

8-2018

Exploring Destination Image Themes on Twitter, Before, During, and After Terror Attacks in Paris: An Application of Agenda Setting Theory

Zeynep A. Gedikoglu

Clemson University, zgedikoglu@gmail.com

Follow this and additional works at: https://tigerprints.clemson.edu/all_dissertations

Recommended Citation

Gedikoglu, Zeynep A., "Exploring Destination Image Themes on Twitter, Before, During, and After Terror Attacks in Paris: An Application of Agenda Setting Theory" (2018). *All Dissertations*. 2217.

https://tigerprints.clemson.edu/all_dissertations/2217

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Dissertations at TigerPrints. It has been accepted for inclusion in All Dissertations by an authorized administrator of TigerPrints. For more information, please contact kokeefe@clemson.edu.

EXPLORING DESTINATION IMAGE THEMES ON TWITTER, BEFORE, DURING
AND AFTER 2015 TERROR ATTACKS IN PARIS: AN APPLICATION OF
AGENDA SETTING THEORY

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Parks, Recreation & Tourism Management

by
Zeynep A. Gedikoglu
August 2018

Accepted by:
Dr. Sheila J. Backman, Committee Chair
Dr. Joseph Mazer, Committee Chair
Dr. Kenneth F. Backman
Dr. Muzaffer Uysal

ABSTRACT

Paris, France is one of the most popular tourism destinations in the contemporary tourism industry. In November 2015, Paris experienced the deadliest terror attacks in its history. Newspapers and broadcast media spread the information through news, while masses have utilized social media to get instant information.

The main purpose of this study is to explore how the destination image of the capital of France, Paris, is affected by the terror crisis. The study has explored user-generated social media data before, during, and after the November 2015 terror attacks in Paris to understand factors of the destination image. Correspondingly, by accessing online communication data, the study has explored agenda setters of the destination. Additionally, this research has gone one step further by utilizing destination image themes found in online communication, to look at the effects of time on sentiments towards a destination.

Exploring perceptions of destination image through social media communication is a novel approach in tourism research. This research may enable tourism players to better understand destinations' tourism products. As well, this perspective may help destination marketers in the future to overcome shifts in brand image during a terror crisis by understanding the relationship between sentiments towards destination image themes with respect to time. In sum, this study has stimulated better planning for sustainable brand image in tourism practices as an exemplary model for any destination. The study has been conducted using unstructured social media data and sequential mixed methods research design. First step was qualitative analysis using NVivo software, to understand the destination image themes. Second step was quantitative analysis of variables using SPSS software.

DEDICATION

Not only throughout my graduate study, but even during the time I have started to dream of a PhD degree, my family has stood by me with their continuous encouragement, support, and respect for my undertaking. There are a few individuals that I owe sincere gratitude for their encouragement and support.

I am forever grateful to my husband Yaman Gedikoglu, who generously supported my education all through our marriage and whose regard for education continues to inspire me. I would like to thank him for putting up with me all through the most important period of my graduate career, his patience, and boundless faith in me. I could not have completed this dissertation without the serenity that he brought into my life. He deserves the utmost recognition for supporting me to seek the profession that I would be happy in. All through the years, he has supported me in every step of the way and thus gave me the opportunity to pursue my dreams, that I dedicate this dissertation.

My son Kaya, who put up with his mother's extended work hours, was my source of energy during this time. Through his inspiring questions, continuous wonder, curiosity and appreciation, I felt even stronger and motivated to pursue my degree. I am blessed to have him by my side. I know that he understands and takes pride in his crucial role in the completion of this project which I hope will influence his future academic life positively.

I also would like to thank two people: my aunt Seden Koc and uncle Kaan Tulbentci, who have been there for me all through these years, for boosting my morale and being there to share my enthusiasm on the long path from commencement to completion

of this dissertation. I would like to thank them for sharing their time, advice and help whenever I needed it.

I believe that I inherited my search for perfectionism and self-discipline traits from my mother, Gulden Koc. Even though she lives far away on another continent, her felicitating attitude towards all of my accomplishments, even the smallest ones throughout the process of completion this dissertation has provided me an unimpressionable trust and even more vitality to go forward.

Last, but not least, ever since I can remember, my parents have put an incredible effort into providing me with the best possible education so that I could one day stand on my own two feet. It is to my parents, who have provided me the best possible education since my childhood, who have prepared me to pursue a graduate degree. The commencement and completion of this dissertation would not have been possible without the foresight, prudence, and endeavor of my parents to whom I would like to express my sincere appreciation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I owe the deepest gratitude to my advisor, Sheila Backman, who enthusiastically welcomed me into the captivating world of Tourism & Travel when I was just an ‘outsider’ to the field coming from a different social science background. From the conception of my research question to the completion of this dissertation, her constructive criticisms and comments motivated me to perform beyond what I imagined was possible. I was fortunate to learn from her profound knowledge and intellect and I will always think of her as my mentor. I would like to express my sincere appreciation to her for recognizing my enthusiasm for academia. Without her reinforcement, I probably would not have even considered pursuing this path.

Secondly, I am fortunate to have three outstanding scholars as my committee members. I would like to thank Joseph Mazer, the co-chair of my dissertation committee at Clemson University. Beyond being a member of my dissertation committee, he was an advisor and mentor all through my research in communication studies for my dissertation. My research and writing were generously supported by the Social Media Listening Center (SMLC) at Clemson University and I can’t thank him enough for his continuous support as the coordinator of the SMLC. I was fortunate to have a him as a reinforcement whenever I needed wisdom from a scholar. Even before the conception of my research question, his approach to my problem statement has motivated me to perform beyond what I imagined was possible.

I would like to express my gratitude to Kenneth Backman, my dissertation committee member who has listened patiently to my endless questions every time I knocked on his door. I am grateful for his continuous support, his constructive criticism, and his positive attitude at all times. His critical thinking and questions have enabled me

to think outside of the box and come up with novel ideas for this research and for future research questions as well.

Additionally, I would like to thank Muzaffer Uysal, who agreed to be a member of my dissertation committee even though he is a full-time professor at the University of Massachusetts. I am grateful that he has shared his wisdom as a scholar and given his time to be on my committee. His constructive and critical questions at every stage of the dissertation has improved my work and provided me with perceptions I couldn't have thought of.

This work is the product of many years of learning from the wisdom of Clemson University scholars. I will always be grateful to them for challenging me and showing me my potential of which I was unaware. Gwynn Powell's research seminars have immensely contributed to my intellectual growth. I am also indebted to her and Francis McGuire for their invaluable wisdom on teaching philosophy. I am particularly grateful to DeWayne Moore, whose considerable interest in my work and willingness to share his immersive research design and quantitative methodology wisdom have been crucial for this work. Last but not least, I thank my teachers from the Parks, Recreations and Tourism Management department, Jeffrey Hallo, Robert Bixler, Elizabeth Baldwin, Lauren Duffy, William Norman and Dorothy Schmalz, whose approach and training have guided me during my time at Clemson University.

Last but not the least, my gratitude goes to a few individuals whose efforts have been crucial to the improvement of my dissertation. I cannot thank enough to Camille Cooper in Clemson University Cooper Library who enthusiastically assisted me by proofreading my dissertation. I cannot thank her enough for her support and time. I am much obliged to Karin Emmons in the PRTM department for her kindness in assisting me throughout the process of styling and submitting my dissertation to the graduate school

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Justification for the Study and the Research Background.....	3
Destination Image and Destination Branding.....	5
Terrorism and Social media Communication.....	6
Tourism and the Web.....	8
Problem Statement.....	10
Research Objectives.....	11
Definitions.....	13
CHAPTER TWO.....	17
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	17
Communication Studies.....	17
Agenda Setting theory.....	18
Agenda Setting & Crisis Research.....	40
Destination Image Concept in Tourism Studies.....	42
Destination Image and social media.....	56
Destination Image and Crisis.....	59
CHAPTER 3.....	63
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	63
Introduction.....	63
Study Site.....	70
Data Collection, Cleaning & Coding from Radian 6 Software.....	73
Radian 6 Data Collection Steps.....	76
Data Cleaning & Coding.....	79
Research Questions and Data Analysis Methods.....	83
Destination Image Thematic Analysis.....	85
Generalized Linear Mixed (Multinomial Logistic) Model Analysis.....	90

Table of Contents (Continued)	Page
CHAPTER 4	95
DATA COLLECTION, CLEANING AND CODING.....	95
Radian 6 Data Collection	96
Cleaning & Coding the Data	101
Descriptive Statistics of Data	106
Time Period Variable and Sample of the Study.....	107
Multi-Level Data.....	112
CHAPTER 5	115
RESULTS OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS	115
Analysis of Research Question 1	115
Thematic Network Analysis Results.....	117
Analysis of Research Question 2	142
Characteristics of Variables	145
Hypothesis 1: Do Destination Image Themes predict Sentiments?.....	155
Hypothesis 2: Do Time Period predict Sentiment?.....	160
Hypothesis 3: Do Time Periods moderate the Relationship between D.I. Themes & Sentiments?.....	164
CHAPTER 6	174
CONCLUSIONS.....	174
Implications.....	176
Future Research.....	179
Study Limitations & Challenges	181
APPENDICES	184
1 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 1, Binomial Regression Analysis 1	185
2 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 1, Binomial Regression Analysis 2	186
3 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 2, Binomial Regression Analysis 1	187
4 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 2, Binomial Regression Analysis 2	188
5 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 1	189
6 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 2	190
7 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 3	191
8 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 4	192
9 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 5	193
10 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 6	194
REFERENCES	195

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1.1 Research Questions	12
2.1 Subject Terms of Destination Image in Tourism Literature.....	20
2.2 Academic Journals that Published Agenda Setting theory Research	23
2.3 Subject Terms of Destination Image in Tourism Literature.....	47
2.4 Tourism Journals which have Published Destination Image Research	48
3.1 Radian 6 Data Acquisition Steps.....	77
3.2 Steps of Data Cleaning & Coding	81
3.3 Steps of Qualitative Procedure: Thematic Network Modelling	87
3.4 Steps of Quantitative Analysis Using SPSS.....	91
3.5 Variables Used in Quantitative Model	93
4.1 Radian 6 Data Acquisition Steps.....	98
4.2 Radian 6 Software Configuration Keywords	99
4.3 Steps of Qualitative Procedure: Thematic Network Modelling	100
4.4 Steps of Data Cleaning & Coding	102
4.5 Total Number of Tweets at Each Time Period Before Data Cleaning.....	107
4.6 Three Time Periods of the Study.....	110
4.7 The Frequency of Total Number Of Tweets At Each Time Period	110
5.1 Word List of Tweets Before the Terror Attack	118
5.2 Word List of Tweets During the Terror Attack.....	123-124
5.3 Word List of Tweets After the Terror Attack.....	129-130
5.4 Prevalence of Organizing Theme Affections Across	136
5.5 Prevalence of Organizing Theme Travel Behavior Across Time Intervals	138
5.6 Prevalence of Organizing Theme Attractions Across Time Intervals	140
5.7 Prevalence of Organizing Theme Safety & Security Across Time Intervals	141
5.8 The Number of Data.....	144
5.9 Categories of Predictors	146
5.10 Sentiment & Theme Cross Tabulation Counts Table.....	151
5.11 Sentiment & Time Period Cross Tabulation Counts Table.....	152
5.12 Theme & Time Period Cross Tabulation Counts Table	154
5.13 F-Table for Logistic Regressions	156
5.14 Binomial Logistic Model Results.....	157
5.15 F-Table for Logistic Regressions	161
5.16 Binomial Logistic Model Results.....	162
5.17 F-Table for Logistic Regressions with Moderator Time Period	166
5.18 Binomial Logistic Model Results.....	168

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1.1 Model of Destination Image Formation	4
1.2: Terrorism Timeline between	7
3.1 Sequential Mixed Methods Research Design.....	66
3.2 Two Major Methodological Sections	68
3.3 Top 10 European Cities Total Number of Beds	71
3.4 Top 10 European Cities Total Number of Bed Nights by International Tourists	72
3.5 Steps of Analytical Procedures in Mixed Methods Design.....	84
3.6 Structure of a Thematic Network	89
4.1 Configuration Window of Radian 6	97
4.2 Excel Sheet for Agenda Setting Analysis in Before Time Period.....	105
4.3 Topic Trend for Twitter Communication	109
4.4 Frequency Graph of Number of Tweets at each Time Period.....	111
4.5 Nesting of Variable Sentiment in Agenda Setters.....	112
4.6 The Multi-Level Structure.....	113
5.1 Word Cloud of Most used 20 Words in the Before Time Period.....	119
5.2 Thematic Network for Before Time Period	121
5.3 Word Cloud of Most used 20 Words in the During Time Period	125
5.4 Thematic Network of Destination Image Themes in During Time Period	126
5.5 Word Cloud of Most used 20 Words in the After Time Period	131
5.6 Thematic Network of Destination Image Themes in After Time Period	134
5.7 Sequential List of the Hypothesis	143
5.8 Frequency of Dependent Variable Sentiment	147
5.9 Frequency of Identifier Variable	148
5.10 Frequency Histogram of Time Period Predictor	149
5.11 Frequency Histogram of Destination Image Themes.....	150
5.12 Sentiment & Theme Cross Tabulation Chart	152
5.13 Sentiment & Time Period Cross Tabulation Chart	153
5.14 Theme & Time Period Cross Tabulation Chart	155
5.15 Hypothesis 1 Research Model.....	155
5.16 Probability Results of Two Binomial Regressions.....	158
5.17 Hypothesis 2 Research Model.....	160
5.18 Probability Results of Two Binomial Regressions	163
5.19 Hypothesis 3 Research Model	165
5.20 Hypothesis 3 Probability Results of Binomial Regression Analysis	171

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

Image formation is defined as a construction of a mental representation of a destination on the basis of information cues delivered by the image formation agents and selected by a person (Tasci and Gartner, 2007; Alhemoud and Armstrong, 1996; Bramwell and Rawding, 1996; Court and Lupton, 1997; Gartner, 1994; Gunn, 1972; Young, 1999). The image of a place is represented by the consumers' general perception on that place, based on the strong and weak points by which the respective place has made itself known (Roth & Romeo, 1992). Every destination has an image, but some destinations have more powerful images than others (Sönmez et al., 2002, p. 185). In this sense, the image of Paris is synonymous with romance (Albu, 2016). At the same time, Paris is one of the world's leading tourism destinations, attracting some 20 million visitors a year (Pearce, 1998).

The city of Paris is a well-known worldwide destination (Albu, 2016), with a powerful impact on tourist perception (Urry, 1992). Paris has been framed as one of the cities with a strong destination image due to its resources, tourism income and sustainability of tourism product (Di Cesare, D'Angelo & Rech, 2009). As competition is increasing and several damaging crises and disasters have hit international tourism, the importance of possessing a strong destination image has been highlighted in recent years (Henderson, 2007). The belief that terrorism has negative impacts on all tourism destinations has been studied by researchers. The results showed that the potential risk of safety affects the first-time or repeat tourists' decision-making process (Cook, 1990; Sonmez & Grafe, 1998; Lepp & Gibson, 2003).

The focus of this study is the destination image and the inevitable shift due to a terror crisis. The physical reality, the artifacts, architecture, weather, culinary, history, etc. are the products of a destination in tourism. However, an image goes beyond the physical characteristics of a place. Seminal articles, cornerstones of destination image studies, are critically discussed in the literature. However, the factors affecting a destination image still remain multi-faceted. What has been common in the literature is that a place might have a different image for different groups of people such as locals, first-time, repeat, and potential visitors. The argument is that image is in flux for a destination within segments according to how people experience and get informed about the place. The assumption of this research is that for destinations under perpetual threat and affected by geo-political unrest and acts of terror, destination image is even more volatile (Fuchs, & Reichel, 2011).

Since the publication of Hunt's (1975) article "Image as a factor in tourism development", destination image has become a concept on which dozens of articles have been published (Hunt, 1975). The development of the subject of destination image allowed a greater understanding of the image-formation process in individuals' minds (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Beerli & Martin studied the formation factors of post-visit image and stated that the level of experience has a positive and significant relationship with the cognitive dimension among first timers and with affective dimension among repeat visitors (Beerli & Martin, p.677, 2004). Image differences between prospective (non-visitors), first-time, and repeat visitors showed that each group is affected by different images such as induced or organic that are communicated to them via tradition channels or tourism promoters (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Gunn (1972) suggested that an organic image of a destination

is formed by print or visual media: in other words by all sources of mass communication channels (Gunn, 1972). Organic image evolves into an induced image with additional information gathered from tourism promoters and organizations. With the decision to travel, the prospective tourist experiences the place herself and forms a complex image in her mind. According to Gunn (1972), organic images are formed by non-visitors, induced images by first timers, and complex images are formed by repeaters. In sum, the perceived image of a place is vulnerable to all kinds of experiences and information for all visitors and citizens.

Terrorism is one of the major crisis events where everyone in the destination is affected. Perceptions about any destination might shift due to personal experiences lived through a crisis or learned knowledge through communication. Social media enables individuals to share personal experiences and/or information shared to their networks much quicker than word-of mouth. To understand the change in people's perceptions towards a destination due to a terror crisis, this study revisits the destination image thematic networks by reviewing online communication data.

Justification for the Study and the Research Background

The growth of interest in tourism among representatives from many academic disciplines, which correspond to particular areas of tourism, has progressed with the development of tourism as a global sector (Butowski, 2011). In the chronological academic development of tourism studies, the first phase started with considering the tourist as the subject and the originator of the tourism phenomena. Thus, destinations compete through images held in the minds of potential tourists (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a). Figure 1.1

presents a general framework of destination image formation developed by Baloglu and McCleary in 1999.

As Baloglu & McCleary presented in their 1999 article, in contemporary tourism scholarship, researchers across fields and disciplines agree that image is mainly caused or formed by two major forces: stimulus factors and personal factors (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a). The model shows that information sources are one of the determinants of destination image. As well, according to Woodside and Lyonski's (1989) destination choice model, marketing variables or information sources are a force which influences the formation of perceptions or cognitive evaluations but not the affective component of image (Woodside & Lyonski, 1989). While numerous studies contributed significantly to the understanding of destination image formation, several contemporary socio-cultural factors and more recent communication technologies, especially the influence of social media, haven't been considered in these frameworks (Kislali, Kavratzis & Saren, 2016).



Figure 1.1: Model of Destination Image Formation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a)

Van den Berg, van der Borg and van der Meer (1995) suggest that tourism managers should engage all available resources without losing sight of the necessity to bring about and communicate a diverse, stable, original, and attractive image of the destination (Van den Berg, van der Borg and van der Meer, 1995). Online communication platforms are manifestations of social construction and presence for contemporary tourism destinations. These platforms provide relevant data as a representation for researchers and for managers to mold their marketing strategies. Social media communication data reflects potential, current, or repeat consumers' perceived images about particular destinations. Therefore, the data of social media provides insight to all kinds of experiences and information for all visitors and citizens. Baloglu and McCleary have provided a formation model in which information sources are factors of perceptual/cognitive and affective global destination images. This study attempts to contribute to the understanding of destination image under particular conditions created by the current economic, technological, and social environment, such as globalization and terrorism, by looking at the effects of online information sources' cognitive and affective components (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a).

Destination Image and Destination Branding

The branding competition among destinations is what characterizes the tourism industry today and shapes the way it works (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2008). Globalization processes of how potential visitors choose, decide and behave have enriched options through information communication technologies (ICTs). Globalization and destination branding have contributed to increase the competition (Cai, 2002; Pike, 2004; Konecnik &

GaLkFLrtner, 2007; Anholt, 2004; Munar, 2012). Thus, tourism marketers started to search new tools to understand the destination image by observing and listening to ICTs.

The image and brand of a destination are two different concepts which are not mutually exclusive (Munar, 2012). This means that a brand's existence depends on the image formation (Cai, 2002) and sustainability of the destination. The image "represents the sum of beliefs, attitudes and impressions that a group has of an object" (Nadeau et. al., 2008, p. 84). Previous research has shown that destination image evolves organically through word-of-mouth and through all other information received from other types of communication about the destination (Gartner, 1986). Thus, the image on the minds of people is different than what marketers of destination brand organization induced image. Thus, Destination Marketing Organizations (DMO) do not have the ultimate control over the images held in the minds of potential tourists. Due to the extreme increase of horizontal online communication channels, such as social media communication networks in which the information is sourced according to one's own choice, destination image models need a new approach to understand and adapt to changing social incidents such as a terror attack.

Terrorism and Social Media Communication

Every social networking site has millions of users involved and engaged in networking. All sites provide worldwide connectivity. The connections provide, among other things, free advice and free advertising. Social networking sites have brought about a revolutionary change in real-time sharing of information; there is no better way to get a message in front of millions of people. The sharing of personal stories through social networks influences tourism behaviors, alters perceptions: what people do, where people

go, and their purchase decisions. Thus, people interactively co-construct and re-create destination images by digital storytelling processes verbally and/or visually. In other words, they share their own narratives about tourism destinations through their experiences (Amersdorffer, Bauhuber and Oellrich, 2012) and/or through their perceptions and expectations gained from information sources.

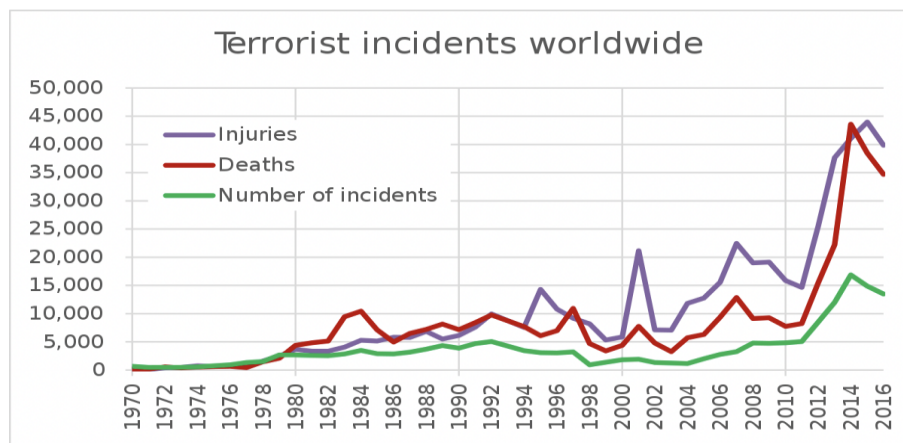


Figure 1.2: Terrorism Timeline between 1970 – 2016 (START, 2017)

For destination marketing organizations, events beyond their direct managerial control, including acts of war, terrorism, crime waves, natural disaster, political instability and epidemics, represent the most severe challenge to the marketability of a destination (Beirman, 2003). Figure 1.2 shows the timeline for terrorism attacks around the World between years 1970 – 2016 (START, 2017). The figure depicts that since 2004, there has been a growth in the number of terrorist incidents worldwide. Especially since 2010, the number of terror attacks around the globe has increased every year. 2014 has experienced the most number of incidents with a total of more than 15,000 attacks. This chart shows

that terrorism is an act of disaster with a growth that has undeniable effects on tourism in 21th century.

Terrorism is an event that alters any destination image. However, research has not yet looked into if destination images may be sustained via incorporating contemporary communication platforms such as social media, which are global and instant. Terrorism embeds risks, uncertainties, threats, and opportunities as well. Through good social media destination crisis management, tourism managers can overcome or minimize risks, uncertainties and threats, and covert these to opportunities. Therefore, this research explores the structure of destination images within the online communication delivered by online agenda setters.

Tourism and the Web

In the last decade, there have been spectacular changes in the ways that consumers receive and disseminate information about tourism products and services (Buhalis, 1998; Leung et al., 2013; Kislali, M Kavaratzis, M Saren, 2016). Tourism has become the industry with the highest number of online transactions (Mack et al., 2008). The rapid increase in Web usage and social media adaptation brings new challenges and opportunities for both tourism destinations and travelers (Schmallegger and Carson, 2008). Social media has changed the information search and purchase behaviors of all tourism stakeholders (Lo et al., 2011), ultimately affecting the way in which destination images are formed (Kislali, M Kavaratzis, M Saren, 2016).

The Internet has fundamentally reshaped the way tourism-related information is distributed and the way people plan for and consume travel (Buhalis & Law, 2008). In the

past, DMOs controlled the media messages, and they tried to create desired destination images through their marketing campaigns which didn't always reflect what the actual destination offered. Generalizations of destination images were prominent within the marketing products of tourism promoters when the mass tourism peaked in the 1980s. However, today travel and tourism is a very fragmented industry and an information-rich business, which makes it especially receptive for the benefits that the web offers (Schwartz, 1998).

Social media exist in a variety of forms and serve numerous purposes (Xiang & Gretzel, 2009). Social media websites, representing various forms of consumer-generated content (CGC) such as blogs, virtual communities, wikis, social networks, collaborative tagging, and media files shared on sites like YouTube and Flickr, have gained substantial popularity in online travelers' use of the Internet (Gretzel, 2006; Pan, MacLaurin, & Crotts, 2007). Consumer-generated content supported through social media is "a mixture of fact and opinion, impression and sentiment, founded and unfounded tidbits, experiences, and even rumor" (Blackshaw & Nazzaro, 2006, p.4).

The construct of this study posits that social media sites serve as agents and platforms of overall image of a destination which is formed by the overlap of provision and evaluation of cognitive and affective information by and among suppliers, consumers, and third parties (Ghazali, & Cai, 2014). Therefore, this research looks at social media data to understand how fragmented tourism destination images are distributed and how are they affected by a terror attack.

Problem Statement

The destination image concept in tourism scholarship is still in flux, contested around several definitions. Prominent of tourism scholars have introduced the concept of gaze which purposefully tried to conceptualize tourism experience with the perceptions of visitors (Urry, 2001). According to the concept of Gaze, visitor perceptions are essence to what tourism sector flourishes into.

Despite the significant number of contributions to destination image conceptualization through studies of tourist perceptions, existing models are outdated in the context of globalization and technological improvements. However, due to web technologies it is possible to assess online and global communication data about a destination without asking for structured questions with pre-tested constructs. Thus, the traditional image-makers, DMOs or tourism promoters, are not the only source that have a say in the destination image. Information communication technologies provide access and educate people through unofficial online communication and thus create a universal horizontal outreach.

Terrorism is becoming a phenomenon for tourism destinations in the 21st century, affecting all players in tourism industry. There are various negative effects of such an act on a destination's sustainable tourism growth due to the change in perceptions during a terror crisis. However, research has not yet looked beyond traditional media to understand and explore the factors and structures of image change during a crisis. At the same time, previous studies did not look at marketing variables or information sources as a force which influences the formation the affective component of image. Therefore, this study is looking

at the destination image themes supplied by agenda setters' social media communication and at the effects of terrorism by exploring data from three time periods before, during and after a terror crisis in Paris.

Research Objectives

The main objective of this study is to explore tourism destination image themes by studying online communication patterns of the destination "Paris, France" as a strategy to understand electronic word-of-mouth. The results might be used to shed a light into the future marketing actions of DMO. One of the objectives is to use unstructured data, where agenda setters diffuse the information that is shaping the perceptions for the first time in destination image scholarship. To be able to give answers to the problem statement, this research is organized in two steps.

The first objective is to explore and understand the thematic network of destination image themes for Paris before, during, and after the terror attack in November 2015. The purpose is to find out basic and organizing themes for each time period. This will fill the gap in the literature for exploring the social media sites as agents and online identities as agenda setters of cognitive and affective components of destination image. At the same time, it will present a new analysis approach to destination image literature by utilizing a qualitative analysis methodology: thematic network analysis.

The second objective of this research is to explore the patterns of change in destination image themes with respect to time and sentiments occurring because of a terror attack. The belief that terrorism has negative impacts on all tourism destinations has been studied by researchers and findings supported that the risk of safety is negatively affected

(Cook, 1990; Sonmez & Grafe, 1998; Lepp & Gibson, 2003). However, studies did not look into other facets of destination image which may or may not be affected by a terror attack. Following the research objectives, research questions of this study are listed in Table 1.1

Table 1.1
Research Questions

Part 1: Qualitative Analysis

1. What are the destination image themes for Paris before, during, and after the terror attacks in November 2015? (thematic network analysis)

Part 2: Quantitative Analysis

2. What is the relationship between destination image themes, time periods, and sentiments?
-

Tourism for cities with a strong destination image is viewed as one of the major pillars of their economy, as it is in Paris. Destination image is one of the most important concepts that effect the decision-making process of all visitors. Tourism industry has integrated the web not only to with organizations but also with its marketing strategies. As well, individuals look for alternative ways to collect and disseminate information about their perceptions and experiences of tourism. However, the literature review has shown that the current research lacks an understanding of constructs of destination images online and how social media users interact to form and alter destination images.

As well, this study draws mainly from Agenda Setting theory, as a lens to evaluate destination image linkages particularly to social media actors who are opinion leaders. The literature review has showed that Agenda Setting theory can integrate interdisciplinary

research subfields as it evolves. At the same time, literature research has showed that Agenda Setting effects of media influences forces of judgement and attitude.

Research questions particularly aim at filling the gaps in the literature by applying a variety of novel analysis methods and theory and as well a new approach to destination image. This research aimed at addressing the gap in the literature to understand the implications of a crisis on the destination image and assessment of the variables and factors of destination image online. In conclusion, the main objective of this research is to fill the gap in the literature by studying unstructured consumer generated communication (CGC) data in destination image literature, applying agenda setting theory to provide a global approach, and exploring the effects of a terror crisis on destination image themes.

Definitions

Affective dimension: Feelings towards, or attachment to a destination that affect the overall image of a destinations (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

Cognitive dimension: The beliefs or knowledge about a destination's attributes that affect the overall image of a destinations (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

Communication Technologies: Presence of the computer-based technology in the form of a material artifact during the process of any kind of communication (Jackson, 1996)

Crisis: A situation where the root cause of an event is, to some extent, self-inflicted through such problems as inept management structures and practices or a failure to adapt to change (Faulkner, 2001).

Disasters: A collection of enterprises (tourist destination) is confronted with sudden unpredictable catastrophic changes over which it has little control (Faulkner, 2001).

Destination Branding: A name, symbol, logo, word mark, or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination: it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience (Ritchie and Ritchie, 1998).

Destination Image: An expression of all objective knowledge, impressions, prejudices, imaginations, experiences and emotional thoughts that a person or a group might have of a geographical area or a place (Lawson and Baud Bovy, 1977).

Destination Marketing Organizations (DMO): The leading organization entity which may encompass various authorities, stakeholders, and professionals and facilitates tourism sector partnerships towards a collective destination vision (WTO, 2016).

Induced Image: The organic image of a destination held in one's mind evolves into an induced image which refers to an image influenced by tourist organizations' directed information such as advertisements, promotions etc. (Gunn, 1972).

Information Communication Technologies (ICTs): Another term for information technology which stresses the role of united communications and the integration of telecommunications, computers as well as necessary enterprise software, storage and audio-visual systems, which enable users to access, store, transmit and manipulate information in any context (Zuppo, 2012).

Online Communication Data: Unit of analysis of communication data coming from Web based, computer-mediated communication intermediaries (December, 1996).

Organic Image: Organic image of a destination is formed as a result of exposure to newspaper reports, magazine articles, TV reports, and other nontourism-specific information sources. The organic image is held by nonvisitors of a destination (Gunn, 1972).

Personal Factors: One of the forces of a destination image is caused by personal factors that are the social and psychological characteristics of the perceiver of the destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

Potential Tourist: A person who has never visited a destination and has the potential to travel for longer than a day.

Social Media: Social media are computer-mediated technologies that facilitate the creation and sharing of user-generated content, ideas, career interests, and other forms of expression via virtual communities and social networks by creating service-specific personal profiles (Obar & Wildman, 2015)

Stimulus Factors: One of the forces of a destination image is caused by stimulus factors that stem from the external stimulus and physical object as well as previous experience (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

Terrorism: The use of intentionally indiscriminate violence as a means to create terror among masses of people or fear to achieve a financial, political, religious or ideological aim (Fortna, 2015)

Thematic Networks: Thematic networks technique is a robust and highly sensitive tool for the systematization and presentation of qualitative analyses. Thematic analysis seeks to

unearth the themes salient at different levels, and facilitate the structuring and depiction of these themes (Attride-Stirling, 2001).

Tourism Destination: physical space with or without administrative and/or analytical boundaries in which a visitor can spend a night. It is the cluster of products and services, and of activities and experiences along the tourism value chain and a basic unit of analysis of tourism (WTO, 2016).

Word-of-Mouth (WOM): WOM is a consumer-dominated channel of marketing communication where the sender is independent of the market (Brown, Broderick & Lee, 2007). It is therefore considered to be more reliable, credible, and trustworthy by consumers compared to firm-initiated communications (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1995)

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This research is guided by the theory of Agenda Setting from the communication studies literature. As well, its purpose is to fill the gap in the destination image literature of tourism studies. Therefore, this chapter contains a review of the literature related to research in two primary areas: Agenda Setting theory research in communication studies and Destination Image Concept in Tourism Studies. Secondary areas of literature review contains the research in Agenda setting theory & Crisis, Destination Image and Social media and Destination Image and Crisis.

Communication Studies

Mass media has been an effective source in the public sphere since the beginning of free and plural societal communication. The public sphere is critically important for modern societies (Jeffres et al., 2011). It serves as a forum to communicate collectively relevant issues of politics, public or social, and allows citizens to inform, control, and observe societal developments (Gerhards & Schäfer, 2010). Additionally, the public sphere is the landscape where media effects guide the masses in making their decisions. (Katz, 1987). The current making of the public sphere has changed enormously due to new technologies such as Web 2.0 applications. Mass communication is experiencing probably its fastest change in the 21th century. The dissemination of information and news is no longer in the hands of several politicians or media managers.

As a scholarly discipline, mass communication does not have a lot of theories of its own. Instead, mass communication scholars have chosen to implement theories from other

social sciences such as psychology, social psychology, and sociology. Even though this tendency persists, there are three theories in mass communication discipline that still prevail after more than half century: gatekeeping, agenda setting, and framing theories.

This research applies Agenda Setting theory for the first time to online data in its scholarship. This literature review of Agenda Setting theory has shown that the media cause people to think about certain topics. However, the traditional media (newspapers, radio and television broadcasts etc.) was the only news source until the Web was available for individual use. Therefore, one of the assertions this dissertation makes is that, up to this point, in Agenda Setting research, media (broadcast, print, radio) played a too central role as a variable of public opinion. With the initiation of social media, now the informer and informant are not mutually exclusive and the information communication network is very dynamic.

Agenda Setting theory

The oldest theory of three previously mentioned mass communication theories is Agenda Setting theory. However, Agenda Setting theory has given the stage to gatekeeping and framing theories in recent years due to researchers' interest in questioning the interface between senders of the messages and receivers (Singer, 2006; Fahmy et al., 2007; Bock, 2015). As a theoretical perspective, Mc-Combs and Shaw made the first empirical investigation in 1972 by opening a gambit during the 1968 presidential election (Mc-Combs and Shaw, 1972). The communication research has changed rapidly during the past 50 years. Under these circumstances, agenda setting research grew. Rogers, Dearing, and Bregman (1993) identified more than 200 articles about agenda setting in the social science

literature since the publication of McCombs and Shaw's seminal article in 1972 (Rogers et al., 1993). The core set of sources that have empirically initiated and evolved the agenda setting theory are McCombs and Shaw (1972), Iyengar and Kinder (1987), Rogers et. al. (1993), Weaver, Graber, McCombs, and Eyal (1981), Cohen (1963), and Winter and Eyal (1981), Tai, (2009). Since then, Agenda Setting theory scholarship has expanded its domain to a variety of social sciences such as health, sports, politics and protest, and conflict. In sum, the literature review has shown that the theory has the ability to integrate communication research subfields under it as it evolves.

The literature review of "Agenda Setting" research started with the Communication & Mass Media Complete database. The database includes the major journals in communication studies, mass media, and journalism. "Agenda Setting" has been entered as the search term due to the fact that at the beginning of academic research scholars have come up with alternative names such as "agenda setting hypothesis", "agenda setting function", "agenda setting effect" and finally "agenda setting theory". Because of this, expanders of the search were used such as "apply equivalent subjects", "apply related words", and also "search the words within the full text of the articles", to include all other conceptual names that have been used for Agenda Setting theory. Secondly, all journal articles which were scholarly and peer-reviewed were chosen. Thirdly, the literature review looked at all articles which were published in English the language.

Table 2.1

Subject Terms of Agenda Setting theory in Communication Literature

SUBJECT TERMS	HIT COUNT
elections	74
presidents, united states, election	68
research	63
practical politics	47
democracy	42
international relations	40
mass media -- united states	39
public health	39
presidential candidates	36
presidents -- elections	36
political agenda	34
decision making	31
climatic changes	30
twitter (web resource)	29
mass media & politics	27
new york times, the (newspaper)	26
attribution of news	24
government policy	4
iraq war, 2003-2011	24
policy sciences	23
social problems	23
corporations	22
comparative studies	21
descriptive statistics	21
editorials	21
presidents -- united states	21
data analysis	19
journalism -- objectivity	19
journalism -- united states	19
power (social sciences)	19
social responsibility of business	19
voting	19
health education	18
industrial publicity	18
public sphere	18
regression analysis	18
technological innovations	18
internet -- political aspects	17
obama, barack, 1961	17
public administration	17
public relations & politics	17
scholars	17
analysis of variance	16
bush, george w.	16
health behavior	16
medical care	16
social movements	16
social science research	16
social sciences	16
theory	16

The results of the EBSCOhost Communications & Mass Media Complete database searches have provided 3,085 journal articles. The literature review covered 1972 to 2017, a span of 45 years of academic research. These articles have been categorized through their subject terms. Table 2.1 shows the list of most prominent subject words that have been included in these journal articles. The list in Table 2.1 is ordered from high to low values, according to the subject terms that has been used in 3,446 publications. Of the 3,446 scholarly publications, 425 were reviews and 3,018 were academic journal papers. 2,743 of the scholarly peer-reviewed articles were available online with full text.

The Agenda Setting research has been initiated and evolved around the themes elections, presidents, candidates, and politics of the United States of America through the academic search of scholars. The scholarly research that has been the foundation of Agenda Setting theory started with the purpose of finding an alternative approach to understanding media impact (Manheim & Albritton, 1983). Since 1972, the communication, journalism, and mass media scholars have published in 50 different peer-reviewed scholarly academic journals to research about the concept of agenda setting in different contexts (Table 2.2).

Journalism Quarterly and *Political Communication* journals are the top two academic publications that have covered Agenda Setting theory. Between 1972 and 1977, 40 articles have been published that have covered Agenda Setting and of these articles, 30 were in *Journalism Quarterly*, four were in *Public Quarterly* and three were in *Communication Research*. The major subjects covered were voting, elections, decision making, mass media in the United States, newspapers, presidential candidates, and the effects of television in propaganda.

The literature review of “Agenda Setting” in communication studies has been started and initiated by the publication of McCombs & Shaw in *Public Opinion Quarterly* in 1972. The article discussed how mass media, specifically newsroom staff, broadcasters and editors, play important role in shaping political reality (McCombs & Shaw, 1972). The emphasis in the article was not only about what readers learn about a given issue, but also how much importance to attach to the issues covered by news stories and their positioning. The results of the Agenda Setting research was that media, through their reflections of what political candidates are saying, might well determine the important issues for the public while setting the agendas for them. The article has been cited within the Communication & Mass Media Complete Database 462 times.

The second scholarly research article published in the Agenda Setting Literature within communication and mass media studies was “Media Agenda-Setting in City and State Election Campaigns” by Tipton, Haney and Baseheart in 1975. The article was published in *Journalism Quarterly Journal* and covered political campaigns, elections, voting, and presidential candidates related to the 1968 presidential election campaigns. The findings reported that effects of media influenced political behavior and attitudes (Tipton, Haney & Baseheart, 1975).

The third academic article that explored the ability of media to change attitudes was “Newspaper Agendas and Political Elites” by Gormley in 1975 in *Journalism Quarterly* (Gormley, 1975). Gormley’s paper provided a solid literature review of public opinion research that has paved the way for Agenda Setting theorists. He tested the agenda setting effect of the press at state level, comparing differences between newspaper issue emphasis and reader issue emphasis. His results indicated that readers may resent the messenger that brings the bad news, especially when there is not much of it.

Table 2.2

Academic Journals that published Agenda Setting theory Research

JOURNALS	HIT COUNT
journalism quarterly	222
political communication	154
journalism studies	123
mass communication & society	120
journal of communication	104
journal of broadcasting & electronic media	101
journal of health communication	84
international journal of communication	82
public opinion quarterly	67
journalism & mass communication quarterly	64
health communication	63
asian journal of communication	56
journal of public relations research	55
newspaper research journal	51
journalism practice	50
howard journal of communications	42
international journal of public opinion research	40
communication theory	33
nordicom review	33
environmental communication	31
canadian journal of communication	28
china media research	28
journal of computer-mediated communication	27
southwestern mass communication journal	27
communication research	26
revista latina de comunicacion social	26
critical studies in mass communication	25
journalism history	25
communication quarterly	23
journal of media & religion	23
media international australia	23
media, war & conflict	22
atlantic journal of communication	21
communication monographs	21
public relations review	21
communication yearbook	20
international journal of press/politics	20
communication, culture & critique	19
chinese journal of communication	18
media psychology	18
pacific journalism review	18
international communication gazette	16
journal of applied communication research	16
journal of mass media ethics	16
communication research reports	15
communications: the european journal of communication research	15
jcom: journal of science communication	15
journalism educator	15
argumentation & advocacy	14
critical studies in media communication	14

The first research to use Agenda Setting outside of political issues was done by Schmeling & Wotring about communication in marketing (1976). The article discussed the agenda-setting function effects of drug abuse public service ads. The results showed that there was no change in the agenda with respect to drug abuse. The reasoning for the public services ads not creating an agenda was that the respondents did not internalize it although they understood it. The authors suggested that internalizing the information that is coming from trusted sources is an important variable in setting the agenda. The research also suggested that the time between exposure to the ads and measurement may have been too short, not allowing for enough repeated viewings for any agenda effect to show itself (Schmeling & Wotring, 1976).

There has been research between 1972-1977 that compared different media outlets such as radio, television, and newspapers on national political and public issues in the United States in their respective agenda setting functions and effects beyond elections (Kaid, Hale & Williams, 1977; Williams & Larsen, 1977). The first book about Agenda Setting was “*The Emergence of American Political Issues: The Agenda-Setting Function of the Press*” (Shaw & McCombs, 1977). This book consists of a series of empirical studies based on data gathered in Charlotte, NC, during the 1972 presidential election campaigns. The book’s main idea is that the agenda setting thesis has unlimited power on the audience attitudes, values and beliefs (Westley, 1978).

From 1978-1987, an additional 206 academic publications about Agenda Setting were published. This decade saw novel methodologies, contexts, and territories within the research of Agenda Setting theory. The first longitudinal analysis that analyzes the agenda

setting effects was pursued by Sohn in 1978. The study tested the agenda setting hypothesis that the media cause people to think about certain topics. The study found support for the idea that local a newspaper is effective in setting the local talking agenda. Until this research, studies aimed to understand effects of local newspapers, radios, or broadcasting channels on what local respondents talk about. This research asserted the agenda setting hypothesis that the media cause people to think about certain topics and thinking and talking are not the same things. It suggested further investigation of linkages between talking and thinking for future agenda setting research (Sohn, 1978).

Long before Chen, Shaw, or McCombs started conceptualizing Agenda Setting theory, Park (1925) suggested that the newspaper had taken over the job of the town gossip in providing topics for discussion. To adapt his discussion to the 21st century, this dissertation looks at the town gossip occurring at across borders through social media platforms. Taking the investigation to a wider territorial level, Atwood, Sohn & Sohn found out that agenda setting effects are strongest on the discussion of non-local news (1978). This finding has a direct relation to the suggestion that people conceive messages that are not coming from where they are. They have suggested that the agenda setting hypothesis should be tested in non-political contexts before it is generalized to the world (Atwood, Sohn & Sohn, 1978). As in the previous research, this study also tried to understand newspapers' place in the community and their relationship with what people are talking about. The agenda setter was the media outlet and research looked at its effects on shaping attitudes. The theory suggested that agenda setting occurs only in instances where the public does not have any opportunity to personally experience the reported events or issues

through media. Research supported a significant correlation between what newspapers and people in the community report.

Until the mid-1980s, for three decades, conventional wisdom concerning the effects of communication in election campaigns has embraced the “law of minimal consequences” (McCombs et. al., 1972). Media agenda setting of a specific political local event or national issues such civil rights was conceptually researched. Dominant media outlets in 1970s and 1980s were newspapers, radio and television channels. Researchers tried to understand how the news carried out by media affected attitudes. Kimsey & Hantz explain the three basic models of agenda setting (1978). The salience model describes the ability of the media to move one or more issues rapidly to the top of the public agenda (McCombs, 2014). The second model of agenda setting is the priorities model, which examines the power of the media to provide audiences with an arrangement of the top five, seven, or nine priorities of the day (McLeod, Becker & Byrnes, 1974). The third model of agenda setting entails the most pervasive media function, which is called the awareness model. This model posits the creation of knowledge that an issue exists as a function of exposure to mass communication (Kimsey & Hatz, 1978). That is, media, whatever the kind is, makes audiences aware of the issues.

Building on Schmeling & Wotring’s 1976 findings about the importance of time in agenda setting, the first time-series analysis of media effects theories was carried out in 1978 by Watt & Van den berg in the Washington, D.C. tested effects of mass media during a community controversy and found empirical supports for the agenda setting (1978). Watt & Van den Berg found evidence in 1981 about how time dependency influences media

effects in a community. The study used a time-series approach and found evidence that media influence on audience behavior is consistent with the direction of coverage at the early stages of controversy coverage. The study revealed the media was effective in determining public reaction; however, it is stronger in the early stages of controversy. The study found no relationship between later media coverage and audience attitude.

The first study that affirmed personal communication as an intervention to agenda setting was published in *Newspaper Research* (Atwater et. al., 1985). The study examines how interpersonal communication interacts with media effects in structuring people's views of their social environments. Findings suggested that interpersonal discussions mediated the agenda setting effect for the non-media dependent respondents because they had access to personal sources of information other than mass media outlets.

Most agenda setting research done since McCombs and Shaw's study of U.S. presidential elections has tested the idea that media coverage of certain issues result in increased public salience on those issues. The first study that tested the assertion that local community agenda building sets the agenda for media was Weaver & Elliott's study in 1985. This was the first study that considered media and community as homogeneous factors in agenda setting. The assumption of the study was that media emphasis is correlated with public salience and media served as filtering and shaping mechanism for public salience. This assumption was relevant for democratic communities which had media agencies independent from political powers. The study revealed that what communities talk about and journalists reveal do mirror each other significantly. Hauser (1986) took on the first ever consumer choice research implementing agenda setting. His

opening quote, “Agendas influence choice”, presented the idea that consumer behavior might be understood if we understand their agendas.

During the time period 1988-1997, The Communication and Mass media Complete database provided 433 scholarly peer-reviewed journal papers in English about agenda setting in communication and mass media studies. Of these 433 scholarly works, 333 were research articles published in academic journals and 100 were reviews. 1988-1997 time period had developed agenda setting as a paradigm within the context of mass media affects.

The study of Megwa and Brenner (1988) in *Journal of Communications* paid attention to agenda setting as a process for the first time. In this study, Agenda Setting, for the first time conceptually taken out of the media’s autonomy was considered as an influence of attitudes which media influences. The paper points out that the process is a variable of agenda setting effects. The literature starts to break down the agenda setting into pieces to find the focus of this influence. The paper asks who sets the agenda and takes on the role of explaining the stages in the agenda setting process such as issue creation, issue expansion, and issue consumption. At the same time, the paper points out that there are three groups that play an active role at three stages of agenda setting process. The authors realize that Agenda Setting deals with similarity of perception on two communication levels which are mass communication and interpersonal. The authors vigorously try to operationalize the concept of agenda setting to understand who the sources are and what might be the other variables such as time and nature of the issue. One

of the empirical results of the study was that agenda setting is an effect and a process and the structure of the media facilitates information control.

The first article considers electronic text news and its effects on agenda setting was authored by Heeter, Brown, Soffin, Stanley and Salwen in 1989 in *Journalism Quarterly*. Up to this point in academic research, the agenda setting function of news media is researched extensively. The article “Agenda Setting by Electronic Text News” looks at the users of Electronic Text Service (ETN), the first fully interactive U.S. commercial videotext service, to understand if users perceive a different agenda of important issues than traditional media users. The conclusions relating to the temporal process in agenda setting suggest that at least several weeks of exposure to news media may be necessary for the media to impact audience members’ agendas. The study also suggested that the evaluation of the importance issues was almost perfectly correlated between ETN and traditional new users. This study did not foresee a regular pattern of the ETN news medium reflecting long-term home use to emerge, however, a profound finding was that ETN fundamentally changes the editor’s and reader’s roles in news dissemination. Additionally, the study reported a far-reaching potential of a new news platform to affect consumers’ news exposure and awareness and to alter the agenda setting function of news media.

In the article “News Media and Public Opinion Benign Agenda- Setters? Opinion Molders? Or Simply Irrelevant?” Salwen (1990) discusses that Agenda Setting as one of the most popular approaches to study the effects of the news media may shape the public opinion. Salwen compares the Agenda Setting approach to two other most popular approaches of 1980s which are Agenda Building and Spiral of Silence. The results indicate

that the Agenda Setting approach is the most successful approach to study media effects to understand shaping of public opinion. However, one criticism was made that the approach is a simple process where an old media agenda is withdrawn and replaced with a new media agenda and the public absorbs it. The perspective portrays a too-simplistic perspective in today's global, fragmented, and fast-paced news agendas. Salwen suggested that the new media replaces the old media and all the public consumes what it offers.

Haarsager (1991) mentions the ethical issues about reverse Agenda Setting which is not covering certain issues on purpose. The focus was towards the control over the secrecy about certain issues in the media. This article mentioned the importance of actors for the first time in agenda setting. The article argued that this kind of control when owned by positions of influence, such as control of information disseminated in media, might be used to enhance certain political, economic, or social powers. This argument is a profound conceptualization of why social media actors, information, or news providers or consumers, are better candidates for the Agenda Setting approach where there is minimum hegemony or power ties.

Schweitzer & Smith (1991) argue that with respect to the centrality of media and influence of certain positions on the coverage of issues, there are community pressures on Agenda Setting. They question the relationship between the coverage of newspapers and the objectivity of issues. McCombs & Shaw (1976) have hinted that there is a possibility in smaller community media agencies that community values play more importance on the content. The conclusion of the study was that local staff wrote news stories. However, as stories grow older the news were less likely to rely on official resources of information as

time progressed on the issue covered (Schweitzer & Smith, 1991). The results supported the fact that small community news sources are more susceptible to local pressures, thus a non-central news source which has news providers and readers in a wide territory would have no pressures about values or ethics.

In 1992, Salwen and Matera carried out an experimental study doing telephone surveys about Agenda Setting Hypothesis and this study provided one of the building blocks for Agenda Setting towards becoming a theory. The study found that the amount of news coverage devoted to various nations was accurately perceived by the audience but did not influence assessment of foreign nations (Salwen & Matera, 1992). This study was one of the first that covered international issues such as perceptions of other nations. As well, it pointed the fact that agenda setting studies that have considered time as a variable of agenda, located different time periods as an influence on the public. The article has analyzed all the international stories in the network broadcasts for a limited time period. The results indicated that very few foreign nations dominated the agenda and those were the ones with repeated coverage. Accumulation of media coverage for subsequent time periods increased the salience of that foreign nation as a public agenda. The conclusion was that public evaluations of foreign nations as friends or enemies may be relatively enduring depending on time and repeated coverage.

McCombs examined the first 20 years of scholarship about Agenda Setting in his 1992 article "Explorers and Surveyors: Expanding Strategies for Agenda-Setting Research. McCombs mentioned that the future of Agenda Setting research will include exploring numerous dimensions of the news media agenda, such as news source networks. Until

1992, studies of Agenda Setting all implied zero-sum process, which means that issues on media compete for public attention and that there is a limited availability for coverage and attention period. Zhu, in his time series analysis on single issues covered, explained the zero-sum theory of Agenda Setting as the carrying capacity of the public agenda for traditional means of news outlets (Zhu, 1992). Zhu examined the zero-sum game with time series analysis through three issues of that time period covered. His results showed that there is a mutual competition among issues and salience shows that there is a one-way attraction among issues. His research was important to show that time as a variable moderates the relationship between salience of issues and attraction to issues.

Journalism Quarterly has taken on Agenda Setting to a new level in terms of its mediating effects on reinforcing other issues or redirecting the attention to related issues. Schoenbach & Semetko (1992) took on a study that looked at how salient issues on television news have affected the salience of other contemporary issues. The findings stated that if an issue covered frequently on the news agenda, but in a way, that diminished the urgency of the problem such as resolving conflicting problem cases, it causes a decline in salience with respect to time. As well, the results of the research from a two –wave national panel study discovered that interests in political stories on television news was positively associated with an increase in the salience of environmental problems as an agenda reinforcement (Schoenbach & Semetko, 1992). This showed that, a conflicting story on agenda about an issue might reinforce or deflate the salience issue through another agenda.

Wanta and Wu stated that various studies done before 1992 found that interpersonal communication enhances agenda setting effects (McCombs & Shaw, 1972), inhibits

agenda setting effects (McLeod, Becker & Byrnes, 1974), or has no effect at all (Atwater, Salwen & Anderson, 1985). Wanta and Wu's starting point was that with respect to interpersonal communication effects, there have been a few groups of studies with contradictory findings. The first research done in more than a decade looks at agenda setting effects of community discussion was published in *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*. To understand if interpersonal communication may be an intervening variable between salient issues and personal agendas, Wanta, & Wu looked at how interpersonal communication may facilitate or reduce the importance of issues. In their study, they found out that, community discussion is a dependent variable of topics covered on newspapers but were not the only source of the topics (Atwood, Sohn & Sohn, 1978). Two additional interpersonal communication variables were examined in this study: the intensity of the discussion and the individual's level of participation in the discussion. They found that informal community communication is essential in helping in people make sense of the salient issues but also not for a long-time period. The results of the regression analysis were that the more exposure individuals have to the news media, the more they are concerned. As well, the correlations indicated that as a person communicated more about the issue it increased their concern. Interpersonal communication apparently enhanced media agenda-setting effects through frequency, timing and content.

Carter, Stamm and Heintz-Knowles published a study looking at the interpersonal communication in agenda setting in 1992. They studied another social issue, drug abuse, diverting from the common issue area of agenda setting, which is political issues. Their findings provided strong support for how interpersonal communication has a stronger

effect on agenda setting than media exposure and personal experience. They argued that depending on the source, personal, interpersonal, or mass media communication can affect perceptions (Carter, Stamm & Heitz-Knowles, 1992). The study tested the hypothesis that interpersonal communication bridges the level of influence on salient issues between personal and social level perceptions and found out that interpersonally communicated information plays a significant role in perceptions of the issue, while mass media and personal experience does not.

Additionally, Wanta & Hu (1994) studied the three attributes of agenda setting: credibility of the information source, reliance on the source, and exposure. Their findings supported that credibility correlated with only reliance and reliance correlates only with exposure. Therefore, as a person is exposed more to the issue their reliance and the magnitude of agenda setting effects increase and thus the credibility of the source enhances. Repetition of the issue is linked to reliance and credibility of the information source.

The literature provided 99 additional studies of agenda setting between 1997 and 2006. The agenda setting research has broadened in terms of content, application, and methods of research. Although the number of subjects that agenda setting research covered increased, the core topics covered were still elections and presidential candidates in the United States during 1997-2006. However, Agenda Setting has passed the stages of agenda setting technique, agenda setting function, agenda setting effects and agenda setting hypothesis and the early 1990s was the first time it was applied to academic research as a theory for communication science.

The theory started to be adopted by media researchers looking at different levels of media effects. The question of who sets the media agenda initiated alternative research focus such as the independent variable becoming the dependent variable (Lopez-Escobar, Llamas, McCombs & Lennon, 1998). Framing, accepted as the second level of Agenda Setting theory, focuses on the maintenance of consensus within society. The initial research done that acknowledged the second level of Agenda Setting theory was published in 1995 by Takeshita and Mikami, in which they looked at issue salience (first level of Agenda Setting and sub-issue salience (second level of Agenda Setting) (Takeshita & Mikami, 1995).

Lopez-Escobar, McCombs & Lennon (1998), the second study that adopted two levels of Agenda setting, looked at the effects of one media on another during a Spanish election period to replicate a prior study as a foundation of theory. They found that at the first level of Agenda Setting, there was intermediate agenda setting for an agenda of issues. As well, at the second level, framing, there was agenda setting for an agenda of substantive associated attributes. In their article “Agenda Setting and Community Consensus” Lopez-Escobar, Llamas and McCombs (1998) carried out another study to understand two levels of Agenda Setting theory. The theory of mass media agenda setting has been proven as a useful perspective for examining the influence of news on public mind.

Shaw, McCombs Weaver and Hamm (1999) studied the group effects of agenda setting and conceptualized them as Agenda Melding. This article, “Individuals, Groups, and Agenda melding: A theory of Social Dissonance” suggests a model of agenda melding that accounts for the role of mass or interpersonal media. The argument was that the

influence in the audience off mass media is less than the mass media to audience direction. The argument was backed up by the fact that agenda melding is a daily process by means of individual use of a wide selection of media of connections to social communities. The study explains agenda melding as an interpersonal link as well although it does not test it. What this study provides for future research is that interpersonal media outlets such as social media do provide a stage for agenda melding and might be tested for virtual communities as well. The study considers for the first time virtual communities as media outlets where communities are formed to gather information.

Yang and Stone (2003) studied Agenda Setting theory and the role of interpersonal communication. The article “The Powerful Role of Interpersonal Communication in Agenda Setting” questioned the assumption that those who are more media-reliant will have adopted the media agenda, whereas the less media-reliant groups will have a different agenda. The study showed that contrary to the assumption Agenda Setting theory makes, those who rely on interpersonal communication share the same agendas with others who rely on media as an information source.

Peter and Vreese (2003) did the first study that looked at cross-national agenda diversity. Public agenda diversity of media affects studies within and between nations. This study filled an important gap, which was identified by Dearing and Rogers (1996), of more research in a variety of nations in the literature of agenda setting research. Research was done about the diversity of issues over time (McCombs & Zhu, 1995; Reinemann & Brosius, 1998), but not about public agenda diversity comparing countries about first or second-level agenda setting. The results indicated that in countries with relatively limited

external issue diversity, the public agenda is less diverse than in countries with high external diversity (Peter and Vreese, 2003).

The agenda setting research has paid most of the attention to how issues are prioritized using intermediary-agenda function. The websites' effects on traditional media sources have been identified as an influencer (Ku, Kaid & Pfau, 2003). Prioritization of issues goes back to White's gatekeeping study in 1949 (Cassidy, 2006). Journalists have been accepted as privileged gatekeepers of issues in media. However, Cassidy in his article states that gatekeeping is similar for online and print journalists (Cassidy, 2006). The Web has been accepted as a source of information and time periods are variables of effect (Ku, Kaid & Pfau, 2003). Studies have revealed that the online networks influence the public's exposure to political campaign information and as well as becoming news sources for the traditional news media (Bikson & Panis, 1999; Hacker, Scott & Steiner, 1996). Ku, Kaid & Piau (2003) found out that there is strong evidence of a convergence of the public's attention to the issues on the Web sites.

The first study to look at the intermedia relationship between the Web and traditional media was carried out by Lee & Lee (2005) looking at the South Korean general elections. The study found out that there is an intermedia relationship between the Web and the press. Another finding was that the press influences posts on the Web. This study is an initiation of future research area, which may extent the understanding of Agenda Setting theory considering the Web as a mass medium which can influence the formation of community opinion.

McCombs (2005) looked at 25 years of aggregate research on Agenda Setting. In reflections for future research, McCombs considers the Web as the new frontier for public opinion research. Acceptance of the Web as the new global communication landscape brings new research areas. McCombs considers the Web a fragmented communication platform; however, he mentions the synergy between traditional and new media. McCombs accepts the synergy; however, he suggests that web is used occasional by most people. In contrast to his findings in 2005, some of his recent studies show that the Web is no longer an occasional thing for most people (McCombs & Stroud, 2014).

The productivity of the agenda-setting theory in producing empirical research is obvious when we explore the steady historical growth of its literature. A study of literature published from 2006 to 2016 reveals that the scholarship has been consistent in the continuing empirical research about political communication and mass media effects. In the recent scholarship, the Web has been a core area of study in addition to traditional media intermediaries. An example Song (2007), who compares the roles of progressive online news services with those of mainstream newspapers in developing reactions to the deaths of two schoolgirls by a US military vehicle into massive anti-US protests during 2002 in South Korea. Even though the theory has been employed by communication scholars and applied to several social science questions or within new technological platforms, the core is still politics and news coverage (Conway et al, 2015; Rojecki et al, 2016; Bradshaw & Neumann, 2014; Garrett, 2009; Shen, 2009; Stromer-Galley et al, 2011).

While being productive the core communication research subfields, Agenda Setting has been implemented to other contexts such as health and sports communication. (Ogata et al, 2006; Billings, 2007; Benoit, 2007; Kiouisis et. al., 2013; Baiocchi-Wagner, 2012; Literat et al. , 2014). Another obvious subject area of scholarship has been citizen journalism, which has been explored since the implementation of new technologies to news media and human communication (Goode, 2009; Vu & Gehrau, 2010). Several researchers have compared traditional and new media via Agenda Setting theory. Traditional and social media influence has been compared for social networks (Meraz, 2009). The phenomenon of protesting and activism via social networks has been another issue under question, since it is the core of democratic appraisal within the public sphere (Song, 2007; Pilny, 2014). Conflict is another subfield in which Agenda Setting theory has been implemented. The main arguments evolve around conflict management and how communicative action administers justice, immigration, corruption, public order, and safety (Wehrenfennig, 2008; Singer, 2011; Davis et al, 2008; Park at al, 2012; Robinson, 2013; McKeever et. al, 2012).

These research studies show that there is a continuing ability of Agenda Setting theory to generate new research problems across a variety of interpersonal or mass communication settings. Simultaneously, the scholarship has been in search of not the application of theory to different contexts but for an evolution of theory for the 21th century. Culture has changed and discourses of consumption affected how news diffuses. New academic discourses have led communication theory to search for new paradigms (Wang, 2014; Christensen et al, 2015; Spitzberg, 2014). Collective memory is one of the

most researched paradigms for its consequences on media hegemony (Block, 2013; Tenonboim, 2013). Consumption has been the core of the modern world economy. Agenda Setting theory scholarship has been questioning how media production leads to public attention and consumption patterns (Napoli, 2014; Siles et al, 2012; Russell et al, 2014). In sum, the literature review shows that Agenda Setting theory has expanded its sphere to new subfields of communication science and to new technologies. However, the research and application of Agenda Setting still remains mostly within communication studies boundaries and has not dovetailed with other social sciences or inter-disciplinary studies.

Agenda Setting & Crisis Research

Agenda Setting conceptually was been integrated with research about natural disasters and crisis research in traditional media at the beginning of 1990s. The acknowledgement of crisis theory in natural disasters is that media plays a crucial role during all phases of natural disasters (Thomas, 2015). Before a disaster, the press disseminates warning messages and preparedness requirements to affected populations (Rogers & Sood, 1980). During the disaster, the role of the press is to convey critical information regarding the ongoing crisis to all related agencies and communities (Walters & Hornig, 1993). After the crisis, the role of the press is to cover response efforts and psychological support (Graber, 1980). In the long term, media coverage illuminates issues associated with the regeneration of the community, accountability of the response to the crisis, and mitigation of the potential damage caused by future disasters (Hiroi, Mikami, & Miyata, 1985). Traditional sources of crisis information were mostly relied on official sources, which means that information is generated in a top-down approach.

The first article about crisis context suggested that media coverage of developing nations presents a distorted image and concentrates on crisis. The article did not examine the effects of media agenda setting during or after a crisis, but rather points out the issue that media is selective and subjective in setting the agenda about place other than its own. The article suggests that portrayals through a media platform create an aggregate image of another place, experience, or identity (Langton, 1991).

Bennett & Manheim (1993) examined a man-made crisis and the effects of representations on media looking at the ways in which the Persian Gulf conflict was portrayed through American media to the public and the degree to which this portrayal facilitated timely, and meaningful public debate. To understand what the public learned, the authors used time periods to cover all the content presented. They mentioned that the access to information was limited through alternative print and broadcast media platforms. Secondly, they mention that the content was managed and it frames the images were managed. The article points out that traditional media had the privilege to set the agenda during a crisis.

Walters & Hornig (1993) has looked at natural crises in their article “Faces in the News: Network television news coverage of Hurricane Hugo and the Loma Prieta Earthquake”. The study compared the coverage of media of two disasters, Hurricane Hugo and the Loma Prieta earthquake. The study showed that the sources used were average citizens, witnesses, or victims that are related to the crisis. As well, the study supported that the initiation of issues by gatekeepers opens the information gates. An interesting finding was the difference in sourcing patterns during two natural disasters. Not only did

the experts provide more coverage of the earthquake than the hurricane, but they were broader in variety. The article states that the difference is due to the fact that the crisis was rare, unexpected, mysterious, and a complex scientific situation.

Salwen's study about the news that was covered in newspapers on the crisis of Hurricane Andrew looked at the sources of information (Salwen, 1995). The findings showed that in traditional media the sources of information about a crisis were individuals who were not affiliated with government or business. Most sources of information were quoted as experts, such as victims suffering from the crisis. This study showed that traditional media used individuals before social media has enacted, who were credited as experts as agenda setting sources.

Destination Image Concept in Tourism Studies

The literature review of the destination image concept is gathered from the databases *Hospitality & Tourism Complete* and *Academic Search Complete*. The search covered all academic journal publications in those databases that are peer reviewed and published in the English language. The search provided 2,031 peer reviewed academic journal articles published between 1981 and 2017. The subject terms and publication journals are listed in Tables 2.3 and 2.4. Table 2.3 shows top 50 subject areas that destination image studies have covered. Table 2.4 shows the top 50 journals in which the words "destination" and "image" appear at the same time in an article published between 1981 and 2017. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *Journal of Travel Research* and *Tourism Management* are the top three journals that have published articles about destination image studies. The literature review of the destination image concept shows

that branding as a marketing concept, destination image within tourism context, tourists, competition, stakeholders and perception subjects are the general article subjects destination image studies have been looked at. Structural equation modeling, factor analysis, and content analysis are the methodologies that have been adopted mostly within the destination image academic literature.

The study of destination image has been the subject of much attention in academic literature. The main reason behind the attention was to understand tourist behavior. Destination image literature goes back to the early 1970s in social sciences and has been researched within a business administration context. Consumer marketing research was the initial territory that led scholars to research destination image as a product of tourism service industry. In the academic literature, destination image research has been done using several alternative names such as tourism image, tourist destination image, country image, holiday destination image, brand equity in tourism, destination brand image, destination perceptions, destination branding, and destination marketing.

Tourism researchers have long accepted that the image people have of the world around them has a significant influence on their travel behavior (Walmsley & Young, 1998). In general, destination image research can be divided into three developmental stages since the 1970s. The article “Image as a factor in Tourism Development” was among the first studies published in a tourism journal that linked image of a destination on travelers’ minds to its tourism development as a factor (Hunt, 1975). As well, Hunt (1975) was among the first to demonstrate its importance in increasing the number of tourists visiting a destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Hunt proposed to fragment the destination

image in potential visitors' minds into organic, induced, and modified-induced images (Gunn, 1972). The general purpose of the research was to examine the phenomenon of image as it may relate to tourism demand and development.

Prior to Hunt, Mayo (1973) studied regional images and regional travel behavior. Findings of his research related to changing travel behaviors opened the gates for destination image for scholars in marketing, business, and tourism. Mayo indicated that the image of a destination is a crucial factor in the destination decision of a potential tourist even if the image in his or her mind is not a true representation (Mayo, 1973). The destination image research was built on the general assumption that images as perceived by individuals in the travel market have as much to do with a tourism destination's development success as the tangible tourism resources (Hunt, 1975). This meant that having resources is not the only factor in tourism development, destination's image is also an important factor in selling the location.

Mayo stated that tourist studies mostly looked to understand the basic demographic and socioeconomic characteristics and thus future studies needed to focus on other factors that explain behavior (Mayo, 1975). In his study, he looked at why some tourists are especially attracted to National Parks and found out that those tourists do have some specific characteristics and at the same time they do have a very strong image. Crompton looked at pleasure vacationers' socio-psychological motivations, which influence their selection of destination (Crompton, 1979).

Crompton's 1979 study, one of the first case studies about destination image, published in *Journal of Travel Research*. *Journal of Travel Research* was the publication

through which destination image research was initiated and grew, as tourism became a social science building its own territories. Crompton analyzed the image attributes of Mexico as a country that American students considered to be important. Measurements indicated that the image of Mexico was a factor in tourism development with results showing that its image was enhanced as the interviewees resided farther away. Crompton proposed that images of places in people's minds do have an important factor in their decision processes.

Bachus published the first manuscript of compilation of dissertations on travel, recreation and leisure in *Journal of Travel Research* (Bachus, 1981). The compilation has one dissertation that studied the role of image and perceived constraints, which was written by Crompton in 1977. Crompton's dissertation modeled tourist destination selection process by looking at perceived destination image and the respondents' perceived constraints of time, money and travelability (Crompton, 1977). Crompton analyzed respondents not as tourists or current visitors but as individuals to explain differences in use of vacation time and in destination selection decisions.

The *Journal of Consumer Marketing* has been the publication which induced a lot of academic research about tourism in 1980s. Dichter (1985) studied the question of "What is an Image?" and looked at the mediating effect of destination image on the relationship between spectator satisfaction and behavioral intentions at an international sporting event. He stated that image describes not individual traits or qualities, but the total impression an entity makes on the minds of others. Dichter looked at image in the context of marketing of tourism as a service industry. The first approach to destination image research was marketing. Rosenberg and Czepiel (1984) integrated the concept of branding and

destination image. Studies about tourism phenomena during this period were done in the socio-psychological or psychological interpretations of destination image for the traveler (Stringer, 1984; Stringer & Pearce, 1984).

Gartner (1986) examined temporal influences in image change to propose several marketing positioning models. His study showed that very little image change was seen to result from short-term seasonal differences. Gartner's point of view considered images as a factor in tourist decision-making, building on Campbell's idea that travelers' evoked set of destinations consists of only a fraction of destinations of which the traveler has knowledge and has not necessarily visited before (Campbell, 1969). As well, Moutinho (1987) illustrated a tourist behavior modeling that has included all conceptions of image in consumer behavior research in tourism.

Telisman (1989) defined images of tourism destinations as a crucial component of a destination's tourism product. Telisman stated that destination image needs to be continuously assessed, as it exists in the minds of potential customers and it is a prerequisite to meaningful marketing strategy and competitive positioning. In the same year, Gartner looked at attribute measurement of state tourism as a product using multi-dimensional scaling techniques. He concluded that image does not equate to reality and image studies are representative of only for a specific time period. Embacher & Buttle (1989) tried an alternative approach to understanding destination image by applying repertory grid technique. These studies approached the destination image as the total perceptions people hold and tried to understand it as a perception construct rather than fragmenting it into socio-psychological or psychological factors.

Table 2.3.

Subject Terms of Destination Image in Tourism Literature

SUBJECT TERMS	HIT COUNT
branding (marketing)	35
destination image (tourism)	29
structural equation modeling	28
tourists	26
competition	25
stakeholders	25
perception	24
brand equity	23
tourist attractions	23
factor analysis	22
content analysis (communication)	21
qualitative research	18
empirical research	17
case studies	16
motivation (psychology)	16
tourism -- china	16
blogs	15
photographs	15
satisfaction	14
place marketing	13
social aspects	13
Social Media	13
tourism -- portugal	13
financial crises	12
attitudes	11
cluster analysis (statistics)	11
economic aspects	11
emotions (psychology)	11
national characteristics	11
residents	11
acquisition of data	10
quantitative research	10
sustainability	10
brand identification	9
chinese	9
data analysis	9
developing countries	9
image analysis	9
infrastructure (economics)	9
intention	9
publicity	9
china	8
china -- description & travel	8
spain	5
central asia	3
environmental aspects	3
india	3
psychological aspects	3
romania	3
south africa	3

Table 2.4:

Tourism Journals that have published Destination Image Research

JOURNALS	HIT COUNT
journal of travel and tourism marketing	222
journal of travel research	180
tourism management	123
tourism analysis	64
journal of vacation marketing	61
international journal of tourism research	59
Anatolia	52
tourism geographies	52
annals of tourism research	50
journal of hospitality marketing & management	48
current issues in tourism	43
asia pacific journal of tourism research	40
journal of sustainable tourism	34
tourism review	30
europaean journal of tourism research	28
journal of hospitality & leisure marketing	26
tourism review international	26
international journal of hospitality & tourism administration	23
journal of sport & tourism	22
tourism (13327461)	22
tourism recreation research	22
scandinavian journal of hospitality & tourism	21
journal of china tourism research	20
event management	17
journal of convention & event tourism	16
journal of hospitality & tourism research	16
tourism culture & communication	16
journal of quality assurance in hospitality & tourism	14
tourism & hospitality management	14
tourism & hospitality research	14
tourism economics	14
europaean planning studies	6
leisure studies	6
europaean urban & regional studies	4
expert systems with applications	4
geographical research	4
mobilities	4
public historian	4
urban studies (routledge)	4
asia pacific viewpoint	3
geografiska annaler series b: human geography	3
international journal of urban & regional research	3
journal of historical geography	3
third world quarterly	3
urban forum	3
american indian culture & research journal	2
canadian geographer	2
critique of anthropology	2
international planning studies	2
journal of african business	2

The second stage of destination image research started when researchers adopted the attitude theory to understand brand image. (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999b; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Gartner, 1989; Govers et al., 2007; Hosany et al., 2006; Lee, & Lee, 2005; Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly, & Luk, 2008; Pike, 2009; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011; Ryan, 2005; San Martín & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2008; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2006). From the perspective of attitude theory, destination image is “the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that an individual has of a destination” (Crompton 1979, p.18) which tourism is based on.

Phelps (1986) assessed secondary images of holiday resorts to examine what effect such images have on tourist decision making by providing a list of attributes from which to build up a word picture. His study showed that the package-holiday product itself is more important than the destination because of the vague place information given in destination brochures and that unexpected deviations between reality and preconceived images have negligible effect on holiday enjoyment. Another study that looked at enjoyment ratings (Ross, 1993). examined 400 backpacker visitors' prominent destination images of the tropics region in Australia and how images effected their intentions to revisit. His study examined existing tourist attitudes. His findings showed that images involving friendly local residents were related to positive revisit intentions and higher levels of enjoyment. When compared to authenticity and physical attributes of the destination, friendliness has been the most important factor in increased enjoyment levels, which in turn leads to revisiting intentions for the existing tourist.

Milman & Pizam (1995) expanded the context by studying the role of awareness and familiarity with a destination before a person actually becomes a tourist. A World Tourist Organization (WTO) document published in 1979 concluded that an image for a person about the destination can exist only if there is at least a small amount of knowledge held (WTO, 1979). Milman and Pizam's findings supported the WTO's conclusion and showed that as consumers move from the awareness stage to the familiarity stage their interest and likelihood to visit increase, although the same is not true for consumers when consumers move from unawareness to the awareness stage. This showed that familiarity is a more important variable than awareness with the destination.

The main concerns of researchers have been the association of tangible physical components of place perception commonly associated with the destination image (Pearce 1977, 1982; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992). Echtner & Richie examined the literature in order to understand the unique characteristics of destination image concept and develop a measurement and a framework (Echter & Richie, 1991, Echter & Richie, 1993). They came up with a framework that consists of three continuums: attribute-holistic, functional-psychological, and common-unique to measure destination image (Echter & Richie, 1991). Fakeye & Crompton (1991) developed a model to be able to describe the relationship between induced, organic, and complex images that amalgamated experiences to that destination. Walmsley & Young researched the applicability of the local scales of destination image to international destination image research. In their article published in 1998, they noted that there is a common structure of evaluations that may be used to differentiate between tourism destinations (Walmsley & Young, 1998). Their results

supported a common schema to be used to evaluate destination images at local and international level. In other words, Walmsley & Young concluded that people's appraisals of destination choices take a fairly standard form, except at the local level direct experience and firsthand knowledge cause evaluations to be made on a different basis from that used at the international level. The existence of a basic schema to evaluate intangible characteristics of a destination image has been important for future tourism scholarship about destination image.

Until Pike's literature review of destination image analysis was published in 2002 (Pike, 2002), only two literature reviews of the destination image studies have previously been compiled: by Chon (1990) and Echtner & Ritchie (1991). Chon reviewed 23 frequently cited destination image studies and found the most popular theme is the influence of destination image in tourist buyer behavior and satisfaction. Building on Chon's analysis of popular themes, Echtner and Ritchie examined the conceptualization and operationalization of 15 previous destination image studies to find a schema for future studies. Their review concluded that researchers still had not yet been successful in operationalizing the destination image construct. Another finding of Echtner and Ritchie's study was that researchers had a strong preference for quantitative research techniques (Pike, 2002). Pike reviewed 142 destination image analysis papers published from 1973-2000 to address several issues in tourism research, one of which was to understand if destination image has been analyzed in an explicit travel context. He also looked at the approaches used if they were structured or unstructured. Another issue he covered in his literature review was to understand how many studies utilized qualitative methods in either

the measurement of destination image or in the development of attributes lists. His purpose was to describe the methods and moderating effects that have been used as research foci in data analysis within the context of destination image research.

The third stage in the literature of destination image research started when scholars started to adapt qualitative analysis techniques in addition to quantitative ones. In this stage, scholars supported a holistic approach, which embraces cognitive, affective, and unique images interacting, using marketing concepts such as positioning and branding. (Cai, 2002; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Qu et al., 2011). The more recent research included in Pike's literature review established that destination image is formed by the relative strengths and weaknesses of a destination's cognitive and affective components (Baloglu and McCleary 1999b; Sönmez and Sirakaya 2002).

Although, the concept of destination image was well established among both tourism marketers and travelers (Pike, 2002), several alternative definitions of destination image have flourished due to different research done from the perspectives of industry professionals and social science academic researchers in the 21st century. Marketers and tourism professionals define a destination as a geopolitical system with its own destination management organization (Singleton & Singleton, 2016; Carlsen & Liburd, 2008, Pike & Page, 2014). Sociologists and cultural geographers perceive a tourism destination as a socio-cultural construction (Ringer, 2013; Pritchard & Morgan, 2001; Ekinçi, Sirakaya-Turk & Preciado, 2013, Pearce, 2014). Some treat a destination as a set of experiences and others treat it as a set of cultural and symbolic meanings and contested realities. (Saarinen 2004).

In the early 2000s, marketing of the tourism product was still the context in which destination image was researched. Attracting visitors is a major concern for destinations that are trying to increase tourism revenues because destination image plays a crucial role in travel related decision-making. Destination image has a critical influence on travelers' destination choice processes (Cai, 2002). Therefore, the image of a destination is vital in tourism marketing. Furthermore, destination image is commonly recognized as an important aspect of successful tourism development and tourism destination marketing due to its effect on both push and pull factors of decision making process (Tasci & Gartner, 2007).

Destination image has been examined as a pull factor because understanding how images are formed is critical to developing the pull potential of a destination (Gartner, 1994). Information gained from newspapers, magazines, or any kind of media agency are considered as pull factors. Communication channels such as broadcast media and print media were more recent tools that marketers used to set an image for a destination (Gretzel, Yuan, & Fesenmaier, 2000). Although the two factors have been explained in the literature as distinct, several researchers have noted that they should not be viewed as entirely independent of each other (Yuan & McDonald, 1990, Klenosky, 2002). As well in previous literature it has been suggested that internal forces push people to make a destination choice whereas simultaneously external forces of the destinations pull them. (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994, Cha, McCleary, and Uysal 1995).

In the previous destination image studies, both cognitive and affective image attributes are incorporated into the measurement of destination image. Baloglu and

McCleary (1999b) provide research which supports the view that cognitive and affective elements are interrelated, with affection being largely dependent on cognition. Several authors have looked at what visitors know about a destination, the cognitive image, and how visitors emotionally feel about that destination, the affective image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999b; San Martin & Del Bosque, 2008; Beerli & Martin, 2004). In the context of tourism, previous research empirically has shown that cognitive and affective evaluations have a direct influence on the overall image (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999a; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999b and Stern and Krakover, 1993). In sum, previous research recognized the multidimensionality and complexity of the destination image concept and applied different methods for measuring different components until recently (Pezenka, 2016).

The extent to which consumers use an overall or composite image is not yet understood (Dichter, 1985; Stern & Krakover, 1993, Baloglu & McCleary 1999a). The sources through which individuals receive information, such as promotions and recommendations, have been found to influence destination image (Baloglu and McCleary 1999b). Cognitive image attributes that are used in these studies are generally generated from the previous literature review (Pike, 2002). Sometimes, a content analysis of destination guidebooks or brochures is also used in order to generate cognitive image attributes (Di Marino, 2008; Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007; Y. Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007). Affective evaluations, on the other hand, are generally measured using the bipolar scales developed by J. A. Russell and his colleagues (Russell and Pratt, 1980; Stepchenkova and Mills, 2010).

Previous research shows, there is evidence that some image components may be universal to all destinations, while others are destination-specific (Echtner and Ritchie 1993). Therefore, a model may define the characteristics of destination image change and stability. Authors have not yet sufficiently addressed factors of the stability of a destination image in predicting destination choice across different tourists and destinations or ways to sustain an image through communication actors. (Lin, Morais, Kerstetter & Hou, 2007). A review of the literature shows that there is a gap in research which integrates alternative new communication technologies to destination image research. Social media might be integrated into destination image research to support sustainable tourism development. One reason is that it is a platform where communication about destination image can be listened to and visual and textual data might be gathered very fast. At the same time, social media provides a two-way communication channel which might be directed to individuals, communities, or masses. Management and research might be quicker for future tourism players.

In conclusion, even if the definition is in flux, destination image has a critical influence on travelers' destination choice processes (Cai, 2002), the tourism industry provides experiences that are personal, intangible, and non-repeatable. Service is often differentiated from goods because of its intangibility (Lewis & Chambers, 1999). Therefore, the only way tourists can assess the product, which is travelling, is by using it, which means experiencing it, or getting information through trusted channels. To be successfully promoted in a particular market, "a destination must be favorably

differentiated from its competition, or positively positioned, in the minds of the consumers” (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003, p. 37).

Destination Image and Social Media

Social media is affecting tourists’ consumption behaviors by facilitating conversations. Through social media, tourism destinations and businesses communicate and influence networked communities. At the same time, social media democratizes information, transforming people from content readers into content creators. It is the shift from a broadcast mechanism, one-to-many, to a many-to-many model, rooted in conversations between authors, people, and peers (Solis, 2010). Social media platforms such as YouTube, Twitter and Flickr play a central role in empowering enhanced levels of interactions among multiple parties (Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2014).

Social media marketing is the act of leveraging specific social media platforms (places where people connect and communicate) to promote a product or a service to increase sales (Sotiriadis & Van Zyl, 2013). Tourism companies use social media as a platform to apply their marketing strategies and spread their destination images through images and texts. However, currently social media is being used as a unilateral communication tool. Whatever these companies are communicating is just a fraction of communication data that is produced about a destination on social media. Companies aim to stimulate demand with the unilateral information they provide on social media and they use the term “viral marketing” for this. Viral marketing consists of marketing techniques that use social media to produce increase in brand awareness and/or to achieve increased visitation (Sotiriadis & Van Zyl, 2015). Fotis et. al., (2011), confirm the importance of

social media throughout the entire journey as a platform for tourism providers and tourist consumers to engage, interact, and share experiences.

Online/virtual destination image concept has been researched by few scholars until now. With the advent of online technologies, tourism destination images are becoming increasingly fragmented and ephemeral in nature (Govers et. al., 2007). One of the first papers published in the journal *Information Technology and Tourism*, tried to deconstruct the destination image concept into attribute-based components using structured methodologies (Govers & Go, 2003). The article demonstrated that multi-attribute destination image research is inadequate in predicting destination choice behavior. In a more recent study Govers, Go and Kumar (2007) have utilized a qualitative approach to study seven case studies with an online survey. Respondents were asked to describe in a narrative format the seven destinations that they have never visited before. One of the unique operational perspectives this study initiated in tourism research is that the respondents of the online survey were not current or potential tourists. In other words, the study considered all respondents to the survey as an individual beyond being a tourist, who may provide input about any destination asked.

Dwivedi (2009) researched the use of Web in destination image formation, exploring India's online image through consumer queries posted on travel message boards. The paper used netnography method which is an ethnography technique, a qualitative method applied to Web data. The results of the study showed that consumers are not only perceivers of destination image information, but they actively construct and share their own images via the Web platforms. The originality of this paper and novel value it adds to the

scholarship is that traditionally internet-based travel studies have focused on supply side sources such as tour websites and government travel websites. This paper illustrates that with Web availability, consumers can and do easily share their own destination images with others and so their online communication becomes a source to interpret virtual destination images.

Hunter (2013) carried out the first study to look at an online destination image through a representation of political figure. The study looked at the representations of the president of Mao as a key element of the Hunan province online tourism destination image. The qualitative study looked at images of Mao gathered from 257 websites to analyze the destination image. The findings showed that the image combines intrinsic cultural value with commercial use value in ways that complement China's tourism policy. The study showed that control of a complex image that is an aggregate online product is not entirely in the hands of tourism marketers. Individuals through their own social media posts and blogs do have an impact on the destination image produced online.

The social construction of tourism online destination image was examined through a semiotic cooperative analysis of visual representations of Seoul (Hunter, 2016). The study looks at photographs online and compares them to traditionally-projected images of the destination using semiotics as the methodology. Online image is further investigated by comparing keyword image searches among the Naver, Google, and Baidu website search engines. The results of the study showed that online representations of the Seoul experience differ in certain ways between social-semiotic contexts. Place is an important factor that determines the virtual destination image. The online Seoul image is a social-

semiotic construction rather than the marketers' projected image which means that online destination image is a reflection of social perceptions of people.

The first study which compared national tourism organizations' and tourists' perspectives of online destination image examined perceived and projected online destination images that are manifested in tourist generated content and national tourism organization generated content (Mak, 2017). Visual and textual content analysis techniques were used, which are both qualitative methods. The findings revealed that tourist-generated textual content tended to outperform national tourism organization generated content in reflecting affective destination image attitudes.

Destination image is a relatively new area that has been studied within the context of the Web and social media platforms. However, review of the literature shows that there are common characteristics in the existing research. Qualitative methods were adopted more commonly and case studies have been researched as well. Operational measurement approaches of destination image are still being examined in research which uses online data. Image is not a static phenomenon and has multiple-dimensions such as affective and cognitive, that might be challenging to measure. However, social media communication might be a data source that provides schemas to reveal the dynamics of destination image for future studies.

Destination Image and Crisis

Ranging from terrorism, crime, and natural disasters road accidents, diseases, or delays in flights, many obstacles can be found whenever a tourist starts a trip (Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992; Kelly, 1997; Hall, Timothy and Duval, 2003; Floyd, et. al., 2003; Floyd

and Pennington-Gray, 2004; Banyai, 2010). It is worthwhile to mention that communication plays a crucial role in mitigating the effects of crisis caused by disasters (Korstanje, 2011). News proliferated through mass media elaborates a sentiment as though the world were an unsecure place to be through a pseudo-disaster (Korstanje & Tarlow, 2012). The voice of experts who are victims, officials, or experienced individuals not only plays a pivotal role in it in altering the image, but also sets the sentiment toward the destination linking it to the sentiments towards a crisis.

Fall and Massey (2006) investigated how tourism managers have re-tooled their promotional campaigns after the 9/11 attacks. Their study examined the post-crisis communication adapted by convention and visitors' bureaus (CVB) who are responsible for delivering promotion campaigns for their destinations. Fall and Massey mention that the agenda setting theory (McCombs & Shaw, 1972) posits that the media sets the agenda (e.g., the topic) for what we think about, but not how we think about it. In the case of the September 11, attacks two significant findings emerged. First, public relations techniques continue to serve as key components for communicating before, during, and after a crisis of such magnitude as the September 11, 2001 attacks. Secondly, proactive managers who are re-structuring their promotional messages to encourage travel to their destinations are also significantly increasing their tourism marketing and public relations methods for disseminating such key messages.

Korstanje (2011) examined the new and growing perception of risk in tourism industry. One of the important implications of his research is that only after the attacks in New York in 2001, the concept of risk started to be applied to travel and tourism research

issues. Psychological and symbolic impacts generated by the 9/11 terrorism attacks drew the attention of many scholars who are concerned for the destination image of NYC. However, Korstanje opened the path of research by stating that risk perception in tourism has much to say.

Carlsen (2009) examined the effects of a natural disaster, a tsunami, and developed experimental applied research using all kinds of communication channels. The article describes the impacts of the tsunami disaster on the tourism demand of Maldives. The study applied short-term, medium-term, and long-term communication strategies to deliver information about the effects and precautions of the natural disaster to all stakeholders of tourism sector. Specific short-term, medium-term, and long-term strategies and actions are listed, including a short-term communications strategy to project primary and solidarity messages to tourists and travel intermediaries such as airlines, travel agents, and tour operators. The implications of the effectiveness of communication strategy showed an increase in the tourism demand to Maldives.

In tourism scholarship literature, much of the research about crisis and tourism dealt with the effects and aftermath of a natural disaster such as a tsunami or an earthquake on tourism development. However, the 21st century has experienced man-made crises, such as terror attacks, which have affected the tourism industry in large and multi-faceted ways. The literature that studied terrorism attacks in tourism scholarship has looked at strategic communication patterns to adopt after the crisis as a promotional tool to overcome the downsides of terror crisis with respect to tourism demand. In these studies, risk perceptions theory has been adopted to assess the tourist behavior. This research study aimed at

addressing the gap in the literature to understand the implications of a terror attack on the destination image attributes to provide a starting point to tourism players for using social media even before the crisis.

In conclusion, the literature review of tourism studies has shown that destination image research has gaps with respect to alternative approaches to analysis. There has been a gap in the utilization of social media data in destination image studies. Additionally, implications of terror attacks on destination images beyond safety have been overlooked. Last, but not least, time has never been evaluated as a factor of destination image. The literature review has shown that image is dynamic and not a static concept. Therefore, the adaptation of time as a variable will be an additional novelty to tourism scholarship. The second literature review in communication studies revealed that this study will contribute to communication literature by utilizing social media data in Agenda Setting theory research and expanding the theory domain to a different context. An additional contribution might be to expand the domain of the Agenda Setting theory to a new social science: tourism.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The third chapter presents the research methodology and how it is applied in detail. The chapter is structured to guide the reader through an introduction of methodology, explanation of the study site, data collection methods, and data analysis methods focusing on the research questions and research objectives of the study.

The first part of the chapter introduces the gaps in the literature and the adaptation of theory and practice of this study. The introduction part addresses the concepts of research design and two methodological sections. The study site section justifies the selection of Paris as a destination choice in this research. The third section details the steps of data collection, cleaning and coding from Radian6 software. The last section of Chapter 3 explains the two methodological analysis steps to answer research questions and test hypothesis.

Introduction

In tourism scholarship literature, much of the research about crisis and tourism dealt with the effects and aftermath of a natural disaster such as a tsunami or an earthquake on tourism development. However, the 21st century has experienced man-made crises, such as terror events, which have affected tourism industry in a large and multi-faceted way. The literature that studied terrorism events has looked at strategic communication patterns to adopt after the crisis as a promotional tool to overcome the downsides of a terror crisis. However, this study aims to address the research problem about the implications of a terror attack on destination image. Additionally, the literature review has showed that previous

destination image studies have focused on understanding the destination image through data provided by visitors using traditional data collection methods such as structured surveys. The literature lacks empirical research about exploring destination image through online networks which provide global and unstructured data. In conclusion, the research problem this study tries to address is that there is a need for meaningful understanding and deliberate investigation of how online communication effects tourism practices, particularly the existing destination image themes and effects of terror attacks on destination images.

Destinations compete through images held in the minds of potential and repeat tourists. As tourism services are intangible, images become more important than reality (Gallarza et al., 2002). The formation of image has been described as the development of a mental construct based upon a few impressions chosen from a flood of information (Reynolds, 1965). With regard to experiential products like travel and tourism, consumers are involved in an ongoing search for information. Information delivered from various resources has an impact on the images people have of a destination (Gartner & Ruzzier, 2011). In the case of destination image, this flood of information has many sources including promotions, the opinions of others, media reporting, and popular culture (Govers & Kumar, 2007). Social media is an information resource that provides instant information from friends, family, media resources and even tourism promotion companies. As a consequence, the tourism destination images projected in information space will greatly influence the destination images perceived by consumers (Govers, 2007). The images held in the minds have factors and these factors are not static due to new information. Therefore,

as new information is generated, factors of destination images are prone to change with respect to time. As a result, the sentiments towards the themes will alter in time.

This study is guided by Agenda Setting theory, which was developed by McCombs and Shaw in 1968. Agenda setting describes a very powerful influence of the media on setting the perceptions. In the last 50 years of research, literature about Agenda Setting theory showed the power and ability of mass media to tell us what issues are important and how it frames the issues. Agenda setting is the creation of public awareness for salient issues. Agenda setting has two assumptions; (1) the agenda setters of the press and the media do not reflect reality; instead they filter and shape it; (2) media concentrates on a few issues and subjects which leads the public to perceive those issues as more important than others (McCombs & Shaw, 1972).

One of the most critical aspects in the concept of an agenda-setting role of mass communication is the time frame for this phenomenon as different media have different agenda-setting potential. Discourses of media consumption affect how news diffuses. Due to new digital information resources, the discourses have changed. Agenda setting discourse on social media is the data collection method of this study. As well, Agenda Setting theory considers the Web as a mass medium that can influence the formation of community opinion. In reflections for future research, McCombs considers the Web as the new frontier for public opinion research (McCombs, 2014).

Acceptance of the Web as the new global communication landscape brings new research areas. Agenda Setters have a role in disseminating the information that is comprises of destination image formation. Tourism authorities need to understand that

while successful tourism promotion is dependent on a broad range of external influences, a communication agenda set by Agenda setters is an influential component. The Agenda Setting theory that drives this study and the nature of online data has the potential to incorporate mixed methods. Classification of the mixed methods design is qualitative methods to develop quantitative measures (Figure 3.1). Therefore, the sequential mixed methods research design is a good approach to answer the research questions of this study.



Figure 3.1 Sequential Mixed Methods Research Design

Due to the nature of available data, this study has the advantage of using multiple ways to explore the research question and thus the research design is sequential mixed methods (Creswell, 2014). The first step of sequential approach is Thematic Network Modeling to find out the emerging themes at each time period. Thematic Network Modeling is a qualitative technique used to discover all themes that have been pushed out by the influential digital identities. The primary step is to understand the emerging basic themes at each time period to answer the first research question before, during, and after the terror attack, and create a network map for organizing themes. The organizing themes that will emerge will serve as the dependent variable. The second part of this analysis will apply multinomial logistic modeling as the quantitative analysis using the organizing themes as independent variables to answer the second research question.

Within the extensive research on destination image in the last four decades, there have been two very different empirical research methodology approaches (Gallarza, Saura, & García, 2002). However, these studies often are not theoretically driven. One approach has been a positivist approach that uses quantitative methods to discover and understand factors of the destination image concept (Schroeder 1996). A second common approach is undertaken to operationalize the measurement of destination image concept (Gómez, Lopez, & Molina, 2015; Echtner and Ritchie 1993). Due to the complexity of destination image construct, research methodologies used are in general multi-disciplinary and do vary. This theoretically driven study fills the gap in the literature by using positivist mixed methods approach to find out factors of the destination image concept and then use the findings to operationalize the factors of the destination image theme in measuring sentiments towards a destination.

One common ground in previous research studies is that; all authors agree that the destination image concept usually corresponds to a global impression beyond physical barriers and subjectivity of individuals (Crompton 1979; Dichter 1985; Kotler et al. 1994; Lumsdon 1997; Parenteau 1995). However, previous visions of tourism destination images are not general enough to offer a global perspective. Attitudes change due to the information they get from global online networks (Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). The research methodology of this research fills the gap in the literature by conceptualizing the destination image as a mental structure that integrates the elements, impressions, and values people reflect onto a specific destination by gathering data from a global source, which is the Web (Huang, Li and Chai, 2010). In other words, this study acknowledges a

destination image that is a complex global expression reflected through online verbal expressions to the communication agenda.

The purpose is to understand what the online destinations themes are and then explore how the destination image themes, found previously in this study, affect sentiments with respect to time. To do so, this study employs two major methodological sections (Figure 3.2). The first step is understanding what the existing destination image themes are in online communication within the social networks. Previous studies have explored the destination image themes mostly with structured questionnaires, a global impression beyond physical barriers, and subjectivity of individuals.



Figure 3.2: Two Major Methodological Sections

The first part of the analysis focuses on answering the first research question: what are the emerging themes in Twitter communication for the destination Paris, France before, during, and after a terror attack? The method used in the first part of the analysis was the qualitative research method Thematic Network Modeling. Thematic analyses seek to unearth the salient themes in a text at different levels, and thematic networks aim to

facilitate the structuring and depiction of these themes. Additionally, thematic networks technique is a robust and highly sensitive tool for the systematization and presentation of qualitative analyses. The technique provides practical and effective procedures for conducting an analysis; it enables a methodical systematization of textual data, facilitates the disclosure of each step in the analytic process, aids the organization of an analysis and its presentation, and allows a sensitive, insightful, and rich exploration of a text's overt structures and underlying patterns.

The second research question of this study is; what is the relationship between destination image themes, time periods, and sentiments? The second research question will obtain the required answers to understand the effects of a terror attack on sentiments towards destinations image themes. To answer the second research question, this study uses quantitative methodology. Many kinds of observational data collected in the tourism and hospitality sciences have a multivariate, hierarchical, or clustered structure as it is in this research. Multivariate techniques allow for determination of the latent multidimensional structure of the tourism destination image, as well as average scoring as a numeric instrumentalization of image. This property allows for the capture of various image components, for various publics, and various destinations (Calantone et al., 1989). Therefore, this research utilizes generalized linear mixed modeling as the quantitative technique.

In conclusion, analysis of destination images on social media may provide important insights into consumer travel decision-making processes and behaviors before, during, and after the visit. This approach conceptually liberates destination image bounded

by the perceptions of visitors. Furthermore, studies showed that travelers are more influenced by friends even with limited knowledge of real life events, destinations, or attractions (Duffy, 2015). Therefore, this study tries to explore the contemporary research problem of online destination image and effects of terror attacks on image by handling gaps in the literature with respect to theory and research methodology in tourism and communication studies. The research problem is looking to find a solution to understanding destination image themes on social media and the effects of terror attacks on destination image themes by adopting Agenda Setting theory to social media communication data.

Study Site

Paris is one of the world's leading tourism destinations, attracting some 20 million visitors a year (Pearce, 1998). The study site has been selected as the tourism destination Paris, France. Paris is a destination, which has multiple facets in the tourism and hospitality service industry, such as culture, art, history, leisure, recreation, parks, and museums. Paris has been one of the most successful destinations in the tourism and hospitality industry, which sustained its tourism development and growth (Butler, 1999). Additionally, Paris has been framed as one of the cities with a strong destination image due to its resources, tourism income, and sustainability of tourism product (Di Cesare, D'Angelo & Rech, 2009). Furthermore, evidence shows that economic growth of Paris due to tourism and international trade is significant (Estrada & Koutrouas, 2016).

The city of Paris is a well-known destination worldwide (Albu, 2016), with a powerful impact on tourist perception (Urry, 1992). Tourism for cities with a strong destination image is viewed as one of the major pillars of the economy, as it is in Paris.

Paris has been framed as one of the cities with a strong destination image due to its resources, tourism income, and sustainability of tourism product (Di Cesare, D'Angelo & Rech, 2009). Figure 3.3 shows that in 2015 and 2016 Paris as a tourism destination was the European city that sold the second highest number of beds per night. Figure 3.3 also shows a decline of 9.5% in 2016; however, the destination still did not lose its place in the European tourism and hospitality market.

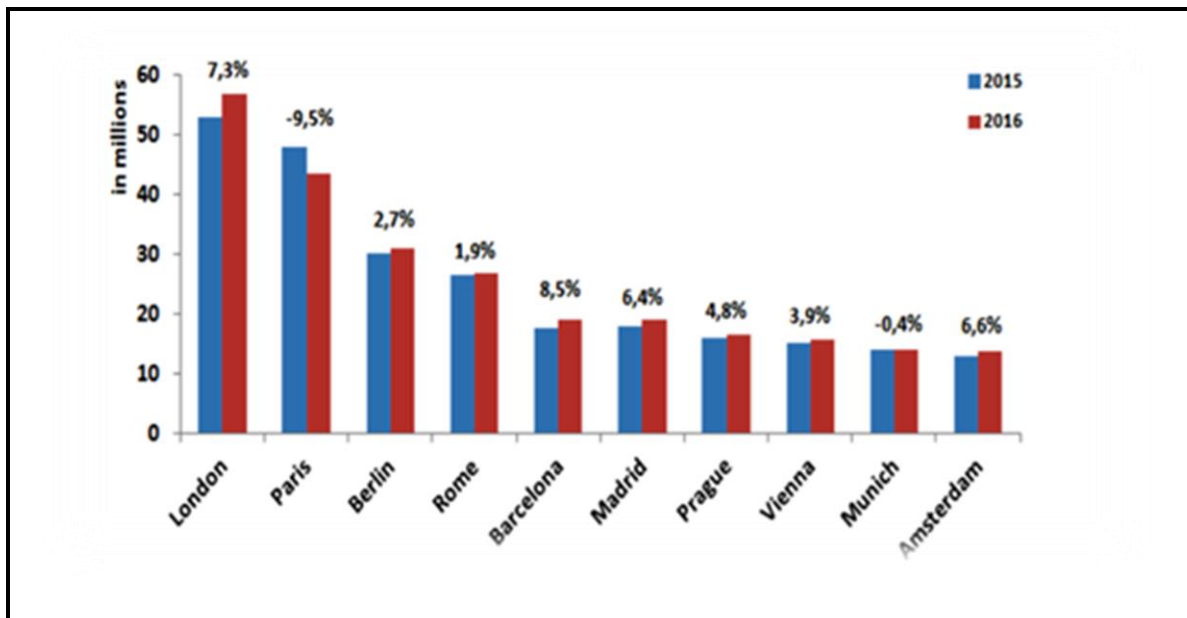


Figure 3.3: Top 10 European Cities' Total Number of Bed Nights

In November 2015, Paris experienced the deadliest terror attacks in its history. Tourism in Paris in 2015 was marked by the two series of deadly attacks in the capital, which had a strong impact on tourism activity (Bureau, 2017, July 31). Analyses reveal that there have been difficulties generated by the attacks on tourism practices and the growth of competitor destinations. Data shows a 17.2% decrease in foreign hotel arrivals

in November and December 2015. In 2016, there were 15.45 million international overnight visitors to Paris, down from 16.99 million in 2015. In 2016 there was an overall decline in international tourist arrivals at hotels in Paris (Figure 3.4). However, in 2016, Paris was the city with the sixth city globally that had the most spending from visitors despite the trouble year, as well as, the second most visited international city in Europe.

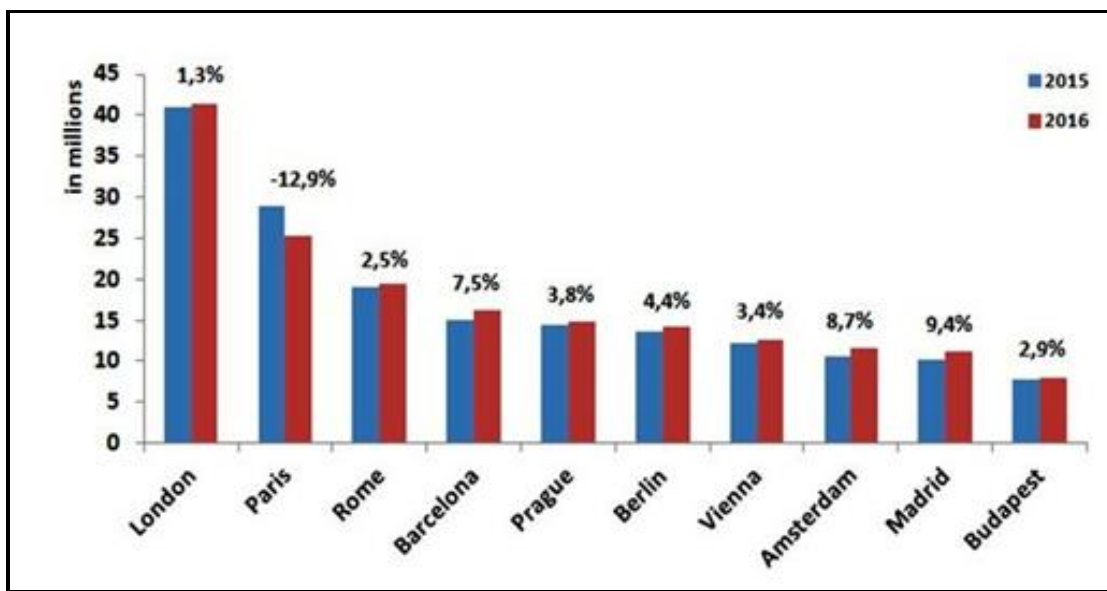


Figure 3.4: Top 10 European Cities Total Number of Bed Nights by International Tourists

Key figures show the number of tourists visiting the city was affected by the terrorists' attacks as well as by flooding, strikes, violent demonstrations and robberies for one year. Because of the attacks in November 2015, France spent all of 2016 under a state of emergency (Beydoun, 2015). However, less than a year after the attacks of November 2015, there was renewed growth in the Paris tourism industry (Haller, 2017). Few cities could have been capable of such a rapid turnaround due to credibility of crisis news sources

who are dominant and whose information possess timeliness, authority, and credible (Gray, 2017). Another explanation might be the strong image of the French capital and its reassertion of destination image during major international events such as the Euro 2016 football tournament.

Research has shown that terrorism influences the equilibrium decisions of international investors in an integrated world economy (Abadie & Gardeazabal, 2005). Paris will be considered again as a primary tourist destination depending on whether terrorist attacks are publicly viewed as a one-time event or as a recurring threat (Beck, 2015). Paris, France was chosen for this investigation as the study site because it is an international tourist destination that is vitally important to France's and Europe's economy and data shows that terror attacks had a negative economic effect on visitation in 2015 and 2016. Furthermore, the terrorism dates allow the researcher to examine people's online communication relative to their perceptions of the image of Paris. Thus, this research aims to fill the gap in the literature regarding how terror attack alters destination image themes and how does online word-of-mouth plays a part in it.

Data Collection, Cleaning & Coding from Radian 6 Software

Radian 6, a social media listening software, is employed to mine the data from the Web. This research explores online communication data through an unobtrusive observation approach, which gathers independent data from existing online resource; Twitter. This study analyzes Twitter posts selected by Radian6 software through a search query defined by the researcher. The approach to data mining is the observation approach. The data is composed of people's interactive online communication, which is interpersonal,

and/or intrapersonal. These data sources, which are Tweets, are public posts. Tweets are driven from people's actually intended actions and perceptions rather than a prepared answer for a survey question. Therefore, what this study deals with is the real and unstructured secondary data. This technique leads to the creation of a big data set composed of Tweets and other coded data provided by the Radian 6 software such as the sentiment of Tweets. The relevance of this study in terms of methodology is that it will be a pioneer in using a mixed methods approach to destination image analysis utilizing unstructured, unbiased, and secondary big data derived from Twitter.

One contemporary way for people to express themselves is through online communication platforms such as Twitter. Twitter is an online social media platform that enables users to post their perceptions one-to-one or one to many. Verbal and non-verbal communication are important resources through which researchers may grasp the contemporary state of a destination image. This research looks at online communication about a destination. Data gathered by online communication, which is initiated by the will of the person, has the advantage that people are personally motivated to express opinions, not bound by researchers' structured questions. As well, some studies (Schultz, Utz & Göritz, 2011; Schroeder, 2014) suggest that people are more honest and courageous when delivering their thoughts, feelings and comments when it is done through a screen rather than through a face-to-face interaction.

Twitter is considered as both a microblogging and a social network platform. Microblogging takes the concept of blogging and compacts it (Akehurst, 2009). Conventional blogs can be of any length but microblogging is carried out usually by mobile

phone text messages and is therefore currently restricted to just 140 characters (Akehurst, 2009). Twitter is possibly the best-known microblogging site and was launched in 2006 (Sotiriadis, & Van Zyl, 2015). In a 24-hour period, 140 million active Twitter users send out more than 340 million tweets (Gašpar & Mabić, 2017). Therefore, through Twitter data, it is possible to evade the problem of ensuring a representative sample using the population of all users of Twitter with respect to search query. Therefore, Twitter is chosen as the data collection platform for this study, which would provide official, and unofficial tourism communication posts about Paris that happened before, during, and after the November 2015 terror attacks in Paris, France.

Social media is a continuous, global and instantaneous meeting space for friends and strangers. Social media platforms are tools that allow people to share content with their social networks by exporting information (Xiang, & Gretzel, 2009). The positive aspects of data collecting from social media are that people post about issues of their own will and motivation. Therefore, the researcher bias disappears from the data collection stage of the research when collecting online communication data. Additionally, findings indicate that online Word-of-mouth communications have a significant impact on attitudes toward visitation, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and intention to travel (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012).

The composite nature of the destination image construct presents great challenges for its measurement (Stepchenkova, Kirilenko, & Morrison, 2006). Traditionally, a strong preference has been given to structured methods of image measurement (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Pike, 2002). Structured quantitative methodologies focus only on particular

destination attributes that have derived from prior researches. Thus, structured quantitative methodologies generally neglect the holistic aspect of destination image. However, the measurement of holistic images, such as a destination image, should involve content analysis of textual and/or pictorial materials to explore categories, counts, attributes, and variables through inductive reasoning (Berg, 2001). To understand the holistic nature of destination image, this study is conducted using online communication data gathered through Radian 6 software.

Radian 6 Data Collection Steps

Radian 6 social media analysis software enables the researcher to collect and download the unstructured raw data after the configuration. The configuration window of Radian 6 software enables users to enter relevant information to maximize the acquisition of related content. Table 3.1 provides the steps of Radian 6 data configuration and collection steps in this research.

First, to be able to download the big data that is relevant to the research questions, a “New Topic Profile” should be created. Topic profile has filtering choices such as the visibility, languages, and media types. The filters will be selected to segment the data. This research’s topic is visible to everyone that has access to the software. Radian 6 software enables one to search through a variety of available languages. As well, the research questions require one or more social media platforms to be selected.

The next step in configuring the Radian 6 data search was the decision-making of query keywords and keyword groups. The keywords were selected using a step-by-step approach to eliminate unrelated content but at the same time be as inclusive as possible to

gather all communication that happened in a specified time period with respect to travel and hospitality perceptions in Paris, France. The purpose is to understand the perceptions of Agenda Setters who are tourism players that are dominant in dispersing the image, ideas and perceptions of Paris. Additionally, a Radian 6 expert review has been done with respect to search Keywords.

Table 3.1
Radian 6 Data Acquisition Steps

-
1. Create: The New Topic profile in Radian 6 for the data query
 2. Filter: Topic Profile Language Filtering
 3. Filter: Check Topic Profile Social Media Platforms
 4. Choose query keywords and keyword groups
 5. Choose all keywords as sentiment subjects
 6. Run the analysis
 7. Run Word counts: find and filter unrelated content
 8. Filter: unrelated keywords in the communication
 9. Run the analysis 2nd time
 10. Create: Topic Trend Widget to visualize volume of the communication
 11. Choose the time Periods that volume has jumped
 12. Download all posts to Excel for Coding & Cleaning
-

The next step in configuration to collect data is to choose sentiment subjects to understand which social media posts have negative, neutral, or positive sentiment. Sentiment subjects are keywords the software uses to measure the sentiment within the context of the post. A recommended approach of Radian 6 is to include all of the keywords

as sentiment subjects. At this point, the researcher should run the Radian 6 data analysis software.

The results of the analysis provide a word clouds and word lists, which show unrelated content to the research problem. To filter content unrelated to the subject matter, a preliminary data collection will be made and unrelated posts that include irrelevant content will be revealed. Next, the filters will be set in the configuration window of the Radian6 software to ensure content does not contain the unwanted keywords, topics, or any kind of unrelated content in the data. The Radian 6 data search query will be run a second time at his point to get all the data.

The configuration of Radian 6 Software leads to the Dashboard that visualizes the volume of the communication. Topic Trend gadget summarizes with a graph the total volume of conversation that has happened. It provides a map to start the data coding according to how the communication volume has changed. This allows a researcher to find out if the time periods relevant to the research question are conceptually and analytically feasible. Time periods will be defined according to the distribution and frequency of Tweets occurring from November 7-18, 2015.

The purpose of a data period is to be able to capture trends in the content and frequency of the posts before, during, and after the terror attacks that will reveal the effects of the Paris terror event that happened in the night of November 13, 2015 on the destination image. To understand the players and attributes of the players behind this change, this study explores and compares the themes and agenda setters by exploring themes driven from

Agenda Setters within three time periods, which the Topic Trend visualizes. The researcher critically has to choose the three time Periods to code the data accordingly.

The data for analysis will be downloaded from the River of News Widget in the Dashboard of Radian 6 Software. At this point the researcher should download all the social media posts to Excel software. To be able to understand the prominent themes, the next step will be to find out Agenda Setters and their Tweets within the three selected time periods. This research adapts alternative techniques that have been used in previous research as a method to find out Agenda Setters and influential content with respect to Paris, France as a destination within the selected time period.

Data Cleaning & Coding

Radian 6 is the social media listening and monitoring software that allows downloading historical social media communication data through search queries to Microsoft Excel software for cleaning and coding. The first step of data cleaning and coding starts with downloading data to Excel. Data cleaning and coding steps are listed in Table 3.2

The data cleaning process will provide the sample size which depends on the total number of posts that is available for each time period. These numbers will represent the population who have shared their unstructured opinions, emotions, and perspectives through their posts.

The analysis of agenda setters in this study stems from incorporating Agenda Setting theory and the relevant studies done to explore influential players on social media. In this study, Radian 6 software was not able to yield an influencer analysis because the

current analytical tools do not yet analyze past data to find out influential digital identities. However, it does provide influencer weightings for the recent data. This study researches and analyzes influencers relying on previous results of Agenda Setting literature.

In previous academic research, there have been several hypotheses regarding who the online influential players are. Several studies in the tourism & hospitality literature have adopted the basic norm that whoever has the most followers, that digital identity is the most influential in identifying destination marketing organizations according to the categories of influencers that have the greatest reach (Bokunewicz et. al., 2017). However, due to advances in developing alternative social media platforms such as Twitter, Instagram, and Facebook, the factors for the influencer weights have become a source of argument. Cha et al. (2010) defines influence on Twitter in several ways: indegree influence as the number of followers of a user directly indicates the size of the audience; re-tweet influence as the ability to generate content with pass-along value; and mention name influence, as the ability of that user to engage others in a conversation. This study utilizes the recent research made and incorporates all factors of influence: number of followers, re-tweets and number of user mentions.

Table 3.2
Steps of Data Cleaning & Coding

1.	All Data transferred to Excel
2.	Figure out: Existing Variables
3.	Cleaning: Delete Repetitive Posts, Unrelated Mention Names And Content
4.	Code according to Agenda Setting theory by Filtering All Posts with at least 1 Follower, 1 Re-Tweet and 1 Name Mention
5.	Delete all Tweets that are not from Agenda Setters
6.	Code Time Period of Each Post
7.	Re-Code Sentiment of Each Post

The third step is cleaning the data. There are four steps taken to clean data in this study. The first step consists of looking at all mention names and to see if any of the usernames have the keywords used at the configuration step of Radian 6. The usernames which had the keywords but did not post content that is related to the destination will be deleted. The second step is to look at the content of the posts. There might be some posts that are not related to tourism and travel even though they contained the keywords; these posts will be deleted because they are not relevant to the study. Additionally, there might be several posts which are repetitive and/or did not qualify for an ethical research; repetitive posts will be deleted which are coming from machine posts. Mention names that have posted more than once in the defined period will be selected; for analysis purposes, if there are a high number of accounts who post only once, the data becomes overly skewed.

The fourth step is coding the data to find out posts that are generated by Agenda Setters. Salwen's study (1995) showed that even before social media emerged, traditional

media used individuals who were credited as experts as agenda setting sources. The raw data downloaded to Excel from Radian 6 provides several variables that might be used to answer the research questions such as content of the social media post, number of followers, sentiment of the post, and publish date. These are the available variables that are needed for the analysis. However, Agenda Setting theory suggests that an Agenda Setter has to have at least one follower, at least one mention name and one re-tweet. From the list of all posts, using Excel formulas posts that belonged to Agenda Setters, with respect to these three criteria, will be extracted at step four and Agenda Setter Variable will be created.

Agenda setters post influential content with respect to the issue salience of Agenda Setting theory. Therefore, step five is to delete all other posts. Additionally, Salwen's research (1995) showed that proactive managers who are re-structuring their promotional messages to encourage travel to their destinations are also significantly increasing their tourism marketing for disseminating such key messages for communicating before, during, and after a crisis of such magnitude as the September 11, 2001 attacks (Fall & Massey, 2006). Thus, step six is coding time periods of each post before, during, and after the terror attacks will be carried out in Excel.

Step seven is to code all posts once more according to the sentiment they communicate. The sentiment of the post that has been provided by Radian6 has been re-checked and re-coded by the researcher. The Sentiments of the Tweet Contents were re-coded to check the assigned sentiment values of the Radian 6 software, which assigns sentiment values according to sentiment subjects defined at the configuration step.

However, due to machine learning techniques, software cannot differentiate between irony or mocking. Therefore, the researcher must go over the Tweet content to correct if there have been several issues with respect to difference between human and machine communication. All posts will be coded according to three sentiments: negative, neutral and positive.

Research Questions and Data Analysis Methods

Scholars have increasingly recognized the additional advantages of applying quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods in a single study. A number of destination image studies employed sorting and categorization techniques to identify the frequencies of certain words, concepts, objects, or people, and treated the most frequent ones as variables, or dimensions, of the destination image construct (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Dann, 1996; MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997; Tapachai and Waryszak, 2000; Andsager and Drzewiecka, 2002; Echtner, 2002). Even though, the unstructured qualitative methodologies of destination image measurement often contain a quantitative element such as frequencies or counts, they do not facilitate statistical and comparative analyses of destination images (Jenkins, 1999) to understand the image or measure its constructs. To fill the gap in data analysis methods this research uses empirical research to test the relationship statistically with mixed methods.

Mixed methods is an umbrella term for the multifaceted procedure of combining, integrating, linking, and employing multi-methods (Creswell, Plano-Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003). The mixed method approach acknowledges the difference between mixing methods but not the mixing of paradigms, which falls beyond the scope of this effort (Riley,

R. W., & Love, L.L., 2000). To be able to answer the research questions this research has two sequential analysis stages utilizing mixed methods with separate but complementing paradigms (Figure 3.5).

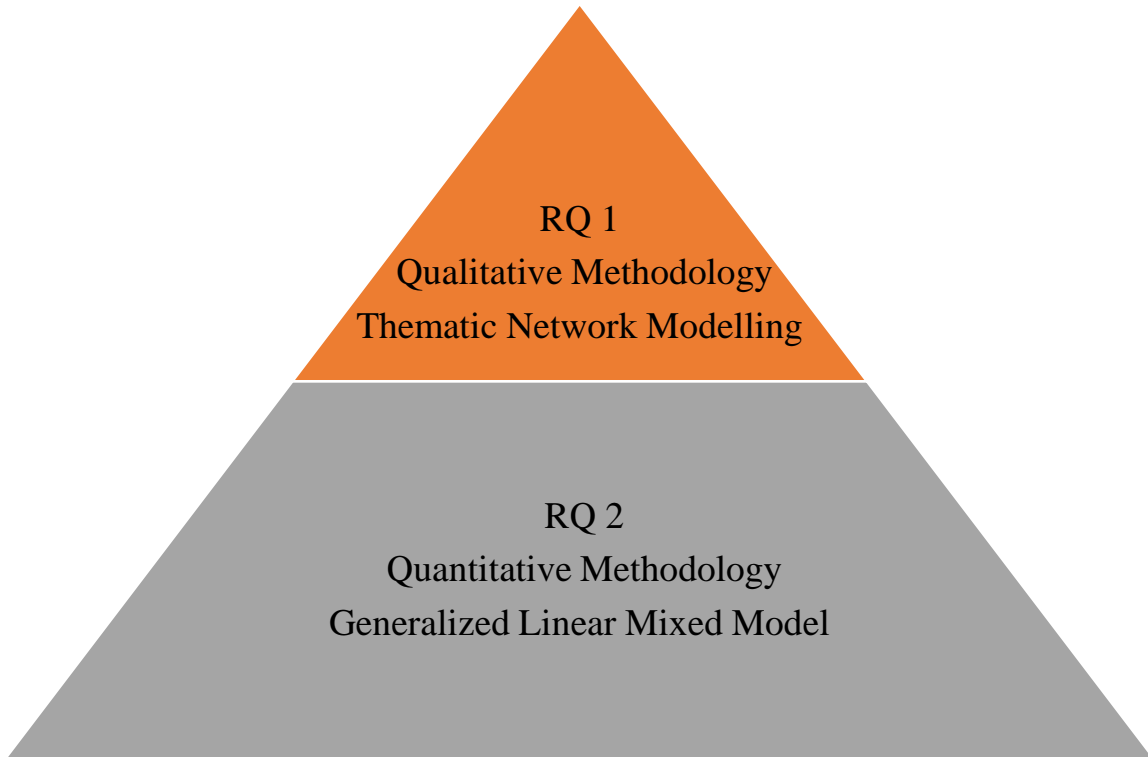


Figure 3.5: Steps of Analytical Procedures in Mixed Methods Design

Unquestionably, both quantitative and qualitative data are increasingly available for use in studying social science research problems (Cresswell, Plano-Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003). The use of multiple methods for the same study can help minimize some of the disadvantages of using one method; for example, the detail of qualitative data can provide insights not available through general quantitative surveys (Jick, 1979), which is

the case in this research. The first stage aims to find out destination image themes for three time-periods, which will provide variables for the second analysis stage.

In social science and tourism research, there is broad consensus that mixing different types of methods can strengthen the study (Greene & Caracelli, 1997). This research will be conducted using a mixed-methods approach, which incorporates both qualitative and quantitative methodologies to explore destination images by collecting unstructured communication. In sum, this study applies several analysis techniques in a sequential manner: qualitative thematic analysis and lastly generalized linear mixed modeling.

Destination Image Thematic Analysis

Thematic network modelling is the qualitative method this research utilizes to find out relevant destination image themes. Thematic analysis will be done by inductively coding themes of destination image using QSR NVivo10 software for each post. Open coding will be utilized to identify the organizing themes. Peer debriefing is utilized to evaluate data analysis and coding. The relevance of all methods of this study is that they rely on each other sequentially to answer the research questions.

Research Question 1. What are the emerging themes in Twitter communication for the destination Paris, France before, during and after a terror attack?

To ensure content validity, selected items for the destination image constructs will be primarily revised from prior studies in the tourism context. The components of destination image will be used in the thematic analysis to reveal the word counts before, during, and after the attacks. Although the big data is unstructured, themes found in previous studies will be utilized as an initial benchmark to acquire themes through tweets. NVivo software is used to analyze word counts and word trees to retrieve relevant themes and networks. The purpose of qualitative methodology is to understand the meanings in Twitter conversation beyond word counts, to reveal a network of global, organized and basic themes.

Steps of the qualitative procedure Thematic Network Modelling are listed in Table 3.3. Excel data was transferred to NVivo, qualitative data analysis software. This study conducts thematic network modelling of textual big data by employing established, well-known techniques in qualitative analysis. This study proposes that thematic analyses can be usefully aided by and presented as thematic networks: web-like illustrations (networks) that summarize the main themes constituting a piece of text and provides an empirical example of the application of the method to social media data. This technique provides practical and effective procedures for conducting an analysis such as; it enables a methodical systematization of textual data, facilitates the disclosure of each step in the analytic process, aids the organization of an analysis and its presentation, and allows a sensitive, insightful and rich exploration of a text's overt structures and underlying patterns. Initial ideas should be noted down. It is important that the researcher has a comprehensive understanding of the content of the interaction and has familiarized

him/herself with all aspects of the data. This step provides the foundation for the subsequent analysis.

Table 3.3
Steps of Qualitative Procedure: Thematic Network modelling

1.	Excel Data transferred to NVIVO
2.	Transcribing the interactions and then reading (and re-reading) the transcripts
3.	Generate initial basic themes for each Tweet
4.	Interpretive analysis of the collated codes
5.	Reviewing Themes
6.	Defining and Naming Themes
7.	Interpretation of the Themes and Network

Thematic networks systematize the extraction of: (1) lowest-order premises evident in the text (basic themes); (2) categories of basic themes grouped together to summarize more abstract principles (organizing themes); and (3) super-ordinate themes encapsulating the principal metaphors in the text as a whole (global themes). These are then represented as web-like maps depicting the salient themes at each of the three levels and illustrating the relationships between them (see Figure 3.6). This is a widely used procedure in qualitative analysis and parallels are easily found, for example, in grounded theory (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). The procedure of thematic networks does not aim or pretend to discover the beginning of arguments or the end of rationalizations; it simply provides a technique for breaking up text and finding within it explicit rationalizations and their implicit signification. The three classes of themes can be described as follows:

- **Basic Theme:** This is the most basic or lowest-order theme that is derived from the textual data. Once familiar with the data, the researcher must then start identifying preliminary codes, which are the features of the data that appear interesting and meaningful. These codes are more numerous and specific than themes but provide an indication of the context of the conversation. It is like a backing in that it is a statement of belief anchored around a central notion (the warrant) and contributes toward the signification of a super-ordinate theme. Basic themes are simple premises characteristic of the data, and on their own they say very little about the text or group of texts as a whole. In order for a basic theme to make sense beyond its immediate meaning it needs to be read within the context of other basic themes.

- **Organizing Theme:** This step requires a deeper review of identified themes where the researcher needs to question whether to combine, refine, separate, or discard initial themes. Data within themes should cohere together meaningfully, though there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes. This is done over two phases, where the themes need to be checked in relation to the coded extracts (phase one), and then for the overall data set (phase two). A thematic ‘map’ can be generated from this step.

Organizing themes are the clusters of the basic themes in similar issues. Relevant data extracts are sorted (combined or split) according to overarching themes. The researcher’s thought process should allude to the relationship between codes, subthemes, and themes. Clusters summarize the principal assumptions of a group of basic themes, so

they are more abstract and more revealing of what is going on in the texts. However, their role is also to enhance the meaning and significance of a broader theme that unites several organizing themes. They are the principles on which a super-ordinate claim is based (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Thus, organizing themes simultaneously group the main ideas proposed by several basic themes, and dissect the main assumptions underlying a broader theme that is especially significant in the texts. This way, a group of organizing themes constitutes a global theme.

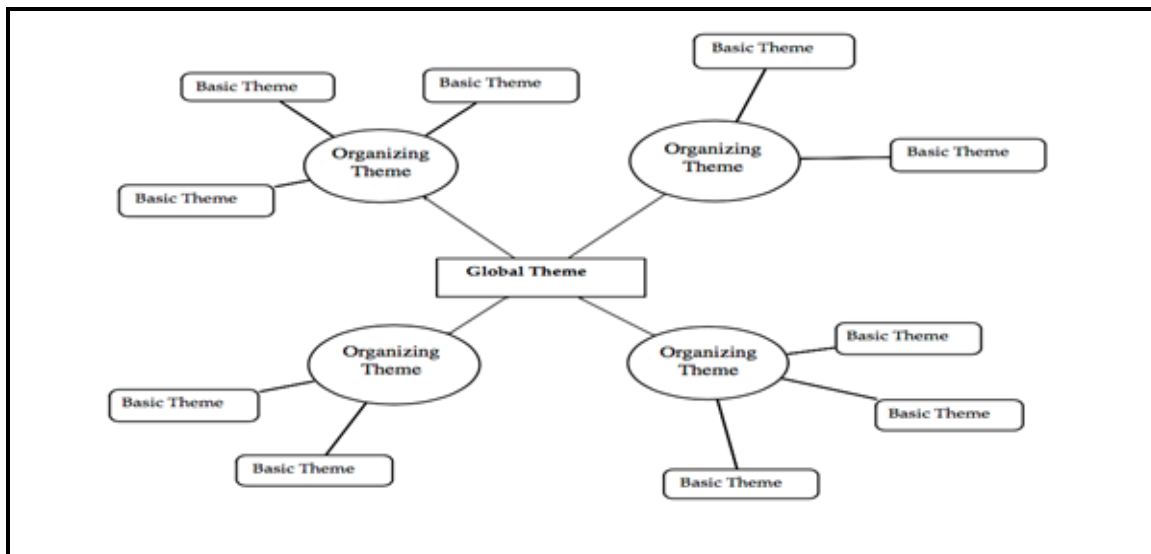


Figure 3.6: Structure of a thematic network (Attride-Stirling: Thematic networks)

- Global Theme: Global themes are super-ordinate themes that encompass the principal metaphors in the data as a whole. A global theme is like a claim in that it is a concluding or final tenet. As such, global themes group sets of organizing themes that together present an argument, or a position or an assertion about a given issue or reality. They are macro themes that summarize and make sense of clusters

of lower-order themes abstracted from and supported by the data. Thus, global themes tell us what the texts as a whole are about within the context of a given analysis. They are both a summary of the main themes and a revealing interpretation of all texts.

The thematic analysis steps will be repeated for each time period for the purpose of understanding if there are the differences of emerging basic and organizing themes due to the terror attacks in Paris in November 2015. Defining and naming themes involves 'refining and defining' the themes and potential subthemes within the data. Ongoing analysis is required to further enhance the identified themes. The researcher needs to provide theme names and clear working definitions that capture the essence of each theme in a concise manner. At this point, a unified story of the data needs to emerge from the themes. Finally, the researcher transforms his/her analysis into an interpretable piece of writing by using vivid and compelling extract examples that relate to the themes, research question, and literature. The report will relay the results of the analysis in a way that convinces the reader of the merit and validity of the analysis. It must go beyond a mere description of the themes and portray an analysis supported with empirical evidence that addresses the research question.

Generalized Linear Mixed (Multinomial Logistic) Model Analysis

The purpose of the research question in general is to understand if a terror attack effects sentiments towards destination image. To understand it, destination image themes found in the first section of analysis are integrated in the quantitative analysis as the factors to unfold the holistic destination image construct. Destination image is formed over time

from a variety of influential information sources (Nghiem-Phú, 2014). Influential information sources are agenda setters that set the themes and have sentiments towards those themes. These communication sources act as online word-of-mouth toward negative, neutral or positive promotions towards destinations such as Paris, France.

The central postulate of this study, as is in all destination image studies, is that a destination image has a crucial role in an individual's travel purchase-related decision-making and that the individual traveler's satisfaction/dissatisfaction with a travel purchase largely depends on a comparison of his expectation about the destination, or a previously held destination image and his perceived performance of the destination (Chon, 1990). The importance of this research is that if one knows who sets the themes and sentiments towards the portrayal of destination image, one would be much faster to act in case of a crisis.

Table 3.4
Steps of quantitative analysis using SPSS

-
1. Clean The Data
 2. Code Time Period Variable Using SPSS Date & Time Wizard
 3. Code Categorical Variables Theme and Sentiment
 4. Look at Frequencies and Distributions of Categorical Variables
 5. Run Cross-Tabs Analysis for Each Categorical Variable To See The Fit
 6. Run Descriptives Analysis For All Variables
 7. Analyze the Model For Each Hypothesis
 8. Provide F-Tests to Show Significance Of The Predictors
 9. Interpret Results
-

Research Question 2. What is the relationship between destination image themes, time periods, and sentiments?

The quantitative methodology is used to answer the research question about the effects of agenda setters on sentiment towards themes at each time period. To decide which method is most appropriate, several steps are taken. The preliminary steps of quantitative analysis are listed in Table 3.4.

The first step after transferring data to SPSS software is to clean and code the data. Categorical variables will be coded so that SPSS would not dummy code. Therefore, agenda setters will be coded individually numerically without any importance of sequence.

The second step is to code the time period variable using the SPSS date and time wizard. The blogging times of tweets were in a day/month/year hour: minute format and needed to be coded so that SPSS could read it. A time period variable is created in the previous analysis stage to distinguish and analyze themes and sentiments within their own time context. Each time period will be coded according to predefined time period using Date & Time Wizard of SPSS to a sortable variable.

The third step to run a generalized mixed model is to code categorical variables; theme and sentiment. Categorical variables such as theme and sentiment need to be pre-coded before the analysis is run to prevent SPSS from dummy coding.

The fourth step is find out the frequency and distribution of the variables theme, time, and sentiment. This will provide relevant information about the distribution of variables. Since the outcome of interest is categorical, general linear models are not

appropriate. Generalized linear models have been developed to address analytic issues associated with these non-normal outcomes. For nominal outcomes, these are logistic models. Since the outcome is considered nominal, with three categories, negative, neutral and positive, multinomial logistic model will be used to test the hypothesis.

To understand the relationship between each variable, the fifth step will be crosstabulation analysis for each pair of variables. The sixth step will be descriptive analysis of variables to understand data and evaluate results after the model is run. Variables that are interest to answer the research question are listed in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5
Variables used in the quantitative model

1.	Time Period: Nominal at Level 1
2.	Sentiment: Nominal at Level 1
3.	Theme: Nominal at Level 1

This study employs sequential mixed methods approach. The first stage is the qualitative phase and the second stage is the quantitative phase. The result of qualitative analysis is incorporated as the variables of analysis to the quantitative phase. This study employs quantitative methods to understand the hierarchical relationship and clusters of factors to be able to understand the relationship between the sentiment of agenda setters' social media posts and their relationship time periods which are before, during, and after terror attacks.

The seventh step is to analyze the model for each hypothesis using SPSS analytical software. The eighth step will be to provide the results of F-tests and show the significance of predictors for each hypothesis by running multinomial logistic regression model. The multinomial logistic model that pulls two regressions together will provide results of significance for the null hypothesis; the probability of getting negative, neutral, and positive sentiments differ for each theme: attractions, affections, travel behavior and safety and security. Depending on the significance test of the multinomial logistic model, two separate binary logistic models will be run to find out if the probability of getting a negative or a positive sentiment differs significantly from that of getting a neutral sentiment. The results of the regression models will be interpreted for each hypothesis.

Ultimately, the main purpose of this study is to find out the destination image themes communicated by Agenda Setters on social media for three time periods, (before, during and after terror attacks) and understand how time moderated the sentiments towards the themes. This study does not only contributes to the academic literature, but also contributes to professional tourism players as an example that might be applied to future crisis marketing strategic plans.

CHAPTER 4.

DATA COLLECTION, CLEANING AND CODING

This chapter includes the findings from the statistical analysis of this research. It begins with a discussion of the data configuration and collection process for Agenda Setters; Tweeter posts, followed by the reporting of the descriptive statistics of data and variables and concludes with the results from the thematic network analysis and generalized linear methods analysis of hypothesis testing.

In a 24-hour period, 140 million active Twitter users send out more than 340 million tweets (Gašpar & Mabić, 2017). Therefore, through Twitter data it is possible to evade the problem of ensuring a representative sample using the population of all users of Twitter with respect to search query. Therefore, Twitter is chosen as the data collection platform for official and unofficial tourism communication posts about Paris before, during, and after the November 2015 terror attacks in Paris, France.

The composite nature of the destination image construct presents great challenges for its measurement (Stepchenkova, Kirilenko, & Morrison, 2006). Traditionally, a strong preference has been given to structured methods of image measurement (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Pike, 2002). Structured quantitative methodologies focus only on particular destination attributes that have derived from prior researches. Thus, structured quantitative methodologies generally neglect the holistic aspect of destination image. However, the measurement of holistic images such as a destination image should involve content analysis of textual and/or pictorial materials to explore categories, counts, attributes, and variables through inductive reasoning (Berg, 2001). To understand the holistic nature of destination

image, this study is conducted using online communication data gathered through Radian 6 software.

This research explores online communication data through an unobtrusive observation approach: gathering independent data from an online resource: Twitter. The data is composed of people's interactive online communication, which is interpersonal and/or intrapersonal. These data sources, which are Tweets, are public posts. Tweets arise from people's actually intended actions and perceptions rather than a prepared answer for a survey question. Therefore, what this study deals with is the real and unstructured secondary data. As an initial step, before data screening for Agenda Setters' posts, all Twitter posts are selected by Radian6 software through a search query that is related to the topic of research.

This technique leads to the creation of a big data set composed of Tweets that are coded by the Radian 6 software. The relevance of this study in terms of methodology is that it will be a pioneer in using a mixed-methods approach to destination image analysis utilizing unstructured, unbiased, and secondary big data.

Radian 6 Data Collection

Radian 6 analysis software enables the researcher to collect and download the data by configuring the settings according to the research topic. The configuration window enables users to enter relevant information to maximize the acquisition of related content (Figure 4.1). Table 4.1 provides the steps of data configuration and collection steps in this research.

The screenshot displays the Radian 6 software interface, specifically the 'Topic Profile Manager' configuration window. The top navigation bar includes 'Dashboard', 'Configuration', 'Insights Manager', and 'Help'. The user is logged in as 'Zeynep Gedikoglu' with a 'Logout' option. The main content area is divided into three sections:

- Topic Profile(s):** A list of topic profiles on the left, with 'ZeynepG' selected at the bottom. Buttons for 'Add New Topic Profile' and 'Delete Topic Profile' are located below the list.
- Topic Profile Details:** The central configuration area for the selected profile 'ZeynepG'. It includes fields for 'Topic Profile ID' (1046421), 'Topic Profile Name', 'Topic Profile Owner' (Zeynep Gedikoglu), 'Visibility' (Public), 'Created Date' (05/01/2008), 'Days of Historical Data' (3501), and 'Estimated Monthly Volume' (39,600). It also features 'Insights Manager' and 'Languages' settings, with 'English' selected in the 'Selected Languages' list.
- Media Types:** A section with radio buttons for 'Include All' and 'Filter By Media Type'. Under 'Filter By Media Type', several checkboxes are visible: Twitter (checked), Facebook, Comments, Mainstream News, Blogs, Forums, MySpace, Images, Buy/Sell, Aggregator, Forum Replies, and Videos.

At the bottom of the configuration area, there are sections for 'Keywords and Keyword Groups', 'Sentiment Subjects', and 'Influencer EQ Weightings', each with a right-pointing arrow. Additionally, there are 'Check EMV' and 'Save Topic Profile Changes' buttons.

Client Usage Summary: A summary box in the top right corner shows 'Topic Profiles: 100 / 100' and 'Estimated Monthly Volume: 859.95k / 1.5M' with corresponding progress bars.

Figure 4.1: Configuration window of Radian 6 Software

To be able to download the big data that is relevant to the research questions, the first step is to create a “New Topic Profile” under the name of the researcher. New Topic Profile was created with the name “ZeynepG” with profile ID 1046421. In the second step, the topic profile has filtering choices; language and social media type. Radian 6 Software enables filtering through a variety of available languages. For this research the big data was filtered by English language. The third step required the selection of social media platforms to collect the and download the data. The questions for this research rely on the Twitter as the media platform. Therefore, the social media platform Twitter was selected as the data source to search for posts of Agenda Setters.

Table 4.1
Radian 6 Data Acquisition Steps

1.	Create: The New Topic profile in Radian 6 for the data query
2.	Filter: Topic Profile Language Filtering
3.	Filter: Check Topic Profile Social Media Platforms
4.	Choose query keywords and keyword groups
5.	Choose all keywords as sentiment subjects
6.	Run the analysis to find and filter unrelated content
7.	Filter: unrelated keywords in the communication
8.	Run the analysis 2nd time
9.	Create: Topic Trend Widget to visualize volume of the communication
10.	Choose the time Periods that volume has jumped
11.	Download all posts to Excel for Coding & Cleaning

The fourth step in configuration of Radian 6 was the decision-making of query keywords and keyword groups. The keywords were selected using a step-by-step approach to eliminate unrelated content but at the same time be as inclusive as possible to gather all the online communication within the specified time period with respect to travel and hospitality perceptions in Paris, France. “Paris” is a term that is included in all content. However, to be able to reach out data that is related to the destination of Paris from an existing visitor, repeat or future visitor’s perspective, the search has to be expanded to include tourism and travel keywords as well. Additional options were tried such as the keywords “hotel”, “flight” and “museums”. However, to justify the data accuracy and due to the high amounts of repeated promotional machine tweets, these keywords were excluded from the configuration to make sure promotional messages were excluded. Additionally, a Radian 6 expert review has been done with respect to search keywords. Therefore, this research includes communication content that contains any of the keyword combinations in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2
Radian 6 Software Configuration Keywords

“Paris”
“Paris” and “holiday”
“Paris” and “tourism”
“Paris” and “travel”
“Paris” and “visit”

The next step in the configuration to collect data is to choose sentiment subjects to understand which Tweet has negative, neutral or positive sentiment. Sentiment subjects are keywords for which the software measures the sentiment within the context of the post. The difference from search query words is that sentiment subjects are approached singularly, for example, if the word “holiday” is in the Tweet, the software assigns a sentiment to the Tweet by analyzing how it is mentioned in the content. A recommended approach of Radian 6 is to include all of the keywords as sentiment subjects. Therefore, the sentiment subjects were chosen as all the keywords of the search query, so, the sentiment keywords were the same keywords listed in Table 4.2.

Table 4.3.
Spam keywords used in Radian 6 Configuration for Twitter

@Paris
Paris Hilton
Loreal Paris
Vogue_Paris
@GfashionID
Paris to La
Paris to Moscow
Paris Saint German

The sixth and seventh steps of data configuration are filtering unrelated content to the subject matter. First, spam filtering is done at the initial configuration stage. A preliminary data collection made with the search query keywords. The unrelated usernames

and Tweet contents have been revealed by the first data search. As a result, the filters were included in the configuration to ensure content does not contain unrelated content such as the Tweets the search keyword “Hilton” brings. Keywords that are considered as spam were included in Radian 6 configuration under the Keywords and Keyword Group Tabs as spam keywords to exclude the relevant Tweet content. Spam keywords are listed in Table 4.3.

The eighth step is to run the analysis for the second time. The configuration of Radian 6 software leads to the Dashboard that visualizes the volume of the communication. Topic Trend gadget summarizes with a graph the total volume of conversation that has happened. This widget provides a guide to select the time periods according to how the communication volume has changed to narrow the data. This graph provides the three time periods that the research question in this study needs to further analyze hypothesis. Time periods will be defined according to the distribution and frequency of Tweets that occurred from November 7-18, 2015. The purpose of the data period is to be able to capture trends in the content and frequency of the posts before, during and after the terror attacks that will reveal the effects of the Paris terror event that happened the night of November 13, 2015, on the destination image. At this point the researcher should download all the social media posts to Excel software.

Cleaning & Coding the Data

The data is downloaded from the River of News Widget in the Dashboard of Radian 6 Software to Excel. The next step will be to find out Agenda Setters and their tweets within the time period November 7-24, 2018 who have posted from the United States, using the

keywords selected as query words. Table 4.4 shows the steps of cleaning and coding in this research.

Table 4.4
Steps of Data Cleaning & Coding

-
1. All Data transferred to Excel
 2. Figure out Existing Variables
 3. Cleaning: Delete repetitive tweets that are dispersed by a machine
 4. Code according to Agenda Setting theory by Filtering All Posts with at least 1 Follower, 1 Re-Tweet and 1 Name Mention
 5. Delete all Tweets that are not from Agenda Setters
 6. Code Time Periods of Each Post
 7. Re-Code Sentiment of Each Post
-

The raw data is downloaded to Excel from Radian 6. The second step provided variables such as content of the tweets, number of followers the Tweet has, sentiment of the Tweet, and the publication date of the Tweet. To be able to apply Agenda Setting theory we needed to find out other variables such as; how many times the mention name of the tweeter was mentioned in the overall communication period, if the Tweet is original or a re-tweet, the number of times a mention name tweeted, number of re-tweets a Tweet has, and how many times an Agenda Setter tweeted during each time period. These codes were created in Excel in the coding stage.

The third step was cleaning. There are three steps taken to clean Twitter data. At this stage, several unrelated contents were already sent to spam by the configuration. The

first step consisted of looking at all usernames to see if any have the keywords of this study: “Paris”, “travel”, “holiday” etc. The usernames which had the keywords but did not post content that is related to the destination have been deleted; one example is “@ParisHilton”.

The second step was to look at the content of the tweets. There were some tweets that did not relate to tourism and travel even though they contained the keywords. These data were deleted because they were not relevant to the study. Some examples of usernames that have posted content not related to this study is @siwonstorm, @oceaniajewelry, @antiquebasket, @Justintrudeau. However, there were several Tweets which were still irrelevant, repetitive, or did not qualify for an ethical research. Repetitive Tweets which were coming from machine posts were deleted. Tweets such as “Christian Dior Paris” were deleted.

The fourth step was to code Agenda Setters. Data provided factors in relation to Agenda Setting Effect such as number of mention names, number of followers for its tweets and number of re-tweets for each Tweet. Coding and finding out all tweets that are generated by Agenda Setters started by finding out the measures of influence that will be used in this study. First, the re-tweeted posts, which are original as-is tweets, did not necessarily have the most number of followers. This meant that an Agenda Setter, who is pushing out the information to tell people what to think about and how to think about it, does not necessarily had to have the most followers. The number of re-tweets, then is as important as the number of followers. Secondly, the number of username mentions is considered as a factor of influence on Twitter. Twitter accounts that are quite vocal, that mention many others in their discussions about a destination, could be influential as well

(Bokunewicz, J. F., Bokunewicz, J. F., Shulman, J., & Shulman, 2017). The metric of influence is called out-degree, which are mention names (Bokunewicz, J. F., Bokunewicz, J. F., Shulman, J., & Shulman, J. (2017).

Agenda Setting theory suggests that an Agenda Setter has to have at least one follower, one mention name and one re-tweet. Of all tweets found, tweets with respect to these three criteria, were extracted at step 5 and Agenda Setter Variable was created. To do this, the study utilized Excel formulas. Most content analysts who work with user generated User generated content content have switched from traditional paper coding forms to electronic coding forms, such as Excel files. Coding directly into electronic files also makes intercoder reliability checks and subsequent analyses easier since the data are already in an appropriate format (Lindmark, 2011; Guest et. al., 2011). Excel formulas are used to find tweets at time periods before, during, and after. Figure 4.2 shows the first page of the Excel sheet for the “Before” period.

Excel File Edit View Insert Format Tools Data Window Help

CODED-Before DATA

Home Insert Page Layout Formulas Data Review View

PivotTable Recommended PivotTables Table Pictures Shapes Icons Store My Add-ins Recommended Charts PivotChart Sparklines Slicer Timeline Link New Comment Text Box Header & Footer Equation Symbol

C11 @BBC_TRAVEL

	B	C	D	E	F	G	Q	R	S	T
	AUTHOR	@AUTHOR	ORIGINAL TWEET	RE-TWEET	# OF RE-TWEETS	# OF USER MENTIONS	# OF FOLLOWERS	CONTENT CAPS	PUBLISH_DATE	FOLLOWERS
1	FOODANDWINE	@FOODANDWINE	YES	FALSE	6	10	2336859	ENDARY POILANE BAKERY IN THE F	11/9/15 15:37	6
2	NANDOSUK	@NANDOSUK	YES	FALSE	1	1	1562836	DO OUR BEST PARIS. WHICH RESTA	11/10/15 4:16	21
3	DINAHJANE97	@DINAHJANE97	YES	FALSE	136	1970	1435170	R LOVE CAN TRAVEL? @ PARIS, F	11/6/15 12:12	17
4	HBO	@HBO	YES	FALSE	5	6	1331831	CONTENT LEADING TO #U2ONHBO, V	11/10/15 16:14	18
5	CAPITALOFFICIAL	@CAPITALOFFICIAL	NO	TRUE	0	4	827521	DOKED A HOLIDAY TO PARIS WITH N	11/9/15 14:32	24
6	BAEFEELINGSSS	@BAEFEELINGSSS	NO	TRUE	2	0	767128	HE WORLD: PARIS? NEW YORK? JAP	11/10/15 10:16	7
7	CHIPOTLETWEETS	@CHIPOTLETWEETS	YES	FALSE	0	0	716019	ANS AT THE MOMENT. CHECK OUT	11/10/15 18:15	1
8	CHIPOTLETWEETS	@CHIPOTLETWEETS	YES	FALSE	0	0	715797	E MEANTIME, IF YOU'RE ON HOLID	11/9/15 13:11	1
9	BBC_TRAVEL	@BBC_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	17	48	713776	LERIES, EVEN IN NOVEMBER! VIA #	11/8/15 13:43	4
10	BBC_TRAVEL	@BBC_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	0	48	713564	#00TH BIRTHDAY THIS WEEKEND! V	11/7/15 10:18	4
11	BBC_TRAVEL	@BBC_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	21	48	713363	RIS IN 1859 - HERE IT IS TODAY! VIA	11/6/15 12:51	4
12	MGAPINOYPATAMA	@MGAPINOYPATAMA	YES	FALSE	3	277	680196	PARIS? NEW YORK? JAPAN? ALASK	11/12/15 3:47	1
13	MGAPINOYPATAMA	@MGAPINOYPATAMA	YES	FALSE	7	277	675651	S? NEW YORK? JAPAN? ALASKA	11/7/15 5:22	1
14	MGAPINOYPATAMA	@MGAPINOYPATAMA	YES	FALSE	10	277	674917	IEND: PARIS? NEW YORK? JAPA	11/6/15 8:36	1
15	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	1	95	557820	ARIS HTTPS://T.CO/NUUOL8XQJZ H	11/12/15 20:32	42
16	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	1	95	557815	CK IN PARIS HTTPS://T.CO/NOBKUW	11/12/15 20:10	42
17	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	3	95	557664	OCK IN PARIS HTTPS://T.CO/72ISZP	11/12/15 11:33	42
18	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	3	95	557654	ARIS HTTPS://T.CO/QNB34KHUED H	11/12/15 11:06	42
19	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	2	95	557449	RIS HTTPS://T.CO/LNKNDUZR LHT	11/11/15 20:32	42
20	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	4	95	557444	OCK IN PARIS HTTPS://T.CO/PXLGPA	11/11/15 20:04	42
21	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	6	95	557381	ARIS HTTPS://T.CO/EGGVY381MV H	11/11/15 15:04	42
22	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	1	95	557372	LOCK IN PARIS HTTPS://T.CO/JALGOV	11/11/15 14:50	42
23	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	3	95	557098	RIS HTTPS://T.CO/Q906JMC56G HT	11/10/15 18:07	42
24	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	1	95	557096	DCK IN PARIS HTTPS://T.CO/5QEN9Z	11/10/15 17:59	42
25	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	1	95	557013	RIS HTTPS://T.CO/PXAMQTV4GG H	11/10/15 12:28	42
26	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	3	95	557007	DCK IN PARIS HTTPS://T.CO/WZ0DG	11/10/15 11:47	42
27	LUXURY_TRAVEL	@LUXURY_TRAVEL	YES	FALSE	2	95	556797	LOCK IN PARIS HTTPS://T.CO/19TGA	11/9/15 18:21	42

BEFORE-DATA-CODED

Ready

Figure 4.2: Excel Sheet for Agenda Setting Analysis in Before Period

In the figure it may be seen that the second column defined the mention names with the “@” sign in front to be able to search for user mentions in the content. The column C looked if the Tweet is original or not by searching for the letters “RT” within the post. Column D is “YES” if it is an original Tweet, column E will be “FALSE” which means that the Tweet is not a re-tweet. Column F calculates the re-tweets of that post not only in that worksheet but also in all the data of the Before time period. Column G calculates the number of username mentions for the author of that post in the Before time period tweets. The Content, publish date, and number of followers are given by the Radian 6 data. In the fifth step, the tweets that are not posted by Agenda Setters were deleted from the data.

The sixth step was coding all tweets from Agenda setters according to the time period in which they have been posted. The seventh and last step of cleaning and coding the data was re-coding sentiment values that the Radian 6 Software has assigned to each Tweet. Radian 6 software assigns sentiment values according to sentiment subjects defined at the configuration step of Radian 6. However, due to machine learning techniques, software cannot differentiate between irony and mocking. Therefore, the researcher has gone over the Tweet content to correct several issues with respect to differences between human and machine communication. In conclusion, the big data from Twitter is coded, cleaned, and grouped in Excel worksheet for further analysis.

Descriptive Statistics of Data

Radian 6 software provides all the communication data for a time period specified in the research query. This study chose the research query words that were broad enough to include more than the destination name would have provided by itself, yet distinctive

enough to allow for as clear a delineation as possible between other topic posts. The study used a deductive approach by starting with all of the big data, which was in total 121,572 tweets for all three time periods. Next, the data from Agenda Setters were found and the total number of tweets under study reduced to all tweets of agenda setters, which was a total of 5,500 tweets.

The total number of posts that were available for each period before cleaning are shown in Table 4.5. These numbers represent the whole population who have shared their unstructured opinions, emotions, and perspectives through using the keywords the city of Paris and “tourism” and /or “travel” and/or “visit” and/or “holiday.

Table 4.5
Total Number of Tweets at Each Time Period Before Data Cleaning

Before	During	After
22,153	70,803	28,616

Time Period Variable and Sample of the Study

The research is looking to determine if there is a difference between themes and sentiments set by agenda setters’ before, during, and after a terror attack. The question explores the crisis component of a destination image by understanding the posts of Agenda setters in a crisis context within three time periods.

Time periods selected to pursue for this research chosen were after preliminary research was done. Topic Trend Gadget summaries with a graph the total volume of conversation that has happened November 7-24, 2015 (Figure 4.3). Figure 4.3 shows that the communication spiked on 13th of November and recouped around the 18th of November.

The graph in Figure 4.3 verifies that the increase in conversations that include the query keywords out of ordinary between November 13-18, 2015. To understand the players and attributes of the players behind this change, this study explores and compares the themes and agenda setters by exploring themes driven by Agenda Setters within three time periods. It is obvious even before cleaning and coding the data that the volume of the conversation increased during the terror attack. Therefore, the time periods of the study are chosen as listed in Table 4.6.

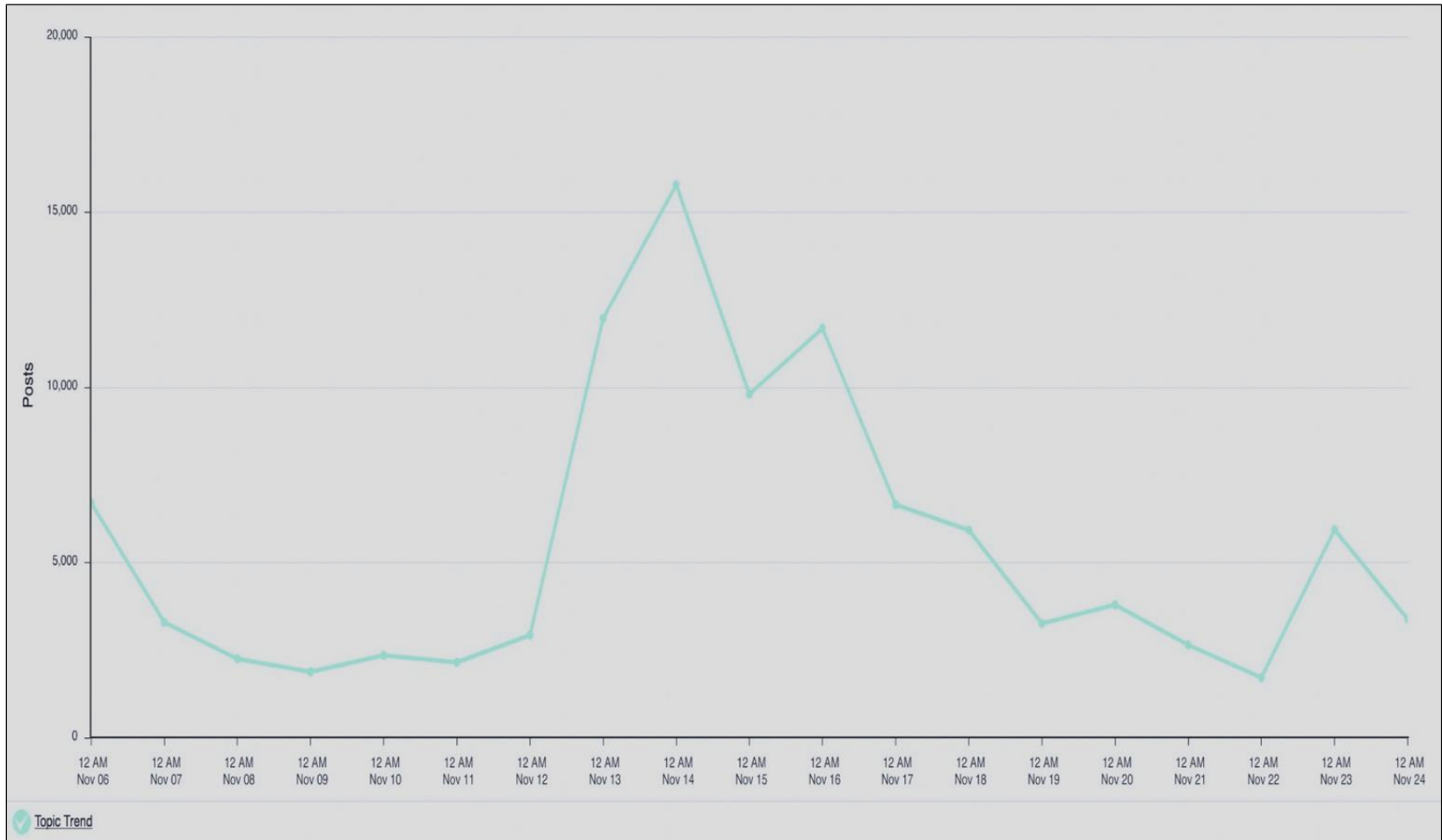


Figure 4.3: Topic Trend for Twitter Communication

Table 4.6
Three Time Periods of the Study

Before Terror Attack:	November 7-12, 2015
During Terror Attack:	November 13-18, 2015
After Terror Attack:	November 19-24, 2015

The researcher collected data through the social media platform Twitter for the dates November 7-24, 2015. The purpose of the data period is to be able to capture trends in the content and frequency of the posts before, during, and after the terror attacks that will reveal the effects of the Paris terror event that happened on the night of November 13, 2015 on the destination image. The selection of time periods depended on the distribution and peak times of the data. Keywords supplied by the author are the “Paris”, “holiday”, “tourism”, “travel” and “visit” to get access to tweets that deliver content to the Twitter stream. The analytical procedure is explained in the Data analysis section according to the relevant hypothesis using terminology for each research question.

Table 4.7
The Frequency Of Total Number Of Tweets At Each Time Period

	Before	During	After
# of Tweets	813	3913	774

The frequency of total number of Tweets at each time period after the data is cleaned is shown in Table 4.7 and Figure 4.4. Agenda Setters posted 813 tweets in the “before” time period (November 7-12, 2015), 3,913 tweets in the “During” time period (13-18 November, 2015), and 774 tweets in the “After” time period (November 19-24, 2015).

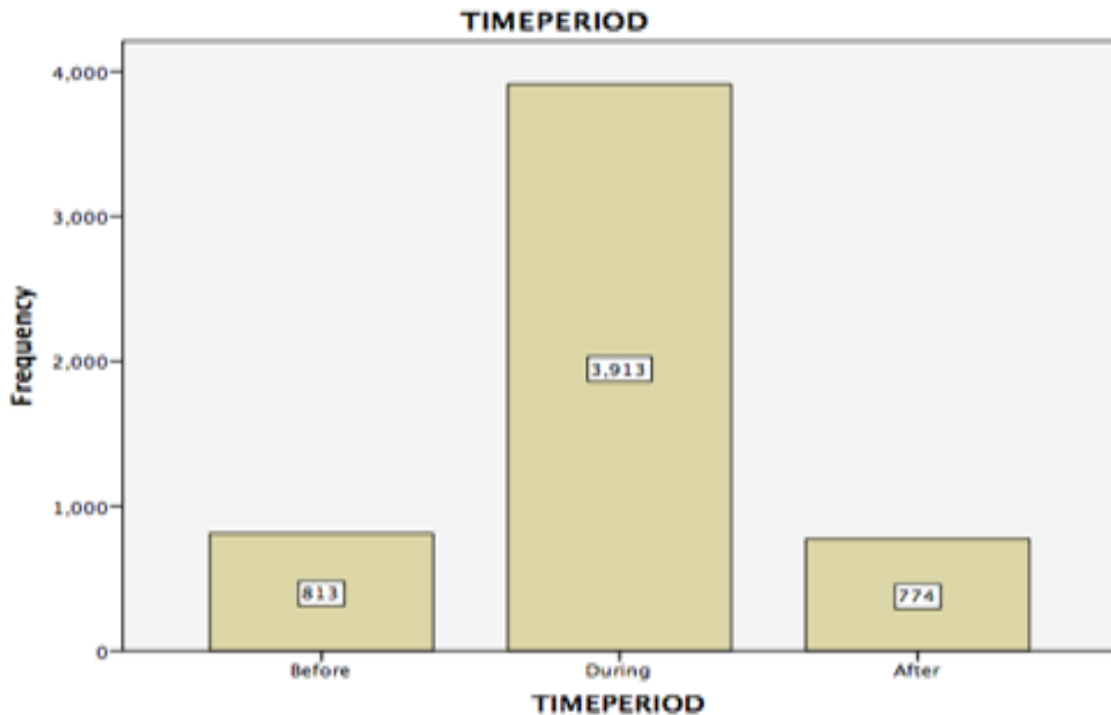


Figure 4.4: Frequency Graph of Number of Tweets at Each Time Period

The data for analysis is gathered from the River of News widget in the Dashboard of Radian 6 software. All of the Twitter posts were downloaded for the following date ranges: November 7-12, 2015, November 13-18, 2015, November 19-24, 2015. In sum, this study looks at big data at a period of total 18 days: from the 7th of November 2015 to

the 24th of November 2015 to analyze the themes of destination image before, during, and after the terror attack. Agenda setters are coded individually numerically without regard to sequence. There are 1037 agenda setters in data who tweeted 5500 influential tweets between November 7-24, 2015. The majority of tweets were posted during the November 13-18, 2015 time period..

Multi-Level Data

The data are hierarchically structured in that tweets are nested within agenda setters. Thus, variation in sentiments may occur across the posts of agenda setters. Evidence of nesting is assessed by indexing the variation in the outcome that occurs across tweets and across agenda setters.

Random Effect	Estimate	Std.Error	Z	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Var(Intercept)	1.922	0.182	10.568	.000	1.596	2.313

Covariance Structure:Variance components
Subject Specification:ASCODE

Figure 4.5: Nesting of Variable Sentiment in Agenda Setters

If all the variation occurs across tweets and no variation occurs across agenda setters, then there is no nesting. However, if non-zero or significant variation occurs across agenda setters, then models adopted to multi-level data structures are required. As can be seen Figure 4.5, variation across agenda setters is non-zero ad significant, referred to as “intercept variance”. Thus, a multilevel model is required to model the variance at the lowest level of tweets (Level-1) and at the higher level of agenda setters (Level-2).

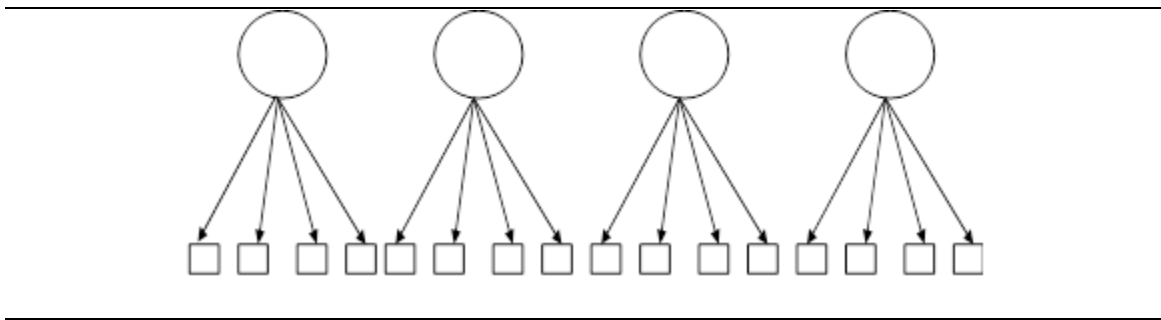


Figure 4.6: The Multi-Level Model Structure

Figure 4.6 illustrates the two-level model structure adopted for the quantitative analysis of this study. To overcome the issue of multi-level data, the generalized mixed method analysis is used.

The fourth chapter explains how data collection was made from Radian 6 software, and the cleaning and coding steps using Excel. The results reveal and justify the selection of three time periods for this study which are November 7-12, 2015, November 13-18, 2015 and November 19-24, 2015. The results in this chapter are explained in detail to show that how Radian 6 and Excel are used to gather reliable data for the analysis. The choice of query words to get the online communication data, the choice of sentiment keywords, and spam are explained to provide a ground for further analysis sections. The coding of the data is done to trace the variables needed, time, agenda setting, sentiment and theme, to answer research questions and Agenda Setting theory in qualitative and quantitative methodological sections.

In conclusion, the descriptives of the data showed that before the cleaning there were a total of 121,572 Tweets and after cleaning the total number of tweets to use in the analysis sections was 5,500. 1,037 Agenda Setters tweeted 5,500 influential tweets in all, three time periods. The frequency graph of 5,500 tweets used as the unit of analysis showed that during the terror attacks, the majority of online communication has taken place through Twitter by Agenda Setters. The non-normal distribution of tweets with respect to Agenda Setters has shown that the data is nested and hierarchically structured. This finding provided additional input to affect the choice of qualitative analysis method for the hypothesis testing which is explained in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5.

RESULTS OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This chapter focuses on the result of the two research questions. It combines sequentially the thematic network analysis model and generalized linear model. It concludes with the results of the hypothesis testing.

The first part explores the emerging destination image themes through online communication data from Twitter. The research question that guides the second stage of the analysis is a phenomenological question that asks what the themes of the destination are before, during, and after a terrorism crisis. The second stage uses the Twitter communication content downloaded from Radian 6 to Excel and NVivo as the qualitative analysis tool for the thematic analysis of destination image for the destination Paris in three time periods.

The second stage looks at the hierarchical relationships between the dependent and independent variables within and between three time periods. This stage utilizes quantitative methods to answer the research question. The quantitative analysis model adapted is a multilevel model which has two levels and is analyzed through hierarchical linear modeling using SPSS analysis software.

Analysis of Research Question 1

For more than four decades, research on destination image primarily used human subjects for data collection (Pike, 2002) and relied on structured data. This study indicates that due to recent communication technologies, user-generated content may be considered as an alternative to traditional word-of-mouth for monitoring and marketing destination

image. User generated content is not only a low-cost channel for obtaining data, but it also provides up-to-date feedback on destination performance from thousands of actual and potential users of the destination product (Lu & Stepchenkova, 2015). “Positioning a destination’s image . . . is a core activity of destination marketing organizations (DMOs), including national and state tourist offices, around the world” (Day, Skidmore, & Koller, 2002, p. 177). Positioning is “not so much what you say about your products or company as much as it is what your customers say about you” (McKenna, 1991, p. 44). Due to ever-increasing UGC outreach, for marketers of destinations monitoring, managing and engaging with existing and potential customers has evolved. Perceptions that are communicated in social media networks in an unstructured or unguided manner are a subsequent contemporary managerial action and are becoming more important each day with the increase in the content shared in big data. Thus, this stage of the study aims to answer the following research question:

RQ1. What are the emerging themes in Twitter communication for the destination Paris before, during and after a terrorism attack?

The main purpose for the second stage of analysis is to explore the perceived themes with respect to destination image for the city of Paris within three time segments through the communication of Agenda Setters that big data provides. The three time segments this study looks at are before the terrorism attack, during the terrorism attack, and after the terrorism attack, highlighting different volumes of communication about Paris and destination image themes via agenda setters’ tweets.

An additional, another orientation of this study is to examine positive, neutral and negative sentiments towards the destination themes that have emerged. This data shows the destinations' strengths and weaknesses as perceived by tourists at each time period. Finally, from a longitudinal perspective, this research assessed how a destination's, in this case Paris's, image themes develop online and classify in relation to Agenda Setters who become reputation drivers (Inversini, Marchiori, Dedekind, & Cantoni, 2010), as well as examined the similarities and differences between an earlier and current destination representations (Leung, Law & Lee, 2011).

Thematic Network Analysis Results

NVivo qualitative research software was used in this study to capture major themes mentioned in the tweets within each time period before, during, and after the terrorism attack in Paris in November 2015. For each time period the thematic analysis steps explained in the previous part have been followed. The first attempt was to transfer Agenda Setters on Twitter communication content to NVivo from Excel and a new project folder was created in the software. The first step was to find out the themes according to their popularity for Agenda Setters without focusing on the levels of popularity, re-tweets, and user name mentions on Twitter. The purpose is to discover all themes that have been pushed out by the influential digital identities according to the repetition of the themes, not the person's influential potential. To this end, word counts were used to grasp a preliminary understanding of the big data.

Before the Terror Attack Thematic Analysis

Table 5.1 is the list of words sorted according to their weighted percentage. This list shows the words that were repeated most frequently in the overall communication content of Agenda Setters November 7-12, 2015, themes are listed in the second column.

Table 5.1
Word List of Tweets Before the Terror Attack

Word	Emerging Themes	Count	Weighted Percentage	Similar Words
Visit	Visit	27	2.11%	#visit, visit
avoid	Avoid	15	1.17%	avoid
bridges	Attractions	15	1.17%	bridges
famous	Famous	15	1.17%	famous
gridlock	Gridlock	15	1.17%	gridlock
@luxury	Expensive	11	0.86%	#luxury, @luxury, luxury
New	Want to Travel	10	0.78%	new
hotel	Tourism Tax	9	0.70%	#hotel, hotel
world	Famous	8	0.63%	world
Day	A day	8	0.63%	day, days
#adventure	Adventure	6	0.47%	#adventure, adventurous
wanna	Always	6	0.47%	wanna
5hrs	5 Hours	5	0.39%	5hrs
#love	Love	5	0.39%	#love, love, loves
seeing	Photography	5	0.39%	see, seeing
#art	Art	4	0.31%	#art
@unlockparis	Travel	4	0.31%	@unlockparis
bestfriend	Best Friend	4	0.31%	bestfriend
picnic	Picnic	4	0.31%	picnic, picnics
weekend	Weekend	4	0.31%	weekend
deals	Expensive	4	0.31%	deal, deals
family	Family	4	0.31%	#family, family
climate	Climate	3	0.23%	#climate, climate
holiday	Holiday	3	0.23%	#holiday, holiday
vacation	Vacation	3	0.23%	#vacation, vacation
#architecture	Architecture	3	0.23%	#architecture
#history	Louvre	3	0.23%	#history
#travelblog	Musee D'Orsay	3	0.23%	#travelblog
always	Always	3	0.23%	always
choose	Paris	3	0.23%	choose
desire	Want to go	3	0.23%	desire
leisure	Leisure	3	0.23%	leisure
louvre	Louvre	3	0.23%	louvre
Sight	Sight seing	3	0.23%	sight
Trip	Travel Tax	3	0.23%	trip
#finedining	Fine Dining	2	0.16%	#finedining
#parisphoto2015	Photography	2	0.16%	#parisphoto2015
#restaurant	Fine dining	2	0.16%	#restaurant, restaurant
#traveltuesday	Travel	2	0.16%	#traveltuesday
@solotraveler	Solo Traveller	2	0.16%	@solotraveler
amazing	Happy	2	0.16%	amazing
eiffel	Eiffel	2	0.16%	eiffel
expensive	Expensive	2	0.16%	expensive
fabulous	Famous	2	0.16%	fabulous
famed	Famous	2	0.16%	famed
favourite	Always	2	0.16%	favourite
Solo	Solo Traveller	2	0.16%	solo
Tour	Tour	2	0.16%	tour
want	Want to go	2	0.16%	want, wants
#airfare	Expensive	1	0.08%	#airfare
#airfrance	Expensive	1	0.08%	#airfrance
#backpacking	backpacking	1	0.08%	#backpacking
#cruise	Cruise	1	0.08%	#cruise
#destinations	Paris	1	0.08%	#destinations
@museeorsay	Muse D'Orsay	1	0.08%	@museeorsay

The word cloud in Figure 5.1 shows the 20 words that were used the most by Agenda Setters in the Before time period (November 7-12, 2015) on Twitter who mentioned Paris and one of the travel word search queries. “Visit”, “avoid”, “famous”, “luxury”, “day”, “hotel”, “new”, “bridges” and “gridlock” are the biggest words in the word cloud, indicating that they were used most frequently in the tweets. The meanings and sentiments of those tweets were coded to find emerging themes and network the themes. Similar words were counted together to be able to find out the basic, organizing, and global themes. The themes were coded according to each word’s meaning within the texts.



Figure 5.1: Word Cloud of Most used 20 Words in the Before time period

This study develops a thematic network starting from the basic themes and working inwards toward a global theme to understand the relationship between emerging themes about the destination Paris within three time periods. Once a collection of basic themes has been derived, they are then classified according to the underlying story they are telling and

these become the organizing themes. Organizing themes are then reinterpreted in light of their basic themes, and are brought together to illustrate a single conclusion or superordinate theme that becomes the global theme. Thematic networks are presented graphically as web-like nets to remove any notion of hierarchy, giving fluidity to the themes and emphasizing the interconnectivity throughout the network. Importantly however, emerging thematic networks are only tools in analysis, not the analysis itself. Once a thematic network has been constructed, it will then serve as an organizing factor and facilitating disclosure for the researcher for the future quantitative analysis.

The emerging themes from the most-used words were coded according to their meanings in each of the tweets they were used. The network analysis for the Before time period is shown in Figure 5.2. This figure depicts Paris as the center of study for the global theme. The basic themes that emerged from big data as shown in Table 5.1 are further linked and grouped to into organizing themes of “Travel Behavior” ,“Attractions”, “Affections”, and “Safety & Security”. These four organizing themes are four codes that deliver similar topics that are all related to the global theme of this research, the tourism and hospitality of the destination Paris, France.

In the organizing theme “Affections”, the big data from Twitter showed that basic themes that were mentioned by agenda setters with respect to travel to Paris are “adventure”, “famous”, “want to go”, “always”, “love” and “happiness”. The second organizing theme, “Attractions” delivered basic themes “shows”, “Louvre”, “Musee D’Orsay”, “Architecture”, “Underground”, “Picnic”, “Photography”, “Art”, and “Bridges”. The third organizing theme is “Safety & Security”, this organizing theme builds around all topics that are mentioned with a reference to being safe during travel. The basic themes for the organizing theme “Safety & Security” came out to be “expensive”, “climate”, “tourism tax”, and “human gridlock”. The fourth organizing theme “Travel Behavior” provided themes that are related to visitors travel patterns such as; “A day”, “Solo Traveller”, “Weekend”, and “5 hours”.

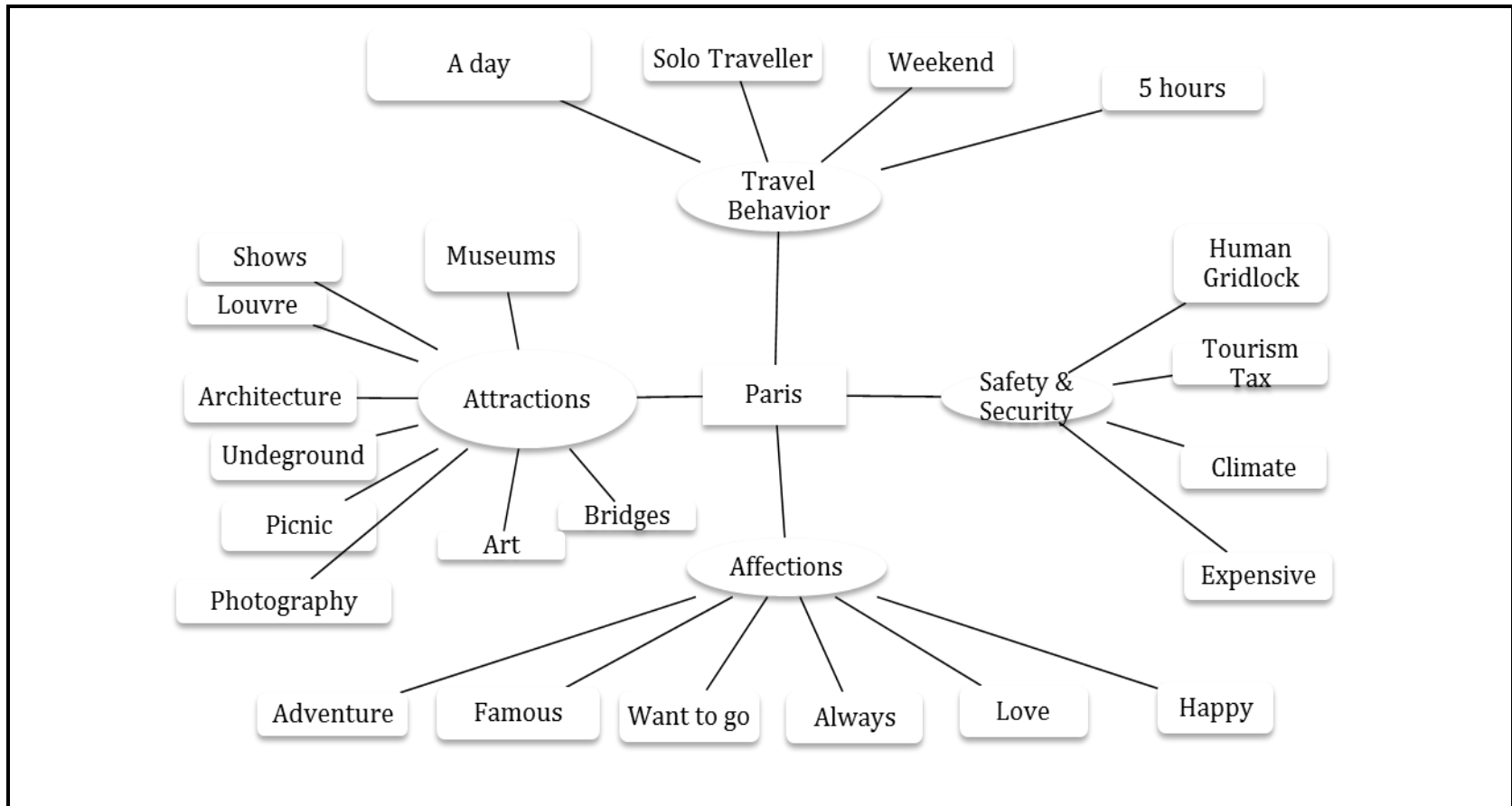


Figure 5.2: Thematic Network of Destination Image Themes in Before Time Period

The thematic network in Figure 5.2 is a depiction for the destination Paris November 7-12, 2015, before the terror attack. The Twitter communication in this time period might serve as a guide for Paris travel perceptions during a period when no crisis happens.

During the Terror Attack Thematic Analysis

All Agenda Setters were chosen as explained in the first part of the analysis (refer to page 64-65) were for this analysis. 7227 Agenda Setters are sorted according to the number of followers they have from most to least. The top 10% Agenda setters who have the most followers were chosen for the thematic analysis. The data is downloaded from Excel to NVivo for the word count and network analysis.

Table 5.2 shows the list and distribution of words in the total communication sorted by the weighted percentage. This list shows the words that were repeated most frequently in the overall communication content of Agenda Setters between November 13-18, 2015. Similar words were counted together to be able to find out the basic, organizing, and global themes and are grouped and may be seen in Table 5.2. The themes were coded according to each word's meaning within the particular texts. The emerging themes for the terror attack period are listed in the second column.

The table shows how the distribution of most used words during the terror attack. It is evident that the list of words changed between the Before and During time periods, which is further analyzed in the results and discussions section of this chapter.

Table 5.2
Word List of Tweets During the Terror Attack

Word	Basic Theme	Length	Count	Weighted Percentage	Similar Words
attacks	Paris Attacks	7	202	2.60%	attack, attacked, attacker, attackers,
travel behavior	Travel behavior	5	133	1.71%	'travel behavior, @travel behavior, travel behavior
#parisattacks	Paris Attack	13	63	0.81%	#parisattack, #parisattacks
advice	Travel Updates	6	62	0.80%	advice, advised, advises, advising
cancel	Travel Updates	6	41	0.53%	cancel, canceled, canceling, cancelled, cancelling, cancels
terrorism	Paris Attacks	9	38	0.49%	#terrorism, terror, terrorism
plans	Travel Updates	5	35	0.45%	planned, planning, plans
want	Travel Plans	4	32	0.41%	want, wanna, wanted, wanting, wants
Flights	Travel Updates	7	26	0.33%	#flights, flight, flights
Troops	US Military Ban	6	26	0.33%	#troops, troops
vacation	Vacation	8	25	0.32%	#vacation, vacation
safe	Safety	4	24	0.31%	Safe
photos	Photos from Paris	6	24	0.31%	#photo, photo, photos
stocks	Tourism & Hospitality Stocks	6	23	0.30%	Stocks
future	Travel Plans	6	23	0.30%	Future
holiday	Holiday Celebrations	7	22	0.28%	#holiday, holiday
city	Paris	4	21	0.27%	cities, city
latest	Travel Updates	6	21	0.27%	Latest
updates	Travel Updates	7	19	0.24%	update, updated, updates
luxury	Tourism & Hospitality Stocks	6	19	0.24%	#luxury, @luxury, luxury
president	Postpone Travel	9	19	0.24%	president
personnel	Travel Ban	9	19	0.24%	personnel
check	Travel Advise	5	19	0.24%	check
civilian	US Military Ban	8	18	0.23%	civilian, civilians
change	Travel Plans	6	18	0.23%	change, changed, changes, changing
Europe	Free travel	6	18	0.23%	#europe, europe
airlines	Travel Updates	8	16	0.21%	#airlines, airline, airliner, airlines
security	Travel Updates	8	16	0.21%	#security, security
still	Travel behavior	5	16	0.21%	still
family	Safety	6	15	0.19%	families, family
terrorist	Terrorist	9	15	0.19%	terrorist, terrorist', terrorists
time	Travel behavior	4	15	0.19%	time, times
place	Love	5	15	0.19%	place, places
closes	Eiffel, Louvre	6	14	0.18%	close, closed, closes
hotels	Hopitality	6	14	0.18%	#hotel, hotel, hotels
today	Travel Advise	5	14	0.18%	today
news	Travel Advise	4	13	0.17%	#news, news
information	Travel Advise	11	13	0.17%	information
implements	Travel Advise	10	13	0.17%	implements
best	Best Destination,	4	13	0.17%	best

continued.../

Table 5.2
Word List of Tweets During the Terror Attack

Word	Basic Theme	Length	Count	Weighted Percentage	Similar Words
bans	Travel Bans	4	13	0.17%	banned, bans
refrain	Travel Advise	7	13	0.17%	'refrain', refrain
impact	Europe Tourism, Travel Plans	6	13	0.17%	impact, impact', impacted, impacting,
trip	Travel behavior	4	12	0.15%	trip, trips
south	Travel Advise	5	12	0.15%	south
love	love	4	11	0.14%	#love, love, loving, loves
reports	Travel Updates	7	12	0.15%	report, reported, reporter, reporters,
#prayforparis	Europe, Love, Solidarity	13	12	0.15%	#prayforparis
thoughts	Europe, Love, Solidarity	13	12	0.15%	thought, thoughts
issues	Travel Advise	6	12	0.15%	issue, issued, issues
contact	Travel Advise	7	11	0.14%	contact, contacting
germany	Terrorist Suspect	7	11	0.14%	#germany, germany
borders	Travel Ban	7	11	0.14%	border, borders
embassy	Europe, Love, Solidarity	7	11	0.14%	embassy
booked	Travel Plans	6	11	0.14%	book, booked

The word cloud in Figure 5.3 shows the 20 words that have been used the most by Agenda Setters in the During time period for the Paris Terror Attack online communication data (November 13-18, 2015) in Twitter that have mentioned Paris and one of the travel word search queries (refer to page 58). The word cloud shows that the word “attacks” is the most used word in this period. The second most mentioned word is “visit”.

Other words that have been used by 723 Agenda Setters who have most followers during the terror attack between November 13-18, 2015 are “#parisattacks”, “terrorism”, “cancel”, “advice”, “troops”, “flights”, “holiday”, “latest”, “stocks”, “advices”, “world”, “safe”, “plans”, “city”, “vacation”, “luxury”, and “photos”. To be precise in understanding the context in which these words have been used, the tweets using them have been read and analyzed in the thematic analysis to grasp the underlying themes that refer the

destination “Paris”. The emerging themes and sentiments of those themes were coded and a network of the emerged themes was created.



Figure 5.3: Word Cloud of Most used 20 Words in the During Time Period

The first outcome from the analysis of the During period is that the word “visit” is not the most used word anymore. “Attacks” has been used more than “visit” word. Secondly, even though not all the words in the cloud refer to the terrorism attack, such as “love”, “best destination” and “attractions”, most of the communication is related to the attacks. This is a preliminary finding that a manmade crisis such as a terrorist attack does immediately effect the agenda of the tourism destination with respect to its tourism and hospitality sector proceedings. Another finding is that even at the time when there is a safety concern in a destination, agenda setters do refer to tourism concepts beyond the current safety issues.

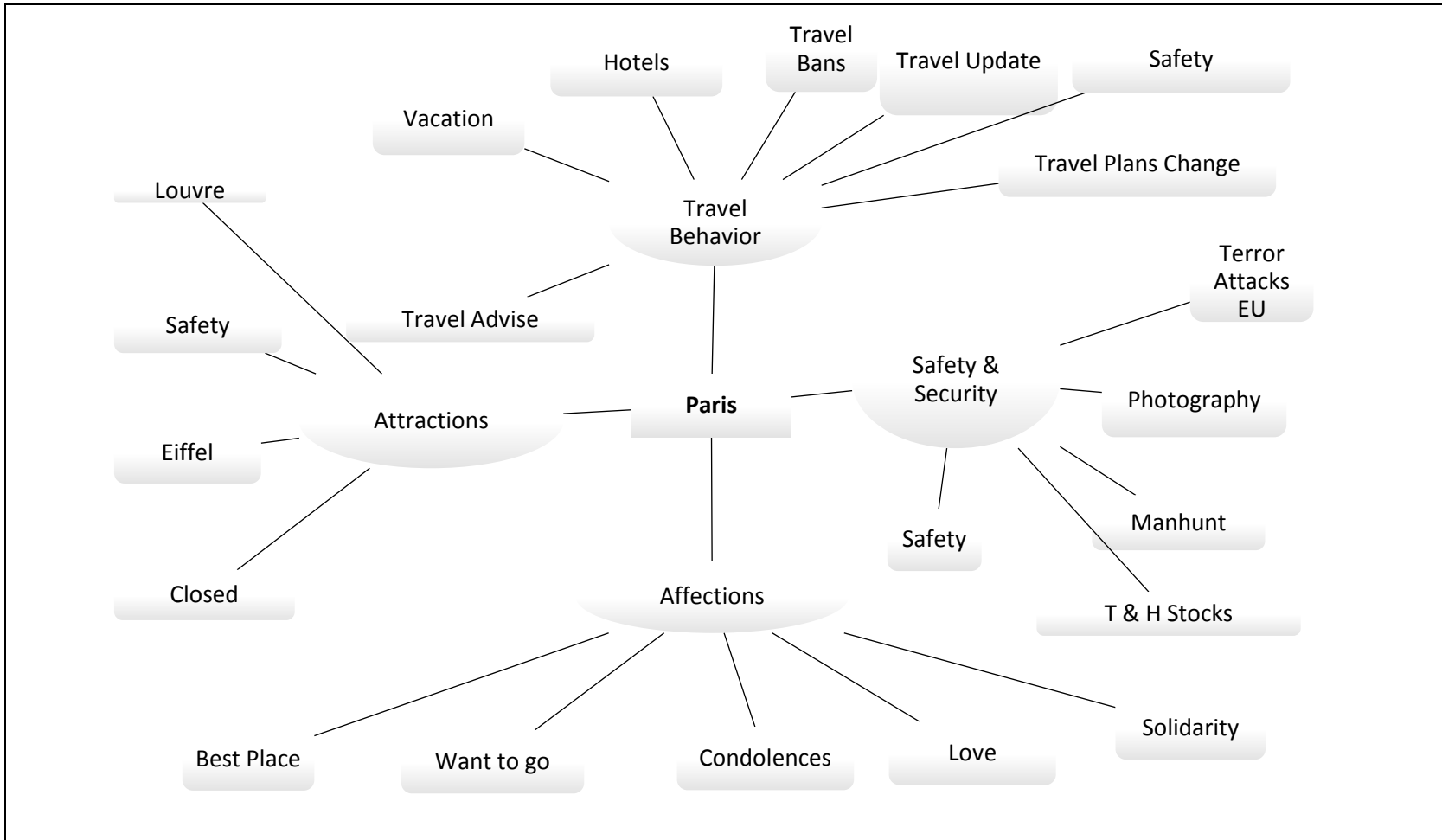


Figure 5.4: Thematic Network of Destination Image Themes in During Time Period

The network analysis shows a visual depiction of emerging basic themes that are grouped and coded within four organizing themes for the During period. The emerging themes were coded according to their meanings in each of the tweets. The network analysis for the During time period is shown in Figure 5.4. This figure depicts Paris as the center of study for the global theme and build on top of that with linking the organizing themes: “Travel Behavior”, “Attractions”, “Safety & Security” and “Affections”. These four organizing themes are four codes that are extracted from big data that summarize the online communication themes for the period November 13-18, 2015 on Twitter.

In all of the organizing themes it is evident that safety is a common topic that was on the agenda. Organizing themes “Affections” and “Attractions” had similarities and differences from the before period. The big data from Twitter showed that basic “Affections” themes that were mentioned by agenda setters with respect to travel to Paris are “best place”, “solidarity”, “want to go”, “condolences” and “love”. The second organizing theme; “Attractions” delivered the basic themes “Louvre”, “Eiffel Tower”, “closed” and “safety”. The third organizing theme is “Travel behavior”, which was an organizing theme in the Before period, builds around all topics that are mentioned with a referral to inform, avoid, and plan visiting Paris after the attacks. The basic themes for the organizing theme “Travel Behavior” are “Postpone travel”, “Hotels”, “Vacation”, “Travel Bans”, “Travel Advise”, “Travel Updates”, “Safety”, “Travel Plans Change”. There were two themes that had tweets which did not relate to the terrorism in the organizing theme “Travel Behavior” which are “hotels” and “vacation”. These two topics referred to travel guides to Paris. The basic themes for the fourth and last organizing theme “Safety &

Security” compiled all tweets with the main idea “terrorism attacks”. The basic themes are; “Safety”, “Terror Attacks in European Union”, “Photos from Paris” and “Suspects of the terrorism event”.

This thematic network is a depiction of the communication on Twitter about the destination Paris between November 7-12, 2015 during the terror attack. The big data includes all agenda setter communication that happened through Twitter social media platform. The Twitter communication in this time period serves as a guide to understand the strong perceptions on the agenda towards Paris as a tourism and travel destination during a terror event.

After the Terror Attack Thematic Analysis

Table 5.3 shows the list and distribution of the weighted percentage of the words during the total communication between dates November 7-12, 2015 on Twitter that included the search words. The table shows the list of words which have been repeated most frequently in the overall communication content of Agenda Setters between November 7-12, 2015 on Twitter. Similar words such as “attack”, “attached”, “attacker”, etc. were counted together to be able to find out the basic, organizing, and global themes. The themes were coded according to each word’s meaning within the particular Tweet text. The emerging themes from the individual tweets that have included the most used words listed in the table are shown in the second column.

Table 5.3
Word List of Tweets After the Terror Attack

Word	Basic Theme	Length	Count	Weighted Percentage	Similar Words
attacks	Attack	7	480	2.47%	attack, attacked, attacker, attackers, attacks
travel behavior	Travel behavior	5	412	2.12%	#travel behavior, #travel behavior, travel behavior, travel behaved
vacation	Vacation	8	169	0.87%	#vacation, vacation, vacations
issuing	Global Travel Alert	7	145	0.74%	issues, issue, issued, issues, issuing
alert	Global Travel Alert	5	138	0.71%	#alert, alert, alert'
global	Global Travel Alert	6	125	0.64%	@global, global
hotels	Hospitality	6	124	0.64%	#hotel, #hotels, hotel, hotels
holidays	Vacation	8	120	0.62%	#holiday, #holidays, holiday, holidays
continues	Manhunt	9	105	0.54%	continue, continued, continues
bookings	Travel Guide	8	101	0.52%	book, booked, booking, bookings
luxury	Travel Blog	6	98	0.50%	#luxury, @luxury, luxurious, luxury
manhunt	Manhunt	7	94	0.48%	manhunt
terrorism	Paris Attacks	9	74	0.38%	#terrorism, 'terror, terror, terrorism, terrorized
#parisattacks	Paris Attacks	13	70	0.36%	#parisattack, #parisattacks
concert	Paris Attacks	7	64	0.33%	concert
hall	Paris Attacks	4	59	0.30%	hall
city	Europe Travel	4	56	0.29%	#cities, #city, cities, city
terrorist	Manhunt	9	54	0.28%	terrorist, terrorists
Europe	Europe Travel	6	51	0.26%	#europe, europe
loved	Love	5	47	0.24%	#love, love, loved, loves
photos	Travel behavior	6	47	0.24%	#photo, photo, photos
today	Security	5	46	0.24%	today, today
plans	Travel Plans	5	45	0.23%	plan, planned, planning, plans
slumps	Paris Tourism Slumps	6	42	0.22%	slump, slumps
week	Travel News	4	40	0.21%	week, weekly, weeks
threats'	Global Terrorism	8	38	0.20%	#threat, threat, threats, threats'
world	Militarized destinations	5	36	0.18%	#world, 'world, world
cancelling	Canceled Trips	10	36	0.18%	cancel, cancelled, cancellations
day	Different view	3	34	0.17%	day, days
security	Safety	8	34	0.17%	#security, secure, security
climate	Climate	7	34	0.17%	#climate, climate
warns	Travel Warning	5	34	0.17%	#warning, warned, warning, warnings, warns
safely	Safety	6	34	0.17%	#safe, safe, safely
#ttot	Travel Talk	5	33	0.17%	#ttot
#news	Travel	5	33	0.17%	#news, @news
reuters	Manhunt	7	32	0.16%	#reuters, @reuters, reuters
trips	Cancelled Trips	5	32	0.16%	#trip, trip, trips
impact	T & H Stocks	6	31	0.16%	impact, impacted, impacting, impacts
isis	Paris Attacks	4	31	0.16%	#isis, isis

continued.../

Table 5.3
Word List of Tweets After the Terror Attack

Word	Basic Theme	Length	Count	Weighted Percentage	Similar Words
family	Vacation	6	30	0.15%	#family, family
change	Travel Plans Change	6	30	0.15%	change, changed, changes, changing
still	Still travel behavior, still stong	5	29	0.15%	still
busy	Business travel	4	29	0.15%	#business, business, businesses, busy
going	Still going to paris	5	29	0.15%	#go, going
places	Best places in paris to travel behavior	6	28	0.14%	#place, place, places
conferences	Climate change conference	11	28	0.14%	conference, conferences
urges	travel behavior	5	27	0.14%	urge, urges, urging
food	restaurants	4	27	0.14%	#food, food
now	travel	3	25	0.13%	now
guide	Travel guide	5	24	0.12%	#guide, guide, guides
#weather	weather	8	24	0.12%	#weather
summit	Climate summit	6	24	0.12%	summit
want	Want to travel behavior	4	24	0.12%	want, wanted, wants
meet	inspiration	4	24	0.12%	meet, meeting, meetings, meets
Relax in paris	relax	12	23	0.12%	@relaxinparis, relaxinparis
hit	Tourism & Hospitality stocks	3	23	0.12%	hit, hits
keep	Keep travelling	4	23	0.12%	'keep, keep
@travel	Travelling	7	23	0.12%	#travel#paris, #traveler, #travelers, @travel, traveling'
museum	Museum	6	23	0.12%	#museum, museum, museums
president	Concert hall	9	23	0.12%	presidency, president
worldwide	Worldwide alert	9	23	0.12%	worldwide
bans	Students banned from travelling	4	22	0.11%	ban, banned, bans
shows	Solidarity, shining city, eu support, extremists, love	5	21	0.11%	show, shows
flights	Cheaper, slump	7	21	0.11%	#flight, flight, flights
#destination	Most popular, hotels	12	21	0.11%	#destination, #destinations, destination, destinations
stocks	Stocks fall, economy, manhunt	6	21	0.11%	#stocks, stock, stocks
reasons	Charm, cheaper, history, art, weekend	7	21	0.11%	reasons
concerns	Safety, crowdsourced travel	8	20	0.10%	concerns
eiffel	Eiffel cancelled, travel plans impacted	6	20	0.10%	#eiffel, eiffel
win	Wanderlust holiday	3	19	0.10%	win, wins
Christmas	Travel plans go down, businesses, artisans, tourist slumps, holiday family vacation	9	19	0.10%	christmas

The Word cloud in Figure 5.5 shows the 20 words that have been used the most by Agenda Setters in the After the terror attack time period (November 19-24, 2015) in Twitter that have mentioned Paris and one of the Travel word search queries (refer to page 58). As it is seen, the words, “attacks”, “visit”, “issuing”, “avoid”, “global”, “hotels” and “holidays” are the biggest words in the word cloud which means that they have been used most prominently in the communication after the terror attack. To be precise with the extrusion of the themes, tweets that have included all of the words in Table 5.3 have been used in the thematic analysis. Themes and sentiments of tweets were coded to find out the network of the themes.



Figure 5.5: Word Cloud of Most used 20 Words in the After Time Period

The first outcome from the analysis of after the terror attack period is that the word “visit” is not the most frequently used word as it was in the Before period and “attacks” is still among the most frequently used words, just as it was in the During period. This shows that the agenda setters continue to deliver agendas with respect to travel and hospitality in

Paris, France within the context of terror attacks one to two weeks after the attacks. Secondly, the word cloud confirms that in all periods communications refers to themes such as love, luxury and holidays in Paris. This is a preliminary finding that shows a manmade crisis such as a terrorist attack does obliterate the established agenda of the tourism destination with respect to its tourism and hospitality themes that hid in the communication. Another finding is that even at the time when there is a safety concern in a destination, agenda setters do refer to the tourism concepts beyond the current safety issues that relate to pre-attack themes such as hospitality, flight, hotels, attractions and tourism affections such as love and popularity

This thematic network is a depiction of the communication on Twitter about the destination Paris between November 19-24, 2015 after the terror attack. Twitter communication in this time period serves as a guide to understand the strong perceptions on the agenda towards Paris as a tourism and travel destination in the aftermath of a terror event.

The network analysis shows a visual depiction of emerging basic themes that are grouped and coded within four organizing themes for the After period. The emerging themes were coded according to their meanings in each of the tweets. The network analysis for the period after the terror event is in Figure 5.6. This figure depicts Paris as the center of study for the global theme and builds on top of that with linking the organizing themes: “Travel Behavior”, “Attractions”, “Safety & Security” and “Affections”. These four organizing themes are four codes that are extracted from big data that summarize the online communication themes for the period between November 19-24, 2015 on Twitter.

In all of the organizing themes it is evident that safety is a common topic that was on the agenda even after the terror attack. Organizing themes Affections and Attractions had similarities and differences from the Before and During time period. The big data from Twitter showed that basic themes for Affections that were mentioned by agenda setters with respect to travel to Paris during and after the terror attack are “best place”, “solidarity”, “want to go”, and “love”. Additionally, this time period had novel affections mentioned on the tweets of agenda setters such as “wanderlust holidays”, “inspiration”, “charm”, “relax”, “shining city”, “still strong”, and “extremist”. The second organizing theme, Attractions, delivered several of the same basic themes such as “Louvre”, “Eiffel Tower”, “museum” and “art”. Additionally, after the terror attack, new themes were added by agenda setters to online communications which happen through twitter such as “restaurants”, “concert hall”, and “militarized”.

The third organizing theme Travel Behavior was an organizing theme both during and after the terror attack. The basic themes for the organizing theme Travel Behavior in the after-terror attack period are “flights”, “hotels”, “cheaper”, “weekend”, “tourism slumps”, “travel warning”, “travel guide”, “crowdsourced travel”, “travel update”, “travel plans changed”, and “travel bans”. One immediate finding is that, the organizing theme Travel behavior has replaced the organizing theme Travel patterns which emerged before the terror attack in both during and after the terror attack periods. Travel behavior components, in other words tourism and hospitality players, has been mentioned by agenda setters more than the patterns of travel and tourism in the aftermath of the terror attack. Paris has been mentioned through themes about economic facts about travel behavior such as “cheaper” and “tourism slumps”. As well, security concerns are still evident in the themes such as “travel bans”. One other finding is that in all three periods, agenda setters do mention tourism and hospitality players such as attractions, hotels, flights, travel patterns such as weekend, family vacation and the like. These themes referred to travel guides to Paris.

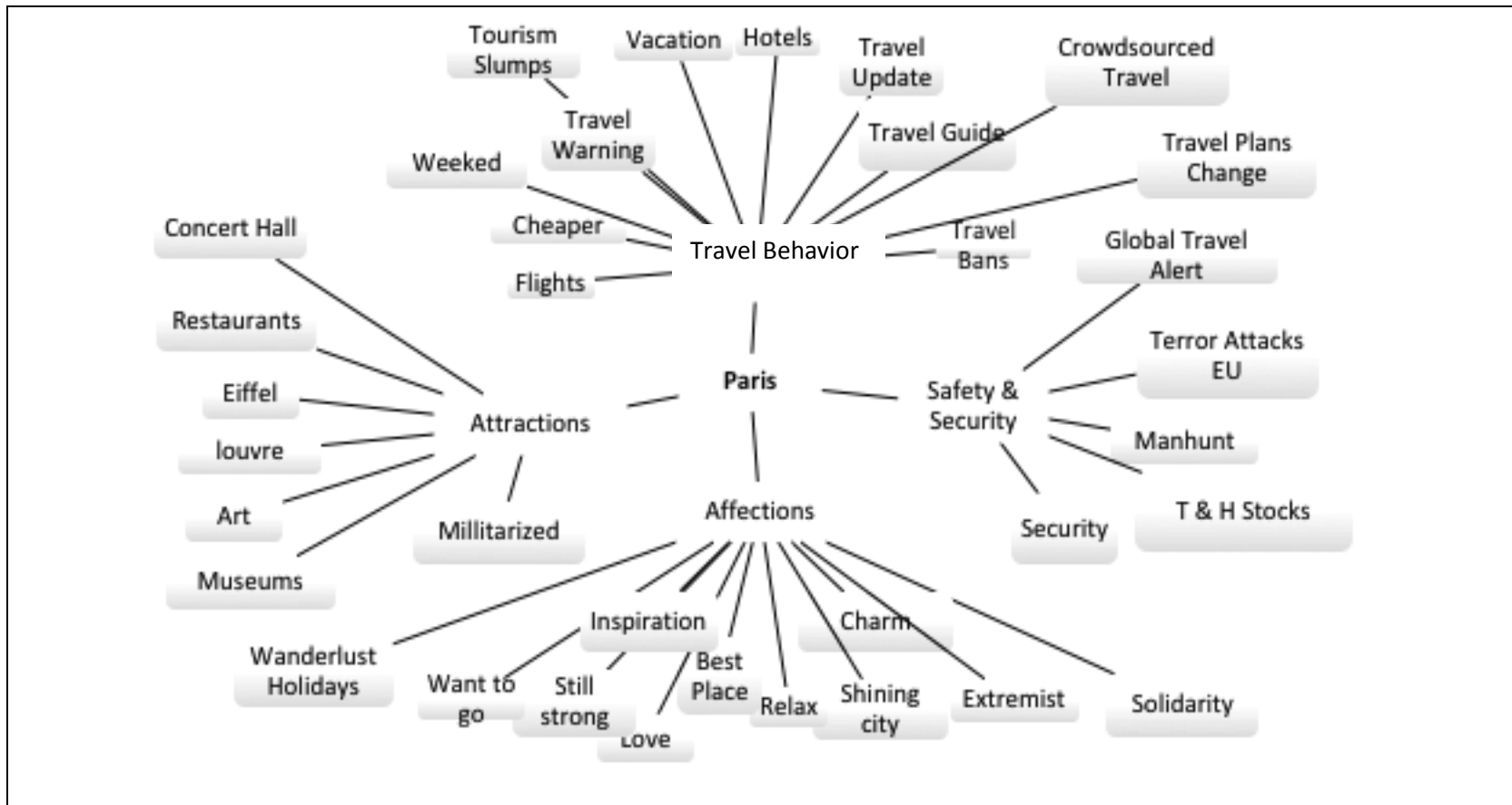


Figure 5.6: Thematic Network of Destination Image Themes in After Time Period

The basic themes for the fourth and last organizing theme “Safety & Security” compiled all tweets with the main idea terrorism attacks. The basic themes are “security”, “terror attacks in EU”, global travel alert”, “manhunt”, and “tourism & hospitality Stocks” The themes “manhunt”, “terror attacks in EU”, and tourism & hospitality stocks were the recurring themes during and after the terror attack. One finding is that “Global Travel Alert” has been a new basic theme in the aftermath of the terror attack which was mentioned by Agenda Setters while mentioning travelling to Paris. This might be a sign that the Paris Terror attacks in 2015 did not have lasting effects on the destination image themes of Paris or on European Union tourism as a whole.

In conclusion, Thematic Network Analysis results showed that the emerging themes show similarities and differences before, during, and after the terror attack. The qualitative analysis of 18 days of Twitter data, revealed changes in themes of destination image. The study findings support that before, during, and after the terror attacks, agenda setters continue to bring up themes on Twitter about tourism and hospitality beyond the safety issue such as affections, attractions, and travel behaviors. One finding is that the several basic themes that are related to Paris as a destination have disappeared after the terror attack such as “Human gridlock”, “Tourism Tax”, “Climate” and “Expensive”. As well, before the terror attack in the Twitter theme network there were not any basic or organizing themes that were related to the safety or security measures such as bans, alerts etc. One overall finding of this study is that Paris tourism was linked with safety, bans, warnings, military, and concerns after the attack.

Prevalence of Organizing Themes across Time Intervals

Affections. The organizing theme “Affections” had more diversity after the terror attack. There were 2 basic themes that have overreached the terror attack period that is listed under the organizational theme “Affections”. Table 5.4 shows that “Love” and “Want to Go” basic themes were the only consistent ones in all three time periods. These two themes reflect the sustainable affections that people have towards Pars as a destination. During and after the terror attack, “solidarity” and “best place” were the two basic themes that emerged from the Twitter communication of Agenda Setters.

Table 5.4
Prevalence of Organizing Theme Affections across Time Intervals

Organizational Themes	Basic Themes	Before Terror Attack	During Terror Attack	After Terror Attack
Affections	Adventure	✓		
Affections	Always	✓		
Affections	Best Place		✓	✓
Affections	Charm			✓
Affections	Condolences		✓	
Affections	Extremist			✓
Affections	Famous	✓		
Affections	Happy	✓		
Affections	Inspiration			✓
Affections	Love	✓	✓	✓
Affections	Relax			✓
Affections	Shining City			✓
Affections	Solidarity		✓	✓
Affections	Still Strong			✓
Affections	Wanderlust Holidays			✓
Affections	Want to Go	✓	✓	✓

Findings showed that there were several Affection Themes that disappeared after the attack such as; “Happy”, “Famous”, “Always” and “Adventure”. This showed that Agenda Setters do not relate Paris to these themes after the terror attack. On the other hand, there are several novel basic affection themes that emerged due to the terror attacks. The basic themes that have emerged are “Best Place”, “Charm”, “Condolences”, “Extremist”, “Relax”, “Shining City”, “Solidarity”, “Still strong”, “Wanderlust Holidays” which were grouped under the four organizational themes.

The basic themes “Love” and “Want to Go” were the ones that appeared before, during and after the terror attack. This finding shows that a terror attack does not affect the love towards Paris as a destination and the attitude towards the wish to travel to Paris.

Travel behavior. The organizational theme Travel behavior had more diverse basic themes after the terror attack than the organizational theme Affections did. Agenda Setters did mention a lot more content around several more themes during and after the terror attacks. Theme analysis showed that there was only one basic theme that emerged before, during, and after the terror attack: Vacation. Agenda Setters delivered influential messages about Vacation, Paris, and Travel between November 6-24, 2015.

Themes that refer to travel patterns such as 5 hours, a day, and solo traveler have disappeared from the agenda during and after the attacks. However, the only remaining travel behavior that was mentioned by online agenda setters was the basic theme “weekend”. Even during a time when travelers question the safety of the destination Paris, then weekend travel is the only travel behavior that sustained its place in the communication of Agenda Setters. This finding may be the source of another research study which might address the question of understanding the strengths of travel behaviors of a destination through big data.

Table 5.5
Prevalence of Organizing Theme Travel Behavior across Time Intervals

Organizational Themes	Basic Themes	Before Terror Attack	During Terror Attack	After Terror Attack
Travel behavior	5 hours	✓		
Travel behavior	A day	✓		
Travel behavior	Cheaper			✓
Travel behavior	Crowdsourced Travel			✓
Travel behavior	Flights			✓
Travel behavior	Hotels		✓	✓
Travel behavior	Safety		✓	
Travel behavior	Solo Traveler	✓		
Travel behavior	Tourism			
Travel behavior	Slumps			✓
Travel behavior	Travel Bans		✓	✓
Travel behavior	Travel Guide			✓
Travel behavior	Travel Plans Change		✓	✓
Travel behavior	Travel Update		✓	✓
Travel behavior	Travel Warning			✓
Travel behavior	Vacation	✓	✓	✓
Travel behavior	Weekend	✓		✓
Travel behavior	With Best Friend	✓		

The sentiments of these themes may have differed within this time interval. However, the questions of how the sentiments differed is the research question of the third part of the analysis. These results reveal that there were sustained themes within three time intervals and as well several new themes that have replaced the disappearing themes after.

Attractions. The big data analysis of the organizational theme Attractions revealed that a terror attack does change the attractions that are linked to a destination image. Before the terror attack, Attractions mentioned by agenda setters that were online themes of communication were “architecture”, “art”, “bridges”, “louvre”, “museums”, “photography”, “picnic”, “shows” and “underground”. The only persistent theme after the attack was “Louvre”. The organizational theme “Attractions” is the least mentioned organizational theme on Twitter during the terror attack from November 12-18, 2015. Besides “Louvre”, the basic themes were “closed”, “Eiffel” and “safety”.

“Eiffel” and “Louvre” were the only tourism attraction names that were related to the Paris tourism industry. The basic themes “closed” and “safety” were mentioned with respect to several attractions, places, and activities that were going on in the city during the terror attack. Even though the sentiments may have changed for Eiffel and Louvre, the finding supports that Eiffel and Louvre are the strongest attraction themes for the image of Paris.

Table 5.6
Prevalence of Organizing Theme Attractions across Time Intervals

Organizational Themes	Basic Themes	Before Terror Attack	During Terror Attack	After Terror Attack
Attractions	Architecture	✓		
Attractions	Art	✓		✓
Attractions	Bridges	✓		
Attractions	Closed		✓	
Attractions	Concert Hall			✓
Attractions	Eiffel		✓	✓
Attractions	Louvre	✓	✓	✓
Attractions	Militarized			✓
Attractions	Museums	✓		✓
Attractions	Photography	✓		
Attractions	Picnic	✓		
Attractions	Restaurants			✓
Attractions	Safety		✓	
Attractions	Shows	✓		
Attractions	Underground	✓		

Safety & security. Safety and security was the organizational theme that uncovered all the negative perspectives of the destination Paris in all three time intervals. It was evident that the themes changed before and after the attack. There was no basic theme that prevailed in all three time intervals. The agenda about safety and security obviously does change when safety is an issue for tourists. The basic themes before the attack, which were “climate”, “human gridlock”, “expensive” and “tourism tax” all disappeared from the Agenda of Paris Tourism and hospitality after the attack.

Table 5.7
Prevalence of Organizing Theme Safety & Security across Time Intervals

Organizational Themes	Basic Themes	Before Terror Attack	During Terror Attack	After Terror Attack
Safety & security	Climate	✓		
Safety & security	EU Travel			✓
Safety & security	Expensive	✓		
Safety & security	Global Travel Alert			✓
Safety & security	Human Gridlock	✓		
Safety & security	Photography		✓	
Safety & security	Safety		✓	
Safety & security	Security			✓
Safety & security	Manhunt		✓	✓
Safety & security	T & H Stocks		✓	✓
Safety & security	Terror Attacks EU		✓	✓
Safety & security	Tourism Tax	✓		

Common themes that were evident during and after the terror attack were the manhunt that was going in Europe for the suspects of terror attacks, tourism and hospitality stocks slumps, and terror attacks all over Europe. These basic themes show that the attacks have been linked with Europe tourism & hospitality sectors beyond Paris or France. In other words, Agenda Setters have affected the themes of destination image not only about Paris but all Europe by generating conversations and pushing out agendas about the terror attacks

in Paris in November 2015. The thematic analysis done and networks established of basic and organizing themes about the destination image of Paris using big data from Twitter shows that Agenda setters do have an influence in transcending several themes through a timeline.

Analysis of Research Question 2

The second question of this research guides the quantitative part of the analysis. The second research question examines relevant relationships between two predictors, destination image theme and time period, and the dependent variable, sentiment of the destination image themes, by testing three hypotheses. This research examines three hypotheses sequentially (Figure 5.7).

Research Question 2. What is the relationship between destination image theme, time period, and sentiment?

The purpose of this study is to understand if and how predictors that are nested in agenda setters affect sentiments towards destination image themes. Testing of Hypothesis 1 explores if there is a likelihood that themes predict sentiments. Hypothesis 2 tests the significance if there is likelihood that time periods may predict sentiments. Finally, the third hypothesis testing examines if predictor time has a significant moderating effect on the change of the sentiment according to a destination image theme. The analysis further explores how the significant moderation effect of time predictor affects the relationship between destination image themes and sentiments.

Hypothesis 1.

Does type of destination image theme predict the sentiment towards themes?



Hypothesis 2.

Does the Tweet's posting time predict the sentiment of that Tweet?



Hypothesis 3.

Does the posting time of a tweet moderate the relationship between destination image themes and sentiments?

If time significantly moderates the relationship, how does it affect the relationship between the predictor theme and dependent variable sentiment at a time period before a terror attack, during a terror attack, and in the post-terror attack period?



Figure 5.7: Sequential List of the Hypothesis

5,500 tweets (responses) have been segmented from the data for the purpose of this research. 100% of the data, which is composed of 5,500 tweets, has been utilized in the quantitative analysis (Table 5.8). Segmentation is carried out according to the agenda setting theory variables. 5,500 tweets were all the responses one could get from Agenda Setters on Twitter. All data was selected after cleaning and coding for the further analysis with respect to the research question, meaning that none of the tweets have been excluded. The data has been downloaded to quantitative software analysis SPSS.

The predictors and dependent variable are all multinomial categorical data. In the variable view window of SPSS, types of all variables are selected as numeric and measures are selected as categorical. The multinomial categorical data and the nesting property has led the model of this analyses to be a Generalized Linear Mixed Model (GLMM).

Table 5.8
The Number of Data

	N	Percent
Included	5500	100.00%
Excluded	0	0.00%
Total	5500	100.00%

The data at hand is best modeled with GLMM due to the nature of the dependent variable named sentiment. At the core of the analysis with GLMM is selecting the type of data distribution and link function that corresponds to the nature of the dependent variable sentiment. The variable sentiment has a multinomial distribution with a generalized link function, with more than 2 categories. The variable sentiment has three categories; 0=negative, 1=neutral, and 2=sentiment. The Predictor theme has four categories: 0=Attractions, 1=Affections, 2=Tourism Behavior, 3=Safety and Security. Finally, the predictor time period has three categories: 0=Before the terror attacks, 1=During the terror attacks, 2=After the terror attacks.

Characteristics of Variables

All predictors and the dependent variable are at Level 1, which is the Tweet level. Level 2 groups Level 1 variables with respect to respectable agenda setters. The Level 1 predictor variable theme has four categorical values and time period has three categorical values (Table 5.9). The target (dependent) variable sentiment has three categorical variables.

Frequencies of variables examine the nature of categorical data. Frequency histograms of variables are shown in Figures 5.9, 5.10 and 5.11. The dependent variable's sentiment is skewed to the left. The histogram shows that in total during the 18-day period, 8-24, November, 2015, majority of tweets posted before the terror attacks. The decrease in the number of tweets that have been posted with the word groups of this study is evident between time periods.

The frequency histogram of agenda setters shows that some of the agenda setters have been tweeting more than the others and the distribution is skewed to the right. In total, there have been 1,037 agenda setters who have been influential on Twitter during the time period, which includes the terror attacks in November 2015 in Paris, France. Of these 1,037 agenda setters, one agenda setter who posted the most tweeted 206 times, whereas the agenda setter who tweeted the least tweeted only twice. Therefore, the variance of number of tweets by each agenda setter is large and the distribution is extremely skewed. The Agenda Setters are coded from 1 to 1,037 according to the number of tweets the digital identity has. For example, the agenda setters with the codes 1 to 58 have 2 tweets whereas the agenda setters coded 599-740 have 3 tweets.

Table 5.9
Categories of Predictors

Level	Variables	Type of variables	Categorical Values
Level 1 = Tweet	Destination Image Theme (THEME)	Predictor	0 = Attractions 1 = Affections 2 = Travel Behavior 3 = Safety & Security
Level 1 = Tweet	Sentiment (SENTIMENT)	Target (Dependent variable)	0 = Negative 1 = Neutral 2 = Positive
Level 1 = Tweet	Time Period (TIMEPERIOD)	Predictor	0 = Before Terror Attack 1 = During Terror Attack 2 = After Terror Attack

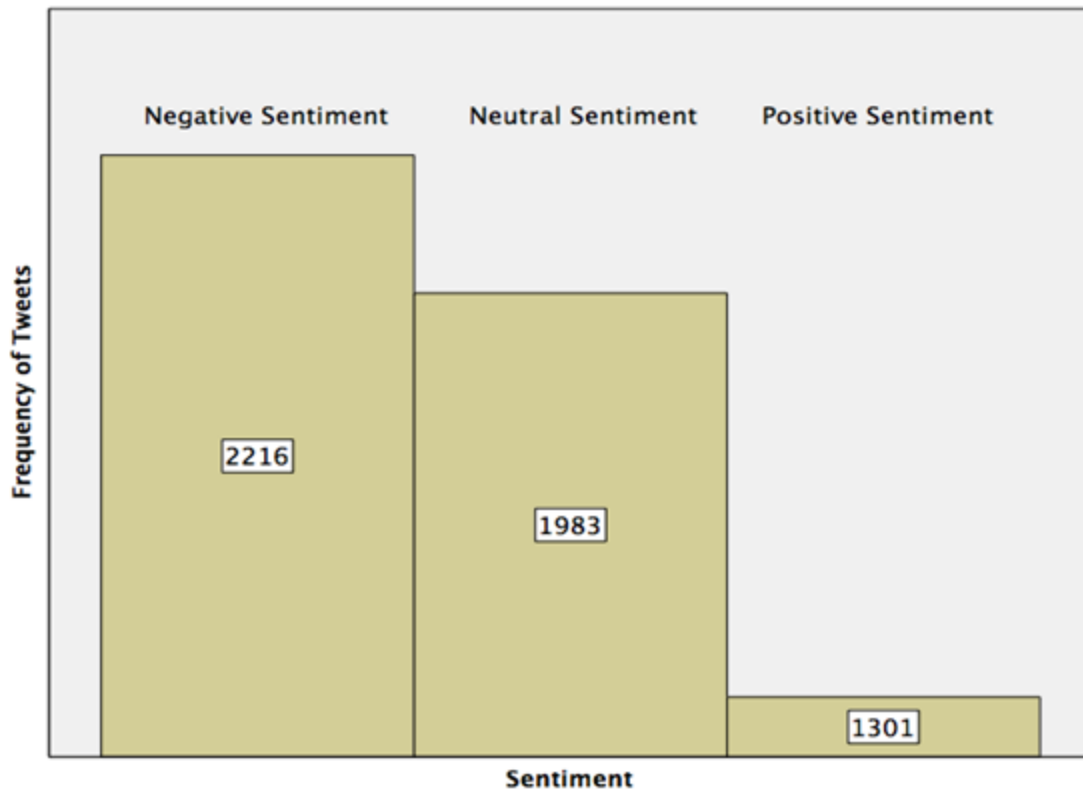


Figure 5.8: Frequency of Dependent Variable Sentiment

The predictor time period, which is nested in agenda setters, has a frequency histogram which is normally distributed. The frequency histogram in Figure 5.10 shows that the majority, almost 4000 tweets, were been posted during the week of the Paris terror attacks in November 2015. This study investigates if the change in the volume of conversation moderates the relationship of the predictor destination image themes and dependent variable sentiment.

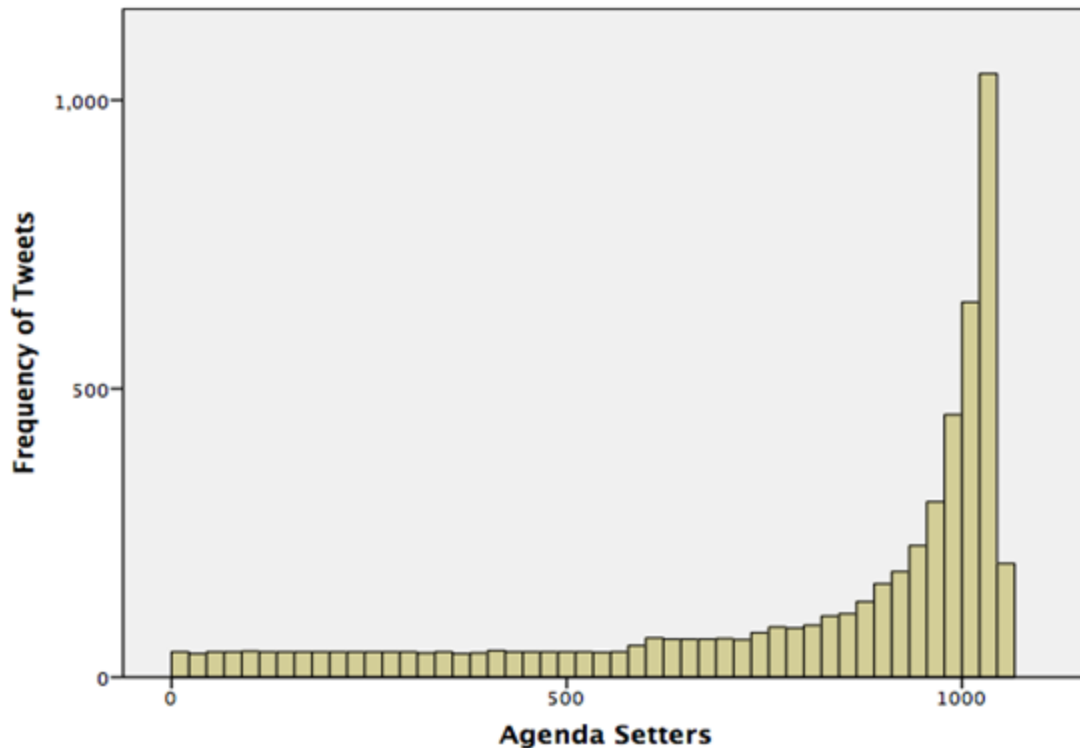


Figure 5.9: Frequency of Identifier Variable

The histogram of destination image themes in Figure 5.11 presets the theme variables coded as 0= Attractions, 1=Affections, 2=Travel Behavior and 3= Safety & Security. The Frequency chart shows that the theme that was depicted the most was Safety & Security. The histogram shows the cumulative numbers, so that we cannot know which time period may have caused the high number of Tweets with the theme Safety & Security. However, we might conclude from the frequency histogram that the number of Tweets about safety & security were almost three times greater than each of the other themes.

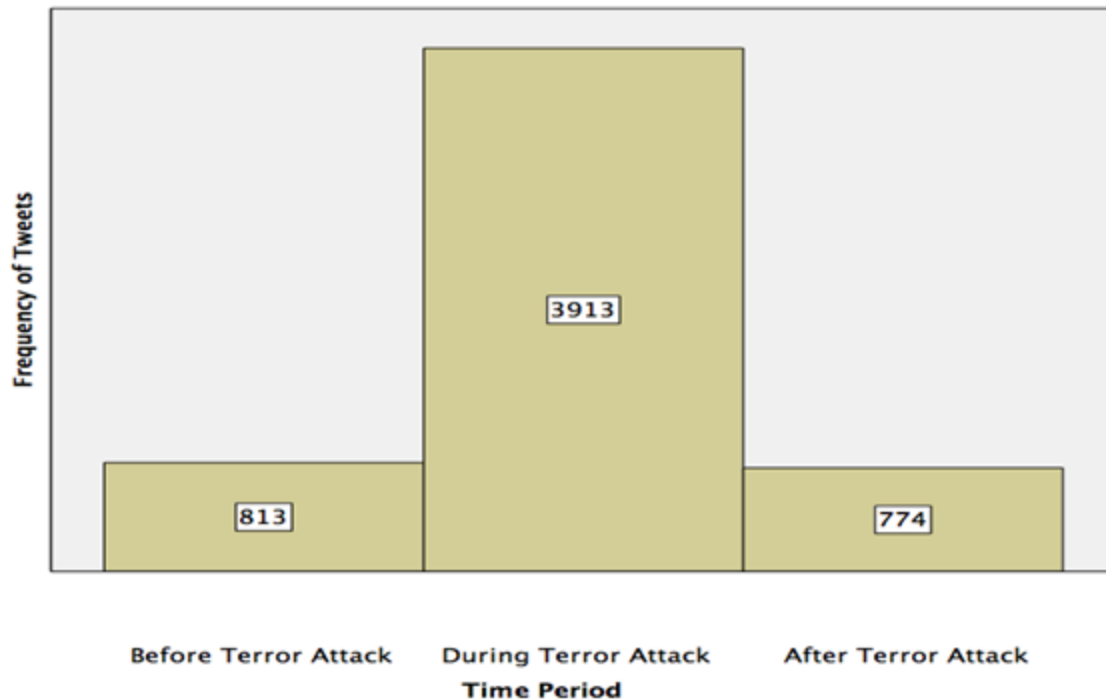


Figure 5.10: Frequency Histogram of Time Period Predictor

To understand the relationship between each variable, the study further tried to plot cross-tabulation tables and charts. Table 5.10 shows the cross-tabulation between the dependent variable and the predictor destination image theme. The Safety & Security Theme is the most mentioned theme with 2,868 tweets. In general, the least mentioned theme is Affections. In general, the sentiment neutral was the most frequently occurring sentiments throughout the conversations on Twitter. Particularly, the cross tabulation shows that in Paris, destination image theme attractions compared to the other two sentiments has a neutral sentiment, the theme affections has a positive sentiment, the theme travel behavior has a negative sentiment, and finally, the theme safety & security has a

negative sentiment. One fact this table provides is that neutral affections has the fewest occurrences whereas, negative sentiment towards safety & security has the most.

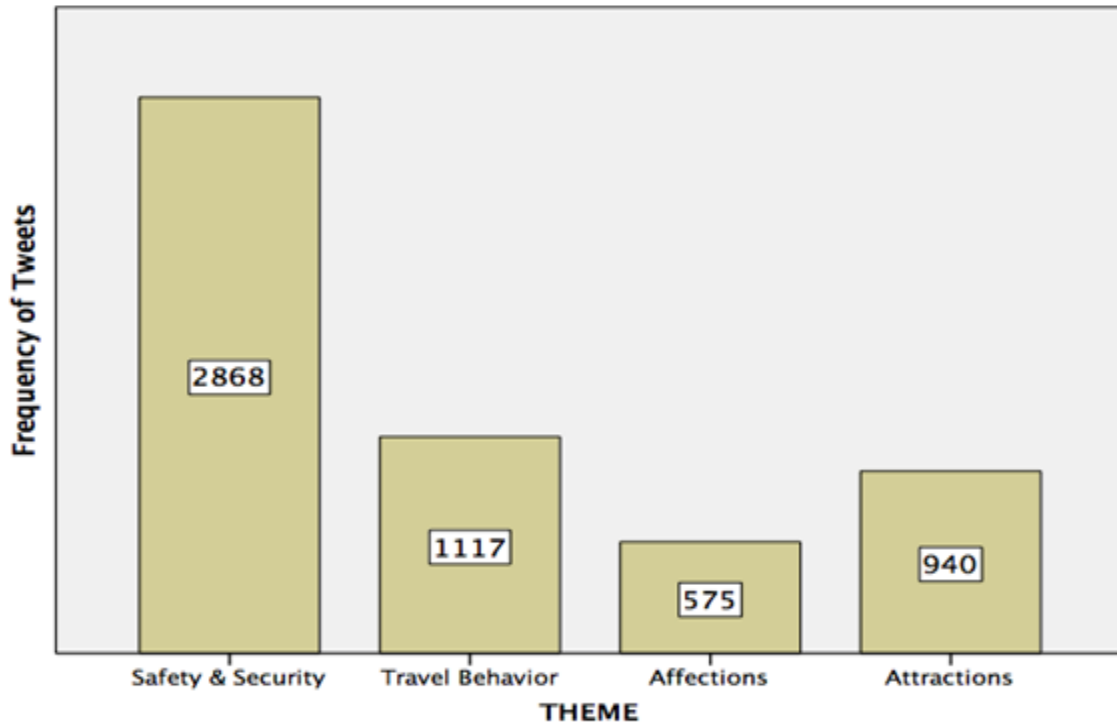


Figure 5.11: Frequency Histogram of Destination Image Themes

The bar chart of the cross tabulation (Figure 5.12) shows that all three sentiments are seen most commonly for the theme Safety & Security. One interpretation is that the negative sentiment and safety & security are the categories that happen most. Besides the stability of theme Safety & Security in in all three-time periods, other themes have a mixed distribution between sentiments.

Table 5.10
Sentiment & Theme Cross Tabulation Counts Table

		Theme				Total
		Attractions	Affections	Travel Behavior	Safety & Security	
Sentiment	Negative	105	164	483	1464	2216
	Neutral	563	61	405	954	1983
	Positive	272	350	229	450	1301
Total		940	575	1117	2868	5500

Table 5.11 shows the cross-tabulation for time period and sentiment and the negative sentiment is the most common sentiment. The frequency histogram of time periods has shown that 71% of the tweets were posted during the terror attacks in Paris. Before the terror attacks the major sentiment towards the destination themes are neutral. Cross-tabulation further reveals that during the terror attacks, the most common sentiment was negative towards the destination image themes. However, after the terror attacks, communication by online agenda setters show that the sentiment recoups its previous neutral stance.

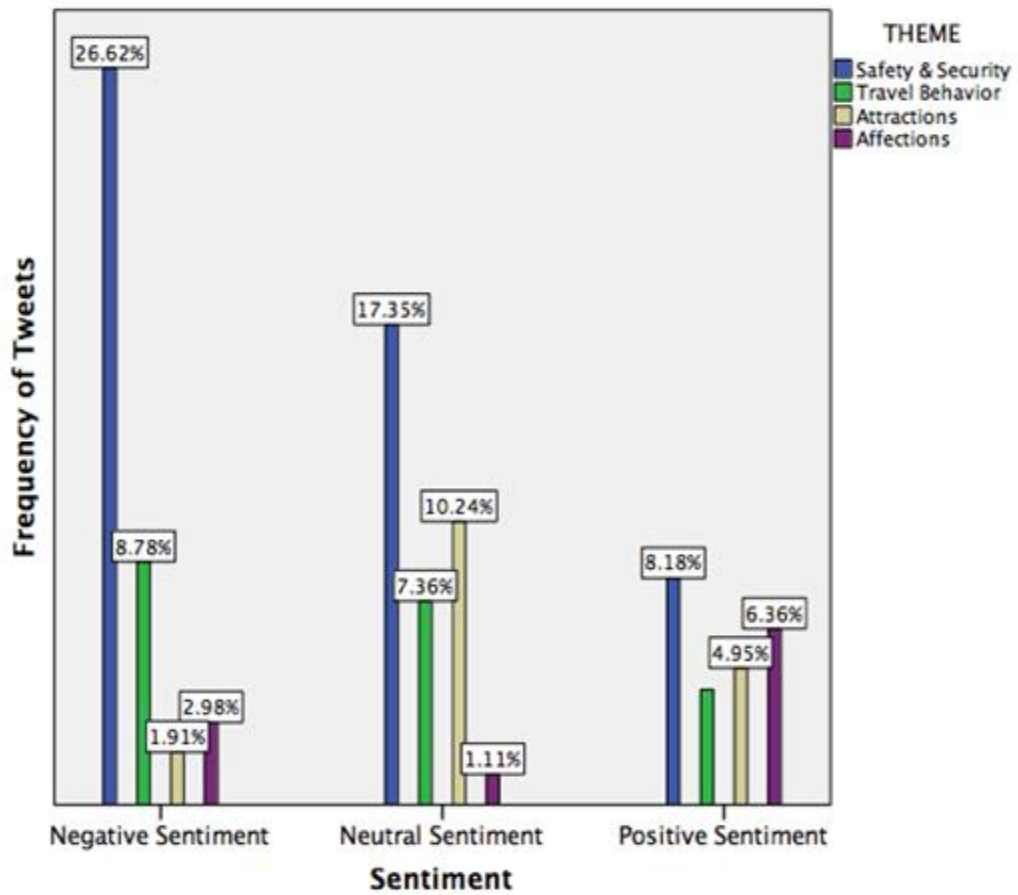


Figure 5.12: Sentiment & Theme Cross Tabulation Chart

Table 5.11

Sentiment & Time Period Cross Tabulation Counts Table

		Time Period			Total
		Before	During	After	
Sentiment	Negative	21	1971	224	2216
	Neutral	499	1144	340	1983
	Positive	293	798	210	1301
Total		813	3913	774	5500

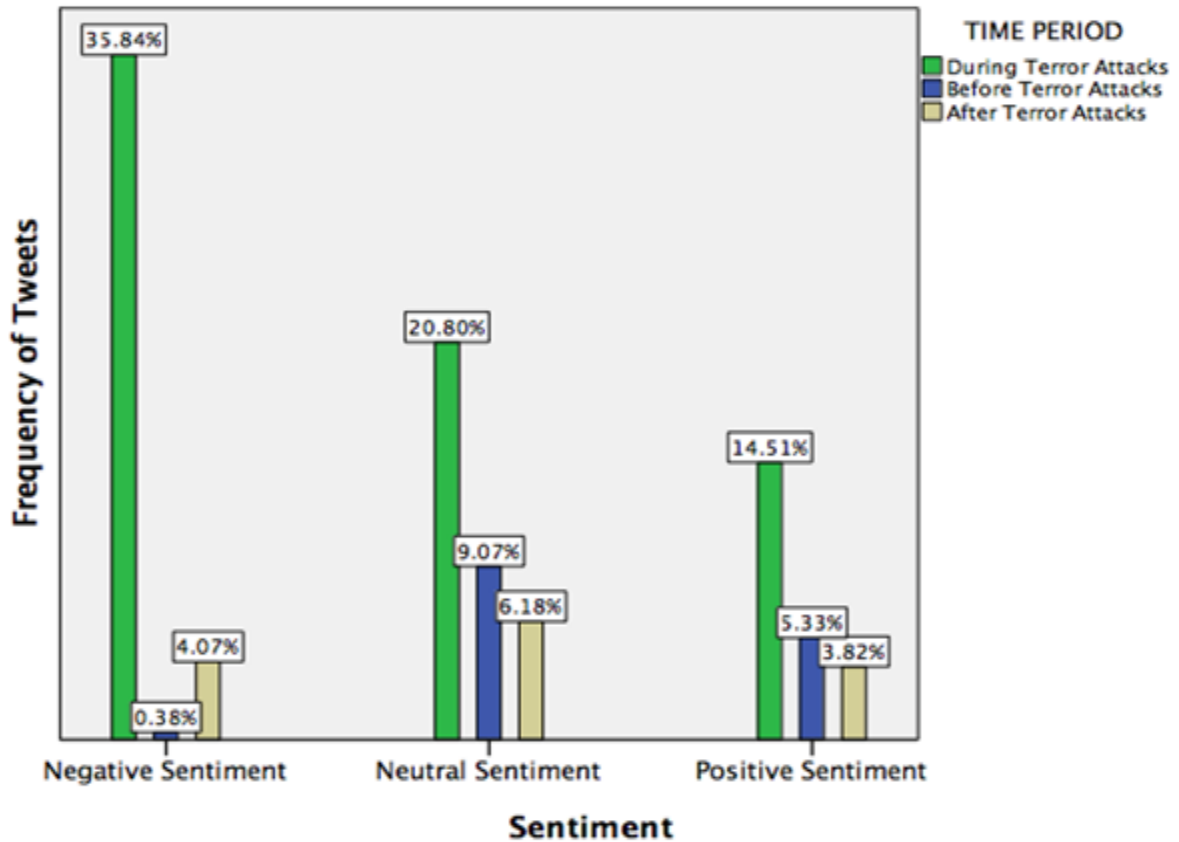


Figure 5.13: Sentiment & Time Period Cross Tabulation Chart

The Cross Tabulation Chart (Figure 5.13) shows the percentages of sentiments at each time period. The least amount of negative sentiment (0.38%) was found before the terror attacks. Additionally, the most amount of negative sentiment, 35.84%, was found to be during the terror attacks. The study showed that the negative sentiment dropped from 35.84% to 4.07% after the terror attacks.

In general, the destination image theme safety & security is the most common theme in this study across time periods and destination image themes. Cross tabulation

table (Table 5.12) with respect to time periods show that during the terror attacks safety & security was the most mentioned destination image theme. However, like it was in the sentiments and themes cross-tabulation analysis, after the attacks, the popularity of theme safety and security drops down enormously.

Table 5.12
Theme & Time Period Cross Tabulation Table

		Theme				Total
		Attractions	Affections	Travel Behavior	Safety & Security	
Time Period	Before	370	62	30	351	813
	During	368	431	899	2215	3913
	After	202	82	188	302	774
Total		940	575	1117	2868	5500

During the terror attacks the theme category Safety & Security was mentioned the most (Figure 5.14). Tourism Behavior was the second most mentioned theme during attacks, which has an increase in the amount of mentions. Other themes do not show a big difference between time periods.

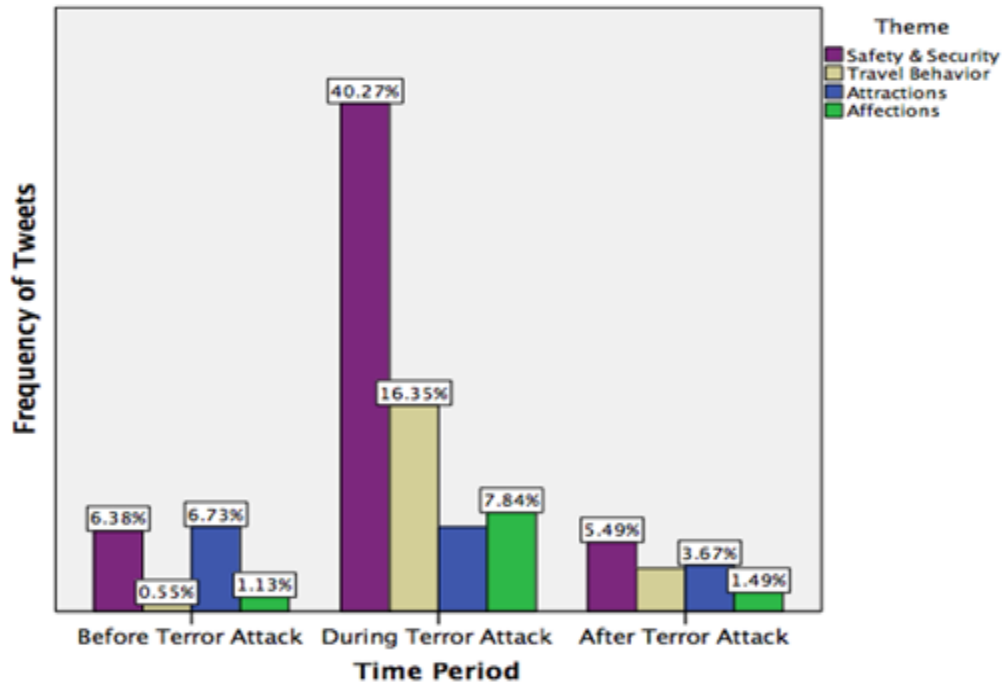


Figure 5.14: Theme & Time Periods Cross Tabulation Chart

Hypothesis 1: Do Destination Image Themes predict Sentiments?

Frequency histograms and cross-tabulation analysis of variables showed that there is a difference between the distribution of sentiments towards the themes. To explore the significance of the change and to understand the difference of these relationships, this research tests the first hypothesis using SPSS quantitative analysis software. Hypothesis 1 questions the first effect of the research model, which can be seen in Figure 5.15.



Figure 5.15: Hypothesis 1 Research Model

Multinomial logistic regression pulls two regressions together. Dependent variable sentiment has three categories: negative, neutral and positive. The reference category is neutral sentiment. The F-table shows the results (Table 5.13). The pooled model, Table 5.13, shows that destination image themes significantly predict sentiments $F(6, 5492) = 67.606$, $p < .001$. In other words, the null hypothesis is rejected because probabilities of getting sentiments differ significantly for each theme.

Table 5.13
F-Table for Logistic Regressions

Predictor	F	df1	df2	Sig
Theme	67.606	6	5,492	.001

The analysis was reduced down to two simple binary logistic regressions to analyze the two Null Hypotheses:

- Null Hypothesis for Binomial Regression Model Predicting Negative Response: The probability of getting a negative sentiment is not different from getting a neutral sentiment for each Theme.
- Null Hypothesis for Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response: The probability of getting a positive sentiment is not different from getting a neutral sentiment for each Theme.

Two binary logistic regression models were run and results were interpreted to evaluate the effects of the predictor on the dependent variable. The results for the binary

logistic model using negative sentiment relative to neutral sentiment are shown on the first row of Table 5.14 with the label “Binomial Regression Model Predicting Negative Response”. The results of Binomial Regression Model show that the probabilities of getting a negative sentiment are significantly different for all themes; $F(3, 4.195) = 66.268, p < .001$. The categorical predictor Theme is significant; therefore, not all the probabilities of getting a negative sentiment are equal.

The results for the binary logistic model using positive sentiment relative to neutral sentiment is shown on the second row of Table 5.14 with the label Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response. The results of Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response show that the probabilities of getting a positive sentiment instead of a neutral sentiment are significantly different for themes, $F(3, 3280) = 74.535, p < .001$. The categorical predictor Theme is significant; therefore, not all the probabilities of getting a positive sentiment are equal.

Table 5.14. Binomial Logistic Model Results

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Binomial Regression Model Predicting Negative Response	66.268	3	4,195	.001
Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response	74.535	3	3,280	.001

The probabilities of each theme to have a negative or positive sentiment with respect to neutral sentiment are shown in Figure 5.16. The first column in Figure 5.16

shows the probabilities of getting a Tweet with a negative sentiment for the four theme categories. The second column shows the probabilities getting a Tweet with a positive sentiment with the four theme categories.

	DV= Sentiment	
	Negative	Positive
IV=D.I. Theme		
Attractions	15.60% ¹	32.70% ¹
Affections	83.00% ²	87.50% ²
Travel Behavior	30.10% ³	30.90% ¹
Safety & Security	53.20% ⁴	33.50% ¹

*superscripts showing pairwise comparisons for the same numbers

Figure 5.16: Hypothesis 1 Probability results of Binomial Regressions

For the binomial regression model predicting negative response all the pairwise comparisons were significant. In other words, probabilities for negative sentiment differ significantly by each theme (Appendix 1).

However, for the binomial regression model predicting positive response not all the pairwise comparisons were significant. Probabilities for the themes “Attractions”, “Travel Behavior” and “Safety and Security” were not significantly different whereas theme “Affections” was significantly different (Appendix 2). Themes with common superscripts are not significantly different in Table 5.16. Therefore, the probability of the

theme “Affections” getting a positive sentiment is significantly higher than the themes “Attractions”, “Travel Behavior” and “Safety and Security”.

The results of the binomial regression model predicting negative response show that the

- Probability of getting a negative sentiment for theme attractions is 15.60%. The likelihood of getting a negative sentiment for the theme Attractions is lowest.
- Probability of getting a negative sentiment for the theme Affections is 83.00%. The likelihood of getting a negative sentiment for the theme Attractions is highest.
- Probability of getting a negative sentiment for the theme Travel Behavior is 30.10%.
- Probability of getting a negative sentiment for the theme Safety & Security is 53.20%. For the theme safety and security, the probability of getting a negative or neutral sentiment is ambivalent.

The results of the binomial regression model predicting positive response show that the

- Probability of getting a positive sentiment for the theme Attractions is 32.70%.
- Probability of getting a positive sentiment for the theme Affections is 87.50%. The likelihood of getting a positive sentiment is highest for the theme Affections.
- Probability of getting a positive sentiment for the theme Travel Behavior is 30.90%.

- Probability of getting a negative sentiment for the theme Safety & Security is 33.50%.

Furthermore, relative comparisons show that;

- For the theme Attractions, there is a higher probability of getting a positive sentiment (32.70%) than a negative sentiment (15.60%).
- For the theme Affection, there is about equal probability of getting a positive sentiment (87.50%) and a negative sentiment (83.00%).
- For the theme Travel Behavior, there is about equal probability of getting a positive sentiment (30.10%) and a negative sentiment (30.90%).
- For the theme Safety & Security, there is a higher probability of getting a negative (53.20%) sentiment than a positive (33.50%) sentiment.

Hypothesis 2: Does Time Period Predict Sentiment?

Frequency histograms and cross tabulation analysis of variables showed that there is a difference between the distribution of sentiments towards the time periods. To explore the significance of the change and to understand the difference of these relationships, this research tests the second hypothesis using SPSS quantitative analysis software. Hypothesis 2 questions the second effect of the research model, which can be seen in Figure 5.17.



Figure 5.17: Hypothesis 2 Research Model

Multinomial logistic regression pulls two regressions together. The dependent variable sentiment has three categories: negative, neutral, and positive. The reference category is neutral sentiment. A pooled model shows that time period significantly predict sentiments; $F(4, 5.494) = 67,606$, $p < .001$. In other words, the null hypothesis is rejected because probabilities of getting sentiments differ significantly at each time period. F-table shows the results (Table 5.15).

Table 5.15
F-Table for Logistic Regressions

Predictor	F	df1	df2	Sig
Theme	32.689	4	5,494	.001

The analysis was reduced to two simple binary logistic regressions to analyze the two Null Hypotheses:

- Null Hypothesis for Binomial Regression Model Predicting Negative Response: The probability of getting a negative sentiment is not different from getting a neutral sentiment at each time period.
- Null Hypothesis for Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response: The probability of getting a positive sentiment is not different from getting a neutral sentiment at each time period.

Two binary logistic regression models were run and results were interpreted to evaluate the effects of predictor on the dependent variable. The results for the binary logistic model using negative sentiment relative to neutral sentiment is shown on the first

row of Table 5.16 with the label Binomial Regression Model Predicting Negative Response.

The results of Binomial Regression Model show that the probabilities of getting a negative sentiment is significantly different at three time periods; $F(2, 4196) = 60.239$, $p < .001$. The categorical predictor Time Period is significant; therefore, not all the probabilities of getting a negative sentiment are equal at each time period.

Results of Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response shows that probabilities of getting a positive sentiment is not significantly different at each time period, $F(2, 3281) = 2.319$, $p < .099$.

Table 5.16. Binomial Logistic Model Results

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Binomial Regression Model Predicting Negative Response	60.239	2	4,196	.001
Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response	2.319	2	3,281	.099

The first column in Figure 5.18 shows the probabilities of getting a Tweet with a negative sentiment at three time periods with respect to getting a neutral sentiment. The second column shows the probabilities of getting a Tweet with a positive sentiment at three time periods with respect to getting a neutral sentiment.

However, as noted before, the results of the binomial regression model predicting a positive response at each time period have shown that the probabilities of getting a

positive sentiment compared to a neutral sentiment are not significantly different at each time period. In other words, probabilities for negative sentiment do not differ significantly before, during, and after the terror attack in Paris, France.

	DV= Sentiment	
	Negative	Positive
IV=Time Period		
Before Terror Attack	3.80% ¹	35.90%*
During Terror Attack	49.30% ²	42.20%*
After Terror Attack	48.60% ²	42.60%*

*superscripts showing pairwise comparisons for the same numbers
 *superscript * means the regression results is not significant

Figure 5.18: Hypothesis 2 Probability results of Binomial Regressions

For the binomial regression model predicting negative response, not all the pairwise comparisons were significant (Appendix 3). During and after terror attacks saw a significant increase in the probability of a negative sentiment. Superscripts in Figure 5.18 show that probabilities for time periods to have a negative sentiment during and after the terror attacks did not differ significantly from each other. However, the Before time period did have a significantly different probability than the During and After time periods. The probability of negative sentiments in the During and After attack time periods did not differ in the pairwise comparison tests. Positive sentiments did not differ significantly by time period. Therefore, paired comparison test results were irrelevant (Appendix 4).

The results of the binomial regression model predicting negative response show that;

- Probability of getting a negative sentiment before the terror attack is 3.80%.
The likelihood of getting a negative sentiment for the theme Attractions is lowest for negative sentiment
- Probability of getting a negative sentiment during the terror attack is 49.30%.
During the terror attacks it is ambivalent to get a negative and neutral sentiment
- Probability of getting a negative sentiment after the terror attack is 42.60%.
During the terror attacks it is ambivalent to get a negative and neutral sentiment

The results of the binomial regression model predicting positive response show that the

- Probability of getting a positive sentiment at the Before, During and After time periods are not significantly different. Therefore, no further results are reported.

Hypothesis 3: Do Time Periods Moderate the Relationship between D.I. Themes & Sentiments?

Frequency histograms and cross tabulation analysis of variables showed that there is a difference between the distribution of time periods towards the sentiments with respect to significant themes. To explore the significance of effects and understand the difference of these relationships, this research tests the third hypothesis using SPSS quantitative analysis software's mixed model analysis. Hypothesis 3 questions the simple effects, third effect of the research model, which can be seen in Figure 5.19.

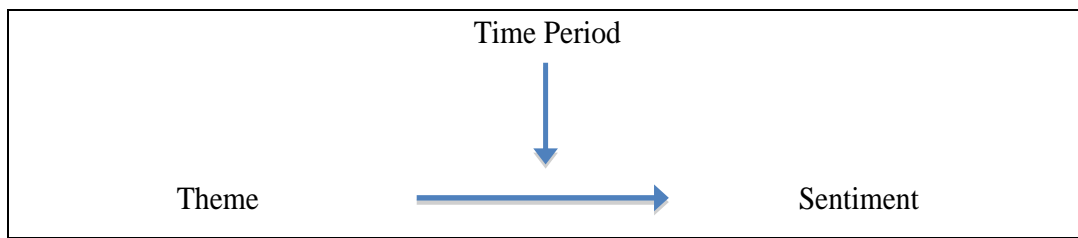


Figure 5.19: Hypothesis 3 Research Model

At each time period, (before, during and after), multinomial logistic regressions pull two regressions together. Three multinomial regression models are run, one for every time period. Dependent variable sentiment has three categories: negative, neutral, and positive. The reference category is neutral sentiment. The interaction results showed that the effect of independent variable theme moderated by time period was significant, $F(6, 5492) = 70.124, p < .001$. Furthermore, the analysis was reduced to three multinomial logistic regressions to analyze the two Null Hypothesis at each of the three time periods;

Multinomial logistic regression model results were interpreted to evaluate the effects of the predictor on the dependent variable. Multinomial logistic regression pulls two regressions together for each time period. The dependent variable Sentiment has three categories: negative, neutral and positive. The reference category is neutral sentiment. The results of the simple effects multinomial models are shown in Table 5.17. Each of the simple effects of the theme at each time period were significant. The F-table shows the simple effects results (Figure 5.13).

The pooled model that is moderated by the time period before the terror attacks shows that theme significantly predicts sentiments: $F(6, 565) = 10.498, p < .001$. In other words, the null hypothesis is rejected because the probability of having each sentiment category differs significantly for each theme. The F-table shows the results (Table 5.17).

The pooled model that is moderated by the time period during the terror attacks shows that theme significantly predicts sentiments; $F(6, 3905) = 78.497, p < .001$. In other words, the null hypothesis is rejected because, probability of having each sentiment category differ significantly for each theme. F-table shows the results (Table 5.17).

The pooled model that is moderated by the time period after the terror attacks shows that theme significantly predicts sentiments; $F(6, 766) = 24.784, p < .001$. In other words, the null hypothesis is rejected because the probability of having each sentiment category differs significantly for each theme. The F-table shows the results (Table 5.17).

Table 5.17.

F-Table for Multinomial Logistic Regressions with Moderator Time Period

Predictor	Moderator IV=TimePeriod	F	df1	df2	Sig
Theme	Category=Before Terror Attacks	10.498	6	565	.001
Theme	Category=During Terror Attacks	78.497	6	3,905	.001
Theme	Category=After Terror Attacks	24.784	6	766	.001

The analysis was reduced to two simple binary logistic regressions to analyze the two Null Hypothesis for each time period.

Before Terror Attacks:

- Before the terror attacks, the probability of getting a negative sentiment is not different by theme.
- Before the terror attacks, the probability of getting a positive sentiment is not different by theme.

During Terror Attacks:

- During the terror attacks, the probability of getting a negative sentiment is not different by theme.
- During the terror attacks, the probability of getting a positive sentiment is not different from by theme.

After Terror Attacks:

- After the terror attacks, the probability of getting a negative sentiment is not different by theme.
- After the terror attacks, the probability of getting a positive sentiment is not different by theme.

The results for the binary logistic models for the time period before the terror attacks are shown in the first and second rows of Table 5.18. The binomial regression model predicting a negative response shows that the probabilities of getting a negative sentiment are significantly different by themes before terror attacks; $F(3, 516) = 19.669$, $p < .001$. The categorical predictor theme is significant; therefore, not all the probabilities of getting a negative sentiment are equal. Binomial regression model predicting positive response shows that the probabilities of getting positive sentiment is significantly different for all themes before terror attacks; $F(3, 788) = 10.593$, $p < .001$. The categorical predictor

Theme is significant; therefore, not all the probabilities of getting a positive sentiment are equal.

Table 5.18
Binomial Logistic Model Results

		F	df1	df2	Sig.
Before Terror Attacks	Binomial Regression Model Predicting Negative Response	19.669	3	516	.001
	Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response	10.593	3	788	.001
During Terror Attacks	Binomial Regression Model Predicting Negative Response	87.346	3	3,111	.001
	Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response	64.347	3	1,938	.001
After Terror Attacks	Binomial Regression Model Predicting Negative Response	36.743	3	560	.001
	Binomial Regression Model Predicting Positive Response	13.294	3	546	.001

The results for the binary logistic models for the time period during the terror attacks are shown in the third and fourth rows of Table 5.18. The binomial regression model predicting a negative response shows that the probabilities of getting a negative sentiment are significantly different by themes during the terror attacks; $F(3, 3111) = 87.346, p < .001$. The categorical predictor Theme is significant; therefore, not all probabilities of getting a negative sentiment are equal. The binomial regression model predicting a positive response shows that the probabilities of getting positive sentiment are significantly

different by themes during the terror attacks; $F(3, 1938) = 64.347, p < .001$. The categorical predictor Theme is significant; therefore, not all the probabilities of getting a positive sentiment are equal.

The results for the binary logistic models for the time period after the terror attacks are shown in the first and second rows of Table 5.18. The binomial regression model predicting a negative response shows that the probabilities of getting a negative sentiment are significantly different by themes after the terror attacks; $F(3, 560) = 36.743, p < .001$. The categorical predictor Theme is significant; therefore, not all the probabilities of getting a negative sentiment are equal. The binomial regression model predicting a positive response shows that the probabilities of getting positive sentiment are significantly different by themes after terror attacks; $F(3, 546) = 13.294, p < .001$. The categorical predictor Theme is significant; therefore, not all the probabilities of getting a positive sentiment are equal.

The probabilities of each category of theme having a negative or positive sentiment are shown in Figure 5.20 for all time periods. The first column shows the probabilities of getting a Tweet with a negative sentiment or positive sentiment before the terror attacks for the four categories of theme. The second column shows the probabilities of getting a Tweet with a negative sentiment or positive sentiment during the terror attacks for the four categories of theme. The third column shows the probabilities of getting a Tweet with a negative sentiment or positive sentiment after the terror attacks for the four categories of theme.

Paired comparison tests show that before the terror attacks, probabilities for negative and positive sentiment are not different for all themes (Appendix 5 and 6) For the binomial regression model (Table 5.18) predicting a negative response, not all the pairwise comparisons were significant. Themes with common superscripts in Figure 5.20 show the ones that are not significantly different. Before the terror attacks, probabilities of negative and positive sentiment for themes attractions and safety security are the same. Additionally, probabilities of the themes travel behavior, and affections are the same as well.

Paired comparison tests show that, during the terror attacks, probabilities for negative sentiment are different for all themes (Appendix 7). For the binomial regression model (Table 5.18) predicting negative response, all the pairwise comparisons were significant. However, probabilities of positive sentiment during the terror attacks were not significantly the same for all themes. Themes with common superscripts in Figure 5.20 show the ones that are not significantly different. During the terror attacks, probabilities of positive sentiment for the themes Attractions and Safety & Security are the same. Probabilities of the Themes Travel Behavior And Affections are significantly different from each other.

Paired comparison tests show that, after the terror attacks, probabilities for negative sentiment are different for all themes (Appendix 9). For the binomial regression model (Table 5.18) predicting negative response, all the pairwise comparisons were significant. However, probabilities of positive sentiment after the terror attacks were not significantly the same for all themes (Appendix 10). Themes with common superscripts in Figure 5.20 show the ones that are not significantly different. After the terror attacks, probabilities of positive sentiment for the themes Attractions and Safety & Security are the same. Additionally, probabilities of the themes Travel Behavior and Affections are also the same.

		Before Terror		During Terror		After Terror	
		Attack		Attack		Attack	
		Negative Sentimen	Positive Sentime	Negative Sentime	Positive Sentime	Negative Sentime	Positive Sentime
IV=D.I. Theme	Attractions	3.70% ¹	30.60% ¹	33.10% ¹	37.50% ¹	3.70% ¹	29.50% ¹
	Affections	50.00% ²	89.50% ²	88.30% ²	91.30% ²	60.02% ²	75.70% ²
	Travel Behavior	69.90% ²	90.40% ²	21.00% ³	24.30% ³	88.50% ³	68.50% ²
	Safety & Security	3.30% ¹	41.40% ¹	65.50% ⁴	33.20% ¹	3.70% ⁴	28.60% ¹

*superscripts showing pairwise comparisons for the same numbers

Figure 5.20: Hypothesis 3 Probability Results of Binomial Regression Analysis

Results of the binomial regression models predicting negative response (Figure 5.20):

- Before the terror attacks, the probability of getting a negative sentiment is lowest for the themes Attractions (3.70%) and Safety & Security (3.30%). It is highest for Travel Behavior (69.90%). Before the terror attacks it is statistically ambivalent to get a negative and neutral sentiment for theme Affections (50%).
- During the terror attacks, the probability of getting a negative sentiment for the theme Travel Behavior is lowest (21.00%). It is highest for the theme Affections (88.30%).
- After the terror attacks, probabilities of getting a negative sentiment for the themes Attractions and Safety & Security are the same and the lowest. (3.70%). It is highest for Travel Behavior (88.50%).

Results of the binomial regression models predicting positive response (Figure 31):

- Before the terror attacks, the probability of getting a positive sentiment for the theme Attractions is lowest (30.60%). It is highest for Travel Behavior (90.40%) and Affections (89.50%)
- During the terror attacks, the probability of getting a positive sentiment for the theme Travel Behavior is lowest (24.30%). It is highest for theme Affections (91.30%)
- After the terror attacks, probability of getting a positive sentiment is lowest for the themes Attractions (29.50%) and Safety & Security (28.60%). It is highest for the theme Affections (75.70%).

Furthermore, relative comparisons show that (Figure 5.20);

- For the theme Attractions, the probability of a negative sentiment is lower before and after the attacks but higher during the attacks. Positive sentiments remained relatively constant across time periods.
- For the theme Affections, the probability of negative sentiments increased during the attacks and reduced after the attacks but remained higher than before the attacks. Positive sentiments were high before and during the attack but were lower after the attacks.
- For the theme Travel Behavior, the probability of negative sentiments decreased during the attacks and increased after the attacks but remained higher than before the attacks. Positive sentiment was highest before the attacks, decreased during the attacks, and increased after the attacks, but remained lower than before the attacks.
- For the theme Safety and Security, the probability of negative sentiment increased during the attacks and decreased after the attacks to almost the same probability as before the attacks. Positive sentiment decreased during the attacks and decreased even more after the attacks.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

The results have shown that organizational themes are the same for three time periods. Even though the basic themes change before, during, and after a terror attack, the organizational themes remain the same. Therefore, this study has shown that in a study that looks at change with respect to time, organizational themes are a viable variable. This study has applied thematic network analysis to destination image research using social media data for the first time in the tourism literature. The deductive approach to find out the unique destination image themes for the city of Paris, France has been inclusive of unstructured communication data. The approach of utilizing unstructured data is a novel approach, however, this study shown has shown that it is proficient in providing themes.

The first hypothesis in the quantitative part of the study has shown that themes predict sentiments in the tweets that mention the Paris as a destination. The theme Affections was the only organizational theme that is prone to having the highest probability of having a negative (83%) or positive sentiment (87.50%) when compared to other themes. This means that the theme Affections has a much lower probability of being a neutral sentiment than the two extremes sentiments. Another take away is that the theme Safety & Security has a statistically ambivalent probability of getting a negative (53.20%) or neutral probability (46.80%). However, the theme Safety & Security is less likely to have a positive sentiment. The theme Travel Behavior has a higher likelihood of being a neutral sentiment ($\cong 70\%$) when compared to negative and positive sentiment. The last take away is that the

theme Attractions has the lowest probability of getting a negative and positive sentiment when compared to other themes. It is more prone to stay neutral.

The second hypothesis in the qualitative part of the study has shown that time periods predict sentiments in the tweets that mention the Paris as a destination. Before the terror attacks, it is very unlikely to get a negative sentiment (3.80%). However, it has a higher likelihood of getting positive sentiment before the terror attacks (35.90%). Even though it is higher before the terror attacks, neutral sentiment has the highest likelihood when compared to negative and positive sentiments. Another take away is that during and after terror attacks show similarities in predicting sentiments. Paired comparisons have shown that negative sentiments have approximately the same likelihood for the during (49.30%) and after (48.60%) time periods. As well, for both time periods, getting a negative sentiment is statistically ambivalent to getting a neutral sentiment. Additionally, paired comparisons have shown that positive sentiments have approximately the same likelihood for the during (42.20%) and after (42.60%) time periods. Therefore, the main contribution of this hypothesis testing is to show that only the Before terror attacks time has a difference in predicting sentiments.

Furthermore, third hypothesis testing has shown that time period does moderate the effects of themes on sentiments. There are several takeaways from the results. The lowest probability of getting a negative sentiment, which is approximately 3% is before and after the terror attacks for the theme Attractions and Safety & Security. This means that the likelihood of getting negative sentiments for Attractions and Safety & Security are highest during the attacks. This shows that one week after the attacks, sentiments towards Safety

and Security start to heal. Another interesting finding is that the theme Affections has the highest probability of getting positive sentiments during all time periods when compared to negative sentiments. This shows that terror attacks do not really affect the positive affections toward a destination. However, a person is more likely to have negative affections during attacks when compared to other themes and other time periods. The surprising finding is that only the theme travel behavior had a lower probability of getting a negative sentiment during a terror attack when compared to probabilities before and after attacks. As well, the probability of positive sentiment towards travel behaviors dropped drastically during the attacks: from 90% to 24%. It recouped after the attacks to 68%. For Safety & Security only, the results showed that probabilities of positive sentiment continue to decrease even after the attacks.

Implications

The implications of this research go beyond academia. The findings support professional tourism planning. First of all, there are novel implications of this study on academic enquiry for tourism and communication literature. Contribution to tourism research are the utilization of social media data in destination image studies, implications of terror attacks on destination images, and a singular approach to first-time or repeat visitors' perceptions. Contributions to communication research are the use of social media data in agenda setting research and expansion of the domain of agenda setting theory in a different context and to a new social science which is tourism. Additionally, there are some unique approaches in this research, such as the use of time variable, effects of terror attacks beyond safety, and a unique approach to study agenda setting effects.

According to a study from the World Travel and Tourism Council, it takes tourism 13 months to recover from a terrorist attack (Zillman, 2015). The argument is that destination image themes are important for any destination's tourism development. It has been shown through previous scientific research and professional research that terrorist attacks do influence destination images in the short term and long term. Thus, the complex image on people's minds is not static but changes, depending on time. Time is a variable of destination image and this study utilized time as the moderator of change in destination image. Therefore, this study not only contributes to the academic literature, but also to professional tourism players as an example that might be applied to future crisis marketing strategic plans.

Researchers have studied the belief that terrorism has negative impacts on tourism destinations. The results showed that the potential risk of safety affects the first-time or repeat tourist's decision-making process (Cook, 1990; Sonmez & Grafe, 1998; Lepp & Gibson, 2003). However, these studies have not considered other effects of terror attacks on a destination image such as affections or travel behavior. This study shows that effects of terror attacks go beyond perceptions of the potential risk to safety. The first step in effective marketing campaigns and promotions is to understand the dynamics in the market and respond to change promptly. This study suggests that future tourism players might be proactive and reactive by understanding the effects of terror attacks on particular factors of destination image. In sum, this may provide a strategic advantage to tourism players to minimize the negative effects of terror attacks on tourism markets.

Scholars from a variety of disciplines have researched Agenda Setting in an online platform. There have been various approaches to identify who is the most influential in delivering a theme. To be able to define the Agenda Setter variable, this study unites several approaches from previous research. Informational influence may occur in online travel communities when facts, evidence, or other travel related information is being discussed via postings (Arsal, Woosnam, Baldwin, & Backman, 2010).

This study defines a new metric with three influence measures for Agenda Setting theory. Analysis of the three influence measures provides a better understanding of the different roles users play in social media. Indegree represents the popularity of a user, how many followers that account has; re-tweets represent the content value of one's tweets; and mentions represent the name value of a user. Three assumptions of the new metric defined in this study are first an influencer must have at least one follower on Twitter. The second assumption is that the tweets have been re-tweeted at least once in the time period that the search is done. The third metric is that the name of the tweeter should have been mentioned at least once in the communication content during that particular time period.

Additionally, the results depict that Agenda Setters may not be the original source of the information. As such, content on Twitter travels to the public and contributes to Agenda Setting. Influence of re-tweets (H Oh, C Nguyen, 2010), number of followers (Creamer, 2011), and number of mention names (Sameh, 2013) are the metrics that measure the influence. The re-tweeted posts, which are original as-is tweets, did not necessarily have the most number of followers. This meant that an Agenda Setter, who is pushing out the information to tell people what to think about and how to think about it,

does not necessarily have to have the most followers. This study has contributed to communication studies by showing that Agenda Setters do not necessarily post the original content.

This study is considered as an initiation of future research area, which may extent the understanding of Agenda Setting theory considering the Web as a mass medium which can influence the formation of community opinion. Acceptance of the Web as the new global communication landscape brings new research areas. Traditional media had the privilege of setting the agenda during a crisis before Web technologies took the lead. Traditional media is selective and subjective in setting the agenda. This study suggests that portrayals through a social media platform create an aggregate image of a place as well. In other words, agendas setters share their own narratives about tourism through their perceptions and expectations gained by information.

Future Research

This study brings together many novel methods and approaches to destination image research and agenda setting research. Future studies may use the approaches to look at other case studies of terror attacks and provide comparisons. Another idea might be to look at alternative social media platforms other than Twitter. Recently, social media has taken a path towards more visual content than textual content with the platforms Instagram and Snapshot. Even though the methodological approaches to visual analysis are limited, there aren't a lot of research in destination image research about online depictions of destination images.

Another orientation may be a comparative analysis of destination images as projected by user-generated content creators and various travel intermediaries, government sources, and general media. Such comparison analyses consistently captured differences in destination images transmitted via various information channels (e.g., Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Dwivedi, Yadav, & Patel, 2009; Law & Cheung, 2010), however never utilized User-generated content. Comparison of online sources to traditional sources of destination information may provide beneficial information to agenda setting and tourism literature. Additionally, the literature lacks comparative analysis of online sources with each other.

Previous destination image studies have looked at perceptions of tourists through structured questionnaires. This study uses the procedure of thematic networks, which does not aim or pretend to discover the beginning of arguments or the end of rationalizations; it simply provides a technique for breaking up text and finding within it explicit rationalizations and their implicit signification. It is important to note that online communication networks such as Twitter are only a tool in analysis, not the analysis itself. Once a thematic network has been constructed, it will then serve as an organizing principle and an illustrative tool in the interpretation of the text, facilitating disclosure for the researcher and understanding for the reader. In future, the thematic network analysis that is constructed in this study may serve as a model to look at other case studies or even other crisis types such as natural disasters. Therefore, future studies may consider applying the qualitative methodology of this research in a different context.

Twitter has provided additional data that is not used in this study. Some of these are the originality of the post, number of re-tweets, mentions of particular words in the content of the Tweet like “attack” and “Isis”, number of updates to the Tweet, and number of accounts that the tweeter account is following. It is worthwhile to look at these variables. One future study might look at the relationship between the originality of the post and the destination image themes. Another study might look at numerical instead of categorical data and study the relationship between number of re-tweets, number of followers, and destination image themes. The availability of variables from Twitter data provide a lot of opportunities for future research.

Finally, next step might be to look at research question 3 from a different hypothesis in which the moderator and the independent variable. Future study might see if themes moderate the relationship between time period and sentiments. Looking at simple effects of time period by theme will test changes in sentiments across the time period for each theme. That may address another interesting question that would contribute to this research.

Study Limitations & Challenges

Collecting, sampling and analyzing social media data for qualitative and/or quantitative research is associated with a number of challenges. A central issue with mixed methods research is whether triangulation can be achieved by the use of multiple methods, especially if quantification and qualification are used together (Riley, R. W., & Love, L.L., 2000). Secondly, all methods of data collection have their own limitations. For one thing, a researcher needs to have the computational skills in order to collect relevant data from social media platforms. It is important to note that the specific software (Radian 6) used as

an interphase between the Twitter data and the researcher may influence what kind of research questions that can be asked and bias may play a role in selecting relevant search queries. To improve the human element during the phase of data collection, the query words were refined based on the advice of social media Listening Center Coordinator Dr. Joseph Mazer at Clemson University.

The sentiment of each Tweet was assigned by the Radian 6 software. To overcome the issue of reliability, the researcher has coded the sentiments once more to improve the sentiments that have assigned by software Radian 6. In future studied, an additional coder might be designated to code the sentiments for a third time. An additional coding step will improve the intercoder reliability of human element and as well provide triangulation in the coding process.

Radian 6 software was not able to yield an influencer analysis because the current analytical tools do not yet analyze past data to find out influential digital identities. However, it does provide influencer weightings for the recent data. This meant that Radian 6 software does not provide who the Agenda Setters are for the historical communication data. Therefore, one of the challenges for this study was that previous studies and research were incorporated from the communication literature for analytical and theoretical tools to find out Agenda Setters.

Another challenge is that social media users are not a homogeneous group and thus users are hardly a representative group of the entire population in social sciences research. The data collected has built-in bias toward those types of users who are the most active content contributors, whereas the data say very little about the users who may read their

Twitter streams with great interest on a daily basis but who barely post anything to the stream themselves (Giglietto, Rossi, and Bennato, 2012; Gonzales-Bailon et. al., 2013). To overcome this challenge, this study does not do random sampling. The purposeful sampling technique is utilized to select the Twitter accounts that are the most active content creators and understand the image through most published and visualized content.

Finally, on top of the methodological limitations and challenges of sampling, generalization, and validity, there are ethical implications of researching online data. On Twitter, content by the time it is posted is by default public. As argued by the Association of Web Researchers (Ess, 2010; Markham and Buchanan, 2012), ethical issues vary by the scope of the research questions. The ethical judgments must be based on the research at hand rather than a generalization of ethical inquiries for each study. This research acknowledges that public social media data may be personal and sensitive data and ensures that it is handled according to the privacy laws.

Social media is a continuous, global, and instantaneous meeting space for friends and strangers. Social media platforms are tools that allow people to share content with their social networks by exporting information (Xiang, & Gretzel, 2009). The positive aspects of data collecting from social media are that people post about issues by their own will and motivation. Therefore, the researcher bias disappears from the data collection stage of the research in collecting online communication data. Additionally, findings indicate that online word-of-mouth communications have a significant impact on attitudes toward visitation, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and intention to travel (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012).

APPENDICES

Appendix 1 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 1, Binomial Regression Analysis 1

Pairwise Contrasts		
THEME...	Contrast Estimate ▶	Adj. Sig.
3 - 2	-0.231	0.000
3 - 1	0.298	0.000
3 - 0	-0.376	0.000
2 - 3	0.231	0.000
2 - 1	0.529	0.000
2 - 0	-0.145	0.000
1 - 3	-0.298	0.000
1 - 2	-0.529	0.000
1 - 0	-0.674	0.000
0 - 3	0.376	0.000
0 - 2	0.145	0.000
0 - 1	0.674	0.000

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Appendix 2 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 1, Binomial Regression Analysis 2

Pairwise Contrasts		
THEME...	Contrast Estimate ▶	Adj. Sig.
3 - 2	0.027	0.361
3 - 1	-0.540	0.000
3 - 0	0.008	0.777
2 - 3	-0.027	0.361
2 - 1	-0.567	0.000
2 - 0	-0.018	0.600
1 - 3	0.540	0.000
1 - 2	0.567	0.000
1 - 0	0.548	0.000
0 - 3	-0.008	0.777
0 - 2	0.018	0.600
0 - 1	-0.548	0.000

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Appendix 3 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 2, Binomial Regression Analysis 1

Pairwise Contrasts		
TIMEPERIOD...	Contrast Estimate ▶	Adj. Sig.
2 - 1	-0.006	0.866
2 - 0	0.448	0.000
1 - 2	0.006	0.866
1 - 0	0.455	0.000
0 - 2	-0.448	0.000
0 - 1	-0.455	0.000

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Appendix 4 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 2, Binomial Regression Analysis 2

Pairwise Contrasts		
TIMEPERIOD...	Contrast Estimate ▶	Adj. Sig.
2 - 1	0.004	0.914
2 - 0	0.066	0.076
1 - 2	-0.004	0.914
1 - 0	0.063	0.039
0 - 2	-0.066	0.076
0 - 1	-0.063	0.039

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Appendix 5 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 1

Pairwise Contrasts		
THEME...	Contrast Estimate ▶	Adj. Sig.
3 - 2	0.666	0.000
3 - 1	0.467	0.000
3 - 0	0.004	0.793
2 - 3	-0.666	0.000
2 - 1	-0.199	0.298
2 - 0	-0.662	0.000
1 - 3	-0.467	0.000
1 - 2	0.199	0.298
1 - 0	-0.463	0.000
0 - 3	-0.004	0.793
0 - 2	0.662	0.000
0 - 1	0.463	0.000

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Appendix 6 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 2

Pairwise Contrasts		
THEME...	Contrast Estimate ▶	Adj. Sig.
3 - 2	-0.490	0.000
3 - 1	-0.481	0.000
3 - 0	0.108	0.090
2 - 3	0.490	0.000
2 - 1	0.009	0.943
2 - 0	0.598	0.000
1 - 3	0.481	0.000
1 - 2	-0.009	0.943
1 - 0	0.588	0.000
0 - 3	-0.108	0.090
0 - 2	-0.598	0.000
0 - 1	-0.588	0.000

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Appendix 7 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 3

Pairwise Contrasts		
THEME...	Contrast Estimate ▶	Adj. Sig.
3 - 2	0.445	0.000
3 - 1	-0.229	0.000
3 - 0	0.324	0.000
2 - 3	-0.445	0.000
2 - 1	-0.674	0.000
2 - 0	-0.121	0.024
1 - 3	0.229	0.000
1 - 2	0.674	0.000
1 - 0	0.552	0.000
0 - 3	-0.324	0.000
0 - 2	0.121	0.024
0 - 1	-0.552	0.000

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Appendix 8 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 4

Pairwise Contrasts		
THEME...	Contrast Estimate ▶	Adj. Sig.
3 - 2	0.089	0.004
3 - 1	-0.581	0.000
3 - 0	-0.043	0.361
2 - 3	-0.089	0.004
2 - 1	-0.671	0.000
2 - 0	-0.132	0.006
1 - 3	0.581	0.000
1 - 2	0.671	0.000
1 - 0	0.539	0.000
0 - 3	0.043	0.361
0 - 2	0.132	0.006
0 - 1	-0.539	0.000

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Appendix 9 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 5

Pairwise Contrasts		
THEME...	Contrast Estimate ►	Adj. Sig.
3 - 2	-0.598	0.000
3 - 1	-0.315	0.007
3 - 0	0.250	0.000
2 - 3	0.598	0.000
2 - 1	0.283	0.014
2 - 0	0.849	0.000
1 - 3	0.315	0.007
1 - 2	-0.283	0.014
1 - 0	0.565	0.000
0 - 3	-0.250	0.000
0 - 2	-0.849	0.000
0 - 1	-0.565	0.000

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

Appendix 10 - Pairwise Comparisons, Hypotheses 3, Binomial Regression Analysis 6

Pairwise Contrasts		
THEME...	Contrast Estimate ▶	Adj. Sig.
3 - 2	-0.398	0.000
3 - 1	-0.470	0.000
3 - 0	-0.009	0.876
2 - 3	0.398	0.000
2 - 1	-0.072	0.489
2 - 0	0.389	0.000
1 - 3	0.470	0.000
1 - 2	0.072	0.489
1 - 0	0.461	0.000
0 - 3	0.009	0.876
0 - 2	-0.389	0.000
0 - 1	-0.461	0.000

Significant contrasts are shaded gold. The least significant difference adjusted significance level is .05.

REFERENCES

- Akehurst, G. (2009). User-generated content: the use of blogs for tourism organizations and tourism consumers. *Service Business*, 3(1), 51.
- Albu, C. E. (2016). Tourism and Terrorism: A Worldwide Perspective. *CES Working Papers*, (1), 1-19.
- Alhemoud, A. M., & Armstrong, E. G. (1996). Image of tourism attractions in Kuwait. *Journal of Travel Research*, 34(4), 76-80.
- Amersdorffer, D., Bauhuber, F., & Oellrich, J. (2012). The economic and cultural aspects of the social web: Implications for the tourism industry. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 18(3), 175-184.
- Andsager, J. L., & Drzewiecka, J. A. (2002). Desirability of differences in destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 401-421.
- Anholt, S. (2004). Nation-brands and the value of provenance. *Destination branding*, 26-39.
- Arsal, I., Woosnam, K. M., Baldwin, E. D., & Backman, S. J. (2010). Residents as travel destination information providers: An online community perspective. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(4), 400-413.
- Attride-Stirling, J. (2001). Thematic networks: an analytic tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative research*, 1(3), 385-405.
- Atwater, T., Salwen, M. B., & Anderson, R. B. (1985). Interpersonal discussion as a potential barrier to agenda-setting. *Newspaper Research Journal*, 6(4), 37-43.
- Atwood, L. E., Sohn, A. B., & Sohn, H. (1978). Daily newspaper contributions to community discussion. *Journalism Quarterly*, 55(3), 570-576.
- Bachus, D. (1981). Dissertations on Travel, Recreation, and Leisure. *Journal of Travel Research*, 20(1), 9-21.
- Baiocchi-Wagner, E. A. (2012). Framing the Aging Experience in Care Facility Brochures: A Mixed-Method Analysis. *Southern Communication Journal*, 77(4), 349-368.
- Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999a). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 868-897.

- Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999b). US international pleasure travelers' images of four Mediterranean destinations: A comparison of visitors and nonvisitors. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(2), 144-152.
- Banyai, M. (2010). Dracula's image in tourism: Western bloggers versus tour guides. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 3(1), 5.
- Beerli, A., & Martin, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals Of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 657-681.
- Beirman, D. (2003). Restoring tourism destinations in crisis: A strategic marketing approach. *CAUTHE 2003: Riding the Wave of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 1146.
- Bennett, W. L., & Manheim, J. B. (1993). Taking the public by storm: Information, cuing, and the democratic process in the Gulf conflict. *Political Communication*, 10(4), 331-351.
- Benoit, W. L. (2007). Own party issue ownership emphasis in presidential television spots. *Communication Reports*, 20(1), 42-50.
- Berg, B. L. (2001). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*.
- Beydoun, K. A. (2015). Beyond the Paris Attacks: Unveiling the War Within French Counterterror Policy. *Am. UL Rev.*, 65, 1273.
- Bikson, T. K., & Panis, C. W. (1999). *Citizens, computers, and connectivity: A review of trends* (Vol. 1109). MBI Publishing Company.
- Billings, A. C. (2007). From diving boards to pole vaults: Gendered athlete portrayals in the "big four" sports at the 2004 Athens Summer Olympics. *Southern Communication Journal*, 72(4), 329-344.
- Blackshaw, P., & Nazzaro, M. (2006). Word-of-mouth in the age of the web-fortified consumer. *Consumer-Generated Media (CGM) 101*.
- Block, E. (2013). A culturalist approach to the concept of the mediatization of politics: The age of "media hegemony". *Communication Theory*, 23(3), 259-278.
- Bock, M. A. (2015). Framing the Accused: The Perp Walk as Media Ritual. *Visual Communication Quarterly*, 22(4), 206-220.
- Bokunewicz, J. F., Bokunewicz, J. F., Shulman, J., & Shulman, J. (2017). Influencer identification in Twitter networks of destination marketing organizations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 8(2), 205-219.

- Bradshaw, S. C., Coe, K., & Neumann, R. (2014). Newspaper attention to major presidential addresses: A reexamination of conceptualizations, predictors, and effects. *Communication Reports*, 27(1), 53-64.
- Bramwell, B., & Rawding, L. (1996). Tourism marketing images of industrial cities. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(1), 201-221.
- Brown, J., Broderick, A. J., & Lee, N. (2007). Word of mouth communication within online communities: Conceptualizing the online social network, *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 21(3), 2-20.
- Buhalis, D. (1998). Strategic use of information technologies in the tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, 19(5), 409-421.
- Buhalis, D., & Law, R. (2008). Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet—The state of eTourism research. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 609-623.
- Bureau, P. C. (2017, July 31). Tourism in Paris - Key Figures 2015 - Paris tourist office. Retrieved February 2, 2018, from <https://press.parisinfo.com/key-figures/key-figures/tourism-in-paris-key-figures-2015>
- Butler, R. W. (1999). Sustainable tourism: A state-of-the-art review. *Tourism Geographies*, 1(1), 7-25.
- Butowski, B. (2011). Tourism-an academic discipline (discursive article). *Tourism*, 21(1-2), 17-24.
- Cai, L. A. (2002). Cooperative branding for rural destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(3), 720-742.
- Calantone, R. J., Di Benedetto, C. A., Hakam, A., & Bojanic, D. C. (1989). Multiple multinational tourism positioning using correspondence analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(2), 25-32.
- Campbell, B. M. (1969). *The existence and determinants of evoked set in brand choice behavior*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia University.
- Carlsen, J. (2009). Disaster Response and Tourism Recovery Strategies in the Maldives. *Crisis Management in the Tourism Industry: Beating the Odds*, Farnham. Ashgate 131-150.
- Carlsen, J. C., & Liburd, J. J. (2008). Developing a research agenda for tourism crisis management, market recovery and communications. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 23(2-4), 265-276.

- Carter, R. F., Stamm, K. R., & Heintz-Knowles, K. (1992). Agenda-setting and consequentiality. *Journalism Quarterly*, 69(4), 868-877.
- Cassidy, W. P. (2006). Gatekeeping similar for online, print journalists. *Newspaper Research Journal*, 27(2), 6-23.
- Cha, M., Haddadi, H., Benevenuto, F., & Gummadi, P. K. (2010). Measuring user influence in twitter: The million follower fallacy. *Icwsn*, 10(10-17), 30.
- Cha, S., McCleary, K. W., & Uysal, M. (1995). Travel motivations of Japanese overseas travelers: A factor-cluster segmentation approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 34(1), 33-39.
- Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2007). Destination image representation on the web: Content analysis of Macau travel related websites. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 118-129.
- Chon, K. S. (1990). The role of destination image in tourism: A review and discussion. *The Tourist Review*, 45(2), 2-9.
- Cohen, B. C. (1963). *The press and foreign policy*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Conway, B. A., Kenski, K., & Wang, D. (2015). The Rise of Twitter in the Political Campaign: Searching for Intermedia Agenda-Setting Effects in the Presidential Primary. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 20(4), 363-380.
- Cook, W. J. (1990). *The effect of terrorism on executives' willingness to travel internationally*.
- Court, B., & Lupton, R. A. (1997). Customer portfolio development: Modeling destination adopters, inactives, and rejecters. *Journal of Travel Research*, 36(1), 35-43.
- Creamer, M. (2011). Your followers are no measure of your influence. *Advertising Age*, 82(1), 1-22.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., Gutmann, M. L., & Hanson, W. E. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. *Handbook Of Mixed Methods In Social And Behavioral Research*, 209-240.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon that image. *Journal Of Travel Research*, 17(4), 18-23.

- Dann, G. M. (1996). Tourists' images of a destination-an alternative analysis. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 5(1-2), 41-55.
- Davis, M. Justin, & French Nathaniel, T. (2008). Blaming victims and survivors: An analysis of post-Katrina print news coverage. *Southern Communication Journal*, 73(3), 243-257.
- Day, J., Skidmore, S., & Koller, T. (2002). Image selection in destination positioning: A new approach. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 8(2), 177-186.
- Dearing, J. W., & Rogers, E. (1996). *Agenda-setting (Vol. 6)*. Sage publications.
- December, J. (1996). Units of analysis for Internet communication. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 1(4), JCMC143.
- Di Cesare, F., D'Angelo, L., & Rech, G. (2009). Films and tourism: understanding the nature and intensity of their cause-effect relationship. *Tourism Review International*, 13(2), 103-111.
- Di Marino, E. (2008). *The strategic dimension of destination image: the French Riviera image from the italian tourists' perceptions* (Doctoral dissertation, Università degli Studi di Napoli Federico II).
- Dichter, E. (1985). What's in an image. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 2(1), 75-81.
- Donohew, L. (1967). Newspaper gatekeepers and forces in the news channel. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 31(1), 61-68.
- Duffy, A. (2015). Friends and fellow travelers: comparative influence of review sites and friends on hotel choice. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 6(2), 127-144.
- Dwivedi, M. (2009). Online destination image of India: A consumer based perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 21(2), 226-232.
- Dwivedi, M., Yadav, A., & Raghavjibhai Patel, V. (2009). The online destination image of Goa. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 1(1), 25-39.
- Echtner, C. M. (2002). The content of Third World tourism marketing: a 4A approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(6), 413-434.
- Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. B. (1991). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2(2), 2-12.
- Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. B. (1993). The measurement of destination image: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(4), 3-13.

- Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. R. (2003). The meaning and measurement of destination image: [Reprint of original article published in v. 2, no. 2, 1991: 2-12.]. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 14(1), 37.
- Ekinci, Y., Sirakaya-Turk, E., & Preciado, S. (2013). Symbolic consumption of tourism destination brands. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(6), 711-718.
- Embacher, J., & Buttle, F. (1989). A repertory grid analysis of Austria's image as a summer vacation destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(3), 3-7.
- Ess, C. (2010). the AoIR ethics working committee: Ethical decision-making and Internet research: Recommendations from the aoir ethics working committee (2002). Retrieved on December, 1.
- Estrada, M. A. R., & Koutronas, E. (2016). Terrorist attack assessment: Paris November 2015 and Brussels March 2016. *Journal of Policy Modeling*, 38(3), 553-571.
- Eyal, C. H. (1979). *Time Frame in Agenda-setting Research: A Study of the Conceptual and Methodological Factors Affecting the Time Frame Context of the Agenda-setting Process*; Abstract of Dissertation (Doctoral dissertation).
- Fahmy, S., Kelly, J. D., & Kim, Y. S. (2007). What Katrina revealed: A visual analysis of the hurricane coverage by news wires and US newspapers. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 84(3), 546-561.
- Fakeye, P. C., & Crompton, J. L. (1991). Image differences between prospective, first-time, and repeat visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 10-16.
- Fall, L. T., & Massey, J. E. (2006). The significance of crisis communication in the aftermath of 9/11: A national investigation of how tourism managers have re-tooled their promotional campaigns. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 19(2-3), 77-90.
- Faulkner, B. (2001). Towards a framework for tourism disaster management. *Tourism Management*, 22(2), 135-147.
- Floyd, M. F., Gibson, H., Pennington-Gray, L., & Thapa, B. (2004). The effect of risk perceptions on intentions to travel in the aftermath of September 11, 2001. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 15(2-3), 19-38.
- Floyd, M. G., & Pennington-Gray, H. L and Thapa, B. (2003), The Effects of Risk Perception on Intention to Travel in the Aftermath of September 11, 2001. *Safety and Security in Tourism: relationships, Management and Marketing*, 15(2).

- Fortna, V. P. (2015). Do Terrorists Win? Rebels' Use of Terrorism and Civil War Outcomes. *International Organization*, 69(3), 519-556.
- Fotis, J., Buhalis, D., & Rossides, N. (2011). Social Media impact on holiday travel planning: The case of the Russian and the FSU markets. *International Journal of Online Marketing*, 1(4), 1-19.
- Fuchs, G., & Reichel, A. (2011). An exploratory inquiry into destination risk perceptions and risk reduction strategies of first time vs. repeat visitors to a highly volatile destination. *Tourism Management*, 32(2), 266-276.
- Funkhouser, G. R. (1973). The issues of the sixties: An exploratory study in the dynamics of public opinion. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 37(1), 62-75.
- Gallarza, M. G., Saura, I. G., & García, H. C. (2002). Destination image: Towards a conceptual framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 56-78.
- Garrett, R. K. (2009). Politically motivated reinforcement seeking: Reframing the selective exposure debate. *Journal of Communication*, 59(4), 676-699.
- Gartner, W. C. (1986). Temporal influences on image change. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13(4), 635-644.
- Gartner, W. C. (1989). Tourism image: Attribute measurement of state tourism products using multidimensional scaling techniques. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(2), 16-20.
- Gartner, W. C. (1994). Image formation process. *Journal Of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 2(2-3), 191-216.
- Gartner, W. C., & Ruzzier, M. K. (2011). Tourism destination brand equity dimensions: Renewal versus repeat market. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(5), 471-481.
- Gašpar, D., & Mabić, M. (2017). *Strengths and Limitations of Social Media Analytics Tools. In Applying Predictive Analytics Within the Service Sector* (pp. 198-219). IGI Global.
- Gerhards, J., & Schäfer, M. S. (2010). Is the internet a better public sphere? Comparing old and new media in the US and Germany. *New Media & Society*.
- Ghazali, R. M., & Cai, L. (2014). Social Media sites in destination image formation. In *Tourism Social Media: transformations in identity, community and culture* (pp. 73-86). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

- Giglietto, F., Rossi, L., & Bennato, D. (2012). The open laboratory: Limits and possibilities of using Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube as a research data source. *Journal of Technology in Human Services*, 30(3-4), 145-159.
- Gómez, M., Lopez, C., & Molina, A. (2015). A model of tourism destination brand equity: The case of wine tourism destinations in Spain. *Tourism Management*, 51, 210-222.
- González-Bailón, S. (2013). Social science in the era of big data. *Policy & Internet*, 5(2), 147-160.
- Goode, L. (2009). Social news, citizen journalism and democracy. *New Media & Society*, 11(8), 1287-1305.
- Gormley Jr, W. T. (1975). Newspaper agendas and political elites. *Journalism Quarterly*, 52(2), 304-308.
- Govers, R., & Go, F. M. (2003). Deconstructing destination image in the information age. *Information Technology & Tourism*, 6(1), 13-29.
- Govers, R., Go, F. M., & Kumar, K. (2007). Promoting tourism destination image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(1), 15-23.
- Govers, R., Go, F. M., & Kumar, K. (2007). Virtual destination image a new measurement approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(4), 977-997.
- Graber, D. A. (1980). *Crime news and the public*. (pp. 24-26). New-York: Praeger.
- Gray, B. L. (2017). What Qualifies As Crisis Coverage & Why Does It Matter?: Establishing Characteristics of Crisis Reporting Using 2015 Terror Attacks in Paris.
- Greene, J. C., & Caracelli, V. J. (1997). Defining and describing the paradigm issue in mixed-method evaluation. *New Directions For Evaluation*, 1997(74), 5-17.
- Gretzel, U. (2006). Consumer generated content—trends and implications for branding. *E-review of Tourism Research*, 4(3), 9-11.
- Gretzel, U., Yuan, Y. L., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2000). Preparing for the new economy: Advertising strategies and change in destination marketing organizations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(2), 146-156.
- Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M., & Namey, E. E. (2011). *Applied thematic analysis*. Sage.
- Gunn, C. (1972). Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions. *Bureau of Business Research. University of Texas, Austin*.

- Haarsager, S. (1991). Choosing silence: A case of reverse agenda setting in depression era news coverage. *Journal of Mass Media Ethics*, 6(1), 35-46.
- Hacker, K. L., Scott, M., Howl, L., & Steiner, R. (1996). Uses of computer-mediated political communication in the 1992 presidential campaign: A content analysis of the Bush, Clinton and Perot computer lists. *Communication Research Reports*, 13(2), 138-146.
- Hall, C. M., Timothy, D. J., & Duval, D. T. (2003). *Safety and Security in Tourism: Relationships, Management, and Marketing*, Haworth Hospitality Press.
- Haller, A. (2017). Growth Through Tourism in Developed European Countries. Case Study: France, Italy and Spain. *Ecoforum Journal*, 6(1).
- Hauser, J. R. (1986). Agendas and consumer choice. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 199-212.
- Heeter, C., Brown, N., Soffin, S., Stanley, C., & Salwen, M. (1989). Agenda-setting by electronic text news. *Journalism Quarterly*, 66(1), 101-106.
- Henderson, J. C. (2007). Corporate social responsibility and tourism: Hotel companies in Phuket, Thailand, after the Indian Ocean tsunami. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26(1), 228-239.
- Hiori, O., Mikami, S., & Miyata, K. (1985). A study of mass media reporting in emergencies. *International Journal of Mass Emergencies and Disasters*, 3(1), 21-49.
- Hosany, S., Ekinci, Y., & Uysal, M. (2006). Destination image and destination personality: An application of branding theories to tourism places. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(5), 638-642.
- Huang, J. Z., Li, M., & Cai, L. A. (2010). A model of community-based festival image. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(2), 254-260.
- Hunt, J. D. (1975). Image as a factor in tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 13(3), 1-7.
- Hunter, W. C. (2013). China's Chairman Mao: A visual analysis of Hunan Province online destination image. *Tourism Management*, 34, 101-111.
- Hunter, W. C. (2016). The social construction of tourism online destination image: A comparative semiotic analysis of the visual representation of Seoul. *Tourism Management*, 54, 221-229.

- Inversini, A., Marchiori, E., Dedekind, C., & Cantoni, L. (2010). Applying a conceptual framework to analyze online reputation of tourism destinations. *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2010*, 321-332.
- Iyengar, S., & Kinder, D. (1987). *News that matters: Television and public opinion*. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Jackson, M. H. (1996). The meaning of "communication technology": The technology-context scheme. *Annals of the International Communication Association*, 19(1), 229-267.
- Jalilvand, M. R., & Samiei, N. (2012). The impact of electronic word of mouth on a tourism destination choice: Testing the theory of planned behavior (TPB). *Internet Research: Electronic Networking Applications and Policy*, 22(5), 591-612.
- Jeffres, L. W., Jian, G., Lee, J. W., Connally, C. E., & El Seikali, J. (2011). Viewing the Public Sphere With Influentials and Citizens. *Qualitative Research Reports in Communication*, 12(1), 60-70.
- Jenkins, O. H. (1999). Understanding and measuring tourist destination images. *The International Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(1), 1.
- Jick, T. D. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(4), 602-611.
- Kaid, L. L., Hale, K., & Williams, J. A. (1977). Media agenda setting of a specific political event. *Journalism Quarterly*, 54(3), 584-587.
- Katz, E. (1987). Communications research since Lazarsfeld. *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, 51, S25-S45.
- Kelly, I. (1997). Study tours: a model for 'benign' tourism?. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 8(1), 42.
- Kim, H., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2008). Persuasive design of destination web sites: An analysis of first impression. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(1), 3-13.
- Kimsey, W. D., & Hantz, A. M. (1978). Decisional agenda of decided and undecided voters. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 6(2), 65-72.
- Kiouis, S., Park, J. M., Kim, J. Y., & Go, E. (2013). Exploring the role of agenda-building efforts in media coverage and policymaking activity of healthcare reform. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 1077699013503157.
- Kislali, H., Kavaratzis, M., & Saren, M. (2016). Rethinking destination image formation. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(1), 70-80.

- Klenosky, D. B. (2002). The “pull” of tourism destinations: A means-end investigation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(4), 396-403.
- Konecnik, M., & Gartner, W. C. (2007). Customer-based brand equity for a destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(2), 400-421.
- Korstanje, M. E. (2011). Why risk why now? Conceptual problems around the risk perception in tourism industry. *Revista Brasileira de Pesquisa em turismo*, 5(1).
- Korstanje, M. E., & Tarlow, P. (2012). Being lost: tourism, risk and vulnerability in the post-‘9/11’ entertainment industry. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 10(1), 22-33.
- Kotler, P. (1994). *Analysis, planning, implementation and control*. Prentice Hall International.
- Ku, G., Kaid, L. L., & Pfau, M. (2003). The impact of web site campaigning on traditional news media and public information processing. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 80(3), 528-547.
- Langton, L. M. (1991). Photo coverage of the Third World in four prestige US newspapers. *Newspaper Research Journal*, 12(4), 98-107.
- Law, R., & Cheung, S. (2010). The perceived destination image of Hong Kong as revealed in the travel blogs of mainland Chinese tourists. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 11(4), 303-327.
- Lawson, F. & Baud-Buvy, M. (1997). Tourism and recreation development, a handbook of physical planning. *Tourism and recreation development, a handbook of physical planning*.
- Lee, B., Lancendorfer, K. M., & Lee, K. J. (2005). Agenda-setting and the Internet: The intermedia influence of Internet bulletin boards on newspaper coverage of the 2000 general election in South Korea. *Asian Journal of Communication*, 15(1), 57-71.
- Lepp, A., & Gibson, H. (2003). Tourist roles, perceived risk and international tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 606-624.
- Leung, D., Law, R., & Lee, H. A. (2011). The perceived destination image of Hong Kong on Ctrip.com. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(2), 124-140.
- Leung, D., Law, R., Van Hoof, H., & Buhalis, D. (2013). Social Media in tourism and hospitality: A literature review. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(1-2), 3-22.

- Lewis, R. C., & Chambers, R. E. (1999). *Marketing leadership in hospitality: foundations and practices* (No. Ed. 3). John Wiley and Sons.
- Lin, C. H., Morais, D. B., Kerstetter, D. L., & Hou, J. S. (2007). Examining the role of cognitive and affective image in predicting choice across natural, developed, and theme-park destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(2), 183-194.
- Lindmark, P. G. (2011). A Content Analysis of Advertising in Popular Video Games.
- Literat, I., & Chen, N. T. N. (2014). Communication infrastructure theory and entertainment-education: An integrative model for health communication. *Communication Theory*, 24(1), 83-103.
- Lo, I. S., McKercher, B., Lo, A., Cheung, C., & Law, R. (2011). Tourism and online photography. *Tourism Management*, 32(4), 725-731.
- Lopez-Escobar, E., Llamas, J. P., & McCombs, M. (1998). Agenda setting and community consensus: First and second level effects. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 10(4), 335-348.
- Lopez-Escobar, E., Llamas, J. P., McCombs, M., & Lennon, F. R. (1998). Two levels of agenda setting among advertising and news in the 1995 Spanish elections. *Political Communication*, 15(2), 225-238.
- Lu, W., & Stepchenkova, S. (2015). User-generated content as a research mode in tourism and hospitality applications: Topics, methods, and software. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 24(2), 119-154.
- Lumsdon, L. (1997). *Tourism marketing*. International Thomson Business Press.
- Mack, R. W., Blose, J. E., & Pan, B. (2008). Believe it or not: Credibility of blogs in tourism. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 14(2), 133-144.
- MacKay, K. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1997). Pictorial element of destination in image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(3), 537-565.
- Mak, A. H. (2017). Online destination image: Comparing national tourism organisation's and tourists' perspectives. *Tourism Management*, 60, 280-297.
- Manheim, J. B., & Albritton, R. B. (1983). Changing national images: International public relations and media agenda setting. *American Political Science Review*, 78(3), 641-657.
- Markham, A., & Buchanan, E. (2012). Ethical decision-making and Internet research: Version 2.0. Recommendations from the AoIR Ethics Working Committee. Available online: aoir.org/reports/ethics2.pdf.

- Mayo, E. (1975). Tourism and the national parks: A psychographic and attitudinal study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 14(1), 14-21.
- Mayo, E. J. (1973, August). Regional images and regional travel behavior. In *The Travel Research Association Fourth Annual Conference Proceedings* (pp. 211-218).
- McCombs, M. (2005). A look at agenda-setting: Past, present and future. *Journalism Studies*, 6(4), 543-557.
- McCombs, M. (2014). *Setting the agenda: Mass media and public opinion*. John Wiley & Sons.
- McCombs, M. E. (1992). Explorers and surveyors: Expanding strategies for agenda-setting research., *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 69(4), 813-824.
- McCombs, M. E., & Shaw, D. L. (1972). The agenda-setting function of mass media. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 36(2), 176-187.
- McCombs, M. E., & Shaw, D. L. (1976). Structuring the “unseen environment”. *Journal of Communication*, 26(2), 18-22.
- McCombs, M., & Stroud, N. J. (2014). Psychology of agenda-setting effects: Mapping the paths of information processing. *Review of Communication Research*, 2, 68-93.
- McCombs, M., & Zhu, J. H. (1995). Capacity, diversity, and volatility of the public agenda trends from 1954 to 1994. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 59(4), 495-525.
- McKeever, B. W., Riffe, D., & Carpentier, F. D. (2012). Perceived hostile media bias, presumed media influence, and opinions about immigrants and immigration. *Southern Communication Journal*, 77(5), 420-437.
- McKenna, R. (1991). Marketing is everything. *Harvard business review*, 69(1), 65.
- McLeod, J. M., Becker, L. B., & Byrnes, J. E. (1974). Another look at the agenda-setting function of the press. *Communication Research*, 1(2), 131-166.
- Megwa, E. R., & Brenner, D. J. (1988). Toward a paradigm of media agenda-setting effect: Agenda-setting as a process. *Howard Journal of Communications*, 1(1), 39-56.
- Meraz, S. (2009). Is there an elite hold? Traditional media to Social Media agenda setting influence in blog networks. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 14(3), 682-707.
- Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1995). The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination: The central Florida case. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33(3), 21-27.

- Moutinho, L. (1987). Consumer behaviour in tourism. *European Journal Of Marketing*, 21(10), 5-44.
- Munar, A. M. (2012). Social Media strategies and destination management. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 12(2), 101-120.
- Nadeau, J., Heslop, L., O'Reilly, N., & Luk, P. (2008). Destination in a country image context. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(1), 84-106.
- Napoli, P. M. (2014). Automated media: An institutional theory perspective on algorithmic media production and consumption. *Communication Theory*, 24(3), 340-360.
- Neuhofer, B., Buhalis, D., & Ladkin, A. (2014). A typology of technology-enhanced tourism experiences. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(4), 340-350.
- Nghiêm-Phú, B. (2014). A review of destination image studies from 2008 to 2012. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 8, 35.
- Obar, J. A., & Wildman, S. S. (2015). Social media definition and the governance challenge: An introduction to the special issue.
- Ogata Jones, K., Denham, B. E., & Springston, J. K. (2006). Effects of Mass and Interpersonal Communication on Breast Cancer Screening: Advancing Agenda-Setting theory in Health Contexts *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 34(1), 94-113.
- Oh, H., & Nguyen, C. (2010). Influence of retweets.
- Pan, B., MacLaurin, T., & Crotts, J. C. (2007). Travel blogs and the implications for destination marketing. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(1), 35-45.
- Parenteau, A. (1995). Destination image: towards a conceptual framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 56-78.
- Park Robert, E., Burgess Ernest, W., & McKenzie Roderick, D. (1925). *The City*. The University of Chicago Press, 1984, 239.
- Park, S. Y., Holody, K. J., & Zhang, X. (2012). Race in Media Coverage of School Shootings A Parallel Application of Framing theory and Attribute Agenda Setting. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 89(3), 475-494.
- Pearce, D. G. (1998). Tourism development in Paris: Public intervention. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(2), 457-476.
- Pearce, D. G. (2014). Toward an integrative conceptual framework of destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(2), 141-153.

- Pearce, P. L. (1977). Mental souvenirs: A study of tourists and their city maps. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 29(3), 203-210.
- Pearce, P. L. (1982). Perceived changes in holiday destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(2), 145-164.
- Peter, J., & De Vreese, C. H. (2003). Agenda-Rich, Agenda-Poor: A Cross-National Comparative Investigation of Nominal and Thematic Public Agenda Diversity. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 15(1), 44-64.
- Pezenka, I. (2016). Paired Comparisons or Sorting? Comparing Web-Based Methods for Collecting Similarity Data for Large Stimulus Sets for Destination Image Positioning. *Journal of Travel Research*, 0047287516646220.
- Phelps, A. (1986). Holiday destination image—the problem of assessment: An example developed in Menorca. *Tourism Management*, 7(3), 168-180.
- Pike, S. (2002). Destination image analysis—a review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000. *Tourism Management*, 23(5), 541-549.
- Pike, S. (2009). Destination brand positions of a competitive set of near-home destinations. *Tourism Management*, 30(6), 857-866.
- Pike, S. (Ed.). (2004). Destination Marketing Organizations. *Advances in Tourism Research Series*. Taylor & Francis.
- Pike, S., & Page, S. J. (2014). Destination Marketing Organizations and destination marketing: A narrative analysis of the literature. *Tourism Management*, 41, 202-227.
- Pike, S., & Ryan, C. (2004). Destination positioning analysis through a comparison of cognitive, affective, and conative perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(4), 333-342.
- Pilny, A. N., Atouba, Y. C., & Riles, J. M. (2014). How Do SMOs Create Moral Resources? The Roles of Media Visibility, Networks, Activism, and Political Capacity. *Western Journal of Communication*, 78(3), 358-377.
- Pritchard, A., & Morgan, N. J. (2001). Culture, identity and tourism representation: marketing Cymru or Wales?. *Tourism Management*, 22(2), 167-179.
- Qu, H., Kim, L. H., & Im, H. H. (2011). A model of destination branding: Integrating the concepts of the branding and destination image. *Tourism Management*, 32(3), 465-476.

- Reinemann, C., & Brosius, H.-B. (1998). Issue diversity on the public agenda in east and west Germany. *Publizistik*, 43, 273-286.
- Reynolds, W. H. (1965). The role of the consumer in image building. *California Management Review*, 7(3), 69-76.
- Riley, R. W., & Love, L. L. (2000). The state of qualitative tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(1), 164-187.
- Ringer, G. (Ed.). (2013). *Destinations: cultural landscapes of tourism*. Routledge.
- Ritchie, J., & Ritchie, R. (1998). Destination Marketing. *International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism Reports*, 40(1), 89-116.
- Robinson, N. W., & Bell, G. C. (2013). Effectiveness of Culture Jamming in Agenda Building: An Analysis of the Yes Men's Bhopal Disaster Prank. *Southern Communication Journal*, 78(4), 352-368.
- Roehl, W. S., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1992). Risk perceptions and pleasure travel: An exploratory analysis. *Journal of Travel research*, 30(4), 17-26.
- Rogers, E. M., & Sood, R. (1980). Mass media communication and disasters: A content analysis of media coverage of the Andhra Pradesh cyclone and the Sahel drought. *In Committee on Disasters and the Mass Media Workshop* (pp. 139-57). National Academy of Sciences.
- Rogers, E. M., Dearing, J. W., & Bregman, D. (1993). The anatomy of agenda-setting research. *Journal of Communication*, 43(2), 68-84.
- Rojecki, A., & Meraz, S. (2016). Rumors and factitious informational blends: The role of the web in speculative politics. *New Media & Society*, 18(1), 25-43.
- Rosenberg, L. J., & Czepiel, J. A. (1984). A marketing approach for customer retention. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 1(2), 45-51.
- Ross, G. F. (1993). Ideal and actual images of backpacker visitors to Northern Australia. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(2), 54-57.
- Roth, M. S., & Romeo, J. B. (1992). Matching product category and country image perceptions: A framework for managing country-of-origin effects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(3), 477-497.
- Russell Neuman, W., Guggenheim, L., Mo Jang, S., & Bae, S. Y. (2014). The Dynamics of Public Attention: Agenda-Setting theory Meets Big Data. *Journal of Communication*, 64(2), 193-214.

- Russell, J. A., & Pratt, G. (1980). A description of the affective quality attributed to environments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(2), 311.
- Ryan, C. (2005). Ethics in tourism research: Objectivities and personal perspectives. *Tourism research methods: Integrating theory with practice*, 9-19.
- Saarinen, J. (2004). 'Destinations in change' The transformation process of tourist destinations. *Tourist Studies*, 4(2), 161-179.
- Salwen, M. (1990). News Media and Public Opinion: Benign Agenda-Setters? Opinion Molders? Or Simply Irrelevant. *Florida Communication Journal*, 18(2), 16-23.
- Salwen, M. B. (1995). News of Hurricane Andrew: The agenda of sources and the sources' agendas. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 72(4), 826-840.
- Salwen, M. B., & Matera, F. R. (1992). Public salience of foreign nations. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 69(3), 623-632.
- Sameh, A. (2013). A Twitter analytic tool to measure opinion, influence and trust. *Journal of Industrial and Intelligent Information*, 1(1).
- San Martín, H., & Del Bosque, I. A. R. (2008). Exploring the cognitive–affective nature of destination image and the role of psychological factors in its formation. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 263-277.
- Schiffman, L. G., & Kanuk, L. L. (2000). Consumer behavior, 7th. NY:Prentice Hall, 15-36.
- Schmallegger, D., & Carson, D. (2008). Blogs in tourism: Changing approaches to information exchange. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 14(2), 99-110.
- Schmeling, D. G., & Wotring, C. E. (1976). Agenda-setting effects of drug abuse public service ads. *Journalism Quarterly*, 53(4), 743-746.
- Schoenbach, K., & Semetko, H. A. (1992). Agenda-Setting, Agenda-Reinforcing or Agenda-Deflating? A Study of the 1990 German National Election. *Journalism Quarterly*, 69(4), 837-846.
- Schroeder, R. (2014). Big Data and the brave new world of Social Media research. *Big Data & Society*, 1(2).
- Schroeder, T. (1996). The relationship of residents' image of their state as a tourist destination and their support for tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 34(4), 71-73.

- Schultz, F., Utz, S., & Göritz, A. (2011). Is the medium the message? Perceptions of and reactions to crisis communication via twitter, blogs and traditional media. *Public Relations Review*, 37(1), 20-27.
- Schwartz, Z. (1998). The confusing side of yield management: Myths, errors, and misconceptions. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 22(4), 413-430.
- Schweitzer, J. C., & Smith, B. L. (1991). Community Pressures and Agenda-Setting: How West Texas newspapers covered the nuclear waste-dump site selection process. *Newspaper Research Journal*, 12(3), 46.
- Shaw, D. L., & McCombs, M. E. (1977). *The emergence of American political issues: The agenda-setting function of the press*. West Group.
- Shaw, D. L., McCombs, M., Weaver, D. H., & Hamm, B. J. (1999). Individuals, Groups, and Agenda Melding: A theory of Social Dissonance. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 11(1).
- Shen, F. (2009). An economic theory of political communication effects: How the economy conditions political learning. *Communication Theory*, 19(4), 374-396.
- Siles, I., & Boczkowski, P. (2012). At the Intersection of Content and Materiality: A Text-Material Perspective on the Use of Media Technologies. *Communication Theory*, 22(3), 227-249.
- Singer, J. B. (2006). Stepping back from the gate: Online newspaper editors and the co-production of content in campaign 2004. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 83(2), 265-280.
- Singer, R. (2011). Framing of elite corruption and rhetorical containment of reform in the Boeing-Air Force tanker controversy. *Southern Communication Journal*, 76(2), 97-119.
- Singleton, P. A., & Singleton, P. A. (2016). The geopolitics of future tourism development in an expanding EU. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 2(2), 155-164.
- Sohn, A. B. (1978). A longitudinal analysis of local non-political agenda-setting effects. *Journalism Quarterly*, 55(2), 325-333.
- Solis, B. (2010). Defining Social Media: 2006–2010. URL: [http://www.briansolis.com/2010/01/defining-social-media-the-saga-continues/\(07.05.2014\)](http://www.briansolis.com/2010/01/defining-social-media-the-saga-continues/(07.05.2014)).
- Song, Y. (2007). Internet news media and issue development: A case study on the roles of independent online news services as agenda-builders for anti-US protests in South Korea. *New Media & Society*, 9(1), 71-92.

- Sönmez, S. F., & Graefe, A. R. (1998). Influence of terrorism risk on foreign tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 112-144.
- Sönmez, S., & Sirakaya, E. (2002). A distorted destination image? The case of Turkey. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(2), 185-196.
- Sotiriadis, M. D., & Van Zyl, C. (2013). Electronic word-of-mouth and online reviews in tourism services: the use of twitter by tourists. *Electronic Commerce Research*, 13(1), 103-124.
- Sotiriadis, M., & Van Zyl, C. (2015). Tourism services, micro-blogging and customer feedback: a tourism provider perspective. In *Maximizing commerce and marketing strategies through micro-blogging*, (pp.157-176). IGI Global.
- Spitzberg, B. H. (2014). Toward a model of meme diffusion (M3D). *Communication Theory*, 24(3), 311-339.
- Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism National Consortium (START). (2017). Global Terrorism Database [globalterrorismdb_0617dist.xlsx]. Retrieved from <https://www.start.umd.edu/gtd> University of Maryland
- Stepchenkova, S., & Mills, J. E. (2010). Destination image: A meta-analysis of 2000–2007 research. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 19(6), 575-609.
- Stepchenkova, S., & Morrison, A. M. (2006). The destination image of Russia: From the online induced perspective. *Tourism Management*, 27(5), 943-956.
- Stepchenkova, S., Kirilenko, A. P., & Morrison, A. M. (2006). Facilitating statistical analysis of digital textual data: a two-step approach. In *The 11th annual hospitality and tourism graduate student education and research conference proceedings* (Vol. 11, pp. 5-7).
- Stern, E., & Krakover, S. (1993). The formation of a composite urban image. *Geographical Analysis*, 25(2), 130-146.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. M. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Stringer, P. (1984). Studies in the socio-environmental psychology of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 11(1), 147-166.
- Stringer, P. F., & Pearce, P. L. (1984). Toward a symbiosis of social psychology and tourism studies. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 11(1), 5-17.
- Stromer-Galley, J., & Bryant, L. (2011). Agenda control in the 2008 CNN/YouTube debates. *Communication Quarterly*, 59(5), 529-546.

- Tai, Z. (2009). The structure of knowledge and dynamics of scholarly communication in agenda setting research, 1996–2005. *Journal of Communication*, 59(3), 481-513.
- Takeshita, T., & Mikami, S. (1995). How did mass media influence the voters' choice in the 1993 general election in Japan?: A study of agenda-setting. *Keio Communication Review*, 17, 27-41.
- Tapachai, N., & Waryszak, R. (2000). An examination of the role of beneficial image in tourist destination selection. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(1), 37-44.
- Tasci, A. D., & Gartner, W. C. (2007). Destination image and its functional relationships. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(4), 413-425.
- Tasci, A. D., Gartner, W. C., & Tamer Cavusgil, S. (2007). Conceptualization and operationalization of destination image. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 31(2), 194-223.
- Telisman-Kosuta, N. (1989). Tourist destination image. *Tourist Destination Image.*, 557-561.
- Tenenboim-Weinblatt, K. (2013). Bridging collective memories and public agendas: Toward a theory of mediated prospective memory. *Communication Theory*, 23(2), 91-111.
- Thomas, T. (2015). *Framing risk, responsibility, and resolution: A mixed-methods study exploring traditional and Social Media coverage of the 2014 Elk River Chemical Spill* (Doctoral dissertation, University Of South Carolina).
- Tipton, L., Haney, R. D., & Baseheart, J. R. (1975). Media agenda-setting in city and state election campaigns. *Journalism Quarterly*, 52(1), 15-22.
- Urry, J. (1992). The tourist gaze “revisited”. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 36(2), 172-186.
- Urry, J. (2001). Globalising the tourist gaze. *Tourism development revisited: Concepts, issues and paradigms*, 150-160.
- Uysal, M., & Jurowski, C. (1994). Testing the push and pull factors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(4), 844-846.
- Van den Berg, L., van der Borg, J., & van der Meer, J. (1995). *Urban tourism*. Aldershot, UK: Avebury.
- Vermeulen, I. E., & Seegers, D. (2009). Tried and tested: The impact of online hotel reviews on consumer consideration. *Tourism Management*, 30(1), 123-127.

- Vu, H. N. N., & Gehrau, V. (2010). Agenda diffusion: An integrated model of agenda setting and interpersonal communication. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 87(1), 100-116.
- Walmsley, D. J., & Jenkins, J. M. (1992). Tourism cognitive mapping of unfamiliar environments. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(2), 268-286.
- Walmsley, D. J., & Young, M. (1998). Evaluative images and tourism: The use of personal constructs to describe the structure of destination images. *Journal of Travel Research*, 36(3), 65-69.
- Walters, L. M., & Hornig, S. (1993). Profile: Faces in the news: Network television news coverage of Hurricane Hugo and the Loma Prieta earthquake. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 37(2), 219-232.
- Wang, G. (2014). Culture, Paradigm, and Communication theory: A Matter of Boundary or Commensurability?. *Communication Theory*, 24(4), 373-393.
- Wang, Y., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2007). Collaborative destination marketing: A case study of Elkhart county, Indiana. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 863-875.
- Wanta, W., & Hu, Y. W. (1994). The effects of credibility, reliance, and exposure on media agenda-setting: A path analysis model. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 71(1), 90-98.
- Wanta, W., & Wu, Y. C. (1992). Interpersonal communication and the agenda-setting process. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 69(4), 847-855.
- Watt Jr, J. H., & Van Den Berg, S. A. (1978). Time series analysis of alternative media effects theories. *Annals of the International Communication Association*, 2(1), 215-224.
- Watt Jr, J. H., & Van den Berg, S. A. (1981). How time dependency influences media effects in a community controversy. *Journalism Quarterly*, 58(1), 43-50.
- Weaver, D. H., Graber, D. A., McCombs, M. E., & Eyal, C. H. (1981). *Media Agenda-Setting in a Presidential Election. Issues, Images and Interest*. Praeger Publishers.
- Weaver, D., & Elliott, S. N. (1985). Who sets the agenda for the media? A study of local agenda-building. *Journalism Quarterly*, 62(1), 87-94.
- Wehrenfennig, D. (2008). Conflict Management and Communicative Action: Second-Track Diplomacy from a Habermasian Perspective. *Communication Theory*, 18(3), 356-375.

- Westley, B., H. (1978). The Emergence of American Political Issues: The Agenda Setting Function of the Press (Book). *Journalism Quarterly*, 55(1), 172-173.
- Williams Jr, W., & Larsen Jr, D. C. (1977). Agenda-setting in an off-election year. *Journalism Quarterly*, 54(4), 744-749.
- Winter, J. P., & Eyal, C. H. (1981). Agenda setting for the civil rights issue. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 45(3), 376–383.
- Woodside, A. G., & Lysonski, S. (1989). A general model of traveler destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(4), 8-14.
- World Tourism Organization (1979). *Tourist Image*. Madrid, Spain: World Tourism Organization.
- World Tourism Organization (2016). *Report of the Committee on Tourism and Competitiveness*. Madrid, Spain: World Tourism Organization.
- Xiang, Z., & Gretzel, U. (2009). Role of Social Media in online travel information search. *Tourism Management*, 31(2), 179-188.
- Yang, J., & Stone, G. (2003). The powerful role of interpersonal communication in agenda setting. *Mass Communication and Society*, 6(1), 57-74.
- Young, M. (1999). The relationship between tourist motivations and the interpretation of place meanings. *Tourism Geographies*, 1(4), 387-405.
- Yuan, S., & McDonald, C. (1990). Motivational determinates of international pleasure time. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29(1), 42-44.
- Zhu, J. H. (1992). Issue competition and attention distraction: A zero-sum theory of agenda-setting. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 69(4), 825-836.
- Zillman, C. (2015). Terrorism's effect on tourism doesn't last very long. *Fortune Magazine Travel Section*.
- Zuppo, C. M. (2012). Defining ICT in a boundaryless world: The development of a working hierarchy. *International Journal of Managing Information Technology*, 4(3), 13.