CENTRO INTERNACIONAL DE ESTUDOS
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TESE DE DOUTORAMENTO

DESTINATION IMAGE, MOTIVATION, ATTITUDES AND EXPENDITURE: AN INTEGRATED PLS-SEM MEASUREMENT APPROACH OF STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS

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DECLARACIÓN DO AUTOR DA TESE

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D. Luís Filipe Igreja da Costa e Silva

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DESTINATION IMAGE, MOTIVATION, ATTITUDES AND EXPENDITURE: AN INTEGRATED PLS-SEM MEASUREMENT APPROACH OF STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS

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INFORMA:

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“for time has imprisoned us
in the order of our years,
in the discipline of our ways
and in the passing of momentary stillness
we can see our chaos in motion”

(Dead Can Dance)

Avó

Ana Peixoto Lima

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Resumen

Aunque la imagen del destino, las motivaciones de los turistas y sus intenciones de comportamiento en el destino constituyen conceptos cruciales y tópicos recurrentes en la literatura turística, su integración en modelos estructurales es aun relativamente novedosa. También lo es la incorporación de las actitudes y el gasto de los turistas en modelos integrados que sirvan para entender mejor los comportamientos de los turistas con el objetivo de establecer segmentos de mercado y estrategias para el destino.

Teniendo esto en cuenta, la presente investigación se centra, en primer lugar, en conocer cómo los turistas perciben los atributos de dos ciudades que son patrimonio mundial de la UNESCO (Oporto y Santiago) y en las posibles diferencias entre los turistas de los dos destinos.

En segundo lugar, este trabajo presenta un modelo PLS-SEM con el propósito de evaluar los antecedentes de las intenciones de comportamiento integrando constructos reflectivos y formativos en la medida de los conceptos de motivación e imagen de destino.

En tercer lugar, la investigación proporciona un enfoque integrado para comprender las relaciones estructurales entre la imagen cognitiva del destino y las actitudes de los turistas (es decir, la imagen general, la satisfacción general y las intenciones comportamentales) y el posible impacto de estas actitudes en el gasto turístico individual.

Los resultados confirman que existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los turistas de las dos ciudades en ocho dimensiones de la imagen. Según los resultados del primer modelo estructural propuesto, la motivación tiene un impacto directo en la imagen cognitiva, mientras que no se observa un impacto directo en las intenciones comportamentales. Los resultados indican, también, que la relación entre la motivación y las intenciones comportamentales está completamente mediada por la imagen cognitiva de las ciudades.

Con respecto al segundo modelo, los resultados muestran que: (1) la imagen cognitiva tiene un impacto fuerte en la satisfacción global, en la imagen global y en las intenciones comportamentales de los turistas;

(2) la satisfacción global y la imagen global median parcialmente la relación entre la imagen cognitiva y las intenciones comportamentales; (3) las intenciones tienen un impacto positivo y significativo en el gasto turístico; y (4) las relaciones entre satisfacción e imagen globales, y gasto turístico están totalmente mediadas por las intenciones comportamentales de los turistas.

Palabras clave:

Imagen de Destino; PLS-SEM; Motivación; Intenciones Comportamentales; Actitudes de los turistas.

Summary

Although destination image, tourists' motivations and their behavioural intentions towards the destination constitute crucial and popular subjects in the tourism literature, the integration of these three key concepts in structural models is still infrequent. The same case happens in regards to the incorporation of tourists' attitudes and expenditure in integrated models that propose to better understand the tourists' behaviours, thus, establishing new market segments and destinations' strategies.

In this framework, the present investigation was firstly focused on how the tourists perceive the attributes of two UNESCO world heritage cities (Porto and Santiago) and on the possible differences between the tourists of these two destinations.

Secondly, this work presents a PLS-SEM model with the purpose of assessing the antecedents of behavioural intentions integrating composite and reflective constructs for the measurement of motivation and destination image.

Thirdly, the investigation provides an integrated approach to the understanding of the structural relationships between cognitive image and tourists' attitudes (i.e., overall image, overall satisfaction and behavioural intentions) and the possible impact of these attitudes on the overall individual tourist expenditure.

The results confirm the existence of statistically significant differences on eight image dimensions. Moreover, the results of the first proposed model indicate that motivation has a direct impact on cognitive image, whereas no direct impact on behavioural intentions was found. Furthermore, the results indicate that the relationship between motivation and behavioural intentions is fully mediated by cognitive image.

Regarding the second model, the results show that: (1) cognitive image strongly impacts on tourists' overall satisfaction, overall image and behavioural intentions; (2) overall satisfaction and overall image partially mediate the relationship between cognitive image and behavioural intentions; (3) behavioural intentions have a positive and significant impact on tourist expenditure; (4) the relationships between overall satisfaction and tourist expenditure and overall image and tourist expenditure are fully mediated by the tourists' behavioural intentions.

Keywords

Destination Image; PLS-SEM; Motivation; Behavioural Intentions; Tourists' Attitudes.

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Introduction

Destination Image (DI) has been one of the most frequently explored subject in the tourism literature and many models present measurements of the influence of DI and Cognitive Image (CI) on consumer behaviour (Bigné, Sanchez & Sanchez, 2001; Hahm, Tasci & Terry, 2018; Pike, 2002). DI research in general and CI in particular, have been traditional research areas in the tourism literature mainly because of its practical impacts on the management, marketing and branding of destinations (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010) and because it constitutes a powerful tool that the tourism industry explores in order to achieve competitive advantages in the tourism market (Foroudi et al., 2018). Because the image consists in a dynamic dimension that has the potential to change due to the impact of different variables, analysing the image of a destination continues to be as valid and useful as it was in the past.

One of the most common definitions in the literature is the one from Crompton (1979) where DI is defined as the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person holds towards the destination. Most of the researchers are of the opinion that DI is a multidimensional construct that is formed by at least two different dimensions: (1) rational or perceptual/cognitive component; and (2) emotional or affective component (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a, 1999b; Dann, 1996; Gartner, 1994; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). The cognitive dimension of DI represents the knowledge, perceptions, ideas and beliefs that the tourists or potential tourists hold towards the destination attributes, and the affective dimension refers to the feelings and emotions towards the destination (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

In this framework, the importance of DI can explain why the subject constitutes such a productive tourism researched area. Destinations with strong images are more likely to be considered and chosen in the travel decision making process (Son, 2005). Additionally, DI assumes a key role on consumer behaviour directly and strongly impacting decision-making processes. In addition, prior research emphasizes that DI plays an important role on tourist behaviours by influencing: 1) the pre-visit decision-making process (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1989; Mathieson & Wall, 1982); 2) the on-site experience (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Wang & Hsu, 2010); 3) the evaluation of a destination (Chen & Tsai, 2007); and 4) the future behavioural intentions (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988; Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001; Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Chon, 1990; Court & Lupton, 1997; Zhang, Fu, Cai & Lu, 2014).

The image of a destination consists in "a subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist" (Bigné et al., 2001, p. 607), and can frequently be seen as more important than tangible resources that the destination might have to offer, in the point of view that the tourist is motivated to have a certain consumer behaviour based on perceptions, rather than reality (Gallarza et al., 2002). Moreover, DI does not only have influence on the process of choosing a destination and on the destinations' evaluation, but also on the perceived quality and on the tourists' future intentions (Bigné, et al., 2001). More recently DI has also been shown to have a direct impact on tourists' responsible environmental behaviour intention (Abdullah, Samdin, Teng & Heng, 2019).

In brand management area, authors such as Faircloth, Capella & Alford (2001), found a strong presence of brand image on brand equity. Furthermore, the study of DI is particular relevant as researchers are able to evaluate the destination's brand equity, as well as to obtain valuable insights in regards to customer awareness and brand knowledge of the destination that can provide useful information in order to develop positioning strategies and product development, and also to assess the promotional effectiveness of the destination and to predict the tourists' behavioural intentions (Pan & Li, 2011).

To identify key concepts regarding consumer behaviour in tourism and possible research opportunities in this complex area constitutes a fundamental task. In an extensive literature review of 191 tourism studies, Cohen, Prayag & Moital (2014) concluded that motivations, attitudes, perceptions and loyalty are some of the most important conceptual dimensions of the consumer behaviour in tourism. Hence, the study of the relationships, as well as the antecedents and outcomes of these dimensions, through the use of new approaches and methodologies, is still of great need in the area.

Similar to DI, the study of Destination Loyalty (LOY) or variants such as composite loyalty or Behavioural Intentions (BI), have received a great deal of attention and can be considered a common research subject in the tourism area (Cohen et al., 2014; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Zhang et al., 2014). In the current tourism marketplace, where destinations compete among each other with ferocity, destinations are being forced to increase their competitiveness and consequently to develop tourists' loyalty, in order to stipulate relevant strategies for the destination and achieve competitive advantages in a long term scenario (Almeida-Santana & Moreno-Gil, 2018). Authors like Oppermann (1998) and Petrick & Sirakaya (2004), pointed out the importance of LOY, mainly because attracting repeated visitors is significantly cheaper than first time visitors, and because a repeated visitor tends to be more satisfied and, consequently, more likely to share positive past experiences, thus, being more active in word of mouth communication.

Although LOY studies are very present in the area, the study of its antecedents not always reveals consisting results. For example, LOY studies are inconsistent on establishing significant relationships between Motivation (MOT) and BI (Prayag, Chen & Del Chiappa, 2017). The inconsistency of the results in regards to this relationship is reflected in contradictory conclusions, as well as in partial effects between some motives and BI (Prayag et al., 2017).

MOT is frequently considered a key concept in the study of tourist's behaviour, since individuals respond differently to stimuli and engage in tourism related activities for different reasons (Beard & Ragheb, 1983), representing a crucial role when developing effective and efficient destination marketing strategies. Yoon & Uysal (2005, p. 46) define MOT as the "psychological/biological needs and wants, including forces that arouses, direct and integrate a person's behaviour and activity". Caber & Albayrak (2016), divide MOT studies in three categories: personal motivations and specific behaviours resulting from those motivations; exploring MOT for efficient marketing strategies and market segmentation purposes; and the analysis of the relationship between MOT and other relevant constructs. Therefore, in the context of the third category it is possible to see that the study of the relationship between MOT and other behavioural constructs such as CI and LOY is still infrequent (Cohen et al., 2014) and many times contradictory (Prayag et al., 2017). For this reason, we have decided to explore the subject with the purpose of gaining deeper insights in regards to this subject.

Finally, we have also decided to explore the concept of the Individual Tourist Expenditure (EXP). Very few DI studies integrate the attributes of the destination and EXP, a gap that this work pretends to fill. The lack of conceptual and empirical studies examining the relationship between destination attributes (and correspondent evaluations) and EXP (Zhang, Qu & Ma, 2010) indicates a great need for studies that reveal the possible effects of destinations related factors on tourism expenditure (Wang & Davidson, 2010). Because of the importance of the economic impacts of tourism flows and the consumer consumption patterns on destination economies, we consider crucial to explore the subject, in the attempt of finding direct effects from antecedent constructs that could provide relevant insights that could contribute to the expansion of knowledge in this area.

In this framework, this doctoral thesis presents three different research proposals. The first research proposal of this work is to evaluate the different perceptions that the tourists hold towards two different destinations: Porto and Santiago de Compostela. These cities were chosen to be part of this research mainly because of their inherent characteristics. Both cities are consolidated tourism destinations and both historical city centres integrate the list of World Heritage Sites by UNESCO. Besides this, these destinations are only geographically separated by (more or less) 250 kilometres and, therefore, these cities proximally compete in the tourism market for their market share. Also in this first stage, the purpose was to analyse the evaluation mean scores of CI, Overall Image (OI), Overall Satisfaction (SAT) and BI and secondly, through the use of independent samples t-Tests, to assess the possible existence of statistically significant differences between the two groups of tourist. Furthermore, it was expected that the results obtained could allow the discussing of relevant managerial implications for both destinations.

The second research proposal was to investigate the antecedents of

BI. Taking into consideration the lack of research regarding the relationship between MOT and BI, this work designed an interesting PLS-SEM model with the purpose of measuring the structural relationships between these constructs, also integrating the CI construct to assess its direct and indirect effects. Consequently, the research findings present important theoretical and practical implications in regards to the antecedents and predictors of BI.

Finally, the third research proposal of this work was to design an integrated approach to the understanding of the structural relationships between CI and tourists' attitudes (i.e., OI, SAT and BI) and the possible impact of these attitudes on EXP. The integrating of these constructs also provides the possibility of the assessment of the indirect effects (mediation) of SAT and OI on the relationship between CI and BI. Besides this, the designed PLS-SEM model proposes the analysis and consequent testing of the role of EXP as an outcome of the tourists' attitudes. Very few studies include EXP in DI research, which constitutes a different approach of the EXP in this area. Due to this lack of research, we focus our attention on the role of tourists' attitudes towards the destination, as well on the analysis of how these attitudes can relate to the EXP in a specific stay.

In regards to the research methodology, this Doctoral Thesis also presents a recent innovation in the tourism field. In the last two decades, there is an ongoing discussion regarding reflective and formative indicator measurement models. Many researchers in different areas are now aware of the problems that can arise from the incorrect measurement model specification (e.g., Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2017; Jarvis et al., 2003; Mikulić & Ryan, 2018). The term "reflective measurement" is usually used to describe a situation where "a set of observed variables are jointly dependent upon another variable which is not itself observed" (Rigdon, 2016, p. 600), while the term "formative measurement" is used to describe a situation where "the unobserved variable is modelled as dependent on the observed variables" (Rigdon, 2016, p. 600). Although the debate between the use of the two measures takes its place in different research fields, authors like Bollen & Bauldry (2011) refer that this dichotomous view between effect and causal indicators is far too simple. Bollen (2011) and Henseler (2017) point out the existence of three different types of measurement models: the common factor models, that corresponds to the traditional reflective measurement; the causal indicator models, commonly known as formative measurement models; and composite models. It is important then to establish that when it comes to causal measures we can have a case of "formative" measurement or "composite" measurement. The different between these types of measurement seems to be that formative models contain an error term on the level of the latent variable, whereas this does not happen in a case of composite measurement (Bollen, 2011; Henseler, 2017).

In this sense, previous tourism studies including DI, CI and MOT studies, frequently explore reflective modelling approaches, where the use of reflective measures is automatically assumed. Consequently, in the tourism literature there is a lack of inclusion of composite and formative measures to assert the different constructs and its different components (see Mikulić & Ryan, 2018; Mikulić, 2018). Among the central variables of this study we included multi-attribute conceptualizations. Rather than a way of measuring people's natural attitudes, these are instruments designed by researchers to form and measure a theoretical concept. For this reason, this work presents two models with the inclusion of both reflective and composite constructs to better assess structural relationships, therefore contributing to avoid measurement misspecification in tourism.

The option for this specific research methodology is directly connected to the option of using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) as the statistical technique to analyse cause-effect relations between latent constructs. PLS-SEM represents a valid alternative to the classical covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) approach and, at the same time, offers a more flexible option through a set of less stringent rules and criteria, when compared to CB-SEM that presents strict rules and assumptions that often compromise the validity of the results (Chin, 2010; do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Garson, 2016; Hair et al., 2017; Peng & Lai, 2012). Specifically, CB-SEM presents a much stricter set of rules (in comparison to PLS-SEM) in regards to the multivariate normality of data, the minimum sample size, the reflective measurement environment or even that the composition of latent constructs and the relationships among them are to be directed by theory (do Valle & Assaker, 2016).

Besides the inexistence of these strict rules and assumptions in the PLS-SEM environment, one of the main advantages of PLS-SEM is that it is considered by many researchers as the best option to measure and estimating formative and composite constructs, whereas this task, even though possible, is far more complex and unnatural in the CB-SEM environment (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins & Kuppelwieser, 2014; Roldán & Sánchez-Franco, 2012). Consequently, because this study includes both composite and reflective constructs, PLS-SEM was considered to be the best statistical technique to be applied in this research.

In regards to its structure, this work is presented in six chapters. In the first chapter "Tourism and Heritage Cities", it was explored the contextual subjects regarding the tourism industry and the inherent characteristics of the sector, as well as its benefits and disadvantages and future trends. In the same chapter, it is also introduced the subject of tourism and heritage, since the strong connection and identity that the cities of Porto and Santiago have with heritage. Besides reflecting on the subjects of urban heritage tourism, the cities of Porto and Santiago are presented in this work exploring their relation with tourism in recent years.

The second chapter explores the subjects of brand management and the importance and role of brands in today's businesses. We review the fundamentals of branding from marketing and management literature to then focus specifically on brand image and destination branding. In this chapter we promote disambiguation between image and identity, and explore the fundamental role of image on creating marketing and branding strategies. Particular in destination branding, destination brand image constitutes a crucial tool to achieve higher loyalty levels and brand equity in general.

In chapter three, we focus our attention on the concept of DI. We review the DI concept exploring how the literature defines, measures and applies this important concept in tourism research. Moreover, this work identifies the major DI trends and streams of research and explores the subject of image formation in the context of tourism destinations.

Moreover, in chapter four “Research Model and Hypotheses Development”, we present the research objectives and establish the relevance of the research subjects. Additionally, it is also presented the theoretical background for the research constructs in the tourism literature. Finally, the research hypotheses are developed and two conceptual models are drawn to test.

Furthermore, chapter five “Research Methodology, Data Analysis and Results” integrates the details of the research methodology applied in this work. In regards to the analysis and results, we start by presenting a descriptive analysis of the sample, to then introduce the results from the t-test analysis. After this, we focus on the two PLS-SEM models, firstly assessing the measurement models in regards to its scales, reliability and validity, then producing the results from the hypothesized relationships.

Finally, in chapter six “Discussion and Conclusions” this work promotes the discussion based on the results obtained and its theoretical and managerial implications. Additionally, research limitations and future lines of research are introduced.

Chapter 1. Tourism and Heritage Cities

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Before focusing attention on the literature review and the true purpose of this research, it is furthermore important to review fundamental concepts and background regarding the research context. Thus, in this chapter this work will briefly review some crucial subjects regarding the tourism industry, in order to contextualize the actual global tourism market and its future trends and, further, the cities that were chosen to integrate our study will be introduced.

Tourism is widely recognized as one of most vibrant areas nowadays, one that in recent years has witnessed an outstanding growth. Over the past six decades, tourism experienced a continued expansion and diversification (UNWTO, 2012), being considered one of the largest and fastest growing economic sectors in the world (UNWTO, 2019). When seen as an industry, it can be considered the world's largest industry. Such fact implies strong and increasing impacts at social, economic, environmental and cultural levels. Nevertheless, the term industry when applied to the tourism sector was never able to generate agreement in the specialized literature.

Although an industry is generally viewed as a group of firms engaged in the same kind of activities (Pike, 2008), there is still a lack of agreement regarding what constitutes the tourism business. For example, there are several businesses in different sectors that usually are not classified as tourism firms (e.g. movie theatres, taxis), although these are able to service both locals and visitors. Burkart & Medlik (1974) defend that the tourism industry is a concrete reality, based on the argument that the several products/services involved in the tourism activity have the common function of supplying the tourists' needs.

Furthermore, these authors claim that, although it is difficult to be apply the normal concept of an industry to the tourism services, mainly because of the complexity of their contribution to the tourist product, these services can be described as the tourism industry. Consequently, it is possible to link demand and supply in the tourism area and to analyse the tourism impacts on global or specific economies.

The World Tourism Organization (1995), from now on referred as UNWTO (former WTO), refers that tourism cannot be identified in terms of supply of particular goods/services. This means that it is not the nature of a good/service that identifies an activity as tourism, but only by the circumstances of the good/service consumption. Hence, if we explore this idea we can conclude that the tourism activity relies in some subjectivity, seeing that the same product/service could be considered as "tourism" in certain occasions, whereas on others would not. Therefore, tourism in theory at least, involves the final consumption of any product, since the concept relies on defining the type of consumer whose activity constitutes tourism, rather than the type of product consumed (UNWTO, 1995).

The UNWTO (2013a) defined a list of categories of tourism common products and their respective industries (Table 1). Based on that, the UNWTO (2013a) understands that the tourism industry is an aggregation of several tourism industries (or activities) that typically produce tourism products. From an economic perspective, the tourism sector can also be seen has a cluster of production units in different industries that provide consumption goods and services demanded by visitors/tourists (United Nations, 2010). In addition, these different industries are referred as tourism industries once the visitor/tourist acquisition represents such a significant share of those industries' supply that, in the absence of this type of consumer their production would cease to exist in a meaningful quantity (United Nations, 2010).

Furthermore, the UNWTO adopted a methodological framework called Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) that is used to estimate the monetary value of the tourism industry, measuring tourism's direct and indirect contribution for GDP and establishing what it can be considered as tourism industries. Authors like Ermen & Gnoth (2006), described the complexity of this process and the need of a reclassification of the tourism businesses and industries.

With an almost uninterrupted growth over the last decades, tourism continues to show its dynamics, moving continuously towards positive results and strong growth around the globe. The performance and results of the international tourism are closely linked to the performance of the world's economy.

Table 1. List of categories of tourism characteristic products and tourism industries

Products	Industries
1. Accommodation services for visitors	1. Accommodation for visitors
2. Food and beverage serving services	2. Food and beverage serving activities
3. Railway passenger transport services	3. Railway passenger transport
4. Road passenger transport services	4. Road passenger transport
5. Water passenger transport services	5. Water passenger transport
6. Air passenger transport services	6. Air passenger transport
7. Transport equipment rental services	7. Transport equipment rental
8. Travel agencies and other reservation services	8. Travel agencies and other reservation services activities
9. Cultural services	9. Cultural activities
10. Sports and recreational services	10. Sports and recreational activities
11. Country-specific tourism characteristic goods	11. Retail trade of country-specific tourism characteristic goods
12. Country-specific tourism characteristic services	12. Other country-specific tourism characteristic activities

Source: *UNWTO, 2013a*

According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and considering the international tourism arrivals, it is possible to conclude that the international tourism has mirrored four downturns in the world's economy and global GDP in the last two decades, particularly in the years of 1991, 1998, 2001 and 2008 (OECD, 2010). For example, the terrorism events on the 11th September 2001 in New York had a strong impact and accentuated the fall of the international tourism at the end of that year. Moreover, this phenomenon was also experienced in 2003 when specific external factors took place during this period (e.g., terrorist threats, Iraq war, Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome crisis, avian flu in Asia and Pacific) (OECD, 2010).

The year of 2008 was also an exception in the world tourism growth performance, as it was the year that marked an historical low point on both consumers and businesses' confidence. The extreme turbulence that was felt in the world's economy (financial crises, commodity and oil prices, and sharp exchange rate fluctuations) had its impacts and "contaminated" almost every economic sector. Since tourism comprehends a very complex system that is extremely sensible to internal and external events, the industry experienced a very low point. Specifically, these events represented a negative growth (international tourism arrivals) in the last six months of 2008 in both Europe and Asia, indicating a general deceleration (UNTWO, 2009).

Although the extreme market volatility of the year 2008, the good results obtained in the first six months of the year were strong enough to end 2008 with a growth of 2% in international arrivals, although interrupting a 7% average growth between 2004 and 2007 (UNWTO, 2009). In addition, only in the next year (2009) was possible to see the actual effects of this financial crises that resulted in a declining of 4% in the worldwide international tourist arrivals (UNWTO, 2010). Nevertheless, growth was once again achieved in the last quarter of 2009 and after 14 months of negative results (-10% first quarter, -7% second quarter, -2% third quarter) (UNTWO, 2010).

In 2010 tourism experienced signs of a full recovery, when the international tourist arrivals witnessed a growth of 7% to a record of 940 million arrivals and the receipts a growth of 5% reaching 919 billion US dollars (UNWTO, 2011). Hence, international tourism recovered strongly and faster than expected by many.

In 2011 the tourism industry proved once more its resilience being able to grow in a demanding year marked by many changes and turbulence. Events like the on-going economic crisis, the politic changes in North of Africa and Middle East (the so called "Arab spring") and natural disasters all over the globe, would normally predict some poor results. Nevertheless, in 2011 the international tourism arrivals achieved a growth of 4,6%, reaching 982 million arrivals and the tourism receipts grew 3,8% with a record of 1 trillion dollars to the world economy (UNWTO, 2012a). Nevertheless, the “Arab spring” had its impact specifically on the arrivals in the Middle East (-8%) and in North Africa (-9%) (UNWTO, 2012a). In 2012 a new record was established. For the first time in tourism history, one billion international arrivals were achieved in a single year, representing a 4% growth comparing to 2011 (UNWTO, 2013b).

Recent reports indicate that the year of 2017 was the year with the highest growth (7%) in international tourist arrivals since 2010, representing 1,323 million arrivals and an 84 million increase comparing to 2016 (UNWTO, 2018). Also, the total international tourism receipts faced a 5% increased representing 1,340 billion dollars in 2017 (UNWTO, 2018).

The year of 2017 also marks the eighth consecutive year of sustained growth in Europe, with special attention to the Southern Mediterranean Europe sub region with a 12% growth in tourist arrivals and 11% growth in tourism receipts (UNWTO, 2018). In 2018 this trend was once again confirmed with the international tourist arrivals worldwide increasing 6% to reach 1.4 billion two years ahead of forecasts (UNWTO, 2019). These results consolidate the very strong numbers achieved in 2017 (+7%) and confirm the year of 2018 as the second strongest year since 2010.

1.2 TOURISM CHARACTERISTICS

According to Kozak & Baloglu (2011) tourism has specific characteristics comparing to other industries like the manufacturing or the service industry. Such differences and specific characteristics imply different approaches concerning management and marketing strategies. These authors (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011) refer that some of those specific characteristics are: 1) tourists participate in the creation of the services they purchase because the production and consumption coincide with time and location and, additionally, tourists make their decisions based on brochures or by obtaining feedback from relatives and friends, which is completely different from choosing a physical product; 2) a significant part of the tourism service industry is composed of intangible attributes rather than tangible attributes; 3) tangible clues and evidence determine customer's assessment of the level of service quality, meaning that the quality of a specific service is not the only critical aspect to be considered while evaluating tourists' overall evaluation of tourism products consumed during a travel; 4) social interaction plays an important role in regards to the tourism services, loyalty levels, as well as singular images and perceptions towards the destinations; 5) distribution channels play an import role in the marketing of tourism's products and services, since a set of independent organizations are involved in the communication and promotion of tourism; 6) customer experience depends on a set of different products provided by different entities and different events occur during a specific stay. This means that failing on these components of the tourism activity could have negative impacts on customer satisfaction and future recommendation; 7) word-of-mouth in the tourism context assumes a critical role in the purchase decision process, mainly because purchasing tourism services to obtain prior information is more difficult that in the case of purchasing products; 8) on one hand it is difficult to copy tourism services, while on the other hand they cannot be patented either; 9) tourism establishments and destinations cannot be expanded quickly.

Analysing this framework, it is possible to acknowledge some of the aspects and dynamics that interfere, directly and indirectly, with the tourism activity and the complexity in creating suitable, efficient and accurate management strategies. Therefore, the management and marketing of tourism destinations is one the most complex and difficult tasks at the hands of the practitioners. In regards to this, authors like Burkart & Medlik (1974) refer that from a conceptual point of view, tourism has five main characteristics that are unique and uncommon in any other product or service industry. Firstly, tourism is an amalgam of phenomena and relationships rather than a single one. These phenomena and relationships arise from the movement of people to various destinations, which means that the journey constitutes a dynamic element and the stay a static element. On top of that, the journey (and stay) to the destination occurs outside the normal place of residence and work, which stimulates activities that are different from those of the residence and working populations of the place that is visited. It can also be highlighted the short term character of tourism since the movement to the destination is temporary and, additionally, that destinations are visited for purposes not linked to paid work, more specifically regarding employment issues.

Jafari (2002) describes tourism as a multisectoral industry and a multidisciplinary research field. Moreover, the earlier studies from the 1960's were deeply focused on the economic impacts of tourism, giving rise to trade oriented notions that were created to collect data and calculate tourism arrivals, departures and expenditures. Nowadays, there is an effort in understanding tourism from a holistic perspective, whether as a phenomenon, an industry or both. In consequence of this, Jafari (2002) refers that this holistic view accommodates a systemic study of tourism. This means that all its parts are part of the equation, including its interconnected structures and functions, as well as the ways it is influenced and it is influencing other forms and forces related to it. Moreover, according to Vanhove (2005) and the UNWTO (1994) from an economic perspective tourism can also be divided as:

- **Domestic tourism** – the tourism of residents of a country visiting destinations in their own country.
- **Inbound tourism** – the tourism of non-resident visitors within the country.
- **Outbound tourism** – tourism of nationals (e.g. French) visiting destinations in other countries.
- **Internal tourism** – the combination of domestic and inbound tourism.
- **National tourism** – the tourism of resident visitors within and outside the economic territory of the country of reference.
- **International tourism** – the combination of inbound and outbound tourism.

1.3 TOURISM EFFECTS

In the last decades, tourism has become one of the main income sources particularly in emergent countries, thus being considered a strategic sector in these countries' economies and assuming a preponderant factor in different areas such as exportations, jobs, creation of companies or infra-structures development. It is estimated that tourism represents 7% of the world's exports (1,6 trillion dollars in exports), 30% of the services exports, 10% of the world's GDP and in every ten jobs, one belongs to the tourism sector (UNWTO, 2018). Nevertheless, the impact of tourism when it comes to destinations and their economies is not equally represented. While on some destinations the impacts of tourism are still very low, on other destinations tourism is a major and indispensable sector of the destination's economy. Nonetheless, because tourism benefits are globally understood and recognized, the next years will continuously present us with new players competing for a share of the market.

Highlighting this framework, it is our purpose to refer that efficient, accurate and dynamic marketing strategies applied to destinations, can lead to important benefits that can positively shape a country, region or city. Kreag (2001) refers that the major benefits can be divided in three fundamental categories: 1) economic impacts; 2) social and cultural impacts; and 3) environmental impacts. Authors like Kotler et al. (2003) refer that tourism is able to offer important benefits such as:

- **Direct Employment** – In hotels, restaurants, retail establishments, and transportation;
- **Support to Industries and Professions** – related to the direct employment benefit although less visible (professions like yield management consultants or university tourism professors). Nevertheless, many of this professions pay considerably more than the more visible employment;
- **Multiplier Effect** – Tourist expenditures are recycled and injected directly in the local economy;
- **State and Local Revenue from Taxes on Tourism** – Taxation of travellers has become a popular tax and include taxes on airline ticket taxes, hotel taxes and other user fees. This way tourism helps shift the tax burden to non-residents;
- **Place made Products Exportation** – Tourism stimulates the exportation of place made products. It is estimated that tourist and visitors spend 15% to 20% of their total expenditure in gifts, clothing, and souvenirs. This phenomenon has the power to produce economic impacts on the local economy.

Besides this, according to the UNWTO (1980) and Kreag (2001), tourism is also able to offer social benefits such as:

- **Well-Being and Quality of Life** – with impacts on physical and mental health, tourism favours social stability, improves the working capacity of communities and promotes individual as well as collective well-being;
- **Preserve Cultural Heritage** – tourism promotes the conservation of cultural heritage, not just because of the economic benefits - the cultural heritage is also an attraction to tourists - but also because the impact of tourism raises awareness and pride to the importance of the culture heritage that needs to be preserved;
- **Increase Community Pride** – the fact of someone that travels to visit or experience something on a specific destination can lead the community to feel pride and the feeling of ownership;
- **Demographic Impact** – in some regions tourism has helped to stop the demographic exodus from the countryside to cities. Tourism is able to make destinations more attractive (e.g. employment, accesses, local economy) and not only prevents the locals to leave the destination, but also attracts new population to live in the destination.

In addition to this, tourism also provides an economic argument to conserve, restore, preserve and protect natural landscapes, as well as attractions and historical patrimony. Additionally, with solid management strategies it promotes sustainability in local environment, businesses and communities. Moreover, Kreag (2001) points out that tourism: improves the quality of life in general; facilitates meeting visitors while it positive provides changes in values and customs; promotes cultural exchange and improves understanding of different communities; preserves cultural identity of host population; promotes greater tolerance regarding social differences.

In regards to these benefits, the UNWTO (2015) published a document concerning the organization's goals for tourism's sustainable development. By reflecting upon these goals, it is possible to acknowledge the wide and powerful impacts that global tourism is able to provide to continents, countries, regions or cities. Hence, the

UNWTO (2015) states that the organization's sustainable development goals are:

- Eradication of poverty and hunger
- Ensure good health and general well-being
- Ensure quality education
- Achieve gender equality
- Ensure clean water and sanitation for all
- Ensure affordable and clean energy
- Promote decent work and economic growth
- Promote sustainable industrialization, innovation and infrastructure
- Reduced inequalities
- Creation of sustainable cities and communities
- Ensure responsible consumption and production
- Urgent action to combat climate change
- Conserve life below water
- Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems
- Promote peace, justice and strong institutions
- Strengthen private/public partnerships to achieve sustainable development

Although the immense benefits provided by the tourism's dynamics, in recent years many questions have been raised concerning the negative impacts of tourism. In regards to these, García, Vázquez & Macías (2015) focused their research in the residents' attitudes towards tourism, promoting an extensive literature review paying particular attention to three different types of impacts: economic, sociocultural and environmental impacts. Concerning the negative economic and social impacts, the work highlights two major problems: seasonality and the increase in the cost of living. Seasonality affects essentially the labour market as residents deal with the annual irregularity of the needs of labour, forcing the residents to find other activities to achieve compensation in periods of lower demand. Considering the second major problem, the increase of the cost of living is one of the most noticeable tourism' negative impacts of modern societies. This increase is reflected on the raising of prices and goods in general, on the inflation that directly affects property value, on housing prices and rates resulting in a real struggle with negative social impacts for the population with fixed incomes that cannot buy or rent a house at affordable prices (Frauman & Banks, 2011; García et al., 2015; Haley et al., 2005).

In addition to this, Deery, Jago & Fredline (2012) presented a review and critique concerning the most relevant social impacts revealed in the tourism literature. In this framework, the authors pointed out several negative impacts of tourism that include:

- **Funding for public services** – the increase of public services requires additional funds that can cause taxes to rise.
- **Demand for public services** – can lead to longer queues and waiting times.
- **The maintenance of public facilities** – the increase of people using these facilities (e.g. beaches, parks and roads) represent greater maintenance that means a cost supported by the local community.
- **Public transport** – while in some regions there is an investment to create better conditions to meet the increased tourist numbers, frequently additional crowding on existing services is experienced.
- **The number of people in public places** – frequently local communities can resent to share public places with tourists.
- **The availability of parking spaces** – the increased tourist numbers in the destination can cause a lack of parking availability causing frustration and conflict.
- **Noise levels** – specifically in places with evening entertainment which is linked with higher alcohol consumption it can be experienced an increase of noise levels for locals.
- **Traffic congestion** - Increased tourist numbers can lead to traffic congestion and disrupt the normal way of life of the local community.
- **Delinquent behaviour** – there is evidence that overall crime rates are often perceived to increase when tourist numbers also increase. This originates alcohol and illegal drug use related

behavioural problems. Also, prostitution, rowdy behaviour and gambling can cause negative social impacts on local communities.

- **Environmental issues** – the increase of litter, the expansion of urban areas to the habitat of native animals, and the presence of tourists in natural habitats are examples of environmental issues that can cause an imbalance between tourism and environmental preservation.
- **Social and moral values** – sometimes social and moral value systems of tourists are substantially different from those of the local community which can present a cause for conflicts between the two groups.
- **Relationships between local residents** – there can be different attitudes towards tourists in different groups within the local community which can cause friction or conflicts between the two.

1.4 FUTURE TRENDS AND CHALLENGES

In regards to future trends in tourism, Moutinho (2000) refers the importance of new markets that will emerge due to changing economic conditions, modified consumer behaviour and new technologies. Also the composition of the tourists' population will alter with some of social and demographic phenomena, like the increasing proportions of senior citizens and the environmental awareness that will increase substantially, consequently affecting planning policies and tourism demand. Regarding this, the UNWTO and the European Travel Commission (ETC) (ETC, 2010) stated that the world population will grow, between years of 2009 and 2030, from 6,9 billion to 8.3 billion people. In addition, this growth will not be evenly spread across the globe, but in different regions at different rates and with regions like Europe where there will be a decline in the population percentage. Therefore, population growth is expected to generate substantial expansion in overseas travel.

Demography is considered one of the strongest external factors that impacts tourism, especially the tourism demand. Increases in life expectancy and decreases in fertility rates are, and will continue to be, the two biggest factors affecting global demographics. By 2060, it is estimated that demographic changes will affect all European countries, with negative impacts in economy and social sectors, and the number of people with ages over 65 will represent 30% of the European population (European Commission, 2009).

According to Szromek et al. (2012), the general picture of contemporary world demographics is that demographic change will affect particularly Europe. Nevertheless, the reality is that this negative demographic phenomenon in Europe will have its consequences in other places and regions, affecting the demand of tourist services and also the international trade and general economy. The ETC (2010) argues that from a management and marketing point of view, demographic changes are likely to impact travel demand patterns, including frequency, length of stay, products and, consequently, the communication strategies of national tourism organizations and private companies alike.

It is widely recognized and expected that world tourism will suffer important changes in the next decades. According to the UNWTO (2011) in the next two decades some of the predictions for world tourism are:

- Global growth in international tourism arrivals will continue, but at a more moderate pace 3,3% a year on average between 2010-2030
- International tourist arrivals will increase by 43 million a year on average between 2010-2030
- International tourist arrivals will reach 1.8 billion by 2030
- Emerging economies will receive more international tourist arrivals than advanced economies and will surpass 1 billion arrivals by 2030. It is predicted that in 2030, 58% of tourist arrivals will be recorded in emerging economy destinations of Asia, Latin America, Central and Eastern Europe, Eastern Mediterranean Europe, Middle East and Africa
- The number of international arrivals received in emerging economies is still modest compared to the size of their population and bearing in mind that the majority of the humanity lives in emerging economies. The number of arrivals in advanced economies is set to rise from 49 to 70 per 100 of population

between 2010 and 2030, and in the emerging economies the number will rise from 8 to 14 per 100 of population

- Asia and the Pacific will gain most of new arrivals increasing by 331 million in two decades from 204 million in 2010 to 535 million in 2030
- South Asia will be the sub region with the fastest growth in international arrivals
- North-East Asia will be the most visited sub region in 2030
- Future arrivals will be more evenly spread over destinations as more and more destinations have been investing in tourism development, therefore, the traditional concentration of international tourist arrivals in a relative few destinations will be further reduced.
- Europe will continue to lead in international arrivals received per 100 of population
- Asia and the Pacific will also be the outbound region with the highest growth
- Outbound tourism participation is higher in Europe and still low in Asia and Pacific
- Travel between regions will continue to grow slightly faster than travel within the same region
- Air transport will continue to increase its market share, but at a much slower pace
- Arrivals for visiting friends and relatives, health, religion and other purposes will grow slightly faster than arrivals for leisure or business.

From the latest results provided by the UNWTO (2019), these forecasted tendencies have been confirmed. Consequently, from this framework regarding future trends and challenges in tourism, it is possible to conclude that there is still a huge potential for expansion in the next decades, albeit new challenges arise. Although the possibilities of expansion, most of the international tourism organizations seem to agree that the goal should be on the maximization of social and economic benefits and on the minimization of the negative impacts resulted from the tourism activity. Furthermore, emerging and established destination can benefit immensely if these can actively and efficiently position themselves, creating adequate conditions, strategies and policies that could make possible the adaptation to these trends, thus exploring opportunities that could lead to concrete social, environmental and economic winnings.

1.5 Heritage Tourism

Due to the author's investigative commitment to his community and his territory, he selected the two most important tourism destinations of the Galicia-North Portugal Euroregion: Porto and Santiago de Compostela. Furthermore, both cities integrate the UNESCO's world heritage list.

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2003; 2018a) divides cultural heritage in two different categories: tangible cultural heritage as the legacy of physical artefacts; and intangible cultural heritage as the attributes of a group or society that are inherited from past generations, maintained in the present for the benefit of future generations. Thereafter, the UNESCO (2018a, para. 2) defines tangible heritage as:

> (j) buildings and historic places, monuments, artifacts, etc., which are considered worthy of preservation for the future. These include objects significant to the archaeology, architecture, science or technology of a specific culture.

In addition, the UNESCO (2018a, para. 3) states that:

> Objects are important to the study of human history because they provide a concrete basis for ideas, and can validate them. Their preservation demonstrates recognition of the necessity of the past and of the things that tell its story. Preserved objects also validate memories; and the actuality of the object, as opposed to a reproduction or surrogate, draws people in and gives them a literal way of touching the past. This unfortunately poses a danger as places and things are damaged by the hands of tourists, the light required to display them, and other risks of making an object known and available.

The article 2 of the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage by UNESCO (2003), defines intangible culture heritage as:

> (j) the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills – as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated therewith – that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage. This intangible cultural heritage, transmitted from generation to generation, is constantly recreated by communities and groups in response to their environment, their interaction with nature and their history, and provides them with a sense of identity and continuity, thus promoting respect for cultural diversity and human creativity.

The intangible heritage can be manifested by: (a) oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage; performing arts; social practices, rituals and festive events; knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe; traditional craftsmanship (UNESCO, 2003). In this framework, Timothy & Nyaupane (2009) define heritage tourism as the form of tourism that relies on living and built elements of culture regarding the use of tangible and intangible past as a tourism resource. In the same framework, the National Trust for Historic Preservation (NTHP, 2015) defines heritage tourism as traveling to experience the places, artefacts and activities that authentically represent the stories and people of the past, referring also that heritage tourism can include cultural, historic and natural resources.

1.6 URBAN HERITAGE TOURISM

In the last years, fuelled by the dynamics of the global travel, tourism has risen exponentially year after year. Never in history have so many people travelled to tourism destinations. This phenomenon has led to the fact that the world is now confronted with many countries and cities that are able to exceed by far their own native populations in number of tourists and visitors. In a time that consumers from different areas and different backgrounds have the possibility to travel on a global scale, cultural and historical resources represent a crucial aspect to tourism destinations seeking to be relevant in the tourism destination's competitive marketplace.

The UNWTO (2001) affirmed that heritage tourism is one of the pillars of the tourism industry, describing it as a reflection of mankind's inherent desire to see and learn about different cultural identities around the world, stimulating the understanding and respect of other cultures and, consequently, promoting peace and understanding. Additionally, there are no doubts that cultural heritage constitutes one of the major tourism motivators, one that inspires millions to travel every year to experience parts of that heritage.

AlSayyad (2001) refers that in a monotony of standardized products and services that are increasingly marketed worldwide, there is an increasing demand for building environments that promise unique cultural experiences. In addition, cities need to develop something distinctive or specialized that could be based on something inherent in the place and its history or a theme that has been identified (Law, 1993). Law (1993) is also of the opinion that is very unlikely that people will want to travel to clone cities, referring the importance of cultural and historical aspects of the destinations.

The International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS, 1999) refers that tourism is seen as a positive force for natural and cultural conservation. Tourism has the power to capture the economic characteristics of the heritage while, at the same time, denoting the need for conservation, generating funding and education to the community and proper influence to the creation of specific policies (ICOMOS, 1999).

Moreover, tourism should be a way of bringing benefits to host communities and provide strong motivation and means to preserve and maintain the heritage, cultural practices and cultural traditions that are representative of such place. Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge that excessive or poorly-managed tourism activities can put a threat to the physical, the integrity or the meaning of the cultural heritage (ICOMOS, 1999).

According to Tuan (1977), the passion and the need for preservation arises primarily from the need that tangible objects can support a sense of identity. In addition, the preservation of historic centres as the ones from the cities of Porto and Santiago de Compostela, contribute for beneficial activities in all sectors of society, promoting social harmony and integration. Therefore, tangible and intangible cultural heritage of these cities should be seen as irreplaceable spiritual, cultural, social and economic value (ICOMOS, 1975).

The importance of history and culture in tourism destinations such as cities, can better be explained in the words of Lowenthal (1975, p.5):

> We need the past, in any case, to cope with present landscapes. We selectively perceive what we are accustomed to seeing; features and patterns in the landscape make sense to us because we share a history with them. (ĵ) We see things simultaneously as they are and as we viewed them before; previous experience suffuses all present perception. (ĵ) The past gains further weight because we conceive of places not only as we ourselves see them but also as we have heard and read about them (ĵ) But it is not simply nostalgia that makes the past so powerful. Hindsight and overview enable us to comprehend past environments in ways that elude us when we deal with the shifting present. Because they seem more comprehensible, images from the past often dominate or may wholly replace the present.

1.7 THE UNESCO'S CULTURAL HERITAGE OF HUMANITY

After the World War I, the idea of creating an international movement to protect and preserve the world heritage has emerged, albeit only in 1972, in the Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, a single document containing the concepts of conservation and preservation of cultural properties was ratified by all interested parties in the general conference of UNESCO (UNESCO, 2018b).

The ratified convention defines the natural and cultural sites that can be considered for integration on the UNESCO's world heritage list. Furthermore, it stipulates the obligation that States Parties have: to report regularly to the world heritage committee the state of conservation of the world heritage properties; to promote the appreciation of the public of these properties; and to enhance their protection through educational and information programs (UNESCO, 2018b). The straightforward benefit of the convention's ratification was that those who ratified it were now part of an international community that was actively concerned with natural and cultural heritage, sharing the commitment to preserve this legacy to future generations (UNESCO, 2018c).

Table 2 - World Heritage Selection Criteria

Criteria	Description
I	to represent a masterpiece of human creative genius
II	to exhibit an important interchange of human values, over a span of time or within a cultural area of the world, on developments in architecture or technology, monumental arts, town-planning or landscape design;
III	to bear a unique or at least exceptional testimony to a cultural tradition or to a civilization which is living or which has disappeared;
IV	to be an outstanding example of a type of building, architectural or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history;
V	to be an outstanding example of a traditional human settlement, land-use, or sea-use which is representative of a culture (or cultures), or human interaction with the environment especially when it has become vulnerable under the impact of irreversible change;
VI	to be directly or tangibly associated with events or living traditions, with ideas, or with beliefs, with artistic and literary works of outstanding universal significance. (The Committee considers that this criterion should preferably be used in conjunction with other criteria);
VII	to contain superlative natural phenomena or areas of exceptional natural beauty and aesthetic importance;
VIII	to be outstanding examples representing major stages of earth's history, including the record of life, significant on-going geological processes in the development of landforms, or significant geomorphic or physiographic features;
IX	to be outstanding examples representing significant on-going ecological and biological processes in the evolution and development of terrestrial, fresh water, coastal and marine ecosystems and communities of plants and animals;
X	to contain the most important and significant natural habitats for in-situ conservation of biological diversity, including those containing threatened species of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science or conservation.

Source: UNESCO (2018f)

Nowadays the UNESCO's world heritage mission (UNESCO, 2018d) revolves around eight distinct objectives: (1) to encourage countries to sign the World Heritage Convention and to ensure the protection of their natural and cultural heritage; (2) to encourage States Parties to establish management plans and set up reporting systems on the state of conservation of their world heritage sites; (3) to provide emergency assistance for world heritage sites in immediate danger; (4) to encourage participation of the local population in the preservation of their cultural and natural heritage; (5) to encourage States Parties to nominate sites within their national territory for inclusion on the World Heritage List; (6) to help States Parties safeguard world heritage properties by providing technical assistance and professional training; (7) to support States Parties' public awareness-building activities for world heritage conservation; (8) to encourage international cooperation in the conservation of our world's cultural and natural heritage.

In 2018, 1092 properties were part of the World Heritage List and from that list 845 were cultural sites and 209 were natural sites from 167 different State Parties (UNESCO, 2018e). On the list it is possible to confirm the presence of sites such as the Old Town of Santiago de Compostela, the Route of Santiago de Compostela, the Historic Centre of Porto, and the Alto Douro Wine Region (that includes Porto's District) (UNESCO, 2018e). Additionally, the UNESCO (2018f) considers that in order to be included in the World Heritage List, the site needs to be considered of an outstanding universal value and meet at least one of a ten selection criteria (Table 2).

1.8 TOURISM AND PORTO

The city of Porto is a Portuguese city located in northern Portugal. It is the capital of the North region and of the urban area of Porto which are part 16 more municipalities. With a population of nearly 215 thousand residents (PORDATA, 2018a) and an area of 45 km2, Porto is the second largest city in Portugal, therefore, one of the most important cities of the country (VisitPorto, 2013).

Situated on the right bank of the Douro River, Porto presents a fantastic urban landscape that has more than 2000 years of history, constituting one of the oldest European centres. The history of the city dates back from the roman occupation when the romans established a town named Portus in the 1st century BC (although there has been identified occupation at the mouth of the Douro River since the 8th century BC). The city centre today is a splendid architectural reflex of

Romanesque, Gothic, Renaissance, Baroque, Neoclassical and Modern periods (UNESCO, 2018g).

In 1996 the historical centre of the city was classified by UNESCO as a world heritage site considering that the city centre "is of outstanding universal value as the urban fabric and its many historic buildings bear remarkable testimony to the development over the past thousand years of a European city that looks outward to the west for its cultural and commercial links" (UNESCO, 2018g).

From the many attractions offered by this city, it can be highlighted the many churches, cathedrals and historical buildings, the architectural buildings such as the "Casa da Música" (a modern building entirely dedicated to music), the art galleries, museums, a theme park dedicated to the Portuguese discoveries, the "Avenida dos Aliados" the historical main avenue of the city, the boat tours in the Douro river, the Porto wine cellars with tasting and guided tours available all year, among many other experiences available.

Besides its unique cultural heritage, Porto has a privileged geographical location as well as a modern transport infrastructure. Consequently, it is possible to easily reach the city by car from other regions, for example the Spanish Galicia Region (Vigo, Santiago de Compostela and A Coruña) with direct motorways to Porto. In the Portuguese context, cities like Faro, Lisbon, Coimbra or Braga have direct motorways connecting the city. The city is also equipped since 2002 with a public (mainly) above ground Metro, that connects the city centre to the suburbs and neighbour cities (e.g. Matosinhos, Vila do Conde, Maia, Gaia, among others) and contributed immensely for a revolution in the public transports in the city, transporting more than 380 million passengers in 10 years (Publico, 2012). Also, the Francisco Sá Carneiro Airport located in the Metropolitan Area of Porto has been considered several times as one of the best five European airports (ANA, 2015). Moreover, the airport received a total of 6.9 million passengers in 2014 (ANA, 2015) and 11.9 million passengers in 2018 (a 10.7% growth compared to year of 2017) (VINCI Airports, 2019), representing a crucial infrastructure for the attractiveness and development of the north region of Portugal.

In recent years, Porto has received a great deal of international attention due to being awarded and recognized several times. Porto was European capital of culture in 2001, a distinction that contributed to the regeneration of the city's centre and the modernization of its cultural facilities. For the third time (2012, 2014, 2017) the city was elected the best European destination by the European Best Destinations organization (EBD) (EBD, 2018). The EBD highlighted the charming vistas of the city that unfolds along the river bank and sea shore, while the city centre is both contemporary and creative with its streets, monuments, museums, esplanades, shopping areas that mix tradition, modernity and exclusivity. Besides this, the EBD (2018) also highlighted the suitable geographical importance of Porto as "the main gateway" to the North of Portugal and three other UNESCO world heritage sites (the Douro Valley, the city of Guimarýes, and the prehistoric rock art sites of the Cốa Valley) that allows different and interesting experiences to the tourist.

In 2013, one of the world's most successful travel publisher, the Lonely Planet (2013) elected the city as the top European travel destination of 2013. The publication underlined the city's historic centre, the renaissance in the last two decades after signs of decay, and the arrival of low-cost airlines that led to quick expansion of the tourism industry (Lonely Planet, 2015). In 2015, The Guardian (2015) newspaper has elected Porto as one of the 40 best destination to visit in 2015, describing the city centre as "a picturesque mish-mash of medieval churches, cobbled lanes, pretty squares, steep steps and beautiful buildings tumbling down to the river". Also, the reputed newspaper considered the city youthful and cosmopolitan, as well as culturally reborn with the opening of galleries, restaurants and boutiques.

The year of 2014 was considered then the best year ever for Porto and Northern Portugal, with more than 2.6 million overnight stays in tourist accommodation, while in 2004 that number was around one million (Porto.pt, 2015). According to the Porto and the North of Portugal Regional Tourism Entity (TPNP), the number of overnight stays surpassed the 7 million in 2017, a number that was predicted to be achieve only by the year of 2020 (TPNP, 2018).

The success of the sector in Porto is also very much related with success of the low cost companies that started to operate in Porto's Airport since 2005. Considering that in 2005 the main airline company operating in the airport was the Portuguese airline company (TAP), the ANA's annual report of 2012 (ANA, 2013) indicates that the position was surpassed by Ryanair while, at the same time, two other low-cost airlines (EasyJet and Transavia) became crucial to the airport. Furthermore, this evolution is notorious, as in 2004 the airport transported 2,9 million passengers, in 2012 it has reached the 6 million passengers mark, and in 2016 the airport reached the number of 9,3 million transported passengers (PORDATA, 2018b).

1.9 TOURISM AND SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELA

Santiago de Compostela is a Spanish city located in the province of A Coruña in the northwest of Spain and simultaneously the capital of the autonomous community of Galicia. According to the Galician Institute of Statics (IGE), Santiago has a population of 95.671 habitants (IGE, 2013), and it is considered a medium city considering the Spanish and European scale criteria.

Since the 9th century, when the tomb of the Apostle James was discovered, Santiago has become a holy city of Christendom, transforming the city in the final destination of the thousand-year-old pilgrim route and a meeting place of western faith, thinking and gracious plenary absolution (Turismo de Santiago, 2018a).

The Old Town of Santiago is an astonishing example of rehabilitation, restoration and preservation of the cultural heritage of the city. With more than fifty historical buildings, The Old Town is an urban centre constituted by important religious architectonic patrimony such as churches, convents, monasteries and other monumental historical buildings, being the main attraction the impressive Romanesque cathedral along with the four plates that surrounds it (Obradoiro, Quintana, Imaculada and Pratarias).

Since 1985, the city's Old Town integrates the UNESCO World Heritage list due to its relation with one of the major themes of medieval history. According to UNESCO (2018h), Santiago de Compostela is "a famous pilgrimage site that became a symbol in the Spanish Christians' struggle against Islam", considering that the richness of buildings of Romanesque, Gothic and Baroque architectural styles raise the city to be "one of the world's most beautiful urban areas" (UNESCO, 2018h).

Besides the historical buildings, Santiago has gradually become a place of contemporary architecture with buildings such as the City of Culture (an amazing complex and conceptual building totally dedicated to culture), the Auditorio de Galicia (a modern building dedicated to cultural activities such as music and expositions), or the Galician Centre of Contemporary Art. Also, the city has a variety of museums. For example, the Cathedral Museum allows the visitor to see important archaeological exhibits, as well as sculptures, paintings, tapestries, ceramics, furniture, among other historic objects and forms of art. In addition, the Museum of the Galician People is dedicated to the understanding of the Galician culture, more specifically the traditions and manners that are part of the Galician identity, including different areas such as archaeology, painting, sculpture, music or clothes.

Santiago de Compostela is also equipped with an international airport situated at more or less 10 km from the Norwest of the city. In 2017, the airport transported a total of 2,6 million passengers, although, since 2011 with the new infrastructures (e.g. new terminal, airplane parking lots, accessibilities or tower control) the airport is capable of receiving 4 million passengers with high levels of safety, service and general quality, according to AENA (Aeropuertos Españoles y Navegación Aérea) (AENA, 2015).

According to Guilarte (2014), Santiago received between 500 and 600 thousand tourists per year achieving between 1 and 1,2 million overnight stays in tourist accommodation. More recently, in 2017, Santiago achieved its best year ever with 1.4 million overnight stays, representing an accumulated growth of 6% and of 12% in the international tourism, when compared to the year of 2016 (El Correo Gallego, 2018).

According to Exceltur (2013), Santiago is the 8th city in the Spanish rank of the most visited cities in Spain. Even though Santiago is surpassed by major cities in the Spanish context (e.g. Barcelona, Madrid, Valencia, Seville or Bilbao), when it comes to cities with less than 200 thousand habitants, Santiago occupies the second position in the rank (Exceltur, 2013). Also, Exceltur and Urbantur (Urbantur, 2016) in their tourism competitiveness monitor of Spanish urban destinations, ranked Santiago de Compostela as the 9th most competitive Spanish urban destination among 22 destinations.

Santiago still benefits from great international awareness, most of it still related to the St. James Way. In recent years, personalities like the world renowned write Paulo Coelho (in the books like “The Diary of a Magus” and “The Pilgrimage”) and the world famous actor Martin Sheen (in the movie “The Way”) have raised awareness to the strength of the experiences that the St. James Way and the city of Santiago are able to offer. In addition, Santiago can be considered as one of the most important Christian pilgrimage sites in the world, along with places such as the Vatican, Lourdes or Jerusalem, hence, this awareness and mental association is still a strong source of value to the city.

Furthermore, Santiago as a consolidated tourism destination has much to offer. In the year 2000, the city was European Capital of Culture contributing to the city’s positioning as a cultural heritage tourism destination. Besides the unique historical centre, the city has an integrated cultural offer composed by museums, theatres, art exhibitions, concerts, art galleries and traditional celebrations. The importance of the religious tourism and pilgrimage has slowly decreased and these segments are now seen has a niche markets. Although, these segments are still important, they do not represent the most of the tourists that are attracted to the city to experience the historical, artistic and natural patrimony, the gastronomy, the folklore and the unique aura that surrounds Santiago.

Since it is a case study of how to preserve tangible cultural heritage, Santiago has received strong international attention, specifically in the case of the preservation and rehabilitation of an urban historic centre, receiving more than 20 international awards and prizes (Turismo de Santiago, 2018b). For example, in 1998, the city was awarded with the European Prize of Urbanism by the European Commission (among 130 candidates) and was also awarded with the “Habitat” award by the United Nations Practices that rewarded the best practices for the planning of Compostela’s Old Town protection and rehabilitation (Turismo de Santigo, 2018b).

Chapter 2. Brand Management

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of brand has been widely explored and discussed. It is common to observe that authors frequently create their own definition of brand and not always a consensus is achieved. Hence, it is possible to find several different definitions that usually oscillate between literal (denotative) definitions and metaphoric (connotative) associations that are used to define brand as a physical entity or a mental representation (Stern, 2006). Additionally, de Chernatony & Riley (1998a; 1998b) suggest that the literature commonly presents the definition of brand with a focus on tangible elements (e.g. name, logo, visual aspects) and on intangible elements (personality, values or symbolic elements).

For instance, according to the American Marketing Association (AMA, 2015) a brand is a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers. Furthermore, the AMA (2015) also states that a brand is “a customer experience represented by a collection of images and ideas; often, it refers to a symbol such as a name, logo, slogan, and design scheme” and also that a brand often “includes an explicit logo, fonts, colour schemes, symbols, sound which may be developed to represent implicit values, ideas, and even personality”. In this framework, the well-known branding consultancy agency Interbrand (2007) defines brand as a mixture of tangible and intangible attributes, symbolized in a trademark, which, if managed properly creates value and influence. Also, according to Interbrand (2007) the brand simplifies decision-making, represents an assurance of quality and offers a relevant, different and credible choice among competing offerings.

Furthermore, not all definitions focus only these points. For example, de Chernatony & Macdonald (2003) refer that a (successful) brand is an identifiable product, service, person or place, augmented in such a way that the buyer or user perceives relevant, unique, sustainable added values which match their needs most closely. In this framework, Kotler & Pfoertsch (2006) are of the opinion that frequently the term brand is associated with the more tangible marketing communication tools and elements, although the concept of brand should integrate its intangible aspects. Furthermore, Kotler & Pfoertsch (2006) consider the following elements: (1) a brand is a promise; (2) but also the totality of perceptions (everything you see, hear, read, know, feel, think, etc.) about a product, service, or business; (3) it holds a distinctive position in customer's minds based on past experiences, associations and future expectations; and (4) it is a short-cut of attributes, benefits, beliefs and values that differentiate, reduce complexity, and simplify the decision-making process. Therefore, this approach considers that besides it tangible components, in its essence, a brand is an intangible concept.

Table 3. Summary of brand definitions and descriptions

Emphasis on brand benefits to the company	**Emphasis on brand benefits to the consumer**
Aaker (1991)	Aaker (1996)
American Marketing Association (1960)	Alt & Griggs (1988)
Bennett (1988)	Ambler (1992)
Dibb et al. (1997)	Boulding (1956)
Doyle (1994)	Brown (1992)
Kotler et al. (1996)	de Chernatony and McDonald (1992)
Stanton et al. (1991)	Doyle (1994)
Watkins (1986)	Goodyear (1993)
	Keller (1993)
	Levitt (1962)
	Martineau (1959)
	Murphy (1992)
	Sheth et al. (1991)
	Wolfe (1993)

Source: Wood (2000)

Despite the fact that a brand can be seen as an intangible concept, analysing several approaches in marketing and brand management areas, it is easy to acknowledge the existence of a lack of consensus in the literature. This lack of consensus and of accuracy when defining the concept of brand is frequently a source of some confusion, mainly because the literature is full of definitions that are actually defining subsets of brands and/or brands characteristics (e.g. brand equity, brand image, brand personality, etc.) (Wood, 2000). Wood (2000) suggests that the brand concept can be defined from a consumer's perspective and/or from a company's perspective, as shown in Table 3.

Table 4. Main themes to categorize brand definitions

Main Theme	Description
Brand as a Legal Instrument	A legal statement of ownership
Brand as a Logo	Differentiation and identification focused in the name or visual identity
Brand as a Company	The brand as an extension of the corporate identity and personality
Brand as a Shorthand	Brand as a memory shortcut that provides rapid recall of functional and emotional characteristics
Brand as a Risk Reducer	Brand as tool to instil consumer confidence and reduce risk
Brand as an Identity System	Brand seen as brand identity, formed by characteristics and elements such as: culture, personality, self-projection, physique, reflection and relationship
Brand as an Image in **the Consumer's** Minds	The brand is defined by functional and emotional attributes in the consumer mind
Brand as a Value System	The brand is defined as a representation of a cluster of symbolic values and meanings
Brand as a Personality	Brand as a symbolic device with personalities that users value beyond functional utility
Brand as a Relationship	The brand as a special relationship between consumer and the company
Brand as Adding Value	The brand that besides functional characteristics also provides added value that matches with the consumer's needs
Brand as an Evolving Entity	The brand evolves from an unbranded commodity, to a reference where the name is used for identification

Source: de Chernatony & Riley (1998a)

In addition, de Chernatony & Riley (1998a; 1998b) agree that there is a lack of consensus in the literature suggesting that efforts should be made in developing theory towards the brand construct. Also, de Chernatony & Riley (1998a) found twelve main themes that they consider essential to categorize the broad range of brand definitions (Table 4). Additionally, the authors suggest that the concept of brand should be seen as a multidimensional construct that matches the firm's functional and emotional values with the performance and psychosocial needs of the consumers.

Furthermore, Hankinson (2004a) is also of the opinion that it is possible to identify specific trends in brand management literature concerning the concept of brand. Consequently, the author states that is possible to identify four main trends of brand conceptualisation in the specialized literature: (1) brands as communicators; (2) brands as perceptual entities; (3) brands as value enhancers; (4) and brands as relationships. According to Hankinson (2004a) we can define these trends in the following descriptions:

- **Brands as Communicators** – The concept of brand is represented as a mark of ownership and used to differentiate the product from the competitors. This perspective of brand as a communication asset comes, according to the author, as the first step to conceptualize the brand as an identity and, consequently, is classified as an "input orientation to branding".
- **Brands as Perceptual Entities** – Brands are able to appeal to senses, reason and emotions and create personal value to the consumer through a set of attributes and associations that compose the brand image.
- **Brands as Value Enhancers** – Brands are seen as corporate assets that led to the development of brand equity as a consumer-centred concept and, consequently, as a strategic approach of brand management.
- **Brands as Relationships** – Brands have personality that enables a relationship with the consumer. The relational paradigm is widely accepted, as a process focused in creating value through the relationships with all stakeholders, the empowerment of the marketing and branding activities, the focus on the consumer's

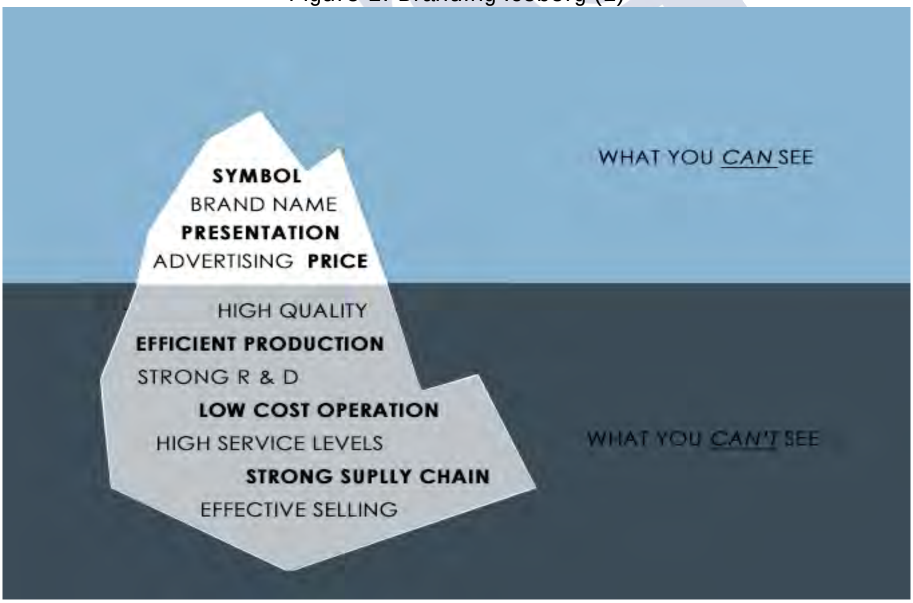
self-image, as well as on the importance between physical and psychological needs, and on the functional attributes and symbolic values.

2.2 Brands and Brand Management

Understanding that the brand definition has changed and evolved over the time is essential to acknowledge that a brand is more than perceived label or a simple cosmetic makeover where companies can spend money on. In this sense, Tybout & Calkins (2005) argue that a brand is much like reputation, differing from a simple name since a name does not possess any association. Consequently, a name becomes a brand when the consumer links it to other attributes or associations.

Authors like Davidson & Keegan (2004) refer that a company's brand and branding is well beyond names, symbols, advertising or presentation. Instead, a brand should be the result of a business strategy.

Figure 1. Branding Iceberg (1)



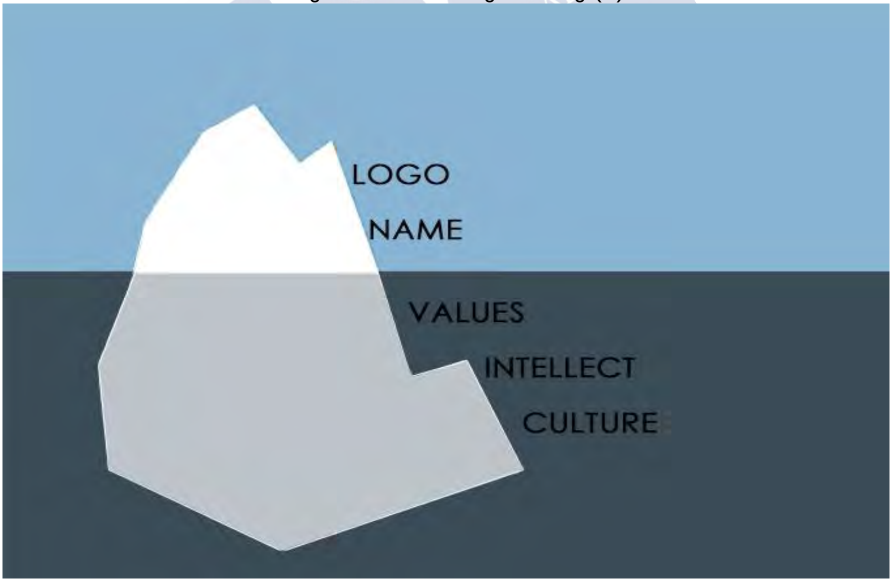
Source: adapted from Davidson & Keegan (2004)

Davidson & Keegan (2004) represented this idea in the well-known "Branding Iceberg" model (Figure 1), where above the waterline are the visible elements such as the brand's name, logo, presentation or advertising (representing what is visible in regards to a specific brand), whereas below the waterline we have assets and competencies that will drive the brand and usually are not visible to the consumer (Davidson & Keegan, 2004).

Moreover, de Chernatony (2006) also uses the metaphorical Iceberg's Model (Figure 2) to explain the very nature of brands. The author refers that this model indicates that only 15% of the brand is actually visible, whereas below the water the remaining 85% is invisible. Consequently, it is important to adopt an integrated perspective in order to recognize the role of these multiple invisible domains and to promote the understanding that a brand should be seen as a holistic entity where the visible parts are supported by the invisible parts of the brand (de Chernatony, 2006).

Because brands have a fundamental role in the modern society, it is possible to find traces of it almost everywhere.

Figure 2. Branding Iceberg (2)



Source: adapted from de Chernatony (2006)

Brands are actually present in every sphere of society including economic, social, cultural and even religious levels (Kapferer, 2008).

Additionally, in a management perspective, brands are considered a vital marketing tool for a long time now. These are able to create differentiation in a marketplace full of products and services that are easily copied. Even when the differentiation is based on products' characteristics, frequently the consumer will not be motivated or capable of analysing and perceive those characteristics in depth (Kotler, 2002).

Furthermore, a brand can also be understood as a product or service, which dimensions somehow differentiate that product/service from its competitors (Keller, 1998). These differences can be rational and tangible (meaning that these are related with the performance of the product/service of the brand) or symbolic, emotional and intangible (more related with what the brand represents) (Keller, 1998).

Brands not only offer differentiation to products/services but also represent a value proposition. This happens because brands are able to incite beliefs, evoke emotions or induce behaviours (Kotler, 2002). Therefore, brands are able to hold social and emotional value to the consumer and, consequently, these can have personality and speak for their users, clients or consumers (Kotler, 2002).

In regards to this, Keller (2003) adopts a connotative approach highlighting the importance of understanding the brand as a perceptual entity that is based in the reality but that also represents the costumer's perceptions and characteristics. Besides this, it is extremely important to create mental structures and help customers to organize their product/service knowledge, in a way where it is possible to bring clarification and consciousness to the decision process and, subsequently, create value to the offer coordinator (Keller, 2003). In addition, consumers are frequently involved with brands because what these are able to do, but even more so because what these brands are able to express in regards to the emotions, roles and personality of the consumer itself (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002). Because of this, marketing managers are frequently focused on differentiating their product/services through loyalty and through the emotional aspects of the brand, instead of just focusing on the tangible and rational aspects of the brand. Although emotion itself might not be enough in most cases, it is fundamental that the brand is able to contain unique associations, making sure that it also contains memorisable characteristics that could avoid confusion and ambiguity in the consumer's mind (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002).

2.2.1 Importance and Role of Brands

Concerning branding and brand management area, it is important to briefly explore, from a management perspective, why brands are so important and what their roles and functions are nowadays. In this context, authors such as Lambin & Moerloose (2008) refer that brands have at least five direct roles for the buyer/consumer and three major roles of higher importance for the brand's owner. Lambin & Moerloose (2008) state that brands have the following roles/functions for the buyer/consumer:

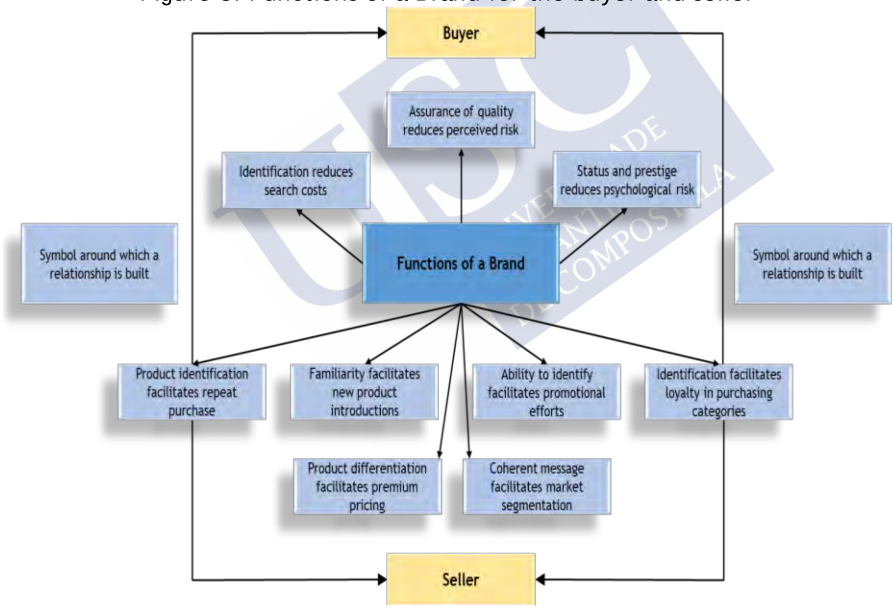
- **Identification**: the brand has the role of identification, where the brand announces the existence of tangible and intangible attributes that the consumers use to orientate and facilitate their consumer behaviour choices according to their needs, hence, helping in the buying decision process.
- **Practicality**: the consumer by using a brand has a practical and calm way of memorizing a product/service characteristics and associating it to a name. This practicality also allows the consumer to save energy and time in identical repurchasing and loyalty.
- **Guarantee**: the brand identifies and makes the manufacturer responsible, allowing the consumer to find a specific and constant quality level.
- **Personalization**: the brand is not only focused in tangible attributes, but also in intangible attributes (emotional, aesthetic, social), allowing the consumer to express its personality, difference and originality through the brand.
- **Ludic**: brands take part in the process of living several different experiences and ways of life, as well as the possibility of trying new products/services, allowing the consumer to know new ways of finding satisfaction. Kapferer (2008) also refers the hedonistic/excitement function, related with the attractiveness to the brand, logo, communication and experiential rewards.

Besides the above aspects, Kapferer (2008) also adds three more roles or functions:

- **Optimization**: the brand allows the consumer to choose the best product in its category and the best performer for a particular purpose.
- **Continuity**: continuity can be seen as the satisfaction created by a closed relationship between the consumer and the brand and a sign that the consumer is consuming it for a long time.
- **Ethical**: the brand is able to deliver satisfaction through a responsible behaviour in the relationship with the society.

Regarding the functions of a brand for the buyer and seller, Berthon, Hulbert & Pitt (1999) refer that there are three main functions for the buyer and six main functions for the seller (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Functions of a Brand for the buyer and seller



Source: Berthon et al. (1999)

In this context, Berthon et al. (1999) refer that the brand provides benefits such as: a way of identification that reduces search costs; an assurance of quality reducing perceived risk; and the status and prestige through the brand that reduces the psychological risk. Concerning the functions of a brand for the seller, the authors refer: the product identification that enables repeat purchase; the familiarity that facilitates new product introductions; the product differentiation that facilitates premium prices; the ability to identify that facilitates promotional efforts; the coherent message that facilitates market segmentation; and the identification that enables loyalty in purchasing categories.

Also related with the brands functions and benefits to the consumer, Keller (2003) refers that brands:

- Identify the origin of the product/service
- Offer a contract of responsibility from those who manufacture the product/service
- Provide risk reduction of the product/service
- Provide costs reduction in the product/service research
- Provide a promise and a connection with the product/service manufacturer
- Offer a symbolic mechanism of the product/service
- Are a quality sign of the product/service

In a perspective of the value created for the company that owns the brand, Keller (2003) refers that the brand provides and originates:

- Means of identification in order to simplify the use or tracking
- Means for legal protection of unique characteristics of the product
- Signs of quality level to satisfied customers
- Means to provide products with unique associations
- A source of competitive advantages
- A source of financial return

2.3 BRAND EQUITY

In order to define brand equity, we will focus on the brand equity dimensions that have been accepted as valid for many researchers of the subject area, namely the ones from Aaker (1991, 1992, 1996) and Keller (1993, 2003). Aaker (1991, p.15) defines brand equity as "(ĵ) a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name, and symbol that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers". Although frequently in the marketing theory there is no common viewpoint when referring to brand equity, researchers usually agree that the concept represents the added value that the brand brings to a product or service. Keller (2003) sees brand equity as a common denominator for interpreting marketing strategies and assessing the value of a brand. Lassar, Mittal & Sharma (1995) define brand equity as the enhancement in the perceived utility and desirability a brand name confers to a name. Also, Lassar et al. (1995) refer that brand equity is the consumer's perceptions of the overall superiority of a product carrying that brand name when compared with other brand.

Moreover, it can easily be acknowledged that the same concept can be defined differently by different authors from different areas and with different perspectives. According to Feldwick (1996), although the concept is still imprecise, it can be defined in three different approaches:

- The total brand value as a separable asset (like when it is sold on a balance sheet) (financial approach)
- The measure of the brand's strength that could be measured by the price differential that the consumer is willing to pay (brand strength or loyalty approach)
- The sum of cognitive and affective perceptions that the consumers hold towards the brand (brand image or associations approach)

The first approach constitutes a financial approach, where according to Simon and Sullivan (1993), the brand equity is seen as the incremental cash flows which accrue to branded products over and above the cash flows which would result from the sale of unbranded products. In other words, brand equity is seen by many authors (e.g., Bahadir, Bharadwaj & Srivastava, 2008; Farquhar, Han & Ijiri, 1991; Simon and Sullivan, 1993) exclusively as the financial impact that the brand adds to the company, hence a firm-based brand equity.

The second and third approaches are part of a consumer-based brand equity, an approach that has been widely explored in branding literature (e.g., de Chernatony, Harris & Christodoulides, 2004; Lassar et al., 1995; Pappu, Quester & Cooksey, 2005; Washburn & Plank, 2002; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). For our particular research work we consider this approach the most relevant and appropriate, therefore, removing our attention from other approaches.

Brand equity is considered a fundamental concept in the marketing and business areas, due to the competitive advantage that the strategist can gain through a strong or high equity in their brands. Keller (2003) refers that this high equity can be translated in marketing advantages such as:

- Improved perceptions of product performance
- Greater loyalty
- Less vulnerability to competitive marketing actions
- Less vulnerability to marketing crises
- Larger margins
- More inelastic consumer response to price increases
- More elastic consumer response to price decreases
- Greater trade cooperation and support
- Increased marketing communication effectiveness
- Possible licensing opportunities
- Additional brand extensions opportunities

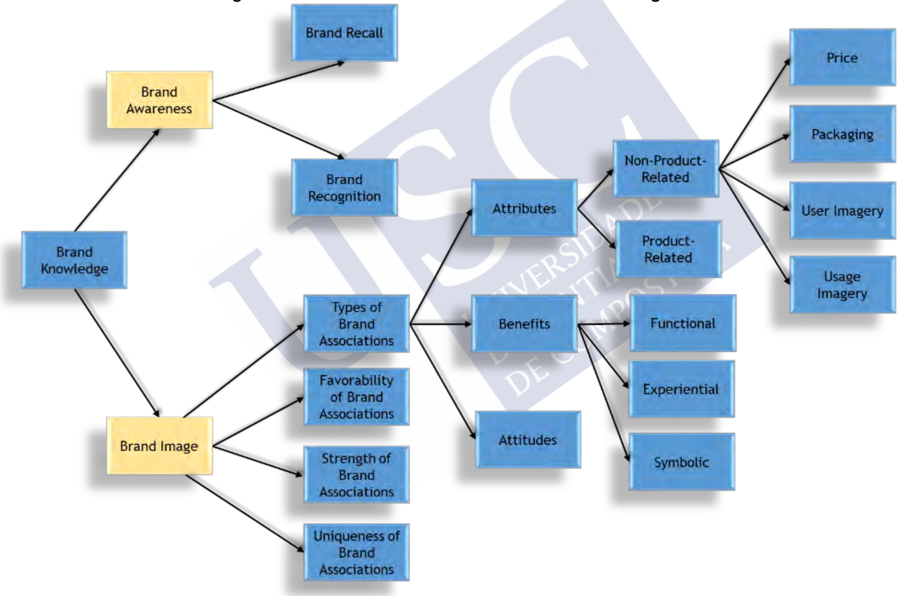
Consequently, these marketing advantages can be translated into higher consumer preference, higher purchase intentions and, on a long term perspective, important benefits from both consumer and organization. In fact, the popularity of the study of brand equity can be simply explained by the fact that researchers, practitioners, managers and strategist have realized, for a long time now, that brands are one of the most important and valuable assets that an organization can own.

2.3.1 Customer-based Brand Equity

Keller (1993) defines consumer-based brand equity as the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand. The author divides the concept of brand knowledge into brand awareness and brand image (or associations). As shown in the Figure 4, brand awareness is divided in brand recall and brand recognition, whereas brand image is seen as a combination of strength, uniqueness and favourability associations, as well as different types of associations based on attributes, benefits and attitudes.

In a different approach, Aaker (1991, 1992, 1996) conceptualizes consumer-based brand equity on a four main dimensions' viewpoint, where is included brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality and brand associations (Figure 5). In the same figure, it is possible to distinguish seventeen different ways of how these four assets create value (five, if we consider "other proprietary brand assets"), with special attention by the author in including both attitudinal and behavioural perspectives. Therefore, Aaker's conceptualization is focused not only on the consumer's perceptions but also in the possible behavioural manifestations as a result of those perceptions.

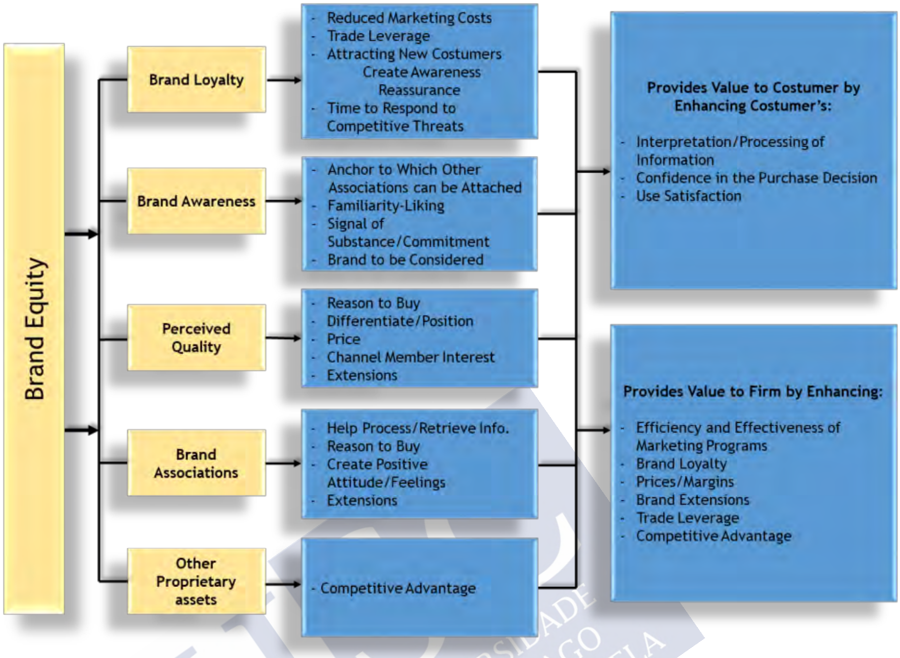
Figure 4. Dimensions of brand knowledge



Source: Keller (1993)

For their importance as fundamental assets that create value, we will further on explore the notions of perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand awareness and brand associations.

Figure 5. How brad equity generates value



Source: adapted from Aaker (1991)

2.3.1.1 Perceived Quality

Perceived quality can be defined as the perception that the consumers have in regards to the overall quality or superiority of the product/service relatively to the existing and relevant alternatives (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1998). Hence, perceived quality is seen as an overall evaluation based on the perceptions that the consumers have, in terms of what constitutes the quality of a product and how the brand is evaluated in that dimension.

Aaker (1996) considers perceived quality as a brand association that is elevated to the status of brand asset because: (1) from all brand associations, perceived quality is the only that drives to financial performance; (2) perceived quality is usually a fundamental strategic thrust of a business; (3) perceived quality is linked to, and often drives, other aspects of how the brand is perceived. Perceived quality is also an evaluation of the brand identity impact and even when the brand identity is defined by functional benefits, the perceptions of those benefits are intimately related with the perceived quality (Aaker, 1996).

In addition, perceived quality can be important in providing a reason to buy to the customer and also in positioning and differentiating the brand, locating the brand in the perceived quality dimension. Besides this, price management can also be influenced by this dimension, in the point of view that a perceived quality advantage in the marketplace can lead to the option of exploring premium prices.

Nevertheless, perceived quality should be explored having basic quality management principles as background. In this framework, Kotler (1994) refers that:

- Quality should be perceived by the customer
- Quality should be reflected in all the company's activities and not only on its products
- Quality requires total commitment by all workers
- Quality requires high quality partners
- Quality can always be improved
- Quality improvements sometimes only require small steps
- Quality not always leads to higher costs
- Quality is necessary but not always sufficient
- Quality orientation cannot save a bad product

2.3.1.2 Brand Awareness

Some brands are stronger than others and that strength is intimately connected to the level of awareness that the brand has in the marketplace. Consequently, a weak brand will not be known by its market, whereas a strong brand will be known by most users/consumers and, hopefully, by the potential users/consumers.

In this framework, Aaker (1996) considers brand awareness as the strength of a brand's presence in the consumers' mind. This awareness can be seen as the ability that the potential buyer has to recognize or recall that a brand is a member of a certain product category (Aaker, 1991). Keller (1998) also supports this viewpoint stating that brand awareness is related to the strength of the resulting brand node or trace in memory, reflecting the consumer's ability to identify the brand under different conditions.

Both authors also agree that brand awareness is very much related with brand recognition and brand recall. Brand recognition can be seen as a reflecting familiarity with the brand gained from past exposure (Aaker, 1996) or the ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand when given the brand as a cue (Keller, 1993, 1998). Brand recall is the consumer ability to retrieve the brand from memory when given a hint like the product category, the need in a specific product category, or a specific usage or purchase situation (Keller, 1998).

Keller (2003) also refers the importance of brand awareness in the consumer decision making presenting three different perspectives: (1) brand awareness provides to the brand the possibility of being part of the group of brands that receive consideration for a potential purchase; (2) brand awareness can affect brands in the consideration group and, moreover, in low involvement decision settings a minimum level of brand awareness can represent a sale, even if the consumer does not have the most well-formed attitude; (3) brand awareness influences the formation and the strength of brand associations on the brand image.

Summarizing, brand awareness has a strong presence on customer-based brand equity. Customer-based brand equity is only possible when the consumer is in possession of high levels of awareness that usually derives from a strong familiarity and favourable and unique associations towards the brand.

2.3.1.3 Brand Loyalty

Oliver (1999, p. 392) defines loyalty as a "deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour". This way, brand loyalty is seen as a favourable attitude towards the brand, reflected in consisting purchase over time. Moreover, brand loyalty is seen as a fundamental concept in brand management, since the attachment that customers have towards a brand can be linked to corporate performance. This happens because a base of loyal consumers can generate predicted sales and profit, whereas without these loyal customers a brand is vulnerable or only has value in its potential to create loyal customers (Aaker, 1996).

2.3.1.4 Brand Associations

Analysing the Figure 4, we can see that brand associations are closely interrelated with brand image. While brand image can be seen as "perceptions about a brand as reflected by the cluster of associations that consumers connect to the brand name in memory" (del Río, Vasquez & Iglesias, 2001, p. 2), brand associations can be seen as the "informational nodes linked to the brand node in memory" containing the "meaning of the brand for consumers" (del Río et al., 2001, p. 2). Therefore, brand associations are seen as all the links that exist between the brand and the nodes that exist in the consumer's memory.

As seen in Figure 4, Keller (1993) divides brand associations in three different categories: attributes, benefits and attitudes. Attributes are descriptive features that characterize the product or service and can be divided in product-related or non-product related attributes. Product-related attributes are defined by Keller (1993) as the necessary ingredients for performing the product or service, as these are related to the product's physical composition or service requirements.

Regarding benefits, these are the personal value that the consumers attach to the product or service attributes, and are basically what the consumers think in regards to what the product or service can do for them. According to Keller (1993), benefits can be divided in: (1) functional benefits (intrinsic advantages of product/service consumption usually corresponding to product-related attributes); (2) experiential benefits (what it feels to use the product/service and it is related to sensory pleasure, variety or cognitive stimulation); (3) symbolic benefits (extrinsic advantages or product/service consumption, usually related with underlying needs such as social approval, personal expression or self-esteem).

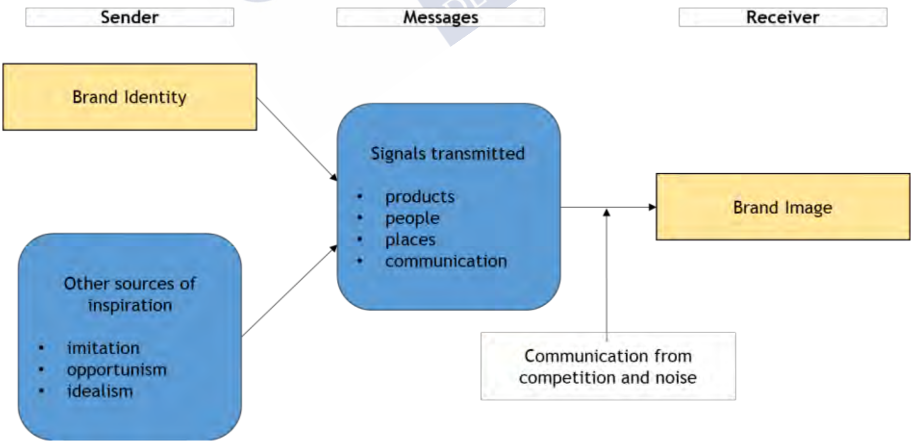
Therefore, and according to Figure 4, brand associations create value in a variety of ways, for example, by helping consumers to process information, differentiating the brand, generating reasons to buy, giving favourable attitudes and feelings or providing a basis for brand extensions.

2.4 The Brand Image and Brand Identity

Due to some similarity and ambiguity in the literature, we consider import to establish a proper differentiation between the concept of brand image and the concept of brand equity. According to what was previously explored in this work and according to authors such as Kirmani & Zeithaml (1993), brand equity should be seen as a managerial concept, where managers stipulate strategies with the purpose of achieving strong and positive brand equity for their products or services, whereas the concept of brand image relates to the perceptions that the consumer holds towards the brand. Although these distinctions, both concepts are interconnected because brand image constitutes a fundamental concept for managers that try to build brand equity for their products or services.

Moreover, Aaker (1996) defines brand identity as a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create and maintain. These associations represent what the brand stands for and imply a promise to customers. Aaker (1996) refers also that brand identity should help establish a relationship between the brand and the customer by generating a value proposition involving functional, emotional and self-expressive benefits.

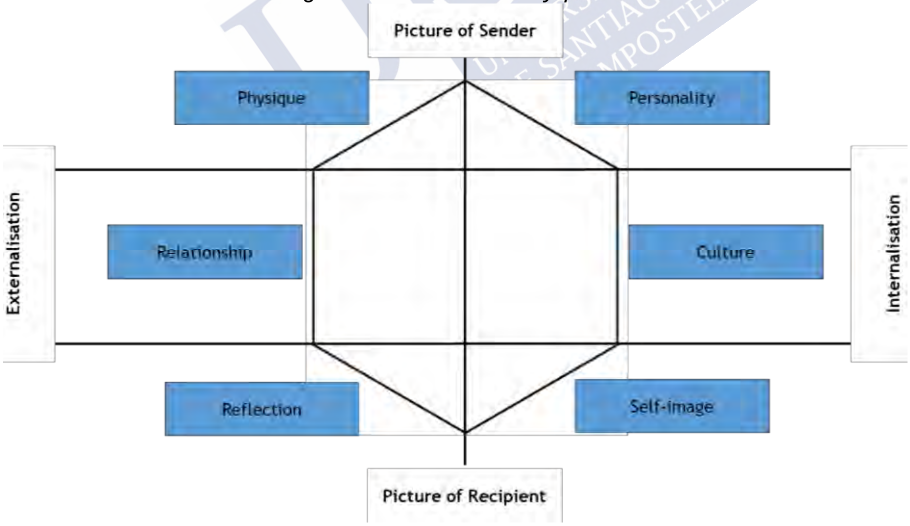
Figure 6. Brand Identity and Brand Image



Source: Kapferer (2012)

Kotler, Keller, Brady, Goodman & Hansen (2009) define brand identity as the way a company aims to identify or position itself or its products or service, while brand image is seen as the way the consumer actually perceives this aim. In addition, Kotler et al. (2009) refer that for the right image to be established in the mind of the consumer, the brand identity should be present in every marketing mix variable, hence, it should be diffused in everything that the company does, from staff behaviour, to the design of annual reports, brochures, catalogues, packaging, company decor and so on. This way, Kapferer (2012) presents a crucial distinction between the two concepts, which is demonstrated in Figure 6. Analysing the Figure 6, it can be concluded that brand identity is on the sender's side, while brand image is on the receiver's side. Therefore, brand identity should be seen as a precedent of image. Since brand image refers to how the consumer decodes the signals that emanate from products and services and, therefore, is both result and interpretation by the consumer, identity can be seen as what exactly the company is trying to project (Kapferer, 2012).

Figure 7. Brand identity prism



Source: Kapferer (2008)

In this framework, Kapferer (2008) created what the author calls the "brand identity prism" (Figure 7) that identifies six major categories or facets that compose the brand identity concept - physique, personality, culture, relationship, reflection and self-image – that will be further explained:

- **Physique** - refers to the physical and tangible qualities and specificities of the product. The physical attributes and benefits will be important to raise awareness in the consumer mind as well to work as the tangible added value.
- **Personality** - the author refers to the traditional concept of brand personality where a set of human characteristics is attached to the brand. The brand personality is a strategy used by marketers that aims to achieve a psychological function, where the consumer is able to be identified with the brand or it is able to project himself into to it.
- **Culture** - culture represents an ideal, values or ideology shared between the brand and the consumer. Culture provides meaning to the brand along with a vision of the world that exists in order to inspire the consumer. The author considers culture as the more important facet of brand identity.
- **Relationship** - Relationship is seen as the facet that defines the symbolic mode of conducts that most of the consumers associate to the brand (e.g. associations with luxury, charm, friendliness, ostentation, etc.)
- **Reflection** - brand reflection is seen as a technique that the brand uses in order to build a reflection or image of the brand's consumer or potential consumer. Besides feeling identified with the brand, the consumer can use the brand to build its own identity, using also the brand to reflect what he/she wishes to be.
- **Self-Image** – self-image is described as the brand speaking to our self-image, this means that through the consumer's attitudes towards the brand the consumer develops an inner relationship with itself.

2.5 DESTINATION BRANDING

Branding and brand management research areas have been receiving special attention in the last two decades from both marketing academics and practitioners (Hankinson, 2001). The recognized impact and importance of brands in the organizations performances has led to an increasing interest of applying branding theories in sectors that traditionally are not dependent of marketing management in their products or services configuration, such as geographical locations like countries, regions or cities (Hankinson, 2001).

In a competitive and saturated marketplace, with 194 nations competing for a share of the tourist's heart, mind and wallet (Balakrishnan, 2009), tourism destinations need more than ever to differentiate themselves from the competition in order to reduce substitutability, raise awareness, creating unique propositions and authentic emotional connections with the tourists.

All destinations claim nowadays to have a unique culture and heritage, the friendliest people, amazing attractions and scenery, or customer focused services, but in fact these aspects are no longer differentiators of the tourism destinations (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009; Morgan et al., 2002;). Because the competition is tremendous, many destinations are now aware of the need of creating and implementing branding strategies in order to create a unique identity that will allow them to differentiate the destination from their competitors, standing out from the crowd and competing for attention in the marketplace (Morgan et al., 2002).

In this framework, many destinations with the purpose of capturing the consumer's attention have decided to engage in marketing strategies focused in branding the destination's experience, rather than just the physical attributes of the destination (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009). Hence, it is important to acknowledge that destination branding represents nowadays a powerful tool that answers to many of the needs that most destinations have while providing, at the same time, solutions for several problems that these destinations suffer from.

2.5.1 The Concept of Destination Branding

Blain, Levy & Ritchie (2005, p. 331) defined destination branding as:

> (1) the marketing activities that support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates a destination; (2) that convey the promise of a

> memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; (3) and that serve to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience, all with the intent purpose of creating an image that influences consumer's decisions to visit the destination in question, as opposed to an alternative one.

Anholt (2003, p. 214) prefers to define place or destination branding as:

> (j̃) a plan for defining the most realistic, competitive and compelling strategic vision for the country, region or city and then the vision has to be fulfilled and communicated to the market.

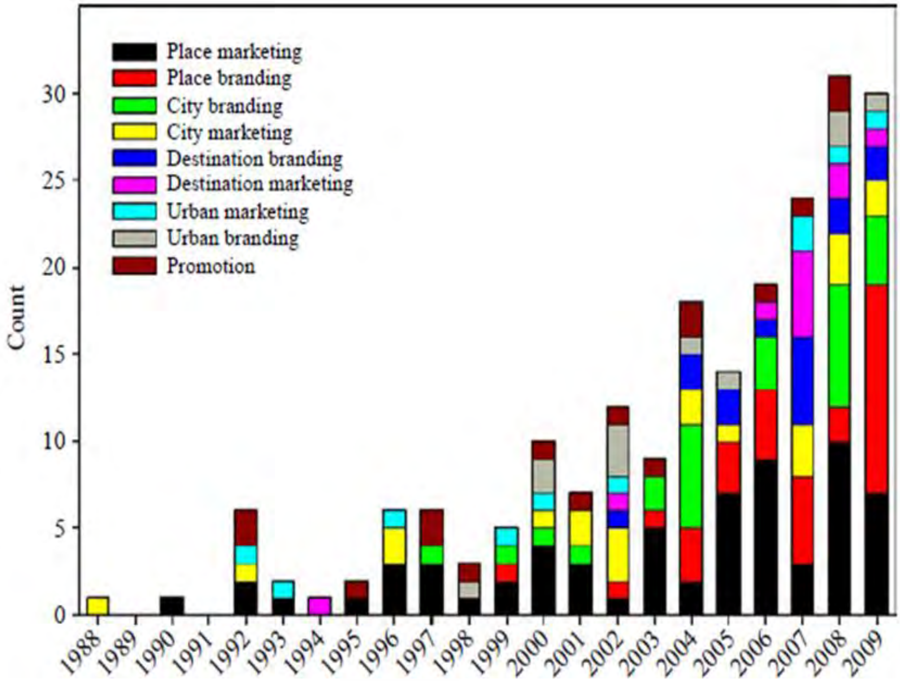
Cai (2002, p. 722) defines destination branding as:

> (j̃) selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it through positive image building. A brand element comes in the form of a name, term, logo, sign, design, symbol, slogan, package, or a combination of these, of which the name is the first and foremost reference (j̃) unlike typical goods and services the name of the destination brand is fixed by the geographical name of the place.

Even though it is still relatively recent the acknowledgement that brands have something extremely beneficial to offer to tourism destinations, these destinations have always been brands in the viewpoint of the marketing concept and most of them (independently of the life cycle phase, dimension or age) really have a perceived brand image with more or less attractiveness (Anholt, 2003). This means that although some destinations do not manage their assets like a brand, the consumers still have a perceived brand image that is attached to the destination's name, and this can be consider as a shortcut to some sort of associations and pieces of information.

Although not always being distinguished in the literature, the concept of destination brand image is not a synonym of destination branding (Cai, 2002; Park & Petrick, 2006), despite the fact that the concept is widely considered an important part of a brand, one that according to Kotler & Gertner (2002) is capable of influence the consumer's decision in different aspects such as shopping, investment, changing residence or tourism destination choice. Plus, as shown before, branding summarily aims to raise awareness, create beneficial and positive perceptions with the purpose of impacting attitudes, influence behaviours and ultimately to lead to a sale or to a consumer's purchase.

Figure 8. Different conceptual contexts in city branding research domain



Source: Lucarelli & Berg (2011)

Critical to the creation of a destination brand is the identification of the brand's values, the translation of those values into an emotionally appealing personality, and the identification of the target market in order to efficiently deliver the message and create a durable destination brand (Morgan et al., 2002; Morgan & Pritchard, 2006). In addition, according to Gilmore (2002) the brand, if correctly defined, should represent the core values, ideology, reputation and the reason to be of the organization or the destination. Gilmore (2002) also points out a paradigm shift concerning branding that can also be applied to destination branding. This shift comes in the moment where the brand is placed at the heart of the organization, and not only at the responsibility of a marketing department where the brand is communicated through advertising and promotional activities.

Also it is crucial in the branding of destinations to recognize the cultural characteristics of the destination, therefore, understanding the people that live in that place, focusing on how a shared sense of place is constituted and experienced, always bearing in mind that this sense of place reflects some unique elements of the place experience such as the atmosphere, local habitudes and communal practices (Campelo, Aitken, Thyne & Gnoth, 2014).

Cities are a good example of how branding has impacted the cities management. Figure 8 illustrates an exponential rise of studies, in the last twenty years, regarding how cities are able to manage their attributes, identifying, creating and communicating them to their target markets (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011).

Additionally, Lucarelli & Berg (2011), in their analysis of 217 research studies on city branding (including destination branding studies), point out that, although it is possible to observe that the marketing paradigm is still more frequent than the branding paradigm, the paradigms of place and city marketing are continuously falling in disuse to the detriment of place and city branding. This represents a paradigm shift where brands now represent added value through the most holistic entity possible.

Paradoxically, although destination branding has been subject of great interest in the last years and a common marketing activity in several destinations around the world, it is also true that frequently many marketing specialists have seen destination branding as a simple mainstream product branding extension, or as simple “spatially extended products”, ignoring the need to adapt the traditional branding literature to the destinations unique contexts (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). In this framework, some authors like Cai, Gartner & Munar (2009) are of the opinion that destination branding research should have a much more multidisciplinary approach outside of the conventional marketing approach. Cai et al. (2009) go even further, they predicate that destination branding should be free from the “shackles of marketing”, dominated by conventional economic theories of rationality such as the 4 Ps (product, price, place and promotion), and more open to multidisciplinary scenarios like sociocultural approaches where the tourist is seen as a consumer, but also as a social actor seeking experiences at the destination while developing continuous processes of social interaction during those experiences.

Additionally, this opinion finds support in the findings of Stepchenkova & Mills (2010) that in the analysis of 152 destination image related articles has found two main research trends: (1) the concept of DI in a broader context (that includes multidisciplinary approaches like sociocultural, consumer behaviour, environmental and sociological approaches, among others); and (2) the behavioural component of DI.

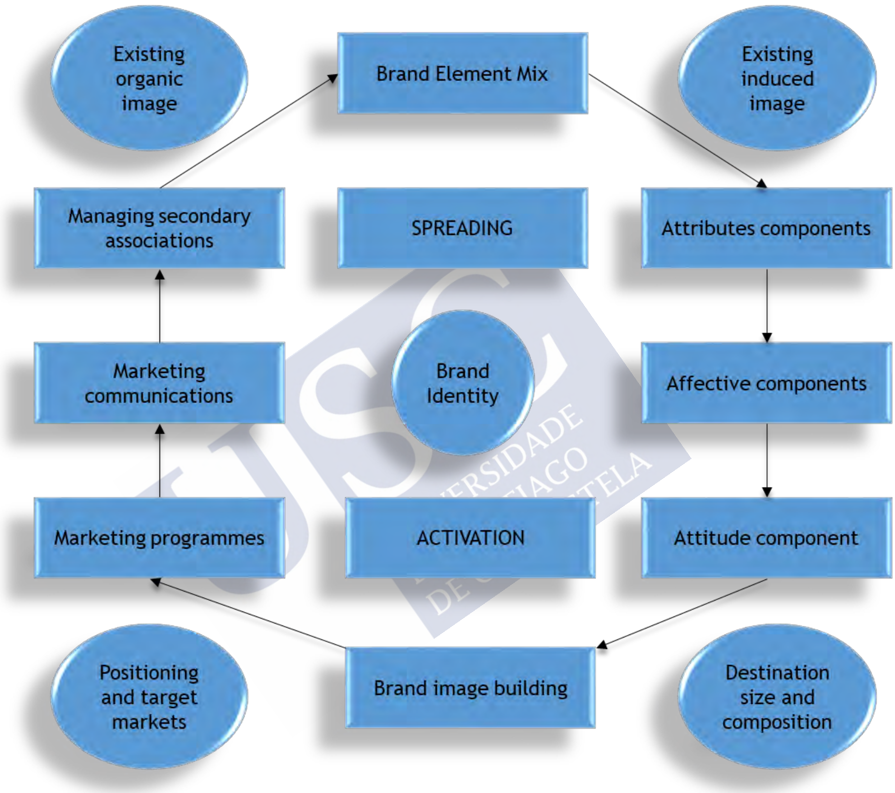
2.5.2 The Destination Branding Model

Few authors have developed theoretical models in the last years with the purpose of including the concepts and elements that are necessary for the most effective and consistent strategies regarding destination branding (e.g., Cai, 2002; Baker, 2007; Boo, Busser & Baloglu, 2009; Garcia, Gomez & Molina, 2012; Qu, Kim & Im, 2011).

For the purpose of this work, it was considered the most consistent model the one presented by Cai (2002), because of its overall multidimensionality and multi-level conceptual framework. Moreover, it was also considered that no destination branding strategy can be complete if it does not include the need to build memorable and unique experiences, in order to establish authentic emotional links with the consumers as suggested by many authors (Morgan et al., 2002). Therefore, it was also considered the relevant approach from Hudson & Ritchie (2009) (Figure 10).

In Cai's (2002) model (Figure 9), the destination branding process revolves around a central axis that is formed by the brand element mix, the brand identity and the brand image building. In this model the process starts with choosing the brand elements such as slogans or logos in order to identify the destination and start the formation of strong brand associations (right hand side of the Figure 9) formed by attributes, affective and attitude components. After this, the attention goes to the building of the desired image, with a special concern that this image should be coherent with the destination's brand identity. Brand image and brand identity should also be consistent and coherent with elements such as the marketing programs, the marketing communications and the secondary associations (left hand side of Figure 9).

Figure 9. A model of destination branding



Source: Cai (2002)

Furthermore, Hudson & Ritchie (2009) propose a four step framework (Figure 10) for building a memorable brand experience: (1) assessing the destination brand's current situation; (2) developing brand identity and brand promise; (3) communication the brand promise; and (4) measuring effectiveness of the brand building exercise.

Summarily, the first step can be seen as a market's research in order to assess how relevant is the brand in the market and also in comparison with its competitors, so then the core values and the brand can be established.

The second step concerns brand identity and brand promise. Is this phase the destination needs to explore the brand personality and its interaction with the target market, focusing on emotional and functional attributes and benefits in order to provide an expectation of experience.

Figure 10. Building the destination brand experience

Source: Hudson & Ritchie (2009)

In the third step the brand promise needs to be communicated in all marketing programs, activities and communications. Ultimately, the fourth and last step concern one of the most important (and frequently undervalued) tasks, which is the measurement of the effectiveness of the brand. Monitoring, evaluating and measuring the impacts, perceptions and reactions of the market towards the brand is absolutely crucial to strengthen the brand. According to Blain et al. (2005) almost half the DMO's did not quantitatively measure visitor perceptions. Hence, many DMO's did not know if their branding strategies were working. Accordingly, the measurement of the effectiveness of the brand exercise allows destination managers to embrace changes in their brands if necessary, as well as to adapt their brands in agreement to the tourist's feelings, reactions and opinion, therefore, promoting market orientation.

2.5.3 Place, City and Destination Branding

We consider crucial to define and differentiate some concepts that are quite common in the branding literature regarding countries, regions or cities. Concepts like place, city and destination branding are not synonymous, although it seems that some of the branding theories can be applied, to some extent, to all three concepts. Nevertheless, the use of the term "destination branding" frequently is the cause of some confusion involving other terms such as "place branding" or "nation branding" (Anholt, 2010).

Basically, place brand represents a more holistic concept, where all segments or divisions of the place are integrated and coherently managed as one place brand or location brand. This way, although the place brand is not strictly related to tourism, tourism is one of the segments included in the place brand. Therefore, besides being a summation of the location's infrastructures, people, industries and quality of life, the place or location brand should also be a vision for the future that counts with the stakeholders' support (Kerr, 2006). In addition, Hankinson (2005) considers that branding a country, for example, is different from promoting tourism. Although tourism plays one of the most important roles in nation branding and in a country's external affairs, this is just part of the whole (Hankinson, 2005).

Figure 11. The nation brand hexagon

Source: Anholt (2005)

In this framework, Anholt (2005) created the "place brand hexagon" in order to include all sectors involved in place branding (Figure 11). This hexagon includes aspects revolving around nation brand strategy such as tourism promotion, people, culture, policy, inward investments and brands exportation. Hence, place branding is focused on issues that include the all sphere of the place including tourism, immigration, economy, investment, exportation, trade, politics or simply attracting people to the country, region or city to live, visit, work or study.

Because the term "place" can be used to describe on a country, a region or a city, we can have country or nation brands, region brands and city brands. Consequently, this means that these brands represent the integration of all segments of the place in question and, therefore, constitute a holistic brand that is also defined by the geographic typology of the place. Thus, city branding can be considered as place branding specifically applied to the cities context.

Moreover, the term "destination branding" always seems to carry a tourism perspective (Govers & Go, 2009) as previously defined. In this context and from a theoretically point of view, destination branding can be seen as a segment, sub-area or sub-sector of the place brand strategy.

2.5.4 Branding Products/Services and Tourism Destinations

Previous review and analysis was focused on some of the classic brand theories that are traditionally applied to product or service brands. Nonetheless, it is relevant to also analyse the differences between the classic product brand theory and destination brands. Some of the major differences are straightforward and immediately identifiable.

In the work of Frost (2004), it is possible to find some of those differences. The author quotes Kotler referring a basic, yet critical, understanding of destination branding, which translates the fact that after launching a product, companies are able to modify the product in response to the consumers' demand. Destinations, however, have much more limitations in modifying their brands. Besides not being able to change environmental elements (e.g., weather, beaches, mountains), and due to the existence of multiple stakeholders that participate in the destination's product (e.g., government authority, public organizations, private organizations), destination brand managers have less or no control over some crucial elements of the destination brand.

In the same work, Frost (2004) quotes Professor David Gertner referring that products can be discontinued, modified, withdrawn from the market, re-launched, re-positioned or replaced by improved products, whereas places or destinations don't have these tools available and, additionally, many of the problems concerning destinations can have its origin on structural problems that can take a long time to fix.

The process of building destination brands is a hard and complex task as it differs substantially from the typical brands of products and services (Hankinson, 2001). The several differences between managing and branding a commercial product/service, and managing and branding a territory are summarized by Hankinson (2007). According to Hankinson (2007), some of these differences are: (1) the co-production of the place product; (2) the co-consumption of the place product; (3) the variability of the place product; (4) the legal definition of place boundaries; (5) the administrative overlap; (6) the political accountability.

1. By **co-production of the place product**, Hankinson (2007) means that the territory, in this case the tourism destination, is co-produced by a multiplicity of public and private organisations. What differs from the classic marketing product/service theory, is that this territory has evolved, at least in a great part of its history, in an unplanned way. Because of this, the branding of tourism destinations begins with a product that it is not new, thus, it can actually be considered as a re-branding exercise.

2. The **co-consumption of the place product** has to do with the fact that the tourism destination is simultaneous consumed by consumers with different expectations. This way, the benefits that the consumers experience are mediated by their interaction (passive or active) with other consumers that may not seek the same benefits.

3. The **variability of the place product** refers to the fact that each consumer's experience of the destination is individually aggregated from the variety of services and experiences offered. Even though the variability is a characteristic that it is present in every experience of an individual service, when it comes to the place product this situation tends to be aggravated due to the existence of multiple

services and the involvement of different market segments. Because of this, destination managers have little or no control over the service and brand experiences, when compared to a single service/product manager (Hankinson, 2007; Hankinson, 2009). In the same framework, Morgan et al. (2002) refer that a destination is substantially different from other products, as it is not a single product at all, but a bundle of different components such as establishments, tourism attractions, entertainment, natural environment, among others. Consequently, a destination is a much more multi-dimensional than a typical consumer product (Boo et al., 2009). Fan (2006) refers that this multi-dimensionality can be translated in a variety of factors and associations, such as:

- Place (geography, tourist attractions, natural resources, local products, etc.)
- People (race, ethnic groups)
- History
- Culture
- Language
- Political and economic systems
- Social institutions
- Infrastructure
- Famous persons
- Picture or image

Gartner and Konecnick (2011) also point out the lack of predictability associated with tourism destination brands. Unsurprisingly, one of the best known issues with climate dependent destinations is seasonality. Also, the local weather is an example of lack of predictability, since the weather conditions can be different from what it is expected for that specific season.

4. The **legal definition of place boundaries** can present difficulties to place managers. Place boundaries are established by national governments and frequently these represent difficulties in defining a territory as a single and unique product. It is also frequent the case where the destination might not represent the ideal product, leading to the necessity of the destination marketing managers combining two or more destinations in order to present a more attractive offer.

5. The **administrative overlap** happens when governmental organizations promote contradictory and quarrelsome marketing strategies, presenting a harder task for destination marketing. A good example of this, is when there are contradictory strategies between a regional authority and a local city/town hall. This lack of coherence can create confusion between tourists, resulting in an example of fragile relationships between stakeholders.

6. **Political accountability** refers to the fact that the elected governments determine regional politics, as well as the DMO's structure for its implementation. Nevertheless, those decisions and strategies can change when priorities and interests also change. Commonly, politics reflect a short time strategy, since the strategies are very much attached with the interests related with the period of the next elections. These time horizons are incompatible with a long term commitment, which is necessary for the development and management of a destination brand. Morgan et al. (2002) point out that a destination brand's lifespan is more of a long-term proposition than the career of most politicians.

Gartner & Konecnik (2011) are also of the opinion that one of the major differences between a product brand and a destination brands is the experiential factor. This means that product brands frequently have more tangible characteristics that can be analysed and quantitatively measured. Additionally, products are able to offer test periods and full refund options, reducing the consumer's risk in the purchase. This is obviously something that does not happen with destination brands, where the product is non-refundable, experimental, and where the product might be different to every different consumer with different expectations. In this perspective, it is possible to affirm the existence of more risk associated with a destination brand, in comparison to the classic product brand. Moreover, it is important to refer that tourism destinations are rarely under control of a central authority and, consequently, a government is not usually in a position to dictate politics to the stakeholders.

Regarding the lack of control of destination managers over the service and brand experiences, it is also crucial to point out that this lack of control is also extended to the use of the destination's name and image. This phenomenon is definitively an enormous difference between traditional brands and destination brands, since the destination managers or the DMO's have no control over the use or abuse of the destination's name or image (Fan, 2006). Hence, since the destination has no control of its own name and image, any third party can use the image for its own advantage or, in some cases, exploit and/or manipulate the brand's name and image to achieve some end that, in the worst case scenario, could be contrary to the destination's desire (Fan, 2006).

2.5.5 Destination Branding and Corporate Branding

As previously seen, managing a product or service brand is very different from managing a destination brand. Tourism destinations are far more complex and multidimensional in its essence than typical goods. Although classic product branding theories like the ones from Aaker, Keller, Kotler, Kapferer or de Chernatony have set the foundations to understand brands in the places and destination's context, many authors are now of the opinion that the classic product branding theories are not sufficient (or need to be adapted) to cover the full range of the places' context.

The uncertainty of applying brand theories to places and destinations, and the recognition of the substantial differences, have led to the need of further conceptual research in the area. Consequently, many authors, supported by recent developments in branding theory, suggest that place and destination branding can benefit from a framework based on the corporate branding perspective (Anholt, 2002; Balakrishnan & Kerr, 2013; Cai, 2002; Hankinson, 2007, 2009; Kavaratzis, 2009; Kerr, 2006; Trueman, Klemm & Giroud, 2004; Virgo & de Chernatony, 2006).

Following the discussion concerning the critical differences between product/service brands and destination brands, in this subchapter it is pretended to establish a bridge between corporate branding and destination branding, thus, providing a conceptual framework more closely related to the destinations' context.

Although there is general consensus in the literature that place branding is even more complex than corporate branding (Balakrishnan

& Kerr, 2013), corporate-level branding offers the closest context to branding theories when applied to the unique context of branding places and destinations (Kavaratzis, 2009). For Aaker (2004) the corporate brand defines the firm that will deliver and stand behind the offering that the customer will buy and use, and represents not only a product but also the entire organization. According to Aaker (2004), the corporate brand should stimulate strong, powerful and credible associations that should be relevant for the products, but even more relevant if those associations visibly represent the corporate organization. Therefore, Aaker (2004) states that a strong corporate brand should be based on: (1) a rich heritage; (2) assets and capabilities; (3) people; (4) values and priorities; (5) local or global frame of reference; (6) citizenship programs; and (7) a performance record.

Knox & Bickerton (2003) define corporate brand as the visual, verbal and behavioural expression of an organization's business model, where rather than conducting practices focusing on the individual product or service, these practices are focused on the organization and on all interactions with multiple stakeholders. In the same framework, Hatch & Schultz (2003) refer that corporate brands can increase visibility, recognition and reputation that the classic product-brand perspective cannot reach. This happens because the corporate brand is focused not only on customer-based images of the organization, but also on the images formed and held by all stakeholders (Hatch & Schultz, 2003). These stakeholders can include:

- employees
- customers
- investors
- suppliers
- partners
- regulators
- special interests
- local communities

Table 5. Differences between classic branding and corporate branding

	Classic Branding	Corporate Branding
Foundation	Individual products are the foundation for most brands	The company or organization is the foundation of the brand
Conceptualization	▪ Marketing ▪ Outside-and-in-thinking	▪ Cross disciplinary ▪ Combines inside-out with outside-in thinking
Stakeholders	Consumers and costumers	All stakeholders
Responsible for branding	Marketing and communication functions	All functions driven by top management
Time perspective	Short: product lifecycle	Long: organization lifecycle
Core process	Marketing and communication decide brand promises and marketing/communication mix	Managerial and organizational processes align the company behind brand identity
Key issues	▪ Brand-architecture ▪ Brand positioning ▪ Brand Identity	▪ Brand as a strategic force ▪ Relations between strategic vision, organization culture and stakeholder image ▪ Brand alignment
Difficulties	▪ Difficult to build and sustain product differentiation ▪ Restricted involvement of employees and use of cultural heritage ▪ Limited involvement of stakeholders in communication efforts	▪ Difficult to align internal and external stakeholders ▪ Difficult to create credible and authentic identity ▪ Difficult to involve different subcultures and shifting stakeholders

Source: Schultz (2005)

This multiplicity of stakeholders constitutes one of the most evident common characteristic between corporate brands and destination brands. Other common characteristics, besides both being substantially different from product and service brands, include high level of intangibility and complexity, social responsibility, multiple identities and long-term development (Anholt, 2002).

Table 5 incorporates the main differences between classic branding and corporate branding, according to Schultz (2005). In the same table, it is possible to relate some of the corporate branding concepts with the destination branding context. Aspects described in Table 5 – such as, the foundation (organization as the foundation for the brand); the conceptualization (cross-disciplinary); the stakeholders (all stakeholders); the responsibility for branding (top management); the time perspective (organization's lifecycle); the core process (management and organization's processes align with the brand identity); the key issues –, and even the difficulties, suggest that destination brands are conceptually more close to corporate branding than to product and service brands.

Nevertheless, although the similarities between these two forms of branding, destination brands and corporate brands also differ in various points. Kavaratzis (2009) analysed if places can be treated as corporations. For this question Kavaratzis (2009) presents the major differences (and challenges) in managing place or destination brands when compared to corporate brands. The author points out that places are far more complex than corporations, because of challenging elements such as: projecting image and identity; political responsibility and public interest; the consistency of all communications derived from the place as a whole entity; planning and infrastructure development; the multidimensionality; and the lack of brand ownership. Nevertheless, place and destination brands have something to learn from the corporate marketing theories. Many authors find them to be the best conceptual background to be applied to the context of places and destinations, although, there is still a need of adaptation of those theories and models to the complex, unique and distinctive characteristics of places and destinations (Kavaratzis, 2009).

Chapter 3. Destination Image

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The importance of DI has been widely recognized in the literature, having received large attention from researchers and practitioners in the last decades. By focusing attention to the study of DI, researchers are able to evaluate the destination's brand equity, as well as understand the levels of customer awareness and brand knowledge of the destination (Pan & Li, 2011). Moreover, DI studies can be useful in providing relevant information for positioning strategies and product development, as well as in the assessment of the promotional effectiveness of the destination and in the prediction of the tourist's behavioural intentions (Pan & Li, 2011).

Since the image of a destination consists in a subjective interpretation of the reality made by the tourist (Bigné et al., 2001), the image can be seen as more important than the tangible resources that the destination might have to offer. Since the tourist is motivated to a have a certain consumer behaviour based on perceptions rather than reality (Gallarza et al., 2002), it is possible to affirm that images can be more important than reality.

DI has a crucial role on the travel purchase decision making and has a direct impact on the tourist's satisfaction levels towards the destination and on travel purchase (Chon, 1990). Basically, destinations with strong images are more likely to be considered and chosen during the travel decision making process (Son, 2005). However, DI does not only have influence on the process of choosing a destination, and on the subsequent evaluation of that same destination, but also on the perceived quality and on the tourist's future intentions (Bigné et al., 2001). In addition, there is a strong impact of destination image on tourist loyalty and its three levels of tourist loyalty: attitudinal loyalty (intention to recommend); behavioural loyalty (visit and revisit intention); and composite loyalty (behavioural intentions, the sum of the two previous levels) (Zhang et al., 2014).

Furthermore, DI also sets up criteria for negative aspects, since visitors are confronted with experiences that are quite different from their expectations, their evaluations can be very negative, directly affecting the satisfaction levels (Fairweather & Swaffield, 2002). In this framework, Chon (1990) found strong correlation between image and travel experience based on the evaluative congruity theory (perceived image vs perceived reality). Moreover, Chon (1990) states that positive image and positive travel experience results in a moderate positive evaluation of the destination, whereas a highly positive evaluation occurs if the image was negative and the experience was positive, therefore, highlighting the importance of the consumer's expectations. Consequently, a positive image and a negative experience would result in a very negative evaluation of the destination (Chon, 1990).

3.2 THE CONCEPT OF DESTINATION IMAGE

There is still no consensus in the literature regarding the definition of the DI concept. Similar to the brand image concept that was previously explored, researchers tend to not achieve a common definition of the concept, leading to incomplete, partial or simply inexistent definitions in their studies. In

Table ***6***, it is shown various examples of definitions found in the DI literature that were compiled from the work of Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil (2007a) and Martín & del Bosque (2008). Analysing this table, it can be seen that many authors have their own definition of DI, while others adapt generic definitions of the concept or cite multiple definitions in their work.

One of the most common of the DI definitions is the one from Crompton (1979, p. 18) that identifies DI as the "sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions" that the tourist hold towards the tourism destination. In this case, images tend to represent a simplification of a large set of associations and pieces of information regarding the destination or territory. Authors like Reynold (1965, p. 69), define DI as an image formation process-related mental construct, where DI is seen as "the mental construct developed by a potential visitor on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions; it comes into being through a creative process in which these impressions are elaborated, embellished and ordered."

Table 6. Destination image definitions

Researcher(s)	Definition
Crompton (1979)	Sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination
Bojanic (1991)	Adapts Hunt's (1975) country image: "the impressions that a person or persons hold about a country in which they do not reside"
Chon (1990)	Result of the interaction of a person's beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about a destination
Fakeye & Crompton (1991); Court & Lupton (1997), Ahmed (1991), Leisen (2001)	Adapt Reynolds' (1965) definition: "the mental construct developed by a potential visitor on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions; it comes into being through a creative process in which these impressions are elaborated, embellished and ordered"
Echtner & Ritchie (1991)	The perceptions of individual destination attributes and the holistic impression made by the destination
Dadgostar & Isotalo (1992)	"The overall impression or attitude that an individual acquires of a specific destination. This overall impression is considered to be composed of the tourist's perceptions concerning the relevant qualities of the destination"
Ross (1993)	Adapts Crompton's (1979) definition
Milman & Pizam (1995)	"A sum total of the images of the individual elements or attributes that make up the tourism experience"
Bramwell & Rawding (1996)	Distinguish between projected and received images. Projected image: "the ideas and impressions of a place that are available for people's consideration"
MacKay & Fesenmaier (1997)	"A compilation of beliefs and impressions based on information processing from a variety of sources over time, resulting in an internally accepted mental construct (...) a composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression"
Lubbe (1998)	Adapts Gunn's (1972) image formation theory as the best description

Walmsley & Young (1998)	"A common structure or schema of evaluations that can be used to differentiate between tourism destinations"
Choi, Chan, & Wu (1999,	"People's beliefs, ideas, or impressions about a place"
Sussmann & Unel (1999)	"The result of composite perceptions which are, in turn, dictated by attitudes to result in a positive or negative image"
Baloglu & McCleary (1999a)	An individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings, and global impressions about a destination
Tapachai &Waryszak (2000)	Beneficial image: "perceptions or impressions of a destination held by tourists with respect to the expected benefit or consumption values including functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional benefits of a destination. These perceptions/impressions in turn lead to the decision to visit a country as a vacation destination"
Coshall (2000)	"The individual's perceptions of the characteristics of destinations"
MacKay & Fesenmaier (2000,	"A composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression"
Day, Skidmore & Koller (2002)	Adapt Kotler, Heider, and Rein's (1993) definition: "Place image is the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that people have of a place"
Sonmez & Sirakaya (2002,	Adapt Crompton's (1979) definition: "a mental conception held in common by members of a group and symbolic of a basic attitude and orientation"
O'Leary & Deegan (2003)	Identify Echtner and Ritchie's (1993) definition of image components as the most comprehensive image definition: "Destination image comprises attribute, holistic, functional, psychological, common and unique components"
Bigné, Sánchez & Sánchez (2001)	The subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist
Kim & Richardson (2003)	Totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time
Ahmed (1996); Alhemoud & Armstrong (1996); .Baloglu & Brinberg (1997); Chen &Kerstetter (1999); Dann (1996); Fakeye & Crompton (1991);; Rezende-Parker, Morrison & Ismail (2003)	Cite multiple definitions

Baloglu (2001); Baloglu & Mangaloglu (2001); Chen (2001); Chen & Hsu (2000); Chon (1991); Gartner (1993); Joppe, Martin & Waalen (2001); Litvin & Kar (2004); McLellan & Fouschee (1983); Murphy (1999); Pearce (1982); Rittichainuwat, Qu & Brown (2001); Schroeder (1996); Selby & Morgan (1996); Sirgy & Su (2000);Young (1999)	No specific definition.

Source: adapted from Tasci et al. (2007a) and Martín & del Bosque (2008)

Also, Crompton (1979) refers that DI can be seen as mental conception held in common by members of a group and symbolic of a basic attitude and orientation. Milman & Pizam (1995, p. 21) definition is more focused on the attributes of the destination as the authors define DI as "sum total of the images of the individual elements or attributes that make up the tourism experience". Additionally, Echtner & Ritchie (1991, p. 43) define DI as "the perceptions of individual destination attributes and the holistic impression made by the destination", exploring a point of view where the DI is seen as more than the destination's attributes and its tangible aspects, hence, in order to capture the multidimensionality of the concept, researchers should consider the destination's holistic and unique components. Sussmann & Unel (1999, p. 211) defined DI as "the result of composite perceptions which are, in turn, dictated by attitudes to result in a positive or negative image". In this definition, the authors make a clear distinction between image and perceptions, and include the role of attitudes on the destination's image evaluation, resulting in a concept, as stated by Bigné et al. (2001, p. 607), that can be seen as "a subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist".

3.3 DESTINATION IMAGE CONSTRUCTS AND MEASURES

3.3.1 Destination Image Constructs

The DI literature is also not consensual when analysing the DI construct. Nevertheless, the literature shows that there have been two major different approaches in conceptualizing the DI construct (Zhang et al., 2014). The first approach can be referred as the “three-dimensional continuum approach” and the second as the “three-component approach” (Zhang et al., 2014).

3.3.1.1 The Three-Dimensional Continuum

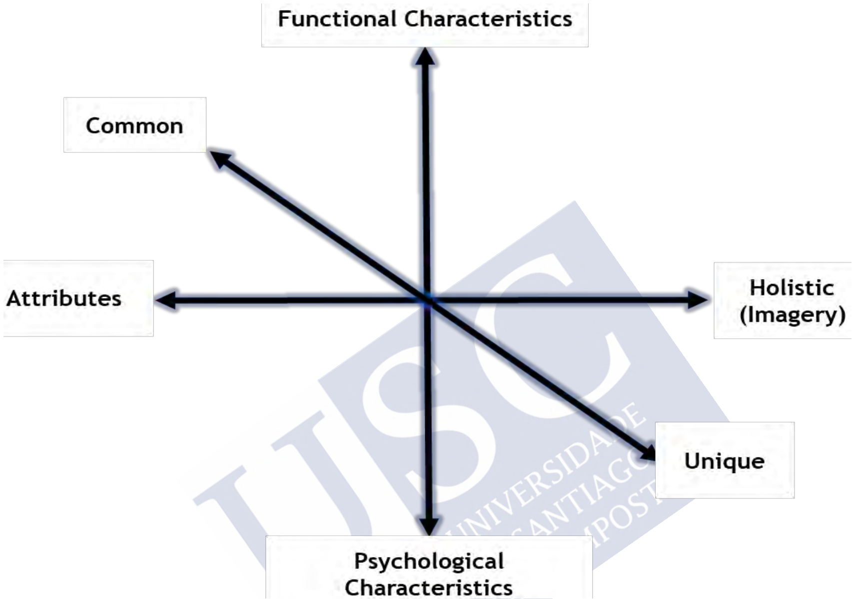
The three-dimensional continuum approach (Figure 12) was suggested by Echtner & Ritchie (1991, 1993) and it is constituted by three main dimensions or components: (1) attribute-holistic; (2) functional-psychological; and (3) common-unique. The attribute-holistic dimension refers to the perceptions of directly observable or measurable tangible attributes of the destination, plus the holistic perceptions and impressions of the destination. The functional-psychological dimension includes the functional, measurable and tangible components of the destination (e.g., prices, climate, accommodation, attractions), and the intangible and psychological characteristics of the destination (e.g. friendliness, atmosphere, safety). The common-unique dimension is synonym of generic common features and unique characteristics of the place. Echtner & Ritchie (1991) explain that the DI can include ratings on common-functional characteristics (prices, climate, accommodation, etc.), as well as common-psychological characteristics (friendliness, safety, fame). On the other hand, DI can also contain functional characteristics such as features and events, that can be considered unique, as well as unique psychological characteristics like the aura, feeling or atmosphere of the destination.

In this framework, Jenkins (1999) considers four possibilities of the common-unique continuum:

- **Common-functional** - attributes include traits by which most destinations can be compared.
- **Common-psychological** - consist of the friendliness of the locals, notoriety or beauty of the landscape

- **Unique-functional attributes** - consist of the icons and special events that form part of a DI (e.g., Eiffel Tower, Taj Mahal)
- **Unique-psychological attributes** - include feelings, auras or atmosphere, for example, places of religious pilgrimage.

Figure 12. The components of destination image



Source: Echtner & Ritchie (1993)

3.3.1.2 The Three-Component Approach

Although the important theoretical background offered by Echtner & Ritchie (1991, 1993), the three-component approach constitutes the most common theoretical framework in DI literature (Gartner, 1993). Regarding the three-component approach, researchers seem to agree that the DI construct contains at least two different dimensions or components: (1) rational or perceptual/cognitive component; and (2) emotional or affective component (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Dann, 1996; Gartner, 1993; Mackay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

While the perceptual/cognitive dimension has to do with the knowledge, perceptions, ideas and beliefs that the tourist or potential tourist holds towards the destination attributes, the emotional or affective component refers to the feelings and emotions towards the destination (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

Table 7. Cognitive image and affective image studies in 66 destination image studies

Cognitive Image	Affective Image
Rimmington & Yuksel (1998); Baloglu (2000); Lucio et al. (2006); Castro et al. (2007); Chen & Tsai (2007); Lee & Back (2007); Lin et al. (2007); SiMa (2007); Chi & Qu (2008); Lee et al. (2008); Nadeau et al. (2008); Prayag (2008); Fang (2008); Lan (2008); Alcañiz et al. (2009); Lee (2009a); Lee (2009b); Yang et al.(2009); Prayag (2009); Hu (2009); Guo (2009); Wang et al. (2010); Li et al. (2010); Karim & Chi (2010); McDowall & Ma (2010); Bai & Guo (2010); Hu (2010); Qu et al. (2011); Martin et al. (2011); Ramkissoon & Uysal (2011); Horng et al. (2011); Hahm & Wang (2011); Ramkissoon et al. (2011); Wu et al. (2011); Zhu (2011); Horng et al. (2012); Wang, H. (2012); Wang, Z. (2012); Qiu et al. (2012); Shen (2012); Zhang (2012).	Baloglu (2000); Lee et al. (2005); Lucio et al. (2006); Lin et al. (2007); Lee et al. (2008); Nadeau et al. (2008); Fang (2008); Yang et al. (2009); Li et al. (2010); Hu (2010); Qu et al. (2011); Zhu (2011); Shen (2012)

Source: Zhang et al. (2014)

In addition, many authors (e.g., Chen & Phou, 2013; Gartner, 1993; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Prayag, 2007, 2009) are of the opinion that there is an association between DI (as a result of cognitive and affective elements) and how tourists act towards the destination, leading to the inclusion of a third component that is referred as the conative or behavioural component. In consequence, the conative component has to do with how the tourist acts towards the destination, more precisely, the tourist's intention to visit the destination within a certain time frame (Pike & Ryan, 2004). Moreover, the conative component depends on the images developed during the cognitive and affective stages, representing an action component that results from the previous two stages (Gartner, 1993).

According to Zhang et al. (2014), in an analysis of 66 DI studies, cognitive image was the most frequently researched construct (41 out of 66), whereas affective image was only included in 13 studies out of the 66 (Table 7).

3.3.2 Destination Image Measurement

The methods used to measure DI can be divided in structured and unstructured methods (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Jenkins, 1999). Jenkins (1999, p. 6) defines structured methods as a method where "various common image attributes are specified and incorporated into a standardised instrument and the respondent rates each destination on each of the attributes", using for the effect semantic differential or Likert type scales to obtain answers through the use of closed-ended survey questions. On the other hand, unstructured methods can be described as methods where "the respondent is allowed to freely describe his or her impressions of the destination (j̃) the data is gathered from a number of respondents (j̃) s orting and categorization techniques are then used to determine the image dimensions" (Jenkins, 1999, p. 6). Furthermore, unstructured methods use focus groups, open-ended survey questions, content analysis, or repertory grids to obtain and gather data for the purpose of measuring DI (Jenkins, 1999).

Riley & Love (2000) in a review of the tourism research methods from four major tourism journals (Annals of Tourism Research, Journal of Tourism Research, Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, and Tourism Management) concluded that positivism (quantitative research) is the dominant paradigm in tourism research. In the same framework, Pike (2002) reviewed 142 DI papers and concluded that the majority of the analysed papers (114) used structured techniques to operationalise the DI construct. In addition, Gallarza et al. (2002) and Pike (2002) refer that the most popular data analysis technique in DI research is the factor analysis, mainly because the advancements in data handling methodologies, such as multivariate information reduction techniques like factor analysis, allowed researchers to identify latent dimensions of the DI construct. Additionally, Gallarza et al. (2002) state that very few studies use qualitative techniques as the main technique, whereas there is a more common presence of multivariate and bivariate techniques and the use of seven-point Likert measurement scale.

DI measurement is of course directly affected by how the DI construct is conceptualized, therefore, the use of different conceptualizations explains why different instruments are used to measure the same phenomenon (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). Nevertheless, when reviewing the DI literature, it is possible to assess that quantitative studies are more commonly present in the literature than the qualitative studies, mainly because qualitative studies are more expensive and time consuming (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). Because quantitative studies use structured methods, these are usually easy to administer and simple to code, thus, the results tend to be easier to analyse using statistical techniques (through sophisticated statistical software), which also facilitates comparisons with other destinations (Jenkins, 1999). Hence, all of the previous arguments could explain why cognitive image is the most researched dimension in DI studies, as suggested by Zhang et al. (2014).

The lack of a universal agreement on a reliable scale or methodology to measure DI, lead authors like Beerli & Martin (2004) to propose a framework that includes all cognitive/perceptual attributes or dimensions of a destination that could be subject to measurement. According to Beerli & Martin (2004) all attractions, attributes and factors that can influence DI can be classified in nine different dimensions (Table 8). The attributes should be selected according to the specifications of the destination, its positioning, and the objectives of the research itself (Beerli & Martin, 2004), and each attribute is usually rated on a Likert-type scale.

Regarding the affective image, researchers usually integrate semantic-differential scales to assess the tourist's emotional experience towards the destination (Zhang et al., 2014). For example, Baloglu & McCleary (1999b) used a bipolar semantic-differential scale on 4 items (unpleasant vs pleasant; boring vs exciting; sleepy vs arousing; distressing vs relaxing) to measure the affective image of Turkey, Greece, Italy and Egypt. On every item the respondents were asked to choose the option that would better express their feelings towards the destination.

Table 8. Dimension/Attributes of destination image

Natural Resources	General Infrastructure	Tourist Infrastructure
Weather ▪ Temperature ▪ Rainfall ▪ Humidity ▪ Hours of sunshine Beaches ▪ Quality of seawater ▪ Sandy or rocky beaches ▪ Length of the beaches ▪ Overcrowding of beaches Wealth of countryside ▪ Protected nature reserves ▪ Lakes, mountains, deserts, etc. ▪ Variety and uniqueness of flora and fauna	Development and quality of roads, airports and ports Private and public transport facilities Development of health services Development of telecommunications Development of commercial infrastructure Extent of building development	Hotel and self-catering accommodation ▪ Number of beds ▪ Categories ▪ Quality Restaurants ▪ Number ▪ Categories ▪ Quality Bars, discotheques and clubs Ease of access to destination Excursions at the destination Tourist centers Network of tourist information
Tourist Leisure and Recreation	Culture, History and Art	Political and Economic Factors
Theme parks ▪ Entertainment and sports activities ▪ Golf, fishing, hunting, skiing, scuba diving, etc. ▪ Water parks ▪ Zoos ▪ Trekking ▪ Adventure activities ▪ Casinos ▪ Night Life ▪ Shopping	Museums, historical buildings, monuments, etc. Festival, concerts, etc. Handicraft Gastronomy Folklore Religion Customs and ways of life	Political stability Political tendencies Economic development Safety ▪ Crime Rate ▪ Terrorist attacks Prices
Natural Environment	Social Environment	Atmosphere of the Place
Beauty of the scenery Attractiveness of the cities and towns Cleanliness Overcrowding Air and noise pollution Traffic congestion	Hospitality and friendliness of the local residents Underprivilege and poverty Quality of live Language barriers	Luxurious Fashionable Place with a good reputation Family-oriented destination Exotic Mystic Relaxing Stressful Fun, enjoyable Pleasant Boring Attractive or interesting

Source: Beerli & Martin (2004)

Besides cognitive and affective image, overall image is also frequently measured in DI research, for its importance in measuring the holistic impression of a destination and, because of this, it is commonly measured by using a single rating item (Zhang et al., 2014). For this reason, the overall image measurement should not be understood as the sum of cognitive and affective image evaluations (Zhang et al., 2014).

Although quantitative studies are far more common in the DI literature than qualitative studies, authors like Echtner & Ritchie (1991), Jenkins (1999) or Stepchenkova & Morrisson (2008) are of the opinion that this may constitute a problem. The most pointed out disadvantage is that quantitative structured methods do not incorporate the holistic aspects of DI. This happens because structured methodologies force the respondents to think about DI in the terms of the attributes specified by the scales, leaving no option for the respondents to describe their holistic impressions, as well as the unique characteristics of the destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). Moreover, because structured methodologies can be variable, there is the possibility of missing important dimensions on the DI analysis (Jenkins, 1999), in other words, pre-determined attributes may not include attributes, features or dimensions that could be relevant in some specific DI analysis.

As a consequence of this, the proposed methodology by Echtner & Ritchie (1991) suggests that DI should be measured with a combination of both structured and unstructured methods. The authors emphasize that the attribute-based components, that could be tangible and functional or intangible and psychological (this is, the attribute-holistic and functional-psychological dimensions that were previously analysed), and the attributes that are common to all destinations, can be measured by scale items. On the other hand, the holistic dimension could be measured using two open-ended items such as:

- "What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of (destination in question) as a travel destination?"
- "How would you describe the atmosphere or mood that you would expect to experience while visiting (tdestination in question)?"

Also, the uniqueness dimension can be measured using one open-ended item:

- "Please list any distinctive or unique tourist attractions that you can think of in (destination in question)?"

Although many authors have used qualitative or unstructured methodologies to measure at least some dimensions of DI (e.g., Bramwell & Rawding, 1996; Dann, 1996; Day, Skidmore & Koller, 2002; Govers, Go & Kumar, 2007a; Lube, 1998; O' Leary & Deegan, 2005; Reilly, 1990; Ryan & Cave, 2005; Selby & Morgan, 1996; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008) most of the authors tend to use quantitative methodologies possibly because of the disadvantages referred by Jenkins (1999), including the level of detail provided by the respondents that is highly variable, the limited results from statistical analyses and the comparative analyses that are not facilitated by this methodology. Furthermore, the minor contribution of qualitative research to tourism research can also be explained by the financial motive of the tourism industry (Riley & Love, 2000). The tourism industry's viability depends on its economic success, thus, because tourism research frequently reflects this necessity of enhancing financial orientation and economic improvement, quantitative approaches are far more common than qualitative ones, since the latter "may not provide the generalizability necessary to translate the findings into increased visitation and income" (Riley & Love, 2000, p. 181).

3.4 DESTINATION BRAND VS DESTINATION IMAGE

After defining different concepts that are relevant for this work, such as brand or brand image, we also consider fundamental to establish a clear distinction between the concept of destination brand and DI. As previously analysed, it is hard to achieve consensus on the definition (and on many elements) regarding the concept of brand. This lack of common and clear definition seems to create some confusion when defining brand and image, and it is even bigger in the tourism destinations' context (Tasci & Kozak, 2006). As examined before, this happens since it is frequent to find brand definitions in the literature that are actually defining subsets of brands and/or brands characteristics (such as brand equity, brand image, brand personality, etc.) (Wood, 2000), and also due to the complexity intrinsic to the tourism destinations brands.

In this research we consider the concepts of destination brand and DI as two separate concepts, despite of considering them as two interconnected and interrelated concepts. This interconnectedness results from the perspective that in order to create a destination brand it is necessary the building a proper DI and, posteriorly, link it to the brand. As seen before, DI can be described as the sum of perceptions, impressions, beliefs, ideas, attributes that a person holds towards a destination, while also integrating holistic, functional and psychological components. Nevertheless, the image itself, as an isolated concept, cannot be considered as a brand or an act of branding. Hence, it seems logical to approach the DI concept as an important part of the "big picture" – the destination brand –, bearing in mind that it is constituted by other elements besides its image, such as its identity.

Brand identity constitutes a fundamental concept in brand management and it can be seen as a concept that contrasts with the concept of brand image. Aaker (1996) defines brand identity as a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain. It is basically what managers want the brand to be, in contrast to what consumers think the brand is (brand image).

Cai (2002) is of the opinion that even though image formation plays an important role on destination branding, this role is just a partial role. The author refers that in order to advance DI to the level of branding, the image needs to integrate a variety of marketing activities where there is a concern to unify the image components and the brand identity associations. Hence, Cai (2002) states that a brand image is not a brand, but actually a very important source of its equity. Nonetheless, it is important that these marketing activities do not reflect what Aaker (1996) designates as the "brand image trap". Although the brand image constitutes an important source of background information when developing the brand identity, it is crucial to separate both concepts, in order to avoid the "brand image trap" that occurs when the customer dictates what the brand is, hence, the brand image dictates what the brand identity is (Aaker 1996). Accordingly, while the brand image reflects how the brand is perceived, brand identity should reflect the soul and vision of the brand, as well as the differentiating qualities and characteristics that should persist over time and stimulate beneficial changes on the existing perceptions.

3.5 Destination Image Research Trends

DI constitutes one of the most popular subjects of the tourism research areas for more than 30 years. The first studies that included the DI concept can be found in the 1970's, with authors such as Hunt (1971, 1975), Gunn (1972), Mayo (1973, 1975) or Crompton (1979). During the 1990's and the 2000's decades, DI research has substantially increased which has decisively contributed for the solid body of literature currently available. Since DI is a multidimensional concept, in order to better understand it, it is essential to reflect on how the literature explores this crucial element in its multiple perspectives and what streams or trends constitute the most popular topics in the DI literature.

Many authors (e.g., Chon, 1990; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Gallarza et al., 2002; Pike, 2002; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010; Tasci et al., 2007a) have compiled and analysed several studies of the field, furthermore producing reviews and meta-studies that constitute useful tools to overview this research area. These relevant works were able to identify several streams of research, contributing for a better understanding of the state of knowledge on the DI subject. One aspect that can be acknowledge from these studies is that, since the first DI studies, there are common topics that still gather the attention of the DI researchers today. On the other hand, the DI research has evolved into an interdisciplinary area, due to the development of broader and more complete definitions of the construct and the different perspectives of the research subject. This phenomenon occurred mainly because of the influence that researchers from other areas, such as business, geography, psychology or sociology, where able to exert (Tasci et al., 2007a). Hence, DI research was influenced by these new and different perspectives that relevantly impacted the study of DI, both on conceptual and methodological levels.

In 1990, Chon reviewed 23 DI studies and concluded that the most popular researched topics included: (1) the relationship between DI and the traveller's satisfaction with the travel; (2) the relationship between DI and the traveller's buying decision making; (3) the DI formation/change through cross national and cross cultural contacts; (4) DI change; (5) DI formation; (6) DI assessment and measures; (7) DI and environmental psychology; and (8) DI and tourism development. Nevertheless, Chon (1990) concluded that the most relevant themes in the DI literature were definitely the role and influence of DI on the travellers' buying behaviour and on travellers' satisfaction. Chon's seminal work made it possible the analyses, organization and compilation of information regarding DI research that was produced before the 90's decade. As it will be discussed further, some of these topics are still considered mainstream topics in DI research. In the same framework, Gallarza et al. (2002) reviewed 65 DI papers that were produced between 1971 and 1999. Among other things, the authors found that the most popular research topics covered were: (1) the conceptualization and dimensions of DI; (2) the DI formation process; (3) the assessment and measurement of DI; (4) the influence of distance on DI; and (5) the DI change over time.

Very significant was also the work of Echtner & Ritchie (1991) that was focused on the conceptualization and measurement of DI. The authors suggested in their work that on the papers that were analysed the researchers have failed to conceptualize and operationalise DI, since the use of structured methodologies were unable to capture the holistic and unique components of DI.

More recently, Stepchenkova & Mills (2010) examined several DI papers (152) with the purpose of assessing the state of DI literature, including current and emerging research trends and streams, as well as new methodologies applied in the research area. Aside from the streams previously mentioned, the authors found several streams of research that are part of a trend that explores the DI concept in a broader context (Table 9), therefore proving the existence of a trend that explores DI from a wide multidisciplinary framework. For this reason, the authors predict the continuity of this trend, since the DI construct is both complex and multidimensional. In the same work, Stepchenkova & Mills (2010) revealed a second trend that explores the behavioural component of DI. This second trend analyses subjects such as:

satisfaction; travel behaviour; purchase behaviour; destination choice; behavioural and visitation intentions; propensity to visit; intention to recommend; destination loyalty; impact of visitation on DI; and DI perceptions and motivation to visit.

Table 9. Streams of DI research in a broader context

Streams of Research in a Broader Context	e.g. Studies Analysed
Sociocultural	Andsager & Drzewiecka (2002); Kokosalakis, Bagnall, Selby and Burns (2006)
General Media and Communications	Frost (2006); Mercille (2005)
Consumer Behavior	Beerli, Meneses & Gil (2007)
Marketing	Ahmed, Sohail, Myers & Chan Pui (2006); Cai (2002); Ekinci & Hosany (2006)
Competitiveness	Bahar & Kozak (2007)
Product-Country Images	Lee, Suh & Moon (2001); Mitteistaedt, Hopkins, Raymond & Duke (2004)
Images of Nature and Environmental Viewpoint Pratices	Stamou & Paraskevolpoulos (2004); Hu & Wall (2005)
Sociological	Stokowski (2002); Williams (2002)

Source: Stepchenkova & Mills (2010)

Table 9 and Table 10 show the streams of research in a broader and multidisciplinary/interdisciplinary context, according to the findings of Stepchenkova & Mills (2010). According to the authors, among the interdisciplinary trend of the DI research it is possible to find four different streams: (1) sociocultural studies; (2) media studies; (3) studies of DI and self-concept; and (4) image management policies.

1 - In **Sociocultural Studies** are included studies that focus their research on the tourist's (or potential tourist) familiarity, desirability, culture background, and on a cross-culture perspective of DI (Frías, Rodríguez, Castañeda, Sabiote & Buhalis, 2012; Kastenholz, 2010; Lee & Lee, 2009; McCartney, 2008).

Table 10. Streams of interdisciplinary DI research

The 4 Streams of Interdisciplinary DI Research	Studies Analysed
Sociocultural Studies	Andsager & Drzewiecka, 2002; Bandyopadhyay & Morais, 2005; Dewar, Li & Davis, 2007; Hunter & Suh, 2007; Garcia, Saura, Garcia, & Gallarza, 2004; Oliver, 2003; Prebensen, 2007; Prideaux, Agrusa, Donlon & Curran, 2004; Pritchard & Morgan, 2001; Therkelsen, 2003; Xiao & Mair, 2006; Prentice, 2004; Prentice & Andersen, 2003; Bonn, Joseph & Dai, 2005; Kozak, Bigne, Gonzales & Andreu, 2003; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000; Murphy, Benckendorff & Moscardo, 2007
Media Studies	Newbold, Boyd-Barrett & Van Den Bulck, 2002; Neuendorf, 2002; Mercille, 2005; Bandyopadhyay & Morais, 2005; Dore & Crouch, 2003; Frost, 2006; Hill, 2003; Hudson & Ritchie, 2006; Kim & Richardson, 2003; Mercille, 2005; Sadler & Haskins, 2005; Xiao & Mair, 2006
Studies of DI and Self-concept	Beerli et al., 2007; Carden, 2006; Kastenholz, 2004; Murphy, Benckendorff & Moscardo, 2007; Sirgy & Su, 2000; Prideaux et al., 2004; Trauer & Ryan, 2005; Piorkowski & Cardone, 2000; White & Scandale, 2005; Yuksel & Akgul, 2007
Image Management Policies	Gallarza et al., 2002; Chen & Uysal, 2002; Dolnicar & Grabler, 2004; Kanso, 2005; Kim, Chun & Petrick, 2005; Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Morgan & Pritchard, 2001; Tasci & Kozak, 2006; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Puczko, Ratz & Smith, 2007; Uysal, Chen & Williams, 2000; Bahar & Kozak, 2007; Hsu, Wolfe & Kang, 2004; Kang, Suh & Jo, 2005; Ahmed et al., 2006; Tasci & Gartner, 2007; Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007; Huh, Uysal & McCleary, 2006; Leisen, 2001; Obenour, Groves & Lengfelder; 2006; Obenour, Lengfelder & Groves, 2005; Govers et al., 2007a; Govers, Go & Kumar, 2007b; Hudson & Ritchie, 2006; Puczko, Ratz & Smith, 2007; Shukla, Brown & Harper, 2006; Therkelsen, 2003; Ooi, 2004; Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil, 2007b; Tasci & Holecek, 2007; Tasci & Kozak, 2006; Bagaeen, 2007; Cai, 2002; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Henderson, 2007; Hankinson, 2004b; Hanlan & Kelly, 2005; Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal, 2006; Konecnik, 2004; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Murphy et al., 2007.

Source: Stepchenkova & Mills (2010)

2 – **Media Studies** is a stream of DI research that analyses the influence of mass media communications on DI and its impacts on the consumer's perception of the destination. This way, non-touristic oriented media communication (films, television, literature, videos, magazines, journals, etc.) is examined in order to study such effects on the perceived DI by tourists and potential tourists. More recently, there are several studies that analyse the impact of media on DI (Croy, 2010; Shani, Chen, Wang & Hua, 2010; Jeong, Holland, Jun & Gibson, 2012; Mestre, del Rey & Stanishevski, 2008; Molina, Gómez & Martín-Consuegra, 2010; Stepchenkova & Eales, 2011).

3 – **Studies of DI and Self-Concept** analyse the relationship between these two concepts and its influence on destination choice. In addition, the congruity concept is a frequent approach on these studies, exploring the match between tourist's ideal and social self-image, and the perceived DI. In this framework, several studies also investigate the influence of emotions and personality on different factors such as DI, visitation intentions, travel behaviour or loyalty (Bianchi & Pike, 2011; Boo et al., 2009; Bosnjak et al., 2011; Ekinci et al., 2013; Kirstin & Christoph, 2010; Litvin & Goh, 2002; Nicola, 2011).

4 – **DI Management Policies** stream usually analyses DI from a management perspective. Due to the highly practical nature of research subjects such as destination positioning analysis, destination competitiveness, marketing strategies, market segmentation, promotion or branding, these subjects gain a great deal of attention in the DI literature. Relevant to the present research work, this stream frequently explores DI from a branding perspective, applying classical product/service marketing concepts such as product brand, brand equity, brand personality, consumer behaviour or consumption value theory, to tourism destinations (Cai, 2002; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Hankinson, 2004a, 2004b; Konecnik, 2004; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Morgan & Pritchard, 2001; Murphy et al., 2007; Tasci & Kozak, 2006).

3.6 Destination Image Formation

DI is commonly accepted in the literature, as one of the most important aspects in successful tourism management and a crucial dimension and source of equity in destination branding. This happens because DI is at the basis of the decision making of the travel purchase and destination choice, and also because DI is crucial in terms of traveller's satisfaction (or lack of it) with the travel purchase, due to the expectations, previous held DI, and the actual perceived performance of the destination (Pike, 2002).

The acknowledgment that DI is closely connected with the destination selection process, and that the different techniques available to form destination images are essential to create an image that represents what the destination has to offer (Gartner, 1993), have led many authors to focus their efforts in this important subject (e.g., Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Chon, 1990; Croy & Kearsley, 2002; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gallarza et al., 2002; Gartner, 1993; Gunn, 1972, 1988; Jenkins, 1999; Llodrà-Riera et al., 2015; Martín & del Bosque, 2008; McCartney, Butler & Bennett, 2008). Therefore, it is important to review and understand how DI is formed, since the initial image formation (before the actual visit and experience at the destination) reveals itself as probably the most influential phase in the tourism destination decision process.

Gartner (1993, p. 197) defines the image formation process as "a continuum of separate agents that act independently or in some combination to form a destination image unique to the individual". In this framework, the literature shows that DI is influenced by a set of factors or agents that commonly are divided in two different groups: (1) information from different sources (stimulus factors or external factors); and (2) the characteristics of the individual itself (personal or internal factor) (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Stern & Krakover, 1993).

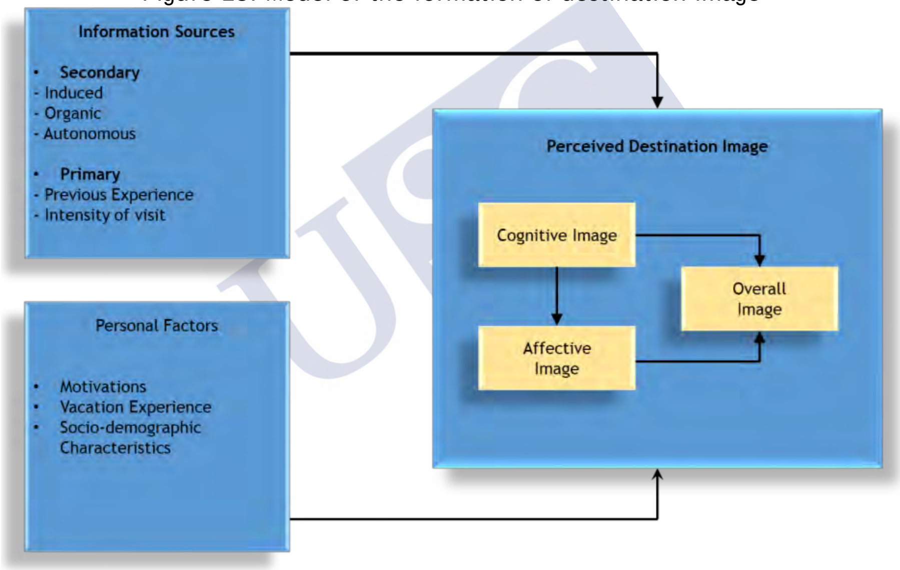
In Figure 13, it is shown the empirically validated model of DI formation from Beerli & Martin (2004). In this model the authors were able to identify two main agents (information sources and personal factors) that impact the cognitive and affective image and, consequently, the overall image of a destination.

In order to analyse how DI is formed, it is important to address the subject in the context of the travel experience itself. According to Gunn

(1972; 1988), an individual travel experience can be explained in a seven phase model that includes:

1. Accumulation of mental images about vacation experiences
2. Modification of those images by further information
3. Decision to take a vacation trip
4. Travel to the destination
5. Participation at the destination
6. Return home
7. New accumulation and modification of images based on the vacation experience.

Figure 13. Model of the formation of destination image



Source: Beerli & Martín (2004)

According to Echtner & Ritchie (1991), DI is formed on the phases one, two and three. Jenkins (1999) also includes the phase five in the process, arguing that the personal experience at the destination closely impacts the image formation. This seven stage model is also useful to understand what sometimes is referred as information sources (Beerli & Martin, 2004), image forming agents (Gartner, 1993) or stimulus factors (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a).

According to Gartner (1993, p. 197), an agent can be considered "a force producing a specific result". These agents or information sources are referred as "organic image", "induced image" (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gunn, 1972) and the third agent is sometimes referred as "modified induced image" (Jenkins, 1999) or "complex image" (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). In addition, Fakeye & Crompton (1991) suggest that these three agents are linked to three different functions of promotion: to inform (organic), to persuade (induced) and to remind (complex). According to some authors (Crompton, 1991; Fakeye & Jenkins, 1999; Gunn, 1972), these three types of information sources can be defined with the following descriptions:

- **Organic Image** is defined as non-tourism information regarding the destination that could have its source from common life experience, television, movies, books, newspapers, friends or family or other personal sources. Also, the organic image represents the information that is present before specific tourism information or promotion is introduced.
- **Induced Image** refers to an image directly or indirectly influenced by DMO's directed information. Consequently, the induced image can be defined as the specific tourism information like publicity, travel and tourism advertisement, travel agents, travel brochures, online tourism information, tourism magazines, or tourism reports in newspapers.
- **Modified Induced Image** or **Complex Image** is formed through actual personal experience of the destination.

Building on the work of Gunn (1972) and Fakeye & Crompton (1991), Gartner (1993) suggests that the image formation process is constituted by a typology of eight different image formation agents. In these eight image formation agents, Gartner (1993) includes: four induced agents ((1) overt induced I; (2) overt induced II; (3) covert induced I, (4) covert induced II); three organic agents ((5) unsolicited organic; (6) solicited organic; (7) organic)): and the last agent is labelled as (8) autonomous (Table 11). Besides this, the eight formation agents are different in their credibility and differ on the degree of control by the DMO's.

Table 11. Image formation agents

Induced Image	
Overt Induced I	Consists in traditional forms of advertising from the DMO's in an attempt to communicate specific images to the tourism market in different media such as television, radio, brochures, newspapers, etc. Although this agent has a great control by the DMO's, the credibility among the market is quite low, reason why frequently DMO's will use convert induced I agents to overcome the problem.
Overt Induced II	Consists in information received or requested from tour operators, wholesalers or organizations that have interest in the travel decision process but are not associated with any destination. Therefore, is information by the travel trade.
Covert Induced I	Consists in using a celebrity or a spokesperson to support, recommend, attract attention and increase credibility of the destination.
Covert Induced II	Is representative of information from articles, reports or stories from familiarization tours for travel writers or media groups that are used by DMO's to project a specific image through the writing of the people who are hosted. This specific agent has the particularity that the person who is influenced by this information is not actually aware that the DMO is involved in the projected image that is communicated by the writer or media group.
Organic Image	
Unsolicited Organic	Represents the unrequested information received from individuals who have been to an area, or believe they know what exists there (Gartner, 1993). This includes any information received from these individuals related with the destination in question. The credibility of this information will always depend on the source but usually is higher than over induced I. Unsolicited Organic agents can have an important role in the image formation if the person that is receiving the information does not have previous exposure to induced and autonomous image formation agents.
Solicited Organic	Consists in requested information from knowledgeable and unbiased sources that can include friends and relatives. Solicited organic image formation agents can be seen as word of mouth.

Organic	Consists of previous experience at the destination. Because it is based on personal experience it has the highest credibility among the image formation agents.
Autonomous Image	
Autonomous	Autonomous image formation is represented by two types of independent image sources: news and popular culture. News reports or articles have the power to project images based on third-party interpretations, with little or no control by the DMO's. Plus, because the unbiased position, these agents tend to be credible to the audience and can impact significantly the tourism image development, formation or change. In the same framework, popular culture is also able to project destination images. For example, through movies or TV shows that could represent a major role in the DI formation.

Source: Gartner (1993)

In regards to personal factors, these can be defined as individual's personal characteristics such as socio-demographic and psychological characteristics (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martin, 2004). Psychological characteristics can include values, motivations, beliefs and personality, while socio-demographic characteristics can include aspects like age, education, gender, income or marital status.

Research on DI formation shows that personal factors significantly impact the perceived DI (Baloglu, 2000; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Hui & Wan, 2003; Mackay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Martín & del Bosque, 2008; Rittichainuwat et al., 2001; Stabler, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1990). Hence, although external stimuli play an important role on the tourist's perceived image, internal factors are also an essential element of the image formation process. While the external stimuli (information sources) present the image projected by the destination, internal factors stipulate how that information is perceived based on the individual's needs, desires, motivations, knowledge, personality, cultural values, among other socio-psychological characteristics (Um & Crompton, 1990; Beerli & Martin, 2004).

Chapter 4. Research Model and Hypotheses Development

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In previous chapters we reviewed some of the fundamentals of marketing and tourism literature, establishing the context and background for the research purposed on this work. Accordingly, in this section the different objectives and stages of the empirical research are approached. For this purpose, chapter four establishes the relevance of the research subjects, as well as the theoretical background of the research constructs and the consequent development of hypotheses for testing.

4.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The present subchapter aims to briefly describe and present the relevance and purpose of the three different research objectives of this work.

4.2.1 Cognitive Image, Overall Image, Overall Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions of Porto and Santiago

Recognizing the importance of destination brands in differentiating and in the creation of unique propositions in a highly competitive tourism destination marketplace, the first research objective was to analyse the cognitive image of the two competing tourism destinations (Porto and Santiago de Compostela) which city centres are part of the World Heritage list by UNESCO. Therefore, the purpose was to evaluate the different perceptions that the tourists hold towards these destinations. Besides these perceptions, the evaluations mean scores for overall image (OI), overall satisfaction (SAT) and behavioural intentions (BI) were also estimated and presented, on account of providing relevant descriptive information. Furthermore, through the use of descriptive statistics resources, the purpose was to analyse the mean scores for every construct and dimensions, and secondly, through the use of independent samples t tests, to assess the possibility of statistically significant differences between the two groups of tourist in order to discuss managerial implications suggested by the results obtained.

4.2.2 The Antecedents of Behavioural Intentions

In a second stage this work explores the thematic of destination loyalty (LOY) in the perspective of BI, and the role of the tourists' motivations (MOT) and cognitive image (CI) as its antecedents, presenting a PLS-SEM model. Although the subject of LOY and its antecedents constitute a typical research subject in the tourism literature, the study of the relationship between MOT and other behavioural constructs such as CI and LOY is still infrequent. Moreover, these relationships are frequently ambiguous and many times contradictory in the literature. Therefore, this work presents an interesting PLS-SEM model with the purpose of measuring the structural relationships between these constructs.

Only in more recent years the concept of LOY has become a common and crucial subject in the tourism literature. One of the aspects that contributed to this, was the fact that management, marketing and consumer behaviour researchers found that frequently consumer satisfaction would not lead to repeated purchases by the consumer, thus leading scholars and managers to acknowledge loyalty as a new paradigm and goal in businesses (Neuhaus & Stauss, 1997). As in the case of LOY, MOT is considered a crucial concept in regards to tourist's behaviour. Because of this, MOT has been an area that gain much attention from researchers since the 1960's with several valued contributions (Hsu, Cai, & Li, 2010). Although MOT has been substantially explored in the tourism literature, the development of models integrating MOT with attitudinal and behavioural constructs remains widely unexplored (Cohen et al., 2014).

Nevertheless, MOT studies that also integrate the DI construct, usually try to explain the formation of DI or the tourists' destination choice process (e.g. Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Crompton, 1979). Because of its practicality in management, marketing and branding of destinations, DI is still nowadays one of the most popular subjects in the tourism literature (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). Surprisingly, the integration of these three key concepts in structural models to test the direct and indirect relationships between them is still rare, a gap that this work pretends to fill.

4.2.3 The Structural Relationships Between Cognitive Image, Attitudes and Individual Tourist Expenditure

As seen before, DI has been a frequently explored subject in the tourism literature and several researchers have produced models demonstrating the influence of DI and CI on the tourists' behaviour (Bigné et al., 2001). DI research in general and CI in particular, have been major research subjects in the tourism literature with practical impacts in the management, marketing and branding of destinations (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

In regards to the measurement of these constructs, when analysing the DI literature, it is possible to conclude that the common assumption is that the DI and CI constructs should be reflectively measured. Consequently, in the DI literature there is a lack of inclusion of composite and formative measures to assess the construct and its different components (e.g. cognitive, affective components) (see Mikulić, 2018; Mikulić & Ryan, 2018).

In this framework, the purpose of the research was to offer an integrated approach to the understanding of the structural relationships between CI and tourists' attitudes (i.e., OI, SAT and BI) and the possible impact of these attitudes on the overall individual tourist expenditure (EXP). Consequently, the research analysis goal was to develop and test a theoretical model of the antecedents of BI, integrating a composite measurement of the CI construct, also integrating the constructs of SAT and OI. The analysis focuses on the postvisit image rather than the previsit image, also investigating the indirect effects (mediation) of SAT and OI in the relationship between CI and BI.

Secondly, it was also our purpose to test the role of EXP as an outcome of the tourists' attitudes. Tourism expenditure, specifically EXP, is commonly treated from the economics standpoint, which results in very few studies that include EXP in DI research. Due to this lack of research, the research focused on the role of tourists' attitudes towards the destination (CI, OI and BI) and analysed how they can relate to the EXP in a specific stay. Moreover, this research design allowed that the indirect effects of SAT and OI in the relationship between BI and EXP were also analysed.

4.3 RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

In this subchapter it is presented the research constructs that will integrate the study. After reviewing the literature to support the formulation of the research hypotheses, the hypothesized conceptual models were drawn for further testing.

4.3.1 Conceptual Model A

4.3.1.1 Behavioural Intentions: Customer Loyalty as an Intention

Although satisfaction is still considered one of the best predictors of consumer's behaviour, only in the last decades, researchers and practitioners moved from a point of view where satisfaction was the organizations' main goal, to a point of view where customer loyalty was adopted as the organizations' paradigm (Neuhaus & Stauss, 1997). Additionally, the impact of satisfaction on profits, sales growth or financial performance was found to be mediated by customer loyalty (Edvardsson, Johnson, Gustafsson, & Strandvik, 2000).

The concept of loyalty was best defined by Oliver (1997, p. 392) as "a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronise a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or similar brand purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour". Nevertheless, in a tourism and destination's context, the concept of LOY might be radically different from the typical product or service context. If we consider the nature of the tourism area and the common product/service elements, it is quite evident that tourism brings specific challenges, complexities and contexts that do not exist in the traditional consumer behaviour. As seen before, in the context of branding Hankinson (2007) points out several differences between managing and branding a commercial product/service and the management and branding of a territory. Hankinson (2007) refers that some of these differences are: (1) the co-production of the place product; (2) the co-consumption of the place product; (3) the variability of the place product; (4) the legal definition of place boundaries; (5) the administrative overlap; (6) and the political accountability.

Furthermore, Konecnik & Gartner (2007) argued that one of the major differences between product brands and destination brands is the experiential factor. This means that product brands frequently have more tangible characteristics that can be analysed and quantitatively measured. Also products are able to offer test periods and full refund options, reducing the risk to the consumer related to the purchase. This is obviously something that does not happen with destination brands, where the product is non-refundable, experimental and different to every consumer with different expectations and perceptions. Additionally, since the destination has no control of its own name and image, any third party can use the image for its own advantage or exploit and/or manipulate the brand name and image to achieve some end that, in the worst case scenario, could be contrary to the destination's desire (Fan, 2006). These specific characteristics of destinations and, consequently, its consumption can strongly influence and alter the traditional concept of loyalty.

Specifically, in the tourism area, the concept of LOY has received a great a deal of attention and can be considered a common research subject in the tourism area (Cohen et al., 2014; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Zhang et al., 2014). Also, similar to management areas, a good number of tourism studies were able to found a close link between SAT and LOY (e.g. Bigné et al., 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Hosany & Prayag, 2013). Additionally, authors like Oppermann (1998) and Petrick & Sirakaya (2004) pointed out the importance of the LOY construct and suggested that all destinations should focus on increasing LOY levels, mainly because attracting repeated visitors is significantly cheaper than first time visitors (decreasing marketing costs), and also a repeated visitor tends to be more satisfied and, consequently, more likely to share positive past experiences, thus, being more active in word of mouth communication.

Recognizing the specific nature and unique features of tourism destinations, authors like McKercher, Denizci-Guillet & Ng (2012) argued the necessity of rethinking LOY in order to achieve a better understanding of the phenomenon, proposing the concepts of vertical, horizontal and experiential loyalty. Consequently, McKercher et al. (2012) asserted that: 1) tourists can be loyal to different tiers in the tourism system, for example, a travel agent or an airline (vertical loyalty); 2) tourists can be loyal to more than one provider at the same tier of the tourism system, for example, more than one hotel brand (horizontal loyalty); 3) tourists can be loyal to specific preferred holiday styles, for example, golf or skiing (experiential loyalty).

Furthermore, the concept of LOY was adapted from brand management and consumer behaviour areas and it is conceptually approached most frequently in one of three different approaches: attitudinal loyalty (intention to recommend); behavioural loyalty (visit and revisit intention); and composite loyalty (combination of both previous approaches) (Oppermann, 2000; Zhang et al., 2014).

In this framework, the two proposed conceptual models in this work approach the concept of LOY and its operationalization from a composite loyalty perspective. Moreover, this perspective integrates both attitudinal and behavioural elements, and it is frequently seen as the tourists' behavioural intentions (BI) towards the destination (Zhang et al., 2014).

In addition, repeat purchase and intention to recommend to others is the most common approach to measure LOY in marketing and tourism research (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Moreover, tourism research in the last decades frequently explored subjects regarding direct and indirect antecedents of LOY and BI, with the inclusion of constructs such us service quality, DI, trust or perceived value (see Cohen et al., 2014).

4.3.1.2 Behavioural Intentions Antecedents: Motivation and Destination Image

MOT is considered a key concept in the study of tourist's behaviour, mainly because individuals respond differently to stimuli and engage in tourism related activities for different reasons (Beard & Ragheb, 1983). As a consequence of this, the analyses of these reasons assume a crucial role when developing effective and efficient destination marketing strategies. In this point of view, destination's marketing and promotion should reflect both MOT and destination's attributes, asserting MOT as one of the many variables that contribute to explain the tourist's behaviour (Pyo, Mihalik, & Uysal, 1989), and that tourism is primarily a social psychological experience (Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991).

Schiffman, Kanuk, & Hansen (2012, p. 99) define motivation as "a driving force that impel individuals to act", referring also that this driving force is produced by "a state of tension" as a result of unfulfilled needs. In order to reduce this tension, individuals adopt a behaviour predicting that this behaviour will somehow fulfil their needs and desires and, consequently, relieve their stress and tension. In addition, Yoon & Uysal (2005, p. 46) define motivation as the "psychological/biological needs and wants, including forces that arouses, direct and integrate a person's behaviour and activity". In a tourism context, Baloglu & McCleary (1999a) see MOT as socio-psychological forces that impel and compel all actions behind the tourist's behaviour and, therefore, should be considered a concept that assumes a key role in destination management and marketing. Iso-Ahola (1982) was one of the firsts to adopt the MOT construct as a socio-psychological model where two critical forces are determinant on influencing the consumer behaviour: 1) the desire to leave the everyday environment escaping from personal (e.g., troubles, problems, difficulties) or interpersonal (e.g. family, relatives, friends) contexts; 2) the desire to obtain psychological rewards from the leisure travel activity in personal (e.g. learning new cultures, relax, prestige) and interpersonal (e.g., social interaction, friendly natives, new friends) contexts.

Additionally, Gnoth (1997) differentiates motives from motivations separating the behaviourist and cognitivist point of views. Hence, motives are seen, from a behaviourist perspective, as a lasting disposition where a person chooses its goal of behaviour from a set of learned and cyclical actions (Gnoth, 1997). Motives, on the other hand, are seen as results of situation-person interactions where a choice of a certain behaviour conducts to a certain expected result (Gnoth, 1997).

One of the most common approaches when dealing with MOT is the push-pull approach (e.g., Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Klenosky, 2002; Kozak, 2002; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Seen as a simple and intuitive approach, the push-pull theory is often used for marketing segmentation purposes as it presents a useful tool to achieve information regarding the tourists' profile (Cohen et al., 2014). Introduced by Dann (1977, 1981), the push-pull MOT theory divides the drivers of tourist's behaviour in two factors. The pull factors are seen as forces that influence a person to select and choose a destination and include the attractions that influence the tourist to select the destination (Dann, 1981). The push factors are seen as motivations per se, intrinsic motivators or internal motives that influence a person to travel in order to mitigate their internal needs (Dann, 1977, 1981; Gnoth, 1997). Push factors can include feelings such as of escaping, prestige, novelty seeking, knowledge, relaxation, social interaction, among others (Caber & Albayrak, 2016; Dann, 1981; Kim & Prideaux, 2005). In the literature, the most common factors identified as influencers in travel decision and behaviour are "escape, "novelty, "culture", "social interaction" and "prestige" motivations (Kim & Prideaux, 2005).

Besides common leisure, MOT researchers have focused their research on segments and niche markets such as rural tourism, cultural and heritage tourism, eco-tourism, events or wine tourism (see Cohen et al., 2014). Other MOT theory worth mentioning includes Plog's (1974) seminal work and tourism's first typology model, the allocentricity and psychocentricity model. On a five segment spectrum, Plog (1974) delineates personality types where on one end there is the psychocentric (dependable, cautious, conservative, self-inhibited, etc.) that prefers to be surrounded by familiars and friends in the vacation destination. On the other end there is the allocentric (curious, explorer, venturer, self- confident and active) that likes to experience new things and frequently prefers to be alone.

Lastly, “the travel career ladder” was a MOT theory developed by Pearce & Caltabiano (1983), Pearce (1988), and Moscardo & Pearce (1986). Adapted from the popular Maslow's (1970) motivation theory, the authors created a similar hierarchy or ladder system with five different motivation levels: relaxation needs; safety and security needs; relationship needs; self-esteem and development needs; and at the highest level the fulfilment needs.

According to Caber & Albayrak (2016), MOT studies can be divided in three categories: the first category focus on personal motivations and specific behaviours resulting from those motivations; the second group explores MOT for efficient marketing strategies and market segmentation purposes; the third group focus their investigation on analysing the relationship between MOT and other relevant constructs such us customer satisfaction. The scope of the Research Model A clearly fits in the third category.

Moreover, according to Ajzen (1991), in the theory of planned behaviour the individual’s intention assumes a crucial role when trying to predict a given behaviour. In addition, consumer’s intentions are assumed to capture motivations and motivational factors that can influence a behaviour. Hence, these behavioural intentions are affected by attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behaviour control (Ajzen, 1985, 1991).

Furthermore, Yoon & Uysal (2005) found that there is a causal relationship between push MOT and BI. Also, Almeida-Santana & Moreno-Gil (2018) found that MOT such us knowledge and culture or prestige and social exhibitionism have a direct impact on LOY. Therefore, **H1a** was drawn to test:

H1a – Motivations have a positive and significant impact on Behavioural Intentions

Derived from psychology, marketing and consumer behaviour areas in the 60s, the study of image was adapted to the tourism field in the 70s (Stepchenkova & Shichkova, 2017). Since then, DI has been for the last three decades one of the major and most popular topics in tourism research, mainly because its practical implications in destination management and marketing (Pike, 2002; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

Nowadays, it is possible to find in the DI literature a vast number of definitions (see Gallarza et al., 2002). As seen before, one of the most common definitions in the literature is the one from Crompton (1979) where DI is defined as the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person holds towards the destination. In addition, Bigné et al. (2001) conceptualized DI as the subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist.

Apart from the discussion from chapter three concerning which definition can better capture de essence of DI, authors seem to agree that assessing the DI can help scholars and practitioners to better understand the weakness and strengths of a destination, as well as to know which key variables or components are more relevant to develop and manage the destination (Lee, 2009). Also, assessing DI can provide relevant insights in regards to positioning strategies, product development, promotional effectiveness of the destination, predict tourists' behavioural intentions and LOY levels and evaluate destination's brand equity (Pan & Li, 2011).

In chapter three, we stated that most of the researchers are of the opinion that DI is a multidimensional construct that is formed by at least two different dimensions: (1) rational or perceptual/cognitive component; and (2) emotional or affective component (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a, 1999b; Dann, 1996; Gartner, 1994; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). It was also stipulated that the cognitive dimension of DI represents the knowledge, perceptions, ideas and beliefs that the tourists or potential tourists hold towards the destination attributes, and the affective dimension refers to the feelings and emotions towards the destination (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

Although DI is seen as a multidimensional construct integrating cognitive and affective components, most empirical studies focus in the cognitive elements of DI to measure the construct (Wang & Hsu, 2010; Zhang et al., 2014). Hence, in both conceptual models we focused on the cognitive elements of DI mainly because it is directly observable, descriptive and measurable (Walmsley & Young, 1998), thus providing more concrete and interpretive information in regards to the uniqueness of a destination (Chen & Phou, 2013).

Furthermore, DI represents a key concept in tourism because the important role in travel purchase decision making and its direct link with tourist's travel purchase (Chon, 1990; Gartner, 1989). Also, many authors were able to find a strong link between DI and tourist's satisfaction (Bhat & Darzi, 2018; Chi & Qu, 2008; Hernández-Lobato, Solis-Radilla, Moliner-Tena, & Sánchez-García, 2006; Lee, 2009; Wang & Hsu, 2010; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) and overall image and satisfaction (Bigné et al., 2001; Chen & Phou, 2013; Chi & Qu, 2008; Prayag, 2009; Prayag & Ryan, 2012).

Also, DI besides exerting its influence in the destination choice decision-making process and in the subsequent evaluation of the destination, it also has a direct link and impact on the levels of perceived quality and on the tourist's future intentions (Bigné et al., 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007). Consequently, destinations with more favourable images have better changes to be considered in the travel decision making process (Son, 2005).

Additionally, DI positively influences the tourist's intentions to revisit the destination and recommended it to others (Alcañiz, García, & Blas, 2005; Bigné et al., 2001; Prayag, 2009; Qu et al., 2011). Furthermore, Zhang et al. (2014) conducted an analysis of 66 independent studies in regards to DI and LOY. The results of this analysis revealed that CI has a direct impact on attitudinal, behavioural and composite loyalty, and, therefore, can be considered a key element to achieve LOY and BI. Hence, **H2a** was drawn to test:

H2a – Cognitive Image has a significant and positive impact on Behavioural Intentions

4.3.1.3 Motivations and Destination Image

The image of a destination has a direct link with MOT as these influence DI before and after visitation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a). Nonetheless, when analysing the relationship between MOT and CI, the literature is far more ambiguous, as some studies reveal that MOT has a strong impact on the affective image but not necessarily on the CI (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Martín & del Bosque, 2008). Contrary to this, Baloglu (2000) in his model of visitation intention suggested the existence of a significant relationship between socio-psychological MOT and CI. Moreover, Li, Cai, Lehto, & Huang (2010) also explored the relationship between MOT and DI. The results of the authors' study revealed that all three constructs that were used to measure MOT had a direct impact on the cognitive components of the DI. Consequently, **H3a** was drawn to test:

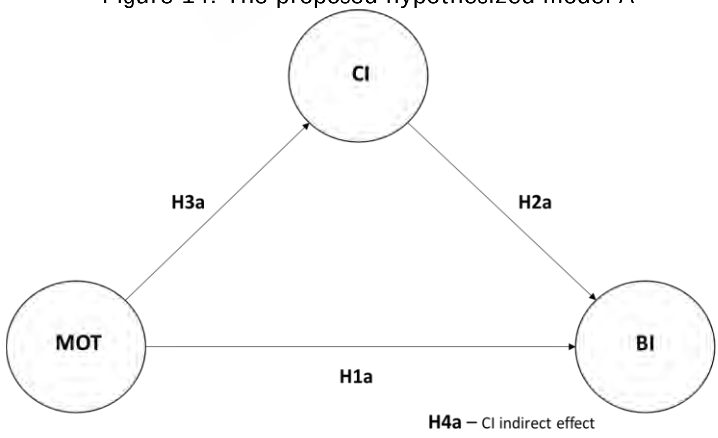
H3a - Motivations have a positive and significant impact on Cognitive Image

After the inclusion of the previous three hypotheses, a forth was drawn to test in order to analyse the indirect effects and a possible mediation role of CI in the relationship between MOT and BI. Hence, **H4a** hypothesizes that:

H4a – Cognitive Image mediates the relationship between Motivation and Behavioural Intentions

Finally, Figure 14 presents the hypothesized model A integrating the previous formulated hypotheses.

Figure 14. The proposed hypothesized model A



4.3.2 Conceptual Model B

4.3.2.1 Effects of Cognitive Image

DI studies have been a constant presence in tourism and management literature and a subject extensively researched in the past decades (Pike, 2002). The literature frequently deals with the formation of DI establishing its dynamic nature and, consequently, the different types of image formed in specific previsit and postvisit stages (Kim, 2017). Nevertheless, most of the DI research focuses on tourists' postvisit DI and the relationship of the DI with postvisit evaluations, such us satisfaction and future behaviours (Kim, 2017), as it is the case with the Conceptual Model B.

As previously stated, several DI studies confirm the strong impact of DI on tourists' loyalty and its levels: attitudinal loyalty (intention to recommend); behavioural loyalty (visit and revisit intention); and composite loyalty (behavioural intentions as the sum of the two previous levels) (Zhang et al., 2014).

In addition, DI has a crucial role in the travel purchase decision making and has direct impact in the tourist's satisfaction levels towards the destination and the travel purchase (Chon, 1990; Gartner, 1989). Moreover, authors such as Chi & Qu (2008), Hernández-Lobato et al. (2006) and Yoon & Uysal (2005) were able to confirm in their studies the existence of a significant direct and causal relationship between DI and SAT. More recently, Liu, Li & Kim (2015) with an on-site analysis, focused on the relationship between DI, SAT and BI confirmed the direct relation between DI and SAT. In addition, Kim (2017) also concluded that CI has a significant impact of SAT. In 2018, Bhat & Darzi administered questionnaires to tourists visiting two Indian destinations for the purposes of analysing the three constructs. The authors (Bhat & Darzi, 2018), also confirmed the significant positive impact that DI has on SAT. In a meta-analysis of 125 published papers, Ladeira Santini, Araujo & Sampaio (2016) concluded that DI has a direct effect on SAT. Consequently, **H1b** was drawn to test:

H1b – Cognitive Image has significant and positive impact on Overall Satisfaction

Overall Image (OI) can be seen as the general image of a destination that is formed as a result of both cognitive and affective evaluations of that destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a). Since this research focuses on the cognitive elements of DI, this summative and global image variable was included in the model in order to capture other possible important DI elements, aside from cognitive ones.

Moreover, besides strong positive impact between DI and SAT, Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martin (2004), Prayag (2009) and Qu et al. (2011) suggested that CI significantly affects OI and, therefore, **H2b** was drawn:

H2b – Cognitive Image has significant and positive impact on Overall Image

Destinations with strong images are more likely to be considered and chosen in the travel decision making process (Son, 2005). Since the image of a destination consists in a subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist (Bigné et al., 2001), the image can be seen as more important than tangible resources that the destination might have to offer, in the point of view that the tourist is motivated to have a certain consumer behaviour based on perceptions, rather than reality (Gallarza et al., 2002).

Moreover, DI does not only have influence in the process of choosing a destination and in the subsequent evaluation of that same destination, but also in the perceived quality and in the tourist's future intentions (Bigné, et al., 2001). Regarding the DI and LOY analysis elaborated by Zhang et al. (2014), the authors were able to assess that in 41 out of 66 independent DI studies analysed, CI was the focal point of the investigation. In addition, from the analyses of these 66 studies, the authors (Zhang et al., 2014) confirmed that DI has a significant impact on LOY, but found difficulties in demonstrating stable impacts between the cognitive-affective joint image construct and LOY.

More specifically, DI positively influences the tourist's intentions to revisit the destination and recommended it to others (Alcañiz et al., 2005; Bigné et al., 2001; Kim, 2017; Prayag, 2009; Qu et al., 2011).

Thus, **H3b** was drawn.

H3b – Cognitive Image has significant and positive impact on Behavioural Intentions

4.3.2.2 Satisfaction, Overall Image and Behavioural Intentions

Authors in management areas like Sivadas & Baker-Prewitt (2000) suggested that the extreme focus placed on customer satisfaction could represent a major reason for overall decline levels of customer loyalty. In addition, the support for the link between customer satisfaction and economic well-being of firms was many times inaccurate (Sivadas & Baker-Prewitt, 2000).

Faullant, Matzler, & Fũller (2008) consider that customer satisfaction is an important but not reliable driver of loyalty, and definitely not determinant of loyalty. Nevertheless, the authors (Faullant et al., 2008) suggest that image in addition to overall satisfaction has a strong impact on loyalty. Satisfaction is still considered as one of the most important concepts in business, marketing and tourism literature, due to the fact that it consists in one of the best predictors of customer's behaviour.

Bigné et al. (2001), Chen & Phou (2013), Chi & Qu (2008), Prayag (2009) and Prayag & Ryan (2012) found that OI has a significant effect on SAT and, therefore, **H4b** was drawn to test:

H4b - Overall Image has a significant and positive impact on Overall Satisfaction

Since satisfied tourists are more likely to revisit and recommend the destination to other people, the higher the SAT the more positive will be the tourists' BI and LOY levels (Chen & Phou, 2013; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Prayag, 2009; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Additionally, Ladeira et al. (2016) in their meta-analysis of 125 papers, found a strong link between SAT and BI. Therefore, **H5b** was drawn to test:

H5b – Overall Satisfaction has significant and positive impact on Behavioural Intentions

In regards to OI, Qu et al., (2011), Prayag (2009) and Wang & Hsu (2010) demonstrated that OI has positive and significant impact on BI, thus **H6b** was established:

H6b – Overall Image has a significant and positive impact on Behavioural Intentions

In addition, **H7b** and **H8b** were included to test the mediation effects in the relationship between CI and BI:

H7b – Overall Satisfaction mediates the relationship between Cognitive Image and Behavioural Intentions

H8b – Overall Image mediates the relationship between Cognitive Image and Behavioural Intentions

Moreover, we consider these three constructs as tourist's attitudes towards the destination. Derived from psychology and social behaviour areas, in general the study of attitude comprises the individual's propensity to evaluate a particular entity with some degree of favorability or unfavorability (Eagly & Chaiken, 2007). Concerning brand management, Keller adapted the definition of brand attitude from Wilkie (Wilkie 1986, cited in Keller, 1993, p. 4) where attitudes towards a brand are defined as consumer's overall evaluations of a brand. In addition, these are related to what attributes or benefits consumers believe the brand contains and the evaluative judgement of those beliefs (Keller, 1993). The study of attitudes specifies three underlying components of attitude: cognition (beliefs), affect (feelings) and conation (Alcock, Carment, Sadava, Collins & Green, 1997).

The conative component of attitudes relevant to destinations are expressed by desired associations and intentions, such as the intention to revisit and recommend (Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly & Luk, 2008). Garbarino & Johnson (1999) refer that overall satisfaction is a cumulative construct that includes a general perception with products and services of an organization and the levels of satisfaction with multiple facets of the organization. Also, Garbarino & Johnson (1999) emphasize the importance of considering overall satisfaction as an attitude towards the organization. Moreover, Cohen et al. (2014) refer that travel behaviour in many degrees rely on attitude constructs, whether these measure key attributes such us destination attributes that form DI or measure overall attitudes such us OI. Consequently, we consider that the CI is an antecedent of tourists' global attitudes, one that can play a key role on the attitudes towards the destination, composed by the overall evaluations of image, satisfaction and behavioural intentions.

4.3.2.3 Tourist Expenditure

Tourism expenditure is frequently seen as an economic indicator, with its impacts being frequently analysed at a macro level and not so frequently researched at a micro level, which includes themes such as the tourist's expenditure micro scale (Disegna & Osti, 2016). It is possible to find in the literature a specific focus on: the economic impacts of tourism flows and consumer consumption; the destination economies (e.g., Wagner, 1997); the economic impacts of events at tourism destinations (e.g., Tyrrell & Johnston, 2001); the satisfaction and dependence between spending categories (e.g., Disegna & Osti, 2016); the determinants and antecedents of tourism spending (e.g., Kozak, 2001); the food spending patterns on trips and vacations (e.g., Cai, 1998); among other examples.

To analyse the phenomenon of the individual tourist expenditure is a complex task, as it depends on a multitude of personal, economic, socio-demographic and specific contextual variables (see Wang & Davidson, 2010) to determine specific consumption patterns of tourists at a micro level scale. There is also a lack of conceptual and empirical studies examining the relationship between destination attributes (and correspondent evaluations) and the individual tourist expenditure (Zhang, Qu & Ma, 2010), thus, there is a great need for studies that reveal the possible effects of destinations related factors on tourism expenditure (Wang & Davidson, 2010).

According to some authors (Homburg, Koschate, & Hoyer, 2005; Rust & Zahorik, 1993), at the individual level, customer satisfaction affects choice and purchase behaviour. In the marketing management area, Fornell, Rust & Dekimpe (2010) found a direct link between satisfaction and consumer growth spending.

Also, Disegna & Osti (2016) found that satisfaction with specific characteristics of the destination have a direct and significant relationship with visitor's expenditure behaviour and, particularly, in the willingness to spend and in the total budget spent. Therefore, **H9b** was drawn to test.

H9b – Overall Satisfaction has a significant and positive impact on Tourist Expenditure

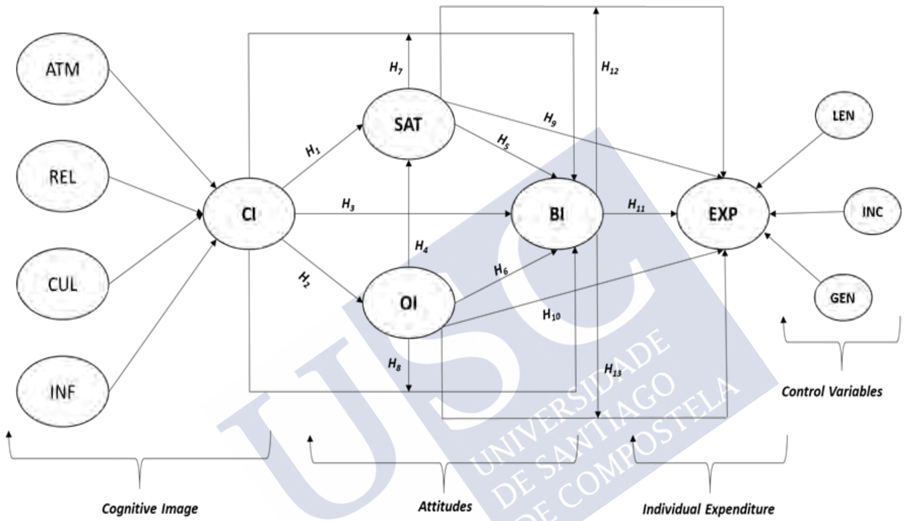
Although not specifically in DI research, many studies from different areas have analysed the relationship between image and consumer expenditure behaviour. More specifically, one of the most related subjects is the study of the country-of-origin (COO) and the consumer willingness to pay higher prices. COO can be seen as an overall perception of a country (Wall & Heslop, 1986). From this overall image of a country, that affects the image of its products, many researchers have found a direct link between COO and the consumer willingness to pay more (Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos, & Oldenkotte, 2012; Loureiro & Umberger 2003). Hence, we adapt these findings to elaborate **H10b** and tested it in the proposed model:

H10b - Overall Image has a significant and positive impact on Individual Tourist Expenditure

Most tourism research focuses the attention on LOY and BI as the tourist's future behaviour (willing to return and willing to recommend) and analyse the future economic impacts of that behaviour. Nevertheless, this work presents another point of view and question: if we consider the tourist's BI as an attitude towards the destination, can this specific consumer attitude have a direct link and predict higher levels of overall individual tourist expenditure at the destination in that specific stay? In this framework, Pulido-Fernández, Carrillo-Hidalgo & Mudarra-Fernández (2019) found a direct impact of LOY (particularly in the revisit intention) in accommodation expenditure in the context of world heritage cities. In attempt to answer the formulated question **H11b** was draw to test.

H11b – Behavioural Intentions have a significant and positive impact on Individual Tourist Expenditure

Figure 15. The proposed hypothesized model B



Notes: ATM-Atmosphere/REL-Relaxation and Beauty/CUL-Culture/INF-Infrastructures/ CI-Cognitive Image/SAT-Overall Satisfaction/OI- Overall Image/BI- Behavioural Intentions/EXP-Tourist Expenditure/LEN-Length of Stay/INC-Income/GEN-Gender

To better understand the possibility of indirect effects in the relationships between tourist's attitudes and EXP, two additional hypotheses were drawn (**H12b** and **H13b**).

H12b – Overall Satisfaction mediates the relationship between Behavioural Intentions and Individual Tourist Expenditure

H13b – Overall Image mediates the relationship between Behavioural Intentions and Individual Tourist Expenditure

In this sense, Figure 15 translates a graphical illustration of the proposed hypothesized Model B and correspondent formulated hypotheses.

Chapter 5. Research Methodology, Data Analysis and Results

5.1 Research Methodology

In management and social sciences, scholars often analyse the structural relationships between latent constructs, as well as the relationship between them, their covariation and observed variables. Over the years, structural equation modelling (SEM) has become a widespread and common statistical technique in marketing and management disciplines, analysing cause-effect relations between latent constructs (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011).

Furthermore, the use of SEM techniques is usually divided in two different approaches, covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) and variance-based SEM, this is, partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) (Hair et al., 2014). While CB-SEM has specific and rigorous rules that can compromise the validity of the results in case the criteria are not respected, PLS-SEM offers a valid alternative. When compared to CB-SEM and its causality issues among latent variables, PLS-SEM offers a set of less stringent rules and criteria (Chin, 2010; do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Garson, 2016; Hair et al., 2017; Peng & Lai, 2012). In addition, the CB-SEM statistical approach requires multivariate normality, whereas PLS-SEM does not requires normally distributed data, making PLS-SEM a good alternative for theory testing (Hair et al., 2017; Peng & Lai, 2012; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009).

Although both statistical techniques are considered valid and commonly used in certain research fields, PLS-SEM still suffers from some negative perceptions. Some authors consider it unfortunate and short sighted, justifying that such negative perceptions have to do with the familiarity towards the CB-SEM software, such as AMOS, EQS, LISREL and others (Hair et al., 2011). Nevertheless, in recent years, the popularity in the use of PLS-SEM has increased significantly (Avkiran, 2018; Becker, Klein & Wetzels, 2012), specifically in areas such as tourism (do Valle & Assaker, 2016) and hospitality (Ali, Rasoolimanesh, Sarstedt, Ringle & Ryu, 2018).

One reason for this, is mainly because many researchers considered it to be the best method when introducing and estimating composite and formative indicators, which can represent a hard task in CB-SEM (Hair et al., 2014; Roldán & Sánchez-Franco, 2012). In addition, the measurement theory in different areas still assumes automatically the use of reflective measures, even though the increase and growing awareness of the possibility that in some cases latent variables or constructs can be measured by using composite and formative measurement models (Bollen & Ting, 2000).

It is also important to refer that in regards to this subject, the conventional measurement perspective is still the one that assumes that indicators are effects and that the latent variable determines its indicators (the arrows point from latent variable to the indicators) (Diamantopoulos, 1999; Hair et al., 2014) whereas with composite and formative measures the arrows point from the indicators to the latent variable, therefore, assuming that the indicators make up or cause the construct (Henseler, 2017). In this framework, researchers from a variety of disciplines are now opting out from the dominant reflective measurement traditional approach developing and using composite and formative measures instead (Howell, Breivik & Wilcox, 2007).

Moreover, authors like Bollen (2011) and Henseler (2017) refer the existence of three types of measurement models: the common factor models, that corresponds to the traditional reflective measurement; the causal indicator models, commonly known as formative measurement models; and composite models. In this framework, it can be frequently observed in the literature that composite models are easily confused with formative models. Consequently, it is important to refer that while both models do not contain the error term on the indicator level, formative models contain an error term on the level of the latent variable

(Bollen, 2011; Henseler, 2017). This detail constitutes an important implication regarding the conceptualization of formative models (see Bollen, 2011; Bollen & Bauldry, 2011; Henseler, 2017; Ringle, Thiele, & Gudergan, 2016; Sarstedt, Hair,). Acknowledging the lack of agreement in the literature, as well as the use of the same terminology when dealing with different concepts in different contexts, we adopt the view from Henseler (2017) that differentiates reflective, formative (causal-formative) and composite measurement, therefore, promoting disambiguation in this work.

Moreover, authors like Ellwart & Konradt (2011) are of the opinion that because of its nature, formative and composite measurement approaches can be easily transferred to concepts such us motivation. Also, Kim (2011) in regards to public service motivations (PSM), tested several models that lead to the conclusion that the best approach to measure PSM was to consider motivations as a second order formative/composite construct. In this context, we considered MOT in this research as a second order composite construct. Regardless of considering that the best approach to measure CI construct was to use formative or composite measures, specifying formatively-measured constructs in endogenous positions can be particularly problematic (Cadogan & Lee, 2013), as in the case of the Conceptual Model A.

Although it is possible to find contradictory theories and opinions in regards to this subject, authors such as Cadogan & Lee (2013), Temme & Hildebrandt (2006) and Wiley (2005) raised awareness to the dangers of formative constructs placed in endogenous positions, arguing that it could lead to biased structural parameters, incorrect effect sizes and, doubtful and erroneous conclusions. Nevertheless, even though the urgency of this issue, clear and detailed guidelines regarding the proper modelling of endogenous formative and composite constructs are still lacking in the literature (Temme, Diamantopoulos & Pfegfeidel, 2014). For these reasons in the Conceptual Model A, this research has chosen to apply composite measures to the MOT construct, and because of its endogenous position CI was measured as a reflective construct. Contrary to this, in the Conceptual Model B since CI assumes an exogenous position, composite measures were used. Additionally, because this research includes both composite and reflective constructs, PLS-SEM was considered to be the best statistical technique to be applied in the context of the measurement of structural relationships.

Also, SPSS (version 21) was used to create a database to analyse descriptive statistics, the reliability of data, the demographic profile of the sample, as well as to perform t-Tests and to analyse the initial insights of item dimensionality and afterwards explore them in SmartPLS 3 (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015).

5.1.1 Sample and data collection procedure

The dataset used for the research was collected in the historical city centres of Porto (Portugal) and Santiago de Compostela (Spain), during the months of August and September of 2013 and September and October of 2013, respectively. In both cases were used questionnaires administered to the tourist visiting these cities. These questionnaires were translated in 4 different languages: English, Spanish, Portuguese and French. For the purpose of finding errors in the questionnaires and to minimize translation errors, a pilot test with 20 random tourists for every different questionnaire was performed in Porto. After the correction of some minor errors that were identified, the final questionnaire was administered to the tourists. The fact that the tourists were in a moment of relaxation and calmness significantly contributed to maximize their levels of willingness and interest in participating in the study. In Santiago, a total of 530 tourists were approached and from that group 407 agreed to partake the study, corresponding to a response rate of 76,7 %. Whereas, in Porto 512 tourists where approached, and 408 agreed to participate, corresponding to a response rate of 79,6 %.

In sum, a total of 1042 tourists were approached in both cities, which presented a total sample of 815 tourists. This sample was used for all descriptive analysis and t-test analysis. After the data computation to SmartPLS 3 (Ringle et al., 2015), 7 surveys were considered invalid, resulting in a sample of 808 tourists that was used to develop and estimate the Model A and Model B.

5.1.2 Measurement of constructs: questionnaire development and scales

With the purpose of measuring MOT, 18 social-psychological motivation variables were included in the questionnaire, where 17 variables were adapted from the work of Baloglu & McCleary (1999a) and an extra item ("share with my friends on social network") was also included (Table 12). The respondents were invited to answer to what would they consider important when they choose a tourism destination, with the possibility of rating on a 4 point Likert type scale, ranging from 1 ("not important at all") to 4 ("very important").

Table 12. Motivation Variables

Motivation Variables
Relieving stress and tension
Doing exciting things
Doing new things/ Increasing my knowledge
Meeting people with similar interests
Going to places my friends have not been
Getting away from demands of everyday life
Relaxing physically and mentally
Finding thrills and excitement
Being adventurous
Experiencing different cultures and ways of life
Enriching myself intellectually
Experiencing new/different places
Developing close friendships
Telling my friends about the trip
Getting away from crowds
Escaping from the routine
Having fun / Being entertained
Share with my friends on social networks (Facebook, Twitter, etc)

With the purpose of measuring CI, 19 items were included in the survey (Table 13) based on the approaches of Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martín (2004), Chen & Phou (2013) and Martín & del Bosque

(2008). The nature of the items included the cities' infrastructures, social setting and environment, cultural environment, atmosphere and natural environment. Moreover, tourists were asked to specify their level of disagreement or agreement in regards to the characteristics of the city that they were visiting at that moment (Porto or Santiago), using a scale from 1 ("totally disagree") to 7 ("totally agree").

Table 13. Cognitive image variables

Cognitive Image Variables
Good Accommodation Quality
Good for Shopping
Beautiful Scenery / Natural Attractions
Places of Historical or Cultural Interest
Interesting Cultural Activities
Good Gastronomy
Porto/Santiago is a Peaceful Place
People Are Willing to Help Tourists
Good Safety Level
Interesting and Friendly People
Porto/Santiago is a Relaxing Place
Natural Beauty of the City
Good Weather
Good City to Rest
Good Value for Money
Good Quality of Infrastructures
Porto/Santiago is a Clean City
Good City to Learn About Local Customs
Porto/Santiago is a City With a Lot of Tourism

To measure behavioural intentions, the approaches from Bigné et al. (2001), Chen & Tsai (2007) and Sun, Chi, & Xu (2013) were considered, thus consistent with BI and LOY literature (see Zhang et al., 2014). Therefore, two items were included in regards to the likeness to revisit the city in the future and the willingness to recommend the city to family or friends, which were rated on the level of disagreement/agreement, using a scale from 1 ("totally disagree") to 5 ("totally agree") (Table 14).

To measure SAT, a single summative overall measure of satisfaction was used in order to capture the tourist's satisfaction with the travel and destination experience (Table 14), in agreement with several authors who have used single measures to capture overall satisfaction (Bigné et al., 2001; Bolton & Lemon, 1999; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha & Bryant, 1996; Sirakaya, Petrick & Choi, 2004; Stylidis, Belhassen & Shani, 2015).

Table 14. Other research variables

Variables		Description
Overall Satisfaction	SAT	Overall I'm satisfied with my travelling experience in this city.
Overall Image	OI	Please rate your overall image of the city
Behavioural Intentions	BI1	I would like to revisit this city in the future.
Behavioural Intentions	BI2	I will recommend this city to my family/friends.
Overall Individual Tourist Expenditure	EXP	Please do specify the average amount of money spent during your stay
Length of Stay	LEN	Please do specify how many days you will stay in the city

Moreover, SAT was measured with a five-point single-item Likert type scale, where the respondents were asked to rate their level of disagreement/ agreement regarding the statement "Overall I'm satisfied with my travelling experience in this city" from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). OI was also measured with a summative single-item (Table 14), an approach consistent with Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martin (2004), Bigné et al. (2001) and Stylidis et al. (2015). Hence, the respondents were asked to rate their OI of the city in a scale from 1 (highly unfavourable) to 5 (highly favourable). Also, it was included an open ended question in regards to length of the tourists' stay at the destination.

The EXP was measured with an open ended question where respondents were asked to specify the average amount of money spent during their stay (Table 14). As referred by Hair et al. (2017), ratio scales are the type of scales that provide the most information, because with ratio scales all types of mathematical computations are possible and variables measured with ratio scales can always be used with multivariate analysis. Furthermore, only tourists (i.e. individuals that spent at least one night at the destination) were allowed to participate in the study. Tourists were also advised to consider only the expenses at the destination, disregarding others, such us the transportation to the destination.

Finally, the last 6 items included in the questionnaire have to do with socio-demographic variables (Table 15) that allow us to obtain a sample profile and possibly information that has impact in other variables present in the research models.

Table 15. Social-demographic variables of the study

Socio-Demographic Variables
Country
Genre
Age
Marital Status
Educational Level
Monthly Income

Consequently, three open-ended questions were included with the purpose to know the tourist's country of origin, age and educational level. Also, three close-ended questions were included, regarding the genre of the surveyed tourist, marital status and monthly income.

5.2 ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.2.1 Descriptive Analysis and t-Test

5.2.1.1 Sample's Description: Respondents Profile

In Table 16 it is shown a summary of the sample's profile for the 815 surveyed tourists. In the table it is possible to observe that the sample's distribution by genre is balanced indicating an almost equal participation in the survey.

Table 16. Descriptive sample characteristics (N = 815)

Variable	Characteristics	%
Gender	Male	50.6
	Female	49.4
Age	24 or less	24.4
	25-34	35.7
	35-44	16.1
	45-54	14.1
	55-64	7
	65 and over	2
Education	Primary School	1.2
	High School	22.1
	Univ. Degree	47.5
	Postgrad./Master	24.3
	PhD	3.9
	No Answer	1%
Marital Status	Married	28.1
	Single	66.1
	Divorced	2.6
	Widowed	1
	No Answer	2.2
Income	0-1200€	36.1
	1201€-2400€	31.7
	Over 2401€	12.4
	No Answer	19.8
Length of Stay (mean)		3.07

Also, more than 60% of the surveyed tourist were below 34 years old and more than 30% were between 35 and 54 years old. Additionally,

71.8% of the sample has a university degree, post-graduation or a master degree, while 22.1% of the respondents has a high school degree. Regarding the marital status, 66.1% of the respondents were single and 28.1% were married.
Concerning the monthly income, 36.1 % of the respondents referred that their income was between 0 and 1200€, 31.7% selected the interval between 1201€ and 2400€, 12.4% claimed that their monthly income was above 2401€ and 19.8% refused to answer the question. Finally, regarding the length of stay in the destination, the mean value of the 815 survey respondents was of 3.07 days.

5.2.1.2 Sample's Profile and Distribution – Porto

In regards to the profile of the sample collected in Porto (N=408), the distribution of the sample by genre shows almost equal participation in the survey, with 48.3% of the respondents being males and 51.7% females (Table 17).

Regarding the sample distribution by age (
Figure ***16***), most of the respondents (38.2%) were between 25 and 34 years old, while 24.5% were 24 years old or less, and 16.4% of the respondents were between 45 and 54 years old. In other age categories, 13.7% of the sample is between 35 and 44 years old, 5.1 % is between 55 and 64 and only 1.2% was more than 65 years old.

Table 17. Sample distribution by gender - Porto

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	197	48.3	48.3	48.3
	Female	211	51.7	51.7	100.0
	Total	408	100.0	100.0	

Concerning the marital status of the respondents (Table 18), single tourists represent 64.5% of the sample, married respondents represent 29.9%, divorced tourists represent 2,7%, and widowed represent 1.2% of the sample.

In regards to the educational level of the survey respondents (Table 19), more than 75% of the respondents (77.7%) have at least one university degree (45% have a university degree, 27.9% have a post-graduation or master degree, and 4.7% have a PhD degree), while 19.1% have concluded high school and 1.7% just primary school.

Figure 16. Sample distribution by age - Porto (n=405)

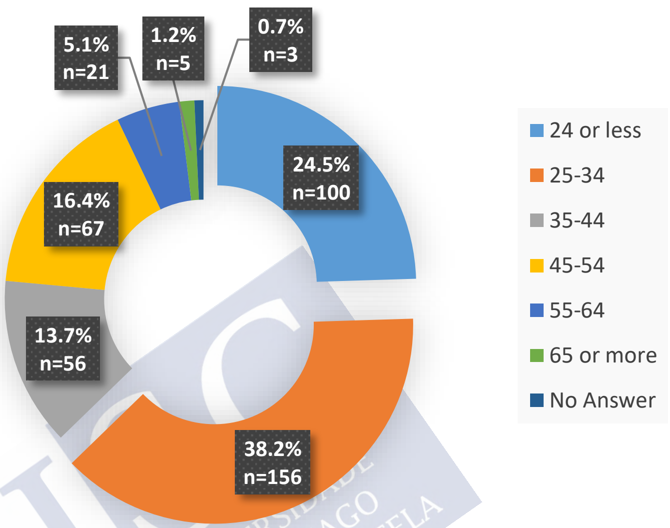


Table 18. Sample distribution by marital status - Porto

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Married	122	29.9	30.4	30.4
	Single	263	64.5	65.6	96.0
	Divorced	11	2.7	2.7	98.8
	Widowed	5	1.2	1.2	100.0
	Total	401	98.3	100.0	
Missing		7	1.7		
Total		408	100.0		

The distribution by income per month (Table 20) shows balance between the two first categories, this is from 0 to 1200 euros (32.6%) and from 1201 to 2400 euros (33.6%). In addition, 13.2% of the sample have an income superior to 2401 euros. It is also importance that 18.6% of the tourists affirmed that did not know or would not answer the question, while 2% simply left the question unanswered.

Table 19. Sample distribution by education level - Porto

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Primary School	7	1.7	1.7	1.7
	High School	78	19.1	19.4	21.1
	Univ. Degree	184	45.1	45.8	66.9
	Post-Grad. / Master	114	27.9	28.4	95.3
	PhD	19	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	402	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	6	1.5		
Total		408	100.0		

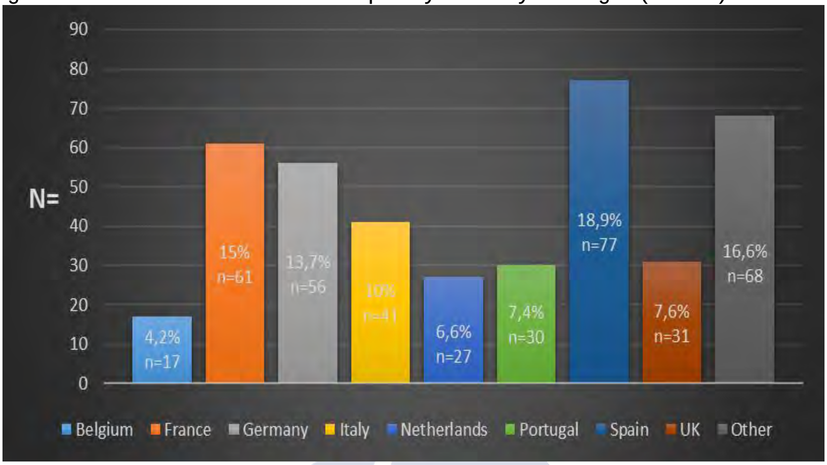
Concerning the sample distribution by the tourist's country of origin (Figure 17) it is shown that most of the tourist came from Spain (18.9%), France (15%) and Germany (13.7%). Other relevant countries of origin are Italy (10%), UK (7.6%), Portugal (7.4%), Netherlands (6.6%) and Belgium (4.2%).

Table 20. Sample distribution by income per month - Porto

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-1200	133	32.6	33.3	33.3
	1201-2400	137	33.6	34.3	67.5
	Over 2401	54	13.2	13.5	81.0
	Don't Know / Don't Answer	76	18.6	19.0	100.0
	Total	400	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	8	2.0		
Total		408	100.0		

Beside these countries above mentioned, other countries of origin are present in the sample (16.6%) although the frequency for each country is very small. Nevertheless, it is relevant to refer that the category "other" includes countries such as Austria, Brazil, Czech Republic, Ireland, Luxembourg, Mexico, Poland, Switzerland, Russia, Hungary or Canada.

Figure 17. Distribution of the sample by country of origin (n=408) - Porto



Moreover, the survey questioned the tourist regarding the amount of days spent the city and the amount of money spent during their stay. Hence, the mean value for the duration of the stay is of 3.5 days (N= 407) and the mean value of overall individual expenditure during the stay is of 267.7 euros (N= 395) (Table 21).

Table 21. **Mean values of tourist's length of stay and individual expenditure -** Porto

	N	Mean
Individual Expenditure	395	267.77
Length of Stay	407	3.50

5.2.1.3 Sample's Profile and Distribution – Santiago

In the case of the sample collected in Santiago de Compostela (N=407), the distribution by the respondent's gender is also very equally distributed (as in the case of the Porto), with 47% of the respondents being females and almost 53% being males (Table 22).

Concerning the sample distribution by age (Figure 18), 33.4% of the sample is formed by the group of respondents between 25 and 34 years old, 24.3% by respondents under 24 years old, and 18.4% between 35 and 44 years old. Other age categories are represented with 11.8% by the group between 45 and 54 years old, 8.8% by the age group between 55 and 64, and 2.7% by the age group of 65 and over.

Table 22. Sample distribution by gender - Santiago

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	214	52.6	52.8	52.8
	Female	191	46.9	47.2	100
	Total	405	99.5	100	
	Missing	2	0.5		
	Total	407	100		

In regards to the sample distribution by marital status (Table 23), single tourists represent 67.8% of the sample, married represent 26.3% of the sample, divorced represent 2.5% and widowed represent 0.7% of the sample.

Figure 18. Sample distribution by age - Santiago

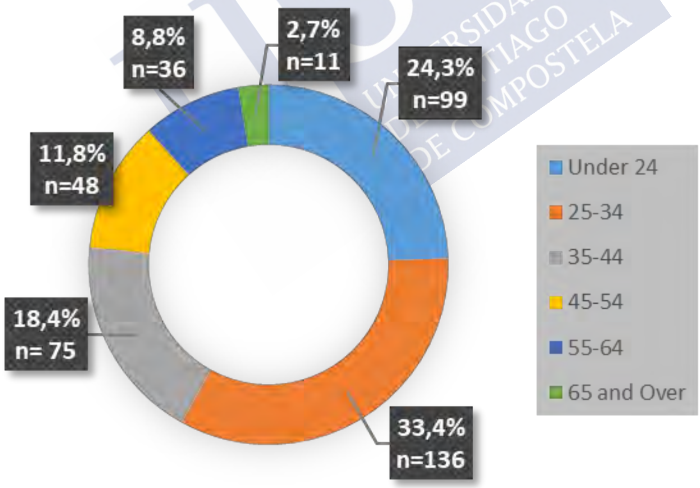


Table 23. Sample distribution by marital status - Santiago

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Married	107	26.3	27.0	27.0
	Single	276	67.8	69.7	96.7
	Divorced	10	2.5	2.5	99.2
	Widowed	3	.7	.8	100.0
	Total	396	97.3	100.0	
Missing	System	11	2.7		
Total		407	100.0		

Analysing the sample profile in regards to the educational level of the survey respondents, half of the sample (49.9%) has a university degree, 20.6% has a post-graduation or master degree, and 3.2% a PhD. Also, 25.1% of the sample fits the high school group category and only 0.7% the primary school category.

Table 24. Sample distribution by education level - Santiago

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Primary School	3	.7	.7	.7
	High School	102	25.1	25.2	25.9
	Univ. Degree	203	49.9	50.1	76.0
	Post-Grad. / Master	84	20.6	20.7	96.8
	PhD	13	3.2	3.2	100.0
	Total	405	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.5		
Total		407	100.0		

Table 25. Sample distribution by income per month - Santiago

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-1200	161	39.6	39.9	39.9
	1201-2400	121	29.7	30.0	69.8
	Over 2401	47	11.5	11.6	81.4
	Don't Know / Don't Answer	75	18.4	18.6	100.0
	Total	404	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.7		
Total		407	100.0		

Regarding the sample distribution by income per month (Table 25), 39.6% of the sample is in the group category of the income between 0 and 1200 euros per month. The second group with higher percentage is the group between 1201 and 2400 euros per month with 29.7% of the sample. Also 11.5% of the sample has over 2401 euros of income per month. In addition, 18.4% refused to answer or simply does not know the income received per month. Finally, 0.7% of the sample simply did not answered the question, leaving it blank.

Concerning the nationality of the survey's respondents (Figure 19), 20.1% of the respondents are from Germany, 19.4% from Spain, 11.1% from the UK, 10.3% from Italy, 9.6% from France, 9.1% from Portugal, 4.2% from the USA and 2.7% from Luxembourg. The category "others" was created to compile the several countries that are part of the sample (although too disperse distribution in the sample), such as: Belgium (2.5%), Netherlands (2.5%), Poland (1.7%), Canada (1.2%), Brazil (1%), Czech Republic (1%), Ireland (1%), Australia (0.7%), Switzerland (0.5%), Argentina (0.5%), among others.

Beside the variables analysed before, tourists were also questioned regarding the length of the stay in Santiago, as well as the expenditure during their stay. The results in Table 26, show that the mean value of overall individual expenditure on the stay is of 158.5 euros (n=403) and the mean value of days spent in the city is of 2.6 days (n=404).

Figure 19. Distribution of the sample by country of origin (n=407) - Santiago

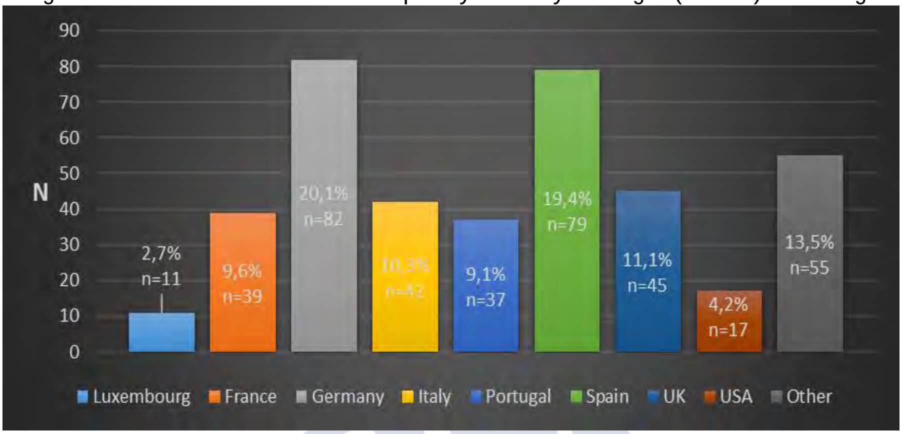


Table 26. **Mean values of tourist's length of stay and individual expenditure -** Santiago

	N	Mean
Individual Expenditure	403	158.50
Length of Stay	404	2.62

Comparing these numbers with the sample obtained in the city of Porto, the results suggest that the tourist surveyed in Porto spent more 109.2 euros that the ones surveyed in Santiago (267.7 euros in Porto versus 158.5 euros in Santiago). At the same time, the results also suggest that the tourists surveyed in Porto spent basically one day more (0.9 days) in the city comparing to the tourists surveyed in Santiago (3.5 days in Porto versus 2.6 days in Santiago).

5.2.1.4 Cognitive Image: Comparison Between the Two Cities - t-Test Results

In Table 27, we included the CI evaluation mean score values for both cities and the respective variation of the values.

In regards to the city of Porto, it is possible to see that all image dimensions were rated positively. All dimensions obtained evaluations superior to 4 points and only 2 variables were rated with less than 5 points ("good for shopping" with a mean score of 4.47 points and "Porto is a clean city" with a mean value of 4.80 points. Also, it is important to refer that 2 items had mean values superior to 6 points, and for that reason were the highest ratings obtained (the variable "Good weather" had a mean value of 6.25 points, whereas the variable "places of historical or cultural interest" obtained a mean value of 6.07 points). In addition, 3 variables can also be highlighted for its high mean values: "People are willing to help tourists" with 5.96 points; "Interesting and friendly people" with 5.87 points and "Natural beauty of the city" with 5.87 points.

Table 27. Cognitive image evaluation mean scores of Porto and Santiago

Cognitive Image Dimensions	Porto	Santiago	Variation
Good Accommodation Quality	5.14	5.06	0.08
Good for Shopping	4.47	4.37	0.10
Beautiful Scenery / Natural Attractions	5.68	5.62	0.06
Places of Historical or Cultural Interest	6.07	6.54	0.47
Interesting Cultural Activities	5.20	5.47	0.27
Good Gastronomy	5.42	5.45	0.03
Porto/Santiago is a Peaceful Place	5.44	5.43	0.01
People Are Willing to Help Tourists	5.96	5.53	0.43
Good Safety Level	5.50	5.75	0.25
Interesting and Friendly People	5.87	5.70	0.17
Porto/Santiago is a Relaxing Place	5.41	5.38	0.03
Natural Beauty of the City	5.87	6.00	0.13
Good Weather	6.25	5.45	0.80
Good City to Rest	5.39	5.24	0.15
Good Value for Money	5.65	4.80	0.85
Good Quality of Infrastructures	5.38	5.41	0.03
Porto/Santiago is a Clean City	4.80	5.53	0.73
Good City to Learn About Local Customs	5.12	5.12	0.00
Porto/Santiago is a City With a Lot of Tourism	5.70	6.29	0.59

In regards to the CI evaluation in the city of Santiago de Compostela, all variables were rated above 4 points and, therefore, all variables were rated positively (Table 27). Hence, 17 items obtained evaluations superior to 5 points and only 2 items (of the total of the 19 items) had evaluations inferior to 5 points. The variables with less than 5 points are "Good for shopping" with 4.37 points and "Good value for money" with 4,80 points. Moreover, 3 variables obtained a mean score value equal or superior to 6 points: "Places of historical or cultural interest" with 6.54 points; "Santiago is a city with a lot of tourism" with 6.29 points; and "Natural beauty of the city" with 6.0 points.

After the evaluations' results of both cities, an independent samples t-Test was performed to determine the existence of significant differences between the CI evaluation's mean scores between the two groups of tourist (the ones surveyed in Porto and the ones surveyed in Santiago).

The results from the independent t test (Appendix B), suggest that from the group of 19 items used to measure CI, 11 obtained p values superior to .005 and, therefore, no statistically significant differences were found between the two groups of tourists. This group of 11 items includes: "Good accommodation quality"; "Good for shopping"; "Beautiful scenery/natural attractions"; "Good gastronomy"; "City is a peaceful place"; "Interesting and friendly people"; "City is a relaxing place"; "Natural beauty of the city"; "Good city to rest"; "Good quality of infrastructures"; and "Good city to learn about local customs".

The t test results also suggest the existence of statistically significant differences between the two groups in 8 observed variables:

- In the variable "Places of historical or cultural interest", Santiago (M= 6.54, SD=.686) had a statistically significantly higher score when compared to Porto (M=6.07, SD=.911) - $t\,(810) = 8.197$, $p = .000$, $\alpha = .005$ (the 95% confidence interval was .353 to .575)

- In the variable "Interesting cultural activities", Santiago (M=5.47, SD=1.086) also had a statistically significantly higher score than the Porto (M=5.20, SD=1.093) – $t\,(779) = 3.514$, $p = .000$, $\alpha = .005$ (the 95% confidence interval was .121 to .427)

- In the variable “People are willing to help tourists”, Porto (M=5.96, SD=.975) obtained a statistically higher score than Santiago (M=5.53, SD=1.079) – t (793.365) = -5.838, p = .000, α = .005 (with 95% confidence interval of -.566 to -.281)

- Concerning “Good safety level”, Santiago (M=5.75, SD=.955) obtained a statistically higher score than Porto (M=5.50, SD=1.131) – t (766.214) = 3.387, p = .001, α = .005 (with a 95% confidence interval of .106 to .398)

- In the variable “Good weather”, Porto (M=6.25, SD=.841) obtained a statistically higher score than Santiago (M=5.45, SD=1.277) – t (695.052) = -10.617, p = .000, α = .005 (the 95% confidence interval was -.958 to -.659)

- In the item “Good value for money”, Porto (M=5.65, SD=.999) obtained a statistically higher score than Santiago (M=4.80, SD=1.124) – t (798) = -11.365, p = .000, α = .005 (the 95% confidence interval was -1.002 to -.707)

- In the variable “Clean city”, Santiago (M=5.53, SD=1.003) obtained a statistically higher score than Porto (M=4.80, SD=1.330) – t (743.568) = 8.753, p = .000, α = .005 (95% confidence interval of .564 to .890)

- In regards to the variable “City with a lot of tourism”, Santiago (M=6.29, SD=.798) obtained a statistically higher score than Porto (M=5.70, SD=.972) – t (773.502) = 9.491, p = .000, α = .005 (95% confidence interval of .471 to .717)

5.2.1.5 Overall Image, Overall Satisfaction and Loyalty: Comparison Between the Two Cities - t-Test Results

An independent samples t-Test was also conducted in order to determine the existence of statistically significant differences between the two groups of tourists on the mean scores of OI, SAT and BI. In

Table 28, we included the comparative mean scores of the 4 variables analysed and respective standard deviation.

In the Appendix B, it is shown the results from the t test analysis. The results of the t test suggest that from the 4 variables analysed, only the score of the variable “I will recommend this city to my friends” was considered statistically significantly different between the two groups of tourists.

Moreover, in regards to the variable “I will recommend this city to my friends”, Porto (M=4,53, SD=.619) obtained a statistically higher score than Santiago (M=4.31, SD=.769) - t (810) = 1.333, p = .000, α = .005 (the 95% confidence interval is of -.308 to -.137).

Table 28. Evaluation mean scores of overall image, satisfaction and loyalty - Porto and Santiago

Variables	City	Mean	Variation
Overall Image	Santiago	4.35	0.05
	Porto	4.30	
Intention to Revisit	Santiago	3.99	0.01
	Porto	3.98	
Intention to Recommend	Santiago	4.31	0.22
	Porto	4.53	
Overall Satisfaction	Santiago	4.47	0.04
	Porto	4.51	

The results for the other three variables failed to determine statistically significant differences between the scores of the two groups:

- “Overall Image of the city” – t (810) = 1.333, p = .183, α = .005 (the 95% confidence interval is of -.026 to .136)

- “I would like to revisit this city in the future” – t (807) = .194, p = .846, α = .005 (the 95% confidence interval is of -.112 to .137)

- “Overall I’m satisfied with my travelling experience in this city” – t (809) = -.860, p = .390, α = .005 (the 95% confidence interval is of -.126 to .049)

5.2.2 Hypotheses testing: PLS-SEM analysis

5.2.2.1 Model A: PLS-SEM

5.2.2.1.1 Model A: Scales, Reliability and Validity

Firstly, SPSS (version 21) was used with the purpose of analysing descriptive and reliability statistics, as well as the demographic profile of the sample. Afterwards, a principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was conducted for a pool of 39 items (18 items of the MOT construct, 19 items of CI and 2 items of BI). From the analysis, 9 factors were extracted representing 56,39% of the overall variance. The factors were then incorporated in SmartPLS 3 (Ringle et al., 2015) for further analysis.

The assessment in SmartPLS3 (Ringle et al., 2015) revealed that 5 items from the CI construct did not meet the required loadings (above 0.50), namely “good for shopping”, “beautiful scenery / natural attractions”, “good weather”, “good city to learn about local customs”, “Porto/Santiago is a city with a lot of tourism”, and for this reason were removed from further analyses.

Moreover, the final structure of the model includes a second order composite construct to measure MOT with 18 items that form 4 factors, that were named “Social and Prestige” (SOC), “Escape and Relax” (ESC), “Knowledge” (KNO) and “Adventure and Excitement” (ADV) (Table 29).

Additionally, the model integrates a reflective second order construct to measure CI with 14 items that form 4 factors (Table 30) that were named “Atmosphere” (ATM), “Hospitality and Value” (HOS), “Cultural Environment” (CUL) and “Infrastructures” (INF). Finally, it was also integrated in the model a reflective first order construct with 2 items to measure BI (Table 14).

To evaluate and assess the validity of the first and second order composite MOT construct a bootstrap option with a 5000 resample was performed, and which the results are shown in Table 31. The criteria to assess composite or formative constructs is rather different from the criteria applied to reflective constructs (Chin, 1998). Analysing Table 31, it is possible to conclude that all weights are significant with the exception of the items "ESC1", "ESC3" and "ESC5". Hair et al. (2017) recommend that when insignificant weights are obtained, the outer loadings of those items should be analysed in order to assess if the items should be kept or removed from the model.

Table 29. Motivation Constructs - Model A

Motivation Constructs	Items	Variables
Social and Prestige (SOC)		
	SOC1	Developing close friendships
	SOC2	Telling my friends about the trip
	SOC3	Share with my friends on social networks
	SOC4	Meeting people with similar interests
	SOC5	Going to places my friends have not been
Escape and Relax (ESC)		
	ESC1	Getting away from crowds
	ESC2	Escaping from the routine
	ESC3	Relieving stress and tension
	ESC4	Getting away from demands of everyday life
	ESC5	Relaxing physically and mentally
Knowledge (KNO)		
	KNO1	Experiencing different cultures and ways of life
	KNO2	Enriching myself intellectually
	KNO3	Experiencing new/different places
	KNO4	Doing new things/ Increasing my knowledge
Adventure and Excitement (ADV)		
	ADV1	Having fun / Being entertained
	ADV2	Doing exciting things
	ADV3	Finding thrills and excitement
	ADV4	Being adventurous

Following these recommendations, the outer loadings of ESC1 (β= 0.594; P=.000), ESC3 (β = 0.532; P=.000) and ESC5 (β= 0.545;

P=.001) were above 0.5 and statistically significant and, therefore, the items were kept in the model in agreement with Hair et al. (2017). Also, the results indicate that all four first order constructs significantly contribute to the formation of the second order construct.

Table 30. Cognitive image constructs - Model A

Cognitive Image Constructs	Items	Variables
Atmosphere (ATM)		
	ATM1	Relaxing Place
	ATM2	Natural Beauty
	ATM3	City to Rest
	ATM4	Peaceful Place
Hospitality and Value (HOS)		
	HOS1	Interesting and Friendly People
	HOS2	Good Value for Money
	HOS3	Willingness to Help Tourists
Cultural Environment (CUL)		
	CUL1	Historical or Cultural Interest
	CUL2	Interesting Cultural Activities
	CUL3	Gastronomy
Infrastructures (INF)		
	INF1	Quality of Infrastructures
	INF2	Cleanliness
	INF3	Accommodation Quality
	INF4	Safety Level

The variance inflation factors (VIF) were also analysed and all values obtained were lower than 3, proving the nonexistence of collinearity in the study. These results indicate content validity, lack of collinearity and relevance of the first order constructs, thus establishing the quality of measurement of the composite model.

In regards to first and second order reflective CI constructs, the results from the bootstrap resample of 5000 are shown in Table 32, including the items and factor loadings and respective t values and P values, as well as the average variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach’s alpha.

According to these results, all indicators' loadings were above 0.50 and therefore significant, confirming individual indicator reliability. Regarding AVE, all first order constructs obtained values above 0.50 (ATM = 0.628; HOS = 0.638; CUL = 0.604; INF = 0.520) as well as the second order construct (CI = 0.615) which indicates convergent validity of the model. The Cronbach's alpha values were above the threshold 0.70 with the exception of CUL (0.673) and INF (0.687), although Cronbach's alpha values between 0.60 and 0.70 are frequently considered as acceptable values (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 31. Assessment of the first and second order composite motivation constructs - Model A

Construct	Items	Weights	T Statistics (Bootstrap)	P Values	VIF
Social and Prestige (SOC)		0.463	12.124	0.000	1.373
	SOC1	0.279	5.557	0.000	1.651
	SOC2	0.295	5.634	0.000	1.460
	SOC3	0.210	3.650	0.000	1.270
	SOC4	0.381	7.115	0.000	1.366
	SOC5	0.251	4.756	0.000	1.449
Escape and Relax (ESC)		0.250	4.064	0.000	1.053
	ESC1	0.262	1.654	0.098	1.181
	ESC2	0.464	3.158	0.002	1.294
	ESC3	0.182	1.206	0.228	1.313
	ESC4	0.412	2.679	0.007	1.437
	ESC5	0.116	0.629	0.530	1.455
Knowledge (KNO)		0.389	11.285	0.000	1.116
	KNO1	0.351	5.033	0.000	1.315
	KNO2	0.315	3.903	0.000	1.584
	KNO3	0.325	5.078	0.000	1.215
	KNO4	0.383	5.176	0.000	1.507
Adventure and Excitement (ADV)		0.414	15.077	0.000	1.426
	ADV1	0.322	6.711	0.000	1.222
	ADV2	0.132	2.278	0.023	1.422
	ADV3	0.387	7.491	0.000	1.547
	ADV4	0.471	8.333	0.000	1.496

Nevertheless, Cronbach's alpha has its limitations as it tends to underestimate the internal consistency reliability and, therefore, it can be considered a conservative measure (Hair et al., 2017). Hence, Hair et al. (2017) suggest that CR is technically a more accurate measure of internal consistency reliability. In this sense, the results in Table 32 indicate that all constructs' CR values are above 0.70 indicating internal consistency and reliability of the model (Chin, 2010).

The results of the assessment of the reflective BI construct (Table 33), confirms the existence of individual indicator reliability, as all indicators' loadings are significant and above a 0.50 (BI1= 0.881 and BI2= 0.899). Also, the AVE value above 0.50 (AVE = 0.792) confirms the convergent validity of the construct.

Table 32. Assessment of first and second order reflective cognitive image constructs - Model A

Construct	Items	Loadings	T Statistics (Bootstrap)	P Values	AVE	CR	Alpha
Cognitive Image (CI)	--	--	--	--	0.615	0.901	0.883
Atmosphere (ATM)		0.842	69.961	0.000	0.628	0.870	0.799
	ATM1	0.869	84.699	0.000			
	ATM2	0.685	30.601	0.000			
	ATM3	0.840	72.449	0.000			
	ATM4	0.763	37.442	0.000			
Hospitality and Value (HOS)		0.770	48.425	0.000	0.638	0.840	0.712
	HOS1	0.841	70.737	0.000			
	HOS2	0.697	28.509	0.000			
	HOS3	0.849	71.036	0.000			
Cultural Environment (CUL)		0.717	33.043	0.000	0.604	0.821	0.673
	CUL1	0.775	40.932	0.000			
	CUL2	0.796	46.028	0.000			
	CUL3	0.760	42.864	0.000			
Infrastructures (INF)		0.803	58.369	0.000	0.520	0.810	0.687
	INF1	0.768	43.488	0.000			
	INF2	0.741	34.476	0.000			
	INF3	0.567	15.538	0.000			
	INF4	0.788	56.763	0.000			

Moreover, Cronbach's alpha (0.738) and CR (0.884) values confirm internal consistency reliability.

In regards to discriminant validity, Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt (2015) found two relevant facts: 1) when constructs are highly correlated, the cross-loading approach fails to establish a lack of discriminant validity; 2) the Fornell-Larcker criterion has an overall poor performance specially when the indicators' loadings are very similar to each other.

Table 33. Assessment of first order reflective behavioural intentions construct - Model A

Construct	Items	Loading	T Statistics (Bootstrap)	P Values	AVE	CR	Alpha
Behavioural Intentions (BI)					0.792	0.884	0.738
	BI1	0.881	73.111	0.000			
	BI2	0.899	102.943	0.000			

Consequently, in order to assess discriminant validity (DV) between constructs in the model, this study adopted the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) approach by Henseler et al. (2015), which is now present in SmartPLS 3 (Ringle et al., 2015) standard software analysis reports. Thus, the results for the HTMT (Table 34) with a bootstrap resample of 5000 shows that all values are significantly different from 1 and therefore discriminant validity between constructs was established.

Table 34. Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) values - Model A

Relationship	Original Sample	t Value	P Values
Behavioural Intentions -> Cognitive Image	0.723	26.877	0.000
Motivation -> Cognitive image	0.452	14.915	0.000
Motivation -> Behavioural Intentions	0.302	7.897	0.000

5.2.2.1.2 Model A: Testing of Hypotheses and Results

After confirming the validity and reliability of the measurement model, the structural model was determined in order to measure and test the structural relationships between constructs through the analysis of the path coefficients, as well as the predictive relevance and capability of the model. Therefore, in this section it is analysed the path coefficients and significance of every previous hypothesized relationship, as well as the R^2 values, the effect size (f^2) for construct relationship and the predictive relevance (Q^2) for the endogenous latent constructs. Before the actual results, VIF was assessed in the structural model revealing no problems concerning multicollinearity, as all values were below 5.

The direct relationships for the previous hypothesized relationships were analysed performing the bootstrapping approach of 5000 resample, choosing a two tail test with critical values with a significant level of 1.96 (5%) and 2.57 (1%). In Table 35, it is possible to observe the path coefficients results for the tested relationships and in Figure 20 it is presented a graphical illustration of the model with the estimated results. The path coefficients (standard betas) and levels of significance reveal that the relationship MOT -> BI was found to be insignificant (β = 0.013; P = .700), and, therefore, the results suggest that MOT has no significant impact on BI, thus, **H1a** found no support. Additionally, the path coefficients of the relationship CI -> BI (β = 0.575; P = 0.000), indicate that CI has a significant positive effect on BI and, therefore, supporting **H2a**. Moreover, the relationship MOT -> CI was proven to be significant (β = 0.350; P = 0.000) and, therefore, **H3a** was supported.

Table 35. Results of hypothesized direct relationships - Model A

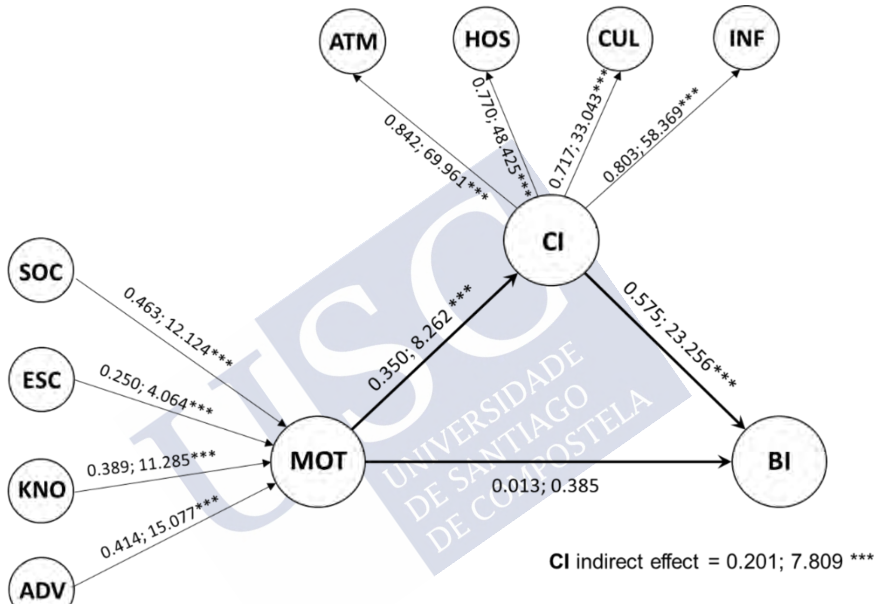
Hypotheses	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Deviation	t Value	P Values	Decision
H1a	MOT -> BI	0.013	0.035	0.385	0.700	Not Supported
H2a	CI -> BI	0.575	0.025	23.256	0.000	Supported
H3a	MOT -> CI	0.350	0.042	8.262	0.000	Supported

After the analysis of the direct relationships between constructs, the predictive accuracy of the model was evaluated assessing the coefficients of determination (R^2 values) of the endogenous constructs. The results (Table 36) indicate a significant R^2 for CI of (R^2 = 0.122; P = 0.000) and a significant R^2 for BI (R^2 = 0.336; P= 0.000).

Table 36. R^2 values of endogenous constructs - Model A

	Original Sample	Std Deviation	t Values	P Values
Cognitive Image	0.122	0.029	4.228	0.000
Behavioural Intentions	0.336	0.027	12.549	0.000

Figure 20. Estimated results of the structural model - Model A



*Notes: Significant at P < 0.05 **; P < 0.01 ***; ADV- Adventure and Excitement; KNO-Knowledge; ESC- Escape and Relax; SOC- Social and Prestige; MOT- Motivation; ATM-Atmosphere; HOS-Hospitality and Value; CUL-Cultural Environment; INF-Infrastructures; CI- Cognitive Image; BI- Behavioural Intentions*

Furthermore, the effect size (f^2) provides information in regards to an exogenous construct's contribution to an endogenous latent variable. According to Cohen (1988), the f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, represent respectively, small, medium, or large effect at the structural level. In this framework, the results (Table 37) indicate a significant small effect on the relationship MOT -> CI (f^2 = 0.140; P = 0.000), a significant large effect in the relationship CI -> BI (f^2 = 0.436; P =

0.000) and, as expected, no effect on the relationship MOT -> BI (f^2 = 0.000; P = 0.927).

Moreover, Stone-Geiser's Q^2 (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974) assessment provides a useful criterion to assess predictive relevance (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2017). Hence, Q^2 values were generated with SmartPLS 3 (Ringle et al., 2015) selecting the blindfolding procedure. A Q^2 value larger than zero for a certain endogenous latent construct demonstrates the path model's predictive relevance of that specific construct (Hair et al., 2014). Hence, Table 38 confirms that all Q^2 values are above zero for all constructs, therefore confirming the existence of predictive relevance of the model.

Table 37. f^2 values for structural relationships - Model A

Relationship	Original Sample	Std Deviation	t Values	P Values
Cognitive Image -> Behavioural Intentions	0.436	0.056	7.846	0.000
Motivation -> Cognitive Image	0.140	0.038	3.686	0.000
Motivation -> Behavioural Intentions	0.000	0.003	0.091	0.927

In regards to the mediation effect of CI, according to Nitzl, Roldan, & Cepeda (2016), a mediation effect occurs when a third variable plays an intermediate role in the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. In addition, the analyses of the indirect effects and mediator variables is especially important because of its importance in the role of prediction (Nitzl et al., 2016).

Table 38. Stone-**Geiser's Q**^{2} values - Model A

Construct	Q^2
Motivation	0.192
Cognitive Image	0.040
Behavioural Intentions	0.254

If an indirect effect is significant, it is possible to conclude the existence of a significant mediation effect (Ro, 2012; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). Additionally, authors like Hair et al. (2017) and Zhao et al. (2010) stated that in the absence of a direct effect and in a scenario where only an indirect effect exists between endogenous and exogenous constructs, a case of full mediation occurs. Consequently, the strength of the mediator variable provides valuable insights of the subjacent process of cause-effect between constructs.

Hereupon, an analyses of the indirect effects in the structural model was conducted with the bootstrap option with 5000 subsamples. The results presented in Table 39 include the direct, indirect and total effects in regards to the relationship between MOT and BI.

Table 39. Direct, indirect and total effect between motivation and behavioural intentions - Model A

Hypotheses	Type of Effect	Effect (mean value)	t Value	P Value	Decision
H4a	Direct Effect	0.014	0.385	0.700	Supported
	Indirect Effect	0.201	7.809	0.000	
	Total Effect	0.215	5.051	0.000	

The results obtained indicate that while there is no direct effect between MOT and BI (direct effect = 0.014; P = 0.700), there is actually a significant positive indirect effect (indirect effect = 0.201; P = 0.000) between these constructs. Also, the total effect was found to be positively significant (total effect = 0.215; P = 0.000). In consequence of this, the results confirm a case of full mediation of the CI construct in the relationship between MOT and BI, thus supporting **H4a**.

5.2.2.2 Model B: PLS-SEM

5.2.2.2.1 Model B: Scales, Reliability and Validity

As in Model A, in a first stage SPSS (version 21) was used to create a database to analyse descriptive statistics, the reliability of data and the demographic profile of the sample. In order to analyse the initial insights of item dimensionality, it was conducted a principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation for a pool of 19 items (Table 13).

Table 40. Cognitive image variables - Model B

Construct	Items	Description
Atmosphere (ATM)	ATM1	Friendly people
	ATM2	Good Value for Money
	ATM3	Good Gastronomy
	AMT4	People Willing to Help
	AMT5	Safety Level
Relaxation and Beauty (REL)	REL1	Relaxing Place
	REL2	Natural Beauty
	REL3	Good Weather
	REL4	Good to Rest
	REL5	Beautiful Scenery and Natural Attractions
	REL6	Peaceful place
Cultural Environment (CUL)	CUL1	Good Destination to Learn Local Customs
	CUL2	Destination with Historical/Cultural Interest
	CUL3	Interesting Cultural Activities
Infrastructures (INF)	INF1	Quality Infrastructures
	INF2	City Cleanliness
	INF3	Accommodation Quality
	INF4	Good for Shopping

The purpose was to discover which variables correlated with one another, but at the same time were independent of other subsets of variables that are combined into factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Four primary factors were extracted, representing 53,9% of the overall variance. After the analyses of the items on each factors, these were identified has “atmosphere” (ATM), “relaxation and beauty” (REL), “cultural environment” (CUL) and “infrastructure” (INF) (Table 40). From this this analysis, one item (“Porto/Santiago is a city with a lot of tourism”) failed to achieve a satisfactory loading (loading value above 0.50) in the four factors and therefore was removed from further analyses.

In a second stage, SmartPLS 3 (Ringle et al., 2015) was used to test a measurement model with the four factors previously extracted for the CI construct and the BI construct. Thus, the proposed model B includes a second order composite type b construct to measure CI and a reflective first order construct for the purpose of measuring tourist’s BI. Also, three single-items (OI, SAT and EXP) were included in the measurement and structural model for the purpose of testing the relations between constructs, considering that OI and SAT are “doubly concrete constructs” as these have a single, simple and clear attributes

(Bergkvist, 2015; Bergkvist & Rossiter, 2007). Furthermore, three control variables where also included to control the EXP variable, namely length of stay, tourist's income and gender.

To evaluate and assess the validity of the composite construct measurement in this this study, the construct was examined by using the repeated indicators approach. When dealing with the traditional reflective indicators it is common to assess factorial validity and reliability analysing composite reliability (CR), Cronbach's alpha, average variance extracted (AVE), discriminant and convergent validity. On the other hand, these reliability measures for composite and formative indicators are meaningless and the same procedures cannot be applied (Petter, Straub & Rai, 2007).

Table 41. Results of the assessment of measurement model for composite first and second order cognitive image constructs - Model B

Construct	Items	Weight	T Statistics (Bootstrap)	P Values	VIF
Atmosphere (ATM)		0.368	27.593	0.000	2.033
	ATM1	0.288	8.959	0.000	1.868
	ATM2	0.282	9.830	0.000	1.260
	ATM3	0.314	10.854	0.000	1.260
	AMT4	0.126	4.021	0.000	1.826
	AMT5	0.385	12.670	0.000	1.410
Relaxation and Beauty (REL)		0.429	28.171	0.000	1.883
	REL1	0.309	8.508	0.000	2.178
	REL2	0.208	6.223	0.000	1.553
	REL3	0.102	3.143	0.002	1.266
	REL4	0.273	8.161	0.000	2.129
	REL5	0.257	8.912	0.000	1.394
	REL6	0.212	6.649	0.000	1.562
Culture (CUL)		0.249	18.882	0.000	1.587
	CUL1	0.556	13.366	0.000	1.153
	CUL2	0.380	8.390	0.000	1.354
	CUL3	0.378	8.800	0.000	1.372
Infrastructure (INF)		0.240	21.419	0.000	1.662
	INF1	0.415	10.769	0.000	1.375
	INF2	0.450	11.424	0.000	1.293
	INF3	0.291	6.944	0.000	1.193
	INF4	0.272	6.492	0.000	1.186

Hence, the results of the analysis regarding the CI construct with composite measures are shown in Table 41, including the indicator's weights, the result of t-values from bootstrapping option of 5000 resample and correspondent P value to examine their significance. From these results, it is possible to observe that from the bootstrapping procedure all t-values and P values indicate that all weights are significant. Also, the variance inflation factors (VIF) do not indicate redundancy of any of its constructs as all inner VIF values are lower than 5 (Ringle et al. 2015) and, therefore, collinearity is not an issue in this model.

Regarding the reflective first order BI construct, as shown in Table 42, the two indicator's loadings were above 0.50 and significant (P = 0.000), confirming individual indicator reliability, whereas AVE was above 0.50 (AVE = 0.604) indicating convergent validity. To assess construct reliability, it is common to consider the coefficients of Cronbach's alpha and/or CR coefficients (Chin, 2010). Therefore, Table 42 shows that both coefficients are above the threshold of 0.70, indicating internal consistency and reliability of the model (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2017).

Table 42. Results of the assessment of measurement model for reflective first order behavioural intentions construct - Model B

Construct	Items	Loadings	T Statistics (Bootstrap)	P Values	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
Behavioural Intentions (BI)					0.738	0.750	0.604
	BI1	0.672	23.864	0.000			
	BI2	0.869	42.808	0.000			

Table 43. Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) - Model B

	CI	EXP	BI	OI
EXP	0.131			
BI	0.730	0.134		
OI	0.647	0.054	0.683	
SAT	0.609	0.081	0.749	0.602

As seen before, Henseler et al. (2015) presented a new criterion for assessment of DV, proposing the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) approach. Thus, the results for the HTMT (Table 43) with a bootstrap resample of 5000 show that all values are significantly different from 1 and below the threshold of 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2017), and, therefore, discriminant validity was established.

5.2.2.2.2 Model B: Testing of Hypotheses and Results

After the measurement model assessment and the involved constructs were confirmed as valid and reliable, the structural model was determined in order to test the relationships between constructs, as well as to estimate the predictive capabilities of the research model. Before assessing the structural model, we examined the model for possible multicollinearity. The results did not reveal any issues in regards to the presence of multicollinearity as all VIF values were below 5. Afterwards, the path coefficients and their significance, level of the R^2 values, the effect size (f^2) between construct relationship and the predictive relevance (Q^2) for the endogenous latent constructs were calculated.

In this sense, direct relationships for the hypothesized relationships were analysed, performing the bootstrapping option of 5000 resample. The results are shown in Table 44, and include the path coefficients (β) for each relationship, their significance (t-value) and corresponding P value and Figure 21 introduces a graphical representation of the results.

The results of the path coefficients and levels of significance reveal that, in this stage, seven (of the nine hypotheses tested) were supported. **H1b** that proposes significant and positive impact between CI and SAT was supported (β = 0.374; P= .000). **H2b** proposing positive and significant relation between CI and OI was supported (β = 0.645; P= .000). **H3b** proposing significant and positive impact between CI and BI was supported (β = 0.310; P= .000). **H4b** hypothesized strong and significant relationship between OI and SAT and was supported (β = 0.361; P= .000). **H5b** that proposes significant and positive impact between SAT and BI was supported (β = 0.431; P= .000). **H6** proposing positive and significant impact between OI and BI was supported (β = 0.214; P= .000). **H9b** and **H10b** proposing positive impact between SAT and EXP and OI and EXP found no support (β = -0.042; P= 0.519 and β = -0.085; P= 0.099). **H11b** proposing significant and positive impact between BI and EXP was supported (β = 0.258; P= 0.000).

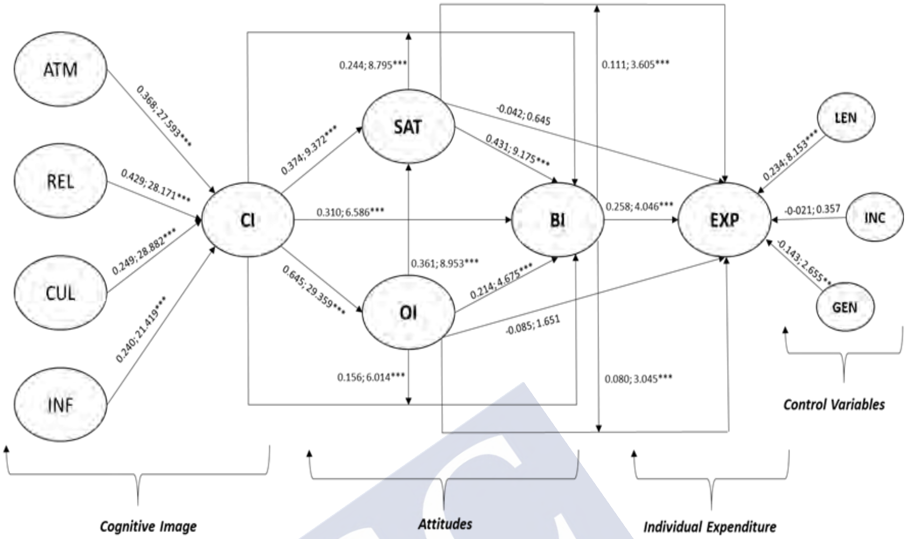
Table 44. Direct relationships for hypotheses testing - Model B

Hypotheses	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Deviation	t value	P value	Decision
H1b	CI -> SAT	0.374	0.040	9.372	0.000	Supported
H2b	CI -> OI	0.645	0.022	29.359	0.000	Supported
H3b	CI -> BI	0.310	0.047	6.586	0.000	Supported
H4b	OI -> SAT	0.361	0.040	8.953	0.000	Supported
H5b	SAT -> BI	0.431	0.047	9.175	0.000	Supported
H6b	OI -> BI	0.214	0.046	4.675	0.000	Supported
H9b	SAT -> EXP	-0.042	0.065	0.645	0.519	Not Supported
H10b	OI -> EXP	-0.085	0.051	1.651	0.099	Not Supported
H11b	BI -> EXP	0.258	0.064	4.046	0.000	Supported
		Control Variables				
-	GEN -> EXP		0.054	2.655	0.008	-
-	INC -> EXP		0.060	0.357	0.721	-
-	LEN -> EXP		0.029	8.153	0.000	-

Finally, the control variables path coefficients indicate that the relationships between LEN -> EXP (β =0.234; P= .000) and GEN -> EXP (β =-0.143; P= .008) were found to be significant. The relationship between INC -> EXP (β =-0.021; P= 0.721) was found to be insignificant.

Following the assessment of the direct relationships between constructs, the coefficients of determination (R^2 values) of endogenous constructs for predictive accuracy were evaluated. The results shown in Table 45, indicate a substantial R^2 for BI (0.687), a moderate R^2 for OI (0.416) and SAT (0.444), and a small R^2 for EXP (0.110). Also, the effect size (f^2) was analysed in order to assess if the predictor latent variable has a small, medium, or large effect at the structural level.

Figure 21. Estimated results of the structural model - Model B



*Notes: Significant at P < 0.05 **; P < 0.01 ***; ATM - Atmosphere; REL - Relaxation and Beauty; CUL - Culture; INF - Infrastructures; CI - Cognitive Image; SAT - Overall Satisfaction; OI - Overall Image; BI - Behavioural Intentions; EXP - Overall Individual Tourist Expenditure; LEN - Length of Stay; INC - Income; GEN - Gender*

Following the assessment of the direct relationships between constructs, the coefficients of determination (R^2 values) of endogenous constructs for predictive accuracy were evaluated. The results shown in Table 45, indicate a substantial R^2 for BI (0.687), a moderate R^2 for OI (0.416) and SAT (0.444), and a small R^2 for EXP (0.110). Also, the effect size (f^2) was analysed in order to assess if the predictor latent variable has a small, medium, or large effect at the structural level.

Table 45. R^2 and Q^2 values for endogenous variables - Model B

Constructs	R^2	Std Deviation	t Value	P Value	Q^2
Behavioural Intentions	0.687	0.039	17.691	0.000	0.389
Expenditure	0.110	0.022	4.879	0.000	0.087
Overall Image	0.416	0.028	14.698	0.000	0.362
Overall Satisfaction	0.444	0.032	13.955	0.000	0.418

In Table 46, the results for each f^2 are shown. The results indicate: 1) large effects on CI -> OI (0.712) path; 2) medium effects on SAT -> BI (0.330) and on CI -> BI (0.157) structural paths; and 3) small effects on CI -> OI (0.147), on OI -> SAT (0.137), on OI -> BI (0.075) and on BI -> EXP (0.027) paths. As expected, the paths between SAT -> EXP (0.001) and OI -> EXP (0.004) revealed no effects, as f^2 values were considerably below 0.02 (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 46. Effect size (f^2) values for construct relationships

Relationship	Original Sample
Cognitive Image -> Behavioural Intentions	0.157
Cognitive Image -> Overall Image	0.712
Cognitive Image -> Overall Satisfaction	0.147
Overall Image -> Behavioural Intentions	0.075
Overall Satisfaction -> Behavioural Intentions	0.330
Behavioural Intentions -> Expenditure	0.027
Overall Image -> Overall Satisfaction	0.137
Overall Satisfaction -> Tourist Expenditure	0.001
Overall Image -> Tourist Expenditure	0.004

As seen before, evaluating the magnitude of R^2 values can be an important tool to assess predictive accuracy, however, too much reliance on R^2 can sometimes prove problematic (Hair et al. 2014). This way, besides the R^2 values, Stone-Geiser's Q^2 (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974) provides a useful tool as a criterion to assess predictive relevance (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2014). Hence, Q^2 values were generated with SmartPLS (Ringle et al., 2015) by using the blindfolding procedure. A Q^2 value larger than zero in the cross-validated redundancy report, for a certain endogenous latent variable, indicates the path model's predictive relevance of the specific construct (Hair et al., 2014). As Table 45 shows, all Q^2 values exceeded zero on all four constructs, thus, confirming that the model has predictive relevance.

In regards to mediation, the results presented in Table 47 suggest the existence of complementary partial mediation for **H7b** and **H8b**. According to Baron & Kenny (1986), complementary partial mediation occurs when the direct effect and indirect effect point in the same direction, but despite the existence of a mediator, a significant effect between predictor and the outcome variable is still observed. Through the analysis of the indirect effects between predictors and outcome variables, it is possible to obtain information to assess the significance of a mediation, as well as the strength of these effects in order to determine the size of the mediation (Cepeda et al., 2017).

In this sense, results confirm that the indirect effect in the relationship CI -> OI -> BI is significant (β= 0.244; P= 0.000), as well as in the relationship CI -> SAT -> BI (β=0.156; P= 0.000). As previously analysed, the direct effect between CI and BI is significant and, therefore, the existence of complementary partial mediation was confirmed, supporting **H7b** and **H8b**.

Table 47. Indirect relationships for hypotheses testing - Model B

Hypotheses	Relationship	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Type of Mediation	Decision
H7b	CI -> SAT -> BI	0.310 *** (P=0.000)	0.244*** (P=0.000)	Partial	Supported
H8b	CI -> OI -> BI	0.310 *** (P=0.000)	0.156*** (P=0.000)	Partial	Supported
H12b	SAT -> BI-> EXP	-0.042 (P= 0.519)	0.111*** (P=0.000)	Full	Supported
H13b	OI -> BI-> EXP	-0.085 (P=0.099)	0.080 ** (P=0.002)	Full	Supported

*Notes: P < 0.05**; P < 0.01***; CI - Cognitive Image; OI - Overall Image; SAT - Overall Satisfaction; BI - Behavioural Intentions*

According to Zhao et al. (2010), full mediation occurs when only an indirect effect exists between two related constructs, meaning that the relation between two constructs is completely mediated by a third construct. As Table 47 shows, the direct effect between SAT -> EXP is not significant (β= -0.042; P=0.519), whereas the indirect effect with BI as mediator is significant (β= 0.111; P=0.000). Therefore, full mediation has been established, ultimately supporting **H12b**. The same case occurs in regards to **H13b**, where the direct effect in the OI -> EXP path is not significant (β= -0.085; P= 0.099), but the indirect effect with BI as mediator is significant (β= 0.080; P= 0.002). In this sense, BI completely mediates the relationship OI -> EXP, thus supporting **H13b**.

Chapter 6. Discussion and Conclusions

6.1 DISCUSSION

After reviewing the literature in regards to PLS-SEM in management, marketing and tourism research areas, as well as assessing the measurement and structural models, this work presented its first theoretical contribution: the discussion of measurement misspecification should be promoted in tourism research.

Besides the recent theories supporting the inclusion of formative or composite measures to constructs such as CI, when comparing the results from the assessment of Model A and Model B, it is fair to conclude that better results were achieved applying composite measures to assess the CI construct. Therefore, CI (as a fundamental dimension of DI) can (and in most of the cases should be) considered a composite or formative construct. Hence, the new methodology promoted by this work, should contribute to minimize, and at the same time, raise awareness to the problem of measurement misspecification in tourism research, as discussed by Mikulić and Ryan (2018).

From a conceptual point of view, it is possible that most researchers that assume the reflective nature of the DI or CI, are in fact considering that the constructs are able to cause the indicators that are used to measure those constructs. However, it seems logical to consider that those indicators or items are, in fact, the ones that cause or make up the DI or CI constructs. Thus, researchers should consider the discussion between reflective, formative and composite measures in structural models in order to evaluate which type of measures are more adequate to be applied. In addition, researchers should be aware that when it comes to structural models, there is lack of support in the literature for the use of formative and composite measured constructs in endogenous positions (see Cadogan & Lee, 2013). Authors like Temme et al. (2014) provide a possible solution to correctly specify composite and formative constructs as endogenous latent variables involving the creation of a more complex structural model with the inclusion of pseudo latent variables and the analyses of direct and indirect effects between antecedents and outcomes of the constructs. Nevertheless, some authors (e.g. Assaker, Hallak, Assaf & Assad, 2015; Zhang et al., 2018) seem to ignore the problematic use of formative and composite constructs as endogenous latent constructs, resulting in models that according to Temme et al., (2014) can lead to biased parameter estimates and questionable conclusions.

In regards to the Model A, this work provides evidence that MOT directly affects CI, in agreement with Baloglu (2000) and Li et al. (2010). Contrary to McIntosh, Goeldner, & Ritchie (1994), Uysal & Hagan (1993) and Yoon & Uysal (2005), the results suggest that MOT does not have a direct nor a significant impact on BI. Nevertheless, these results are in line with Ramkissoon & Uysal (2011), where in their study concerning behavioural intentions of cultural tourists were unable to find a direct relationship between MOT and BI. Besides this, the indirect effect between MOT and BI was found to be significant, suggesting that MOT by itself is not enough to impact BI and, therefore, it is dependent of other endogenous variables to produce its effects, hence consistent with the approaches of Lee (2009b) and Ramkissoon & Uysal (2011). In Model A, this endogenous variable was CI, with the results suggesting that CI fully mediates the relationship between MOT and BI.

In regards to CI directly impacting BI, the estimated results of both models are consistent with the findings of the meta-analysis of 66 published papers promoted by Zhang et al. (2014).

Regarding the Model B, in a first stage the research assessed the possibility of applying composite measures to the CI construct. In a second-stage, the study investigated the structural relationships between CI and overall tourists' attitudes (namely SAT and OI) as antecedents and mediators of tourists' BI. In a third-stage the study focused on one possible outcome of tourists' attitudes, specifically the relationship significance between the three constructs integrating these attitudes and the EXP at the destination.

The results show a direct relationship between CI and SAT consistent with the results of the meta-analysis of 125 published papers elaborated by Ladeira et al. (2016). Also, CI was found to directly affect OI, in agreement with Baloglu & McCleary (1999a), Beerli & Martin (2004), Prayag (2009) and Qu et al. (2011). The results also suggest that OI has the greatest impact on BI and, therefore, in line with Zhang et al. (2014). Besides this, it was also tested the relationship between SAT, OI, BI and EXP. As stated before, the study of relationships between attitudinal constructs, destination attributes constructs and EXP is surprisingly uncommon. The results reveal a direct impact of BI on EXP, whereas SAT and OI do not directly impact EXP. These results should stimulate an expansion of knowledge on this particular subject while motivating others to replicate or apply new methodologies to achieve new developments and insights.

6.2 THEORETICAL AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The study and descriptive analysis of the CI of the two tourism destinations provided some insights regarding how tourists perceived and evaluated the different dimensions that constitute the CI of these destinations. It is extremely important to state that the sample used in this work was collected in the year of 2013, it was presented at IV International Congress on Tourism (Guimarães, Portugal) in 2015 and published in 2016. For this reason, the evaluations might not represent the current CI of these destinations. In recent years, both cities undergo major changes as tourism destinations that affected different levels of the supply and demand of the cities. For this reason, and particularly in the descriptive analysis of CI, the withdrawn conclusions shall take into account the year which they relate to. This exercise becomes extremely important, since it can be very useful for future image studies of Porto and Santiago. With this consistent work, other researchers can then compare CI levels in future research with the CI levels assessed in this work, hopefully revealing insights regarding the evolution of image and strength of these brands.

Furthermore, the results suggested statistically significant differences between the two cities that can reveal new segmentation strategies and consequently managerial implications. In the case of Porto, tourists considered the weather and the history and cultural interest as the most significant characteristics of the city, followed by the interesting and welcoming native residents and the natural beauty of the city. In the case of Santiago, the tourists considered the historical and cultural interest, the natural beauty of the city and the "touristification" as the most significant characteristics of the city. When comparing the evaluations of the two cities, an independent samples t-test suggested the existence of significant differences in 8 variables of the study.

Porto obtained statistically significant higher scores in 3 variables when compared to Santiago. The results suggest that Porto needed to communicate and promote the people's hospitality, as tourists perceived that these are very receptive to help when necessary. Also the weather factor seems to be a differentiation factor when compared to Santiago. Finally, Porto obtained a significant higher score (when compared to Santiago) regarding the good value for money dimension that suggest that tourists had the perception that in Porto the prices were better for the offered products, services or experiences.

In the case of Santiago, the city obtained significant higher scores in 5 variables analysed. The higher scores of the variables "places of historical or cultural interest" and "interesting cultural activities" suggested that the importance of Santiago has one of the most important cities of the Christendom, and the destination of thousands of pilgrims every year, was still perceived by the tourists and can explain this significant difference.

In addition, the results also suggest that the tourist's perception concerning safety and cleanliness were significantly different between the two cities. Therefore, Porto should assess if this is actually a problem in the city (when compared to other competing destinations) and if this can have a negative impact in the destination brand and ultimately improve the situation in order to change the tourist's perceptions and strengthen the brand.

Santiago obtained a significant higher score in the variable "city with a lot of tourism", even though the city of Porto in 2013 already received more than double the number of tourists of Santiago. One possible explanation for these results could be the fact that the tourism activity in Santiago in 2019, as in 2013, is still very concentrated in a small area, this is the city centre, in particular around the Santiago's

Cathedral. This circumstance can give the impression to the tourist of an overcrowded destination and the consequent “touristification”. Therefore, the destination managers should consider new strategies to attract tourists to other points of the city beyond the city centre in order to change this perception.

The results also suggest that both cities have something to learn from each other. According to the tourist’s evaluations, both cities have dynamic and strong brand images, although the existence of areas where there is room for improvement. The uniqueness of Santiago and a brand strategy around that uniqueness, is still nowadays a strong differentiation factor, one that can inspire the city of Porto to seek its own unique identity in order to distinguish the city among the crowded marketplace. Also, Porto has nowadays a vibrant and dynamic cultural offer in the city, although the results of 2013 revealed significant higher scores of Santiago in the cultural activities dimension. This presents a challenge to the DMO’s of Porto that should assess if these perceptions are still present nowadays. If these perceptions persist, the DMO’s should make all the efforts to highlight, communicate and promote, through their brand, the cultural identity and all the cultural offer of the city, in order to reduce this significant difference when compared to Santiago.

The strong perceptions of safety and cleanliness (which are areas that tourists are always very sensible to) obtained in Santiago, is something that most of the tourism destinations would like to achieve and something that Porto should try to maximize in the future in order to achieve the perception levels obtained in Santiago. On the other hand, the significant difference in the good value for money variable, can suggest that Porto as defined accurately its market segmentation strategy, providing good offers at prices that tourists, from different segments, consider appropriate. This way, these results could suggest that the DMO’s of Santiago should analyse their market segmentation options and assess if their market in 2019 recognizes Santiago as a destination that presents a “good value for money” option. If Santiago maintains the levels presented in this work, Santiago’s DMO’s should make an effort to improve the effectiveness of market segmentation strategies and consequently adapt the offer to the different markets in order to reduce the gap between the available offer and the price that the tourists consider appropriate for that offer.

In regards to Model A, this work provides evidence that MOT directly affects CI, and CI directly impacts BI. Also the results suggest that MOT does not have a direct nor a significant impact on BI, whereas the indirect effect was found to be significant, revealing that CI fully mediates the relationship between MOT and BI. Consequently, these findings suggest that both researchers and practitioners should consider MOT and CI as crucial and fundamental predictors and antecedents of BI. While MOT constructs are crucial factors to the formation of a positive CI, representing also an important role as a segmentation tool, CI should be seen as a fundamental tourist attitude, one that balances the relation between motivation to travel and the intention to revisit and recommend the destination that they actually travel to. Moreover, tourism scholars should not underestimate the role of MOT on CI and its role predicting BI, and, therefore, these should be considered in future research models. In addition, practitioners should be aware of the predictive relevance of these constructs, as they are important indicators that relevantly can improve the efficiency and efficacy of destination's marketing strategies. Consequently, it is mandatory that managers constantly control and assess their destination brand levels, with particular attention to the image of the destination. The proper analysis of the tourists' market motivations in consonance and harmony with the image of the destination can, in fact, lead to higher levels of composite loyalty, this is, the intentions of returning to the destination and to recommend the destination to others.

In regards to Structural Model B, the study investigated the structural relationships between CI and overall tourists' attitudes (namely SAT and OI) as antecedents and mediators of tourists' BI. Also, the study focused on one possible outcome of tourists' attitudes, specifically the relationship significance between the three constructs integrating these attitudes and the EXP at the destination.

The structural relationships analysis confirmed that CI has a strong and significant positive effect on SAT (**H1b**), OI (**H2b**) and BI (**H3b**). These relationships indicate that a positive CI strongly contributes to positive SAT levels, as well as it strongly contributes to a positive OI as a global evaluation of the destination, which in turn corroborates the literature reviewed in this research. Moreover, the empirical results confirm that CI plays an essential role on achieving positive BI and that positive or negative changes in CI can affect these BI levels, therefore, consistent with the findings of Chen & Tsai (2007). In addition, the results confirm that the relationship between CI and BI is complementary partial mediated by SAT and OI, meaning that all constructs are equally important and significant in order to achieve good levels of BI.

Furthermore, the results suggest a positive and significant relationship between tourists' BI and EXP. On the opposite direction, the results reveal that SAT and OI do not have a direct and significant relationship with EXP, whereas BI fully mediates the relationship between these two constructs and EXP. These findings not only suggest that a satisfied tourist with a favourable destination OI does not predict a higher overall expenditure at the destination but, most importantly, reveal that the levels of BI, in fact, represent a key role in predicting this specific consumer and consumption behaviour.

Although the literature presents the concept of BI as a future behaviour that a tourist can adopt (revisit and recommend), this study supports the idea that BI is a reflection of tourists' attitudes, which can be considered almost as a global evaluation of the destination or a general feeling towards the destination and, thus, summarizing the effects of the analysed antecedents (CI, SAT and OI). As the study confirms, it would be illogical to consider the possibility of obtaining high levels of BI without achieving high levels of the three antecedent constructs. Therefore, this study confirms that besides reflecting a possible future behaviour, BI also reflects an attitude and global feeling regarding the destination in that specific moment in time. Ultimately, this attitude and feeling at/towards the destination has a direct, positive and significant relationship with the EXP in that specific stay.

In conclusion, this work reveals that a tourist that has a strong CI of the destination is more likely to create higher BI levels (partially mediated by SAT and OI), which consequently contributes to the overall EXP with BI fully mediating the relationships between SAT and EXP, and between OI and EXP at the destination in that particular stay.

From a practical point of view, this study provides several important marketing implications. In a competitive and saturated marketplace with multiple destinations competing for a share of the tourist's heart, mind and "wallet", tourism destinations need more than ever to elaborate marketing strategies that allow destinations to differentiate themselves from the competition. Therefore, it is crucial to gain insights and deep understanding of what drives tourists' attitudes and behaviours towards destinations.

The findings of the proposed and tested model B contribute to the empirical expansion of the antecedents and outcomes of tourists' attitudes: on one hand, it points out the crucial role of CI in achieving positive and favourable tourists' attitudes; while, on the other hand, it provides marketers a better understanding of these same attitudes. Thus, destination marketers, particularly those of Porto and Santiago, should continue to invest in products and services that can fulfil the necessities, needs and desires of their visitors, in order to increase favourable cognitive and perceptual images of the destination.

As this study proves, a positive and favourable CI directly impacts on OI, SAT and BI, proving also that behavioural or loyalty intentions can be enhanced only in the same proportion as positive and favourable levels of CI, OI and SAT are achieved. This way, the efficiency and efficacy of marketing strategies can depend in the amount of attention provided by destination marketers to these often important indicators.

Secondly, this work revealed a causal relationship between BI and EXP. From a practical point of view, this finding suggests that positive OI and SAT were not enough to achieve a higher EXP at the destination, however, high levels of BI had a direct and significant impact on EXP. Destination managers and marketers should be aware that in this particular case focusing on SAT and OI is not sufficient to achieve higher expenditure levels. Nevertheless, OI and SAT should not be considered as weak links, as the indirect effects of these overall attitudes (SAT and OI) represented a significant and important role that indirectly affected EXP. Therefore, all the constructs tested in the model should be considered by practitioners as relevant, interdependent and interconnected.

6.3 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE LINES OF RESEARCH

This work is not without limitations that should be addressed to provide guidelines for future research. Firstly, the study's sample was collected in 2013. This fact means that some matters, particularly the destinations' perceptions, might not reflect the current CI of these cities. As we seen, DI is a dynamic element that changes over time and one that is sensible to the impacts of internal and external factors. Therefore, since we consider this work relevant to the image study of Porto and Santiago, it would be very interesting to replicate this work in order to compare it with the one presented here. Such replication would provide insights regarding the evolution that both images and brands have had and would constitute an important and useful management tool.

Additionally, the sample was also collected in specific months of the year (i.e. August, September and October) and, because of this, the results should not be generalized to all destinations and may not represent a longitudinal tendency. Also, cross cultural studies specially in regards to different geographical locations, different cultural and socio-demographic contexts, should be addressed in future research in order to validate these findings and achieve more robust and complex models.

Secondly, BI and its antecedents may be different from the traditional management and marketing areas, since tourists can be satisfied and reveal intentions to revisit the destination, but may never return simply because they choose to explore a different place (Zhang, Wu, & Buhalis, 2018). In this sense, in order to improve future research, authors should consider the recommendations from Cohen et al. (2014), particularly in regards to true and spurious loyalty, as well as vertical, horizontal and experiential loyalty.

Furthermore, a multitude of socio–demographic, economic, psychological, trip and destination related variables have been found to have a direct impact on tourist expenditure and consumption patterns (see Disegna & Osti, 2016). For future researchers it would be extremely interesting that more variables could be included to better explain how perceptions and evaluations of the destination can be related to higher expenditure levels and exactly what spending categories are affected. The inclusion of these could help achieve more robust results, acknowledging, despite the significant f^2 values confirmed in this study, some low values were obtained in regards to some of the tested relationships (e.g. BI -> EXP).

In addition, for a more comprehensible and reliable future research, particularly in regards to EXP, longitudinal approaches would increase the value of such research in a subject that is far from being a commonplace in tourism and DI related areas.

Finally, SAT was operationalized as a global construct and future studies should also consider the inclusion of constructs such as attribute based satisfaction or perceived value to gain deeper insights.

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APPENDIX

A. QUESTIONNAIRE USED FOR DATA COLLECTION

The University of Santiago de Compostela is elaborating an international study regarding the Management of Tourism Destinations. In order to complete the task we need your collaboration that is already much appreciated.

1 - Please select from the table below what you consider important or not important when you choose a tourism destination. Use a scale from 1 to 4, being 1 "Not important at all" and 4 "Very important".

	1 – Not Important at All			4 – Very Important
Relieving stress and tension	1	2	3	4
Doing exciting things	1	2	3	4
Doing new things/ Increasing my knowledge	1	2	3	4
Meeting people with similar interests	1	2	3	4
Going to places my friends have not been	1	2	3	4
Getting away from demands of everyday life	1	2	3	4
Relaxing physically and mentally	1	2	3	4
Finding thrills and excitement	1	2	3	4
Being adventurous	1	2	3	4
Experiencing different cultures and ways of life	1	2	3	4
Enriching myself intellectually	1	2	3	4
Experiencing new/different places	1	2	3	4
Developing close friendships	1	2	3	4
Telling my friends about the trip	1	2	3	4
Getting away from crowds	1	2	3	4
Escaping from the routine	1	2	3	4
Having fun / Being entertained	1	2	3	4
Share with my friends on social networks (Facebook,Twitter,etc)	1	2	3	4

2 - Please do specify your level of disagreement/agreement regarding the following characteristics of Porto, using a scale of 1 to 7, being 1 "Totally Disagree" and 7 "Totally Agree":

City's Characteristics	1 – Totally Disagree						7 – Totally Agree
Good Accommodation Quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good for Shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beautiful Scenary / Natural Attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Places of Historical or Cultural Interest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interesting Cultural Activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good Gastronomy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Porto/Santiago is a Peaceful Place	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People Are Willing to Help Tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good Safety Level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interesting and Friendly People	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Porto is a Relaxing Place	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Natural Beauty of the City	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good Weather	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good City to Rest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good Value for Money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good Quality of Infrastructures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Porto/Santiago is a Clean City	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good City to Learn About Local Customs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Porto/Santiago is a City With a Lot of Tourism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3 - Please do specify the average amount of money spent during your stay: _____________

4 - Please do specify how many days you will stay in the city:

____

5 - Please rate your overall image of the city using a scale from 1 (Highly Unfavorable) to 5 (Highly Favorable)

	1 –Highly Unfavorable			5 –Highly Favorable	
Overall Image of Porto/Santiago	1	2	3	4	5

6 - Please do specify your level of disagreement/agreement regarding the following statements, using a scale of 1 to 5, being 1 "Totally Disagree" and 5 "Totally Agree":

	1 –Totally Disagree			5 –Totally Agree	
I would like to revisit this city in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
I will recommend this city to my family/friends.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall I'm satisfied with my travelling experience in this city.	1	2	3	4	5

7 - Personal Details:

Country ______________

Genre: Male□ Female□

Age: _________

Marital Status: Married □ Single □ In a Relationship □ Divorced □ Widowed □

Educational Level:

	X
Primary School	
High School	
Univ. Degree	
Post-Grad. / Master	
PhD	

Monthly Income:

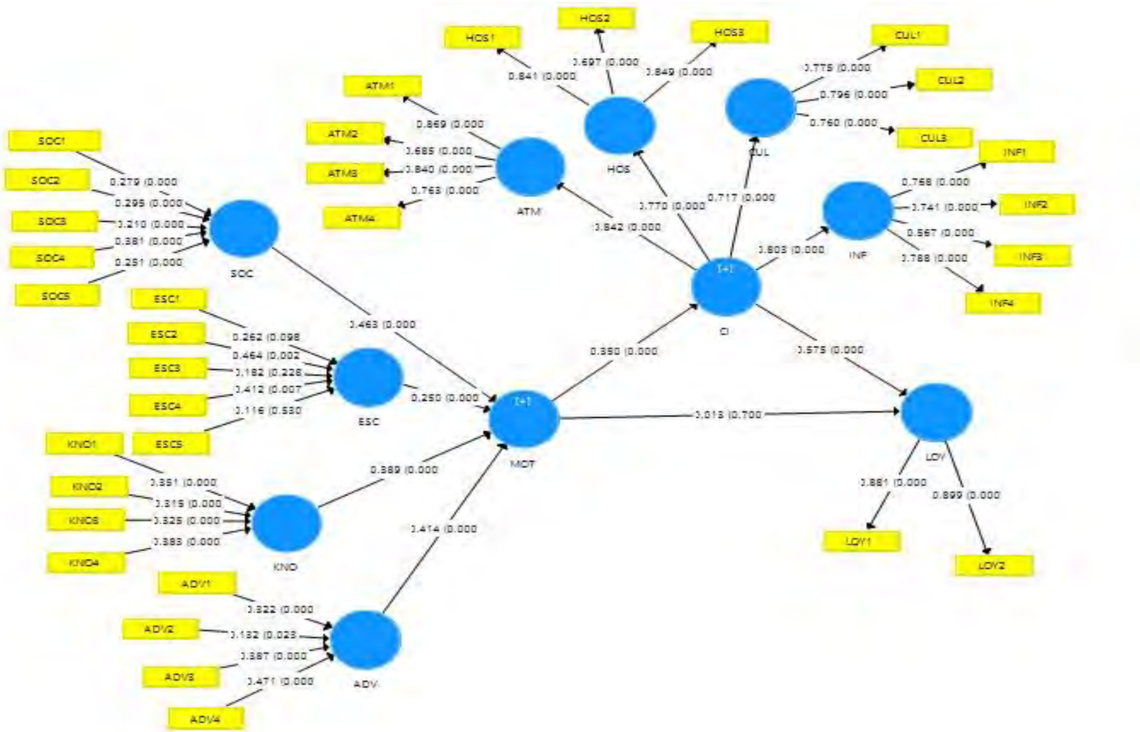
	X
0 – 1200€	
1201 – 2400€	
Over 2401€	
Don't Know / No Answer	

B. Cognitive Image - t.Test Results

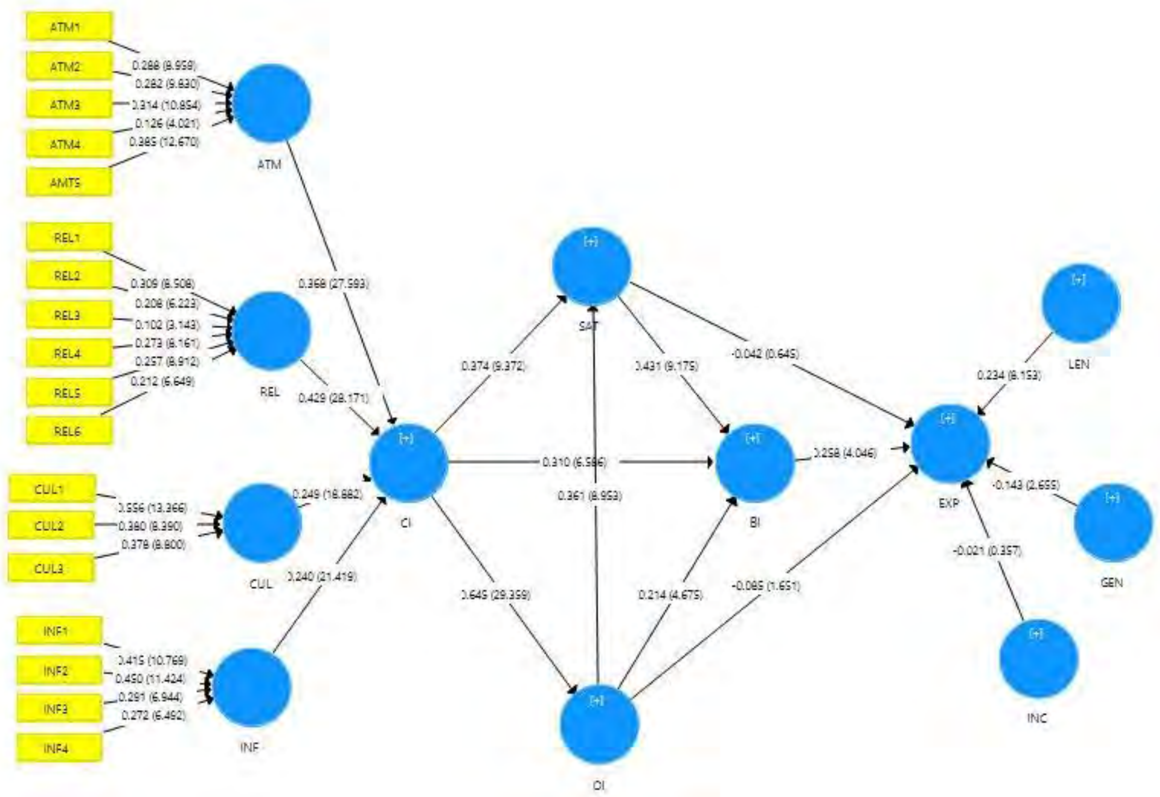
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Accomodation	Equal variances assumed	.039	.843	-.973	765	.331	-.076	.078	-.229	.077
	Equal variances not assumed			-.973	764.957	.331	-.076	.078	-.229	.077
Shopping	Equal variances assumed	10.136	.002	-1.120	759	.263	-.095	.085	-.261	.071
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.116	731.071	.265	-.095	.085	-.262	.072
Scenery	Equal variances assumed	4.628	.032	-.727	807	.468	-.059	.081	-.219	.101
	Equal variances not assumed			-.727	803.062	.467	-.059	.081	-.219	.101
Historical Interest	Equal variances assumed	6.227	.013	8.203	810	.000	.464	.057	.353	.575
	Equal variances not assumed			8.197	751.065	.000	.464	.057	.353	.575
Cultural Activities	Equal variances assumed	.321	.571	3.514	779	.000	.274	.078	.121	.427
	Equal variances not assumed			3.514	778.327	.000	.274	.078	.121	.427
Gastronomy	Equal variances assumed	4.545	.033	.301	789	.764	.026	.085	-.142	.193
	Equal variances not assumed			.301	781.934	.764	.026	.085	-.142	.193
Peaceful Place	Equal variances assumed	.147	.701	-.114	804	.909	-.009	.081	-.169	.150
	Equal variances not assumed			-.114	803.873	.909	-.009	.081	-.169	.150
Willing to Help	Equal variances assumed	17.918	.000	-5.835	800	.000	-.424	.073	-.567	-.281
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.838	793.365	.000	-.424	.073	-.566	-.281
Safety	Equal variances assumed	16.333	.000	3.391	791	.001	.252	.074	.106	.398
	Equal variances not assumed			3.387	766.214	.001	.252	.074	.106	.398
Friendly People	Equal variances assumed	1.643	.200	-2.470	800	.014	-.164	.066	-.293	-.034
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.470	799.891	.014	-.164	.066	-.293	-.034
Relaxing Place	Equal variances assumed	2.096	.148	-.347	803	.729	-.028	.082	-.189	.132
	Equal variances not assumed			-.347	800.531	.729	-.028	.082	-.189	.132
Natural Beauty	Equal variances assumed	3.957	.047	1.624	805	.105	.132	.081	-.027	.290
	Equal variances not assumed			1.624	800.972	.105	.132	.081	-.027	.290

Weather	Equal variances assumed	77.880	.000	-10.623	805	.000	-.808	.076	-.958	-.659
	Equal variances not assumed			-10.617	695.052	.000	-.808	.076	-.958	-.659
City to Rest	Equal variances assumed	.410	.522	-1.889	798	.059	-.152	.080	-.309	.006
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.889	796.894	.059	-.152	.080	-.309	.006
Value for Money	Equal variances assumed	.879	.349	-11.365	798	.000	-.855	.075	-1.002	-.707
	Equal variances not assumed			-11.371	788.877	.000	-.855	.075	-1.002	-.707
Infrastructures	Equal variances assumed	7.331	.007	.416	788	.677	.032	.076	-.118	.182
	Equal variances not assumed			.417	776.540	.677	.032	.076	-.118	.182
Clean City	Equal variances assumed	24.778	.000	8.768	805	.000	.727	.083	.564	.889
	Equal variances not assumed			8.753	743.568	.000	.727	.083	.564	.890
Local Customs	Equal variances assumed	5.936	.015	-.042	775	.967	-.003	.081	-.162	.155
	Equal variances not assumed			-.042	768.981	.967	-.003	.081	-.162	.155
Lot of Tourism	Equal variances assumed	20.601	.000	9.501	806	.000	.594	.063	.471	.717
	Equal variances not assumed			9.491	773.502	.000	.594	.063	.471	.717

C. Conceptual Model A – SmartPLS Output



D. CONCEPTUAL MODEL B – SMARTPLS OUTPUT



Resumen Ampliado

La imagen del destino (DI) ha sido uno de los temas estudiados con mayor frecuencia en la literatura sobre turismo. Muchos autores han evaluado la influencia de la imagen cognitiva de los destinos (CI) en el comportamiento del consumidor turístico (Bigné et al., 2001; Hahm et al., 2018; Pike, 2002). La DI en general, y la CI en particular, han sido tópicos tradicionales en la literatura turística debido a su impacto práctico en la comercialización y en la gestión de la marca del destino (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010) y al hecho de que se hayan revelado como herramientas poderosas para el logro de ventajas competitivas en el mercado turístico (Foroudi et al., 2018). Debido al potencial de la DI para influir en otras variables, su análisis sigue siendo tan importante y útil como en el pasado.

La mayoría de los investigadores están de acuerdo en que la DI es un constructo multidimensional formado por, al menos, dos dimensiones diferentes: (1) un componente racional o perceptivo/cognitivo; y (2) un componente emocional o afectivo (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a, 1999b; Dann, 1996; Gartner, 1994; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). La dimensión cognitiva de la DI representa el conocimiento, las percepciones, las ideas y las creencias que los turistas o potenciales turistas tienen sobre los atributos del destino, mientras que la dimensión afectiva recoge los sentimientos y emociones que despierta el destino.

La importancia de la DI puede explicar por qué el tema constituye un área de investigación tan productiva. Es más probable que los destinos con imágenes fuertes sean considerados y elegidos en el proceso de toma de decisiones de viaje (Son, 2005). Además, investigaciones previas enfatizan que la DI tiene un papel importante en el comportamiento turístico al influir no sólo en el proceso de toma de decisiones previo a la visita (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Fakeye & Gartner, 1989; Mathieson & Wall, 1982) sino también en la experiencia en el sitio (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Wang & Hsu, 2010), en la evaluación del destino (Chen & Tsai, 2007) y en las intenciones conductuales futuras del turista (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988; Bigne et al., 2001; Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Chon, 1990; Court & Lupton, 1997; Zhang, Fu, Cai & Lu, 2014). Adicionalmente, la DI influye en la calidad percibida en el destino (Bigné, et al., 2001). Más recientemente, se ha demostrado que la DI tiene un impacto directo en otro aspecto de la conducta de los turistas: su intención de comportarse responsablemente con el medio ambiente en el destino (Abdullah et al., 2019).

En el área de la gestión de marca, autores como Faircloth et al. (2001) han demostrado una fuerte presencia de la imagen en el valor de marca (brand equity). Por ello, el estudio de la imagen servirá para conocer el valor de la marca del destino, para obtener información valiosa cara al desarrollo de estrategias de producto y posicionamiento, para evaluar la eficacia de la promoción del destino y para predecir las intenciones de comportamiento de los turistas (Pan & Li, 2011).

Lo mismo que ha ocurrido con la DI, la Lealtad al Destino (LOY) o variantes como la Lealtad Compuesta o las Intenciones Conductuales (BI), han recibido mucha atención en la literatura y pueden considerarse un tema de investigación común en el área turística (Cohen et al., 2014; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Zhang et al., 2014). En el mercado turístico actual los destinos se ven obligados a aumentar su competitividad y, en consecuencia, a desarrollar la lealtad de los turistas mediante estrategias que les permitan lograr ventajas competitivas en un escenario a largo plazo (Almeida-Santana & Moreno-Gil, 2018).

Si bien los estudios de la LOY han estado muy presentes en el área, el análisis de sus antecedentes no siempre ha revelado resultados consistentes. Por ejemplo, los estudios de la LOY son poco robustos en el establecimiento de relaciones significativas entre la Motivación (MOT) y las BI (Prayag et al., 2017). La inconsistencia de los resultados con respecto a esta relación se refleja en conclusiones contradictorias, así como en efectos parciales de algunas motivaciones en las BI (Prayag et al., 2017).

Las personas participan en actividades relacionadas con el turismo por diferentes motivos (Beard & Ragheb, 1983) que las hacen responder de manera diferente a los estímulos. Por ello el estudio de la MOT es fundamental para desarrollar estrategias márketing de destino eficaces y eficientes. Yoon & Uysal (2005, p. 46) definieron la MOT como "las necesidades y deseos psicológicos/ biológicos, incluidas las fuerzas que despiertan, dirigen e integran el comportamiento y la actividad de una persona". Caber & Albayrak (2016) dividieron los estudios de la MOT en tres categorías: (1) estudio de las motivaciones personales y comportamientos específicos que resultan de esas motivaciones; (2) exploración de la MOT para la segmentación del mercado y el desarrollo de estrategias de márketing eficientes; y (3) análisis de la relación entre la MOT y otros constructos relevantes. Los estudios de la tercera categoría -relación entre la MOT y otras construcciones conductuales como la CI y la LOY- son aún poco frecuentes (Cohen et al., 2014) y presentan resultados poco robustos (Prayag et al., 2017). Esta es una de las razones que justifica la elección de este tema.

En una extensa revisión bibliográfica de estudios sobre turismo, Cohen et al. (2014) concluyeron que las motivaciones, las actitudes, las percepciones y la lealtad son algunas de las dimensiones conceptuales más importantes del comportamiento del consumidor en turístico. Por todo lo expuesto, el estudio de sus relaciones a través del uso de nuevos enfoques y metodologías alternativas todavía es de gran necesidad en el área.

Aunque la imagen del destino, las motivaciones de los turistas y sus intenciones de comportamiento en el destino constituyen conceptos cruciales y tópicos recurrentes en la literatura turística, su integración en modelos estructurales es aun relativamente novedosa. También lo es la incorporación de las actitudes y el gasto de los turistas a modelos integrados que sirvan para entender mejor los comportamientos de los turistas con el objetivo de establecer segmentos de mercado y estrategias para el destino.

Teniendo esto en cuenta, la presente investigación empírica se centra, en una primera fase, en conocer cómo los turistas perciben los atributos de dos ciudades que son patrimonio mundial de la UNESCO (Oporto y Santiago). Se realiza un análisis descriptivo de las evaluaciones de los turistas sobre la CI, la Imagen Global (OI), la Satisfacción (SAT) y las BI en las dos ciudades y, mediante el uso de tests t, se detecta la existencia de diferencias estadísticamente significativas en las evaluaciones de ambas con la idea de que os resultados obtenidos permitan deducir implicaciones gerenciales relevantes.

En segundo lugar, la investigación empírica se ocupa del análisis de las relaciones entre los constructos centrales. Así, este trabajo presenta (1) un modelo PLS-SEM en el que se evalúan los antecedentes de las BI integrando constructos reflectivos y formativos en la medida de los conceptos de MOT y CI; y (2) un modelo PLS-SEM con el fin de medir las relaciones estructurales entre MOT y BI, con la CI como variable mediadora.

En estos modelos se testaron cuatro hipótesis de investigación:

H1a – Las Motivaciones tienen un impacto positivo y significativo en las Intenciones Conductuales

H2a – la Imagen Cognitiva tiene un impacto significativo y positivo en las Intenciones Conductuales

H3a - Las Motivaciones tienen un impacto positivo y significativo en la Imagen Cognitiva

H4a – La Imagen Cognitiva media la relación entre la Motivación y las Intenciones Conductuales

En tercer lugar, la investigación empírica aporta un enfoque integrado para comprender las relaciones estructurales entre la CI y las actitudes de los turistas (es decir, OI, SAT y BI) y el posible impacto de estas actitudes en el gasto turístico individual. La integración de estos constructos también ofrece la posibilidad de evaluar los efectos indirectos (mediación) de la SAT y la OI en la relación entre la CI y las BI.

Además de esto, el modelo PLS-SEM diseñado propone el análisis -y la consecuente prueba- del papel que representan las actitudes de los turistas en la determinación del gasto turístico individual (EXP). Muy pocos estudios incluyen el EXP en la investigación de la DI. Esa es otra de las aportaciones de este trabajo al área de estudio. Debido a este déficit de investigación, se centra la atención en el papel de las actitudes de los turistas hacia el destino, así como en el análisis de cómo estas actitudes pueden relacionarse con el EXP en una estancia específica. En los propósitos de investigación de este modelo se integran trece hipótesis:

H1b - La Imagen Cognitiva tiene un impacto significativo y positivo en la Satisfacción Global

H2b - La Imagen Cognitiva tiene un impacto significativo y positivo en la Imagen Global

H3b - La Imagen Cognitiva tiene un impacto significativo y positivo en las Intenciones Conductuales

H4b - La Imagen Global tiene un impacto significativo y positivo en la Satisfacción Global

H5b - La Satisfacción Global tiene un impacto significativo y positivo en las Intenciones Conductuales

H6b - La Imagen Global tiene un impacto significativo y positivo en las Intenciones Conductuales

H7b - La Satisfacción Global media la relación entre la Imagen Cognitiva y las Intenciones Conductuales

H8b - La Imagen Global media la relación entre la Imagen Cognitiva y las Intenciones Conductuales

H9b - La Satisfacción Global tiene un impacto significativo y positivo en el Gasto Turístico Individual

H10b - La Imagen Global tiene un impacto significativo y positivo en el Gasto Turístico Individual

H11b - Las Intenciones Conductuales tienen un impacto significativo y positivo en el Gasto Turístico Individual

H12b - La Satisfacción Global media la relación entre las Intenciones Conductuales y el Gasto Turístico Individual

H13b - La Imagen Global media la relación entre las Intenciones Conductuales y el Gasto Turístico Individual

Con respecto a la metodología de investigación, esta Tesis Doctoral presenta también una innovación reciente en el campo del turismo. En las últimas dos décadas se viene manteniendo una discusión en relación con la idoneidad de los modelos de medición de indicadores reflectivos y formativos. Muchos investigadores en diferentes áreas son ahora conscientes de los problemas que pueden surgir de la especificación incorrecta en modelos de medición (por ejemplo, Hair et al., 2017; Jarvis et al., 2003; Mikulić & Ryan, 2018). El término "medición reflectiva" se usa generalmente para describir una situación en la que "un conjunto de variables observadas depende conjuntamente de otra variable que no se observa" (Rigdon, 2016, p. 600), mientras que el término "medición formativa" es utilizado para describir una situación en la que "la variable no observada se modela como dependiente de las variables observadas" (Rigdon, 2016, p. 600).

Anteriores estudios de turismo, incluyendo los que consideran la DI, la CI y la MOT, exploran con frecuencia modelos reflectivos. En consecuencia, en la literatura sobre turismo existe una falta de análisis de medidas compuestas y formativas para operacionalizar los diferentes constructos y sus componentes (ver Mikulić, 2018; Mikulić & Ryan, 2018). Entre las variables centrales de este estudio se encuentran conceptualizaciones multi-atributo que son más instrumentos diseñados por los investigadores para recoger un concepto teórico que formas de medir actitudes naturales de las personas. Por ello, este trabajo incluye dos modelos que integran constructos reflectivos y compuestos formativos que permiten evaluar las relaciones estructurales con más realismo.

La tesis está organizada en seis capítulos. En el primer capítulo "Tourism and Heritage Cities", se exploran los temas contextuales relacionados con la industria del turismo y sus características, así como sus beneficios, desventajas y tendencias futuras. En el mismo capítulo se presenta la variante patrimonial del turismo y algunas características de las ciudades de Oporto y Santiago en materia turística.

En el segundo capítulo se resalta la importancia del papel de las marcas en los negocios y se revisan los fundamentos de la marca en la literatura de márketing para centrarse, específicamente, en la imagen de marca y en la marca de destino. Finalmente, se matiza la desambiguación entre los conceptos de imagen e identidad de marca y se explora el papel fundamental de la imagen en la creación de estrategias de marca.

En el capítulo tres, la atención se centra en el concepto de DI. Se revisa el concepto de DI a través de su definición, medida y aplicación a la investigación turística. Adicionalmente, se identifican las principales tendencias y flujos de investigación de la DI y se explora el tema de la formación de imágenes en el contexto de los destinos turísticos.

En el capítulo cuatro "Research Model and Hypotheses Development", se presentan los objetivos de la investigación y se establece la relevancia de los temas de investigación. Además, se presenta el trasfondo teórico de los constructos de investigación en la literatura turística. Finalmente, se desarrollan las hipótesis de investigación y se diseñan dos modelos conceptuales para probar.

Además, en el capítulo cinco "Research Methodology, Data Analysis and Results" se integran los detalles de la metodología de investigación aplicada en este trabajo. Con respecto al análisis y los resultados, se comienza presentando un análisis descriptivo de la muestra y los resultados del análisis de los tests t. Tras ello, se continúa con el análisis de los dos modelos PLS-SEM, evaluando primero los modelos de medida y, luego, las hipótesis planteadas.

Finalmente, en el capítulo seis "Discussion and Conclusions", se realiza una la discusión basada en los resultados obtenidos y sus implicaciones teóricas y directivas Adicionalmente, se introducen limitaciones de la investigación y futuras líneas.

En cuanto a los resultados, se confirma que existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las respuestas de los turistas de las dos ciudades en ocho dimensiones de la imagen. Oporto obtuvo puntuaciones estadísticamente más altas en tres variables. Los resultados sugieren que Oporto debería hacer valer la hospitalidad de la gente. El clima parece ser otro factor de diferenciación. Oporto obtuvo, también, una puntuación significativamente mejor en la relación calidad-precio de los servicios.

Santiago obtuvo puntuaciones más altas en cinco de las variables analizadas. Las puntuaciones más altas en las variables "lugares de interés histórico o cultural" y "actividades culturales interesantes" confirman la importancia de Santiago como destino cultural y religioso. La percepción del turista con respecto a la seguridad y la limpieza también es mejor. Oporto debe evaluar si esto es realmente un problema de la ciudad (en comparación con otros destinos semejantes) y si puede tener un impacto negativo en la marca del destino. Santiago obtuvo, de nuevo, una puntuación más alta en la variable "ciudad con mucho turismo", a pesar de que la ciudad de Oporto recibió más del doble de turistas que Santiago durante el año en que se recogieron los datos. Una posible explicación de estos resultados podría estar en el hecho de que la actividad turística en Santiago está muy concentrada en un área pequeña -el centro de la ciudad y, más particularmente, en el entorno de la Catedral.

Según los resultados del primer modelo estructural propuesto, la MOT tiene un impacto directo en la CI, mientras que no se observa un impacto directo en las BI. Los resultados indican, por tanto, que la relación entre la MOT y las BI está completamente mediada por la CI de las ciudades. En consecuencia, los hallazgos sugieren que tanto los investigadores como los profesionales deben considerar la MOT y la CI como factores predictivos y antecedentes cruciales de las BI. Si bien las MOT son factores fundamentales para la formación de una CI positiva -y representan una herramienta de segmentación útil- la CI se debe ver como una actitud turística esencial, que vincula la motivación para viajar y la intención de volver a visitar y recomendar el destino.

Con respecto al segundo modelo, los resultados muestran que: (1) la CI tiene un impacto fuerte en la SAT, en la OI y en las BI de los turistas; (2) la SAT y la OI median parcialmente la relación entre la CI y las BI; (3) las BI tienen un impacto positivo y significativo en el EXP; y (4) las relaciones entre la SAT e la OI, y el EXP están totalmente mediadas por las BI. Estos resultados empíricos confirman que la CI desempeña un papel esencial en el logro de BI positivas y que los cambios positivos o negativos en la CI pueden afectar estos niveles de las BI, en consonancia con los hallazgos de Chen & Tsai (2007). Además, los resultados confirman que la relación entre la CI y las BI es mediada parcialmente por la SAT y la OI, lo que significa que todos los constructos son necesarios para lograr buenos niveles de las BI. Estos hallazgos sugieren que un turista satisfecho y una imagen global de destino favorable no predicen un gasto mayor, sino que el gasto va precedido por BI. Así, todos los constructos incluidos en el modelo deben ser considerados por los profesionales como relevantes e interdependientes.

Con respectos a limitaciones e futuras líneas de investigación, como hemos visto, la DI es un elemento dinámico que cambia con el tiempo y sensible a los impactos de factores internos y externos. Por lo tanto, dado que consideramos este trabajo relevante para el estudio de imagen de Oporto y Santiago, sería muy interesante replicar este trabajo para compararlo con el presentado aquí. Dicha replicación proporcionaría información sobre la evolución que han tenido tanto las imágenes como las marcas, y constituiría una herramienta de gestión útil y importante.

Además, los estudios transculturales, especialmente en lo que respecta a diferentes ubicaciones geográficas, diferentes contextos culturales y sociodemográficos, deben abordarse en futuras investigaciones para validar estos hallazgos y lograr modelos más robustos y complejos.

En segundo lugar, las BI y sus antecedentes pueden ser diferentes de las áreas tradicionales de gestión y marketing, ya que los turistas pueden estar satisfechos y revelar intenciones de volver a visitar el destino, pero podrán nunca regresar simplemente porque eligen explorar un lugar diferente (Zhang et al., 2018). En este sentido, para mejorar la investigación futura, los autores deben considerar las recomendaciones de Cohen et al. (2014), particularmente en lo que respecta a la lealtad “true” y “spurious”, así como a la lealtad vertical, horizontal y experiencial.

Para investigadores futuros, sería extremadamente interesante que se pudiera incluir más variables para explicar mejor cómo las percepciones y evaluaciones del destino pueden relacionarse con niveles de gasto más altos y exactamente qué categorías de gastos se ven afectadas. Además, para una investigación futura más completa y confiable, particularmente con respecto a el EXP, los enfoques longitudinales aumentarían el valor de dicha investigación en un tema que está lejos de ser un lugar común en el turismo y de las áreas relacionadas con la DI.