1617-20 has been approved.

If there are any changes to the project or its methodology, please inform the Panel as soon as possible by contacting <u>SBS-ResearchEthics@salford.ac.uk</u>.

Yours sincerely,

Daviderey

Professor David F. Percy Chair of the Staff and Postgraduate Research Ethics Panel Salford Business School

Appendix 4 Participant information sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

Research title:

Destination image change in tourist subgroups: The case of Uzbekistan

Researchers' full name:

Mamlakat Khudaykulova

Dear Sir/Madam,

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study. Whether or not you take part is your choice. If you don't want to take part, you don't have to give a reason, and it won't affect the care you receive. If you do want to take part now, but change your mind later, you can pull out of the study at any time.

The questions ask you about your perceptions of Uzbekistan as a travel destination. Your answers would help to conduct analysis in my research, which in turn would make theoretical and practical contributions towards tourism research.

It should take you less than **15 minutes** to complete the questionnaire. All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept **strictly confidential**.

Please take time to read the information on the next page.

You are welcome to ask questions if anything you read is not clear or would like more information.

Thank you very much for giving some of your time to support this research.

Yours Sincerely,

Mrs Mamlakat Khudaykulova

Why are you conducting this survey?

This survey is conducted as part of a thesis towards a PhD degree. The purpose is to investigate change in destination image perceptions. To improve quality of results the study intends to collect pre- and post-visit questionnaires from the same pool of respondents.

Why have I been invited to participate?

As a first-time visitor to Uzbekistan you have been identified as a potential respondent to take part in this survey.

Am I required to take part in this survey?

Your participation in this survey is **voluntary.** You may choose not to take the survey, to stop responding at any time, or to skip any questions that you do not want to answer. You must be at least **18 years of age** to participate in this study. Your completion of the survey serves as your voluntary agreement to participate in this research project.

What happens to my answers?

Your answers are put together with the answers from other people and are not linked to your name. Your individual answers to the questions will be kept **confidential**; nobody will be able to identify you in any results that are published.

Your confidentiality will be safeguarded during and after the study:

- questionnaires are anonymous and will be given a research code, known only to the researcher;
- $\circ~$ electronic data will be held on a password protected computer accessed only by the researcher;
- any hardcopies of the data will be stored in a locked cabinet, within locked office, accessed only by the researcher.

Who has reviewed the study?

The research has been approved by the University Research Ethics Committee, University of Salford.

Risks

There are no foreseeable risks from participating in this study.

Contact for Further Information

If you need further information you are welcome to contact Mrs Mamlakat Khudaykulova on M.Khudaykulova@edu.salford.ac.uk or Professor Sunil Sahadev on S.Sahadev@salford.ac.uk

If you have any concerns about the way in which the study has been conducted, you should contact the Research Centre Support team on <u>SBS-ResearchEthics@salford.ac.uk</u>

Appendix 5 Uzbekistan map

Figure 7 Uzbekistan Map image



Source: Encyclopædia Britannica (2020)