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The Antecedents of Consumer-Generated Media Adoption for Travel Planning: A Literature Review

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Abstract

Web 2.0 provides different platforms through which tourists can share text, photos and videos of their travel experiences. Consumer-generated media (CGM) are considered honest and are thus trusted more than marketer-generated content. Different factors account for why tourists adopt CGM. This study aims to review extant studies on CGM to identify the antecedents of CGM adoption for travel planning and the theories, models and frameworks used in these studies; it also seeks to analyze the strengths of these antecedents in predicting the adoption of CGM for travel planning. A total of 54 studies from 2005-2016 were found. The study found that distinct and heterogeneous theories and frameworks were used with 61 different antecedents to predict intentions. The technology acceptance model (TAM) was the most commonly used model. Trust predicted attitude more than the other antecedents. Implications and research directions are suggested.

Keywords: Web 2.0, consumer-generated media, travel planning, TAM

1. Introduction

Recently, there has been broad interest in social media as an important platform for disseminating information on products or services (Lu & Stepchenkova, 2015). Marketers use social media platforms to share information and attract traffic to their offerings. Equally, social media platforms have become powerful tools consumers use to spread word-of-mouth (WOM). In the tourism and hospitality services industries, consumer-generated media have become effective tools used by tourists to gather information to make travel decisions. Tsao et al. (2015) found that approximately 80% of travelers maintain that they read reviews about a hotel before embarking on a trip, and 53% say that they do not book a hotel that has no reviews. By sharing travel experiences through text, pictures and videos, free information for potential travelers regarding new markets, new topics and sensitive issues is enhanced (Tsao et al., 2015).

Some studies have attempted to review existing research on social media in the tourism industry (Leung et al., 2013; Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014; Lu & Stepchenkova, 2015). These reviews represent comprehensive attempts to understand the methods used in these studies. However, a review of CGM adoption in travel planning is still lacking. Therefore, this study has been conducted to fill this gap in the literature. It aims to understand the factors that influence the adoption of CGM in travel planning

based on a review of existing studies. Specifically, the study objectives include (1) identifying the antecedents of CGM adoption in travel planning; (2) identifying the theories, models and frameworks used in these studies; (3) and analyzing the strengths of the antecedents in predicting CGM adoption in travel planning. The present review, in line with Okoli & Schabram (2010), will serve as solid theoretical background for subsequent research by providing a synthesis of theories from the reviewed studies. Additionally, in line with Webster & Watson's (2002) concept-driven review methodology, we also include an examination of the path coefficients in this review. We believe that this will serve as a pool for subsequent research in the field. The remainder of the study is organized as follows: section 2 provides the background information; section 3 describes the research methods; section 4 presents the results; and section 5 provides the contributions, limitations and future research directions.

2. Background Information

Consumers express their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a product or service through word-of-mouth (WOM). The advent of social media (SM) has enhanced WOM. SM offers opportunities for people to socialize and form communities of interest by creating and sharing content (Chung & Koo, 2015). Consumer-generated media (CGM) enables other consumers to read, learn and share in the experiences of others. CGM is defined as "media impressions created by consumers, typically informed by relevant experience and archived or shared online for easy access by other impressionable consumers" (Gretzel et al., 2008, p. 100). In trip planning, consumers search for information from marketers and fellow consumers. Consumers rely more on CGM because they are judged to be sincere and honest and to convey the creator's real experience(s) (Wang, 2012). They are also perceived to be more influential because they reflect the performance of typical tourism products, thus making them more persuasive than marketer-generated content (Sparks & Browning, 2011).

CGM platforms vary in terms of their use and applications, thus prompting different classifications (Fotis et al., 2012; Lu & Stepchenkova, 2015). From the tourism and travel perspective, Fig. 1 depicts CGM platforms and examples of specific applications.
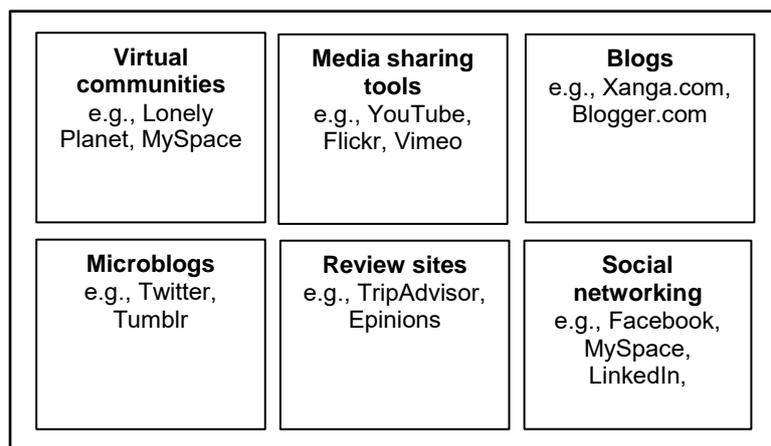
Virtual communities	Media sharing tools	Blogs
e.g., Lonely Planet, MySpace	e.g., YouTube, Flickr, Vimeo	e.g., Xanga.com, Blogger.com
Microblogs	Review sites	Social networking
e.g., Twitter, Tumblr	e.g., TripAdvisor, Epinions	e.g., Facebook, MySpace, LinkedIn,

Figure 1: Consumer-generated media platforms

Consumers use CGM for variety of reasons such as service quality and price evaluations (Liu & Lee, 2016) and identifying the best attractions, including food and destinations (Lee et al., 2012). Others search for social acceptance (Khan & Khan, 2015), enjoyment (Ayeh et al., 2013), communal feeling (Ku, 2011) and involvement (Sotiriadis & van Zyl, 2013). However, the authenticity of CGM has recently come under close scrutiny (Ayeh et al., 2013). Some consumers may post a review as in for betrayal (Sparks & Browning, 2011), and some of these are legally defamatory (Ayeh et

al., 2013). Despite the presence of such reviews, it is established in literature that many consumers post reviews as a result of altruism (Wang, 2015), and these have helped in pre-trip planning decisions. In this study, 'adoption' refers to the intention to use CGM, which is important because online third-party advice has proven to be a very reliable source of information for travelers (Tsao et al., 2015). Additionally, consumers' preferences for independent discussion boards, such as TripAdvisor and Lonely Planet, have allowed these sites to remain popular among travelers.

3. Research Methods

3.1 Literature Search and Selection

Following the review approach of Shaikh and Karjaluoto (2015), we drew up a plan based on the recommendations of previous reviews. First, we identified the keywords that would form the basis of the literature search and extraction. Second, we established the literature inclusion criteria. Based on these keywords and inclusion criteria, we used the following search terms, among others; "social media adoption in tourism", "e-WOM in tourism and travel", "Web 2.0 adoption in tourism and travel", "consumer-generated media in tourism and travel", "social networking in tourism and travel", "blogs in tourism and travel", "online communities in tourism and travel", and "virtual communities in tourism and travel". We conducted our search on Google Scholar and other databases, such as Science Direct, SAGE, Wiley, Springer, Emerald, JSTOR, IEEE, Taylor & Francis and Inderscience. To find more studies, the search was expanded to conference proceedings and working papers. To avoid duplication, all the studies were saved in one folder with the title of the study as the file name; a file that appeared more than once was easily detected and deleted. The inclusion criteria required that the study be consumer-based and empirical, include measures for independent and dependent variables, have a defined sample size and provide detailed results of the data analysis. The exclusion criteria disregarded conceptual or theoretical and firm-based studies. As suggested by Tranfield et al. (2003), inclusion is subjective and based on the researcher's interests and objectives. A total number of 54 studies - 51 articles from 28 journals, one conference paper and two PhD dissertations published from 2005 to 2016 - were used.

4. Results

4.1 Theories, Frameworks and Models

The 54 reviewed studies, presented in Table 1, reveal the use of 22 distinct and heterogeneous theories, frameworks and models. The table also presents the antecedents and path coefficients of their relationships. The technology acceptance model (TAM) was used in 14 (26%) of the studies. The identified weaknesses of the TAM model in predicting technology adoption at the individual level (Chau & Hu, 2001) required some studies to combine the theory with other models (e.g. Casaló et al., 2011) and to extend the theory by adding other constructs (Ayeh et al., 2013). The theory of planned behavior (TPB) was used in five (9%) studies; the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) in three (5%) studies; and the theory of reasoned action (TRA) in three (5%) studies. Only one (1.8%) study used the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT). Because CGM draws fundamentally from the traditional e-WOM literature, most of the studies borrowed constructs from other models and used e-WOM as a framework (e.g. Wang, 2012; Zhao et. al., 2015).

CGM is derived from e-WOM (Ye et al., 2011), which has its roots in the traditional WOM literature (King et al., 2014). The fundamental assumption of WOM is that WOM episodes involve two parties – the sender and the receiver. Our framework (Figure 2) is based on the classification of the reviewed literature. The classifications are based on the assumption that intrinsic and extrinsic factors have an impact on tourists' adoption

of CGM for travel planning. While the intrinsic factors capture the characteristics of the tourist, the extrinsic factors depict the external influences on CGM adoption. Additionally, CGM adoption is moderated by factors such as content novelty, valence (positively or negatively framed), argument quality, and information quantity.
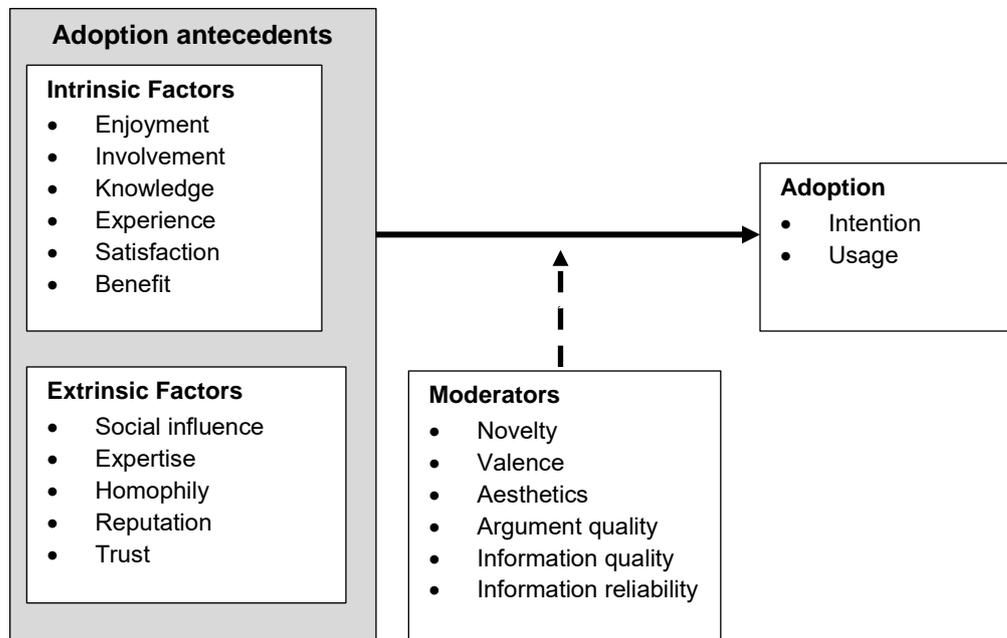

Figure 2: Proposed conceptual framework

Similarly, 20% (11 out of 54) of the studies were published in tourism-based journals, while 33% (18 out of 54) appeared in non-tourism-based journals. Of the 54 studies, 35 (64.8%) were conducted between 2013 and 2015. No study was published in 2008 or 2009. The geographic distribution of the studies was as follows: one (1.8%) study in Africa, 28 (51.8%) in Asia, two (3.7%) in Australia/Oceania, 13 (24%) in Europe and 11 (20%) in North America. Most studies were conducted in the following countries: Taiwan with 11 (20%), the United States with 10 (18%), China with six (11%) and Spain with six (11%). In terms of data collection, as stated earlier, all of the studies were quantitative; however, two (3.7%) studies utilized an experimental approach and one (1.8%) used panel data. Over half (63.6%) used online (web-based, email) survey methods to obtain responses, while 17 (31.5%) used field-based surveys. One study combined online and field-based methods of data collection (Zhao et al., 2015). Table 1 contains the 54 reviewed studies, the antecedents and path coefficients of their relationships, and the theories, models and frameworks used.

No	Author(s)	Path coefficients (β)	Theory
1	Filieri & McLeay (2014)	NA	ELM
2	Parra-López et al. (2011)	COS→INT (.01); BEN→INT (.44); INC→INT (.36)	INT
3	Book et al. (2015)	NA	CDT
4	Casaló et al. (2010)	PU→ATT (.218); PU→INT (.301); PU→TRU (.547); TRU→ATT (.600); TRU→INT (.306)	TPB, TAM, SIT
5	Ayeh et al. (2013)	HM→TRU (.455); HM→EX (.473); TRU→ATT (.422); TRU→INT (.126); EX→ATT (.218);	SC

		EX→INT (.037) ATT→INT (.649)	
6	Wang (2011)	EA→INT (.168); GE→INT (.223); PI→INT (.16); DK→INT (.097); PG→INT (.15); SI→INT (.139); CI→INT (.200)	e-WOM
7	Wang (2012)	GE→DI (.158); EA→DI (.148); DK→DI (.026); PG→DI (.275); SI→DI (.195); CI→DI (.199); DI→INT (.248)	e-WOM
8	Sparks et al. (2013)	ATT→INT (.73); TRU→INT (.61)	ATT
9	Hosany & Prayag (2013)	NA	CNTT
10	Ayeh et al. (2013)	PEOU→EN (.79); PEOU→INT (.131); PEOU→ATT (.177); PU→INT (.117); PU→ATT (.186); TRU→ATT (.334); TRU→INT (-.046); EN→INT (.256); EN→ATT (.256); ATT→INT (.292)	TAM
11	Ku (2011)	NA	TAM
12	Chen et al. (2014)	NC→US (.306); RC→US (.027); UC→US (.177); IC→US (.289); US→INT (.333)	e-WOM
13	Jalilvand & Samiei (2012)	ATT→INT (.65); EWOM→SN (.88); EWOM→PBC (.84); PBC→INT (.69); SN→INT (.95)	TPB
14	Sparks & Browning (2011)	NA	e-WOM
15	Hsiao et al. (2013)	PEST→EMP (.25); NS→EMP (.498); SR→EMP (.215); PEST→ATT (.506); EMP→ATT (.372); ATT→INT (.739)	TRA
16	Casaló et al. (2010)	PU→ATT (.164); PEOU→ATT (.379); ID→ATT (.609); ATT→INT (.350); SN→INT (-.087); PBC→INT (.471)	TAM
17	Zhao et al. (2015)	PU→INT (.197); RE→INT (.275); NOR→INT (.305); TOR→INT (.230); VOR→INT (.300); POR→INT (.112); COR→INT (.295)	e-WOM
18	Wang (2015)	AQ→ATT (.173); AQ→INT (.192); ATT→INT (.149)	ELM, TPB
19	Lin (2007)	IQ→PU (.19); SQ→PU (.31); SQ→PEOU (.24); SERQ→PU (.25); SERQ→PEOU (.20); PU→SOB (.33); PEOU→SOB (.27); SOB→INT (.41)	TAM
20	Wu & Chang (2005)	ENJ→INT (.26); TD→INT (-.02);	FLOW
21	Chung & Koo (2015)	PV→US (.188); IR→PV (.331); IR→US (-.024), ENJ→PV (.437); ENJ→US (.449); COMPL→PV (-.115); COMPL→US (.088); EFF→PV (.167); EFF→US (.035)	VAM
22	Chung, Han & Koo (2015)	AQ→PU (.199); SC→PU (.397); SC→SR (.143); PU→SR (.330); PU→INT (.597); SR→INT (.162)	ELM
23	Zarrad & Debabi (2015)	E-WOM→ATT (.766); E-WOM→INT (.547); ATT→INT (.501)	e-WOM
24	Tsao et al. (2015).	NA	UGC
25	Bilgihan et al. (2016)	SN→SC (.422); PEOU→SN (.383); PEOU→UTIL (.309); PEOU→BII (.294); UTIL→BII (.235); SN→BII (.115); BII→INT (.525); PEOU→INT (.254); SC→INT (.037)	TAM, OSN
26	Kang & Schuett	ID→ENJ (.61); INTL→ENJ (.45); COMPC→ENJ	SIT

	(2013)	(-.16); ENJ→ATS (.36); ENJ→US (.37); ENJ→LEX (.18); US→ATS (.10)	
27	Sotiriadis & van Zyl (2013)	NA	e-WOM
28	Jalilvand et al. (2013)	E-WOM→ATT (.870); E-WOM→INT (.320); ATT→INT (.290)	e-WOM
29	Ladhari & Michaud (2015)	NA	e-WOM
30	Munoz-Leiva et al. (2012)	PU→ATT (.06); PU→INT (.44); PEOU→PU (.06); PEOU→ATT (.09); PEOU→INT (.47); PEOU→TRU (.10); ATT→INT (.26); TRU→PU (.25); TRU→ATT (.22); TRU→INT (.47)	TAM
31	Herrero et al. (2015)	NA	e-WOM
32	Huang et al. (2010)	NA	e-WOM
33	Albarq (2014)	E-WOM→ATT (.046); E-WOM→INT (.051); ATT→INT (.041)	e-WOM
34	Munar & Jacobsen (2014)	NA	e-WOM
35	Khan & Khan (2015)	NA	e-WOM
36	Cheng et al. (2006)	ATT→INT (.587); SI→INT (.694); PBC→INT (1.00)	TPB
37	Zhang et al. (2014)	NA	CLT
38	Liu & Lee (2016)	MP→INT (.316); WOM→INT (.396); BP→INT (.112)	SQ
39	Őz (2015)	NA	UGC
40	Lee et al. (2012)	ATT→INT (.86); PU→PEOU (.88); PEOU→ENJ (.69); VAL→PU (.10); VAL→PEOU (.46); VAL→ENJ (.21); ENJ→ATT (.73)	TAM
41	Alcazar et al. (2014)	ADI→INT (.633); CDI→INT (.486); CDI→ADI (.556); UGC→CDI (.367)	UGC
42	Aluri et al. (2015)	INF→SAT (.525); ENJ→SAT (.203); SI→SAT (.074); ENJ→INT (.335); SI→INT (.116); SAT→INT (.510)	UGA
43	Leung & Bai (2013)	MOT→INV (.42); OPP→INV (.15); INV→INT (.70)	MOA
44	Ayeh (2015)	ATT→INT (.538); PU→INT (.266); TRU→ATT (.257); TRU→PU (.248); PEOU→ATT (.416); PEOU→PU (.461)	TAM, SCT
45	Pietro & Pantano (2013)	PU→INT (.82); PEOU→INT (.31); PEOU→E-WOM (.26); E-WOM→INT (.76); ENJ→E-WOM (.37); ENJ→INT (.41)	TAM, E-WOM
46	Ayeh (2012)	CR→PU (.161); CR→ATT (.327); CR→INT (.045); ENJ→PEOU (.797); ENJ→ATT (.241); PU→ATT (.134); PU→INT (.321); PEOU→ATT (.259); PEOU→PU (.435); ATT→INT (.474)	TAM

47	Aluri (2012)	NA	UGA
48	Yang (2013)	PU→INT (.55); PEOU→INT (.08)	TAM, E-WOM
49	Wang (2015)	NA	MT
50	Ozturen (2013)	NA	TRUST
51	Duhan & Singh (2014)	NA	TAM, TRA
52	Chong & Ngai (2013)	PE→INT (.16); EE→ INT (.16); SI→ INT (.14); FC→ INT (.19); HM→ INT (.20); HT→ INT (.12); PV→ INT (.17); MIE→ INT (.06); RA→ INT (.01); INT →US (.39)	UTAUT2
53	Ting et al. (2014)	PU→ATT (.32); REP→ATT (.36); ALT→ATT (.27); TRU→ATT (.34), SI→INT (.25); ATT→INT (.67)	TRA, TPB, TAM
54	Filiery et al. (2015)	NA	e-WOM

Abbreviations for the constructs: EX – Expertise; APP – Appeal; IM – Image; KNW – Knowledge; GUI – Guides, CI – Cybercommunity Influence; ID – Identification; AQ – Argument quality; COS – Cost; INC – Incentives; BEN – Benefits; HMP – Homophily; NC – Novelty of content; RC – Reliability of content; UC – Understandability of content; IC – Interestingness of content; AES – Aesthetics; NS – Narrative structure; SR – Self-reference; NOR – Negative online reviews; TIM – Timeliness; VOL – Volume; POR – Positive online review; COMPH – Comprehensiveness; IQ – Information quality; SQ – Service quality; SOB – Sense of belonging; TD – Time distortion; VA – Value; IR – Information reliability; COMPL – Complexity; EFF – Effort; SR – Social relationships; BII – Belief in integrity; UTIB – Utilitarian beliefs; COMPC – Compliance; PR – Price; VAL – Valence; ADI – Affective dimension of image; CDI – Cognitive dimension of image; INF – Informativeness; SAT – Satisfaction; MOT – Motivation; INV – Involvement; OPP – Opportunity; PE – Performance expectancy; EE – Effort expectancy; FC – Facilitating condition; HM – Hedonic motivation; PV – Price value; MIE – Mobile internet experience; ALT - Altruism

Abbreviations for theories: TAM – Technology Acceptance Model; ELM – Elaboration Likelihood Model; TRA – Theory of Reasoned Action; TPB – Theory of Planned Behavior; INT - Intention to Use Social Media; CDT – Cognitive Dissonance Theory; UTAUT – Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology; ATT – Attitude; CNTT – Cognitive-Normative Tourism Typology; SERVQUAL – Service Quality Model, VAM – Value-Based Adoption Model; OSN – Online Social Networks; SIT – Social Influence Theory; CLT – Construal Level Theory; UGA – Uses and Gratification Approach; SCT – Source Credibility Theory; MT – Motivational Theory; IAM – Information Adoption Model; FT – Flow Theory; TRUST – Trust Theory; E-WOM – Electronic Word of Mouth; UGC – User-Generated Content.

Table 1: Theories and models with path coefficients

4.2 Main Antecedents of CGM Adoption

The review uncovers approximately 61 antecedents of CGM adoption in tourism and travel. The most commonly used antecedents are contained in Table 2 with their frequencies, that is, total number of times used in all reviewed papers. Other antecedents were used only once or twice (see Table 1). Drawing from the TAM model, an individual's intention to use a particular technology is determined by PU and PEOU. PU is defined as the extent to which the person believes that using the technology will enhance his/her job performance, while PEOU is defined as the extent to which the person believes that using the technology is free of effort (Davis, 1989). The dependent variable used varies between attitude, intention and usage. Variables such

as intention, attitude, perceived usefulness and ease of use have received considerable attention in the technology adoption literature (Lee et al. 2012). In terms of CGM in travel planning context, attitude has been found to positively influence intention and usage (Casaló et al., 2010). However, findings conflict regarding whether PU or PEOU better predicts attitude and intention (Casaló et al., 2010; Muñoz-Leiva et al., 2012; Ayeh et al., 2013).

Code	Construct	Frequency
ATT	Attitude	16
PU	Perceived usefulness	13
PEOU	Perceived ease of use	11
TRU	Trust	8
SI	Social influence/subjective norm	8
ENJ	Enjoyment	8
EMP	Empathy	3
PBC	Perceived behavioral control	3
SC	Source credibility	3

Table 2: Most common antecedents of CGM adoption

An analysis of the average path coefficients' effect sizes has been conducted to explain the strengths of antecedents in predicting dependent variables (Shaikh and Karjaluoto (2015). Shaikh and Karjaluoto analyzed the strengths of the most frequently used antecedents to explain attitude, intention to use and usage in mobile banking. In this study, we analyzed the path coefficients of the effect sizes of the R-values of the most frequently used relationships (Table 3); relationships used in three studies and above were included. The results indicate that trust has the strongest effect on attitude. Additionally, attitude has the strongest effect on intentions, which is understandable because attitude has been found to be the most commonly used antecedent.

Constructs	Number of studies	Attitude	Number of studies	Intention
Attitude	-	-	15	.511
Perceived usefulness	6	.180	10	.432
Trust	6	.362	6	.352
Perceived ease of use	5	.264	5	.347
Subjective norm/social influence	-	-	6	.343
Enjoyment	-	-	3	.335

Table 3: The average path coefficients' effect sizes

5. Discussion

The aim of our study was to provide a review of the literature on consumer-generated media in tourism and travel. Through rigorous search criteria, we identified 54 articles from both tourism- and non-tourism-based journals. We analyzed the articles and proposed a framework for consumer-generated media adoption. We also identified 22 heterogeneous and distinct theories, models and frameworks with 61 different antecedents and path coefficients of their relationships. We also analyzed the articles based on a geographical spread representing where the survey respondents lived.

The experiences shared by fellow tourists are perceived to be sincere, believable and trustworthy (Sparks et al., 2013). Tourism and travel information can be shared among members of the same social network, those who do not belong to the same networks, and even those who are geographically distant (Muñoz-Leiva et al., 2012). When content is shared by those who do not belong to the same network, source credibility becomes an important determinant of the believability of CGM. Source credibility includes trustworthiness and expertise (Ayeh et al., 2013). Trustworthiness implies the confidence in the source and the source's reliability, while expertise implies the source's knowledge about the destination. Tourists seeking travel information will regard the CGM of those who have similar interests to be more trustworthy and credible.

Travel information differs based on valence (negatively or positively framed content). Reading positive reviews can have a positive effect on travelers' inclination to conform (Tsao et al., 2015). However, some studies have generated conflicting results regarding the influence of positively and negatively framed content on travelers' intentions (Sparks & Browning, 2011; Zhao et al., 2015). When tourists seek travel information, the novelty and understandability elements of CGM are seen to positively influence booking intentions (Chen et al., 2014). In a virtual world, information quality, which includes accuracy, timeliness, completeness and currency, is perceived to influence trust and booking intentions (Filieri & McLeay, 2014).

In traditional social media contexts, intentions to use social media are directly influenced by perceived benefits (functional, psychological, hedonic and social) (Parra-López et al., 2011). In the context of tourism and travels, benefit-seeking behaviors in terms of the availability of best destinations, attractions, hotels, transportation, food, beverage and price explain the use of CGM (Öz, 2015). Most of the reviewed studies found that CGM positively influences tourists' intentions to book and visit a destination. Some studies also reveal that social influences, involvement, enjoyment and experience are important determinants of CGM adoption for travel and tourism (Chung & Koo, 2015).

5.1 Contributions of the Study

Our study contributes to existing knowledge in many ways. First, our framework identified antecedents that predict the adoption of consumer-generated media in tourism and travel. These antecedents were based on intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics of the user and on moderating factors. The intrinsic factors were circumstances related to the user, while extrinsic factors relate to the sender. The moderating factors were elements of the content such as novelty, valence, aesthetics, argument quality, information quality and reliability. This finding is in line with Cheung & Thadani (2012): e-WOM adoption is based on the receiver, sender and stimuli.

Second, the identified theories and the antecedents with their path coefficients from different studies provide a solid theoretical background for subsequent research (Okoli & Schabram, 2010); thus, this work provides a ready source for scholars wishing to undertake research in this area. Third, the contributions of scholars from the information systems field as evidenced from non-tourism based journals show that research on social media in tourism and travel is growing, and not only within the domain of management science. Fourth, the identification of trust as having the strongest effect on attitude is in line with earlier studies in which trust has been identified as an important criterion for using CGM (Parra-López et al., 2011; Ayeh et al., 2013). Finally, analysis of the geographical spread of the studies reveals a substantial number of studies in Asia (mainly from China and Taiwan), Europe and North America. Only one study is from Africa, and none are from South America. This research gap does not reflect the burgeoning use of the internet and social media in these emerging markets (Internet World Stats, 2015).

5.2. Limitations and Future Research Directions

One of the limitations of the study is that it was based on quantitative studies; therefore, it did not incorporate qualitative research. Second, the review was based on CGM and did not incorporate marketer-generated media. Marketer-generated media could offer more insights into the adoption of online content for trip planning. Fourth, the review only covered the period from 2005 to 2016. Relevant studies that were published before this period could impact the review.

Among the emerging markets, only China and Taiwan were substantially reflected, with one study in Africa. Thus, we recommend studies in important emerging markets such as India and countries in Africa and South America that have witnessed rapid rates of internet subscriptions and social media adoption. Additionally, Facebook and Twitter were the most commonly studied social media platforms. Other platforms such as YouTube, Delicious, Digg, and Lonely Planet are also very important for travel and tourism; further research should seek to incorporate these networks into the CGM literature.

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