



Universidade de Aveiro Departamento de Economia, Gestão e Engenharia Industrial
2002

**ELISABETH
KASTENHOLZ**

**The Role and Marketing Implications of Destination
Images on Tourist Behavior: The case of Northern
Portugal**

Dissertação apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Doutor em Turismo, realizada sob a orientação científica do Prof. Dr. Gordon Paul do Departamento de Marketing da University of Central Florida

o júri

presidente

Prof. Dr. António M. de Brito Ferrari Almeida
Professor Catedrático da Universidade de Aveiro

Prof. Dr. Henrique Manuel Morais Diz
Professor Catedrático da Universidade de Aveiro

Profª. Drª. Mínoo Farhangmehr
Professora Catedrática da Escola de Economia e Gestão do Departamento de Gestão e
Administração Pública da Universidade do Minho

Prof. Dr. João Albino Matos da Silva
Professor Catedrático da Faculdade de Economia da Universidade do Algarve

Prof. Dr. Paulo Miguel Rasquinho Ferreira Rita
Professor Associado do Instituto Superior de Ciências Sociais do Trabalho e da Empresa

Prof. Dr. Carlos Costa
Professor Auxiliar da Universidade de Aveiro

Prof. Dr. Gordon Paul
Professor Emeritus da University of Central Florida

Agradecimentos

I am sincerely grateful to Professor Gordon Paul for his expert guidance, encouragement and unfailing kindness. His contributions to successful completion of my doctoral work were decisive.

I wish to acknowledge the ISEE/ Universidade do Porto and CCRN for the financial and logistical support these institutions granted me during my investigation, which enabled me to realize a most ambitious project. I am also indebted to the Universidade de Aveiro, which granted me conditions for developing and executing the research program. The support and advice conceded particularly by Professor Carlos Costa, Universidade de Aveiro, Professor Rui Guimarães, Universidade do Porto, and Dr. José Portugal, CCRN, are worth of mention.

I extend my gratitude to Professor Duane Davis, University of Central Florida, Professora Margarida Cardoso, ISCTE, and Professor Raymond Fisk, University of New Orleans, for their useful advise about methodology and analysis at different stages of the research process.

The extensive empirical research project was only possible thanks to the assistance of several students and research cooperators, to whom I wish to express my thankfulness. A particular thanks goes to Dra. Eva Milheiros, Dra. Aurea Rodrigues and Dra. Adriana Corfu for their regular and professional cooperation.

The kind support provided for the realization of the survey by institutions like TURIHAB, several Tourism Boards and LEADER associations in North Portugal, as well as numerous accommodation units, the Archeological Park of the Côa Valley and some museums, has to be stressed.

This dissertation culminates a most memorable learning experience. I am most grateful for the love, understanding and support I received from my husband, Paulo, and my family both in Portugal and Germany, throughout this long and most involving period of studies. Special thanks go to the many colleagues at the Departamento de Economia, Gestão e Engenharia Industrial, Universidade de Aveiro, and to all my friends, who encouraged me and cheered me up along the way.

resumo

O presente trabalho de investigação analisa o conceito, a medição, a estrutura e o papel da imagem do destino no âmbito do turismo em áreas rurais. Assume-se uma perspectiva de marketing, especificamente de comportamento de consumidor, ao centrar a análise nas percepções e avaliações feitas pelos turistas que visitam áreas rurais do Norte de Portugal por motivos de férias.

Uma revisão bibliográfica permite a compreensão da especificidade do *turismo* enquanto campo de aplicação da análise de imagens, discutindo neste contexto a realidade do *turismo rural* e reflectindo sobre a natureza do *marketing de destinos*. Também o conceito de *imagem* é aprofundado, sendo a discussão da *imagem do destino* apresentada com maior pormenor, considerando definições, medição da imagem, a sua estrutura e formação, os seus efeitos no comportamento do turista e o seu papel no contexto do *marketing de destinos*.

Com base nestas reflexões, uma série de hipóteses são sugeridas, as quais são testadas na parte empírica da tese através de uma análise de imagem do Norte de Portugal enquanto destino turístico rural. Esta análise baseia-se principalmente em dados obtidos através de um inquérito realizado ao longo de um ano em áreas rurais no Norte de Portugal. O inquérito obteve 2280 respostas válidas, contendo dados sócio-demográficos, relativos ao comportamento turístico, às motivações, percepções e avaliações do destino e ao provável comportamento do turista no futuro.

Para além da descrição do conteúdo da imagem do destino, a sua estrutura é analisada, considerando as componentes afectivas, cognitivas, de imaginário e holísticas. As componentes afectivas e cognitivas são identificadas via *Análise de Componentes Principais*. As componentes são integradas num modelo desde a imagem cognitiva passando pela imagem afectiva à imagem holística, baseado numa *Path Analysis*.

A *congruência entre imagem do destino e auto-imagem* do turista é considerada enquanto componente afectiva. O papel moderador do *tipo turístico psicográfico* para a relevância desta congruência no âmbito da imagem afectiva e no contexto do comportamento futuro também é alvo de análise.

Um conjunto de variáveis caracterizando o turista, o contexto da viagem e o destino são analisadas enquanto eventuais (co-)determinantes da imagem do destino. Para este efeito testes não-paramétricos são efectuados, considerando simultaneamente efeitos de interacção. Uma ordem aproximada de importância das variáveis independentes enquanto determinantes da imagem do destino é sugerida. Os efeitos singulares das variáveis independentes em dimensões de imagem particulares são ainda discutidos.

Finalmente, a relação entre imagem de destino e o provável comportamento turístico futuro é analisada, confirmando-se uma correlação positiva, particularmente no que diz respeito à recomendação do destino.

Com base nestes resultados, que são comparados com dados obtidos noutros estudos, são sugeridas uma série de implicações para o marketing de destinos, assim como algumas recomendações para investigações futuras.

abstract

The present research work studies the concept, assessment, structure and role of destination image in the context of tourism in rural areas. The perspective is one of marketing, specifically consumer behavior, focusing on tourists' perceptions and evaluations made of the visited rural areas in North Portugal.

A literature review helps understand the particularity of *tourism*, especially *rural tourism*, and reflects on the corresponding nature of *destination marketing*. Also the construct *image* is discussed. This is based on a literature review of diverse scientific approaches. The discussion of *destination image* in tourism and leisure research includes definitions, image assessment, image structure and formation, impacts of image on tourist behavior and its role in destination marketing.

Based on this background discussion, a series of hypotheses are advanced. These are tested in the empirical part of the thesis using an image analysis of North Portugal as a rural tourist destination. This analysis relies mainly on data obtained from a one-year-long survey undertaken in North Portugal. The survey yielded 2280 valid responses, which contained data on socio-demographics, travel behavior, motivations, destination perceptions, evaluations and probable future travel behavior.

In addition to describing the content of destination image, its structure is analyzed, with affective, cognitive, imagery and holistic components considered as main image elements. Affective and cognitive components are identified via *Principal Components Analysis*. Relationships between components are presented in a path-analytical model ranging from cognitive over affective towards holistic destination image.

Destination-self-congruity is considered as an affective component of destination image. The moderating role of *psycho-graphic traveler type* for the relevance of *destination-self-congruity* in the context of affective image and of probable future travel behavior is another issue of analysis.

A series of tourist, travel-context and destination-specific variables are further analyzed as eventual (co-)determinants of these destination images. For this purpose, non-parametric tests are undertaken. Simultaneously first-order interaction of all suggested eventual (co-)determinants are considered. An approximate rank order of importance is established and also single effects of independent variables on particular image dimensions are detected and discussed.

Finally, the relationship between destination image and probable (self-reported) future travel behavior is analyzed and a positive correlation confirmed, particularly in the context of recommendation of the destination.

From these results, which are compared to those obtained in other destination image studies, a series of implications on destination marketing are suggested, as well as recommendations for future destination image research advanced.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION	1
Chapter 1.1. Interest and Scope of the Thesis.....	1
Chapter 1.2. Structure of the Thesis.....	4
<i>PART I. REVIEW OF LITERATURE</i>	7
<i>PART I.1. TOURISM</i>	8
CHAPTER 2. TOURISM, TOURISM PRODUCTS, TOURIST DESTINATIONS AND THE TOURIST	8
Chapter 2.1. Evolution and Role of Tourism.....	8
Chapter 2.2. Tourism as a Concept.....	10
Chapter 2.3. The Tourism Product.....	13
Chapter 2.4. The Tourist Destination.....	16
Chapter 2.5. The “Tourism Industry”	17
Chapter 2.6. The Tourist.....	20
Chapter 2.7. Trends in Tourism.....	28
Conclusion of Chapter 2.....	32
CHAPTER 3. RURAL TOURISM	34
Chapter 3.1. Rural Areas.....	35
Chapter 3.2. The Tourism Function of Rural Areas.....	39
Chapter 3.3. The Role of Tourism for Rural Areas.....	45
Chapter 3.4. Rural Tourism in Europe.....	47
Chapter 3.5. Rural Tourism in Portugal.....	55
Chapter 3.5.1. Policy, Legislation and Subsidies.....	56
Chapter 3.5.2. Supply of Rural Tourism in Portugal.....	59
Chapter 3.5.3. Demand of Rural Tourism in Portugal.....	63
Chapter 3.5.4. Organization and Commercialization Patterns.....	68
Chapter 3.5.5. The Portuguese Market compared with other European Markets.....	69
Conclusions of Chapter 3.....	70
CHAPTER 4. TOURISM AND DESTINATION MARKETING	73
Chapter 4.1. The Concept and its Evolution.....	73
Chapter 4.2. Strategic Marketing of Tourist Destinations.....	79
Chapter 4.3. A specific Marketing-Mix?	84
Chapter 4.4. Marketing of Rural Tourist Destinations.....	85
Conclusions of Chapter 4.....	88

PART I.2. IMAGE	90
CHAPTER 5. THE IMAGE CONCEPT AND ITS DISCUSSION IN DIFFERENT SCIENCES	90
Chapter 5.1. Different Approaches on Image Research.....	91
Chapter 5.1.1. Image Discussion in Philosophy.....	91
Chapter 5.1.2. Image Discussion in Semiotics.....	92
Chapter 5.1.3. Image Discussion in Psychology.....	93
Chapter 5.1.4. Image Discussion in Social Psychology.....	98
Chapter 5.1.5. Image Discussion in Marketing.....	101
Chapter 5.1.5.a. Image in the context of Consumer Behavior.....	104
Chapter 5.1.5.b. Image in the context of Marketing Planning and Management.....	106
Chapter 5.1.5.c. Definitions.....	108
Chapter 5.1.5.d. Image Assessment.....	112
Chapter 5.2. Image and related Concepts.....	115
Chapter 5.2.1. Attitude.....	115
Chapter 5.2.2. Schema.....	118
Chapter 5.2.3. Stereotype.....	119
Chapter 5.2.4. Image.....	121
Chapter 5.3. Image Formation.....	123
Conclusions of Chapter 5.....	125
CHAPTER 6. DESTINATION IMAGE	127
Chapter 6.1. The Construct “Destination Image”	128
Chapter 6.1.1. Definition.....	128
Chapter 6.1.2. Structure of “Destination Image”.....	129
Chapter 6.2. Destination Image Formation.....	134
Chapter 6.2.1. General Theories.....	134
Chapter 6.2.2. Specific Image Determinants.....	140
Chapter 6.3. Impacts on Tourist Behavior.....	149
Chapter 6.4. Role of Destination Image in Destination Marketing.....	153
Chapter 6.5. Methodological Issues in Destination Image Research.....	158
Chapter 6.5.1. Destination Image Assessment.....	159
Chapter 6.5.2. Destination Image Analysis.....	167
Conclusions of Chapter 6.....	173
PART II. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS	176
CHAPTER 7. METHODOLOGY	176
Chapter 7.1. Research Framework and Hypotheses.....	176
Chapter 7.2. Research Design.....	181
Chapter 7.3. The Image-Object and its Characteristics using Secondary Data.....	182
Chapter 7.4. Primary Data Collection.....	183
Chapter 7.4.1. Sampling.....	183
Chapter 7.4.2. The Survey Instrument.....	186
Chapter 7.4.3. Measurement of Variables and Central Constructs of Analysis.....	194
Chapter 7.4.4. Instrument Validity and Reliability.....	199
Chapter 7.4.5. Methods of Analysis.....	202

CHAPTER 8. NORTH PORTUGAL AS A RURAL TOURIST DESTINATION	205
Chapter 8.1. Destination Profile according to Secondary Data.....	205
Chapter 8.1.1. The four Sub-Regions of North Portugal.....	205
Chapter 8.1.2. Primary Resources.....	208
Chapter 8.1.3. Secondary Resources.....	208
Chapter 8.1.4. The Rural Tourist Market in North Portugal.....	211
Chapter 8.2. Primary Data Collection and Descriptive Analysis.....	214
Chapter 8.2.1. Data Collection.....	214
Chapter 8.2.2. Profile of Sample.....	216
Chapter 8.2.3. Non-Response Bias.....	217
Chapter 8.2.4. Tourist Behavior of Respondents.....	218
Chapter 8.2.5. Motivations and Benefits sought.....	221
Chapter 8.2.6. Images of North Portugal.....	229
Chapter 8.2.7. Intentional Future Behavior.....	241
Conclusions of Chapter 8.....	242
CHAPTER 9. HYPOTHESES TESTING	245
Chapter 9.1. Image Structure.....	245
Chapter 9.1.1. Relationship between Cognitive and Affective Image.....	245
Chapter 9.1.2. The Relevance of Destination-Self-Congruity for Affective Image.....	246
Chapter 9.1.3. The Relationship between Cognition and Affect via Functional Congruity	247
Chapter 9.1.4. The Effects of all Image Aspects on Overall Impression.....	254
Chapter 9.2. Image Determinants.....	260
Chapter 9.2.1. The Effect of Stimulus Context – Sub-Region visited.....	262
Chapter 9.2.2. The Effect of Stimulus Context – Season of Stay.....	266
Chapter 9.2.3. The Effect of Motivation: Global Motivation/ Purpose of Travel.....	268
Chapter 9.2.4. The Effect of Motivation: Benefits sought and Benefit Segments.....	270
Chapter 9.2.5. The Effect of Traveling Context: Length of Stay.....	272
Chapter 9.2.6. The Effect of Familiarity: Repeated Visit.....	274
Chapter 9.2.7. The Effect of Socio-Demographics: Portuguese- Foreign.....	276
Chapter 9.2.8. The Effect of Socio-Demographics: Age.....	278
Chapter 9.2.9. The Effect of Socio-Demographics: Gender.....	279
Chapter 9.2.10. The Effect of Socio-Demographics: Education.....	280
Chapter 9.2.11. The relative Importance of each Variable for determining Destination Image.....	282
Chapter 9.2.12. Determinants of different Image Dimensions.....	284
Chapter 9.3. Image Effects.....	288
Chapter 9.3.1. Probability to Return.....	288
Chapter 9.3.2. Probability to Recommend.....	289
Chapter 9.4. Reliability and Validity.....	290
Conclusions of Chapter 9.....	294

CHAPTER 10. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS	297
Chapter 10.1. Conclusions from Findings and alternative Explanations.....	297
Chapter 10.1.1. Image Structure.....	297
Chapter 10.1.2. Image Determinants.....	301
Chapter 10.1.3. Image Effects.....	306
Chapter 10.2. Implications of Research for Destination Marketing.....	306
Chapter 10.3. Summary of Contributions.....	316
Chapter 10.4. Limitations of Research.....	318
Chapter 10.5. Recommendations of Future Research.....	320
REFERENCES	323
APPENDIX	345
APPENDIX A: Attributes and factors/ dimensions characterizing destination images	
APPENDIX B: Rural counties in North Portugal	
APPENDIX C: Sampling plan	
APPENDIX D: Questionnaires	
APPENDIX E: Fotos used for exploratory exercise	
APPENDIX F: Survey results in detail	
APPENDIX G: Examples of Image Difference Analysis (Kruskal-Wallis, Mann-Whitney)	
APPENDIX H: Summary tables for image differences, including first-order interaction	
APPENDIX I: Calculation of approximate “importance scores” for all independent variables	

Fig. 1. Main constructs discussed in the theoretical part.....	7
Fig. 2. Gunn’s model of the tourism supply system.....	18
Fig. 3. Model of the Tourism Industry in the context of the Tourism System.....	20
Fig. 4. Iso-Ahola’s Push-Pull model.....	22
Fig. 5. Plog’s Psychographic Model.....	24
Fig. 6. Cohen’s model of Tourist Types.....	25
Fig. 7. Woodside & Lysonski’s model of Travel Destination Choice.....	27
Fig. 8. Poon’s model of the determinants of a “new tourism”	30
Fig. 9. Evolution of TER capacity in beds (1990-2000)	60
Fig.10. TER lodging capacity (in beds) by region.....	61
Fig.11. Lodging Capacity (in beds) by TER modality and region.....	62
Fig.12. Evolution of TER demand (bednights) 1990-2000.....	63
Fig.13. TER demand by nationality and region in 2000.....	64
Fig.14. Seasonality in TER units foreign versus domestic market (1999)	66
Fig.15. Cognitive structure involved in a congruity process.....	97
Fig.16. Spiegel’s (1961) socio-psychological market field model	103
Fig.17. Knowledge structure according to Eysenck & Keane (1990)	118
Fig.18. The three dimensions of destination image according to Echtner & Ritchie.....	130
Fig.19. Prevalent image factors.....	133
Fig.20. Gunn’s model of image formation.....	135
Fig.21. Fakeye & Crompton’s (1991) image formation model.....	137
Fig.22. Virtuous circle of destination image and loyalty.....	141
Fig.23. Baloglu’s (1996) model of destination image formation.....	147
Fig.24. Fakeye & Crompton’s (1991) model of promotion type depending on image stage.....	157
Fig.25. Suggested destination image structure.....	178
Fig.26. Suggested determinants of destination image.....	180
Fig.27. Suggested determinants of probability to return and recommend destination.....	181
Fig.28. Global model of destination image formation and effects.....	199
Fig.29. Summary of steps involved in data analysis.....	204
Fig.30. Rural accommodation capacity in North Portugal by sub-region (1998)	211
Fig.31. Rural tourist demand (nights spent) in North Portugal by accommodation form (1998).....	212
Fig.32. Rural tourist demand (nights spent) in North Portugal by sub-region (1998)	213
Fig.33. Hotel demand (nights spent) in rural North Portugal by nationality and sub-region (1998).....	213
Fig.34. Path analytical model of image structure from cognition to overall affect.....	249
Fig. 35. Path model from cognition over <i>FC</i> and <i>All</i> to overall image.....	257

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Contrasting features distinguishing between urban/ resort and rural tourism.....	44
Table 2. Two-stage strategy for the Vale do Lima.....	69
Table 3. Differences between verbal and pictorial mental representation.....	95
Table 4. Differences between stereotypes and images, according to Johannsen.....	121
Table 5. Most used destination image attributes.....	132
Table 6. Effect of familiarity on image, considering experience and involvement.....	144
Table 7. The impact of types of information sources.....	146
Table 8. Suggested procedure for developing measures of constructs (Churchill, 1979).....	188
Table 9. Most relevant features of a rural holiday destination.....	189
Table 10. Dimensions of benefits sought at a rural holiday destination.....	190
Table 11. Semantic differential scales for measuring affective image.....	191
Table 12. Most relevant dimensions of a rural holiday destination.....	192
Table 13. Rural accommodation capacity in North Portugal.....	210
Table 14. Importance attributed to 25 destination attributes.....	223
Table 15. PCA of importance ratings of 25 destination attributes (<i>benefits sought</i>).....	224
Table 16. Cognitive evaluation of destination features.....	230
Table 17. PCA of cognitive images.....	232
Table 18. PCA of affective image scales.....	234
Table 19. PCA of self-image scales.....	235
Table 20. Most confirmed motivating and hygienic factors.....	238
Table 21. Most liked and most associated photos of North Portugal.....	241
Table 22. Correlation between cognitive and affective image factors.....	246
Table 23. Regressions for testing a path model from cognitive image dimensions over <i>FC</i> to <i>AI</i>	248
Table 24. Direct and indirect effects of <i>FC</i> and cognitive image factors on overall affective image.....	249
Table 25. Regressions for testing a path model from cognitive image dimensions over <i>FC</i> to <i>AI2</i>	251
Table 26. Regressions for testing a path model from cognitive image dimensions over <i>FC</i> to <i>AI3</i>	252
Table 27. Regressions for testing a path model from cognitive image dimensions over <i>FC</i> to <i>DSC</i>	253
Table 28. Regressions for testing a path model from <i>CI</i> over <i>FC</i> and <i>AI</i> to overall image.....	255
Table 29. Direct and indirect effects of cognitive and affective image factors on overall image.....	256
Table 30. Moderating effect of psycho-graphic type on regressions of <i>OI</i> on <i>DSC</i> and <i>AI</i>	258
Table 31. Relevant correlation between nominal independent variables.....	261
Table 32. Image differences according to sub-regions on cross-sectional data.....	263
Table 33. Interaction effects of independent variables on regional image differences.....	263
Table 34. Most confirmed regional image differences.....	265
Table 35. Image differences according to seasons on cross-sectional data.....	266

Table 36. Most confirmed seasonal image differences	267
Table 37. Image differences according to holiday purposes on cross-sectional data.....	269
Table 38. Most confirmed image differences due to travel purpose.....	269
Table 39. Most confirmed image differences due to benefit-segments.....	272
Table 40. Image differences due to length of stay on cross-sectional data.....	272
Table 41. Most confirmed image differences due to length of stay.....	274
Table 42. Image differences due to prior visit state on cross-sectional data.....	275
Table 43. Most confirmed image differences due to prior visit state.....	275
Table 44. Image differences according to domestic versus foreign market on cross-sectional data.....	276
Table 45. Most confirmed image differences between Portuguese and foreign tourists.....	277
Table 46. Image differences according to age ranges on cross-sectional data.....	278
Table 47. Most confirmed image differences between age ranges.....	279
Table 48. Image differences due to gender on cross-sectional data.....	279
Table 49. Most confirmed image differences between Portuguese and foreign tourists.....	280
Table 50. Image differences due to education level on cross-sectional data.....	280
Table 51. Most confirmed image differences due to education level.....	281
Table 52. Level of importance of independent variables in determining image	283
Table 53. Categories impacting on diverse image dimensions, according to level of confirmation.....	284
Table 54. Correlation between destination loyalty, image and probability to come back.....	288
Table 55. Correlation between destination loyalty, image and probability to recommend.....	290
Table 56. Correlation between most relevant image dimensions and behavioral intentions.....	292

Chapter I. Introduction

Chapter I.1. Interest and Scope of the Thesis

Destination image has been suggested as a major factor determining destination choice and acknowledged as a relevant construct when analyzing success and ways of improving destination marketing. The present research work studies the *concept, assessment and role of destination image* in the context of *tourism in rural areas*. The perspective is one of *marketing*, specifically *consumer behavior*, focusing on the perceptions and evaluations made by tourists of the visited rural destination in *North Portugal*. This *destination image* is further analyzed in relation to the tourists' socio-demographic characteristics, their needs and desires and their past and intentional future travel behavior. Of particular interest in this context are the eventual differences existing in destination images according to tourist-specific variables, but also due to different sub-regions visited as well as seasons of the year in which the holiday takes place. The assumptions to be tested are, whether or not, and to which extent, destination image depends on personal characteristics, motivations and travel context as well as on past experience, or rather on *real world* or *stimulus* differences, marked by geography and climate. There may be relatively more consensual components of the image of *rural Northern Portugal*. Also the impact of destination image on intentional future destination-related travel behavior (repeated choice and recommendation) will be analyzed. The study should help understanding the constitution, some of the (co-) determinants as well as the role of destination image in destination-relevant future tourist behavior and thereby make explicit the importance of destination image in destination marketing.

The field of application of this image-study is the rural tourism market of North Portugal. The tourist destination as a "*product*" as well as its "*consumption*" has particular characteristics, and so does the "*rural tourist destination*". Specific motivations, behavioral patterns, time-space relations, and symbolic meanings are related to it. The role of place and people in the tourist experience calls for an integrated, societal perspective of destination marketing. This is the more urging, the more the "product" is derived from its particular environment, the weaker the structure of the host community and the stronger the pressure of tourist flows. These conditions have to be considered in rural destination marketing, and the results gained from the presented image-analyses will have to be integrated in this particular reality, closely linked to developmental issues. Evidently, also the particular geo-political, social and economic context must be taken into account.

Whether the conclusions derived from the diverse analyses of the tourist market in rural areas in North Portugal will be generalizable is a valid question. It is suggested that some of the conclusions should be, whereas others might be specific to rural tourism or to North Portugal.

The study aims at a series of contributions in the fields of marketing and tourism. Some *general contributions* of this study in the domain of *marketing*, particularly *consumer behavior* should be:

- a clarification of the structure of “*image*” and relations between image components considering a specific image object, and in this context
- the eventual confirmation of the *three-component theory* and the *hierarchy of effects model*;
- the eventual confirmation of *self-congruity theory* with a specific image object.

General contributions of this research project in the domain of *tourism marketing*, more specifically *consumer behavior in tourism* and *tourist destination marketing*, are suggested for the following fields:

- a clarification of the concept of “*destination image*”;
- the development of valid and reliable forms of its assessment;
- the assessment of some relevant determinants of destination image and of its role in (intentional) future tourist behavior;
- the role of “*destination-self-congruity*” in the domain of destination image research;
- the eventual moderating role of “*psycho-graphic traveler type*” in the context of destination image formation and behavioral consequences.

In the domain of *rural tourism* the following contributions are aimed at:

- the identification of specific image contents, which may validate the assumptions and findings presented in rural tourism literature;
- the development of valid and reliable forms of destination-image assessment in the context of rural tourism;
- the identification of specific characteristics of the “*rural tourist*” and his/ her motivations, which may validate the assumptions and findings presented in rural tourism literature and previous rural tourism studies.

As far as *tourism in rural areas in North Portugal* is concerned, this study aims at helping:

- assess the image of North Portugal as a rural tourist destination;
- identify the effective market of this destination, its profile, motivations and behavior patterns;

➤ provide one basis for a rural tourist destination marketing strategy, which should be completed by the integration of further political, geographic, economic, cultural and social data and the involvement of the main actors of rural tourism in North Portugal. The importance of this study lies in the fact that it is the first large-scale image-study undertaken in rural areas in North Portugal, which confers particular practical relevance to its results for the strategic marketing planning process in this region.

The Portuguese tourism market is mainly concentrated on the Algarve's "sun and beach product" (Ramos, Salazar & Gomes, 2000). Spatial and temporal concentration of tourism in Portugal has led to quality and environmental problems, making a more balanced spread of tourism desirable. However, the development of a distinct, differentiated image of Portugal as a holiday destination would require the inclusion of other attractions, particularly taking advantage of the richness in cultural, historical, geographical and natural diversity existing in this relatively small country. In this context, rural tourism, especially in the country's interior, which suffers from rural exodus and shortcomings in economic development, would be a welcoming means of diversification and also a potential developmental tool for these areas. As resources are scarce, they have to be optimally allocated, implying the need for a sound destination marketing strategy. This strategy should not only be based on secondary, mainly quantitative data and fuzzy perceptions and misperceptions of those responsible for investment decisions. A sound analysis of relevant data, permitting an understanding of tourist profiles, travel behaviors, motivations and perceptions, obtained from the visitors themselves as the main source of marketing information, is strategically most important. In this context, the present research is suggested as a significant contribution to the destination marketing of North Portugal.

Of a broader nature is the relevance of this study in rural tourism research, confronting results with those of other regions and discussing generalizability.

Finally, in the context of destination-image-studies, the image content is compared with that identified in other studies, specific issues concerning its assessment are discussed based on a one-year-long survey experience, and its (co-) determinants and role in tourist behavior are confronted with results from other studies. It is hoped that this will shed light onto the process of image-formation and its relation to other tourist-, travel-, destination- and season-specific variables. Innovative approaches are, in this context, the analysis of the importance of "destination-self-congruity" and of the moderating role of Plog's "psycho-graphic tourist types". Other innovative aspects of this research work lie in the analysis of complex, tourist-, destination- and context-dependent and interacting impacts of a series of independent variables on image, as well as the particular combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques used to assess destination image.

I.2. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is basically divided in *two parts*. The *first part* is dedicated to a reflection on the *conceptual framework* of the central constructs studied. This refers basically to two major domains, namely “*tourism*” and “*image*”. In the first domain, the most important issues discussed are “*tourism*”, “*rural tourism*” and “*destination marketing*”, explaining the specificity of the product class under study. The second domain prepares an understanding of the main construct of this thesis: “*destination image*”. First the “*image*” construct is highlighted from the point of view of diverse sciences and distinguishing it from other related constructs. Second “*destination image*” is focused on, in terms of definitions and research approaches, showing its determinants and role in tourist behavior and destination marketing, as suggested by previous studies.

Based on this conceptual discussion and evidence from related studies, a series of hypotheses are developed and presented, which will be tested with data obtained in the empirical part of this investigation. The *second part* presents this empirical component of the study. It first discusses *methodological issues*, presenting methods and techniques used for image-assessment and analysis, directed at the specific hypotheses to be tested. Next, results of *primary data collection and analysis* of a survey undertaken in rural areas in North Portugal will be presented.

Finally, results are summarized and integrated in the initial conceptual framework, pointing further at limitations and possible implications of results for destination marketing.

A more detailed presentation of the structure of the thesis follows, presenting the topics of each chapter and referring to the methodology used:

In order to understand the research topic, it is necessary to first define and discuss some general *concepts related to tourism*. This will assist in a better comprehension of the tourism market and phenomenon as well as of its components, origins, determinants and evolution. It will be done in *chapter 2* based on a *literature review*.

Rural tourism will be studied in detail in *chapter 3*. The approach taken will be to find a *definition* analyzing in this context concepts related to “*rurality*”, followed by a discussion of the *diverse forms of rural tourism in Europe*. Finally the development of this form of tourism in *Portugal* will be discussed. This analysis will be done based on a variety of *literature*, some *interviews with specialists on the topic*, respective *legislation, statistical data* and *other documents* and *studies* already undertaken on this theme. This chapter will be concluded by a brief *comparative analysis* of tourism in rural areas in Portugal and Europe.

This tourism-related conceptual part will be completed by an *overview of marketing approaches in tourism* in *chapter 4*, particularly in the context of the *tourist destination*.

Chapter 5 is dedicated to the “*image construct*”. First diverse scientific approaches on the concept are presented, with a particular emphasis on marketing. It is further distinguished from other related concepts. *Literature from various scientific backgrounds*, discussing both theory and empirical findings, is the foundation of this chapter.

Chapter 6 concludes the conceptual background discussion by treating the concept “*destination image*” in detail. Diverse approaches on definition, assessment and analysis are presented. Also results of a series of studies undertaken in the field are discussed and presented in a framework that considers the domains of image formation and change, image determinants, the role of image in tourist behavior and destination marketing. This discussion is based on *literature and studies* undertaken in the domain of destination image and destination marketing.

The preceding five chapters should provide a solid background reflection on the “*product class*” under analysis, suggesting a specific marketing approach, as well as on the main construct “*destination image*”, thus justifying hypotheses to be tested in order to contribute to this particular field of interest.

The *second part* refers to the empirical part of the investigation, discussing both methodology and concrete findings. Also hypotheses are tested in this part.

Chapter 7 introduces the empirical study of this dissertation. It makes the link between theory and empirical study, presenting hypotheses and proposals of testing them through a particular research design. The most relevant methodological issues considered in this context refer to operationalization of central constructs, type of data collected, the way of its collection, instruments used, sampling procedures, validity and reliability of collected data and ways of its analysis to test predefined hypotheses. Also results of a series of pre-tests leading to refinement of the research approach are presented here.

In **chapter 8** first some available secondary data on *tourism in rural Northern Portugal* is presented, as well as the main characteristics of this tourist destination, without going into much detail, though. This chapter should develop an understanding of the concrete object of the image study. In its second part, the rural tourist market, its profile, behaviors, motives and perceptions, as resulting from the empirical part of this thesis, is analyzed. That is, *results of primary data collection* are presented, discussing first the success of the research design in terms of response rates and closeness to representation. Apart from descriptive analysis, cluster-analysis is used to identify *tourist segments*, using a benefit-segmentation approach. *Images of rural North Portugal* will be first identified in an aggregated manner and *image structures* revealed via *factor-analysis*.

Chapter 9 is dedicated to hypothesis testing, using a series of statistical devices. First, hypotheses related to *image structure*, particularly to the eventual relevance of the *three-component-theory* and the role of *destination-self-congruity* are tested. Then, image differences due to specific tourist, travel- and stimulus variables, eventually indicating (co-) *determinants of destination image*, are analyzed. Finally, the *correlation of image components with intentional future travel behavior* is tested. Also validity and reliability of approaches is discussed.

In *chapter 10* finally, *results are discussed and integrated in the initial conceptual framework*, discussing their importance for consumer behavior and marketing theory as related to tourism. Additionally, general *implications of results on destination marketing* will be outlined, considering also *limitations of analysis*. This leads to *recommendations for future research*, in the context of destination image research, in general, as well as concerning rural tourism and North Portugal, in particular. The final conclusions aim at completing the picture traced in this thesis, joining the most important results of diverse analyses and evaluating critically the extent to which objectives were achieved.

PART I. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The main concepts being studied are presented in this part of the dissertation, as well as a short overview of the most important research findings in the corresponding domains. The two most relevant areas of research have been identified as those related to the “*tourism*” phenomenon and to the “*image construct*”. The main perspective assumed is that of *marketing*, particularly *consumer behavior*. However, other approaches related to the issues under study will be considered, from the fields of psychology, sociology, economics, general management sciences, and geography. This is especially appropriate for a study of tourist destination images, where a wide range of aspects have to be considered as interdependent and interacting in the formation and effects of the analyzed image.

The assumption is that both the subjective image as an individual and eventually shared, behavior-relevant mental representation, and the image-object, found in reality and shaped by a range of conditions, are of interest and should be combined to further the understanding of a specific image. It is not the objective of this thesis to analyze the geographic, socio-cultural and economic situation of a particular geographical area in detail. However, it is considered useful to understand the “product category” named “rural tourism”, and its integration in the larger tourism market. In this context, first tourism-related issues will be discussed, second the image-construct, and third these reflections will be combined in the construct “*destination image*”.

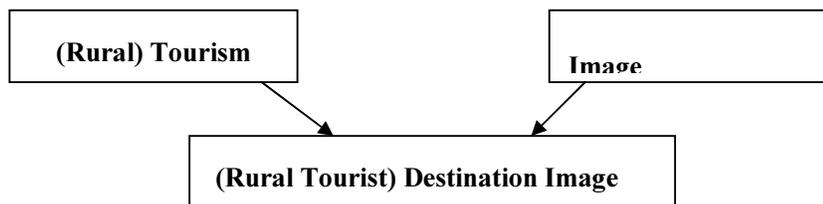


Fig.1 Main constructs discussed in the theoretical part

In the empirical part of the thesis, the specific rural region, which is the focus of the studied destination image, will be briefly characterized. However, the main emphasis will be given to the analysis of the mental constructs developed around that destination, their content, structure and determinants. Also consequences for future tourist behavior and implications on destination marketing are important issues. The theoretical background provided conceptually introduces the studied domains and prepares the development of hypotheses suggested to enhance them.

PART I. 1. TOURISM

Chapter 2. Tourism, Tourism Products, Tourist Destinations and the Tourist

This part of the thesis will *define* the concept and reflect on the *essence of tourism* and its *importance* for contemporaneous society. The focus will be upon the concepts “*tourism product*”, “*tourism industry*” and “*tourist destination*”. Special attention will be given to the *tourist*, his/ her motivations and behavior as the main element of the tourism system.

Chapter 2.1. Evolution and Role of Tourism

From the earliest ages people travel. In the beginning, this was principally to escape danger or driven by hunger. War and trade made people move as well as religion. The “*Grande Tour*”¹ is usually cited as the *origin of modern tourism*. Its main purpose was educational, serving curiosity, linked to social status, furthering well-being and not being a matter of survival or a sacrifice, as was traveling before. However, this tour was only available to the aristocracy.

Industrialization increased income, leisure time available and improved technology, making leisure travel accessible for a growing number of people. This was linked with an evolution of democracy, social rights, shared wealth and general access to well-being in the more developed countries. Initially, a *growing need for leisure*, due to bad working and living conditions and an increasing *need to escape* were the major driving forces. Organized leisure tourism can be traced back to Thomas Cook’s “railway package tours” to the seaside in the 19th century. The steamship provided a more sophisticated product for the wealthy. However, the origins of modern *mass tourism* are usually attributed to the decade after World War II, with the increase of private car ownership, improvement of the road system and the development of the airline industry.

Increasing demand for international tourism stimulated the development of the “*tourism industry*”, its internationalization and vertical integration. The combination of diverse elements of supply in one package, cheaper than the sum of each product, made tourism more accessible for the masses. In addition, growing competition from similar tourist destinations pushed prices down. Apart from the trend of mass tourism, reflected by a corresponding trend towards standardized, undifferentiated and low-cost supply, there is a significant tendency towards *diversification of interests, markets and products* visible. Nowadays, tourism is thought of as an almost *basic need* in the richest part of the developed world, where it helps people to achieve a higher degree of self-fulfillment and psychological balance.

¹“...that custom of the English wealthy classes whereby young men were dispatched on extensive circuits of continental Europe to finish their education. Its roots include the Greek term for a tool used to describe a circle, reflected in the essential feature of tourism, returning to the point of departure” (Leiper, 1979: 391).

Tourism is also an *important socio-cultural phenomenon* for both tourist generating and receiving countries. Most authors concentrate on the effects of tourism on the *host community*, where “*the most dramatic changes*” take place (Leiper, 1979). Others discuss the negative *acculturation effects, commercialization of local culture, “staged authenticity”* (MacCannell, 1973), as well as the destruction of community and family structures, religion, traditions, increase of criminality, prostitution, drug consumption, etc. Possible positive impacts are increased knowledge and understanding of other cultures, heritage valorization and conservation, inter-cultural communication, mutual learning and spread of development and progress. According to IUOTO’s² Conference of Rome in 1963 tourism should ideally be a “*Passport to Peace*”. The type of impacts depend on cultural and socio-economic differences between hosts and guests, as well as on the type of tourism, enhancing communication or rather the intensification of stereotypes.

Tourism may also be considered an *economic development tool*. As a *personnel intensive* branch it is likely to create *employment*. Positive effects on *income* exist for both investors and workers in the industry. *Multiplier effects* occur due to tourist consumption, investments in infrastructures and the buying power created by the supplementary income. As an *exportation branch* international tourism brings in foreign exchange. However, there are *negative effects* of *leaking out* through importation and *dependence on foreign tour operators, imported inflation, seasonality* and *negative externalities* (e.g. caused by congestion). Strategic planning is needed, aiming at a better negotiation position and a spatially and temporally more balanced demand. There are considerable differences in regional and national share of the tourism market (WTTC, 2001). The economically more developed countries generate more tourism, whereas others essentially receive tourists. It appears that a minimum level of development and security is further necessary to attract tourists. This may explain the relative unimportance of Africa, parts of Asia, the Middle East and South America as both tourism generating and tourist receiving areas.

Finally, tourism has *environmental impacts*. These are partially positive, as natural resources constitute main attractions, which accordingly receive special conservationist attention. But the massive movement of tourists, their spatial concentration in fragile ecosystems and the infrastructures needed for tourism activities put a high pressure on the environment of destination and transit areas.

² IUOTO (International Union of Official Tourism Organizations) was the predecessor of WTO, the **World Tourism Organization**. The latter, created in 1974, is the leading international organization in the field of travel and tourism. It serves as a global forum for tourism policy issues and a practical source of tourism know-how. WTO’s membership includes 139 countries and territories and more than 350 Affiliate Members representing local government, tourism associations and private sector companies, including airlines, hotel groups and tour operators. WTO is an inter-governmental body entrusted by the United Nations towards the promotion and development of tourism. Through tourism, WTO aims to stimulate economic growth and job creation, provide incentives for protecting the environment and heritage of destinations, and promote peace and understanding among all the nations of the world. (www.world-tourism.org/, 2001).

The importance of tourism becomes manifest in many fields, with both positive and negative impacts³. The overall outcome for the destination, the tourist and the “*industry*” largely depends on the planning and management skills of those organizing the activity. This requires in turn an understanding of all actors and factors involved in tourism “*production*” and “*consumption*”.

Chapter 2.2. Tourism as a Concept

Tourism can be considered an omnipresent phenomenon in modern society, but its definition is far from consensual. People typically think of tourism as “holidays” focusing on the pleasure motive, but neglecting other forms of travel, such as business tourism, religious, educational and health tourism. Apart from that, the concept is generally used more often in connection with international and not so much domestic tourism (ideas, called “*tourism myths*” by **Cooper**, 1993: 1-2). The popular usage of the term is quite different from technical and conceptual definitions, which were developed especially during the second half of the last century. Nevertheless, there is *no general agreement* of business people and academics on the best definition of the phenomenon. The only often mentioned consensus exists about the origin of the word (“*Grand Tour*”, see footnote n°1).

The difficulty of definition may be attributed to different approaches used by diverse agents involved in tourism (**Leiper**, 1979: 391). Thus, *businesses* have traditionally focused on only the fragment of the market they are operating in (for example: the hotel business). *Governments* play diverse roles, approaching tourism sometimes as a tool of economic development or trying to regulate the phenomenon in order to limit negative externalities. They also look at it as a social right of their populations, enhancing well-being, health and efficiency of the work force (**Krippendorf**, 1987). *Academics* have specialized in particular perspectives, such as the “*business enterprise and economic development camp*” and the “*impact and externalities camp*” (**Buck**, 1978: 110, as cited by **Leiper**, 1979)⁴. Rejecting the disciplinary status of tourism, **Tribe** (1997) suggests that it is rather a field of study (see also **Cooper**, 1993: 1), where numerous disciplines may be applied in a synergetic manner. He suggests the distinction between the *business-related* and the *non-business related* fields of study. The conceptual suggestions forwarded by **WTO** (1999) distinguish between *demand-based* and *supply-based* definitions. A *holistic* and *systemic* approach of the phenomenon is nowadays claimed more often, realizing the overlapping and interdependent nature of these perspectives and the multifaceted nature of tourism (e.g. **Echtner & Jamal**, 1997).

³ For a detailed discussion of economic, social and environmental impacts see **Mathieson & Wall** (1982).

⁴ **Jafari & Ritchie** (1981) identified five main academic disciplines in tourism research: economics, sociology, psychology, geography and anthropology. **Echtner & Jamal** (1997) further referred to “organizational and strategy research” and “marketing and consumer research”.

Looking in further detail at some definitions, “*conceptual*” and “*technical*” definitions are treated separately. Conceptual definitions describe the theoretical framework of tourism research, whereas technical definitions provide instruments for data collection and research.

Technical definitions have become necessary with the attempt of governments and the tourism industry to monitor size and characteristics of the market and obtain comparable data (WTO, 1999). The League of Nations Statistical Committee launched the first operational definition in 1937. It referred to an *international tourist* as one, who “*visits a country other than that in which he habitually lives for a period of at least 24 hours*” (cited by Leiper, 1979: 393). In 1963 the United Nations completed this definition assigning it to “*visitors*” engaging in the described activity, “*for any reason other than following an occupation remunerated from within the country visited*”, distinguishing between (IUOTO, 1963, cited by Leiper, 1979):

1. *tourists*: temporary visitors, staying at least 24 hours, with one of the following purposes:
 - a) leisure (recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, and sport)
 - b) business, family, mission, meeting
2. *excursionists*: temporary visitors staying less than 24 hours

The more recent UN/ WTO (1993) recommendations for tourism statistics further specify that the tourist’s *period of continuous stay must not exceed a year*. Further, “*international*” and “*internal*” visitors are distinguished. The first reside in a country other than the visited. The second travel inside their country of residence and are also often referred to as the “*domestic market*”⁵.

Conceptual definitions emerged when researchers started investigating the tourism phenomenon as a specific field of study from different angles. These are as varied as the underlying disciplines, from which they are derived. Only some of the most referred to will be presented.

Economic definitions focus on the economic scope of tourism, referring to an “*industry... (involving) a wide cross section of component activities including the provision of transportation, accommodation, recreation, food and related services*” (Australian Department of Tourism & Recreation, 1975, cited by Leiper, 1979)⁶. *Geography* focuses on the spatial elements of the “*tourism environment*”, consisting of tourist generating regions, transit regions and tourist destinations (e.g. Gunn, 1972). From the point of view of *anthropology* tourism can be understood as “*a modern form of acculturation*”(Nunez, 1978: 207-208, cited by Crick, 1996). Others focus on the *socio-psychological* dimension of tourism. Pearce (1993: 873) for example defends that

⁵ This terminology is also used in the context of nationality groups, especially if both variables correspond largely, as is the case of the Portuguese tourist market and in particular of the present empirical study.

⁶ In order to analyze, monitor and compare the economic impact of tourism, a series of technical definitions concerning tourist consumption and the economic activities involved in tourism supply are additionally provided by the *Tourism Satellite Account* (WTO, 1999).

“*tourism is essentially a social psychological phenomenon...(involving) people’s experiences in new settings in the company of others*”⁷. Boyer (1972, cited by Joaquim, 1994: 17-18) defines tourism as an “*act of mobility, aiming at satisfying, in the context of leisure, a cultural need of the industrialized civilization.*” This author integrates tourism in the “*mythical consumption*” of *mass culture*, reflected by the suggestive images of mass media. This perspective locates tourism in the *leisure* domain, which according to Dumazedier (1962) is likely to be the determinant force of human life in future modern society, leading to *self-assertion* and *-fulfillment*, as exposed in his controversial book “*Vers une Civilisation du Loisir*”. This view would only be valid for leisure-motivated travel, though. Krippendorf (1987), on the other hand, believes that (mass) tourism is a means of *escape* from a civilization where self-actualization is not achievable for most, thus helping to maintain a society that is anything but one of *leisure*.

The frontiers between leisure and tourism must be stressed in this context. *Leisure* can be understood, in a limited sense, as the time available after having fulfilled all daily obligations, such as work, shopping, housekeeping, etc. In a broader sense, it can be considered a philosophy of life marked by voluntarism, auto-determination, enjoyment, pleasure, and ideally self-fulfillment, which can be present in daily obligations and absent in the so-called “*free time*”. Usually *tourism*, with the exception of business and “involuntary” health-tourism, is a *part of leisure* in the sense of free time and is associated with the mentioned attitude of life. Obviously not all leisure is tourism, as most takes place *at home* or in the immediate *surroundings*, given the *time constraints* during the working day and week⁸.

“*Holistic definitions*” of tourism attempt to embrace the essence of the concept, considering all its facets. One of the first and best-known holistic approaches is one by Hunziker & Krapf (1942), who defined tourism as: “*....the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents, in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected to any earning activity*” (in: Holloway, 1995: 1). This definition has later been criticized as too vague. Gunn (1972, as cited by Leiper, 1979) uses the term “*system of tourism environment*”, made up of *five components*:

1. *people*...with the *desire* and *ability to participate*;
2. *attractions*...offering activities for *user participation*;
3. *services* and *facilities*...for users *supporting* the activities;
4. *transportation*...moving people to and from destinations;
5. and *information* and *direction*...assisting users in knowing, finding and enjoying.

⁷ In his review of socio-psychological research in tourism Pearce (1993: 873-883) points at the study of attitude, social dynamics within tour parties, social status, cognitive information processing, tourist motivation, satisfaction and stress, also linked to *environmental psychology*.

⁸ for a discussion of the meaning of “leisure” see also Torkildsen (1992)

He further distinguishes between *market side* (the first point) and *supply side* (the following), including *promotion* in the last point (Gunn, 1988a: 15). This definition has the advantage of being a systemic approach.⁹ But it does not refer to the environment, as expected from an “open system”, and disposes of some redundant elements.

Leiper (1979) proposes a system based on the elements: *tourists*, *geographical components*, *industry* and *interaction with broader environments*. He suggests the following definition (Leiper, 1979: 404): “*the system involving the discretionary travel and temporary stay of persons away from their usual place of residence for one or more nights, excepting tours made for the primary purpose of earning remuneration from points on route. The elements of the system are tourists, generating regions, transit routes, destination regions and a tourist industry. These five elements are arranged in spatial and functional connections. Having the characteristics of an open system, the organization of the five elements operates within broader environments: physical, cultural, social, economic, political, technological with which it interacts.*”

The author of this thesis shares Gunn’s and Leiper’s view of a *holistic, systemic definition* as a *theoretical background*. Also the more operational *technical definitions* are relevant in this study, as they are the basis of many available statistics and serve to define the population of primary data collection. The *marketing perspective* of this thesis implies a focus on the *tourist*, his profile, demand, needs and desires, although other elements cannot be neglected as *tourist satisfaction depends on* the functioning of the *whole system*. A more detailed reflection on the basic elements of the *tourism system*, namely the *tourist*, the *tourism product/ destination* and *industry* follows.

Chapter 2.3. The Tourism Product

Products are defined as “*packages of objects or processes which produce value for the client*” (Payne, 1993: 7). They may consist of or include physical objects and/ or services. A possible definition of a tourism product would be “*anything that a tourist consumes*”. One may also affirm that it is “*what the tourism system produces to satisfy tourists’ needs*”. There are several features, which distinguish the tourism product from other products.

First, many authors refer to the fact that the tourism product consists mainly of *services*, which Payne (1993: 6) defines as activities with “*...an element of intangibility, involving an interaction with customers or with property in their possession, (not resulting in)... a transference of property,... (being eventually) associated with a physical product.*”

⁹ in the sense of a “*set of elements standing in interrelation among themselves and the environment*” (Bertalanffy, 1972, as cited by Leiper, 1979: 395)

The following features *characterize a service* (e.g. **Fisk, Grove & John**, 2000: 6-8):

1. *intangibility*, i.e. it cannot be touched and consequently evaluated in terms of physical attributes, which turns the purchase more uncertain and risky;
2. *simultaneity or inseparability*, that is the fact that production and consumption occur simultaneously, meaning generally, that the consumer has to move to the place of production and that the service consists of a performance-experience with an instantaneous nature. Its quality is unique to each consumer and depends on circumstantial factors, the performance of the service deliverer and his/ her interaction with the client, which is closely related to...
3. *variability or heterogeneity*, that is the varying nature of the service, depending on many situational factors, turning its quality control difficult, its purchase uncertain and risky;
4. *perishability*, meaning that services cannot be stocked and are lost forever, if not sold at the moment they could be consumed, implying a larger business risk for service providers.

Consequently, services imply higher levels of uncertainty and risk than physical products, both for the client and the service provider. They are very much dependent on situation and personal interaction¹⁰. That is why quality guarantees, well trained, competent and empathetic service providers, an appealing environment and standards play an important role. The *tourism product* implies an even greater risk, as it assumes a high value for most people¹¹, involves relatively high expenditures and is purchased with temporal and spatial distance. Moreover, it is appreciated as a global, idealized experience, in which environmental aspects and empathy of service providers, local residents and other tourists are fundamental¹². Specific features of this product are:

- It constitutes a *global* product, consisting of a *complex experience* and integrating other products, not only offered by the tourism industry, including also non-commercialized items, such as landscape, culture, climate and hospitality. The *quality* of this complex tourism product is evaluated at all stages of consumption, compared with initial expectations.
- It has a *prolonged temporal significance*, being “consumable” not only at the destination. Some authors say that this experience commences with the planning process, information seeking and decision-making as an enjoyable anticipation of the holiday (**Liebman Parinello**, 1993, **Fridgen**, 1984). This experience is prolonged after travel through souvenirs, photos and transmission of the experience.
- There is typically a *spatial and temporal distance* between the act of purchase and consuming/ producing. Apart from the impossibility to appreciate the product and the “site of production/ consumption” in advance, there is a visualization problem, increasing the perceived risk of purchase (**Seitz & Meyer**, 1995).

¹⁰**Grove & Fisk** (1983, 1992) have introduced in this context the metaphor of a *services theatre framework*, comprising the same theatrical elements as a stage production: actors, an audience, a setting, a front-stage, a back-stage and a performance (**Fisk, Grove & John**, 2000: 21-23).

¹¹**Graburn** (1989) refers to holidays as a *sacred* phase in a person’s life, contrasting with a profane, routinized everyday life. He views tourism as a *modern pilgrimage*.

¹²**Grove & Fisk** (1997) revealed the importance of the presence of and interaction with other tourists for satisfaction using the *critical incident technique* on tourists visiting Florida’s Disneyland.

- Related to this is the fact that tourism products are not transportable, being *tourists transported to the place* of holiday, the “*destination*”, which is simultaneously the site of production/ consumption and the prime attraction (Seitz & Meyer, 1995).
- It is often said that “*selling holidays is like selling dreams*” (Holloway, 1995), which stresses the intangible character of the tourism product, as well as the importance it assumes in a person’s life, associated to a relatively *high degree of expectation* and therefore *risk*.
- The products’ consumption implies a *high degree of involvement* of its *consumer* as well as its *producer*, being the social interaction an important feature of the tourist experience.
- Tourism products are *consumed in public* and represent a relative *luxury* (depending on the tourist generating society and on the product consumed). This implies a higher level of peer pressure (Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997: 394-395). *Luxury or non-essential products* are further more subject to *price-sensitivity* or even suppression of demand in times of recession.
- *Environmental elements* are also fundamental ingredients of the tourist experience, as the tourism product is very much based on a “*place-product*”.

For all these reasons providing tourism products is a *risky business*. Quality guarantees are difficult to grant. High expectations and changing needs have to be met and production is typically lost, if demand is not sufficient. This emphasizes the importance of “*management of demand*”. Other specific requirements are linked with the fact that the destination’s population, culture and environment are included in the product. This implies the need for an *integrated “production”, management, marketing and planning*, avoiding negative impacts of any one part of the system on the others. Further, significant *economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts* of tourism on the host community require a high sense of *societal responsibility* amongst all involved.

One may distinguish “*the global tourism product*” from several separate “*tourism products*”, which are elements integrated in the first, according to different functions and businesses. There are numerous ways of *classifying* tourism products. They may be analyzed as separate functional offerings (transportation, accommodation, food & beverage, attractions and information) or as diverse types of *global tourism products* in the sense of *tourist experiences*. McIntosh & Goeldner (1990) suggest a broad classification of tourism products according to underlying motivations, namely physical, cultural, interpersonal and status/ prestige motives. One may also distinguish between “*active*” and “*passive*” tourism products (Martin & Mason, 1987). Frequently, activities and interests pursued during the holidays are used as a basis for classification. New specialties appear constantly and there is a high rate of overlapping, as increasingly diverse interests are pursued in one holiday¹³. Further, tourism products may be distinguished according to:

- the number of participants in a trip;
- the mode of transport or type of accommodation used;
- the duration of stay (week-end or short-break, main or second holiday);

¹³ For example the special sport tourism form “*ski holidays*” is often combined with an interest in “getting a tan”, “healthy life style”, “fun” and “socializing”.

- the mode of organization of the trip (“full” or partial package, self-organized);
- the market segment served (socio-demographically determined);
- the quality/ price level (luxury, medium, budget)
- the geographical scope of the product (domestic, regional or international tourism);
- the destination category and activities typically linked to it (beach, mountain, rural tourism).

Chapter 2.4. The Tourist Destination

*“Not the desire of alimention or the need to sleep are causal to tourist consumption, but the demand of the **destination** or else of its features as a whole” (Seitz & Meyer, 1995: 11).*

Laws (1995: 23-24) stresses the lack of agreement on the definition of the term “*destination*”, being sometimes used interchangeably with resort, region or just a hotel complex. This author suggests a **typology of tourist destinations**, ranging from “*capital cities*”, over “*developed traditional centers*”, and “*tourist centers*” to “*purpose-built resorts*”. Frequently tourist destinations are defined by public entities, based on administrative reasons rather than on an understanding of visitors’ perceptions¹⁴. An increase in “*co-operative ventures between neighboring cities, regions or countries ... (aiming at) regional or international ... itineraries*” (**Laws**, 1995: 25-26) does not substantially improve the situation, as the approach is still supply-side-oriented. More reasonable seems **Lundberg’s** (1990) definition of a destination as “*any geographical unit that can be viewed as having a common image*”. This may be influenced and largely determined by the supply-side and intermediaries, through corresponding offerings and promotion, but takes also into account a series of not controllable factors determining tourists’ destination image.

Ashworth & Voogdt (1990: 6-9) suggest that destinations could be treated as products. “*They are logically the point of consumption of the complex of activities that comprises the tourism experience and are ultimately what is sold by the place promotion agencies on the tourist market*”, with the particularity that “*the place is both the product and the container of an assemblage of products*”. These authors point at the following intrinsic qualities of such a “**place-product**” (**Ashworth & Voogdt**, 1994: 6-9):

1. the **problem of its definition or delineation**, which can be attempted by a more or less “*incomplete inventory of facilities, services or locations... which together encompass the holiday-maker’s consumption at that place*” or by “*a set of attributes or qualities relating to the place as a whole as perceived by either producers or consumers*”¹⁵;
2. its nature as a “**packaged selection**”, **unique** to each consumer, with the particularity that “*the tourism place-product being sold is likely to be different than that which is being bought*”;

¹⁴ “*Destinations are usually identified and resourced in terms of existing administrative boundaries which have their rationale in ancient land-holding patterns, the underlying geology of the area or accidents of political history, rather than modern perceptions and use of the area by tourists*” (**Laws**, 1995: 25).

¹⁵ **Mill & Morrison** (1992: 263) use the term “**destination mix**” to stress the multi-faceted and composed character of a destination.

3. the *spatial scale* characteristic to the place and its integration in a “*series of nesting hierarchies*”, with the specificity that “*the scale selected for selling by the producer may not be the scale that is being purchased by the consumer*”;
4. the fact that the destination is *multi-sold*; being sold as different tourism products, and to different tourist segments simultaneously, as well as to non-tourists (e.g. residents, shoppers, investors etc.): “*its consumption by any one customer does not limit its possible consumption by others ...at least...until conflict between customers occurs,... (as) space is finite...*”, which makes capacity considerations indispensable.

In this context, **Lozato-Giotart** (1987) suggests a distinction of diverse geographical spaces/ environments, in which tourism takes place. He distinguishes broadly *open and polyvalent* tourism spaces from *specialized* and *intermediate* spaces. The second category includes tourist destinations highly specialized in one form of tourism (beach, thermal, sportive, cultural), whereas the first category includes *destinations with more polyvalent characteristics*. In this class he created the categories “urban non-beach” and “*green*” *destinations*. In the last group he further distinguishes between “*polyvalent agro-tourist destinations*” and “*rurban (not predominantly agro-tourist) destinations* (simultaneously serving tourism and leisure demand)”.

Also the *evolutionary process* that distinguishes the development of tourism at a destination needs to be taken into account¹⁶. This invalidates rigid classifications of the mentioned type, although some categories are unlikely to change over time, associated with the main geographical resources present (sea, lake, river, mountains, etc.). Nevertheless, destinations may change from polyvalent to specialized or inversely by developing the structure of their offerings and thereby the nature of their tourism product (in terms of community involvement, resident- tourist interaction, type of tourist attracted, duration of stay, etc.).

Chapter 2.5. The “Tourism Industry”

Tourism products are offered by a complex supply “machinery”, some denominate as “*tourism industry*”, whereas others are reluctant to use the term (e.g. **Baptista**, 1997). Here, the term “industry” does not actually refer to the strict notion of the “*secondary economic sector*”, although some of its definitional concepts may be applicable¹⁷. The *predominant intangible nature* of the tourism product is often referred to as a reason for classifying the branch as primarily belonging to the “*service sector*”. It can thus be argued that the tourism supply system should be rather considered a *complex service-prevailing system of supply, including resources without price and*

¹⁶ For a more detailed discussion see **Butler** (1980), who suggested one of the mostly cited models of the hypothetical “destination life cycle”, and others, as discussed by **Pearce** (1989: 10 -24).

¹⁷ “Industry” in this sense would be the “*sector of economy transforming raw or intermediate materials into physical products*”(DTV-Lexikon, 1972). Thus, it could be stated that the objective of the tourism branch is one of combining different, more or less tangible products and resources into one tourism product/ experience, often transforming the original, separate products to fit in the special global offering.

beyond commercialization. Nevertheless, the *complexity of branches involved in the “production process”* and the *transforming nature* of a combination of numerous elements into one product may justify the term “industry”. It is also often used in the sense of an *economic branch* of some importance and referring to its *industry-like organization and production for a mass market*.

Gunn (1993: 41-42) points out that three sectors are involved in this offering, namely private enterprises, non-profit organizations and the public sector, marked by systemic interdependencies. Her supply-side model emphasizes the dynamic relationship existing between the five main components, with change in any element influencing all the others.

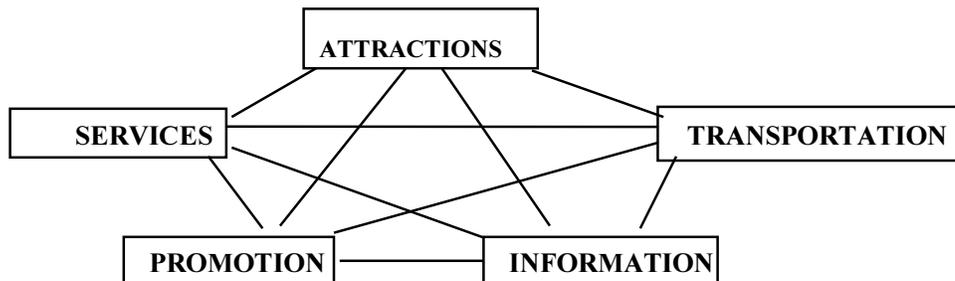


Fig.2 Gunn's model of the tourism supply system

Source: Gunn, 1993: 41

According to Holloway (1995: 57) many businesses in this system offer simultaneously products to non-tourists, with different degrees of tourist demand throughout the year, making classification of tourism businesses difficult: “*Inevitably, what one decides to include under a definition of tourism industry must be to some extent arbitrary.*”¹⁸ This author analyzes the supply system from the perspective of a *chain of distribution* or *marketing channel*, which consists of (private and public) “*producers*” of “*transport, accommodation and attractions*”. These producers may sell via a chain of *wholesalers* and *retailers* to the *end consumers*, eventually shortening this chain by “*jumping*” one or the other element of the chain. Wholesalers (tour operators) combining individual offerings into complex packages and retailers (travel agents) participate in the “*production process*”, when the tourism product is considered in its broad sense as an experience starting with a dream and realized through a complex combination of resources, environments and situations. Integration in the tourism industry is increasing, helping to join the elements in order to create a coherent, more controllable and competitive tourism product (Fridgen, 1991: 186).

Considering supply at the destination, Cooper (1993: 86) and Fridgen (1991: 184) distinguish between “*infrastructure*” and “*superstructure*”. According to Cooper (1993: 86) the first category includes “*all forms of construction above and below ground needed by an inhabited area... in the*

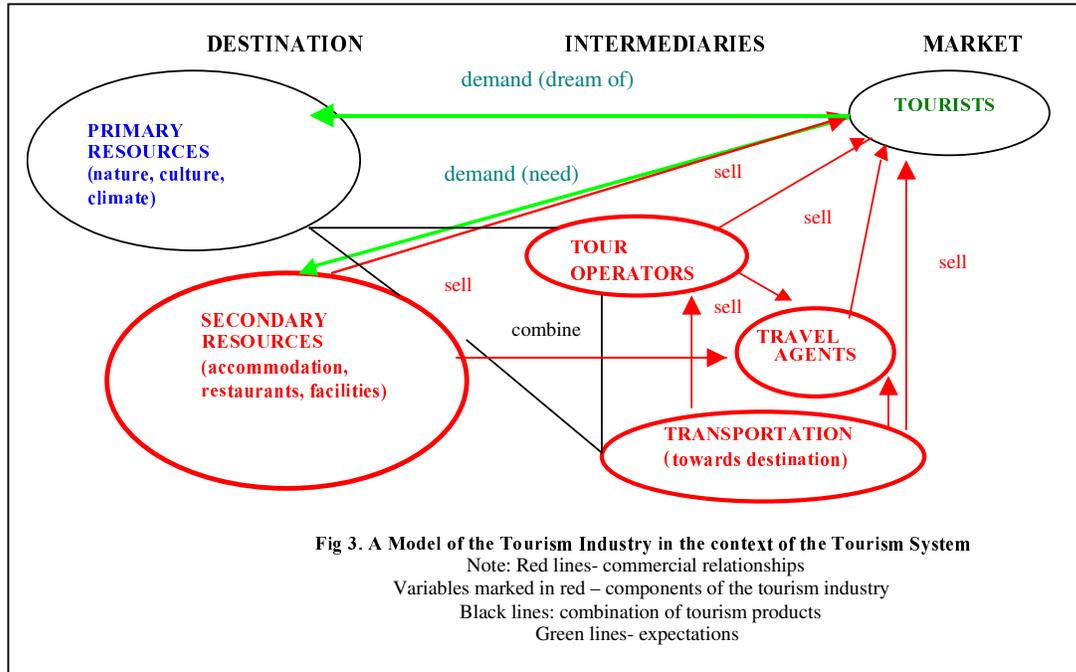
¹⁸ This turns the evaluation of the economic impact of and dependence on tourism on the macro level difficult. WTO aims at a solution of this problem through the *Tourism Satellite Account* (WTO, 1999).

form of transportation (road, railway, airport, parking), utilities (electricity, water, communications) and other services (health care and security),... normally shared by residents and visitors alike.” He qualifies “*superstructure... (as) the profit-generating element of the destination, (including) accommodation, built attractions and retailing services.*” Both are needed for modern tourism, being the first mostly provided by the public, the second by the private sector. Generally only the second is considered when analyzing “tourism industry”. **Baptista** (1990: 126) distinguishes further between “*basic/ primary/ original supply*” and “*secondary/ derivative supply*”. “*Primary supply... (constitutes)... the fundamental reason for the identification of tourism vocation*” (e.g. climate, landscape, heritage). On the basis of this “*the secondary supply (is conceived)*”¹⁹. It is interesting to notice that most *primary resources* are not primarily offered commercially, include “*goods without price*” and are therefore subject to a high pressure of demand without the intervening regulation of the market²⁰. On the other hand, they constitute the basic attraction, which is increasingly acknowledged by the tourism industry. This has led to a growing concern about conservation of *primary resources*. Apart from that, *primary supply* frequently includes a combination of different resources and even *secondary resources* (such as lodging units) can achieve the quality of a *primary resource* (e.g. attracting through uniqueness). This makes an integrative approach necessary. The conceptual distinction between *primary* and *secondary resources* is important, though, for understanding the role and function of each component inside the system and should be considered in tourism and destination marketing.

As a conclusion, the use of the term “industry” may oversimplify a complex phenomenon and lead to erroneous market approaches, as suggested by **Gunn** (1993: 5-6). She argues: “*there is a prevailing misconception that tourism is an industry. Instead it is an agglomeration of land development and programs designed to meet the needs of travelers. This agglomeration has environmental and social as well as economic implications. It is made up of more than only a business sector ... Many of today’s tourism problems can be attributed to a business-only scope of concern.*”

¹⁹ A comparison could be drawn with **Herzberg’s** (1979, 1991) motivational theory of “*hygienic*” and “*motivational*” aspects, which was originally proposed for the domain of job motivation and satisfaction. The assumption of general motivational dimensions is possible. According to this theory, the lack of “*hygienic aspects*” leads to dissatisfaction, but their pure existence does not motivate. On the other hand, “*motivational aspects*” are able to motivate human action. **Baptista’s** “*primary resources*” would correspond to **Herzberg’s** “*motivational*”, the “*secondary resources*” to **Herzberg’s** “*hygienic aspects*”.

²⁰ In this context **Woehler** (1993: 214) speaks of a “failure of the market”, not being able to co-ordinate demand and supply. He further discusses the “*readiness of tourists to internalize external costs in environmentally sustainable tourism offerings*”, which he proved to exist to a certain extent in the German market. He argued that this should be considered by the supply side by marketing a higher overall quality product, tourists are ready to pay for. For a more profound discussion see **Woehler & Saretzki** (1999).



A careful use of the term “*tourism industry*” seems appropriate, considering the systemic nature of an experience occurring at a destination, which is at the core of the product, requiring a complex, integrated “supply-machinery”, which alone is incapable of satisfying the consumer’s needs.

Chapter 2.6. The Tourist

From a marketing perspective the tourist is viewed as the *principal element of the tourism system*. Without tourists there would be no tourism and by understanding their needs one can understand, foresee and direct tourism development. In this sub-chapter tourist motivation and other determinants of tourist behavior will be discussed.

Contradictory motivations drive the tourist: “*With the advent of twentieth century mass tourism, perhaps the most accurate definition of a tourist is someone who travels to see something different and then complains when he/ she finds things are not the same*” (Holloway, 1995: 3).

Many tourists do not want to be classified as such, as “*the term «tourist» is increasingly used as a derisive label for someone who seems content with his obviously inauthentic experiences*” (MacCannell, 1976: 94). According to Fussell (1980: cited by Crick, 1996: 16) the tourist is a “*fantasist temporarily equipped with power*”, who wishes to explore the world, whereas tourism merely provides a “*world discovered (or even created) by entrepreneurs, packaged and then marketed.*” Apart from stressing the paradoxical nature of the tourism phenomenon, these statements also reflect the unclear social representations - “*ambivalence, sweeping generalizations,*

and stereotypes” - that still abound about tourism, and which even bias scientific investigation in the field (Crick, 1996: 15-21).

From a pragmatic standpoint, this study is based on the before-mentioned technical definition of a tourist, with a focus on those who travel with at least some leisure motivation. The tourist may be viewed as an active *holidaymaker*, him/ herself largely responsible for his/ her experiences and eventually resulting satisfaction (Ryan, 1994). In this context, the tourist's *needs and motivations*, being causal to behavior, perception and satisfaction, are important issues of analysis.

Many authors have reflected on tourists' *needs and motivations*. Although there might be specific motives for certain tourism forms, there is evidence for the existence of general motives driving the phenomenon. *Motivators* may be classified and hierarchized, but most authors acknowledge that tourism motivation generally results from a combination of diverse partially interdependent motivators, which may be more or less conscious and more or less complementary or contradictory. Some frequently used classifications of tourist motivation are:

- *physical motivators*: physical rest and relaxation, sports, health, reduction of tension through physical activity (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990)
- physical and psychological *recovery from stress* and *monotony* (Schmidhauser, 1989: 571)
- *self-reward, self-indulgence* (Schmidhauser, 1989: 571), “*having fun*” and “*conspicuous spending*” (Crick, 1996: 33)
- *interpersonal/ social motivators*: new contacts or revitalizing of old ones (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990; Fridgen, 1991: 57)
- *status and prestige motivators*: personal development, desire for recognition and attention from others (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990; Fridgen, 1991: 57)
- *comparison*: apart from the mentioned status/ prestige motive, motives related to challenge and adventure (Fridgen, 1991: 57)
- *cultural motivators*: interest in all kind of cultural manifestations (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990) and education
- “*quest for the authentic*” as a reaction towards the artificial (“staged”), anonymous and sacralized modern world (MacCannell, 1973), as “*sacred quest*”, similar to “*pilgrimage*” (Boorstin, 1972) and leading to real “*re-creation*” (Graburn, 1983: 9-33)
- *novelty*: exploration, stimulation/ arousal and curiosity (Fridgen, 1991: 57), *widening horizons*, satisfying curiosity and self-realization (Schmidhauser, 1989: 571)
- “*ego-enhancement*” (Dann, 1977)
- *escape*: get away (from stress, from others, from norms, from “ordinary social reality”) (Fridgen, 1991: 57; Crompton, 1979a: 417)
- *compensation for deficits in everyday life* in a working performance society, namely: social deficits, climatic deficits, deficits in movement and activity, in closeness to nature, in experience and change, in enjoyment, luxury and prestige, in freedom (Schmidhauser, 1989: 571; Krippendorff, 1987), *compensation for “anomie”* (Dann, 1977)

One can find some contradictions, but also redundancy in these classifications. Some motivations may reflect the same underlying needs, whereas others integrate diverse basic needs. Moreover, most tourists would refer to a number of the mentioned motivators, making tourism a quite complex “*need/ want satisfier*” (Mill & Morrison, 1992: 17).

In this context, Witt & Wright (1992) discuss the role of *expectancy theory* for tourist motivation, referring to *Vroom’s model* (1964). This model suggests that the attractiveness of an outcome depends on the conjoint attractiveness of sub- or integrated results, valued by each sub-result’s instrumentality. Applied to tourist motivation, the overall attractiveness of a holiday would depend on the attractiveness or “*valences*” of different holiday attributes and the instrumentality of the holiday for providing positively valued attributes and avoiding those negatively valued. The model includes not only personal motives related to diverse holiday attributes (“*benefits sought*”), but also considers the perceived capacity of a particular holiday to satisfy these motives. This combination results in an overall motivation directed towards a specific holiday choice.

Trying to associate tourism motivators with basic underlying needs, many authors refer to Maslow’s (1943) pyramid. This represents a hierarchy ranging from physiological needs, over safety needs, to the need of belonging and love, esteem and finally self-actualization. It is argued that the most basic needs, especially the first two, which might also be considered “*deficiency or tension reducing motives*”, must be satisfied (at least to a certain extent) until the higher or “*inductive and arousal seeking*” ones motivate human behavior. The two intellectual needs, which were added to the list later (the need to acquire knowledge and aesthetics), are also important in much of modern tourism. Despite some deficiencies of the theory, it is still considered a valid reference and convenient abstraction used in most psychological approaches to human behavior. In the domain of tourism, Mill & Morrison (1992: 20) list several travel motives, which might be associated with each level of needs (e.g. “relaxation” being connected with “physiological needs”).

Dann (1977) distinguishes between “*push*” and “*pull*” motives, being the first generated from within the person and making the person want to travel, the second by external stimuli attracting a person to a particular destination. According to Iso-Ahola (1984, cited by Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987) there are two main types of push and pull factors: personal and interpersonal.

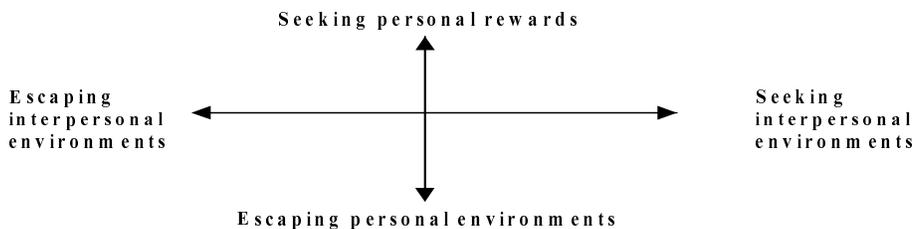


Fig.4. Iso-Ahola’s Push-Pull model
Source: Iso-Ahola, 1984, cited by Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987)

Push motives correspond to *compensation* and *escape* needs²¹. The relationship between *push* and *pull factors* may be explained as follows: “*Pull factors ...emerge as a result of the ‘attractiveness’ of a destination...Destination attributes ... respond to and reinforce push factors of motivations.*” ***Pull factors are linked to destination image***, as “*for a destination attribute to meaningfully respond to and reinforce the motivation to travel, it must be **perceived and valued** by the tourists*” (Brayley, 1990, cited by Uysal & Hagan, 1993: 801). Similarly, Goossens (2000: 302) explains that “*push and pull factors of tourist behavior are two sides of the same motivational coin*”.

Mayo & Jarvis (1981, cited by Uysal & Hagan, 1993: 803) suggest that “*well-adjusted people need a mixture of consistency and complexity in their lives*”. This may be linked to the need of a balance between *familiarity and novelty*, as suggested by Cohen (1972, see Gilbert, 1993: 24-25). Others refer to *activation theory* (Kroeber-Riel, 1992), defending that people need specific levels of activation (*homeostasis*). These assumptions may explain different combinations and degrees of intensity of simultaneously present tourist motivations.

From this brief review it is clear that multiple motivators should be considered, and that a combination, further dependent on specific individual conditions, causes travel behavior. Some authors, though, have suggested a general motivational pattern for tourism.

According to Boorstin (1964: 77-117), for example, the tourist is looking for a “*pseudo-event*”, providing “*mere pleasure*” through a “*trivial, superficial, frivolous pursuit of vicarious, contrived experiences*”(Cohen, 1996: 90). On the other hand, MacCannell (1973: 593) believes, tourism represents an “*earnest quest for the authentic, the pilgrimage of modern man*”.

Krippendorf (1987) stresses the role of the *push* motives, claiming that most tourists would stay at home, if their home environment and daily life were more attractive and permitted *self-actualization*. Tourism is viewed as a markedly self-oriented activity. Later Krippendorf (1989) defends the evolution towards a “*new tourist*”, thanks to the humanization of work and daily life, better education and higher sensibility towards environment and culture. This tourist would be driven by *pull* motives, interested in the destination and cause fewer negative impacts. That is, this author suggests the evolution of a general motivational pattern from *push* to *pull* motives.

Any universal validity of these motivational patterns is debatable, as “*different kinds of people may desire different modes of tourist experiences; hence the tourist does not exist as a type*” (Cohen, 1996: 91). Some authors suggest a ***typology of tourists with different basic motives***. These typologies are frequently based on the study of personality and lifestyle. ***Personality***, that is a

²¹ Crompton (1979a) identifies seven *push* motives: escape, exploration of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships and social interaction. Amongst the *pull motives* he counts those related to novelty and education.

person's "consistent response to environmental stimuli", reflected in behavior patterns, attitude and value systems and personal dispositions that make one individual different from another. It is partially biologically predetermined and partially shaped by socialization and experiences, influencing individual behavior, even if not consciously (Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997: 424-230). As tourism aims at the satisfaction of a person's most intrinsic needs, personality must be considered fundamental in explaining travel motivation. Marketing experts therefore increasingly investigate these variables as "psychographics" (Fridgen, 1991: 60). Plog (1974) suggests an interesting model of three *psychographic tourist types*, driven by different motives. This model has been associated with a wide range of travel motivations, determinants and behaviors, as well as with the preference of specific destinations, as identified for the US tourist market (Plog, 1974)²²:

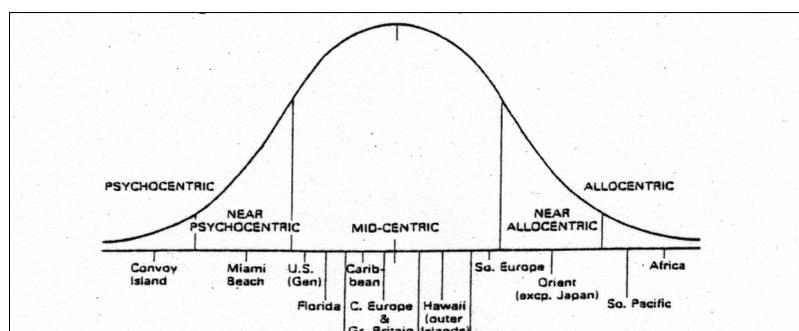


Fig.5. Plog's Psychographic Model

The main distinction between *Psycho-centrics* and *Allo-centrics* clarifies this traveler typology, with the *Mid-centric*, as the largest group, being in the middle of the two extremes. *Psycho-centrics* are marked by territory boundness (take fewer trips, travel shorter distances), reveal generalized anxieties (avoid the unknown, prefer the comfort of routine, due to a sense of powerlessness) and are self-inhibited, non-adventurous persons (Plog, 1974: 63). *Allo-centrics* are outgoing, self-confident, venturesome, exploring and curious: "They like to be the first to discover a location's charms and the culture of its people, long before the destination becomes 'spoiled' from heavy tourism development. Psycho-centrics are the last to visit. Heavy commercial development provides evidence that the destination must be a good place for a vacation. Allo-centrics gladly put up with the lack of many comforts expected by most travelers..., if the destination seems authentic. They want to experience the novelty of the area before it loses its uniqueness. Psycho-centrics, on the other hand, desire a place much like home, where they can order a familiar hamburger when desired, and enjoy considerable commercial activities..." (Plog, 1974: 65-69).

Tourist types may also be identified as *lifestyle groups*. *Lifestyle* is generally measured via *activities, interests, opinions and demographics* (Fridgen, 1991, Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997). In

²² Smith (1990, cited by Hudson, 1999), however, could not empirically confirm the model's suggestions about an association between personality types and destination preferences.

the context of consumer behavior, a comprehensive *Values and Lifestyle Survey (VALS)* has been developed, revealing a hierarchy of lifestyle segments with different combinations of needs and interests²³. These are linked to different stages in material, socio-cultural and psychological personal development. At the lowest level are the need-driven groups, which struggle to satisfy basic needs. Then three groups follow representing the majority of population, namely the “*principle oriented*”, “*status oriented*” and “*action oriented*”. Intellectual aspects and inner values rather than other people’s opinions guide the first. The second group is more concerned with social and cultural norms and strives to win the approval of others. *Action oriented* consumers desire action, variety and risk. Finally, “*actualizers*” are the most wealthy and self-confident group that may indulge in any of the mentioned self-orientations and use their abundant resources to shape their personal life style. The first version of VALS was applied to tourism, showing that different lifestyle segments value different holiday attributes (Shih, 1986, cited by Hudson, 1999: 15).

Cohen (1972, as cited by Gilbert, 1993: 24- 25) established a classification of tourists based on the combination of different degrees of *curiosity* to seek new experiences and the need for security and *familiarity*. This suggests a continuum of the two contradicting needs (similar to “*allo-centrics* versus *psycho-centrics*”). Correspondingly four types of tourists may be distinguished, representing two different forms of tourism, of an either institutionalized or non-institutionalized nature.

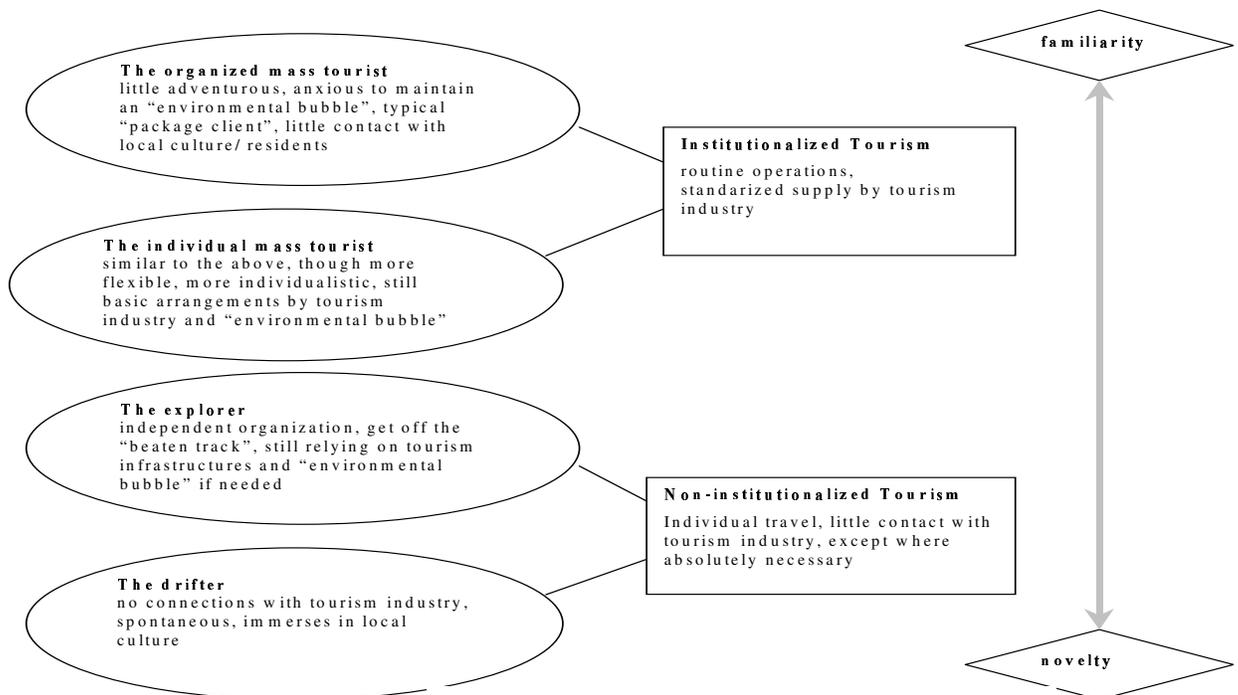


Fig.6. Cohen’s Model of Tourist Types

Source: adapted from Cohen (1972), cited by Gilbert (1993: 25)

²³ The *Values and Lifestyle Survey* was developed by the US company SRI International and first applied to the US market in the 1970s. The survey was updated in the 1990s, considering new trends in consumer behavior (VALS2). The here presented lifestyle groups correspond to results from this latest instrument.

Similarly, **Yiannakis & Gibson** (1992) found thirteen *tourist roles*, which they define as “*stable and patterned forms (of behavior)... related to the satisfaction of important psychological needs*”²⁴. These tourist roles reveal different degrees of preference for “*stimulating or tranquil*” environments, “*familiarity or strangeness*” and “*structure or independence*” in a holiday.

However, **Lowyck, van Langenhove & Bollaert** (1992) criticize several methodological and conceptual weaknesses of tourist role typologies:

1. Typologies might be an artefact of the researcher, since the answers obtained from questionnaires, which are the basis of classification, are directed by the specific questions asked, without considering sufficiently general lifestyle variables.
2. There are no standards for naming tourist types, which results in a great variety of classifications with redundant or overlapping denominations and descriptions.
3. The application of the *ethogenic method of social science* would yield better results. This requires first intensive design studies (case studies) in order to develop useful extensive design research (surveys).
4. It might not be appropriate to divide people into different types without taking into account their full life spans.
5. The static idea that people have to belong to one type or another is debatable.

The last points are related to the concept of “*travel life cycle*” (**Oppermann**, 1995a) or “*travel career*” (**Pearce**, 1993). This concept suggests that “*travel patterns change as the individual moves through his/ her life-span and/ or family career*” (**Oppermann**, 1995a: 538). It implies different motivations and behaviors according to accumulating previous experience as well as personal conditioning factors (age, income, professional activity, family status)²⁵.

Avoiding some of the above-mentioned limitations, **Cohen** (1996) suggests rather a *typology of tourist experiences*, based on the individual’s “*quest for the center*” as the main motivation driving tourism. This quest would depend on the adherence to any or several “*spiritual centers*” and their location inside one’s own society or external to it. A general “*world view*” would determine tourist motivation leading to a typology of experiences, from which more concrete motivators may be derived. **Cohen** suggests a continuum from the “*recreational*” towards the “*existential mode*”²⁶.

²⁴ **Fridgen** (1991: 84-85) defines *role* as “*the behavior within a certain status*”, with status being defined as a “*position in society in which certain behaviors are expected*”. He refers to a “*multitude of positions*” a person holds in society, also in the context of tourism and to their change over time.

²⁵ **Stewart** (1993), for example, found in a study in the UK market evidence for an increasing interest in travel and venturesomeness with growing affluence and travel experience (quoted by **Hudson**, 1999:12-14).

²⁶ The former corresponds to those who identify with the “*spiritual center*” of modern western society and culture and need a transitory “*break-out to recharge the batteries*”, as explained by *tension management* in structural-functionalist theory. This would be achieved via “*entertainment, fun and game*”, and a minimum of integration into the society/ culture visited. With increasing alienation in their own society and seriousness of interest in the culture visited, tourists are classified in the “*diversionary*”, “*experiential*” or “*experimental*” modes. The “*existential mode*” is lived by those seriously seeking the “*spiritual center*” outside of modern society, or else “*fully committed to an ‘elective’ spiritual center, i.e. one external to the mainstream of his native society and culture...one which he chose and ‘converted’ to*” (**Cohen**, 1996:100-101).

Tourist motives, roles, experiences and behaviors are shaped by *social and cultural factors*. Specific travel motivations are also determined by destination image “...created through (commercially) ‘induced’ or ‘organic’ communication channels” (Gilbert, 1993: 26) and discussed in detail in chapter 6. Media and advertising are important in forming and transforming social and cultural references and creating these images.

There are other *determinants* responsible for the tourism phenomenon and individual tourist behavior. Among these are discretionary *income available*, *leisure time available*, and *technology*. Generally, the population of the economically more developed countries has better conditions to travel. Further, a series of individual determinants must be considered, which all determine the availability of discretionary time and money and the willingness to spend it on travel and specific tourism products.

Several *models of consumer behavior in tourism* have been developed, which reflect the *factors influencing the desire and ability to buy* tourism products as well as the steps in the *decision making process*. These summarize some of the aspects mentioned above. *Woodside & Lysonski’s model* (1989) is one example, which also integrates aspects of destination image.

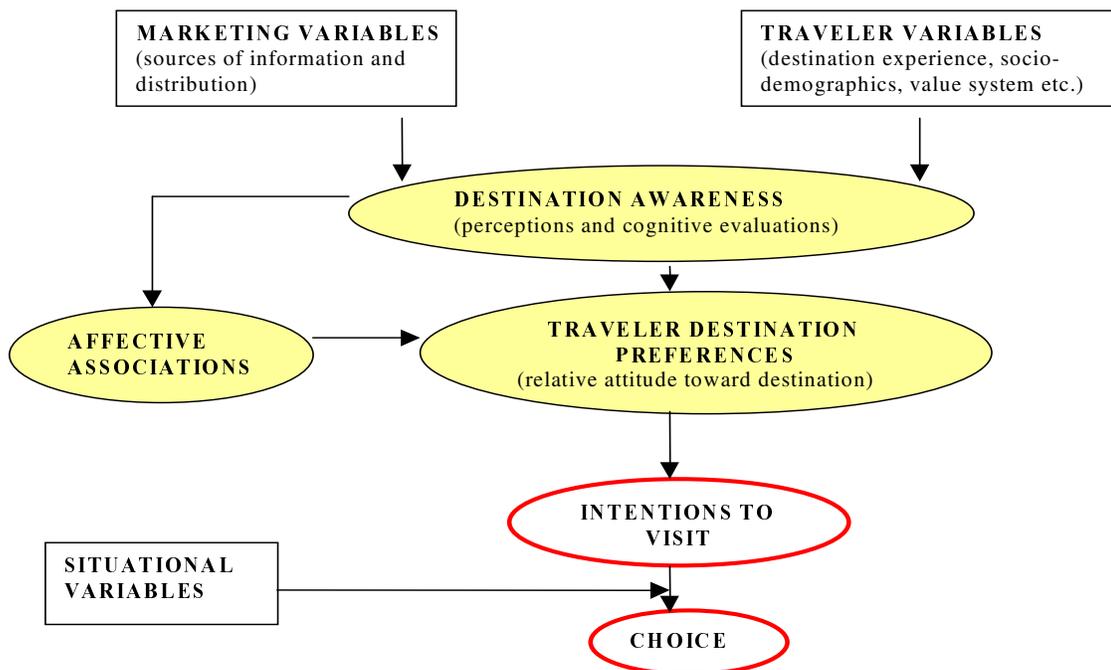


Fig.7. Woodside & Lysonski’s Model of Traveler Destination Choice

Note: destination image variables are marked by a yellow ground, behavioral variables by a red line

This model does not show all most important traveler variables (leaving out for example motivation). The term “*external stimuli*” may be preferable to “*marketing variables*”, as also other

external non-marketing variables should be considered (e.g. destination features). Alternatively, the category “*destination variables*” could be added, if marketing variables shall be highlighted as making the link between the traveler and the destination. Further, it fails to consider actual visitation and a resulting feedback-loop (even if indirectly present in the item “*destination experience*”) or indication of impacts on future behavior (e.g. word of mouth). However, it demonstrates well the cognitive and affective elements present in the decision-making process, which are integral parts of destination image.

Chapter 2.7. Trends in Tourism

Krippendorff's (1989) supposition of a “*new tourist*” and of an evolution from *push* to *pull motives* may be explained on the basis of a change in society and values, with an increasing focus on *leisure* as a means of enhancing quality of life. “*Humanization of the daily life*” would lead to a “*humanization of tourism*”. The resulting *new tourists* would be more intelligent, open-minded, tolerant, communicative, more modest and adaptive, quality and price conscious. In addition they would be sensitive to a socially acceptable price for a sustainable tourism product, seeking self-actualization through a psychological equilibrium with society and nature.

Inglehart (1990, cited by **Filipec**, 1991) confirms the evoked change of values, finding an evolution from “*materialist*” to “*post-materialist*” values²⁷. Also **Ottman** (1993) identifies a new “*ethics of consumption*”. “*Environmental consumerism*” is an important example, leading to corresponding new marketing approaches. For example, **Middleton & Hawkins** (1998) defend a *marketing-led sustainable tourism development*²⁸, responding to an increasing demand in the European market (see also **Davidson**, 1998: 20). The general changes of social values and corresponding attitudes of consumption are summarized by **Ottman** (1993: 20) as a tendency from quantity towards quality consumption, from a short-range towards a long-range concern and from self-centered towards social concerns.

Moreover people tend to become *more experienced* tourists, more *demanding* and increasingly *interested in new, different* destinations and types of holidays. Originally popular *destinations*

²⁷ “*Post-materialist values*” were identified as intellectual, aesthetic, and ecological values, an interest in political participation, emancipation and tolerance.

²⁸ The concept of sustainability linked to economic development was first used in the context of resource management, but is becoming increasingly important in the field of tourism, concerned with the negative impacts of the activity on destinations. According to the **Brundtland Report** sustainability can be defined as “*meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*” (**World Commission of Environment and Development**, 1987, cited by **Cooper & Buhalis**, 1993: 271). **Middleton & Hawkins** (1998, ix) explain that “*sustainability for tourism requires that the cumulative volume of visitor usage of a destination and the associated activities and impacts of servicing businesses should be managed below the threshold level at which the regenerative resources available locally become incapable of maintaining the environment.*”

become saturated; new ones evolve, reach maturity and decline again, showing “*life cycles*” just like other products and markets. **Kirstges** (1992) speaks of an “*inflation of needs*”, believing in a trend towards “*multi-functional holidays*” with complex, varied, individualized and flexible offerings. **Martin & Mason** (1987) defend that increased experience and social change will lead to an increased importance of activity and educational holidays, to “*tourism with a purpose*”: “*From rest, through entertainment to development provides an underlying... guide to the nature of the tourism product.... It implies that all types of tourists...will be looking for...more than a chance to enjoy the weather, the surroundings, the view and the company. Activities, experiences, participation and learning will be key elements in the future tourism product.*”²⁹

Obviously, this type of development is based on a *satisfactory level of wealth*, permitting the increasing focus on immaterial values, on a high level of education and on a “*humanized daily life*”, which permits the evolution of other tourist motives than that “*to escape*”. This can only be found in the more “developed”, wealthier, traditional tourist generating countries. However, even there it is subject to social and economic pressures such as unemployment, recession or increasing competition. These make a “*humanization of the daily life*”, as suggested by **Krippendorf** (1987) or the development of a “*leisure society*”, as evoked by **Dumazedier** (1962), difficult.

“*As with many service industries, some of the most important ideas and innovations come from outside the industry or subject area*” (**Cooper & Buhalis**, 1993: 271). Apart from value changes, also demographic changes, such as the aging of population, later marriages, and smaller families play a role. Further, working conditions, such as reduced and more flexible working schedules, political developments, like the completion of the European Community and other supranational blocks, globalization and new forms of regionalism, and related economic changes, plus most important technological developments, linked to transportation and communication, all affect the evolution of tourism. Some important and already visible trends of tourism are according to **Cooper & Buhalis** (1993: 265-276):

- increasing overall tourism
- increasing long-haul travel
- more frequent short-breaks and split holidays
- the drive towards diversification, demand of new products in the domains of:
nature based tourism, health tourism, cultural and educational tourism
rural tourism, active tourism (adventure and sports), creative tourism and
complex products, including elements of diverse tourism forms

²⁹ Similarly **Kirstges** (1992) identifies the following historical phases of tourist motivation:

- in the 50s a focus on *rest/relaxation*,
- in the 70s a focus on *consumption*,
- in the 80s/90s a focus on *experience, creativity, individual initiative*.

- quest for authenticity, for identity, spiritual and mental renewal
- demand of “overall quality”
- appearance of *new* market segments
- increased mobility and flexibility
- demand for independent, individualized products
- demand of *sustainable* tourism products
- importance of marketing, innovation, strategic management and integration

The **European Travel Commission (ETC; 2001)** suggests some *mega-trends* till 2005 and beyond, which point at the following *tourist market segments offering best growth prospects*:

- Senior citizens
- Business and incentive travel
- Visiting friends and relatives
- City-center visits
- Winter sunshine holidays and cruises
- Day trips
- A wide range of new products
- Adventure holidays, and trips
- Organized group visits
- *rural tourism*, combined with “getting back to nature” and the camping and caravan movement.

Poon (1993) developed the following model, integrating the factors she considers most important for the evolution towards a “new tourism”:

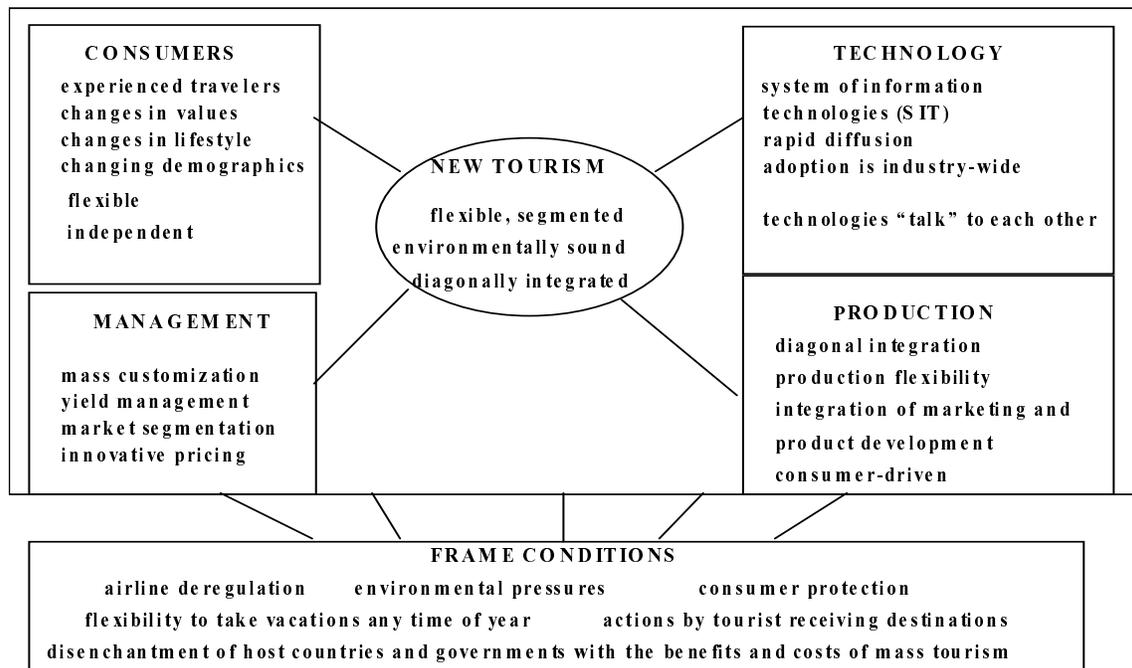


Fig.8. Poon's (1993) model of the determinants of a “new tourism”

The *role tourism plays in modern society* is likely to increase with the growth of wealth and discretionary income. According to **Holloway** (1995: 57) tourism services constitute “*the world largest and fastest-growing industry*”. Evolutions take place at both the demand and supply side. Some are discussible, others contradictory, but trends seem to generally point at positive perspectives for rural tourism, especially if developed on a sustainable basis.

A final note on tourism trends is due to the recent crisis experienced by the industry as a result of the terrorist attacks of the 11th of September 2001. Obviously, tourism trends are always contingent upon the general economic and social background situation and catastrophic events, as well as general recessions should have particularly strong impacts on an industry offering products, which are considered non-essential. Apart from that, enjoying tourism and leisure requires a basic positive attitude of life, as people in a state of fear and depression are likely to refrain from diversion, even though tourism and leisure may actually re-establish a lost psychological balance and compensate for these negative emotions. Subsequent to the terrorist attack an increased anxiety about air-travel could be confirmed by the substantial loss of air passengers. WTO reported that by the end of 2001, travel reservations worldwide stood 12-15% below the levels of 2000, with especially long-haul destinations and those heavily visited by US citizens mostly affected. Before the September 11th attacks, world tourism was on track for an increase of 3-4% in 2001. Now WTO estimates that year-end results will show growth of just 1% in tourist arrivals (**WTO, 2001a**)³⁰. Although several actions are being undertaken to invert the trend, and specialists, like WTO’s Secretary-General Francesco Frangialli expect a recovery of the industry in the second half of 2002 (**WTO, 2001a**), the global effect of the new terrorist threat is still unknown. In any case, Frangialli’s observation that “*people need to travel for business and people nowadays consider holidays to be more of a necessity than a luxury, so the tourism industry proves time after time to be a very resilient one...*” appears realistic, at least for the economically more developed nations. In this context, the tourist destinations perceived as relatively safe, as is the case of Portugal, should not be too negatively affected.

³⁰ “*The terrorist attacks have had a more dramatic impact on the tourism industry than any other crisis in recent years. The United States of America was attacked within its own territory; more attacks are feared and the military response is likely to be prolonged and may even spill over into other areas with unpredictable consequences. All these factors have combined to generate an atmosphere of uncertainty, hesitation and a certain fear of travelling, at least in airplanes and to certain destinations, coupled with a fall in consumer and business confidence. Moreover, the global economic downturn had been taking a toll on the tourism industry even before the attacks, which have aggravated this situation substantially. ...The crisis has particularly hit long-haul tourism, transport, especially airlines, hotels and the business travel sector. Destinations that depend significantly on US traffic have suffered disproportionately. The results, on top of an already weakening economic situation, have been business closures, reduction of capacity, reduced working hours and job losses.*” (**WTO, 2001b**)

Conclusion of Chapter 2

Tourism is originated by individuals who *travel away from their habitual place of residence for at least 24 hours* with the objective of satisfying a variety of needs by visiting different environments, interacting with people and engaging in diverse activities. It has a long history, with changing patterns and motives over time. Nowadays, tourism may be considered an almost *basic need* in the richest part of the developed world. It results in social, cultural, environmental and economic *impacts*, both upon the *tourist-generating society* and particularly the *visited destination*.

As a *complex psychological, social, economic and geographical phenomenon* tourism has been studied from diverse angles and defined in several ways. Conceptually, a systemic definition of tourism is defended in this thesis, with both demand and supply elements interacting in a geographical and socio-cultural space.

Tourist needs are satisfied by a variety of resources and businesses, which function in an integrated system-like fashion to “produce” tourist experiences. In this context, *tourism products* are very varied, may be defined in terms of isolated products serving specific tourist needs or as a holistic product, such as a particular vacation or destination. The latter has also been discussed as a complex “*place-product*”. The *dimension* and *organization of commercial supply-side operations* may justify the designation “*tourism industry*”, that involves both agents of the tourist destination and intermediaries.

The specific features of tourism products determine their production and management. Apart from their *complexity*, *inseparability* and *perishability*, tourism products are highly *intangible* and *variable*, as they are consumed as personal experiences. They are *publicly consumed luxury products*, assume a *significant role* in the consumer’s life and imply *high levels of expectation*, *involvement* and *perceived risk*. These features, as well as the inclusion of non-commercialized, but often fragile and essential destination attributes and the dependence on relatively volatile and often geographically and culturally distant markets makes tourism a *risky business*. “*Management of demand*” as well as an *integrated and coordinated “production”, management and marketing of tourism products and destinations* are required, aiming at long-term success through a *sustainable tourism development*.

From the marketing point of view, the *tourist* is the *main element in the tourism system*. In this context, it is paramount to understand *his/ her motivations*. Both *push and pull-factors* are considered relevant tourism motivators, as well as the need to *escape* or *compensate for a frustrating daily life*. A series of physical, cultural or social motivators have been identified. *Maslow’s hierarchy of needs* and *expectancy theory* were borrowed to explain leisure travel, while others suggest the “*quest for authenticity*” or “*for a center*” as major driving force. Specific

motivational patterns may suggest *tourist role or experience typologies*, revealing a preference for *familiarity versus novelty, arousal versus tranquility* and *structure versus independence*. Motivations and tourist roles may be subject to change due to a *value-shift* in society or along a person's *traveler career*.

Tourist behavior is further influenced by diverse personal, social and situational variables, which may be represented in a model showing causal flow and moderating effects. Despite some limitations *Woodside & Lysonski's model of traveler destination choice* (1989) was selected to represent the flow from internal (tourist) and external (destination/ industry) variables over information processing/ image formation towards destination choice.

Tourist needs and markets are becoming increasingly *diversified* and require correspondingly diversified and specialized offerings. Many "new tourist interests" may be satisfied by rural tourism. Some trends in demand are very complex and interact with others. There are contradictory evolutions visible, too, so that careful planning and management is needed to equilibrate converging and contrasting needs and desires, at a time when markets simultaneously become more competitive, price and quality conscious. Finally, tragic incidents like the 11th of September 2001 terrorist attacks are hardly to foresee but affect the tourism industry dramatically, since particularly tourism requires some economic, political and social stability and well-being to develop. Still, the increasingly relevant role of leisure and tourism in the economically more developed societies contributes to the realistic perspective of this industry's continuous growth, albeit the momentarily negative background conditions.

The outstanding role of tourism in society justifies the research effort undertaken to understand the phenomenon, its driving forces, evolution and impacts. From the destination's point of view, this understanding is paramount for correctly defining the strategy of tourism development, optimize tourist attraction and satisfaction as well as management of tourist flows. Especially in the context of *rural communities*, this capacity is highly needed, as the geographical, environmental, economic and socio-cultural background suggests a *carefully integrated and sustainable approach*.

Specific needs and behaviors can be found in the domain of rural tourism and have led to a variety of possible rural tourism realities in different destinations. This specific tourism form will be analyzed in further detail in the following chapter.

Chapter 3. Rural Tourism

“*Rural tourism*” or “*tourism in rural areas*” is the focus of this chapter, discussing its particular features and how to define it and distinguish it from other tourism forms. In addition its social, environmental and economic impacts, as well as the particular market for rural tourism and its evolution, especially in Europe, will be presented.

The concepts “*tourism in rural areas*” and “*rural tourism*” may be defined as related to a particular *type of lodging unit, tourism with a farm-basis or farm-connection, tourism with a certain purpose and specific features* or as *any tourism taking place in the countryside*.

The first mentioned definition is seriously limited. Despite of the importance of accommodation as a pre-condition for tourism, lodging units are not typically the (only) attraction of this type of tourism. Furthermore, the focus on a certain type of lodging unit neglects the role of other commercial and non-commercial accommodation existing in the countryside. The fact that “*tourism in rural areas*” is nowadays associated with a specific accommodation form in Portugal is an example of a sub-product standing for a product. This may be the result of the government’s focus on this sub-product by creating specific legislation, funding programs and statistics for it. Further, the image associated with this sub-product, linked to “*high quality, sophistication, aristocracy, beautiful manor houses, personalized service, architectonic heritage and upper-class*” and patronage by opinion leaders has helped make it stand out from the rest.

That rural tourism is more than a particular form of accommodation, has been expressed by **Lane** (1988: 62, as cited by **Groome**, 1993) in the following lines:

*“What are the **features** which rural tourism must possess to be **truly rural**? Smallness of scale is an obvious parameter. Closeness to nature, absence of crowds, quietness and a non-mechanized environment are clear necessities. Personal contact- the antithesis of urban anonymity must be important. A sense of continuity and stability, of long living history is another contender for inclusion. The possibility of getting to know an area and its people well is a special quality of the rural environment. And for any rural community, retention of individual identity is important as also is local control by manor house, farm, business or local council.”*

The **European Community** has adopted the term “**rural tourism**” for *all tourist activities taking place in rural areas* (**Keane**, 1992). This is conceptually “broader” than Lane’s definition.

According to **EUROSTAT** (1998: 28), rural tourism should not be viewed as an exclusive tourism form, in opposition to other segments of the tourist market, as for example cultural, health or business tourism. This organism defines rural tourism as the “*totality of activities of individuals who travel to rural areas (in a non-massified form)*”, thereby relating to the destination area and the quantity of tourist flows, although not exactly determining a limit. **EUROSTAT** (1998: 28) suggests a definition of *areas for rural tourism*. These should depend on the criteria “*population*

dimension and density” and “*supply of tourist accommodation*”. It is generally acknowledged that *rural tourism* lacks a consensual definition (Page & Getz, 1997: 3). But a prior definition of the term “*rural area*”, referring to the physical and human environment in which this tourism form takes place, is needed for most conceptual approaches.

Chapter 3.1. Rural Areas

People usually associate the term “*rural*” with *agriculture* and often define it *in contrast to “urban”*. *Economic, social, cultural and environmental differences* are referred to, *specific functions* are attributed, *population densities* are confronted, as well as the *concentration of certain activities* and *facilities/ infrastructures, land use patterns* and *distance from larger towns*.

In the *Portuguese legislation* about rural tourist accommodation, rural areas were identified as “*areas with a traditional and significant relation to agriculture or a clearly rural environment and landscape*” (Decreto Lei nº 169/97). Still, this definition remains vague as to what is meant by a “*significant relation to agriculture*” or “*clearly rural*”.

An often used and most *operational* definition of “*rural areas*” focuses on *population density*. However, there is no general agreement on the critical population threshold discriminating between “*urban*” and “*rural*” (Getz & Page, 1997: 4). For example the OECD (1994) defined as “*rural*” *at the local level* any area with a population density of fewer than *150 inhabitants/ km²* and at the *regional level* as:

- a) *essentially rural*, a region with *more than 50% rural terrain* (at local level, as defined above)
- b) *sensitively rural*, a region with *between 15% and 50% rural terrain* and as
- c) *essentially urbanized*, a region with *less than 15% rural terrain*

Even if easy to apply, this purely quantitative classification neglects important qualitative features of rural areas³¹. Other features and functions of the rural space must be present, which increases classification difficulties. Some authors prefer the idea of a “*rural - urban continuum*”. Instead of trying to perfectly outline categories of spaces, this thesis is limited to the discussion of basic characteristics, commonly associated with rural space, in an attempt to achieve a better understanding of its nature, functioning and attractiveness as a tourist destination. In this context, criteria like *land use* and *social community structure* must be considered.

The traditionally primary distinctive feature of rural areas, *agriculture*, is going through a *major crisis* in many countries. This occurs especially in regions, which cannot compete with large and productive agricultural businesses, characterized by intensification and specialization of farming.

³¹ For example, an industrial area with a minor residential function or a modern residential area with low population density inhabited by city commuters, as well as mass tourist resorts with a low original population density, but urban characteristics may be called “*rural*” according to this classification.

Rationalization leads further to reduced employment opportunities even in the most competitive agricultural areas. As a consequence employment in agriculture almost halved between 1980 and 1996 from 9.5% to 5% of the working population in the EU states. In Portugal farming employment as a proportion of the total fell from 29% to 12% in this period³² (Edmunds, 1999). Thus, rural areas as well as their relationship with the urban counterpart have been subject to important changes, frequently induced by economic development.

According to **Badouin** (1982) rural areas were marked in the beginning by an “*agro-handicraft*”-**complex**, in which agriculture played the predominant role, supported by a utilitarian form of handicraft that served the agricultural produce and the needs of the rural population. This rural area can be thought of as a closed, integrated, auto-sufficient system. A second phase (XIXth up to the mid XXth century) was marked by a “*specialization of agriculture*” due to mechanization, which made *utilitarian handicraft* superfluous and implied an increased dependency on urban, industrialized regions for machines and fertilizers. Finally, when technological progress made distance secondary, there were increasingly diverse economic activities introduced into rural areas, which had no link to agriculture. This evolution responds to the decline of agriculture as a profitable economic activity, especially in less productive areas in Europe, which also receive financial incentives from the EC to give up agriculture, according to the new “*Community’s Agricultural Policy*”³³. The developing open system reflects more the globalization of markets than spatial integration and weakens the traditionally predominant role of agriculture in rural areas. Still, the continuity of agriculture in the regional economic base as well as its expression in spatial extension and landscape, in cultural heritage, traditions and life-style are major references of “*rurality*”. The decline of profitability of agriculture leads not always to its abandonment, but frequently to *part-time farming* and *farm diversification*, which may also be in the field of tourism³⁴. Apart from the *economic/ productive function* of rural areas, one must consider further their *social, cultural, political and biological/ ecological functions*.

³² Other examples are Italy, with a reduction from 20% to 7%, Greece from 40% to 20%, Germany from 9% to 3% and the UK from 2.4% to 2%. Eastern Europe shows an opposite trend, though (Edmunds, 1999).

³³ “*The relatively open ended commitment to support quantities of food production not required by the market, which characterized CAP during the 1970s and early 1980s has now ended and the CAP has been in the process of reform since 1984... A variety of alternative enterprises are being mooted for farmers, including forestry, agro-tourism, set aside proposals, direct income aids and so on....*” (Keane, 1992).

³⁴ Slee (1989) identified the following “*alternative farm enterprises*”:

- **tourism and recreation;**
- adding value to conventional products (by marketing and/ or processing);
- unconventional agricultural enterprises (health, luxury and craft products, as well as ethnic food);
- ancillary resources (buildings, woodlands and timber, wetlands) and
- public goods (compensation payments for environment conservation).

The *social and cultural function* refers to life in a certain type of community, which is marked by “clear and uncomplicated interpersonal relationships... a more profound relation with customs and tradition and the frequently more vivid religious consciousness... Further property, structure of economic activity and income play a role” (Spatt, 1975). The rural area’s social and cultural functions are not limited to its inhabitants. Rural areas are often considered a *symbol of national identity*, more resistant to tendencies of modernization and uniformization due to its strong and still vivid traditional roots, its physical representations of cultural and natural heritage and their fusion in a typical landscape³⁵. They constitute a distinct political reality, representing specific interests, typically trying to overcome marginalization through attraction of government investments and subsidies, which they seem to depend on more than urban areas.³⁶ Further, visits to the countryside are increasingly part of the urban life style, thereby assuming an important *recreational function*.

The *biological or ecological function* relates to the fact that rural areas are responsible for the conservation of natural heritage, thereby contributing to the endangered ecological balance³⁷. As noted before, there is an increasing environmental consciousness in modern society, implying changes in life style, economy and politics. This becomes evident in the growing interest in rural areas as residential and recreational/ tourist zones. In this context, the *function of environment conservation and protection* by rural communities is increasingly recognized and valued³⁸.

Badouin (1982: 12) stresses the systemic nature of rural areas, marked by the dynamic relation between Man and environment, stating that “the rural space as a *framework of human life* can be considered a *product of consumption*.... Thus a complexity of *relationships* of a particular type evolved between the *individual and his environment*”. This system supports all mentioned functions, which are actually interacting and interdependent. In an economic perspective, he refers to the *consumptive function* of rural areas, apart from the mentioned *productive function*. In this context he distinguishes between the *residential* and the *tourist and recreational functions*. The *residential function* not only of originally rural populations but also of urban dwellers moving to

³⁵ e.g. **Keller** (1991) characterized rural areas as “...vital zones of traditional culture...which fulfill important political functions...still offering a “pure” world, contributing to cultural diversity and national identity”

³⁶ **De Castro** (1994) studied asymmetrical regional development, highlighting the Portuguese case. He concludes that innovation capacity is the key to development. Its existence is linked to resources (especially human and information-based) and conditions (infrastructures, services, etc.), which are geographically unequally spread and typically concentrated in urban areas. Nevertheless, he stresses the potential associated with a concentration of specialized activities in some non-urban areas, with a strong “community culture” reducing transaction costs, and the opportunities of new technologies (information and communications).

³⁷ However, even modern agriculture may cause environmental problems, as **Allanson et al.** (1995: 1808) point out: “...the spread of modern agricultural production techniques (has led) to problems of pollution and degradation of natural habitats, at the same time as demands on the countryside as a consumption space have increased because of rising prosperity and the changing social composition of rural areas.”

³⁸ For example the EU offers incentives for corresponding activities and some countries or regions already pay farmers for conservation services (e.g. in North-Rhine-Westphalia, as cited by **Schmidt**, 1994).

the countryside is a consequence of the dissociation between the place of work and place of residence as a result of industrialization. It is further associated with the development of individual means of transportation and improved access to rural areas. Simultaneously, prohibitive prices of urban housing, as well as negative aspects of urban life such as congestion, noise, pollution, anonymity, lack of nature, crime, etc. drive people out of the city. Quality of life may also be measured in terms of quality of the environment and “living and moving space” available. The importance of the residential function in rural areas depends on their proximity to urban areas, which provide jobs and services, their accessibility and their environmental quality. The development of telecommunications should reduce the significance of proximity to cities, so that remote rural areas become eligible for the residential function, if attractive in terms of quality of life. **Bryden** (2000) identifies in this context a demographic renewal of many European rural areas. Many reasons for the increased popularity of rural areas for their residential function are also responsible for their *tourism and recreational appeal*. Both, recreation and tourism are closely linked as they fulfil similar needs. The *consumptive function* of the rural space confers it a particular *economic value*, linked to *socio-cultural, biological* and *conservationist functions*.

Socio-economic development leads to an increasing *overlapping of rural and urban areas and features*, not only in the “*rurban*” peripheries of densely populated cities. Mutual influences have always existed due to migrations taking place between the two spaces. In the past, these were typically directed towards the city, whereas they nowadays occur also in the inverse direction (**Edmunds**, 1999, **Bryden**, 2000). There is a tendency of *uniformization* and *urbanization* of life style visible in modern society. This is determined not only by increasing mobility of the population, but also by the globalization of economy and respective consumption patterns, as well as by the influence of mass media. The complexity and vague limits of the rural space are also underlined by behaviorist scientists who consider it a *social construct* or “*in terms of how occupants perceive it*” (**Page & Getz**, 1997: 5). **Allanson et al.** (1995) stress the systemic and dynamic nature of the rural space, defining its economy not as a functional entity, but a *complex open system*, the analysis of which requires an interdisciplinary approach, oriented to the study of processes and interactions.

Considering these features and functions of the *rural space*, one may summarize it as a “*complex, socially constructed and individually perceived system of relationships evolving from a number of human productive, consumptive and conservationist activities in a man-shaped landscape. This landscape is marked by agriculture, has particular social, political, cultural, economic and biological/ ecological functions, and can be increasingly defined by the impacts of related urban spaces in the context of a rural-urban continuum.*”

Chapter 3.2. The Tourism Function of Rural Areas

The **OECD** (1994) stressed the following factors as positively influencing rural tourism demand:

- *growing level of education*
- *growing interest in heritage*
- *increase of leisure time available*
- *improvement of transport and infrastructures*
- *increased health and environment consciousness*
- *search of peace and calm*
- *increasing interest in outdoor recreation, sports and adventure*

This is confirmed by a recent report by the **European Commission** (1999: 18), which points at a change in the market of rural tourism, “*with shorter stays, a greater interest in health and activity holidays and more concern for the environment. There is ongoing demand for all kinds of accommodation, but increasing consciousness of standards within each sector.*”

The *motives* that drive people to the countryside are a reflection of these and other general trends of tourist motivation. The attractiveness of rural areas for tourism and recreation is first related to the *image of “rurality”*. This is closely linked with the *traditional* and *authentic*, standing for some romantic idea of “the good old days”, pure and simple lifestyle, intact nature and perfect integration of Man in his natural environment. It is interesting that these lifestyle ideals also attract migrants from urban areas, who subsequently offer rural tourism on a small scale (**Getz & Carlsen**, 2000). Thus, “*nostalgia of the origins*”, the need for recuperation of the lost link with nature and the “*basics*” of life, in an increasingly complex and complicated surrounding, constitutes an important attraction of rural areas. This attraction is principally to those areas, which seem to maintain these basic features³⁹, due to underdevelopment and marginalization. The consequent paradoxes associated with potential *staged authenticity* (**MacCannell**, 1973) and the potential destruction of original attractions through attraction of and catering to tourist masses are obvious.

Another motivation is linked to *recreational activities*, which require *large open spaces* and are *nature-based*. Also the need of *closeness to nature* for *health* reasons and furthering *psychological balance* is an important driving force for urban populations visiting the countryside. In this context the *aesthetic value of landscape* as an attraction must be stressed (**Burton**, 1995). Last, the interest in *discovering something new*, in respect to rural life and nature, as well as by experimenting with new, exiting activities, may drive people to visit rural areas. An increased level of education and

³⁹**Clary** (1993) asks in this context “*what has happened to this “rural culture”, represented by the residents of rural areas and which we offer today to the urban population as a miraculous solution to all evil? Isn’t it more vivid in the memory of these same urban people than in the daily life of the residents of rural areas, too much worried with their future?*” (free translation from the French original)

information available nourishes all these motives. Finally, there is a general trend towards “widening horizons” and diversifying holiday practices.

These motives are responded to by a variety of resources, such as nature, history, cultural manifestations, special facilities etc, resulting in different tourism forms and products. Classifications of these tourism forms and products are useful in order to describe and understand the different manifestations of tourism in rural areas. Classifications already mentioned for tourism in general could be used, but a more specific approach might be adequate.

Berger (1975), for example, distinguishes four forms of tourism in rural areas, according to the length of stay, the nature of involvement in community life and the corresponding impacts:

1. “*passing by*”, on the route towards other destinations or “*on a circuit*”, not spending much time at each site. Attractive landscape and points of special interest determine the privileged route. The economic impacts of this form of tourism are limited⁴⁰. The commercial/ retailing sector is supposed to profit most. There is some potential for a “*higher impact tourism*”, as the problem is not to attract tourists in the first place, but to convince them to stay longer⁴¹.
2. “*family tourism*”⁴², as a movement “*returning to the village of origin*” of those who left for the city. Berger includes in this group those returning at retirement age, which is debatable.
3. “*residential tourism*”, i.e. prolonged seasonal visits based on tourism infrastructures, as well as secondary homes. This may result in substantial socio-economic impacts, requiring new activities linked to leisure and others related to serving a larger population base⁴³.
4. “*mass tourism*”, attracting a large concentration of tourists especially in certain seasons, typically linked to the practice of certain sports (e.g. ski resorts) or the existence of specific infrastructures requiring a high usage rate to guarantee profitability. Usually this tourism form leads to new urban structures, whereas references to the original rural area tend to disappear.

Despite being useful for describing visible manifestations of tourism in rural areas, such as tourist flows and tourism supply, this classification is far from complete, not including individual and independently organized tourist movements to the countryside, which are nowadays predominant in many rural tourist destinations. Further, it does neither (except for the so-called “family tourism”) take into account the underlying motives of rural tourists nor the corresponding activities undertaken. This is done to a larger extent by the following approaches.

⁴⁰ This obviously depends on the site, the popularity and usage rate of the route and the facilities existing “*en route*”. A site specializing on “*transit tourists*” may yield higher returns than a traditional destination.

⁴¹ This potential of transit regions should not be overestimated. There are areas deliberately chosen for their attractiveness and others simply for the quickest access to the main destination. That is, some trips may already be included in the enjoyable part of the tourist experience, whereas others may be just undertaken to overcome the obstacle of distance.

⁴² The denomination of this category may be misleading, as the term “*family tourism*” may be generally used associated with a family taking a holiday and not with rural migrants retiring in their home village.

⁴³ Studies in France showed that the reduction of permanent population in some rural communities was compensated by an increase in ‘temporary’ (tourist) population causing an increase of 10% of the ‘theoretical annual population’, calculated as: ‘permanent population + tourist nights/ 365’ (**Berger**, 1975).

According to **Clary** (1993), “*the diversity of equipment and practices of tourism in rural environments evolves from a profusion of initiatives... for best adapting supply to demand... There is, fortunately, no model... We suggest simply to recognize some major types (of tourism in rural environment), their specific functioning and socio-spatial implications*” (**Clary**, 1993: 285). This author implicitly proposes the following classification of rural tourism products:

1. **Integrated Products**⁴⁴: theme parks, clubs, delineated leisure areas (e.g. hunting zones)
2. **Products of the Urban Periphery**: “*leisure suburbs*”, “*nature and discovery*” products, “*sports- relaxation*” products
3. **Sports and Nature Products**: hunting and fishing, walking and hiking, water-based tourism, nature parks
4. **Culture and Tradition Products**: heritage, museums, festivals, tourist participation

The distinction of the *urban periphery* is significant in so far as different leisure and tourism practices are not only dependent on natural and cultural resources present and man-made attractions and facilities, but also on the proximity of urban areas. Thus, the *closer a city*, the more important the *recreational function* of this “*rurban zone*” for city dwellers, who increasingly *move their residences* to the periphery. This implies a closer relation with and a more *significant influence of the urban space*. On the other hand, the *more distant* the rural area, the weaker the urban influence, the less important the recreational and the more important the tourism function.

Keane (1992) broadly distinguishes between “*agri-tourism*”, which is farm-based, “*rural tourism*”, referring to all other forms of tourism taking place in rural areas, and finally “*rural community tourism*”, where tourism development takes place in an integrated and co-ordinated manner at the local level. **Keane** defends the latter as the most appropriate in order to maximize benefits for long-term local development. Some definitions of *rural tourism* are based on the percentage of tourism revenue that benefits the rural community (**Edmunds**, 1999).

Calatrava & Avilés (1993) distinguish between “*tourism in rural areas*”, corresponding to all tourism taking place in rural areas, and “*rural tourism*”. The latter includes rural culture as part of the product and is characterized by personalized contact, integration in the physical and human rural environment and participation in the community’s way of life. A similar definition was given by the **LEADER European Observatory** (1997), demanding rural tourism to provide “*personalized contact, a taste of the physical and human environment of the countryside and opportunities to participate in the activities, traditions and lifestyles of local people.*” Correspondingly, the most typical rural tourism product would be “*agro-tourism*”, but also other

⁴⁴ The author understands by “*integrated products*”, products that integrate all resources necessary for the tourism experience, i.e. relatively “auto-sufficient” tourism products. Some authors discuss whether these forms of tourism, with no references to its rural area of implantation, can be considered “rural tourism”.

non-farm-based products should be considered *rural tourism*, as long as there is a connection to *rural community life*.

According to **Lane** (1994) rural tourism should ideally fulfill the following criteria:

1. be located in rural areas;
2. be functionally rural (based on the rural world's special features, such as open space, natural resources and traditional practices);
3. be rural in scale (small scale);
4. be traditional in character, organically and slowly growing and controlled by local people.

Burton (1995) suggests that rural tourism may be classified according to:

1. **type of activity:** health, sport, adventure, travelling, participating in rural life
2. **type of rural resource:** nature and landscape features
3. **type of tourist:** “*sunlusters*” demanding urban style resorts, “*tourers*” and “*participants in rural life*”, requiring quality of landscape, peace and quiet, lack of commerce
4. **type and location of accommodation:** service centres, close to natural resources, dispersed lodging, self-catering and farms⁴⁵
5. **size of market/ reliance on tour operator:** mass, group, individual

Linked with the last criterion is the *commercialization of rural tourism products*, i.e. the way in which they are presented and sold to the market. In this context, the **LEADER work group on rural tourism** (1994) distinguishes two *product concepts*:

1. “*flexible*” products, “*à la carte*”, more personalized and sold *directly to near-by markets*
2. *structured products*, typically focusing on a *theme* and commercialized via *tour operators*

Analyzing 44 rural tourism projects the LEADER work group identified the product types:

1. “*classic*”, *generalist products*, based on a strong image of the destination, being easily marketable by tour operators
2. *specialist products*, requiring an attractive potential for certain thematic holidays and being marketable precisely to target segments, possibly through specialized tour operators
3. “*short break*” products, directed at an individual clientele with a selection of recreation activities and other resources “*à la carte*”, usually sold directly to near-by markets

These types may be included in the above-mentioned *product concepts*, further distinguishing between more or less specialized structured products. Limiting flexible products only to “*near-by*” and “*short-break markets*” is questionable, because there is also a trend towards flexibilization and individualization in products offered by tour operators (e.g. “*fly & drive*”).

⁴⁵ **EUROTER** (1993) distinguished bed and breakfast, rural hotels, rural camping sites and holiday villages.

One may also distinguish *types of rural tourist destinations* (**European Commission**, 1999: 16):

- traditional, popular destinations near urban areas receiving a high proportion of day visitors
- traditional holiday areas with significant quantity of visitor accommodation and infrastructure
- protected areas seeking to integrate tourism, the environment and local economy
- rural areas characterized by small historic towns and villages and a rich historic and cultural heritage interspersed in the countryside
- remote areas with appeal based on wildlife and wilderness
- rich agricultural areas where farming provides much of the visitor appeal
- areas close to the sea, wishing to develop tourism in inland locations
- mountain or forest locations

According to the mentioned report, these rural destinations should attempt to cater to specific market segments, such as day-trip visitors, short-break holidaymakers, families, senior citizens, visitors with special interests (cycling, walking, gastronomy, local heritage etc.), people with disabilities and other groups (**European Commission**, 1999: 17).

Some authors focus on *agriculture as a basis of “rural tourism”*. Thus, **Leite** (1990) defends that *“rural space means also and principally: agriculture and farmers”*. He concludes that *“agro-tourism (is the form of rural tourism which) best identifies with the agrarian vocation of the countryside.”* **Cavaco** (1995) describes the term *“rural tourism”* as referring *“exclusively to farming country ...either today or in the recent past... (being) sufficiently distant from the coastline for its economic, social landscape and functional dynamics... removed from cities... typically inland hilly regions with different sorts of landscape, with mostly peasant type economies and societies, and a wealth of history and cultural traditions.... (including) farmland integrated in natural parks and reserves.”*

However worthy the aspiration for authentic, traditional, agriculturally shaped and community-based rural tourism products may be, *“the (actual) nature of (rural) tourism is dictated by the type of location, resource and market”* (**European Commission**, 1999: 15). As the rural space is marked by strong urbanizing tendencies, also the identification of clearly *“rural”* tourism forms becomes increasingly difficult, if not impossible. That is, also in this context, one may rather distinguish degrees on a continuum, which further depend on the specificity of each country and community's development. The mentioned **OECD** report (1994) highlights contrasting features between urban /resort tourism and rural tourism, which mark the extremes on this continuum:

Typical characteristics of urban/ resort tourism	Typical characteristics of rural tourism
Settlements of over 10.000 inhabitants	Settlements of under 10.000 inhabitants
Built environment	Natural environment
Infrastructure intensive	Weak infrastructure
Strong entertainment/ retail base	Strong individual activity base
Large establishments	Small establishments
Nationally/ internationally owned firms	Locally owned businesses
Tourism interest self supporting	Tourism supports other interests
Workers may live far from workplace	Workers often live close to workplace
Rarely influenced by seasonal factors ⁴⁶	Often influenced by seasonal factors
Guest relationships anonymous	Guest relationships personal
Professional management	Amateur management
Development/ growth ethic	Conservation/ limited growth ethic

Table 1. Contrasting features distinguishing between urban/ resort and rural tourism
Source: OECD (1994)

One may conclude that there is no universally accepted definition of rural tourism. Many forms of tourism take place in rural areas, although some authors do *not include* all in the concept of “*rural tourism*”, such as *autonomous resorts located in the countryside* or *untouched wilderness areas* (Dernoi, 1991, cited by Burton, 1995). These limitations are acceptable because the mentioned resorts create urban structures and do not minimally focus on aspects of the rural environment, whereas wilderness areas miss the human influence characteristic for a rural environment. There are tourism forms, which do not principally concentrate on *rural resources*, but make use of them as a *complementary attraction* such as spa and some forms of activity tourism. Finally, there are tourism forms with a *special focus on the rural environment and life*, such as agro-tourism and forms of cultural and nature tourism.

In this study, *all forms of tourism taking place in rural areas and minimally associated with rural features in terms of attraction, activities and meaningful surrounding* are considered “*rural tourism*”. This excludes what has been denominated as “*integrated products*” by Clary (1993) and “*tourism in untouched wilderness areas*”. Some features, such as “*small scale, diffuse and personalized*” would typically be associated with this “*rural tourism*”, but also larger scale establishments may be included as long as they are not exclusively focused on themselves. Local control may be desirable to guarantee an optimal involvement of the population and to enhance endogenous development, but it is not considered a condition for the definition of “*rural tourism*”.

⁴⁶ This may rather apply to urban tourism and be not true e.g. for beach or ski tourism resorts.

Chapter 3.3. The Role of Tourism for Rural Areas

A series of potential positive and negative impacts of tourism in rural areas may be identified, as discussed in detail for tourism in general by **Mathieson & Wall** (1982). Tourism is often viewed as a *development tool*, especially for underdeveloped regions, where the lack of “modern civilization” may even function as a factor of attraction.⁴⁷ Paradoxically this may result in a development that undermines this original attraction. The complex positive and negative *impacts of tourism on rural areas* differ according to the number and type of tourists, the organization of tourism supply and its integration into community development and the stage in the *destination life-cycle*. In addition, the capacity of organizing, coordinating and controlling the “industry” at the local level will determine the impact of tourism.⁴⁸

Bouquet & Winter (1987) published a series of studies on social and cultural impacts of tourism on rural areas. These point at political conflicts existing around *rural tourism*, the role of the family-run structure of production, “*sense of place*” and conflict with cultural traditions, specified with a number of case studies. **Page & Getz** (1997) concluded from results of several studies on the residents’ attitude towards tourism that this tends to be the more positive, the higher the perceived tangible benefits and degree of control over tourism development.

The increased concern about environmental impacts of tourism on fragile rural areas inspired some studies about development-intensive tourism forms (mass tourism, theme parks, second homes, holiday villages, conference centers etc.) in these areas. This heightened environmental sensibility has led to the call for a more sustainable rural tourism development (**Page & Getz**, 1997).

Considering potential economic impacts, the fragmentation of supply, which is generally provided by small-scale family enterprises with a lack of business skills, often constitutes an obstacle to a professional market organization (**Getz & Carlsen**, 2000, **EC**, 1999). There are examples of more or less successful rural tourism projects in different countries, as will be shown later. Obviously tourism cannot provide the only or most important development tool for all rural areas. However, it

⁴⁷ **Grolleau** (1993) states in this context: “*It is (important that)... progresses are not obtained at the expense of... the “handicraft” type of guest reception. Paradoxically, its imperfections constitute one of the important features of rural tourism. They are its signature, tranquilize the clientele, approximating it to the service deliverer.... The rustic is as attractive in guest reception as in ...agro-alimentary products... guaranteeing the real, authentic, local and traditional.... In terms of accommodation, comfort and (rural) atmosphere are simultaneously demanded... It is in this constant contradiction... (that it is necessary to) find the difficult balance between the values of yesterday and the concerns of today... between the hopes of the city and the realities of the countryside*”(free translation, our underlining)

⁴⁸ **Keane** (1992) stresses the importance of an *integrated “community approach”*, stating that “*there are good a prior economic arguments as well as encouraging pieces of empirical evidence to support this view...The community must be involved and it has to take on... the structures and qualities necessary to form an infrastructure that is supportive of entrepreneurial development... A key feature.... is local co-ordination linked to wider product and marketing structures.*” (our underlining)

may be an important complementary activity, enhancing the diversification and sustainability of the local economic base especially in a period of decline of agriculture in many rural areas. **Busby & Rendle** (2000) concluded from a literature review that the role of farm-based tourism has increased in some areas, where tourism revenue exceeds that from agriculture, farmers approach tourism more professionally and tourists engage in the activity with a “new” mentality. However, some drawbacks must be considered, as identified by **Butler & Clark** (1992, cited by **Page & Getz**, 1997): “*income leakages, volatility, declining multipliers, low pay, imported labor and the conservatism of investors.*” According to these authors rural tourism development would be least appropriate “*when the rural economy is already weak, since tourism will create highly unbalanced income and employment distributions.*” They defend it to be a “*better supplement for a thriving and diverse economy than a mainstay of rural development.*”

The *importance of rural tourism as a part of a country’s overall tourism market* depends on rural tourism resources, organization and market access, but also on destination image. Thus, frequently a country is associated principally with one type of destination and tourism product, such as Austria with mountain and rural tourism, Egypt with cultural tourism and the Mediterranean destinations (where many include Portugal) with beach tourism. This may be at the expense of other existing tourism forms. There may be a potential of diversifying the tourism offering and destination image in an attempt to prolong a national product’s life cycle, to add new value and to become distinctive from competition. It may take a long time to create a distinct image for a new tourism form/product, which may eventually become an important alternative to the country’s main product.

Even if the importance of rural tourism may be minor in relation to the overall tourism market in many countries, its *importance for the development of single rural areas* may be outstanding. The *multiplier effect* may be more important in rural areas, where the entire rural lifestyle is in demand. Here, demand for local products typically increases, which is not necessarily the case for beach and urban destinations, marked by an urban life style and consumption pattern and requiring mass products from outside the destination.⁴⁹ That is why rural tourism, if carefully planned, managed and marketed may significantly enhance economic, social and cultural development goals. In this context it is of strategic importance to know both the region’s tourism resource base and the potential tourist (**Page & Getz**, 1997). A professional marketing approach, combined with a concern about sustainability, is therefore defended as most appropriate for rural tourism development (**Gilbert**, 1989, **Dolli & Pinfeld**, 1997).

⁴⁹ **Pearce** (1989: 194-199) refers in this context to “import leakages”, which have been identified as up to half of gross foreign exchange earnings for small Caribbean and Pacific states in the late 70s, being typically higher in less developed destinations with a limited economic base. We suggest that on a regional level, also in developed countries high leakages may occur, especially if destinations are very concentrated on the tourism sector, which is typical for beach destinations.

Chapter 3.4. Rural Tourism in Europe

According to **Edmunds** (1999), “*Europe leads the world in (the) rural tourism (market)... (being) rich in monuments, villages, heritage sites, handicrafts and folklore- all of which have been instrumental in forming the culture of European countries.*”

There are a variety of *manifestations of rural tourism* in Europe, as well as numerous different definitions of the phenomenon, based on specific social, cultural and economic evolutions. The European Community has adopted the global perspective of rural tourism, including all tourism activities in a rural area (**Keane**, 1992). This is with the mentioned restrictions (p.44) the working definition for this study. For comparative studies, which might be useful to identify trends and conditions of success or failure, the differences in defining “*rural tourism*” are a major problem, because they imply different ways of data collection. The concept “*rural*” has also different meanings in different countries and according to different scientific and administrative approaches. In some countries the term “*rural areas*” is used to distinguish these areas from towns, the coast and mountain areas (Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, France). In Italy the term may include mountain areas, in Ireland and Britain the frequently used synonym “*countryside*” is used as opposition to towns. Finally in Spain, Portugal and Greece, there is a tendency to equate rural areas with those principally used for agriculture (**Davidson**, 1992).

Moreira (1994) undertook a *comparative analysis of political and legal frameworks* for rural tourism in Europe and concluded that these depend on the diverse types of state organization and philosophy. In liberal states, like the UK and Germany, principally market forces determine rural tourism development. Here, the state limits its intervention on environment and heritage protection and few subsidies are available. Broader organization patterns typically depend on private associations, and public support is limited to destination marketing and information undertaken by regional and local entities. There are other countries with an interventionist state philosophy, where rural tourism development depends largely on the state. This is the case of France, Greece, Italy, Ireland and Portugal, with strong legislative and planning determinism and considerable financial support systems available, which usually aim at the reduction of regional asymmetries.

Tourism in the countryside has a long history in Europe, where ancient routes had crossed the continent for trade reasons, pilgrimage, crusades, or towards health resorts, such as the Roman spas. The means of transport available at that time implied slow journeys through rural areas, where board and lodging was provided. This was perhaps the first form of rural tourism (**Davidson**, 1992). Also social fashions, particularly of the most wealthy, played a role. **Cavaco** (1995: 128) explains that “*over the centuries, a series of migrations have left their marks on town-country*

relationships; the old aristocratic families, with their country seats, gradually became more urbanized while the town bourgeoisie began to acquire country estates.”

Nowadays visits of the countryside are rather linked to urbanization and industrialization, which has resulted in large population shifts from rural to urban areas. As part of the family has often been left behind, one important motive of rural tourism is to “visit friends and family”. Additionally, there has been a shift of tourist demand away from mass tourism, as offered by beach resorts, to more *individualized and “authentic” holidays, close to nature.*

Rural tourism benefits clearly from these and other already discussed trends (chapter 2.7). Thus, tourism authorities estimate that *rural tourism makes up 10-20% of all tourism activity* (Edmunds, 1999). The *Eurobarometer survey* (1998, cited by Edmunds, 1999) reports that an *average 23% of European tourists choose the countryside as a holiday destination every year.* The countryside and the mountains have increased in popularity for second holidays or short breaks. A study of the Commission of the European Communities shows that the countryside is particularly popular as a main tourist destination in the Netherlands (39%), Denmark and Germany (both 35%). This was followed by France, the UK and Portugal, attracting 29% of the population each (Davidson, 1992).

This popularity of the countryside is linked with *an increase in quality expectations.* High levels of comfort and service, environmental quality as well as a variety of activities are demanded (Davidson, 1992; European Commission, 1999). Market studies in several European countries have shown that “*the market of tourists in the countryside corresponds essentially to (a segment of) well off, educated clients who demand quality and are willing to pay for it*” (OECD, 1994). However, there are national differences, with the *middle class* dominating in *Germany, Denmark and Italy*, the *upper class* in *Belgium, Spain, France and Ireland*, and *families with children* in *Germany, Belgium and Denmark.* Furthermore, *national clienteles* are often the most important and *North-South tourist flows* are visible also in this market (EUROTER, 1993).

Already in 1993 *lodging capacity in B&B accommodations* accounted for (EUROTER, 1993:17):

- between 10.000 and 50.000 lodging units in Germany and France,
- between 5.000 and 10.000 offerings in Italy,
- between 500 and 5.000 offerings in the UK and Ireland,
- fewer than 500 lodging units in Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Portugal⁵⁰

⁵⁰ Nowadays the Portuguese supply exceeds 600 rural lodging units. Unfortunately no more recent comparative studies on rural tourism in Europe were available, but the reported numbers from 1993 show the different levels of rural tourism development in the European Union, which should not have changed substantially in their relative positions. However, considering Europe as a whole, obviously Austria (which joined the EU in 1995) and Switzerland should also assume top positions.

In *France*, one of the first countries seriously involved in rural tourism, a relatively well-known trademark has been developed, which is linked to a nation-wide network organization, called “*Gîtes de France*”⁵¹. This exists since 1951 as an initiative of the Ministry of Agriculture providing subsidies to farmers who invest in this activity and adhere to the Charta of “*Gîtes de France*” (Chapon, 1992, Cavaco, 1995). The objectives were related to “*social tourism*” and regional development. The project was initially based on “*Bed and Breakfast*” (B&B) accommodation in seaside resorts and spas offering “*furnished rustic apartments, which were sober but clean*”(Chapon, 1992). In the meantime, the concept has developed and now offers a diverse range of services and tourism products, such as (Gîtes de France, 2001):

- “*Self-catering*” (*gîtes rurales*), usually traditional independent country houses,
- “*Children’s Gîte*” (*gîte d’enfants*), where selected and supervised families look after up to 11 children during their school holidays,
- “*Stop Gîtes*” (*gîtes d’étape*) offering overnight stops to walkers, cyclists and horse riders while on tour,
- “*B&B*” (*chambres d’hôte*), in which owners welcome visitors in their homes and help them to find out more about the locality, and
- “*Camping on the farm*” (*camping à la ferme*).

Further, by 1999 holiday villages and chalets provided a capacity of about 1.573 and 317 beds respectively. According to the “*Relevé des Hébergements Nationaux*”, “*rural gîtes*” should account for about 42.727 beds, “*B&B*” for about 22.320 beds, camping on the farm for about 949 and children’s holiday villages for 361 beds in 1999 (Edmunds, 1999). Evolution of rural accommodation from 1979 to 1990 (Chapon, 1992) shows that “*self-catering*” is the dominant modality, while “*B&B*” units have increased substantially. This is still true for the period between 1995 and 1999, except for “*camping on the farm*” which reduced its capacity (Edmunds, 1999).

Apart from promoting “*gîtes*” via catalogue, advertising and public relations, the organization provides grants and information to members and contributes to a quality guaranty through a classification system. It also serves as a tour operator and travel agent creating and commercializing holiday products and offers a reservation system. The nation-wide system has regional delegations and offices abroad, which guarantee integration. In most regions there are “*leisure associations*” which promote and sell the *gîtes* along with other products such as riding schools, trekking, golf, farm inns, castle or manor hire, etc. (Pritchard, 1986). Still, average occupancy rates were only about 40% in 1998 (Edmunds, 1999). Additionally, the concept of “*Logis de France*” has been developed. This *rural hotel chain* integrates about 4.500 mainly family-run hotels, guaranteeing certain quality standards and promoting its members in a variety of

⁵¹ “*Gîte*” is an old French word which means “shelter” or “home” (Chapon, 1992).

ways. Other minor associations are, for example: “*Moulins Etapes*” (“Mills for a Stop-over”) or “*Châteaux et Demeures de Tradition*” (Castles and Traditional Shelters) (EUROTER, 1993).

The general approach is one of *diversification* and *integration* of different elements into a broad *tourism product*: accommodation in different lodging facilities, rural restaurants with typical local food, activity programs (horse riding, cycling tours, hiking tours, excursions, etc.) and holidays for children. According to a study undertaken by CEDERNA, the most typical *market segments* were identified as “*people returning to their rural origins*”, “*excursionists*”, “*city dwellers*, visiting the countryside in the urban fringe” and “the *new, educated, well-off rural tourists*”. The latter were described as between *35-40 years old*, “looking for the *authentic* and the *different*” and as the most demanding group (Crosby *et al.*, 1993). The French system is often cited as an exemplary mode of organization and promotion of rural tourism. This can be explained by the experience gained with this concept in France and its market success. Nevertheless, looking at the negative side of this experience Chapon (1992) points out that the system has operated for 35-40 years before proper marketing policies, training programs and legal protection were implemented. The system encourages individual initiative rather than community development and farmers in the greatest need have generally not adhered⁵². Finally, the original philosophy of *social tourism* seems to have partly changed to an *elite tourism*, with *self-catering* also playing an important role.

In *Germany* rural tourism is very much related to *farm-tourism* and has been traditionally viewed as a cheap holiday form for families, especially from urban areas. About 8% of German farmers were identified as offering tourist accommodation in the early 90s (Calatrava & Avilés, 1993). In 1991 there were a total of 20.000 farms offering agro-tourism with approximately 440.000 rooms, with close to 40% located in the Southern states Bavaria and Baden-Wuerttemberg. Generally, mountain and coastal areas stand out as offering most farm accommodation (Oppermann, 1997). The German lodging units are principally of a small scale, family-run nature or self-catering units (Oppermann, 1995). A study undertaken in Baden-Wuerttemberg showed that tourists were mainly interested in a *relaxing holiday experience close to nature, in a beautiful landscape* and in a region, which offers *opportunities for excursions* (Oppermann, 1995). Similarly, the OECD (1994: 15) identified as the German market’s main motive associated with rural tourism *relaxation in a peaceful and quiet rural environment*. Most clients are domestic tourists, with the Dutch being the only notable international market (EUROTER, 1993). In a study by the DLG⁵³(1995) an increasing interest in this form of tourism could be observed in Germany, with over a million

⁵² Only 4% of accommodation was offered by farmers in the early 1990s (Calatrava & Avilés, 1993).

⁵³ DLG stands for *Deutsche Landwirtschafts-Gesellschaft*, an association of German farms, some of which offering tourist accommodation. DLG promotes this via *internet* and a catalogue and further provides a quality certificate (<http://www.landtourismus.de>, 2001).

guests staying in DLG farms in 1995. The study revealed that *increasingly younger* tourists and those who previously had preferred travelling abroad were attracted, as well as foreign tourists from neighboring countries. There has been an increasing demand for “*quality for money*” and *specialty holidays* (horse riding and offerings for children). Finally, there is a trend visible for a higher demand of *short-breaks* by guests from close urban dwellings.

Austria is another example of a thoroughly developed rural tourist destination, based primarily on *farm holidays* (providing bed & breakfast). According to **Hummelbrunner & Miglbauer** (1994), in this country “*approximately 25 per cent of farms have been receiving tourists for nearly 100 years*”. *About 80% of the Austrian tourism supply is situated in the countryside* (**Crosby et al.**, 1993). Lodging units are organized in the “*Bäuerlicher Gästering*” (farmhouse circles). In this scheme each region typically has its own headquarters with promotional activities. Some (e.g. Tyrol) further provide a booking service and classification scheme. Agriculture is typically of a small dimension and more than a third is located in the mountains. The Austrian authorities distinguish as “professional” accommodation those units offering at least ten beds. In the early 1990s there were about 76.300 of these establishments, but 16.5% of the nights spent by tourists in Austria were attributed to non-professional units and another 40% to mountain huts and rented flats/ houses. It was shown that professionally run units reach 104 days of full occupation a year, which is about the double of non-professional units (**Hauser**, 1991). The Austrian *main market* is German but also Dutch, British, French and Scandinavians appreciate this destination. Markets differ in terms of booking behavior, motives, interests and holiday organization. There is also a major difference between *summer* (mountaineer, traditional culture and nature lovers) and *winter tourists* (skiers). Austria’s main tourist season being winter, farmhouse circles have been creating *new products* to attract more tourists in summer (**Davidson**, 1992).

Also *Switzerland* has a long-standing tradition of rural tourism with *90% of tourism taking place in rural zones* in the Alps, which together with the Mediterranean constitute Europe’s most important vacation region. Here, apart from the typical dispersion of rural accommodation⁵⁴, there are some localities with a relative concentration, principally catering to the mass ski-market. This requires large investments in infrastructures that are only feasible, if used by large numbers of tourists. In the early 90s there were 64 *resorts* with a capacity of less than 5000 beds, 21 resorts with between 5.000 and 12.000 beds and four resorts with between 12.000 and 20.000 beds. These resorts are the basis of Swiss tourism. The intermediate terrain is marked by agriculture, where there are alternative, small-scale, “*soft*” rural tourism products with some difficulties in competition. Urbanization of parts of the countryside through large tourist resorts and numerous

⁵⁴ Most rural accommodation is labeled as “supplementary”, including holiday apartments, campsites, group accommodation and youth hostels (**Edmunds**, 1999).

second homes has led to *saturation* in some areas and to the call for landscape conservation in order to maintain the original attraction. According to **Keller** (1991), the optimum level of a tourist resort in the countryside would be between 4.000 and 10.000 beds. However, *economies of scope* with limited investment in infrastructures, carefully integrated with natural and cultural resources should be an interesting alternative and would be a response to new market trends and the ancient “*quest for the authentic*”. New products are being developed and successfully marketed internationally, frequently based on new technologies and direct booking (**Keller** 1991)⁵⁵.

In the *United Kingdom* rural tourism is a traditional and very popular domestic tourism form but only attracts about 8% of incoming tourists (**Sharpley**, 1993, **EUROTER**, 1993). Here, rural tourism is based on country houses, as well as farms with “*bed & breakfast*”. Farm tourism usually serves as a complement rather than an alternative to farming (**Gilg**, 1985, **Slee**, 1989). Farming still occupies more than 70% of England’s land area, although the total income from farming in 2000 fell to its lowest level in 25 years (**Countryside Agency**, 2001). In the early 1990s the British countryside was estimated to generate about 550.000.000 one-day visits and about 80.000.000 bednights per year, with a particularly high demand in summer (**Sharpley**, 1993). According to CEDERNA’s study (**Crosby et al.**, 1993), rural tourism was responsible for **25% of total bednights** spent in the UK. About **76%** of the population **visited the countryside at least once a year**. As most important motives were identified: “*looking for calm*”, “*escape from urban stress*”, “*beautiful landscape*” and “*sports and outdoor recreation*”. Most important activities were “*visiting historic monuments*”, “*picnics*”, “*walking/ hiking*” and “*visiting friends and family*”. The most recent report of the **Countryside Agency** (2001) states that the recreational use of the countryside, both tourism and day visits, has increased considerably in recent years. Concretely, between 1993 and 2000 the number of tourists grew by 50 percent. This has led to significant economic benefits, with tourism contributing more than £12 billion to the country’s rural economy.

Ireland is a country with about **80% agricultural land**, where in the mid-60s “*agro-tourism*” was introduced. By 1966 supply was organized in the “*Irish Farm Holiday Association*” which co-ordinated, promoted and commercialized the Irish offering with quite success. With 690 farms offering holiday accommodation in 1966 the supply rose to 2.203 in 1987, albeit representing only about 2% of the Irish farmers’ population. Recently rural tourism agents focused on developing **new products** in order to prolong length of stay in rural areas (packages offering golf, walking/ hiking excursions, fishing, cycling, nature excursions, etc.) (**Crosby et al.**, 1993, **O’Donnell**,

⁵⁵ An interesting example is the project “*Cycling in Switzerland*”, launched in May 1998 with nine national and various regional routes. The product is based on a partnership between the *Cycling in Switzerland Foundation*, 30 public transport companies and 970 hotel and catering establishments. In 1998, 3.3 million tourists used the routes and 120.000 undertook cycle tours lasting several days. (**Edmunds**, 1999)

1991). Apart from farms, there are 55 rural hotels (*Manor Houses, Coast and Country and Village Inn Hotels*), promoted in a separate guide and another about 30.000 “classic” hotel rooms in rural areas, corresponding to 75% of total hotel supply. Guests come from all over the world, making it an important international business (EUROTER, 1993).

Italy is an example of rural tourism at a Mediterranean destination. Here rural tourism has been developed, despite the important competition from cultural and “*sun and beach*” tourism. Since the mid-60s this tourism form is well combined with cultural tourism in the Toscana region. In 1965 the first agricultural association was founded, named *AGRITURIST*. Non-repayable funds were made available for restoring buildings and converting them into tourist accommodation (Cavaco, 1995). Later *Terra Nostra* (1973) and *Turismo Verde* (1976) were founded, which all associated in *Anagritur* (1980) for joint investigation, promotion and education (Montemagno & Arancio, 1991). The different modes of supply are holidays on farms in the mountains and at the coast, as agro-tourism facilities, bed & breakfast or farms with a cultural offering. By 1993, there were about 10.000 farmers involved in this supply, of which 6.000 offered just accommodation. The average period of utilization was about 90 days a year (Crosby *et al.*, 1993). Only about 2% of farmers were involved in rural tourism in the early 90s (Calatrava & Avilés, 1993). A study by *Agriturist* showed that farm-holiday establishments offered on the average between nine and twelve beds, with the smaller units more frequently located in the North. Twenty percent of farms offered agro-camping. Four rural tourism forms may be distinguished in Italy (Montemagno & Arancio, 1991):

1. *agro-tourism in the mountains*, with a high popularity in the winter and summer months (140 days of full occupation per year)
2. *surroundings of artist cities/ towns*, namely in Umbria and Toscana, also very popular (annual occupation of 130 days)
3. *agro-tourism in the hills*, of typically rural vocation, (annual occupation of 120 days)
4. *coastal agro-tourism*, offering a combination of health and rural tourism, (annual occupation of 70 days)

Northern Italy (especially the Toscana) is very popular with German tourists, who invest in country houses as second homes. It is true that this phenomenon goes beyond the normal tourist movements, but there is no doubt that it causes increased tourist flows and expenditure, as well as a more profound integration of these “loyal visitors”. The phenomenon can usually be found within the domestic market (France, UK, Germany), but its extension to other countries (also Spain in the case of the German market) is worth of notice.

Also *Spain*, the most important European “*sun and beach*” destination, has identified new opportunities in the countryside (Edmunds, 1999). This follows a strategy of diversification and re-qualification of its supply and image, which is overly associated with cheap mass tourism. As

Spain is composed of relatively *autonomous regions*, rural tourism supply is not homogeneously organized. There are different *associations* representing distinct lodging facilities and products, in some regions better developed (Bask Country, Navarra, Cataluña) than in others (Castilla-León, Extremadura) (Crosby *et al.*, 1993). Globally, agro-tourism only involved about 0.5% of Spanish farmers in the early 1990s (Calatrava & Avilés, 1993). Mendigorri (1994) pointed at the importance of private hunting estates in the Spanish countryside and criticized the limited public access and infrastructures for recreational and general rural tourism activities in these areas.

New rural and nature tourism projects appear in Central and Eastern European countries, such as the Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary and the Ukraine, sometimes in cooperation with the WWF, interested in developing joint sustainable eco-tourism projects in unexplored natural areas (Edmunds, 1999).

According to the EC's estimates more than *nine million people in the EU are directly employed in tourism-related activities* (6% of total employment), most of which in small and medium-sized enterprises. This number, which is suggested to increase to 9% of total employment, reflects the socio-economic importance of the activity, which may be especially interesting to rural areas. Particularly in the less developed regions, the EU makes a series of *Structural Funds* available, which contribute to rural tourism development (The *European Regional Development Fund*, the *European Social Fund*, the *European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund*). These funds provide support for economic development via regional and national programs managed by the member states, jointly financed and supervised by the EC and locally. One of the most important programs to assist rural tourism operates under the umbrella of *Agricultural Policy and Rural Development* for the progress of disadvantaged rural areas of the EU. It is named "*Links between actions for the development of the rural economy*" or *LEADER*, which the WTTC has recognized as an excellent *bottom up approach*, involving diverse agents at the local level in innovative projects (Edmunds, 1999).

However, some problems do subsist, particularly related to relatively low return on investment, seasonality and difficulties in commercializing small-scale and fragmented products (Edmunds, 1999). The LEADER experience revealed the need for a well-integrated and organized rural tourism product at the destination level (European Commission, 1999). It further pointed at the need to offer a highly personalized, flexible and traditional product. Unable to achieve the economies of scale of mass tourism, "*it seems that rural tourism products must become more exclusive, or at least raise standards and prices sufficiently to be viable*" (Edmunds, 1999). Finally, growing competition must be considered, albeit the generally positive perspectives for the

European rural tourism market. A more professional market approach should help making the best of existing opportunities, while reducing the risk of potential negative impacts.

Chapter 3.5. Rural Tourism in Portugal

Tourism in Portuguese rural areas has similar historic roots as in other countries, originating with *aristocratic summer residences* in the countryside. When tourism became accessible to a larger part of population, movements to the countryside for *health reasons* became popular⁵⁶. The *visit of friends and family* became increasingly important as a consequence of the *rural exodus*, with its massive migrations to the metropolitan areas around Lisbon and Oporto, to the increasingly urbanized coast and to other countries. Linked with this movement is the “*agricultural exodus*”, whereby farmers give up the hardly profitable agricultural activity or complement it with another⁵⁷. Generally in those rural areas, where other economic activities are available, agriculture is maintained as a part-time activity, whereas other less privileged regions are most affected by the mentioned movements. In contrast to other, mainly North European countries, rural exodus has not been inverted yet in Portugal and regional, particularly “*coast- interior*” *asymmetries* are striking⁵⁸.

Thus, the rural interior has been confronted with depopulation, marginalization and reminds in some areas of what **Badouin** (1982) has called the “*agro-handicraft complex*”. These are areas in which time seems to stand still, forgotten by progress and modern civilization. A “primitive”, small scale, non-mechanized agriculture shapes a picturesque landscape, which is the background of a traditional way of life that may present the major attraction for urban tourists, who constitute the “new market” visiting the Portuguese countryside⁵⁹. Increasingly the countryside is not only visited for health and family reasons, but increasingly *for itself and what it represents*.

Obviously *not all rural areas have kept their original attractiveness*. This is especially true for those, where emigrants and city dwellers have constructed second homes or modernized old ones without respecting traditional architecture, and where agriculture has been largely given up. Tourism may assist in maintaining heritage, but it may also contribute to its destruction, especially in the least developed areas, if the process is not carefully controlled.

⁵⁶ According to **Moreira** (1994) the most representative forms of rural tourism in Portugal in the XIXth century were spa tourism and climatism.

⁵⁷ According to **Cavaco** (1995) the Gross Value Added decreased from 6% in 1985 to 2.9% in 1992 at constant prices, due to strong price reductions of agriculture produce and increases in intermediate consumption, whereas subsidies increased significantly. Nevertheless, active farming population suffered a decrease of 23% in the period 1981-1991, of which 3/4 occurred in the Central and Northern Region.

⁵⁸ **Arroteia** (1994: 15-25) links these asymmetries to physical determinants of the location of the most important activities and most productive economic sectors, as a result of a complex accumulative process.

⁵⁹ see also **Ribeiro**'s (1991) comments about the particular attraction that rurality and peripheral position represent to urban dwellers

Obviously *not all tourists are attracted to rural areas*. At present there is still a small segment of people choosing the Portuguese countryside as a holiday destination (with the exception of people visiting friends and family). The phenomenon manifests itself in a very dispersed manner and its impacts may be considered limited. Nevertheless, when analyzing trends in society, and in Portugal's tourist market, in particular, one may distinguish the beginning of a new *product life cycle*. This may eventually be followed by a more massified demand, especially when the traditional "*sun and beach product*" loses its dominant attractiveness or when the trend of short-break holidays mobilizes growing numbers of Portuguese looking for a change. At this stage, protective measures to maintain original attractiveness and to guarantee sustainable tourism development will be inevitable. The degrading effect of massification may be avoided through planning (e.g. the imposition of limits on lodging capacity) and careful target marketing. This does neither mean that only clients of the upper class are of interest⁶⁰ nor that the Portuguese rural areas would not sustain an increase in tourist movements. But each destination may identify a particular type of tourist that corresponds to a particular type of supply (**European Commission**, 1999), thereby optimizing both tourist satisfaction and destination development. In addition, the number of tourists should be controlled in a way to maximize positive global and long-term results.

The recent increase in demand for this form of tourism in Portugal has been responded to by the creation of a particular form of supply. This has been subject to specific government programs and legislation, revealing a concern about the above-mentioned problems.

Chapter 3.5.1. Policy, Legislation and Subsidies

The Portuguese legislation initially defined as "*tourism in rural areas*" ("*turismo em espaço rural*" = TER) different types of accommodation (**Dec.-Lei n° 256/86** of August 27th). This notion has been extended as follows: "*the aggregation of paid activities and services provided in rural areas, via diverse accommodation modalities, complementary activities and services of tourist entertainment, aiming at offering a complete and diversified tourism product in the rural areas*" (**Dec.-Lei n° 169/97** of July 4th). According to this diploma an area is considered, a bit vaguely, as *rural*, if it has "*a traditional and significant link to agriculture or a clearly rural environment or landscape*".

Modalities of TER accommodation are defined as (**Dec.-Lei n° 169/97** of July 4th; **Dec.Reg. n° 37/97** of September 25th):

⁶⁰ **Ribeiro** (1991: 7) suggests that this would guarantee a limit to massification protecting environment and rurality itself. However, one may defend other ways of controlling tourism development, such as control of lodging capacity, at diverse levels of quality and price, seasonally flexible management of demand, etc.

- **Turismo de Habitação (TH):** accommodation in manor houses with high architectonic value and high quality installations, equipment and furniture, offered by families, who use the building as their residence. TH units may dispose of between three and ten rooms.
- **Turismo Rural (TR):** accommodation in typical rustic family houses, serving simultaneously as the proprietors' residence, providing up to ten rooms.
- **Agroturismo (AT):** accommodation in rural family or manor houses integrated in a functioning farm, permitting guests to participate in agriculture and with a maximum of ten rooms.
- **Village Tourism (Turismo de Aldeia):** accommodation provided in an set of at least five typical rustic houses, situated in the same village and explored in an integrated manner, which may or not serve simultaneously as the owners' residence⁶¹.
- **Country houses (Casas de Campo):** private rustic houses or huts, where owners may reside or not, situated in a rural or natural setting.

These lodging units are officially authorized and registered by the Portuguese General Direction of Tourism (DGT), after consulting the Rural Development Agency (DGDR). The latter evaluates whether establishments are located in rural areas and in how far they contribute to the rural economic base. However, it is DGT that licenses establishments according to a series of requirements, such as size of rooms, availability of infrastructures, equipment, services, opening periods etc. DGT also assumes control over TER units and collects statistical data on their performance. One legislative particularity refers to the maximum number of rooms authorized for TER units (ten), which stresses the idea of a more personal, familiar atmosphere. TER units must be clearly identified and must make a series of information available to their guests (in Portuguese, English and a third language), such as about services provided, medical facilities, public transportation, and so forth. The manager of the TER unit must also be able to provide information on tourist attractions, the historical, cultural, gastronomic and natural heritage of the region. In the case of village tourism a “welcome office” provides this information. TER units must provide breakfast, as well as other meals if demanded, unless there is a restaurant close by (up to five km).

The following modalities are contained in the alternative category “*tourist enterprise in rural areas*” (Dec.-Lei nº 169/97 of July 4th; Dec.Reg. nº 37/97 of Setembro 25th):

- **Rural Hotels:** small-scale hotel establishments situated in a rural area and outside the municipality, run by owners or managers who simultaneously use them as their residence.

⁶¹ A community approach is aimed at, which enhances residents' initiatives in converting old, rustic country houses into independent tourist accommodations, maintaining, as much as possible, traditional architecture and decoration. A publicly funded board of reservation, tourist information and residents' training supports this approach. In contrast to the more “elite type” of previous TER modalities, the here involved agents are more representative of the Portuguese village population, have a more modest socio-economic background and are closely linked with rural heritage. This may be what **Moreira** (1994) calls “the extension to the basis of the social pyramid”. Village tourism is sometimes offered in particularly interesting villages, called “*aldeias históricas*” (historical villages). These sites receive public investments in the domain of conservation of architecture and monuments, infrastructures, creation of leisure zones, installation of pousadas, promotion of local associations and tourism (**Ministério do Comércio e Turismo**, 1994).

They may dispose of between ten and thirty rooms, and must present typical traces of historical or rural architecture and decoration.

- **Rural Camping Sites:** camping sites located in rural areas.

Dec.Reg. n° 37/97 of September 25th concerning “complementary activities” establishes that in TER units and the tourist enterprises in rural areas, equipment should be provided, whenever possible, that permits the practice of outdoors sports, like swimming, tennis or horse riding. Further, the owners and managers of these establishments may, eventually in cooperation with TER associations or local and regional tourism entities, promote the organization of tourist circuits, the commercialization of handicraft and other local products and the organization of traditional games.

That is, although considering tourism in rural areas as including more than accommodation, the legislator’s perspective is clearly based on existing modalities of TER accommodation. In other words, independently organized activities catered to tourists (circuits, handicraft shops, incoming agencies) are not included in this tourism modality. This may be a limitation, as the responsibility given to owners of lodging units may be too large, whereas other initiatives aiming at the tourists’ experience during their stay (activities, entertainment, sports, guided tours) may lack control, classification and eventually funding. It is true that diverse diploma guide all kind of commercial activities, but as tourism in rural areas was defined quite broadly, aiming at specific goals in a specific economic and socio-cultural context, only regulating accommodation and accommodation-based activities may not adequately integrate the diverse elements of this tourism form.

This particularly defined and strategically implemented form of rural tourism is expected to contribute to the preservation of natural and cultural heritage, to enhance personal contact between hosts and guests and to develop the rural economic base. This should also help fixing the population through new employment opportunities (**Dec.-Lei n° 169/97** of July 4th). It is relatively recent in Portugal, with first initiatives traced back to a few manor houses in Ponte de Lima, in 1978, rising to 50 facilities by 1983, when the first legislation on “*Turismo de Habitação*” was published (**Ribeiro**, 1991, **Crosby et al.**, 1993). EC structural funds and the Portuguese Tourism Authorities have significantly contributed to the development of this product (**Pinto Leite**, 1992). Thus, the Second European Community Funding Framework, valid for the period between 1994 and 1996, included financial aid for tourism projects in an amount of 75 billions of escudos. Geographically, more than 50% of subsidized projects were located north of the river Douro (namely in Braga, Vila Real, Porto and Viana do Castelo) and another 20% each in the districts of Viseu and Beja (**ICEP**, 1996), areas where rural tourism has developed significantly. The before-mentioned LEADER program has developed another system of financial aid, which has considerably enhanced rural tourism development in North Portugal (**Edwards & Fernandes**,

1999). This attributes funds directly to regional projects or development groups, thereby fostering endogenous regional and local development.

Chapter 3.5.2. Supply of Rural Tourism in Portugal

A broad definition of rural tourism, defended in this study, requires the study of any kind of manifestation of tourism in the Portuguese countryside. Unfortunately, there are no official statistics referring to this particular phenomenon. *Classic tourist accommodation establishments*⁶² can be considered an important *reference for the existence of a “tourism industry”* in terms of a commercially orientated tourism supply system. From this perspective, **Kastenholz** (1997: 93-95) aggregated existing statistics on tourist accommodation in *rural versus urban and coastal* (where the beach should be the main attraction) *counties*. The study reveals that tourism is *generally under-represented* in rural areas in Portugal, contrasting with these areas’ territorial dominance. Only about 36% of total classic lodging units were located in rural areas by the mid-1990s. The *Alentejo*, which is the *poorest overall lodging supplier*, shows the *proportionally most impressive representation* of lodging units in rural counties, being also the most rural Portuguese region, according to the OECD population density criteria.

As seen before, TER accommodation is an important rural tourism (sub-) product, which concentrates on special features of the rural environment. It is associated with an “*up-market*” image, which may eventually be extended to a larger segment of society. Existing statistics present TER units’ *accommodation capacity*, *occupancy rate*, number of *guests*, *bed nights* and *seasonality patterns*. Supply has continuously *increased since its official launch in 1983*, having reached a total of 668 houses with a lodging capacity of 6293 beds by 2000 (2.8% of lodging capacity in all registered accommodation units). Generally, TER establishments are of a *small scale and family nature*, perhaps partly at the expense of profitability, as the legally permitted number of rooms is limited and usually not even reached (the average number of rooms was below five in 2000). On the other hand, this feature of TER guarantees a personalized accommodation, making it unique and thereby enhancing its long-term success. This is especially true if an efficient association and co-ordination among several units compensate for this reduced lodging capacity, preferably in a limited area, permitting the organization of larger scale rural tourism products.

The evolution of TER supply reflects an increasing interest in this activity. From 1990 to 2000 the number of TER units and lodging capacity more than triplicated.

⁶² These include hotels, apart-hotels, tourist apartments, tourist villages, motels, pousadas, “estalagens” (guesthouses) and pensions (INE, 2000).

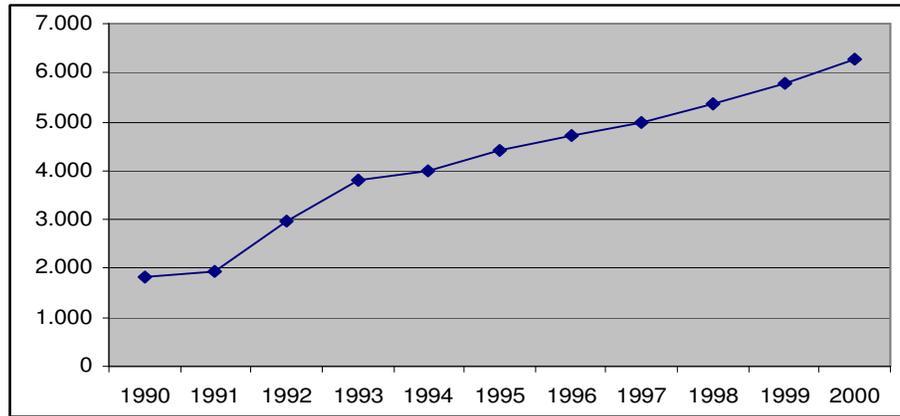


Fig.9. Evolution of TER capacity in beds (1990-2000)

Source: INE, 1991-2000, DGT, 2001

The modalities “*Turismo de Habitação*” (38%) and “*Turismo Rural*” (37%) are the most representative accommodation forms in 2000. On the other hand, farmers have not adhered to this activity (offering agro-tourism) to the extent desirable considering the initial objectives of the incentives attributed to rural tourism⁶³. This fact may be linked to the lack of capital of the poorer (and largest) portion of the Portuguese farming population, as well as to their frequently low socio-cultural status, which may not be compatible with TER’s high status image and corresponding demands. The desirability of a higher level of education of TER unit owners can also be justified by the need to speak foreign languages, at least English, for communication with foreign guests. However, there might be a market also for simpler, but authentic rural holiday offerings, which is in part met by the more recent modality of “village tourism” and “country houses”.

Analyzing the *spatial distribution* of TER supply, and looking at data up to 1998, the importance of the *Green Coast*, with the country’s oldest and well-known manor houses around Ponte de Lima, becomes evident. The “*Mountain Region*” in the Interior North and Center is second and the “*Plains*” (Alentejo) is on the third place (DGT, 1999).

Since 1999 TER statistics are no longer presented according to former promotional regions, but based on general administrative regions (North, Center, Lisbon and Tejo Valley, Alentejo, Algarve, Madeira and Açores). Unfortunately, before that date, regional TER data is not available in this form, which makes the analysis of a regional evolution difficult. As far as North Portugal is concerned, which is the focus of the empirical part of this thesis, the former “Green Coast” is entirely included in the administrative region named “North” and the “Mountains” are partly included here, partly in the “Center”. This already shows that the “North” should play a dominant

⁶³ Only 21% of TER accommodation corresponded to AT in 2000. These were usually not offered by simple farmers, but owners of larger “*quintas*” (farm estates) with a manor house and a vineyard. That is, one can hardly speak of the farm-tourism known in other European countries (see also **Moreira**, 1994).

role in TER supply, given the before presented data. Concretely this region provided nearly half (41% of units, 40% of lodging capacity) of the entire TER supply in 2000. The “Center” follows at some distance, as well as “Lisbon and the Tejo Valley” and the “Alentejo”. It is interesting to observe the relative importance of the Lisbon and Tejo Valley, with comparatively fewer rural features, but which is close to an important tourist-generating metropolitan area. This may reveal an effect of proximity to investors

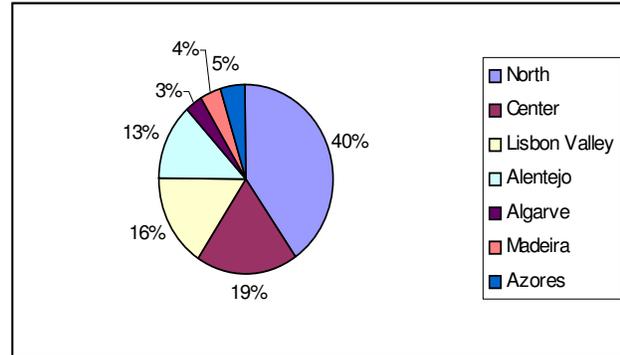


Fig.10. TER lodging capacity (in beds) by region
Source: DGT, 2001

and state agencies, as well as the relevance of a *near-home market* for this tourism form, which may correspond to **Clary’s** (1993) “*product of the urban periphery*”. Another interesting fact is the minor importance of the Algarve, contrasting with its major role as an international “*sun and beach*” destination. This may be due to the main interest of investors in large-scale operations, which are already installed and well integrated into commercialization networks. Another reason may be the perception that there would be no market for *rural tourism*, with accommodation situated in the hinterland mountains, as tourists seem to seek proximity to the beach. However, by neglecting this tourism form, Algarve tourism developers may miss an interesting opportunity for diversifying the region’s tourism offering, as also in other mainly beach-oriented resorts, rural tourism has been successfully introduced and led to a more distinctive and *up-scale image* (e.g. the “*fincas*” on Palma de Mallorca). Between 1990 and 1998, TER capacity increased most significantly in Madeira, the Mountains and Green Coast (the actual North and Center) and the Plains. Between 1999 and 2000, largest increases were identified for the islands Azores (144%) and Madeira (115%), which started relatively late with the development of this accommodation form, but have reached relatively important TER capacity in recent years, when considering the size of these destinations.

As far as *lodging capacity* (number of beds) *per TER modality* is concerned, North Portugal dominates particularly in terms of TR and TH, presenting only 16% of its TER capacity in the form of AT. Other important regions in terms of TH are the Lisbon area and the Center, whereas the Alentejo only offers about 15% of its TER capacity in the form of TH. Regionally dominated by TH are Madeira and the Azores. TR units dominate in the Algarve (57%), with other regions presenting between 28% and 35% of TER lodging capacity in this form. AT accommodation is most found in the Alentejo (46% of its TER supply), where the more “rural” (AT, TR) modalities

dominate at the expense of the more sophisticated (TH) version. The Alentejo's TER product is further frequently *combined with "hunting"* (Cavaco, 1993)⁶⁴.

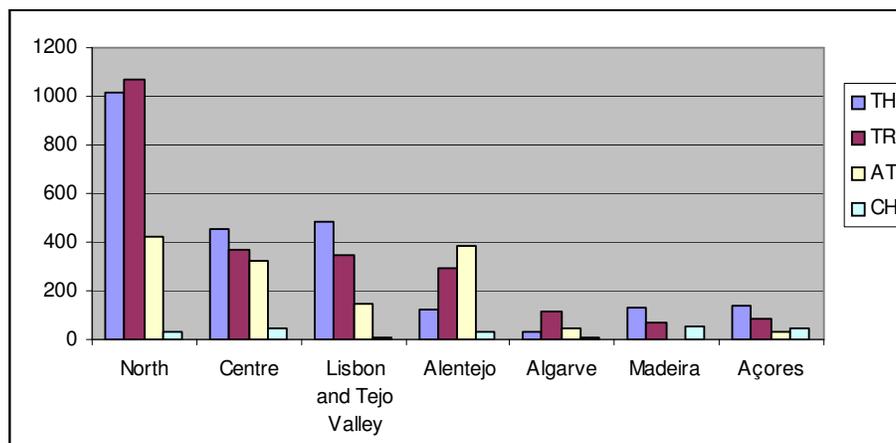


Fig.11. Lodging Capacity (in beds) by TER modality and region

Source: DGT, 2001

As TER plays an interesting role in developing a new, heritage-related and personalized form of rural tourism, it has been studied in detail by diverse researchers (Moreira, 1994, Edwards, 1991). Moreira (1994) undertook a survey in 1990 amongst owners of TER units. This study yielded a 50% response rate from the population of all registered TER units and revealed the *type of offerings* made available as well as the *characteristics of these units' owners*. *Accommodation* is frequently provided in historic (about 68% ranging from the XIIIth to the XIXth century) or otherwise rustic buildings with architectonic and cultural value, equipped with antique (79%) or rustic (32%) furniture. The obligatory breakfast was complemented by 27% with the service of lunches or dinners. Most offered *recreation facilities* were a swimming pool (37%), games (26%), a tennis court (8%) and sporadic offerings of horse riding, table tennis, mini-golf or hunting. Some activities imply considerable investment, which would eventually justify a common use amongst several TER units. This way, a larger variety of options could be made available to guests.

The *owners of TER units* had an average age of about 55 years. Most were Portuguese and typically of a high socio-economic level, revealing high academic and professional qualifications. Moreira (1994) concluded that "*the diffusion (of rural tourism in the form of TER)... started by the*

⁶⁴ Cavaco (1993 and 1995) explains that after a period of totally free hunting, the legislation of 1992 (Decr.Lei n° 251/92) aimed at increased control, which would guarantee the preservation of species through specifically defined hunting zones. Apart from the "Associative Hunting Zones", representing 42% of territory attributed to hunting in 1994, and the minor "National" and "Social" Hunting Zones, the so-called "Touristic Hunting Zones" (59%) are of increasing importance. Those are defined in the mentioned law as offering "*apart from hunting, adequate tourism services... (with)... the necessary infra-structure*". However "*in some areas (hunting zones)...reach the borders of villages and...country houses, (provoking) a very discussible nuisance of the way of life of the resident population and of the possibility of leisure...*" (Cavaco, 1993: 49) pointing to eventual incompatibilities with other forms of rural tourism.

top of the social pyramid and is far from extending to...the basis...to those who most need (its benefits), the small and medium farmers... ". TER owners were mostly convinced of the activity's promising perspectives, even if they expressed only modest satisfaction with actual economic results. However, this must be seen as a subjective judgement relative to overall level of income. It is interesting to note that about 40% of the questioned owners have *not* made use of public funding.

When considering other relevant tourism products, about which unfortunately statistics are scarce, one may cite examples like the golf course or the equestrian center built recently in Ponte de Lima with financial support from the LEADER program. However, evidence suggests that these investments had only a very modest effect on tourism, attracting mainly players and club members from the nearby metropolitan area of Oporto (**Edwards & Fernandes**, 1999). Consistent with other studies on rural tourism in Portugal (e.g. **Kastenholz**, 1997), these authors found that the main attraction of the inland rural areas is their *scenery, peace and quiet, lack of commercialization, opportunities for relaxing, walking, touring and swimming*, with improvements being demanded for information and environmental protection. That is, the rural tourism product may rely more heavily on natural primary resources, their accessibility and conservation, rather than on high-cost sophisticated tourism products, more typical of urban recreation.

Chapter 3.5.3. Demand of Rural Tourism in Portugal

The number of nights spent in TER units in 2000 was estimated as 398.843, which corresponds to only about 1% of the total nights spent in official accommodation (excluding camping sites) in Portugal. However, the continuous increase in TER demand over the decade, and especially the impressive "jumps" from 1995 to 1996 (46% increase) and from 1998 to 1999 (123% increase) illustrate the potential of this tourism form. The increase of total TER demand in the last decade was nearly eight-fold.

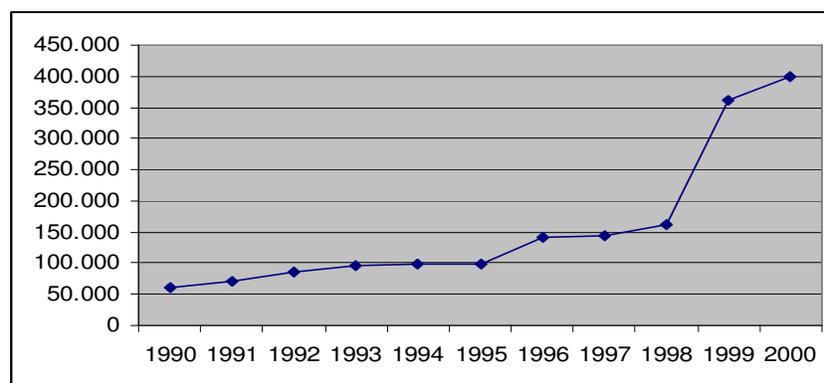


Fig.12. Evolution of TER demand (bednights) 1990-2000

Source: INE, 1991-2000, DGT, 2001

On the other hand, occupation rates have been relatively low (average of 18% in 2000 and even lower before 1999). This may be related to the often-encountered view of TER as a personal investment in the conservation and valorization of inherited property rather than as a business. However, also a lack of professional management and market access often poses obstacles to profitability. Based on purely economic, profit-oriented principles, much of the investment in TER would not have been undertaken. However, increasing overall demand has led to a positive evolution of occupation rates, as in 1995 these ranged from 5% to 25% in different regions, contrasting with a minimum of 13% (Center) and a maximum of 32% (Algarve) by 2000. Demand has increased in all promotional regions between 1990 and 1998, but most significantly in the Mountains (274%), Green Coast (249%) and the Algarve (158%). Between 1998 and 2000 the most impressive increases could be observed for Madeira, the Azores and the Lisbon region, which is obviously related to the relatively late introduction of this tourism form, but also illustrates these regions' market potential. In the North, demand increases relatively slowly (as the demand basis is also larger), but constantly, which demonstrates the consolidated success of TER in this region.

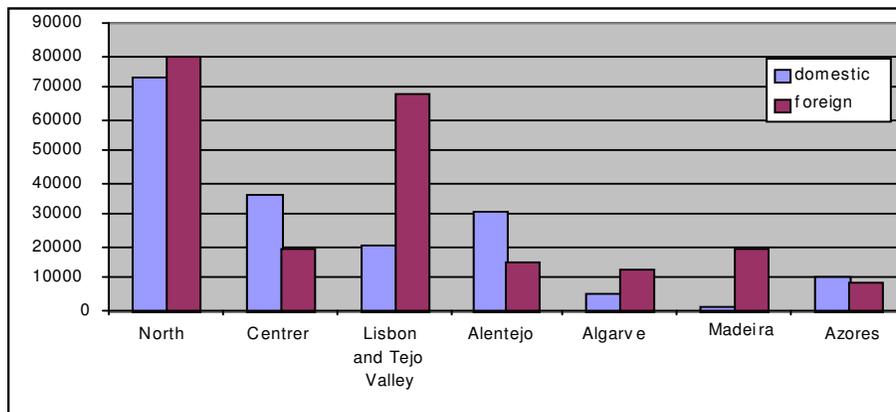


Fig.13. TER demand by nationality and region in 2000
Source: DGT, 2001

When analyzing demand per region, it is evident that the *North is the most attractive destination* for this tourism form with 38% of total demand in 2000, followed by Lisbon and the Tejo Valley (22%), the Central Region (14%) and the Alentejo (12%).

That is, the demand of TER around Lisbon is relatively superior to what would be expected, considering this region's share of supply (16%), whereas the contrary is the case for the Central Region (14% of demand with 19% of supply). Occupation rates of TER units partly mirror this pattern, with highest rates found for the Algarve (32%), the Lisbon region (26%) and Madeira (26%). It is interesting to conclude that the three more developed Portuguese tourist destinations (concentrating about 81% of total demand of classic accommodation) also show highest occupancy rates. This might point at a more professional management of TER units in these areas, but also at a

better integration in already existing commercialization networks. Also a “*carry-over*” effect in terms of destination notoriousness and image should occur, facilitating tourist attraction.

Foreign visitors (56%) outnumbered the domestic market in 2000. When analyzing the *market profile per region* (see figure 13), it becomes clear that foreigners dominate in the Lisbon region, Madeira and the Algarve. This reflects the before suggested “*carry-over effect*” of strong international markets in these already famous destinations. On the other hand, the domestic market dominates markedly in the Central Region and the Alentejo. In the North and the Azores both the national and international market are of similar importance. Especially the North, compared with other regions, attracts both most foreigners and Portuguese. This may be particularly due to the role of the Minho region (former *Green Coast*). Here the TER development started and has been substantially supported by public organisms. There is a relative concentration of supply in the region and professionally operating associations, like TURIHAB⁶⁵, have managed access to specialized international commercialization networks with an identifiable and *high quality* symbolizing brand (**European Commission**, 1999). Unfortunately, apart from the distinction between domestic and foreign market, there is no official data available on nationality of TER guests. However, considering the houses associated to **TURIHAB**, this association’s latest data (**TURIHAB**, 2001) reveals that foreign tourists outnumber the Portuguese with seventy percent. Apart from thirty percent domestic tourists, clients include the British (27%), the German (12%), the Dutch (9%), the French, Belgian, Spanish and US-American (about 3% each) market.

The *general seasonality pattern* shows a peak in the summer months, particularly in August, with TER modalities not differing substantially in this pattern. Lowest numbers are registered between November and February, although December shows a local peak, probably due to Christmas and New Years Eve. Particularly tourist flows in the North and Center show strong peaks in August.

Foreign tourists show a pattern of global increase until the month of August, with strongest demand concentrated between June and September, but particularly July and August. Actually, foreign tourists outnumber Portuguese in the months from May to September. This is the *typical pattern of a summer holiday market* with a relatively prolonged high season. From November till February foreigners’ demand is negligible. *Portuguese*, on the other hand, show a more irregular pattern, with peaks in August, April and December. This is a reflection of the predominant concentration of main holidays of Portuguese in August and the potential of the countryside in attracting visitors for *short breaks* in the periods of main *public holidays*.

⁶⁵ This association represented 92 houses in 2000, which corresponds to about 15% of national TER supply, with a strong concentration on the Minho region. Nevertheless, it is the most dynamic TER association, working professionally with international tour operators (60% of their reservations). The constitution of TURIHAB’s foreign market may be approximately representative of the global international TER market.

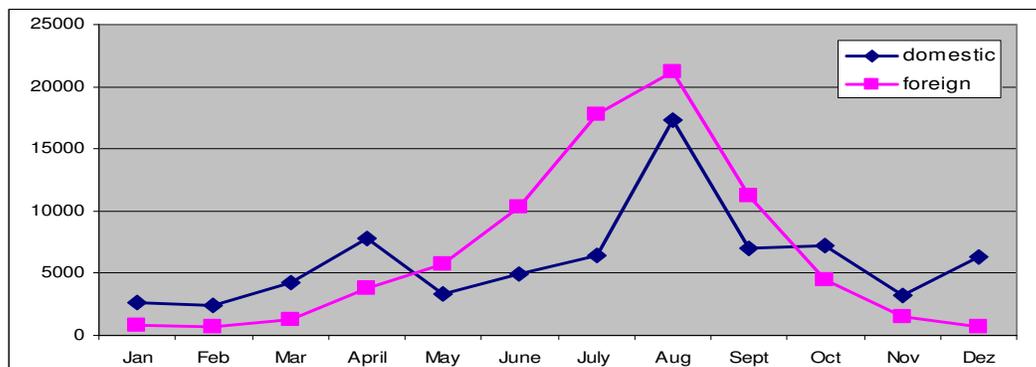


Fig.14. Seasonality in TER units foreign versus domestic market (1999)

Source: DGT, 2000

Edwards (1991) undertook a *survey of proprietors* of houses associated to TURIHAB in Northern Portugal and of a selection of their guests in 1987. Two thirds of proprietors estimated that most guests were international visitors, especially British, German and to a lesser degree Scandinavian. Asked about activities offered to guests, most referred to their attempt to introduce their guests into the area by suggesting places to visit and activities to undertake. **Edwards** stresses “*the pride taken by all the hosts in the history, culture and «patrimony» of their areas, regarding this to be very much the «true» Portugal as opposed to the better known Algarve.*” He also *surveyed guests* (N=76, mainly married couples, 60% over forty years of age). Most respondents were from the UK, followed by Portugal and Germany. Over 50% stayed more than a week and about half used a travel agent for booking. Tourists were most attracted by scenery in a not congested and non-commercialized area, which invites to touring, discovery of the countryside and relaxation in a peaceful and quiet environment. They also expected friendly local people, the discovery of local food and wine and good weather. In contrast to hosts’ perceptions, guests seemed to be relatively active visitors. Comparing further with a survey undertaken in the UK, **Edwards** (1991) draws the conclusion that “*those who visit rural locations do so, not only to enjoy fine landscapes with a minimum of commercialization and congestion, they also seek contact with a viable rural culture.*”

Considering the relevance of the domestic market for rural (not only TER) tourism along the year, data available from a survey of *Portuguese holiday behavior* is briefly analyzed. It shows that 63% spent holidays at all and 42% away from home in 1998 (DGT, 1999). These numbers nearly doubled since 1990 and still convey a potential of growth, particularly as far as holidays away from home are concerned. Those who did not spend any holiday at all indicated mainly economic (51%) or professional reasons (25%). The most demanded regions were the Algarve (26%), the Silver and the Green Coast (both about 20%). The coast seems to attract more than interior regions, which is confirmed by the preference given to the beach as a holiday environment. The countryside was chosen by 28% and the city by 25% (both with increasing tendencies), whereas other destinations,

such as mountains, spas or lakes were not very popular. The most important motivation of the Portuguese market is by far relaxation (71%), followed by beach activities (38%), socializing (16%), landscape (16%) and fun (15%). It seems that Portuguese try to satisfy these motives primarily at the beach, whereas the relaxation and landscape value of the countryside and the mountains may not be perceived. Although some hedonistic motivations may not typically be as well served in the countryside, there should also be some misperception of “rural holidays” and eventually a lack of experience with this vacation form, associated with a lack of well-designed and promoted corresponding offerings. For example, Portuguese tend to prefer self-catering forms of accommodation (friends and family: 44%, a second home: 12%, rented flats: 18% and camping: 9%). This should be taken into account when developing the rural tourism product. Also the fact that Portuguese show a preference for making travel arrangements independently (42%), using travel agencies eventually for reservation of accommodation (38%) must be considered.

Consequently there seems to be an *opportunity for rural tourism for the domestic market*, as:

- the countryside has increased its popularity over the last years;
- the main motivation of the domestic market (relaxation) may be better satisfied by rural than by beach tourism, given the typical congestion in summer holiday resorts;
- there is an increasing tendency of splitting holidays (there were already 22% splitting their holidays in 1998, compared to around 10% in the years before);
- there is still a significant growth potential visible for the domestic market;
- there are possibilities of making the rural tourism product more attractive, given that motivations and needs are better understood and catered to.

Finally, there is still a considerable number of Portuguese emigrants with rural origins, who return to spend their holidays in their home villages and towns⁶⁶. These are not represented in tourism statistics, though, which are based on nights spent in registered accommodation establishments. They also usually escape statistics of tourist offices, as they require no tourist information. Conversations with local residents and owners of complementary tourism facilities indicate that these emigrants usually stay for their main summer holidays (usually between July and September), apart from occasionally coming for Christmas and other important family festivities. They may represent the most important holiday market for some rural areas. This market segment is not typically attracted by the destination’s tourism products, but by more profound links with certain territories and its people. However, they participate in the consumption of tourism products, and

⁶⁶ **Edwards & Fernandes** (1991: 332) explain that “*the North of Portugal has a long history of migration, which differs from that of many other areas in the relatively high rates of return of migrants.*” Migration started in the sixteenth century with the colonisation of Madeira and the Azores, continued in the eighteenth century with migration towards Brazil, and more recently in the 1950s till the 70s towards Western Europe and North America. Returning emigrants frequently also contribute to tourism development by investing in related businesses.

may bring along tourists without any prior link to these destinations, thus contributing to tourism development in rural areas. Unfortunately these movements and their implications on tourism have not been studied in depth, making further description and explanation of the phenomenon difficult.

Chapter 3.5.4. Organization and Commercialization Patterns

An effective link between supply and demand must be guaranteed through a well functioning distribution system. This is nowadays frequently assumed by associations, like *TURIHAB* (the best known and most dynamic), *Privetur* and *Anter* (ICEP, 1996). This organization pattern is very important for the Portuguese rural tourism market, as one of its difficulties is its functioning on a small scale, frequently with no business expertise, nor resources for individual promotion. TURIHAB offers a central booking system, catalogues and classification schemes and cooperates with foreign tour operators.

The *distribution channel* might also be direct, using for example the DGT directory or other brochures or functioning on the basis of personal recommendation or a prior visit. *Product loyalty* and *word of mouth* play an important role for this personalized tourism form. Nevertheless, a *central booking system* is very useful in this type of market, as the owners may not always be contactable. It may also be important in attracting new clients, who might be distributed to the houses in a way best fitting their preferences. Further, larger groups can best be accommodated and special initiatives best organized and coordinated by a central reservation system rather than by individual house owners. This is particularly important for travel agents and tour operators who wish to include TER units in their offerings. Last, but not least, the association may provide better guarantees than individuals, making commercialization more attractive.

ICEP (1996) analyzed the principal 1995 summer catalogues of major tour operators specialized on Portugal. These publications showed a *lack of systematic presentation* and commercialization of the rural tourism product. Usually it was offered as an independent, distinct product, sometimes included in “*fly & drive*” *circuits*, but without any uniform *classification* of the different accommodation forms, which makes the creation of a distinctive image difficult.

TURIHAB’s success is an example of an organization that apart from defending its associates’ interests has got involved and has actually guided rural tourism development in the Lima Valley. It was selected as an example of quality management by the already mentioned **EC report** (1999). According to this report, the Lima Valley has been developed according to a two-stage strategy (table 2). The first stage focused on the creation of high quality, personalized accommodation. The second stage aimed at consolidation and diversification of the entire destination product. TURIHAB assumed a leadership role in destination development by being responsible for creating

a LEADER group (ADRIL) in the area, which was “*a vehicle for stimulating and funding the wider tourism development in the region*” (European Commission, 1999).

STAGE I	STAGE II
Preservation of old houses in their original architecture	Diversification of accommodation
Creation of high quality accommodation with a family contact	Creation of a quality brand for accommodation
Development of a marketing program	Development of complementary tourism facilities and attractions

Table 2. Two stage strategy for the Vale do Lima
Source: adapted from European Commission (1999: 137)

Success has partly been due to the participative and cooperative approach TURIHAB and ADRIL have used by integrating a network of regional organizations (banks, municipalities, association of commerce, national park, craft workers’ union, local polytechnic, etc.). The important marketing effort TURIHAB has implemented to promote a quality brand of accommodation has led to a successful integration of its supply in international commercialization channels (125 tour operators were responsible for about 62% of all bookings in 1998). The central booking service is fundamental for this approach and will be improved by an electronic link between all members. The strategy of integration and network building is also visible in the creation of a quality brand at the European level: “*Europe of Traditions*”, including partners with similar accommodation in Belgium, France, the UK and Ireland and more recently Germany, Slovenia and Hungary (CCRN, 2001). At the destination level, tourist attractions were developed (e.g. a golf course, horse-riding center, a shooting reserve, a walking and cycling trail, special events). Finally, in selected remote rural villages in the Gerês National Park ADRIL introduced innovative *village tourism* projects on a community basis. Key success factors of this approach may be summarized as (EC, 1999: 140):

- involvement in a network of regional organizations
- well focused financial scheme supporting tourism development
- leadership through a private organization, strongly linked to the market and the product
- innovative, dynamic approach, close to the market and to local/ regional agents
- focus on local heritage as a basis of a high quality destination

Chapter 3.5.5. The Portuguese market compared with other European markets

Compared with the market of other European countries, the Portuguese rural tourism product is yet *one of the less developed*, especially when compared to countries like France, the UK, Austria, Switzerland and Germany. Furthermore, the Portuguese product *is not yet well organized and commercialized*, even though there are promising examples like TURIHAB.

In many countries rural tourism is not officially defined and centrally (state) controlled so that supply may be organized in a *more flexible* way. On the other hand, the Portuguese legally defined

accommodation units may *guarantee a quality pattern*, which might be viewed as a positive sign by consumers. Other countries' supply is often closely linked to farming, whereas the Portuguese provide mainly *quality accommodation* in historical and typical buildings in the countryside, with *agro-tourism being less important*. Related to this phenomenon is the “*up market*” quality and image of the Portuguese TER product, whereas rural tourism is a typically inexpensive family and social tourism form in many other countries. However, the development of more accessible lodging forms in rural areas (village tourism, country houses) permits widening the market. Finally, it is interesting to observe the diversity of products typically linked to rural tourism in other countries. The *lack of complementarity and diversity of the rural tourism product in Portugal*, particularly in the field of recreation, are weak points that may reveal opportunities. Other countries might be an example to follow, without losing the specificity of the Portuguese rural tourism product. Also innovative projects within Portugal, such as “*historical villages*” should be taken as a reference.

As far as *demand* is concerned, the *importance of the foreign market*, particularly in TER units, is striking and probably due to a *carry-over effect* from traditional tourism in Portugal. There are countries already attracting an impressive international tourism market (France, Austria, Italy). This is generally not the case for most Mediterranean countries with mainly a *beach tourism* market and image. In Portugal the domestic market is most important, particularly in the low season. Still, the level of domestic demand seems to be lower than in some other countries, where people more frequently elect the countryside for a holiday. On the other hand, the number of people who visit *friends and family* and stay in *second homes* seems to be considerable, reflecting still existing strong links between rural and urban areas in Portuguese society. The data gathered in our survey permits a more profound understanding of the rural tourism market in North Portugal (see chapters 8 and 9).

It is important for Portuguese rural tourist destinations to understand the nature and potential of their market. By selecting an adequate target-market and identifying the distinguishing features, this market values most and perceives most positively, the destination-product can be correspondingly developed. Apart from the community's global development goals, the described competing supply existing in other European countries should be simultaneously considered, especially when targeting to the international market.

Conclusions of Chapter 3

A definition of “*rural tourism*” requires an initial reflection on the term “*rural space*”, which has been defined as a “*complex, socially constructed and individually perceived system of relationships evolving from a number of human productive, consumptive and conservationist activities in a man-shaped landscape. This landscape is marked by agriculture, has particular social, political,*

cultural, economic and biological/ ecological functions, and can be increasingly defined by the impacts of related urban spaces in the context of a rural-urban continuum.” Leisure and tourism is only one function of the rural space, the quality of which depends on its integration in this system.

In this study, *all forms of tourism taking place in rural areas and minimally associated with rural features in terms of attraction, activities and meaningful surrounding*, are considered as “*rural tourism*”, except for *autonomous resorts located in the countryside* and *untouched wilderness areas*. Local control is viewed as desirable to enhance endogenous sustainable development.

The complex *impacts of tourism on rural areas* differ according to the number and type of tourists attracted, the organization of tourism supply, its integration into community development and the stage of the destination in the “*destination life cycle*”. In addition the capacity of organizing, coordinating and controlling the “*industry*” at the local level, together with the destination’s original tourism vocation determines the impact. Obviously tourism cannot constitute the only or most important development tool for all rural areas. However, it may be an important complementary activity, enhancing diversification and sustainability of the local economic base.

The *importance of rural tourism as a part of the overall tourism market* depends on each country’s *rural tourism* resources, infrastructures, image and market access and on the other existing tourism products. Often a destination image develops based on the most popular tourism resource, at the expense of other existing tourism products. In these cases there is a potential of diversifying the already known main product in an attempt to prolong its life cycle, to add new value and to become distinctive from competition by creating new products. It may take a long lead-time to create a distinct image of a new tourism form, which may eventually become an important alternative tourism product. Even if the importance of rural tourism may be minor in the national tourism market, its role for the development of specific rural areas may be outstanding. Thus, the multiplier effect may be more important in rural areas, where the entire rural lifestyle, as well as its original products (e.g. handicraft, gastronomy), is looked for as a main attraction.

The analysis of rural tourism in Europe shows that this form of tourism is not a new one, having long historical roots in most countries. However, in the last decades the main holiday boom was linked to “*sun and beach*” products. This tourism form has approached saturation, though, especially in Southern Europe, leading to an increased interest in alternative products. Increasing environmental consciousness, as well as a growing interest in outdoor recreation, activity and specialty holidays, make rural tourism an interesting opportunity for diversifying a country’s tourism supply. Also the trend towards split holidays may be favorable for the rural holiday market, as there seems to be a pattern of tourists choosing rural areas for a second holiday.

Apart from that, *agriculture* has experienced a considerable *decline all over Europe*, which has resulted in economic problems in rural areas. These might be partly overcome via tourism as a development tool with an important multiplier effect. That is why numerous EC funding programs have been introduced, which promote investments in European rural tourism. There seems to be a *general interest in developing the market*, both from the perspective of demand and supply.

A *variety of rural tourism products*, based on different lodging forms and complementary offerings exist in the countryside. There is a tendency towards creating local and regional, sometimes even national (e.g. France) or supra-national (“*Europe of Traditions*”) *associations*, frequently *co-operating with public entities*, providing reservation systems, joining marketing efforts and creating classification schemes, auto-imposing quality standards, even if specific legislation does not exist. Nevertheless, there is *no European-wide* classification system for all rural tourism products facilitating commercialization and no unique image of rural tourism in Europe has evolved (yet). This is partly due to the diversity of regional and local realities.

Diverse experiences confirm the *need for associative organization, co-ordination and conjoint marketing of supply*, as well as for the *creation of complementary, thematic offerings*. There seems to be a point for *segmentation* and development of *specialty products*, such as the “*children’s gites*” and “*stop gites*” in France and “*ski country houses*” in Austria and Switzerland, “*horse riding farms*” in Germany, “*golf and fishing farms*” in Ireland, etc.

As far as *demand* is concerned, rural tourism is apparently mostly sustained by *domestic demand*, being relatively important in some countries as a main holiday pursuit as well as for split holidays and short breaks (e.g. in the Netherlands, Denmark, Germany and France and the UK). Some countries also have an important *international market for rural tourism*, such as Austria, Switzerland and France, as well as Germany, Ireland and certain Italian regions. *Portugal’s* still incipient rural tourism (particularly TER) market attracts *both the domestic and the international market* and has revealed continuous growth in the last decade, while occupation rates remain relatively low. This tourism form is most important for the North, which actually dominates the country’s rural tourism market. However, as based on a different philosophy of tourism development, it should present an *opportunity for growth* also in other Portuguese regions, especially in areas that have maintained their “rural character”. Still, the Portuguese example of TER shows that a strong natural resource base is not enough, but that a certain degree of development, proximity to investors and markets and capacity of organization may act as a catalyst for market success in rural tourism.

Chapter 4. Tourism and Destination Marketing

As seen in chapter 2, tourism is a very complex phenomenon. Tourism products yield the satisfaction of a variety of changing needs through the provision of a variety of goods, services, environments and experiences. In this context, the “*tourism industry*” needs to understand how the features of a tourist destination and tourism products are perceived and experienced and how they interact. This determines the global outcome of the separate offerings in terms of the tourist’s experience and destination image, also depending on the tourist’s characteristics, behavior and motivation. With this understanding the supply-side may create a product and develop a destination, which satisfies tourists and may convince them of the product’s suitability, superiority and desirability. The question however remains, whether tourism requires a specific type of marketing. This will be discussed in this chapter with an emphasis on rural tourism.

Chapter 4.1. Concept and Evolution

The *Marketing Perspective* concentrates on the market, aiming at “*first identifying and then satisfying human needs and desires*” (Fridgen, 1991: 235). Kotler *et al.* (1999: 10) define marketing as a “*social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and value with others*”. One may suggest that marketing aims at a better functioning of the market enhancing the satisfaction of social and individual needs through delivery of adequate products and services. This does not mean that it is able to correct debatable developments and structural weaknesses of the market (e.g. exploitative economic power concentration, lack of consideration of non-priced, but essential goods, such as environment, culture, and social equilibrium). Marketing only interferes *within* the existing market conditions, where the ability to satisfy one’s needs depends on individual buying power or on the social and political will to satisfy such needs. Obviously a selection has to be made, as resources are too limited to satisfy all needs. Marketing may help make the choice by identifying needs and correspondingly determining resource allocation through the development of most satisfying products targeted to diverse consumer groups.

The marketing concept was first developed for *physical goods* due to business and economic pressures that made the initial business philosophies obsolete. The evolution leading to the prevalence of the marketing concept started with the “*production era*”, being followed by the “*sales orientation*” (Dibb *et al.*, 1997: 16-17, Pride & Ferrell, 1997: 9-10). The “*production era*” was marked by the belief that products if priced cheaply enough would be bought. This implied an *inward, product-orientated* outlook on business that was primarily concerned with efficiency of mass-production. Kotler *et al.* (1999: 17-18) further distinguish between the “*product*” and the “*production concept*”. The first focused on the quality and the second on the quantity of

production. The “*sales era*”, from the mid 1920s to the early 1950s, showed an increasing concern about the market, as growing competition led to difficulties in selling what had been produced. In this context, business focused on more effective selling techniques. Finally the “*marketing era*” deepened the market approach by trying to identify the customers’ needs and to satisfy them through corresponding products. According to **Drucker** (1973: 64, cited by **Cooper**, 1993) “*selling and marketing are antithetical rather than synonymous or even complementary. There will always, one can assume, be a need for some selling, but the aim of marketing is to make selling superfluous.*” Thus, the marketing approach is qualitatively substantially different from a sales focus, implying a consumer-led approach on production, distribution and promotion. Recently “*social*” or “*societal marketing*” has received increasing interest. This approach concentrates not only on the company’s direct customers and the primary functions of its products but also considers broad social and environmental causes, which reflects the growing global, systemic consciousness in modern society (**Kotler et al.**, 1999: 22-24). Responding to these concerns, concepts such as “*green marketing*” (**Ottman**, 1993) or “*cause related marketing*” (**Pringle & Thomson**, 1999) emerge. This shows a trend towards a more *outward-oriented* business philosophy.

The consumer-led orientation was quickly adopted by the *service* sector, which developed a specific marketing approach (**Fisk et al**, 2000: 9-11). Here a focus on the customer is even more important because service quality depends directly on the customer’s participation. “*Relationship marketing*” is another recent evolution of the marketing concept⁶⁷, based on the premise that in a constantly changing environment the development of long-term relationships with target-customers is of mutual benefit. The supply-side may better adapt its offerings to the well-known needs of identified clients and thereby profit from more stable repeat business. In the service domain this approach seems most adequate, as human interaction is a particular ingredient, with enhanced relationships being the best guarantee for a more personalized and satisfactory outcome (**Groenroos**, 2000, **Fisk et al.**, 2000)⁶⁸. Further, increased trust should reduce perceived risk. Also relationships with other stakeholders may be enhanced, emphasizing the creation of trust and loyalty, based on a “win-win” philosophy, which is close to the *societal marketing* concept.

For the *tourism field* a *similar evolution* can be traced. In its beginning, when there were few tourism offerings in relation to a booming demand, the supply side could focus on its products. **Roth** (1992a: 134) distinguishes a second phase (1960s till 70s), denominated as oriented towards *finance and organization*. Here, demand continued to boom and organizations had to concentrate

⁶⁷ **Kotler et al.** (1999: 483) define *Relationship Marketing* as “*the process of creating, maintaining and enhancing strong, value-laden relationships with customers and other stakeholders.*”

⁶⁸ **Bendapudi & Berry** (1997) suggest that a relationship between a service organization and its clients may be based on constraints (“*have to*” relationship) or on dedication (“*want to*” relationship), resulting in different degrees of involvement and stability of the relationship.

on their ability to organize and finance mass production. According to this author, the beginning of concentration of tourism supply can be traced back to this period. When the market was confronted with oversupply, competition obliged companies to focus more on the market. First these companies adopted a sales approach which was later substituted by a marketing perspective. **Roth** (1992a: 134-135) locates the beginning of the marketing period to the end of the 1970's. *More affluent, experienced* and *increasingly demanding tourists* implied an evolution from a mass market to a number of *sub-markets*. These markets ask for *diversified specialist products* that meet their continuously developing interests. According to the model of *product life cycles*, the entire tourism industry may be located at the *maturity stage*. Obviously each destination and tourism product can be attributed a different life cycle stage. The *product class* can be considered mature, because clients (and tour operators) have gained sufficient experience and are increasingly looking for higher quality, new and different *product forms*⁶⁹. In order to be able to offer corresponding products, a profound knowledge of the customer, his/ her needs, desires and changing interests is necessary. This is especially true for the so-called “*preference*” or “*quality strategy*”, which focuses on “*being better than the others*”, as contrasted with the “*price-quantity strategy*” based on “*being cheaper than the others*” (**Roth**, 1992a: 69-70). The “*quality strategy*” may be characterized as *aiming at profit* rather than market share and at a *superior image* via long-term commitment. This should permit *self-determined positioning* and enhance *customer loyalty*. The *target-market* should value quality over price, and the *marketing-mix* should reflect this superior quality, which must be heavily communicated and justify a higher price (**Roth**, 1992a: 70, adapted from **Becker**, 1988). The advantage of this strategy lies in the profiling of an own, strong market position, which may be more defensible and profitable than a price-advantage. On the other hand, difficulties may be related to the need for innovative and distinctive product-development and for a strong communication effort.

The *tendency towards business concentration* in the “tourism industry” implies increasing *gaps* between the *client* and his/ her *service providers* at the destination⁷⁰. This gap is naturally extensive due to the geographical and cultural distance and increases with the organization of mass operations through intermediaries. The gap must be overcome through increased *mutual knowledge*, which may be enhanced by *marketing research and market communication*. Also

⁶⁹ For a definition of the concepts “*product class*” and “*product form*” and the notion of “*product life cycle*”, see **Gultinan & Paul** (1994: 37, 38).

⁷⁰ In the context of services, **Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry** (1985) suggested a model of the gap existing between expected and perceived service, resulting from other gaps in the process of service planning and delivery, namely: the gap between expectations of clients and corresponding perceptions of management, the differences in management perception and service quality specifications, the gap between service quality specifications and service delivery and the gap between service delivery and external communication. These gaps reveal main problem areas in the context of client satisfaction via perceived service quality.

specialized marketing channels may be used, such as specialized tour operators or “*destination developers*”, as suggested by **Venema** (1996). The *destination developer* would act as an intermediary between the destination and large tour operators. Both destinations and tour operators increasingly need to become distinctive, facing global competition. A solution would be *programming* holidays with a content rather than merely “*packaging*” the holiday’s main ingredients, i.e. adding new value through specialized, unique offerings. As large tour operators do not have the knowledge nor the time or manpower to explore a destination in depth, local destination developers may promote the destination as “insiders” in a qualitatively better, more authentic and unique way. A simultaneous knowledge of the market should guarantee that these specialized products are correctly targeted.

According to **Roth** (1992a: 134), customer-focus is not sufficient, due to societal concerns and the call for *sustainable tourism*. This author (1992: 67-68) suggests “*the increase of the number of environmentally sensitive tourists*” and “*the creation of a destination image among the target-market, based on the concept of sustainable tourism*” as concrete examples of “*environmentally oriented marketing objectives*” for tourist destinations⁷¹. This evolution towards a *societal* (**Ryan**, 1991) or *ecological* (**Krippendorf**, 1987b) marketing approach is driven by visible trends towards *more conscious travel* (**Krippendorf**, 1989, **Middleton & Hawkins**, 1998).

Jansen-Verbeke (1996) stresses the importance of *networks* that exploit “*place advantages*” leading to *synergies* in an inherently complex tourism offering. Also **Costa** (1996: 402-407) suggests networks to improve regional tourism organization by strengthening cooperation among partners in the context of a “*comprehensive planning style*”. He explains that strategic alliances are common for implementing tourism development plans, whereas they would be most adequate already in the decision making process. The development of *strategic partnerships* between small and medium sized tourism enterprises, as **Williams** (1999) analyzed for the case of Canada, should be particularly important for rural tourist destinations. **Williams’** study identified *member commitment*, *flexibility* and *trust* as key factors for successful partnerships. According to **Moutinho** (2000: 9-10) *integral planning*, *long-term thinking* and *consistent action* is paramount for the success of destination planning and management. An *integrated marketing* approach should involve everybody organizing and providing supply. **Lundberg** (1990: 141) defines *integrated destination marketing* as: “*the overall effort to identify what it is a destination has to offer (the product), what groups of people would have the time, money and desire both to travel to and to enjoy the destination (the target markets), and how best to reach and convince those people to come to the destination (marketing).*” This marketing of a destination, i.e. of “*any geographical*

⁷¹ For a complex theoretical and empirical discussion of “sustainable tourism”, its foundations, conditions and marketing consequences, see **Woehler & Saretzki** (1999).

unit that can be viewed as having a common image”, can be conducted at several levels (city, region, state, country). According to **Krippendorf** (1971, cited by **Roth**, 1992a: 126) tourist demand is primarily directed at destinations⁷², which stand for the “*collective production*” of a locality, region or country. **Kaspar** (1991, cited by **Roth**, 1992a: 126) calls a destination the “*point of crystallization of the tourist activity*”. Similarly, **Roth** (1992a: 126-127) explains that *destinations provide a synthesis of tourism supply, organizing, institutionalizing and directing tourism in order to create a harmonious global image*. This is mainly based on natural resources and tourist infrastructures, with geographical, social and political conditions, as well as cooperation determining its development. In reality, joint marketing efforts are mostly focused on tourism promotion, especially on a country or state basis, which “*is best accomplished by a cooperative effort of private industry and government*” (**McIntosh & Goeldner**, 1990: 413-414). On the other hand, joint product development, pricing and distribution strategies are unfortunately rather rare. Cooperation may be enhanced by external and internal relationship building in networks of public and private sector organizations (**Palmer**, 1996). This author shows that an inward- and outwards-oriented effort of **Relationship Marketing** “*improved structures which were capable of focusing on the specific needs of visitors*”, thereby enhancing a destination’s success.

Heath & Wall (1992) propose *guidelines for planning, development and marketing* of tourism at the regional and community level, following an *integrated marketing* approach. The process starts with an analysis of the destination’s resources and a formulation of regional goals for tourism development, on the basis of which target markets are identified. Closeness to the market and its trends is considered as fundamental as the correct definition of the “*product*”, which cannot be totally adapted to all markets and any kind of changes in demand. **Font & Ahjem** (1999) explain that for destination marketing a compromise between a market-led and a supply-oriented approach is most adequate. This applies particularly to fragile destinations, such as protected areas, in which some of the Portuguese rural areas are integrated. **Jenkins & McArthur** (1996) stress the role of marketing in assuming “*the dual responsibility of conserving the resource and providing a high quality visitor experience... (considering it)...one of the most effective visitor management tools available...* ”. Similarly **Ryan** (1991) demands restrictions in rural tourism development, albeit economic pressures towards large-scale operations. Thus, *destination marketing integrated into overall planning* aims at a match between the destination and the tourist market. **Seitz** (1983) calls attention to the permeable frontiers between management and economic sciences in the case of

⁷² Contesting a common misconception in the tourism industry, focusing on hotels and restaurants, **Seitz & Meyer** (1995: 11) stress that “*not the desire of alimentation or the need to sleep are causal to tourist consumption, but the demand of the destination or else of its features as a whole*”.

tourism, justifying on the one hand the application of marketing methods in the field, on the other hand demanding a broader perspective considering macro-impacts.

One might consider destination marketing a specific form of “*Marketing of Places*”. Kotler *et al.* (1995) discuss this domain, reflecting on how to attract investment, industry and tourism to cities, states and nations. They suggest a sequence of “infrastructure → attractions → people → image marketing”, meaning that places have to first work on their fundamental features before promoting a corresponding image. According to Ashworth & Voogdt (1991) “*cities and regions have always existed within markets of one sort or another: they compete for resources, activities and residents with other places... Intervention to influence this operation is not only both possible and desirable, it is also largely unavoidable.*” Referring to the traditional planning approach applied to places, they stress the new role of “*marketing as a philosophy of place management*”, linked to social, economic and cultural changes. These authors defend the specificity of place marketing, which they define as “*a process whereby local activities are related as closely as possible to the demands of target customers. The intention is to maximize the efficient social and economic functioning of the area concerned, in accordance with whatever wider goals have been established.*” The concept can be related to the particular marketing concepts of non-profit organizations and social/ societal marketing. This implies different goals, means of measuring success and time frames of reference (long-term focus) than conventional product marketing. Correspondingly, place marketing implies “*more than a simple transfer of a known and tried set of techniques from one set of products to another*” (Ashworth & Voogdt, 1991). Lengkeek (1998), for example, calls for a *community-based tourism product development*, stressing the difficulties inherent in this process. Conflicts among residential and business groups may require the intervention of an *external, independent agent*, who should permit the consideration of various scenarios and of all local interests.

All these factors specific to the tourism phenomenon and the reality of destinations seem to justify a particular marketing approach, although the basic concepts and propositions of general marketing theory may be applied in this context. This perspective of destination marketing is adopted in this thesis, as a specific form of *place marketing*, involving elements of *service and relationship marketing, integrated and societal marketing*.

One essential strategic element of destination marketing is the *identification of the target market*, based on *segmentation*. On the other hand, a corresponding *positioning* of the destination, from the perspective of this target market, is paramount, considering both this market’s needs and desires, and its perceptions and evaluations of the destination, compared with competing destinations. The role of target marketing and positioning of tourist destinations will be briefly discussed next, with particular consideration of rural tourist destinations. Further, specific approaches on the *marketing-*

mix are reflected on. In this context, the significance of *destination image*, as the main construct of analysis of this thesis, will be stressed.

Chapter 4.2. Strategic Marketing of Tourist Destinations

Marketing Strategy has been defined by **Dibb et al.** (1997: 650) as “a strategy indicating the specific target markets and the types of competitive advantages that are to be developed and exploited“. **Kotler** (1997: 64) distinguishes between the *strategic marketing plan*, which “develops the broad marketing objectives and strategy based on an analysis of the current market situation and opportunities“, and the *tactical marketing plan*, which “outlines specific marketing tactics, including advertising, merchandising, pricing, channels, services, and so on.” Usually segmentation leading to target-market-selection, and positioning are referred to as strategic marketing tools⁷³, being the specification of the *Marketing-Mix*⁷⁴ considered a more tactical approach (**Lendrevie et al**, 1993: 375-425).

Nowadays, in destination marketing “the emphasis is shifting from competition between (destinations) on the basis of price to the *management of destinations* in order to present a *consistent range of services* intended to *satisfy particular types of tourists*. This is reinforced by a *continual negotiation process* in which the interaction between tourists and destination managers modifies the existing product” (**Laws**, 1995: 26). This statement relates to the before-presented “*quality-strategy*” and stresses the need of a consistent and targeted marketing approach. However, **McKercher** (1995) stresses the limited control tourism marketers often have over the product mix and new product development and the little flexibility of complex destination products, suggesting a need for “*managing the market-portfolio rather than the product portfolio*”⁷⁵.

For *optimally allocating resources* a sound marketing strategy must be based on an *understanding of the market*. This permits the identification of groups of clients with different consumer behavior, looking for different benefits, and marked by distinct personal characteristics. **Guiltinan & Paul** (1994: 71) explain that “*firms may find some segments more attractive than others because of variations in segment size, growth potential, or competition.*” In the case of tourism, one could add “because of the existence of certain features of the destination, best fitting the needs of specific segments and because of overall destination development concerns”. That is, a destination should

⁷³ **Kotler** (1994: 264) explains that “the heart of modern *strategic marketing* can be described as *STP marketing - segmenting, targeting and positioning*”.

⁷⁴ The development of the marketing-mix may include some strategic aspects, though, as suggested by **Dibb et al.** (1997: 22-24) and **Lendrevie et al.** (1993: 425-443), who particularly refer to the selection of the key-element/s of that mix as a strategic decision.

⁷⁵ He suggests the development of a destination-market-matrix to help in the strategic marketing process via visualization of complex inter-relationships existing between a destination and its many markets, considering further the destination’s life cycle.

identify the market which is most desirable in terms of overall expected benefits and which marketing strategies might be most effectively and efficiently targeted to.

There might be different target segments for different sub-products and/ or areas of a destination, as well as for different periods of the year. The *identification of market segments* of tourists and their profiling is the first step in defining the target-market. Each segment's requirements and the areas' capacity to meet them as well as the compatibility between those segments and corresponding development needs should be considered. A targeted market-approach is particularly adequate for rural destinations, as: "*segments can be perceived as opportunities. A company (here: destination) with limited resources needs to pick only the best opportunities to pursue*" (Beane & Ennis, 1987: 20). To be useful, these segments should be (Kotler, 1997: 268-269):

- **measurable** (in terms of size, purchasing power and profile),
- **accessible** (i.e. "*effectively reached and served*" via some kind of marketing vehicle),
- **substantial** (constituting "*the largest possible homogeneous group worth going after with a tailored marketing-program*"),
- **differentiable** (that is conceptually distinguishable, responding differently to different marketing-mix elements and programs),
- **actionable** (meaning that "*effective programs can be formulated for attracting and serving the segments*"),
- **viable** (implying long run projected revenues to exceed cost of target marketing, also in the context of destinations' *sustainability*), and
- **appropriate** (requiring compatibility between simultaneously served segments as well as between different offerings of the same company, in the context of destinations not to forget compatibility with community interests).

Morrison (1989: 143) suggests that segments should also be:

- **durable** (a period of time which would permit return on investment⁷⁶. This is extremely important for tourist destinations, which realize important investments in developing a complex supply-system, closely linked to global regional development) and
- **competitive** (as far as the organization is capable of offering something distinct or unique, which best fits the needs of the particular target segment/s).

Segmentation may lead to the extreme of "*customization*", offering tailor-made products to all clients. **Davis** (1987, cited by **Kotler**, 1994: 266-267) introduced the notion "*mass customization*" which he defines as "*the ability to prepare on a mass basis individually designed products to meet each customer's requirements.*" **Burkart & Medlik** (1974: 194) stress the variety of potential tourist segments, stating that: "*A tourist market may be identified corresponding to each product.*" Similarly, a product may be identified for each tourist. Probably, *customization* would be the ideal

⁷⁶ *Stability of segments* must be analyzed in the context of seasonal change. That is why segmentation should be repeated in different seasons of the year and over several years.

approach in tourism, if economically feasible. Between undifferentiated and customized marketing, the *differentiated marketing approach, targeting specific market segment/s* may be the most appropriate approach.

The selection of a relevant variable as a *segmentation basis* is essential for a useful structuring of the market. However, often several bases will produce useful results. **Kotler** (1997: 256) identifies two broad groups of these variables, namely *consumer characteristics* (e.g. *geographic, demographic, psycho-graphic*) and *consumer responses* to market offerings, leading to *behavioral segmentation*. **Plummer** (1974) suggested the general distinction between *people-oriented* and *product-oriented* segmentation bases. *Geographic, demographic* and *psycho-graphic* may be considered *people-oriented*, being the first two more descriptive and the last more explanatory. *Behavioral segmentation* can be considered as *more product-oriented*. A combined approach might be the most adequate, since both personal characteristics of consumers and implications on behavior towards products are relevant to marketers. **Dickson** (1982) defends an *integrated person-situation segmentation* approach, as “*demand results from the interaction of a person with the environment...*”. Especially in tourist markets this interaction should be considered, as tourists may change their preferences, behaviors and tourist roles. This happens not only during a tourist’s lifetime (**Oppermann**, 1995a, **Pearce**, 1993), but also according to travel situations (e.g. in different *seasons* of the year or *areas visited*, according to the *main purpose of travel* or *length of stay*). As the situation is actually part of the tourism product and tourist experience, this approach is both person and product-related.

Geographic segmentation is one of the most popular segmentation forms because it is easy to apply. Furthermore, on a geographical level, there is usually numerous statistical data available as well as specific media vehicles, facilitating access to segments. Often the differences between *domestic and international markets* are analyzed in tourism, as well as between diverse foreign markets. This approach uses “*geography ... as a proxy variable for a variety of demographic, cultural and socio-economic characteristics*” (**Lawson**, 1995: 307). Also *demographic segmentation* is popular due to the ease of information gathering, interpretation and comparison. Examples are variables like *age, gender, family size, income* and *educational level*. Demographics are further used for profiling and comparing segments. However, *geographic and demographic* approaches have been *increasingly criticized*, since they do not provide any insight into the *underlying structure and mechanisms of the market*. **Lawson** (1995: 313) explains that “*demographics are often correlated to behavior but have little to do with causation. There are two consequences of this. Firstly there is a continuous need to monitor...secondly, they are seldom sufficient on their own, as a basis for understanding and targeting customers.*”

Personality characteristics and their effect on *life style* and *consumption patterns* have been suggested as more valid predictors of consumer behavior. **Plummer** (1974) explains that *life-style* refers to “*a systems concept... (meaning) a distinctive mode of living in its aggregate and broadest sense.*” It is usually based on consumers’ activities, interests and opinions combined with demographics which demonstrate “*everyday behaviorally oriented facets of people ... (and allow) ... inferences ...from the portrait of the consumer both in terms of his basic needs and how the product fits into his life.*” The well-known general life-style segmentation approach named *VALs*, has also been applied to tourism (see pp. 24-25). Also *Plog’s psycho-graphic tourist types* (see p. 24) would lend themselves to segmentation. **Dimanche et al.** (1993) identify a trend towards *psycho-graphics* in tourist market-segmentation, with tourism-specific variables approximating *behavioral segmentation*.

The latter has become increasingly popular, based on specific *product-related behavior* patterns and thus providing particularly *relevant data* for the marketer. As an example, **Beane & Ennis** (1987) suggest “*image segmentation*”, with “image” defined as “*a little more than attitude towards products*”. Especially *benefit segmentation* has received much attention, since it makes a *link between psychographics and product-related behavior*, providing rich data for target-marketing strategies. But also other, more descriptive variables are frequently used, such as “*communication channel used*”, “*mode of travel*”, “*use of travel agents*”, “*brand loyalty*” etc., which is similar to **Dickson’s** (1982) *integrated person-situation segmentation*. **Dimanche et al.** (1993) suggest further *consumer involvement profiles* for tourist market segmentation.

Benefit segmentation, revealing product-related motivation, may be based on the *relative importance* consumers *attribute to specific product benefits* (**Kastenholz**, 1997). **Haley** (1968) was one of the first underlining the significance of this method, explaining that it is “*an approach to market segmentation whereby it is possible to identify market segments by causal factors.... The belief underlying this segmentation strategy is that the benefits which people are seeking in consuming a given product are the basic reasons for the existence of true market segments... (it has been) shown that benefits sought ... determine ... behavior much more accurately than do demographic characteristics or volume of consumption.*” He further argues that benefit segmentation provides a distinct competitive edge, since it helps *design products to fit exactly the needs of some market segments*, being *especially promising when introducing new products*.

The *identification* and *profiling of distinct segments* is followed by a decision on which segment/s to focus the marketing effort on, when selecting a *target-market*. Thus, a destination may concentrate its effort on one segment (“*concentration strategy*”) or choose to serve diverse segments (“*multi-segment-strategy*”) (**Dibb et al.**, 1997: 224-226). In the last case, it may use the

same (“*concentrated marketing*”) or diverse segment-adapted marketing-mixes (“*differentiated marketing*”) (Kotler *et al.*, 1999: 414-417). This decision depends upon the destination’s capacities and resources, as well as on the attractiveness of the different segments and their compatibility.

In this context, *decision support and expert systems* have been developed to assist marketing managers in the analysis of markets, based on a series of variables indicating their respective attractiveness. Rita’s (1992) *TOUREX system*, for example, integrates both empirical data as well as management judgement in weighting and evaluating a series of variables determining market attractiveness (tourist behavior, economic, social and competitive environment, transportation, distribution channels and future trends). The model permits the assessment of those international markets, on which a National Tourist Office’s destination promotion should be focused.

Positioning or “*the process of creating an image for a product in the minds of target customers*” is often considered complementary to segmentation (Dibb *et al.*, 1997: 227-229). Lundberg (1990: 147) explains that “*target marketing and market positioning by means of product differentiation are combined to form the image that the marketer strives to create and project. That image hopefully triggers the desired response, a decision to travel to the destination.*” In order to establish a clear market position, a destination needs to “*select an image that sets (it) apart from competing (destinations), thus ensuring that the chosen image matches the aspiration of the target customer.*” It must also “*inform target customers about the (destination)...(and) make it readily available at the right price, through development of the full marketing mix*” (Dibb *et al.*, 1997: 229). Laws (1995: 104) considers the “*creation and promotion of appropriate destination images*” as two key issues in destination marketing.

For positioning, data on images of competing destinations is needed. *Diverse destinations* may be *alternatives in the same decision-making process*, but simultaneously be *associated with different tourist experiences* (e.g. “educational trip to Greece” versus “golf-holidays in Wales” versus “countryside holidays in North Portugal”). This makes comparison in one perceptual map difficult. Further, *the same destination* may be *associated with different tourist experiences* (e.g. Portugal with “history”, “beach” or “adventure”). That is why, the basic type of holiday experience should be defined before positioning analysis. The analysis of a destination’s image from the point of view of diverse market segments is also strategically most important. It is most important to understand how the destination is perceived on most valued aspects and how this evaluation relates to the overall destination image, as well as to likeliness of visiting it. Following expectancy theory,

destination image determines destination choice, in so far as it reflects a tourist's "*subjective destination attractiveness*"⁷⁷.

Chapter 4.3. A specific Marketing-Mix?

Ashworth & Voogdt (1991, 1994a, 1994b) defend that place marketing is different from other marketing domains in all elements of the marketing system. First, the *product* is more complex and may be defined as "*both a container...for activity-based products (and...) a product in itself*" (see also chapters 2.3 and 2.4). Further, the same physical space may be sold or consumed for different purposes, implying different products in the sense of "*need-satisfiers*". Related particularities are the difficulty of exactly identifying producers and promoters, defining and analyzing the market, setting the *price*, measuring marketing success and directing *promotional efforts*. The authors state that "*none of these characteristics disqualify places as products, but do make their promotion more complex.*" Further, *distribution* implies that consumers have to move to the place of consumption.

As already suggested for service marketing by **Dibb et al.** (1997)⁷⁸, **Jansen-Verbeke** (1996) refers to the extension of the traditional "*four Ps*" of the marketing mix to include further:

- *Place* (of tourist experience in a wider sense),
- *People* (personnel, tourists and residents),
- *Partners* (among suppliers) and
- *Politics* (defining frameworks).

Based on these suggestions, a specific but more parsimonious marketing mix for tourism products may be suggested, which integrates all the mentioned aspects:

- *Product*: with a complex range of offerings and experiences, including further "*physical evidence*" of the product, corresponding to the definition of an "*augmented product*", as suggested by **Kotler et al.** (1999); also the suggested "*process*"-variable may be considered a sub-element of this item; the particularities of the "*destination-product*", as discussed before (see chapters 2.3 to 2.5) have to be considered here;
- *Price*: however difficult to determine, as different products and services are sold to different prices and also the overall travel cost must be considered;
- *Promotion*: depending more than other products and services on "uncontrollable" communication, such as literature, films, tourists' "story telling" etc. ("*organic image building*"), but simultaneously relying a lot on destination image projection for market success ("*induced image building*");

⁷⁷ "*Attractiveness does not exist for itself, but is rather produced by a specific, context-anchored traveler, who attributes a certain attractiveness to the locality*" (**Woehler**, 1997).

⁷⁸ In the service context, the three elements "physical evidence", "people" and "process" are added to the four traditional elements of the marketing-mix.

- **Place:** both of distribution and experience, being the second of a particular relevance and closely linked to the product itself, with “*physical evidence*” of the place playing an important role⁷⁹ and
- **People:** the element that seems to justify customization and is most important for product-delivery, including *service suppliers, clients, other tourists, residents and partners*.

The element “*politics*” should not be included here, relating rather to the global framework of the marketing environment, which suppliers are generally not able to influence. Even if suppliers may eventually influence the political framework, particularly at a local level, this item may be integrated in both “*promotion*” (public relations) and “*people*” (namely the sub-item “partners”).

Correspondingly, the 5Ps “*Product- Price- Promotion- Place and People*” seem sufficient. However important the items *process, physical evidence and partners*, these may be included as specifications of some components of this *destination marketing mix*.

Particularly image creation and projection are highlighted as key components (Laws, 1995), with an important strategic role (Seitz & Meyer, 1995). Buck (1993, cited by Laws, 1995:112), for example, states that “*tourism is an industry based on imagery; its overriding concern is to construct, through multiple representations of paradise, an imagery (of the destination) that entices the outsider to place himself or herself into the symbol-defined space...*”. The above-identified marketing mix should therefore aim at producing and sustaining an attractive and well-positioned destination image in the eyes of the target market.

Chapter 4.4. Marketing of Rural Tourist Destinations

Tourism in rural areas is associated with *small scale, traditional, remote* and *geographically dispersed family businesses*. These are frequently located in *structurally under-developed areas*. Consequently, a *lack of all kind of resources* is a constant problem for the suppliers of rural tourism. Specifically, there are the following obstacles:

- Apart from *small scale*, rural tourism often consists of *part-time businesses*, which implies fewer investments in this frequently secondary activity.
- Rural areas are often *remote* from markets and business-supporting infrastructures, with poor accessibility, making effective organization and commercialization of rural tourism difficult.
- *Associations* of rural tourism agents are often *difficult to create*, as local agents are *dispersed*, belong to *diverse sectors*, and are *used to individual decision making*. Further, they view each other rather as *competitors* than as *partners* with a common interest.⁸⁰

⁷⁹ In this context see the recent literature about “*servicescape*” (Bitner, 1992) or “*service environments*” (Foxall & Greenley, 1999), particularly in the domain of leisure (Wakefield & Boldgett, 1994, 1996).

⁸⁰ Page & Getz (1997: 28) speak of “*cultural factors which (may) act against collaboration*”.

- The rural population is usually rather conservative, showing an older age structure and being not too interested in, if not *adverse to innovation*.
- *Modern management competencies are frequently under-developed* amongst rural tourism agents and opportunities for learning marketing techniques are scarce.
- All these difficulties increase the *risk from the point of view of potential financiers*, as stressed by **Dolli & Pinfeld** (1997: 39-44). This leads to problems when attempting to finance rural tourism projects.

Frequently this situation is referred to as a *reason for not investing in marketing research*, as it does not provide a direct return and requires finance and capacities, which a small agent cannot support. Unfortunately, this often leads to a *vicious circle of miss-defined products and incoherent marketing activities*, such as incorrect product development, inconsistent promotional efforts, inadequate determination of price and choice of distribution channels. These factors may contribute to a continuous lack of success of rural tourism businesses. Typical is an attitude of lethargy amongst individual tourism providers who wait for clients and attribute low returns to a “bad overall economic situation”. This does not correspond to the evidence of increasing tourist numbers, increasing tourism receipts and increasing tourist movements to rural areas. Even the more dynamic agents are often *skeptical towards a marketing philosophy*, being rather focused on the “*product concept*”. They do not ask what the clients value, but instead assume they know it. A few are right, being close enough to clients and sensitive enough to intuitively understand the market. These may use even forms of customization, in a context of *Relationship Marketing*. A personalized approach aiming at the tourist’s maximum satisfaction should indeed be most important for rural tourist destinations. Market communication efforts may be substantially reduced or more effectively targeted by enhancing *positive word-of-mouth*.

Most often rural areas could increase their overall attractiveness and thus each agent’s potential by engaging in *destination marketing* predicated on a sound analysis of the market. In the case of a rural community, which intends to develop its tourist market, enlarging its client base by attracting, for example, new foreign markets, market research for elaborating corresponding strategies is needed and should be undertaken in a co-operative way⁸¹. Also regional tourism organizations may play a vital role in designing and implementing a destination marketing strategy (**Dolli & Pinfeld**, 1997). These authors highlight the advantages of a marketing plan for the development of long-term, proactive strategies.

⁸¹ According to **Moutinho** (1990), “*competent marketing research is needed, particularly as the range and number of tourist attractions, and thus competition, increases... Marketing research is properly a local authority or tourism association function... Through co-operation between the managers of small tourism businesses, much can be done in the area of destination development...also relevant to smaller businesses is marketing co-operation between different sectors...(eventually leading to)...co-operative product formulation, advertising and promotion campaigns...*”

The importance of *natural and cultural heritage* for rural tourism justifies the need for a not only *integrated*, but also *societal marketing effort*. In this context, **Dolli & Pinfold** (1997: 47) affirm that “*the underlying concern in rural tourism ... is the issue of sustainability: how to achieve customer satisfaction while still protecting the product that is being marketed.*”

Gruffudd (1994) identified the importance of a range of *cultural products* (travel books, landscape art, academic studies) in representing the British countryside. He claims that a longstanding search for the picturesque, the authentic and traditional, and also the association with history and national identity are continuously reinvented themes in a “*long tradition of rural place representation. It is this tradition that has laden the countryside with its deeper meanings as an embodiment of the virtues of nature, beauty, mystery and fundamental truths of human experience and cultural value*”. He further points at the fact that whereas other places “*have been able to reinvent themselves, countryside promotion continues to rely on its stock of «enduring values»*”. This may not be a weakness, if it corresponds to what the rural destination is able and willing to offer and to what tourists are looking for. The traditional discourse may actually confer a strong image to the countryside, associated with positive qualities for specific segments. Sustaining this image with corresponding promotion may be not as resource consuming than trying to “reinvent” place image. However, if the features of the rural destination do not conform to the traditional image and if it wishes to attract a different type of tourist, the necessary promotional effort may be substantial, as strong prior stereotypes may undermine credibility of corresponding messages. In this case, the rural destination would be *overpositioned*, i.e. too narrowly defined in the mind of the target-market (**Kotler et al**, 1999: 458-459). In any case, “*a distinct image must be cultivated, one that appeals to consumers looking for specific attractive (rural tourism) products*” (**Page & Getz**, 1997: 28).

An *understanding of the “public image”* that tourists hold and transmit to others is important for a destination to eventually adapt to expectations or to correct the image, if it does not correspond to the community’s interest. For this purpose, information gathering and analysis is fundamental for planning and controlling tourism development and avoid being surprised one day by missing or crowding tourists or those who cause some kind of negative impact. Monitoring tourists, their motives, attitudes, perceptions, levels of satisfaction and behaviors, as well as the global environment, which determines their choices, is an essential first step. Unfortunately however, rural tourism businesses frequently lack resources for marketing research, as seen before. In addition, the role of marketing has attracted only limited attention of those researching rural tourism (**Gilbert**, 1989, **Page & Getz**, 1997).

Some authors stress the minor role and complementary character that tourism should assume in rural communities. They claim that their main focus should be on farming, considering this activity's social, cultural, economic and ecological function (e.g. **Kappert**, 2000). Others defend that rural tourism can only exist, if there is a rural space with typically rural activities, landscape and way of life to be visited (**Cavaco**, 1995). Tourism may indeed assume a synergetic function, enhancing traditional production through an increased interest in rural heritage. Whatever role tourism is ascribed in rural community development, an effort of carefully planning and conjointly managing tourism through integrated destination marketing should be useful for directing and controlling this activity's evolution and its interaction with other activities.

Conclusion of Chapter 4

This chapter has made an argument for *an integrated and societal destination marketing* effort for rural tourist destinations, in which *sustainable development* is a vital concern. The advantages of strategic marketing planning and management were highlighted and shown as essential determinants for success in a dynamic and competitive international tourist market. The specificity of the tourism product and of the tourist destination justifies particular attention to be given not only to the market, its structure and needs, but also to all those involved in the process of production and eventually affected by it. That is why pre-defined priorities of heritage conservation, overall development goals and forms of associative and participatory planning and management have to be considered.

The traditional strategic marketing tools related to segmentation and positioning are similarly important in destination marketing. *Segmentation* should help a destination choose its target-market, based on a set of criteria, depending on a destination's capacities, resources and main interest. A related step is the *formation of a destination image* in the minds of the target-market and *positioning* in relation to competitors.

The concrete *marketing-mix* approach should include the element "*people*", apart from the traditional «4 Ps», considering the role tourists, service providers, cultural brokers, local population and fellow tourists play for the overall tourist experience. This element may further include the idea of *partnerships* between diverse stakeholders, which should be actively built to enhance tourism development. "*Product policy*" needs to consider the complexity, variability, intangibility, inseparability, pericibility of most tourism products and the integration of non-commercial, and highly fragile items. The understanding of the entire tourism experience, design and control of *processes* and *physical evidence* are considered important factors in this context. *Promotion* relies very much on *image projection* from a variety of more or less controllable sources, which was shown to be of strategic importance. *Price* is an obviously relevant marketing variable, however

more diffuse and difficult to define for a destination. Finally, “*place*” relates to a lot more than to particular distribution channels. It also stands for the place of consumption, which is simultaneously a major benefit sought. The specific geographical, climatic, cultural and social characteristics of that place may not be adapted to the target market’s desires, imposing natural limitations to the development of the destination product. This may call for an increased emphasis on a “*market management*” approach in the sense of “*matching markets that fit best with the region’s product offerings*” (McKercher, 1995).

Rural tourist destinations reveal particular weaknesses due to their dependence on *small scale, traditional* and *geographically dispersed family businesses*, as well as due to their typical *remoteness* and lack of *socio-economic development and resources*. This situation is a frequent *reason for not investing in marketing research*, which unfortunately often leads to a *vicious circle* of *miss-defined products and incoherent marketing activities*.

On the other hand, rural tourist destinations could increase their market success by engaging in *cooperative destination marketing*, based on *partnerships and networks*. Also regional tourism organizations may play an important role in designing and implementing long-term and proactive destination marketing strategies. Especially in the context of *rural tourism*, the importance of *natural and cultural heritage* justifies the need for a not only *integrated*, but also *societal marketing effort*, with a particular concern for *sustainability* of tourism development.

Independently of the role tourism may assume in specific rural areas, *marketing research* and *planning* should be considered a strategic investment. This effort should permit the attraction of the most desirable market and the development of accordingly targeted, priced and distributed products, associated with appealing and distinct destination images.

Part I.2. Image

Chapter 5. The Concept and its Discussion in different Sciences

“Imagination is more important than knowledge.” (Albert Einstein)

One may define “*image*” as the *subjective mental representation of objective reality* (Lilli, 1983, Malaka, 1990). It may be considered a result of *perception*, which may be distinguished as “*sensory*” and “*cognitive*” (see Dretske, 1990, Eysenck & Keane, 1990). Wilkie & Pessemier (1973) suggest that “*image ... is an overall evaluation based upon a set of perceptions concerning an entity*”. In this definition the affective element, generally attributed to attitudes, is also considered fundamental for the *image-concept*. Social psychologists refer to the social element of the individual image or representation of an object. Different approaches focusing on specific types of images, such as brand, product, company or country-images in marketing or destination images in tourism, have led to different definitional emphases and methodological approaches. Very briefly, the complex and wide field defined by this concept is discussed largely by the following epistemological approaches:

- *philosophy*, in discussing the concept of “*reality*”,
- *semiotics*, in analyzing the meaning of images as “*signs*”,
- *psychology*, especially cognitive psychology studying *information processing, perception, learning and memory*, and discussing the concepts of “*mental representation*”, “*schema*”, and “*attitude*”,
- *social psychology* in studying “*social representation*”, “*social construct*” and “*stereotypes*” and
- *marketing*, particularly in consumer behavior, studying “*image*” as an intervening variable in consumer decision making and satisfaction, but also in the context of positioning, brand-management and market communication.

These approaches are presented and discussed in this chapter, with the emphasis on a marketing perspective. Based on this, a working definition of the image concept will be suggested and distinguished from related concepts. Image formation is discussed in further detail because of its importance in destination image research and for the development of hypotheses.

Chapter 5.1. Different Approaches on Image Research

Chapter 5.1.1. Image Discussion in Philosophy

Philosophy fundamentally questions what reality is and how it relates to our perception of it. There are theories about reality existing independent of the human perception of it, as reflected in most positivist approaches⁸². Others suggest *reality to be defined by human perception*, which may be more objective as far as shared by a significant number of individuals through observation, or subjective, as suggested by most phenomenological approaches. According to these the “image” of the world is decisive, the way human beings sense and perceive reality rather than “reality” itself⁸³. **Merleau-Ponty** tried to connect the objective and subjective perspectives in his concept of a “*sensitive idea*”, linking senses, perception and intellect. Based on *phenomenology*, he simultaneously stressed the importance of physical reality, as the object of sensing and perception, and of imagination, which enriches perceived reality (adapted from **Matos Dias**, 1997).

From this perspective also *science* must be questioned. **Thayer** (1982, as cited by **Mick**, 1986: 207) referred to “*scientism*” as “*an ideology that permits us to believe that what we are studying is ‘out there’ rather than ‘in here’, and that what we are after is the ‘truth’, which is, for those who subscribe to the faith, some function of large masses of data.*” The paradox of science is, according to this author, based on the fact that:

1. objectivity is impossible, as theories precede facts and interpretations precede perception (selective perception);
2. reality observed is one that pre-exists and is pre-coded to sustain meaning in social spheres.

The discussion of the value and capacity of science becomes clear in the ontological discussion of paradigms. **Guba & Lincoln** (1994: 105-117) compared positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism as paradigms assuming at one extreme the possibility of perfect objective understanding of reality, at the other the possibility of a relative understanding via transactional consensus of “*constructed realities*”. According to **Levy** (1982, as cited by **Mick**, 1986: 208) “*data and theories are symbols of our profession. It is necessary to face up to the subjectivity that is involved on all sides.*” Thus, any scientific approach has its limitations, is biased by selective

⁸² This view assumes that there is a real physical world, whose existence is independent of our perception of it and distinguishes further perceptive mechanisms. “*Direct (naive) realism*” implies that “*under normal conditions we are, in a direct and unmediated way, perceptually aware of objects and facts*”. “*Representative realism (causal theory of perception)*” defends that “*our perception of physical objects is indirect, mediated by a more direct apprehension of something mental, some internal representation (sensations, ideas, impressions, percepts, sense-data, experiences...)*” (**Dretske**, 1990: 135).

⁸³ This is well expressed by **Dretske** (1990): “*everything that exists depends for its existence on someone’s awareness of it... If we do not see physical objects, if we are (in sense perception) always aware of mental images (representations) of external objects..., then our knowledge of objective reality (if, indeed, we have such knowledge) will necessarily derive from and be secondary to our knowledge of our mental states.*”

perception and pre-coding of reality. In the study of human behavior, which is naturally most concerned with subjective reality, these biases must be considered and should lead to great care in research design and interpretation of results. The quality of methodology and interpretation depend again on conventions, on commonly accepted theories into which results may be logically integrated, and on the application of commonly used methods suggested to be capable of testing theory. These conventions may reduce the subjectivity inherent in interpretation and contribute to the advance of shared human knowledge, however biased and limited it may be.

The relevance of *subjective reality* is especially acknowledged in the study of consumer behavior⁸⁴ and is also defended in this thesis. Considering the fact that the tourism product is essentially decided upon before actual confrontation with the real destination, and based upon the imagination of idealized experiences, the role of images in destination choice becomes evident.

Chapter 5.1.2. Image Discussion in Semiotics

Semiotics can be defined as the “*doctrine of signs*”, analyzing structures of meaning-producing events, both verbal and non-verbal (Mick, 1986). The founder of semiotics, **Ferdinand de Saussure** (1915), focused on linguistic signs as “*wholly arbitrary, dyadic relationship between a concept (object) that is the signified and a sound image that is the signifier (spoken word)...*” Based on the assumption that reality is only sensible to human beings as it is pre-coded for us at birth through arbitrary, conventional signs, he tried to identify linguistic structure through the revelation of opposite meanings of words. From a phenomenological standpoint, symbols are primary tools of human understanding (Mick, 1986).

Pearce (cited by Mick, 1986) suggested a *triade system*, composed of “*sign*”, “*object*” and “*interpretant*”. He distinguished three types of sign, depending on their relation with the object:

- *iconic sign*: imitates, resembles the object
- *indexical sign*: correspondence of fact, causal relations
- *symbolic sign*: conventional, interpreter creates signifying connection

Morris (cited by Mick, 1986) called semiotics a “*comprehensive science of signs*” studying mainly the following relations:

- *syntactics* = sign-sign relations
- *semantics* = sign-object relations
- *pragmatics* = sign-interpretant relations

⁸⁴ According to **Spiegel** (1961), “*not the objective nature of a product is reality in market psychology, but only the consumers’ imagination/ perception*”.

Eco (1976, cited by **Mick**, 1986) stresses the importance of “*abduction*” as a rule of knowledge generation at the presence of a sign. Abduction is based on a known result, linked to a culturally learned rule and applied to a specific case (in a probabilistic manner). It is of a more inventive, intuitive, creative nature than deduction and induction, and occurs especially in under-coded, more ambiguous contexts, as is often the case for images used as signs. **Lindekens** (1976) discusses the *iconic specificity* of image, being immediately, analogously read from visible reality. He suggests visual perception as the basis of language, being numerous mental operations visually conditioned.

Porcher (1987) focuses on *images as signs*, also designed as “*icons*”, and the study of their meanings. He shows that images dispose of more semantic richness and ambiguity than words⁸⁵, with interpretation depending largely on context, as well as on the perceiver and his/ her social and cultural background⁸⁶. Usually, a constellation of signifiers (icons) determines one signified (object). Context must be perceived as “natural” or credible and may manipulate interpretation (“*iconic context*”). **Porcher** shows that advertising reflects modern society of consumption (see also **Belk & Pollay**, 1985), leading to both satisfaction and frustration via metaphoric, imaginary consumption⁸⁷. Generally, consumer research studies the role of signs in the context of attitude formation, sociology of consumption meaning, market-communication and consumer mythology (**Mick**, 1986). **Scott** (1994) suggests a “*theory of visual rhetoric*”⁸⁸, since “*pictures are not merely analogues to visual perception but symbolic artifacts constructed from the conventions of a particular culture*”. That is, despite of the semantic richness of images, they may be interpreted according to specific social and cultural rules and correspondingly used in communication.

Chapter 5.1.3. Image Discussion in Psychology

Image can be understood as the *result of a subjective and selective perception process*. This includes the assimilation, storing and enrichment of information, integrates affective and cognitive aspects, and serves the function of orientation and risk reduction.

As images of reality are suggested to be of a rather subjective nature, a psychological analysis of human perception would be a basic approach to the concept. In this field, *cognitive psychology* has engaged in exhaustive research. It has achieved a considerable body of knowledge, ranging from

⁸⁵ “*la pluralité des sens possibles... la multiplicité des chemins possibles d’un même sens... contribuent à faire de l’image une puissance signifiante remarquable*” (**Porcher**, 1987: 106).

⁸⁶ “*il n’y a pas une seule lecture de l’image...chacun effectue des constructions perceptives, introduit dans l’image, par projection, des éléments imaginaires, fonction des séries cognitives propres à l’individu... possible d’agir sur la liberté d’interprétation... la variation des lectures n’est pas anarchique... (mais) relatives a niveaux socio-culturels...*” (**Porcher**, 1987: 142-143).

⁸⁷ He refers in this context to **Baudrillard’s** (1968) criticism of advertising as “*cynical*” in creating an unreachable “*dream world*” detracting from real problems affecting society.

⁸⁸ He defines “*rhetoric*” as “*an interpretative theory that frames a message as an interested party’s attempt to influence an audience (by) argument, evidence, and order of argumentation and style of delivery*”.

theories about visual and sensory perception, over theories of cognitive integration and treatment of sensory data to theories about learning and memory. Apart from *neuro-physiological* approaches in image research, focusing on the neural substrate for cognitive registrations (**Banks & Krajicek**, 1991), a broad range of experiences combining stimulus exposure with introspection are used. Introspection has been criticized as not accounting for individuals' poor awareness of most cognitive processes⁸⁹, but is still the only way of much of hypotheses testing in the field, permitting valid conclusions when carefully conducted. Also computer science studies human perception, principally in the context of artificial intelligence trying to simulate human cognitive processes. Generally two dimensions of “*image building*” or “*perception*” may be distinguished⁹⁰:

1. The “*sensory image*” is based on sensory data received from the environment. This level may be thought of as principally stimulus-orientated implying a rather superficial recognition of basic features and patterns of the external world, basically via neuro-biological processes.
2. The “*meaningful image*” is based on the integration of “*sensory images*” into pre-existing schemata, i.e. patterns of association, by means of internal cognitive processes. That is, based on an accumulation of perceived “images” of reality, its phenomena, objects, persons, situations and events (“experience”), individuals engage in subjective “*reality construction*”, which successively influences the way they “see” (perceive) reality.

Lilli (1983) designates the first type of perception as “*stimulus-bounded*”, the second as “*organism-bounded*”, with the latter implying the three functions of “*knowledge/ orientation*”, “*expectation/ prediction*” and “*consistence/ stability*”. It is generally assumed that the first type of image precedes the second. Even non-stimulus-based image creation draws on some kind of past sensory images. There has been evidence for a *sequential information processing* in which sensory data serves as the input. However, cognitive processing, even if not very profound or complex, has been found already at that initial stage. This is particularly true for the phenomena related to *selective attention and perception*, which more or less unconsciously direct sensation and perception, according to individual motivation and pre-sensory cognitive structures⁹¹.

Dual coding theory assumes that there are two types of *storage systems* corresponding to these two *forms of perception*: a verbal and a non-verbal. The non-verbal system is suggested to store more concrete and holistic contents and images. The verbal system is used for rather abstract contents.

⁸⁹ “*Perception has a “logic” of its own that is often inaccessible to conscious, declarative knowledge*” (**Banks & Krajicek**, 1991: 325).

⁹⁰ “*It seems preferable... not (to)... artificially reserve the word perception for one way of seeing... but rather by distinguishing two forms of perception, two ways of seeing: ...sense perception....(and).... cognitive perception (involving knowledge).*” (**Dretske**, 1990: 132-133)

⁹¹ People have been found to use both expectancies and data to form impressions, which is related to the concept of “*self-fulfilling prophecies*” (**Fiske**, 1993) and highlights the importance of pre-existing images.

That is, the non-verbal coding would relate to rather “*sensory images*”, and the verbal coding to “*meaningful images*”. Links between the two systems are assumed. The most important differences between both types of information are (Eysenck & Keane, 1990: 205):

LANGUAGE (VERBAL)	PICTURE (NON-VERBAL)
Discrete symbols	No discrete symbols
Explicit, needs symbols for relation	Implicit, no separate symbol for relation
Grammar, rules for combining types of symbols	No clear combination rules of types of symbols
Abstract (any kind of perception)	Concrete (visual perception)

Table 3. Differences between verbal and pictorial mental representation

Non-verbal mental representation is also called *analogous*, as corresponding more to stimuli encountered in reality. This applies to all kind of sensorial data (visual, auditory, olfactory, tactile or kinetic) and contrasts with *propositional* or language-like representation, based on abstraction and symbols for meaning-construction. Some argue that analogous and propositional processes and representations are impossible to distinguish, whereas others defend the existence of a dual system (Eysenck & Keane, 1990).

In this context the concept of “*imagery*” must be mentioned, which can be understood as a “*picture-like representation operating in its own special medium, quite distinct from propositional representation*” (Eysenck & Keane, 1990, 207-235). The so-called “*imagery processing*” is suggested to depend upon more holistic or *Gestalt* methods of representing information. It is also called “*mental picturing*” and contrasts with “*discursive processing*” which is based on pieces of information (MacInnis & Price, 1987). Imagery is suggested to be parallel to vision, producing “*the experience of seeing in the absence of the appropriate sensory input;... seeing... with the mind’s eye*” (Kosslyn, 1987). According to this author, the term image is ambiguous, “*referring both to a phenomenological experience and to an internal representation (code) that gives rise to this percept-like experience...*”.

It has been suggested that the *right brain hemisphere* is rather specialized in processing information about the global shape of a stimulus, permitting “navigation” within a holistic stimulus-system, whereas the *left brain hemisphere* focuses on information about categorical details (Kosslyn, 1987). MacInnis & Price (1987) defend that both attribute-based and holistic perceptions are included in the image concept. They suggest a sequence of an initially holistic evaluation, followed by a stage of a more cognitive, attribute-based closer evaluation. Further discussion exists about whether *image* contains *evaluations* at all or should rather be limited to *cognitive data*, or else *imagery-based* information (MacInnis & Price, 1987).

Generally, it can be said that reaction to stimuli is *simultaneously stimulus- and person-driven*, and that the human mind is not just a passive receptor. It is the more active and constructive of its “own reality”, the more ambiguous the stimulus, the poorer the environmental information and the more emotion-evoking the phenomenon. In this context, the rules of *Gestalt theory*, explaining how stimuli are perceived, contingent upon their environment, are frequently referred to (**Banks & Krajicek**, 1991). *Irradiation* has been identified as a biasing phenomenon, meaning that the whole perception is marked by specific outstanding attributes of an object. On the other hand, the *halo-effect* is suggested to bias the perception of single attributes by the way people evaluate the whole. Finally, the human mind is able to *imagine without stimulus-presence*, being quite autonomous in its “*reality-construction*”.

Cognitive psychology suggests that perception is directly linked to *learning*, which can be understood as the integration of information in existing storage systems (schemas and scripts) (**Kroeber-Riel**, 1992). One of its results is the capacity of *stimulus generalization* and *discrimination*. Accordingly, similar behavior can be expected in similar stimulus contexts, and adequate behaviors should be distinguished in different situations, considering before-experienced outcomes. Additionally, the learning process depends on whether the stimulus-reaction has been directly experienced by the perceiver, usually leading to more vivid and memorable images, with a stronger effect on behavior, or by an observed third person. It further depends on already existing knowledge and value-systems, on the type of stimulus perceived, on the learning conditions (degree of *activation*) and individual characteristics of the perceiver. Learning results in *memory*, which can be understood as the storing of all subjectively perceived information or images in mental networks. This may later be activated at the presence of external or internal stimuli (“*retrieval*”).

Images fulfill the function of *subjective coping with reality* (**Lilli**, 1983), insofar as:

- images result from sensorial contact with objects and facts in the environment,
- represent knowledge and expectations and
- are quickly accessible, imposing orientation.

Underlying these theories is the assumption from neuro-psychology of the existence of a mental information assimilation, processing and storage system, also denominated as network, which is suggested to permit physical traces of all psychological processes in the human brain. These “*cognitive structures*” contain five major types of cognitions (**Sirgy**, 1983: 40-41, based on **Fishbein & Ajzen**, 1975, **Rokeach**, 1960): concepts, percepts, values, perceptions, and beliefs.

A “*concept*” may be defined as a “*mental representation of a set of objects or events stored in the cognitive structures or memory banks of an individual*” (**Sirgy**, 1983: 40, citing **Paivio**, 1971). It

has been designed as “*image*” by **Simon & Feigenbaum** (1964, as cited by **Sirgy**, 1983). A “*specific conceptual structure or cognitive schema activated at a given moment in time*” is referred to as “*frame of reference*” (**Sirgy**, 1983: 42-43).

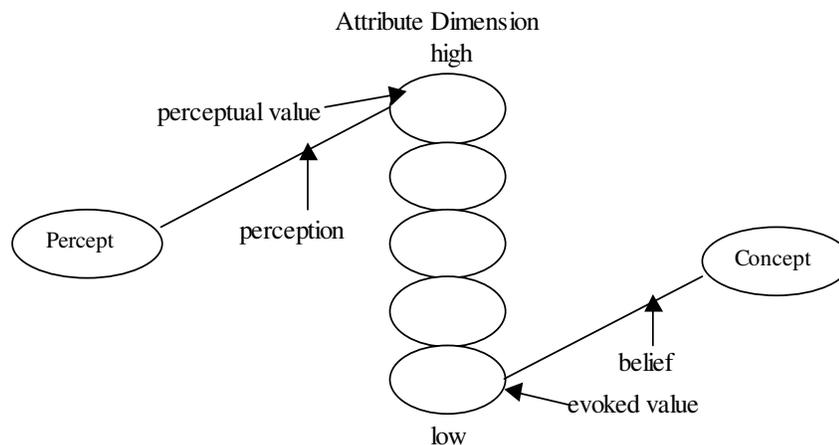


Fig.15 Cognitive structure involved in a congruity process (adapted from **Sirgy**, 1983)

A “*percept*” can be defined as “*a concept placed in the focus of attention*” (**Sirgy**, 1983). Both concepts and percepts may be characterized by *attributes*, which may be defined by positive or negative *values* or *meanings* (**Osgood et al**, 1957). *Perceptual values* are related to percepts, whereas *evoked values* are assigned to concepts. “*Perceptions*” may be defined as “*psychological links... between a percept and a perceptual value...*” “*Beliefs*”, on the other hand, are “*psychological links... between concepts and evoked values...*” (**Sirgy**, 1983: 40-41). These may be more or less central, i.e. interrelated with other beliefs in memory. The corresponding “*frame of reference*” may be more or less *differentiated* depending on the number of conceptual attributes contained and present more or less narrowly defined categories (“*category width*”). **Sirgy** (1983: 43-46) suggests that “*highly central evoked cognitions may have a frame of reference that contains highly differentiated cognitions involving attributes of narrow category width*”.

The sometimes suggested definition of image as “*an overall evaluation based upon a set of perceptions concerning an entity*” (**Wilkie & Pessemier**, 1973, **Dichter**, 1985) resembles the definition of “*attitude*”. Others defend that it represents a *multidimensional* or *multi-attribute* concept, accessible via a “*weighted sum rating model*”. In this context, the *three-component-theory*, borrowed from attitude research (see also chapter 5.2.1) may be applied. However, researchers abandoned the fruitless “*either – or*” debate concerning algebraic versus Gestalt models of impression formation (**Fiske**, 1993: 161).

The results found by *means-end-analysis* can also be transferred to image research. Consequently, an image can be understood as the subjectively perceived capacity of an object to satisfy a need.

This conceptualization is relevant in so far as it links cognition to motivation. In the context of social cognition theory “*motivated behavior functions to reduce a deviation state involving one or more activated cognitive needs*” (Sirgy, 1983: 110). Sirgy (1983: 46-52) suggests three primary cognitive human needs: *cognitive enhancement*, *consistency*, and *differentiation*. The first refers to the value content of activated concepts. It aims at the minimization of negative and the maximization of positive emotions and should be determinant for goal-directed behavior. The second refers to the need for a match between beliefs and perceptions with consistency leading to a positive and dissonance to a negative affect state. The third need refers to the likelihood of an individual to acquire information based on the strength and centrality of already existing beliefs.

In this thesis the position is defended that an image is an *important psychological concept*. It is *holistic, multi-attribute and multi-dimensional* in essence and *contains cognitive, affective and imagery* elements. It is *related to behavior*, in being of a preparatory, orienting and motivational nature. However, behavior itself is not considered a component of the construct. Any limitation of the concept, especially in the context of destination image, is rejected. The associations, connotations and impressions that are generally related to these images are so multifaceted and rich that any restriction would seem a theoretically-based and arbitrary attempt to categorize pieces of a person’s minds, which seem to be typically intertwined, producing a synergetic whole with diverse dimensions and qualities. Image is further understood as part of the *individually created subjective reality*, which is a *result of complex and biased selective perception, learning and memorizing, resulting itself in image-biased behavior*. This behavior aims at the satisfaction of needs through the confrontation of prior and actual images, i.e. beliefs (expectations) and perceptions.

In psychology, other terms can be identified which are very close to the *image construct* and which some authors claim to be more correct to use such as the concept of “*attitude*” or “*schema*”. The distinction between these concepts will be discussed in chapter 5.2.

Chapter 5.1.4. Image Discussion in Social Psychology

Social psychology can be defined as the science that analyzes the “*psychological phenomena visible in daily social life as well as the psychological consequences of cultural conditions, and the mental adaptation to these*” (DTV, 1972). Based on a simultaneous interest in the human being and in society, it recognizes the role of society and human interaction in all psychological processes as well as the role of psychological phenomena in shaping society. This perspective can also be applied to the analysis of images or mental representations. Already **Boulding** (1956) explained that “*part of our image of the world is the belief that this image is shared by other people like ourselves who also are part of our image of the world*”. This author distinguishes between “*public*”

and “*private knowledge*”, being the “*public image*” communicateable and understandable by others, based on shared value systems.

Representations are frequently of a social nature, implying sociological analyses of the processes leading to a specific shared perception of reality. The role of “*symbolic interactionism*” must be stressed in this context. This stands for “*processes by which individuals understand their world... interpreting the actions of others rather than simply reacting to them*” (Solomon, 1983). It is assumed that meaning is negotiated and constructed through intra-personal and interpersonal discourse, as also assumed by Sirgy’s (1983: 3-7) *social cognition paradigm*. This author explains the role of *social cognition* in consumer behavior, referring to its roots and development in the following sub-areas:

- “*Expectancy-value theory*”, based on Tolman’s (1932) initial work and well-known by Rosenberg’s (1956) and Fishbein’s (1963, 1967) models. This theory assumes that human behavior is a function of the expectation of value attainment through a specific behavior, considering the subjective importance of that value. Both expectations and values are relevant for image-formation and consequently behavior. Expectancy-value models have been frequently used in image-studies (e.g. Goodrich, 1978, Woodside, 1982, Chon, 1990).
- “*Social comparison theory*” is based on the assumed human tendency to “*infer information about themselves by comparing themselves with others*” (Sirgy, 1983: 4, referring to Festinger, 1966). This theory is most adequate for the analysis of stereotyped images of others in relation to self-image. As far as images of objects are concerned, it may apply indirectly through the attribution of personality-characteristics to objects and the symbolic nature of object/ product use. Thus, the typical object-user identified by the object-stimulus may be the basis for social comparison. In consumer behavior research this domain has been approached by the “*product-self-congruity*” theory (Sirgy, 1983, Malhotra, 1981).
- “*Implicit personality theory*” studies the associations among personality traits and the creation of prototypes of kinds of persons. Also this approach is most adequate for the analysis of images of persons rather than objects, although the symbolic meaning of objects may lend this theory to the physical object-domain.
- “*Attribution theory*” studies the way in which individuals attribute the causes of their behavior (or that of others) to specific factors. This theory may be most adequate for behavior analysis and learning, but may also explain the reinforcement or change of cognitive systems or images of certain objects, events or persons.

- “**Information integration theory**” explains how “*cognitive relations may be integrated into an overall impression... (leading to)... social inference*” (Sirgy, 1983: 6). This approach based on cognitive processing is particularly useful for image-research, where the integration of diverse elements into an overall impression is frequently assumed.
- “**Categorization theory**” focuses on concept formation, pattern recognition, stimulus identification and stereotyping, based on cognitive schemata, as studied by Bruner and colleagues in the 1940’s and 50’s and by Taylor and associates in the 1970’s. This approach may be considered an extension of the above-mentioned. Schemata as cognitive structures are frequently used in image-research.
- “**Consistency theory**” stresses the importance of congruence of integrated information, as discussed for example by Festinger (1957) in his “*cognitive dissonance theory*”. This theory may lend itself to explain the way new information is integrated in existing cognitive structures or may lead to their modifications. It is therefore an interesting approach for the study of image formation and change. This is also true for:
- “**Belief centrality theory**”, which studies the hierarchy and degree of integration of beliefs, their role for the definition of self and the corresponding consequences of information-assimilation, as analyzed for example by Rokeach in the 60’s and 70’s.

These approaches are linked to those discussed in the field of psychology, with an emphasis on cognitive processes. These are in the field of social psychology most often related to social stimuli, the definition of self in the social context and individual behavior in the social environment.

Focusing on the image-concept the notions “*social construct*”, “*social representation*” and “*stereotype*” are worthy of notice. For some sociologists, the concept “*image*” refers only to a rather passive reproduction of an external stimulus, whereas “*social representation*” combines these images as a higher-order signifier (Santiago, 1996).

Santiago (1996: 80) defines the term “**social construct**” as a “*product of mental activity, as a combination or organized universe of opinions, beliefs, images, knowledge, information and attitudes, related to general or specific properties of an object or a situation, which might be present or absent from the subjects’ perceptive field.*” Human attitudes and behaviors are influenced by these “*interpretative, individual or group schemata, which integrate data that is not only of a cognitive, but also affective and symbolic nature, expressing... differentiated modes and types of knowledge of social reality and ways of action or pre-disposition of action towards this reality*” (Santiago, 1996: 74). This “**social representation**” seems to be resistant to change, especially in its psychologically more deeply rooted core. According to Santiago (1996), one may distinguish two

main propositions in the context of “*social construction*”, attributing different degrees of autonomy to the individual:

1. Socio-cultural and -institutional factors deriving from ideologies, value systems and norms are the main determinants in the process of “*social construction*” (e.g. **Moscovici**, 1976, **Gilly**, 1980).
2. The individual, viewed as more autonomous, creates and transforms *social representations* in a dynamic interpersonal and inter-group process (e.g. **Jodelet**, 1984).

However the emphasis, it is generally accepted that reality is perceived by the human being in an indirect way. It is internally represented with the influence of a variety of individual and social factors. These constructs further shape individual behavior and life in society. *Social representation* is considered to be of an evaluative nature, as a “*structured set of widely shared attitudes*” (**Moliner & Tafani**, 1997). Its functions are related to the individual’s need of orientation, comprehension and integration in a meaningfully structured social reality.

Another term often referred to in this context is “*stereotype*”, which may be considered a specific type of social construct or representation, as discussed later (see chapter 5.2.3).

In this thesis the *sharing of images* is considered a relevant phenomenon also in the context of destination images. It is particularly analyzed when looking at benefit-segments and destination image differences as a consequence of socio-cultural and geographical proximity (domestic versus international tourist market), or as a consequence of age (“*generation*”), gender or education. Group-specific, socially constructed destination images and stereotypes are thus suggested to exist.

Chapter 5.1.5. Image Discussion in Marketing

The contemporary use of the term “*image*” is often related to the domain of marketing, reflecting the way in which the public views products, brands, the company and/ or its representatives. The importance of this concept in an increasingly competitive business environment is based on the need of each brand to be noticed and evaluated as appealing before purchase and as satisfactory afterwards. “*Image*” in that sense is suggested to have an impact on consumer behavior in terms of preference, choice and satisfaction and may be more decisive for business success than the “objective” features of an offering. This is particularly true for products with one or several of the following characteristics:

- imply a high level of *risk*;
- are *difficult to judge*;
- are of *public usage* and of high *status value*;
- are of relatively high personal *importance*;

- are *services*, being marked by *inseparability*, *variability*, *intangibility*, and *lack of ownership* (see p.14)
- have a *lack of “search qualities”*, being rather determined by “*experience*” and “*credence qualities*”.⁹²

All these features, plus the *physical and socio-cultural distance* between the place of purchase and that of consumption, are responsible for a higher risk associated with tourist products and an increased difficulty in judging them. Further, tourism is an important social and individual phenomenon through which tourists attempt to compensate for unsatisfied needs in their daily lives and/ or to come closer to self-actualization.

Objects of image-research in marketing have been image-objects as diverse as *product images*, *brand images*, *company images*, *buyer images*, *store-images*, *country-of-origin images* and *place images*. *Product image* refers to the image held by consumers on products, which is frequently related to a product’s *brand image*, namely its identification and associations caused by names and symbols. *Company image* is often related to product images, in so far as the association of several brands or products to the manufacturing or distributing company may be used strategically, conferring them characteristics associated with the firm. Company image is also used for internal marketing, creating identity, involvement and motivation. *Store-image-analysis* refers to specific marketing concerns of the retailer, such as the attraction potential of a shop, due to its ambiance, the type and assortment of products offered, the type of clients attracted, and so on⁹³. Store-image may be related to company-image, product and brand-image of items sold, buyer images and stakeholder-images. *Country-of-origin images* refer to the images consumers hold on the country of production, related usually to product class competency attributed to a country, or mentality stereotypes of its population. This may serve as a proxy variable for evaluating products when other information is lacking, implying a “*halo effect*” (Han, 1989). Finally, *buyer image* is especially important for products with symbolic consumption, leaning on associations with types of persons, social roles, status and life style. This domain has been especially studied in connection with the self-image construct. Already Levy (1959) defended that consumers tend to prefer the brand whose image is congenial to them. Developing this idea, Sirgy (1983) distinguishes between *actual*, *ideal* and *social self-image*. This author empirically confirmed the relationship between

⁹² Kaas & Busch (1996: 243-245) explain that “*search quality*” is given, if a product feature is identifiable via inspection before purchase. “*Experience quality*” may only be identified via use or consumption of the product, i.e. after purchase. The consumer cannot exactly measure “*credence quality*”, even after purchase.

⁹³ Martineau (1958) defines store image as “*the way the store is defined in the shopper’s mind, partly by its functional qualities and partly by an aura of psychological attributes.*” He also considers other stakeholders’ perceptions as a component of company image (effective and potential clients, employees, deliverers, neighbors, salespersons). Fisk (1962) attributes a “gate keeper” function to store image, as “*everything about a store either attracts or repels a certain market segment*”.

self-product-image congruity and brand preference, especially in the case of ideal self-concepts (see also **Hong & Zinkhan**, 1995, **Graeff**, 1996). Actual self-concepts were found more related to purchase intention (**Sirgy & Su**, 2000).

Lilli (1983) stresses the large variety of meanings attributed to the term “*image*”, which “*is one of the main difficulties in image research.*” A second difficulty lies in the “*total overestimation of the concept... often used as a «magic formula»*”. The vagueness of the concept in its common use does not invalidate a more rigorous definition and application of the term in consumer and marketing research. Generally, marketing literature has focused on two main domains when studying “*image*”, namely on (social) *psychology* (role of image in *consumer behavior*, information processing, attitude formation, relation to self-image, etc.), and on *management sciences* (strategic *marketing*, image policy).

Linking social psychology and marketing, **Spiegel** (1961) suggests a market model, based on Lewin’s field theory⁹⁴. This model illustrates the experience-based individual distance from objects in an n-dimensional, orthogonal space. With the introduction of an object into this space, “favorites” and “opposites”, “indifferent” and “uninformed” individual positions form groups of reaction to this object. For marketers the best position in the field would correspond to a maximum of “favorites”. Market niches may be identified where many indifferent consumers are concentrated, representing a market opportunity.

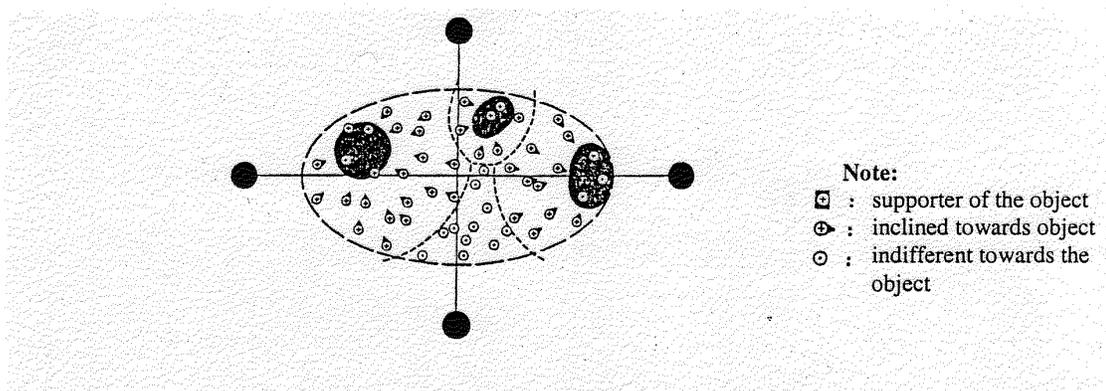


Fig. 16. Spiegel’s (1961) socio-psychological market field model
Source: **Malaka** (1990)

Concretely, image is assessed via semantic differential scales to identify each person’s position. Competing products may be depicted in different space positions. For evaluating a product’s

⁹⁴ According to this theory, individuals with physiological and psychological needs feel tension, which they try to reduce through reaction. Needs thus influence perceived attractiveness of alternatives in terms of their capacity of tension reduction (“outcomes”), denominated as “*valence*”. Behavior depends on the value attributed to an outcome (“appealing value”) (see **Lilli**, 1983).

market position not only its distance to market groups counts, but also its relative position in this market-space in terms of distance from other products, associated needs and “*appealing values*”. This model, although of great impact in the German-speaking marketing literature, has not received much empirical attention, as some constructs seem difficult to operationalize. **Lilli** (1983) questions whether the *collective* dimensions of the field are appropriate, as especially for new products perceptual heterogeneity should exist. Individual positions in the perceptual field may also change over time. The model’s theoretical interest justifies its consideration as an important contribution to image-research by stimulating discussion and development of other models. Still today, researchers attempt to visualize simultaneously consumer groups, product images and ideal positions, implicitly assuming the existence of such a “*socio-psychological market field or space*”.

Chapter 5.1.5.a. Image in the context of Consumer Behavior

According to **Johnson** (1974), “*choice is only affected by important and differently perceived items*”. The relation between *image, preference and choice* has been an important issue in attempting to understand consumer behavior.

In this context, **Sirgy’s** (1982, 1983) work on social cognition in marketing is worth of notice. This author defines *consumer behavior* as “*the study of the physical, biological, and/ or psychological structures and processes of a system that consumes value or utility exchanged by another system for the purpose of accomplishing some specified goal*” (**Sirgy**, 1983: 15). This author suggests a classification scheme for consumer behavior, specifically distinguishing different unit and process levels of analysis, process and structure, descriptive versus normative research, as well as the focus on different marketing-mix elements and product levels. From this point of view, *image analysis* may be located at the *individual consumer* or a *more aggregated level*. It may be undertaken at a *micro* level, studying neuro-psychological aspects of perception and memorization, at the *micro-macro* level, reflected by the “*hierarchy of effects*” paradigm (cognitive→ affective→ behavioral), or at the *macro level*, looking at larger time-frames. It may typically be studied as a *process variable*, permitting change over time, i.e. integrated in a consumer behavior process as a dependent variable. It may also be analyzed as a *structural variable*, in terms of a stable generalized pattern, which may be used as an antecedent, exogenous or independent variable in determining consumer processes⁹⁵. It may be viewed either from a *descriptive* angle, aiming at an understanding of consumer behavior, or from a *normative perspective*, striving for optimal behaviors or situations. As far as the *marketing mix* is concerned, image may be most related to the

⁹⁵ For example, product and brand images are often studied as process variables, determined by other independent variables and impacting on consumer behavior. On the other hand, buyer-, self- and country-of-origin image may be studied as structural, more stable antecedent variables, determining decision-making.

product variable, but is also relevant for *promotion decisions*. *Strategically*, image must be considered for *target market* and *positioning* decisions. At the product level, both *brand* and *product category* images may be objects of image studies.

Sirgy (1983) developed a model, which he designed as “*social cognition consumer-decision cycle*”. This is positioned within “*the individual unit level, describing micro-macro consumer processes with direct relevance to the marketing mix elements, ...applicable to services, organizations, persons and ideas...on both product levels (brand and generic)*” (Sirgy, 1983: 28). He specifies that “*with respect to product decisions, those stages involving product image perception, product need recognition, brand image perception, brand preference, brand choice, brand performance perception, brand satisfaction, brand image revision, and brand loyalty are most important*” (Sirgy, 1983: 33). The image-construct used in the present study follows this argument of a *marketing-related consumer-behavior process variable, relevant for explaining both consumer behavior and prescribing adequate marketing decisions*.

Malaka (1990) explains that image assumes the *functions* of *information, selection, risk reduction, support of self-image* and *adaptation* in the social context. Lilli (1983) stresses the function of image as a means of *subjective coping with reality*. The role image assumes is suggested to depend on the *degree of cognitive control* in decision-making. This is marked by ego-involvement, influenced by situation, personal predisposition and product features (Malaka, 1990). Thus, for *impulsive buying decisions* image is suggested to be less important, as extensive memory-retrieval does not take place. In the case of *habitual buying* with a reduced decision effort, image may originally have contributed to habit-establishment, with image stability and brand loyalty mutually enhancing each other. *More cognitively developed buying-decisions*, especially in the simplified version, should be *more image-dependent* (Howard & Sheth, 1969). In this case, image is central, functioning as a *quickly available quality surrogate and thereby reducing effort and perceived risk*. Malaka (1990) defends that for *extensive buying decisions* image may be less important, as active information search takes place (especially in the case of novelties and products with no stable image). Summarizing Malaka’s and Howard & Sheth’s views, image would be neither important at the one extreme of impulsive and habitual buying behavior nor at the other extreme of extensive cognitive decision making, but is essential in the case of limited cognitive processes. However, extensive decision-making should also be influenced by pre-existing images. It should still be essential for a product to get into the evoked set of considered alternatives in the first place. Also the reduced capacity of complete information-acquisition and the importance of affect and symbolism in consumption should grant image some role in the process.

The importance of image for decision-making seems to be further linked to other variables, such as:

- personal (if the person is a more or less rational buyer, in which context he/ she is more likely to be affected by symbolism and risk-reducing strategies, if the person is more or less risk-averse, traditional, brand-loyal, knowledgeable about certain products etc.)
- product type (social or private consumption, social/ cultural meaning, perceived risk of purchase, complexity, credence, experience, inspection and search qualities⁹⁶)
- purchase situation (e.g. time available for decision making)

Fishbein (1967) and **Trommsdorff** (1975)⁹⁷ suggest models that measure the *attitude* towards an object. These reveal the role of image in consumer decision-making via product liking, assessed as a summary indicator. **Fishbein** (1967, cited by **Malaka**, 1990: 71) suggests that image is the more relevant for decision-making the more it is based on a positive personal experience, i.e. the perception of the product's performance or its "*experience quality*".⁹⁸

Lilli (1983), however, stresses the overestimation of the behavioral relevancy of measured attitudes and images. Thus, the causal relation between attitude and behavior may not be as convincing, since correlation studies and not causal studies are dominant in empirical analysis, providing mixed evidence. In addition, also the opposite direction (behavior-> attitude) may occur. Several attitudes may exist concerning one object, leaving the question open as to which is relevant for behavior. Some researchers have found better results for situation-specific attitude-measurement.

Finally, researchers have studied the impact of the image of one brand on that of another, eventually corrupting the above mentioned effects. **Alba & Chattopadhyay** (1986) identified an "*inhibition effect*" on the recall of other brands resulting from the prominent activation power of a salient brand. Many other inhibitors or facilitators may actually be found, such as situation, social group pressure, etc. However, the existence of an effect of image on consumer behavior-relevant variables (liking, preference, choice, purchase, word-of-mouth) has been shown in many circumstances. The strength of this effect may differ according to different circumstances, though.

Chapter 5.1.5.b. Image in the context of Marketing Planning and Management

Consumer and marketing management research are often complementary and intertwined, as explained in the discussion of **Spiegel's** and **Sirgy's** models. Marketing management focuses

⁹⁶ For a discussion of these terms in the context of *information economy* see **Kaas & Busch** (1996), **Schade & Schott** (1993) and **Zeithaml** (1991).

⁹⁷ **Trommsdorff's** image-model, popular in the German-speaking literature, also distinguishes the affective and cognitive components of image, but constructs the summary indicator as a sum of absolute differences between perceived and ideal values. He hereby avoids distorting effects caused by multiplication in the average-weighted-sum models, typical for the **Fishbein** versions.

⁹⁸ "*personal liking of a product does not make a difference, but the perceived instrumentality of the product to reach positive outcomes and avoid negative, compared with others...*", though it may be discussed whether perceived instrumentality does not lead to liking, being all dimensions of the final holistic image.

mainly on *image projection*, in the sense of creating a favorable predisposition towards the product/ brand through the development of a series of positive and (consumption-) motivating associations. Obviously, this can only be achieved based on a sound knowledge of the consumer, his/ her motivations and perceptions. Thus, **Wiswede** (1973, as quoted by **Malaka**, 1990) stresses the need for *psychological content congruency* when aiming at an image with impact, being image related to *motivational structure* and *self-image* of the buyer. **Park et al** (1986) suggest that a firm derives a *brand concept*⁹⁹ from *basic consumer needs (functional, symbolic, and experiential)*. They recommend that this should be carefully *managed over time*, considering the evolution of underlying consumer motivations. They also point at the possibility of *positioning* products with a functional, symbolic or experiential image, or a mixture of benefits.

This image may be based both on *product-development* and *promotion*. Stressing the role of product-development, **Lilli** (1983) suggests *image* as an instrument in marketing, with a *diagnostic and prognostic function*: “Based on timely and exact knowledge of images and preferences of the public, it should be possible to better adapt products to consumer desires” (**Lilli**, 1983: 414). Focusing on image communication, **Durgee & Stuart** (1987) suggest the selection of *relevant “meaning profiles”* according to most valued consumption experiences and the use of corresponding marketing messages, brand names and symbols. **Lilli** (1983: 445) claims that “in market psychology image corresponds to a means of communication between producer and consumer” and may function in substitution of more direct communication forms. This view is related to the concept of “*integrated market communication*” (“everything communicates”, **Lendrevie et al.**, 1993). Accordingly, an image is constructed by the total *set of brand-related activities engaged by the firm* (**Gardner & Levy**, 1955) or the “*gestalt configuration of marketing mix elements*” (**Park et al**, 1986). Similarly, **Magyar** (1971, cited by **Malaka**, 1990) distinguishes marketing measures with direct image-purposes and others, impacting on image.

Focusing on marketing planning and management, **Malaka** (1990) stresses the role of image in decision-making, leading from psychological market research to the definition of marketing instruments. He suggests an *image-oriented decision model* with the following steps:

- *image-sensibilization*: determination of the *image field* (relevant image objects, competitors, target-market)
- *image-measurement*: selection of sample and procedure, data collection and analysis

⁹⁹ Image-projection is closely related to the creation and management of *brands*, which can be viewed as signs identifying and differentiating products (**Kotler et al.**, 1999), conferring them specific qualities and *personalities* (**Kapferer**, 1991, **Aaker**, 1997, **Azevedo & Farhangmehr**, 2000) that motivate their consumption. The economic value that a brand represents for a company has been designed as *brand equity*, which is generally considered a strategic asset (**Kapferer**, 1991, **Serra & Gonzalez**, 1998, **Ruão & Farhangmehr**, 2000).

- *determination of target-image*: consideration of target market, competition, organizational culture, mission
- *image-policy*: image-political means to achieve target-image
- *image-control*

He further points at some central practical questions to be considered in this context:

- which *salient features* dominate the image and which are *easiest to change*?
- which *consequences* are *easiest to handle*?
- which *relations* exist between factors and what results from changing relations?
- how can *positive effects be promoted and negative avoided*?

Other researchers (e.g. **Johannsen**, 1968, **Koppelman**, 1976) have analyzed the process of image-oriented decision-making, based on situation analysis, image-development, continuous control and adaptation to changes. The relevance for strategic marketing becomes clear, when relating image-creation to segmentation, striving for a clearly defined “*target image*” (**Mueller**, 1971, **Malaka**, 1990). **Beane & Ennis** (1987) suggest “*image segmentation*” as an interesting segmentation approach, on the base of which marketing decisions can be taken. These approaches show the role of image-analysis, formation and projection in several domains of strategic and operational marketing.

Chapter 5.1.5.c. Definitions

The before-mentioned main concerns of image-research in marketing are reflected by different conceptual developments. According to **Lilli** (1983), the theoretical- conceptual discussion still lags behind empirical applications in image-research, so that the question “*what is image?*” continues to be valid. Some definitions from the marketing literature are presented next, which may be compared with those from other scientific perspectives as well as with related concepts. The purpose of this discussion is a clarification of the image-concept as defended in this thesis.

Gardner & Levy (1955) were among the firsts to discuss *brand image*¹⁰⁰. They defined it as “*not simply a perceptual phenomenon affected by the firm’s communication activities alone. It is the understanding consumers derive from the total set of brand-related activities engaged by the firm.*” They thereby relate consumer’s brand image to the company’s engagement in projecting it, using different marketing tools. Assuming the perspective of the consumer, **Durgee & Stuart** (1987) use the term “*meaning profile*”, standing for a “*complex of meanings associated with a given category*“. This notion must be understood in the context of cognitive and social psychology. Generally, the two mentioned standpoints reflect two sides of the same coin: the image of a

¹⁰⁰ **Malaka** (1990) explains that a *brand* serves for identification and differentiation, simplifies evaluation, is manifest in signs and stimuli, can be more or less related to a firm and other products in a line (where products have either coherent brand images or else one product dominates and irradiates image to others).

marketed object is both created by the consumer in a complex social and psychological process, and projected and influenced by the company.

Dobni & Zinkhan (1990) reviewed a number of studies on *brand image* and found the following denominations used in this context: “*symbolic utility*” (**Pohlman & Mudd**, 1973), “*symbols by which we buy*” (**Levy**, 1959), “*perceived product symbolism*” (**Sommers**, 1963), all describing intangible, symbolic and expressive aspects of product evaluation. Also personality-related terms are often used, such as “*brand personality or character*” (**Hendon & Williams**, 1985), “*personality image*” (**Sirgy**, 1985), relating brand-image to the concept of self. **Dobni & Zinkhan** (1990) identified the following most characteristic elements of “*brand image*“, based on the largest consensus between authors:

- It is *held by the consumer*.
- It is largely a *subjective* and *perceptual phenomenon, formed through interpretation*, which may be both *reasoned and emotional*.
- It is *not inherent in* technical, functional or *physical product concerns*, affected and *molded by marketing, context variables* and characteristics of the *receiver*.
- It proves that *perception of reality is more important than reality itself*.

Dobni & Zinkhan (1990) further grouped the analyzed definitions as follows:

- *blanket definitions*: broad, simple and comprehensive;
- emphasis on *symbolism*: based on motivation research and focusing on meaning and language of symbols; referring to semiotics, connotations of the unconscious, personal and social meaning or value, reinforcing of the self concept;
- emphasis on *meanings and messages*: based on philosophy of meaning, assuming that connotations are more important than denotations;
- emphasis on *personification*: popular in the 1980s, associating with consumer’s self-concept; personality as a dynamic whole is considered similar to brand image; purchase is judged to be determined by the interaction of self concept and the product’s personality (*self-product-congruity* as a determinant of choice);
- emphasis on *cognitive or psychological elements*: focusing on ideas, emotions, attitudes, cognitive constructs, expectations and so forth.

These distinctions are not always useful, as some categories overlap. The concept “*meaning*” underlies all image definitions, being this meaning particularly related to “*symbolism*” and “*personification*”. In addition, cognitive and psychological elements are usually also implicit in most definitions, since the social psychological standpoint of image construction is commonly assumed. It is true that the classification attempted a broad distinction between different emphases when defining the image concept. However, just one category “*symbolism*” would be sufficient to integrate “*meanings*” and “*personification*”. Finally, in marketing, both the image held by

consumers and that projected by a company are significant. A classification scheme distinguishing between image as a factor in consumer behavior and image as a marketing tool is needed. Thus, one may broadly distinguish between *perceiver-based* and *projector-based definitions*. Following this classification, which will be applied to a couple of examples from the marketing literature, one easily observes that most authors suggest definitions, which cover diverse categories:

A. Perceiver-based image concept:

1. Blanket definitions:

- the term “...describes not individual traits or qualities, but the **total impression** an entity makes on the mind of others. It is not anchored in just objective data and details. It is the **configuration of the whole field of the object...**” (Dichter, 1985)
- “*subjective imaginations or images, consumers have about a product*” (Lilli, 1983: 402)

2. Emphasis on connotation/ symbolism:

- Dichter (1985) suggests a total *personality* and *Gestalt-like* image, relating images to *symbols* in the context of image change.
- Durgee & Stuart (1987) use the term “**meaning profile**” as a “*complex of meanings associated with a given category*”. “*Each brand has to rely heavily on what it **connotes** or **means symbolically** in the eyes of consumers...*”
- “*Any product theoretically can be positioned with a ...**symbolic image**...*”(Park et al, 1986).
- “*...psychologists say you **identify yourself with** (a product image)...*” (Tyler, 1957)
- Lilli (1983) refers to a “**psycho-dynamic approach**” in the context of “**identification-theory**”, with ideal images functioning as projections
- “**products are assumed to have a personality** or image, just like people...images of products are also formed by other associations such as the stereotyped image of the generalized or typical consumer...” (Sirgy, 1983: 131)

3. Emphasis on denotation

- “*Any product...can be positioned with a **functional...** image, many brands offer a mixture of **benefits**” (Park et al, 1986). They define “*functional*” as “*problem solving and preventing*”.*
- **Functional images** “*involve **attributes** that are related to the **tangible benefits** of the product and not the stereotypic personality characteristics associated with it*” (Sirgy, 1983: 131)
- Keller (1993) speaks of an “*attribute-element*” of brand image.

4. Emphasis on psychological effects

- “*one type of image is related to the **subjective feeling** about the brand*” (Tyler, 1957)
- Dichter (1985) suggests that image “*...is the customer’s disposition and the **attitudinal screen** through which he observes.*” This author stresses the importance of **emotions** and the “*...**motivational impact** when (consumers) are stimulated via images.*”
- Lilli (1983) identifies the following three main market-psychological approaches on the image concept in the German marketing literature:

- 1) socio-psychological models based on *Lewin's field theory* (1951), such as those defended by **Spiegel** (1961), **Berth** (1963) and **Richter** (1977)
- 2) approaches based on the result of *cognitive information processing*, such as **Bergler's** (1963) "*stereotypical system*"¹⁰¹ or **Trommsdorff's** (1975) attitude-based model and
- 3) *behaviorist compensation-based habit models* (e.g. **Kunkel & Berry**, 1968)

5. Emphasis on consumer behavior

- "...favorable meanings in consumers' minds... provide main *drawing forces to brands*" (**Durgee & Stuart**, 1987).
- **Lilli** (1983) explains that *consumer behavior is guided by expectations*, which are dependent on incomplete and not only observation-based images.

6. Comprehensive approaches:

- **Keller** (1993) distinguishes three levels of abstraction contained in the image concept: *attributes*, *benefits* and *attitudes*. Attributes are defined as descriptive features characterizing a product ("*denotation*"), eventually conveying personality ("*connotation*") and arousing emotions ("*psychological effect*"). Benefits correspond to those personal values consumers attach to product attributes ("*connotation*"), being of a functional, experiential or symbolic nature. Brand attitudes are defined as overall evaluations, constituting the basis for choice and often operationalized via expectancy-value models. This distinction reflects three levels on a continuum between the concrete and the abstract, the stimulus and the motive, the cognitive, the affective aspect and the behavioral consequence.
- "*Any product theoretically can be positioned with a functional, symbolic or experiential image...*" (**Park et al**, 1986). These authors' normative model distinguishes between the *functional* (problem solving and prevention), *social* (group membership and affiliation), and *sensory* (novelty, variety seeking and sensory gratification) dimension of brand image.

B. Projector-based image concept:

1. Blanket definitions

- **brand concept** as "*a firm-selected brand meaning derived from basic consumer needs*" (**Park et al**, 1986).

2. Emphasis on marketing strategy: positioning, brand-management

- Image is...*created and managed by marketers* ("*brand-management*") (**Park et al**, 1986).
- Any product ...can be *positioned with a functional, symbolic or experiential image...* (**Park et al**, 1986).
- **Keller** (1993) and **Roth** (1995) consider brand image as an integral *component of a brand's equity*.
- **Lilli** (1983) suggests the image-concept as an *instrument in marketing*, with a *diagnostic* and *prognostic function* in the context of *product development*.

¹⁰¹ **Bergler** (1963) introduced the term "*stereotypical system*" based on the projection of internal perceptions, desires and expectations to objects of the external world, in a stereotypical way.

3. Emphasis on communication

- **Tyler** (1957) states that “...*advertising sells by implanting a literal image in the consumer’s mind, a visual image, a picture... (which) operates most automatically at the point of sale.*”
- “in market psychology image corresponds to a ***means of communication between producer and consumer***” (Lilli, 1983: 445)

4. Emphasis on all elements of the marketing mix

- “**A brand image is not simply a perceptual phenomenon affected by the firm’s communication activities alone. It is the understanding consumers derived from the total set of brand-related activities engaged by the firm.**” (Gardner & Levy, 1955).
- “... *a brand image is produced by the **gestalt configuration of marketing mix elements**...*” (Park *et al.*, 1986).

Dichter (1985) compared image to a ***symphony***, explaining that “... *the composition is melodious only when all players and instruments are properly integrated and tuned to each other...*” With this comparison he makes clear that a definition based on a sum of pieces would not capture the synergetic effect of the complex and dynamic image-composition and that its manipulation by companies should take the best advantage of this synergetic effect.

From the reviewed literature, **Lilli** (1983) and **Park *et al.*** (1986) present the most comprehensive perspectives of image as a consumer-based as well as marketing-determining concept, although most authors refer to more than one function and meaning of “*image*”.

Chapter 5.1.5.d. Image Assessment

Different theoretical assumptions and definitions of image have led to different methodological approaches attempting to operationalize and assess it. Thus, many approaches rely on the attitude-paradigm, measuring separately the cognitive and affective dimension of an image.

Following the socio-psychological perspective of an image as a shared mental construct, analysis should focus on individual *and* aggregated perceptions. In this context, traditional survey methods are adequate, applicable at a sample, which may contain specific “image-groups” (**Malaka**, 1990).

Gardner & Levy (1955), viewing image principally as a set of associations, recommend qualitative methods and projective techniques to assess image. In their seminal work “*The measurement of meaning*”, **Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum** (1957) introduced the “***semantic differential***”, which is still often used in image studies. Defining image as a *connotation system*, they identified the following three ***basic meaning dimensions: activity, evaluation and potency***. Semantic differential scales are most popular, easy to use, putting a low demand on the verbal capacity of respondents, providing data with nearly interval nature and thus permitting the use of

advanced statistical techniques. One major problem related to this technique is the missing of a “*don't know*” option, being frequently expressed as a neutral point (Lilli, 1983).

Several authors prefer *in-depth interviews* as a means of image-assessment, permitting a more detailed understanding of individual images, being however limited to small-scale applications. Thus, Kleining (1959) described the structure of image as consisting of an “*image-shell*” and an “*image-kernel*”, containing a *latent content* of ideas, which are best studied via *qualitative methods*. In this context, and also when analyzing image-projections in promotional or other literature, *content analysis* is frequently used. In a systematic way a text is analyzed in terms of frequencies, symbols (positive or negative connotation), values (categories) and evaluative assertion (attitudes towards objects). This approach may actually be a first, exploratory step leading to the creation of a valid survey instrument, or it may be further used as a qualitative method that may help understanding and interpreting eventually ambiguous survey results.

However, the most common approaches in marketing are of a quantitative nature based on *surveys*. Large numbers of responses should increase generalizability and permit the assessment of group-specific images. The form of communication (oral or written), the way contact is established and the research instrument applied determine validity of image assessment. The research instrument is the questionnaire with a structured list of questions, which may also include qualitative approaches. Thus, both standardized and open-ended questions are used. The first have the advantage of increasing reliability, but validity depends on the complete coverage and correct operationalization of all relevant image-aspects. Explorative questions are suggested for the assessment of complex image-structures. Also indirect approaches, such as *projective tests* and use of *non-verbal data*, have been suggested, especially to tackle some less conscious issues, which may be difficult to express or admit. Qualitative methods may help reveal sentiments, unconscious attributions, and complete the quantitative approach through free exploration.

Attribute-lists are most popular to assess image due to the ease of data treatment and analysis with the help of statistical techniques. Their definition is an important issue. Already Joyce (1963, cited by Malaka, 1990:31) studying “*brand image*” suggested “*to restrict the field to features of the image which can be shared by a number of individuals...*”, by first identifying features via association and projective techniques and then ranking them on scales. According to Fishbein (1967), features should be salient and relevant for attitude, as measurable via spontaneous association tests. Lefkoff-Hagius & Mason (1993) suggest that different *types of attributes* should be used for *similarity* versus *preference judgements*. Benefit-expressing and symbolic attributes would be more relevant for preference-judgements, whereas product-referent, characteristic attributes for similarity-judgements. Creusen & Schoormans (1997) confirm this explaining that

“*abstract beneficial and imagery attributes may be more important for evaluation, especially when the relationship to physical attributes is less direct*”. There has been some discussion about the relevance of attribute-based versus attitude-based, more holistic evaluations expressing preference. **Mantel & Kardes** (1999) suggest that the type of processing would depend on involvement and individual *need-for cognition*¹⁰² (the higher involvement and need-for-cognition, the more likely attribute-based processing would be).

According to the image construct assumed, attributes may be rated in terms of perception, evaluation or importance. **Trommsdorff's** (1975) image-model, for example, operationalizes image as the average absolute deviation of real impressions from ideal points on a series of attribute scales. Many have unreachable ideals, though, so that this point of reference may not be adequate. The means-ends model requires the assessment of both importance and evaluative values. Positioning studies require assessing evaluations of diverse image objects on all attribute scales.

The advantage of quantitative image data is its potential use in multivariate statistical analysis, which may help understand image structure. In the context of positioning, **Matiaske et al.** (1994) suggest *Correspondence Analysis* to “*discover relationships between a product and its perceived features*”¹⁰³. **Green & Wind** (1973, cited by **Malaka**, 1990) suggest *Multidimensional Scaling* (MDS) for a “*holistic image assessment*”, in order to illustrate the competitive image position of diverse products. **Pessemier** (1980), for example, used MDS to represent product images, buyers and shops in the same joint space. However, MDS requires gathering data on at least eight image objects, in order to validly represent them on two dimensions, making not only data collection difficult, but also valid image assessment on all those objects questionable.

Malaka (1990) distinguishes the following types of image-analysis:

- comparison of images of one object for diverse groups
- comparison of images of diverse objects for one group at a certain point in time
- comparison of images of one object for one group at two points in time
- comparison of images of diverse objects for one group at two points in time

In this context, image assessment requires particular care, as otherwise different images may be due to methodological mistakes and not real image-differences (**Lilli**, 1983).

¹⁰² **Mantel & Kardes** (1999) define this as “*the extent to which individuals engage in and enjoy thinking, ...influenced by message-relevant thoughts rather than peripheral cues, (engage in) ... more specific detail-oriented judgements, (and) process information in a more elaborate manner.*”

¹⁰³ They point at the following advantages:

- no conditions are imposed on scales, nor on distributions, accepting also non-metric data for analysis
- it can analyze individual and aggregate data
- the method convinces through graphic presentation
- it permits introduction of additional data in rows and/ or columns, enriching interpretative potential.

In the German Marketing literature, **Schweiger & Wusst** (1988) used non-verbal image measurement (pictures and music) to assess country images. **Ruge** (1988) applied an “*imagery differential*” using pictures, which were rated on the dimensions: vividness, evaluation, intensity, complexity, novelty and psychological distance. **Schmitz** (1990) used responses to a set of pictures and analyzed them based on personality theories. **Aigner & Wandl** (1994) used a pre-defined set of pictures most associated with milk in general in order to identify the position of specific milk brands. The use of non-verbal methods has the following advantages:

- pictures may communicate affective and holistic contents better than words (**Schmitz**, 1990);
- imagery is considered a specific form of information storing (**Eysenck & Keane**, 1990), so that corresponding information retrieval is facilitated, if based on analogous signs;
- results of non-verbal image measurement may consequently be more valid, since they are not distorted by subjectively different word interpretations and the intermediate step of abstraction, which may not actually occur in real information processing.

On the other hand, analysis of this type of data is difficult as presented pictures reveal a large degree of complexity and may contain different meanings for different perceivers (including the researcher). However, when ambiguity of pictures can be limited, non-verbal techniques may be interesting for exploratory purposes. They can also help understanding other verbal results and be particularly useful for developing appealing copy strategies for market communication.

As “image” is a very complex construct, it may be best assessed using several both quantitative and qualitative methods, trying to also integrate pictorial, imagery-like information. In this context, the *multitrait-multimethod-matrix*, as suggested by **Campbell & Fiske** (1959) may be useful.

Chapter 5.2. Image and related Concepts

The definition of “*image*” is sometimes similar to that of other concepts used in (social) psychology. The distinction from these concepts should contribute to a better delineation of the term “*image*”. This reflection is focused on the “*perceiver-based*” concept. However, the specific meaning of “*image*” in the marketing context implies its connection with marketing planning and management issues, which presents a main distinction from the purely psychological concepts.

Chapter 5.2.1. Attitude

Similarities between the concepts “*attitude*” and “*image*” are striking. Both include subjective knowledge and evaluation, use similar measurement tools and multi-attribute models.

The term “attitude” is used differently depending on different scientific positions. The neo-behaviorist definition, however, is predominant. It views attitudes as learned hypothetical

constructs, functioning as intervening variables between stimuli and reaction, and representing a learned pre-disposition to react consistently positively or negatively to certain stimuli or objects (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975: 6). Attitudes are seen as internal dispositions not as overt behavior, however leading to behavior (“approximating or avoiding the object”, Morisette & Gingras, 1989). “Image” is sometimes defined similarly (e.g. Spiegel, 1961, Dichter, 1985).

Katz (1960, quoted by Lutz, 1991: 328-330) distinguishes the following *functions of attitudes*:

1. *instrumental, adjustive, utilitarian* function (directing behavior towards need-satisfaction)
2. *ego-defensive* function (correspondence of attitude with personal identity)
3. *value-expressive* function (attitude as expression of values)
4. *knowledge*-function (attitude as component of knowledge to cope with reality)

It is commonly agreed that the attitude-variable has important psychological functions, serving as an orientation of behavior and expression of self. Morisette & Gingras (1989) explain that attitudes “develop gradually, in a hierarchical and cumulative manner biased by interaction with the (mainly social) environment”. Katz (1960) distinguishes as *features of attitude*: degree of *intensity* (affective dimension), degree of *specificity versus generality* (cognitive dimension), degree of *action relevance* (intentional/ behavioral dimension), degree of *differentiation* (between objects) and degree of *centrality*/ correlation with individual value system (personality link).

An important outcome of attitude research has been the development of the *three-component theory*. This theory states that each attitude has an affective, cognitive and intentional/ behavioral component. *Consistency theory* implies that these attitude components are positively related to each other. According to Trommsdorff (1975), the three-component theory does not constitute a contradiction to the *assumption of uni-dimensionality* of attitude, as attitude components are no independent dimensions. However, others have empirically identified dimensions via factor analysis of rating scales or multidimensional scaling. According to Trommsdorff (1975), these analyses usually reveal one general factor with high loadings, representing an evaluative dimension, which could be considered an indicator of attitude, whereas the other factors are suggested to be of a more cognitive nature. He defends that “attitude” is *uni-dimensional* (represented by the continuum “good ← → bad”), whereas “image” is *multi-dimensional* reflecting diverse features. Diedenhofen (1991: 69-70) defines image as a “*multidimensional attitude construct*”. However, also the attitude-concept has been studied as multi-dimensional (Bagozzi, 1988). Mazanec (1978) distinguishes between a *rather affective “image”* and a *more rational-denotative “attitude”*. This distinction contradicts the frequent definition of attitude as evaluative, especially in the already mentioned uni-dimensional version. On the other hand, most definitions of *image* do not exclude the denotative cognitive dimension. Some authors (such as Kroeber-Riel, 1992, Mazanec, 1978) prefer the construct “attitude” to “image”, being the first concept older,

better defined and widely studied, making another concept superfluous. Others argue that image is a *special case of attitude* (e.g. **Lilli**, 1983).

Attitude assessment frequently relies on **Rosenberg** (1956)'s means-end-analysis, using an evaluation-based weighted sum of perceptions (cognitions), which represents an indicator of a uni-dimensional attitude-construct (more or less favorable tendency) (**McGuire**, 1969). This may also be assessed by a simple rating scale (“*good* \leftrightarrow *bad*”). However, also a multidimensional construct-measurement of attitude has been defended (**Howard & Sheth**, 1969, **Baggozzi**, 1988).

Johannsen (1974, cited by **Lilly**, 1983) resumes the *similarities of image with social attitudes*:

- 1) both *contain cognitive, affective and conative* components,
- 2) dispose of *social, personal and evaluative* character,
- 3) serve as *orientation* in the social environment,
- 4) *depend on information* and on *affective experiences* for formation and change.

As a difference from attitudes he suggests that *transmission* of images should not be possible. This may be related to their complexity and imagery-base, increasing difficulty of image expression.

The *behavioral relevance of attitudes* is expressed by the stimulus-reaction paradigm in which attitude functions as an intervening variable, although most empirical results only prove correlation and not causation.¹⁰⁴ Validity and generalizability problems subsist in attitude research, due to problems of operationalization, measurement and the difficulty in exactly determining the role of attitude for behavior amongst other factors. Similarly, the image-concept has been attributed behavioral significance, being confronted with the same difficulties in measurement and analysis.

Some authors suggest that either *attitude* or *perception* is eventually changed due to *cognitive dissonance* (**Lutz**, 1991). This may also be assumed for the image-concept, although the latter is generally considered more stable.

What may be retained from this discussion is the fact that both image and attitude refer to a similar domain of significance with partially similar definitions and conceptual concerns. However, the attitude construct seems to be in some points better delineated, based on a longer research history. Its basic premise is the neo-behavioral assumption of a prevailing predisposition to act positively or negatively towards a certain object. Further the three-component theory is generally accepted, with the affective component apparently dominating, especially in the uni-dimensional attitude-definition. The “image-concept”, on the other hand, can be considered a more complex, multi-

¹⁰⁴ In this context, non-appropriate data aggregation, one-time measurements, the lack of distinct measurement of object-related emotions, perceptions and corresponding behavior and the not individual-based comparison between attitude and behavior measurements can be mentioned as reasons for questionable results of “causal analysis” (**Lilli**, 1983). Longitudinal studies with the same individuals promise better results, but it is difficult to control for other intervening variables.

dimensional and holistic construct, eventually including attitude as previously defined, with the two components called “affective” and “cognitive” assuming similar importance, apart from imagery. It is suggested to include propositional and analogous information, emotion-loaded impressions, experience- and observation-based knowledge, associations and interpretations, stereotypical simplifications and attributions. The author of this thesis shares **Trommsdorff’s** (1975) assumption that “attitude” relates rather to the affective-evaluative dimension of image, whereas “image” stands for more.

Chapter 5.2.2. Schema

The term “*schema*” is used in cognitive psychology relating to the *organization of knowledge*. Knowledge may be structured in an analogous or propositional manner and in a simple or more complex way. A *schema* may be considered a propositional codification mode referring to abstract storage of meaningful information (**Frey**, 1992). Schemata have been defined by **Anderson** (1980, cited by **Frey**, 1992: 53) as “...*important knowledge structures that enable us to deal effectively with the information processing demands of a large and complex world. They serve to extract and categorize clusters of experiences in the world*”. **Sirgy** (1983: 42) considers them a “*frame of reference*” or “*specific conceptual structure*”, characterized by centrality of beliefs, differentiation and category width. Schemata are thus suggested to represent complex organizations of knowledge structures and can be integrated in the following model (**Eysenck & Keane**, 1990: 247-294):

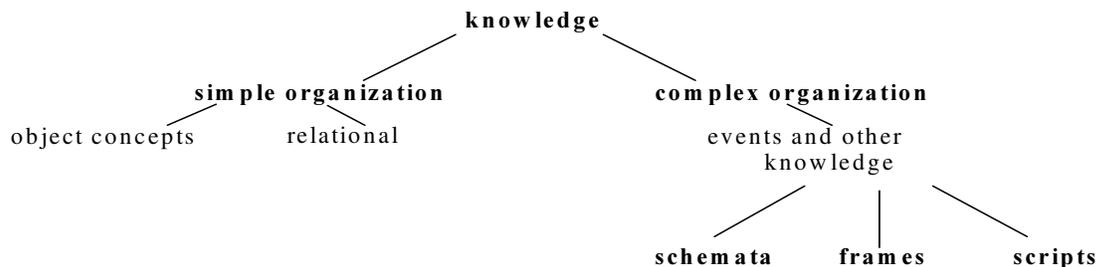


Fig.17. Knowledge structure according to Eysenck & Keane (1990)

Already **Kant** (1787, cited by **Eysenck & Keane**, 1990) referred to schemata as innate (!) structures for organizing our perception of the world. According to **Eysenck & Keane** (1990: 275), “*the most commonly used construct to account for complex knowledge organization is the schema. A schema is a structured cluster of concepts,... involves generic knowledge and may be used to represent events, sequences of events, precepts, situations, relations, and even objects.*” However, in the context of events, situations and chronological sequence of actions, the term “*script*” is more often used. The concept “*frame*” is mainly used for visual perception or *imagery-based* knowledge.

Fischer (1992) stresses the following main features of schemata:

1. schemata contain *variables*, the values of which may change with context, maintaining the *relation between variables stable*;
2. schemata may be *integrated in other schemata*;
3. schemata represent *knowledge on all levels of abstraction*;
4. schemata represent (flexible) knowledge structures rather than rigid definitions, ...containing no defined classes, but *prototypical descriptions*;
5. *schema-activation* implies active processes (reactions to stimuli and information search);
6. schemata can be considered *recognition devices*.

The relation with *memory* is evident, as *recognition* and *interpretation* of stimuli depend on retrieval of information stored in schemata. In this context, **Graesser & Nakamura** (1982, cited by **Fischer**, 1992) explain that the “*schema imposes interpretation on the input, guides attention, generates inferences, and formulates expectations*”. This shows the role of schemata for *behavior*.

Comparing with the image-concept, both concepts refer to complex knowledge structures, guiding behavior. However, a schema does not include imagery information nor data concerning events and sequences of actions, appearing thus as a more limited concept.

Chapter 5.2.3. Stereotype

According to **Allport** (1958, cited by **Fischer**, 1992: 18), “*be it favorable or not, a stereotype is an exaggerated belief associated with a category*”. The concept is generally associated with *negatively biased classification of social groups* in a cultural tradition (**Fischer**, 1992). **Lilli** (1983) admits both a negative or positive *stereotypical evaluation* of an *object class*.

Lippmann (1922, cited by **Schoerner**, 1993) calls stereotypes “*images in our brain*” which represent “*an oversimplified picture of the world (satisfying) the need to see the world as more understandable and manageable than it really is.*”¹⁰⁵ **Schoerner** (1993) refers to the concept as ambivalent implying *distance from reality* and marked by *extreme rigidity* and by *social sharing*. **Fiske** (1993) calls stereotypes “*complex portraits*”, which “*compared to traits, ... have richer associations, more visual features, more distinctive characteristics and operate more efficiently*”. She further explains that stereotypes lie on a continuum between a more generalized use of *categories* and more attribute-based “*individuating*” tendencies of social perception, dependent

¹⁰⁵ “*The subtlest and most pervasive of all influences are those which create and maintain the repertoire of stereotypes. We are told about the world before we see it. We imagine things before we experience them. And those preconceptions, unless education has made us acutely aware, govern deeply the whole process of perception. They mark out certain objects as familiar or strange, emphasizing the difference, so that the slightly familiar is seen as very familiar, and the somewhat strange as sharply alien. They are aroused by small signs, which may vary from a true index to a vague analogy.*” (**Lippmann**, 1922: 89-90, cited by **Schoerner**, 1993).

upon stimuli, the perceiver's needs or goals and the similarity between the perceiver and the target. Other definitions include the following ideas:

- Stereotypes are *socially shared* (Fischer, 1992, Schoerner, 1993),
- may be considered *cognitive schemata* (Fischer, 1992),
- are frequently considered *incorrect* (Fischer, 1992, Schoerner, 1993) and
- *rigid* (Fischer, 1992, Schoerner, 1993);
- are seen as *generalization* (Fischer, 1992) and *simplifications* (Fischer, 1992, Lippmann, 1922),
- as *habits* and *attitudes* (Fischer, 1992),
- are influenced by *ethnocentrism*, defined by Sumner (1906, cited by Fischer, 1992: 20) as: “view of things in which one's own group is the center of everything and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it. ...Each group nourishes its own pride and vanity, boasts itself superior, exalts its own divinities, and looks with contempt on outsiders.”

Fischer (1992) highlights the *socio-psychological function of stereotypes*, as a “*part of a person's self-image is his social identity....*”, which implies the need for “*...social categorization (of the 'out-group' as) a help for social orientation and for evaluation of the own position.*” In this context, Tajfel (1975, cited by Schoerner, 1993) distinguishes the following three functions:

- stereotypes *permit group ideologies* providing socially shared interpretations (“*social causality*”),
- stereotypes *justify behavior* in and outside the group (“*social justification*”) and
- stereotypes *support social differentiation* between the own and other groups.

Schoerner (1993) further distinguishes the following theoretical approaches:

- *Personality-based*: motivation theory, psycho-dynamic mechanisms of intra-personal conflict resolution
- *Social-cultural orientation*: cultural norms define stereotypes which are transmitted to future generations
- *Inter-group processes*: conflict of interest theory (see Tajfel, 1975)
- *Cognitive perspective*: stimulus classification, cognitive structures result from information processing, including “*illusory correlation*” (tendency to overvalue the accidental co-occurrence of rare events, leading to storage of the striking but unrepresentative)

If stereotypes are considered “*images in our brain*” which represent an oversimplified picture of the world, the proximity to the *image-concept* becomes clear. Both refer to mental representations, which are “*distant from reality*” and “*simplified*”. However, stereotypes are considered “*extremely rigid*”, whereas images are defined as “*relatively stable*”. “*Social sharing*” may apply to both concepts, being an essential condition for the stereotype construct, but not for the image-concept. Considering the simplified categorical and socially shared constitution of stereotypes, they *seem poorer than images*, which are by definition more complex, individually enriched and subject to

change. The *restricted use* of the term “stereotype” mainly in the context of *interpersonal and inter-group* perceptions and evaluations marks another distinction from the image-concept.

In marketing, the concept “*stereotype system*” has been suggested (Johannsen, 1967, Bergler, 1963) and characterized as follows (adapted from Lilli, 1983):

- Stereotypical images may be seen as *latent general formulas of great distinction*, serving emotional and pseudo-rational coping with objectively inaccessible situations,
- are *fixed, stable, inflexible schematic* interpretations of reality permitting quick orientation,
- result from a subjectively needed *simplification* and *structuring* of complex facts,
- exist at *different, interrelated levels of abstraction*,
- are *group-specific*, and
- function as *expectation systems*.

Aspects distinguishing between the *image-concept* and “*stereotype/ prejudice*” are suggested by Johannsen (1967, 1971, 1974, as cited by Lilli, 1983):

STEREOTYPE	IMAGE
rather related to persons and groups	rather related to objects
negative evaluation, overgeneralization and precipitation	value-neutral and experience-based
rather fixed	subject to change
low stimulus-boundedness	highly stimulus-bounded
rather detail-related than holistic	rather complex and holistic
more accessible by quantitative methods	more accessible by qualitative methods

Table 4. Differences between stereotypes and images, according to Johannsen

Briefly, images in contrast to stereotypes, may be characterized as richer and individually more diversified in content, less negative and evaluative, more holistic and experience-based, stimulus-bounded, relating to all kind of objects, and despite of relative stability, more subject to change.

Chapter 5.2.4. Image

After a comparison with other related concepts, one may resume the characteristics of what is designed by “image” in the following way. Image:

1. results from a *person’s confrontation* with an *object* in a *social environment*;
2. is a complex, multidimensional, structured *system* of great clarity and plasticity;
3. contains elements of *stereotypes, schemata* and *attitudes*;
4. includes *objective* and *subjective*, “*right*” and “*wrong*” *impressions, attitudes* and *experiences*;
5. involves elements of *imagery*;
6. is distinguished by *wholeness* (Gestalt psychology);
7. *evolves from formation to stereotyped fixation* (certain degree of dynamism);

8. is *original, durable* and *stable*, but may be influenced;
9. has *symbolic* meaning;
10. has a *projective* function (motivations and expectations);
11. *evaluates* and *simplifies* (typifies and reduces to the characteristic);
12. has *cognitive, affective, behavioral, social* and *personal* evaluative components;
13. *represents psychic reality*;
14. is often *not conscious*;
15. assists in *psychological coping with the environment*, contributing to orientation, individualization, and need-satisfaction;
16. may be *shared* by various individuals and assume *social functions* (group identity and differentiation, social justification);
17. *influences opinions* and *behaviors* in the social field;
18. it can be *communicated* and *measured*;
19. relates to psychological aspects of products, firms and services..., and is used as an important *marketing variable* (determining buying behavior);
20. its understanding and capacity of manipulation (*image projection*) in the marketing field is essential for successful *market communication* and *positioning*.

In this thesis, image is considered as holistic, multi-attribute and multi-dimensional in essence, containing cognitive, affective and imagery elements. It is further understood as an element of the individually created subjective reality, being a result of complex and biased selective perception, learning and memorizing mechanisms and resulting itself in image-biased behavior. Image is understood as both individual and shared, as relatively stable, though subject to modification, especially through personal experience. It is suggested to exist at different levels of complexity, permitting both simplification and detailed specification. In the marketing context, it may be both used for understanding consumer's mental representations and as an instrument in the context of market communication and positioning.

The concept mainly distinguishes itself from "*attitude*" in being defined in a broader way, including also imagery elements, and not necessarily cumulating in a predisposition to act in a consistently favorable or unfavorable way towards an object. It differs from "*stereotype*" in also being of a broader definition, neither focusing principally on individuals or groups, nor being necessarily oversimplifying and static. Finally, "*image*" differs from "*schema*" in including imagery and process-related information. From all these concepts "*image*" is distinct when used in the *marketing field*, where it is confined a particular role in consumer behavior and strategic marketing.

Chapter 5.3. Image Formation

Images, as mental representations of reality, are suggested to be constructed both via psychological and social processes “*in the dynamic process of the confrontation of man with the environment*” (Berth, 1959, cited by Malaka, 1990). As seen before, images are generally based on and integrated into *pre-existing knowledge and attitude-structures*. In the context of attitude-formation, homeostatic theories are useful, namely the theory of congruency, of cognitive-affective consistency and cognitive dissonance. *Homeostatic theories* assume that the human organism needs a specific level of activation, deviations of which result in discomfort and tendencies to return to this level, motivating corresponding changes in attitude or behavior. *Congruency theories* are based on a need of *consistency* among cognitive and affective information. These theories imply that newly formed mental images must be consistent with prior images, leading otherwise to changes of prior images or adaptation of new ones¹⁰⁶. Images are thus formed via (frequently biased) acquisition and processing of information (learning), with the effect of eventually making prior image-structures clearer (intensity effect) or changing its content (qualitative effect).

Image formation is closely linked to the process of perception. According to Frey (1992: 58-71) the following aspects are *determinants of perception*:

subject-related:

- **sensorial determinants:** assimilation limits, bio-physical capacities, order of stimuli and object-related determinants;
- **affective determinants:** *emotions*, defined as “*internal sensations, which may be positive or negative, conscious or unconscious*” (Kroeber-Riel, 1992) or “*transitory, but not regular sensations, distinguishable by strength, direction, class and expression, directing human behavior at least as much as cognition*” (Trommsdorff, 1989); **motives:** “*guide behavior towards aims, activate, include cognition and guide perception*” (Frey, 1992); and **attitudes;**
- **cognitive determinants:** *intelligence* (cognitive styles), *knowledge* (“*stored experience and understanding*”) and *fantasy*.¹⁰⁷ Malaka (1990) suggests that more *knowledgeable* and *involved* buyers have more detailed and better-integrated product images.
- **social determinants:** culturally induced different *experiences*; different *value systems* leading to distinct motives and attitudes; **social role:** “*consistent combination of normative expectations directed to the inhabitant of a specific social role*” (Wiswede, 1991: 226); **reference groups:** providing standards (norms) and values that can become the determining perspective for a person’s perceptions and behaviors (Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997: 378-404), and **social class**. Roth (1995) showed the moderating effect of culture and socio-economics

¹⁰⁶ Fischer (1992) explains that “*schema-congruent information is more sought for, better perceived and remembered*”, leading consequently to “*reinterpretation of incongruent information*”.

¹⁰⁷ Malaka (1990) explains that the smaller the personal experience-basis and the more the individual is involved with the object-domain, the more image is enriched by fantasy, leading to a high degree of cognitive and affective integration (Malaka, 1990). This should be an important aspect of destination image formation.

on brand images, based on **Hofstede's** (1984) assumptions about cross-cultural differences in value systems.¹⁰⁸

- *situational* (time, context, etc.);
- *personality* (suggestibility, self-confidence, rigidity);

object-related:

- nature of stimulus (*size, color, movement*);
- figure-background-principle: *object differs from others and the context (due to regularity, symmetry, closeness, unity, balance, maximal simplicity, scarcity)*;
- irradiation *of evaluation of features to the whole or of one object-image to others.*

One may further suggest the

subject-object interface:

schema, stereotype, pre-existing images, integrating both subjective and objective elements, guiding perception and thereby ongoing image formation, based on specific socio-psychological rules, such as the already mentioned need for congruency.

According to social cognition theory (Sirgy, 1983) product images are formed through categorization. Sirgy (1983: 132-133) stresses the role of degree of abstraction of the evoked category. Abstract categories should only be evoked in the case of familiarity, whereas “for unfamiliar products the consumer might evoke concrete cognitive categories in which the functional attributes ...would be more highlighted than personality or symbolic attributes.” Familiarity may be related to brand loyalty, defined as a “favorable attitude toward, and consistent purchase of a single brand over time” (Assael, 1980, cited by Sirgy, 1983: 174). Behavior may thus be viewed as both a determinant and a consequence of image. Repeat behavior should result in a strong positive image, leading to continuous purchase and image-confirmation.

Boulding (1956: 6-14) suggests that images, understood as “subjective knowledge structures”, may be changed by messages. This change may be a simple addition or a drastic modification, despite the image’s general resistance to change. Image stability should depend on the value attributed to image and on its internal consistency. The modification may act at both the content and certainty level. He further suggests an “organic theory of knowledge”, with knowledge growing like an “organic” structure in a “metabolistic” way, being affected by internal and external factors.

¹⁰⁸ Results showed that social brand images had greatest effect, where power distance was high, cultural individualism was low and regional socio-economics were high. Sensory image was found to be most effective, where cultural individualism and regional socio-economics were high. Functional image was found to be most effective, where regional socio-economics were low.

Briefly, images may suffer changes, being in this, rather slow and continuous, process determined by personal and stimulus-related factors, by prior knowledge structures and prior behavior related to the image-object.

Conclusions of Chapter 5

This chapter presented a series of epistemological approaches on image research, namely in the fields of philosophy, psychology, social psychology, semiotics and marketing. The marketing perspective was stressed, leading to a working definition of the image concept. This was further distinguished from related concepts (attitude, schema, stereotype).

Generally, marketing literature focuses on two main domains when studying image. These are (social) *psychology* in the context of *consumer behavior* (information processing, attitude formation, relation to self-image, content of image as mental representation, etc.) and *management sciences* (*strategic marketing*, image policy in the context of *market communication*).

The relevance of *subjective reality* is especially acknowledged in the study of consumer behavior. Here, cognitive approaches distinguish between the “*sensory image*”, a principally stimulus-based recognition of basic features of an object and the “*meaningful image*”, based on the integration of “*sensory images*” into pre-existing schemata by means of internal cognitive processes that are *simultaneously stimulus- and person-driven*. According to the *dual coding theory* images can be based both on *analogous, imagery-like* and *propositional* information. *Selective perception, irradiation* and the *halo-effect* have been identified as biasing processes in image formation, which is suggested to be related to *learning* and *subjective coping with reality*. Sirgy (1983) suggests *congruity processes* to occur when assessing and transforming cognitive image structures. From a socio-psychological point of view, image can be viewed as a *social construct or representation*, considering the effect of others on image building. Several theories have been suggested for image analysis in this context, such as: *expectancy-value theory, social comparison theory, implicit personality theory, attribution theory, information integration theory, categorization theory, consistency theory* and *belief centrality theory*. In the marketing domain, a “*socio-psychological market field or space*” (Spiegel, 1961) has been suggested.

Marketing focuses on diverse types of images, such as *product images, brand images, company images, buyer images, store-images, country-of-origin images* and *place images*. *Product and brand image* may be based both on *product-development* and *promotion*, and its analysis serves a *diagnostic and prognostic function*. Apart from its significance in the context of consumer behavior, it has been assigned an important role in *marketing strategy (positioning, brand-management), market communication* and other *elements of the marketing mix*.

Diverse definitional and modeling approaches were presented, as well as methodological issues related to image assessment and analysis. A combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was suggested as the most appropriate, given the semantic richness of the construct.

In this thesis, image is viewed as a *marketing-related consumer behavior process variable, relevant for explaining both consumer experience and behavior and prescribing adequate marketing decisions*. It may be characterized as *holistic, multi-attribute and multidimensional* in essence, *containing cognitive, affective and imagery* elements. It is understood as an element of the *individually created subjective reality, resulting itself in image-biased behavior*. It is related to behavior, in being of a preparatory, orienting and motivational nature. However, behavior itself is not considered a component of the construct. Image is viewed as *both individual and shared*, as *relatively stable, though subject to modifications*, especially through personal experience. It is suggested to exist at *different levels of complexity*, which permits both simplification and detailed specification. In the marketing context it may be used for both analyzing *consumer's mental representations* and as an *instrument in market communication, positioning and general strategic decisions*.

Finally, *image formation* and determinants of image were discussed. Both individual (and social) processes and the nature of the image object were identified as relevant in this context. Image has been suggested as a variable of interface between the individual and the image-object, determining perception and continuous image-formation through pre-existing mental representations and associations.

The previous reflections permit an understanding of the role of image in human behavior in general and consumer behavior in particular. Implications for marketing action were shown as well as the possible contributions of different scientific approaches on both image study and attempts of image-creation, -projection and -change. This general background knowledge should enrich the discussion of destination image and also influence the research approach suggested in this thesis.

Chapter 6. Destination Image

“...what is depicted in destination image ... involves a more complex question of *what comprises the destination and who has the power to define its identity...*” (Fesenmaier & MacKay, 1996).

The question of what comprises a destination has been discussed in chapter 2. Those who have the power to define it are both the consumer, being the main entity of image-construction, and the destination (agents), attempting to influence this process by image-projection in the context of destination marketing. Destination image studies in tourism have been undertaken since the 1970s (Mercer, 1971, Hunt, 1975, Goodrich, 1978, Scott *et al*, 1978, Crompton, 1979b). There has been some criticism of image studies as lacking a solid conceptual framework (Baloglu, 1996, Gartner, 1993, Echtner & Ritchie, 1993, Fakey & Crompton, 1991, Young, 1999). Chon (1990b) identified in a literature review six topics of destination image research:

1. the relation between destination image and *satisfaction*,
2. the relation between destination image and *decision making*,
3. destination image *formation or change*,
4. destination image *assessment*,
5. destination image as an aspect of *environmental psychology*,
6. the role of destination image in *tourism development*.

Several frequently cited studies are presented next in an attempt to cover the main fields of image research. Some are theoretically well defined. Others are rather empirically oriented, providing interesting exploratory contributions. This chapter is structured according to the following themes:

1. definition of the **concept**, its **dimensions** and **components**
2. **image as created by and affecting the tourist:**
 - destination image **formation/ change** and its **determinants**
 - impacts of destination image on **tourist behavior** (decision making, experience, satisfaction)
3. **image as projected by and affecting the destination:**
 - role of destination image in **destination marketing**
 - role of destination image in **destination development**
4. **assessment, measurement** and **analysis** of destination image

Many subjects discussed here are related to those exposed in previous chapters about the general image-concept, the specificity of tourism products and destination marketing. An understanding of all aspects of destination image permits a more powerful assessment of its importance both in the domain of tourist behavior and destination marketing. Understanding is the first stage for intelligent intervention, aiming at an enhancement of both tourist satisfaction and destination development.

The empirical part of the thesis will present concrete approaches to destination image assessment and analysis and point at practical implications in the context of a rural tourist destination in Portugal. Results will be integrated in the here presented destination image framework and will hopefully contribute to its enhancement.

Chapter 6.1. The Construct “Destination Image”

Chapter 6.1.1. Definition

“Destination image” has been identified as a concept with “*vague and shifting meanings, used in a large number of contexts and disciplines...*”, such as psychology, behavioral geography and marketing (Jenkins, 1999). Definitions of the term are correspondingly diverse.

Some stress the *holistic character of destination image* (Hunt, 1975, Crompton, 1979b, Um & Crompton, 1990, Reilly, 1990, Chon, 1990b, Kotler *et al.*, 1995, MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997).

Examples of holistic definitions are:

- the “*sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that people have of a place or destination*” (Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1995, Crompton, 1979b)
- “*total perception of a destination*” or the “*total impression*” of a place (Reilly, 1990);
- “*net result of the interaction of a person’s beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about an object*” (Chon, 1990b).

Others emphasize *cognition or image as a knowledge structure* (Pearce, 1988, Chon, 1990b, Fakey & Crompton, 1991, Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993, Dagostar & Isotalo, 1995, Mac Kay & Fesenmaier, 1997), as visible in the following definitions:

- “*subjective knowledge*” (Mac Kay & Fesenmaier, 1997);
- the “*cognitive structure of destination image*” (Dagostar & Isotalo, 1995) or “*the mental construct developed by a potential visitor on the basis of a few selected impressions ...through a creative process in which these impressions are elaborated, embellished, and ordered*” (Fakey & Crompton, 1991; Chon, 1990b);
- an “*overall mental picture- a destination stereotype*” (Pearce, 1988);
- *designative* (knowledge-based) environmental images (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993).

Also the *affective nature of destination image* is highlighted in some definitions (Ward & Russel, 1981, Russell & Lanis, 1984, Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993):

- “*meaning of a place*” in the context of an “*affective space structure*”, which “*is not entirely determined by the physical properties of that place*” (Ward & Russel, 1981: 123, as cited by Baloglu, 1996);
- the “*emotive capacity of a place*” (Russell & Lanis, 1984: 133);
- “*appraisive environmental images*” (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993).

Another approach stresses the *subjective function and behavioral outcome* (attitude, orientation, behavioral link) of destination image (Hunt, 1975, Goodrich, 1978, Scott *et al.*, 1978, Mayo & Jarvis, 1981, Gartner, 1989, Hu & Ritchie, 1993, Gartner, 1993, Dann, 1996, Baloglu, 1996):

- “*destination attractiveness*” or “*attitude toward an object*” reflecting individual beliefs about a destination’s ability to provide satisfaction of specific vacation needs (Scott *et al.*, 1978, Hu & Ritchie, 1993), “*combination of the relative importance of individual benefits and the perceived ability of the destination to deliver (these) individual benefits.*” (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981) or “*benefit packages, unique to the destination, expected to provide the greatest intrinsic reward...*” (Gartner, 1989);
- Some refer to the “*conative element*”, also discussed in attitude research as applicable to destination image (Gartner, 1993, Dann, 1996), others (Boulding, 1956, Baloglu, 1996) consider behavior a result not an element of *destination image*.

Others define *destination image* in the context of *image projection* mainly in a promotional sense (Var *et al.*, 1977; MacCannell, 1989; Reilly, 1990; Fesenmaier & MacKay, 1996; Jenkins, 1999):

- “*attraction to the public*” (Fesenmaier & MacKay, 1996, Var *et al.*, 1977);
- an essential *element of promotion*, with attributes matched to needs of the target market (Reilly, 1990, Jenkins, 1999);
- designed “*markers*” or “*must-be sights*” (MacCannell, 1976, 1989);
- “*artificially created differentiation, as product attribute beliefs are formed and influenced ... (via) association between pictures and experiences...*” (Fesenmaier & MacKay, 1996).

Most image studies focus on the tourist’s perceptions, impressions and feelings, which may contain cognitive and affective elements, and are further considered crucial for destination choice. Others consider image as a promotional construction. Young (1999) refers to a largely consensual “*social construction*” of places by both the tourism industry and the tourists, combining both perspectives.

Chapter 6.1.2. Structure of “Destination Image”

Destination images have been studied in respect to their structure, where specific *dimensions* and *components* may be distinguished. They may contain rather referential or emotive, designative or appraisive, formalist or expressivist, cognitive or affective, denotative versus connotative meaning.

Analyzing image-structure in the context of positioning, Haati (1986)¹⁰⁹ refers to image as an “*organized cognitive system of interdependent properties, complex interrelationship between domain-specific stimuli characterized by*”:

- **complexity** (*number of attributes*) and *valence of objects (strength and direction of feeling in the stimulus space...;*
- **attributes**, *characterized by evaluation and centrality (frequency of use in describing an object)... and*

¹⁰⁹ This author analyzed the competitive images of Western European tourist destinations in the context of a cognitive domain, defined as “*set of phenomenal objects treated as functionally equivalent in the sense that a common set of attributes can be meaningfully used to appraise them*”.

- **structure**, marked by dimensionality, evaluative centrality (relation between central attributes and relative location of competing objects), image comparability (number of attributes with high centrality), centralization (dominant, central attribute) and affective balance (clusters of similarly perceived objects) in a joint perception and preference space.

The discussion about separating the cognitive and affective dimension is repeated in place and destination image studies. **Jenkins** (1999) stresses that “one of the basic problems of tourist destination image research is that destination images are ‘holistic’ representations of a place and that in attempting to measure them, researchers are compelled to look at the parts or attributes singularly. Some aspects of image, however, such as the aura or atmosphere, cannot be broken down.” The crucial question is whether the isolation of dimensions and components in image assessment is a valid way of capturing the underlying mental construct or instead represents an artificial scientific construction. However, even if the image construct is composed of intertwined dimensions and attributes non-dissociable from a complex whole, their separation for analytic purposes may be useful. This procedure may permit a better explanation of image structure and formation and contribute to the design of valid models of a latent but fundamental construct determining human attitudes, experience and behavior¹¹⁰.

As suggested in general attitude and image research, destination images present the sequence *cognition* (beliefs) → *affect* (emotional reactions to beliefs), as confirmed by **Gartner** (1993) and **Woodside & Lysonski** (1989). **Mayo & Jarvis** (1981: 190) studied how this sequence leads to an “overall image”. They found that beliefs influence overall image both via affect, as suggested before, and directly. **Baloglu** (1996) confirmed the hypothesis that cognitive evaluations significantly influence affective evaluations and those, in turn, overall image of a destination¹¹¹. **Gartner** (1993) and **Dann** (1996) also consider a “*conative*” or behavioral element to be part of destination image, whereas others view behavior as an image-consequence (e.g. **Baloglu**, 1996).

An interesting approach on specific dimensions is suggested by **Echtner & Ritchie** (1991, 1993), who identify the following three continua of destination image:

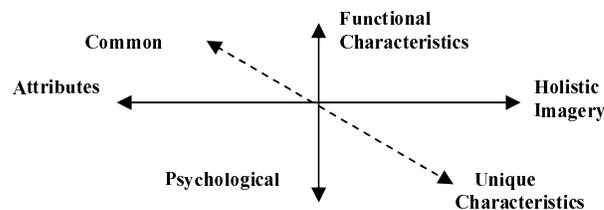


Fig. 18. The three dimensions of destination image according to Echtner & Ritchie (1991)

¹¹⁰ **Bagozzi & Burnkrant** (1985) defend the separate measurement of the affective and cognitive dimension of attitudes, which yields a more valid attitude model than its uni-dimensional alternative.

¹¹¹ “The direct contribution of perceived destination attributes to overall image is positive but trivial. However, their indirect effects on overall image through affective evaluations were positive and notable” (**Baloglu**, 1996: 219).

The cognitive dimension may be more associated with *attribute* and *functional* image aspects. The affective dimension is associated with *holistic* and *psychological* aspects and the *common* and *unique* values are attributable to both dimensions. According to these authors all dimensions should be considered for validly assessing destination image (see also **Choi et al**, 1999).

Focusing on the *affective dimension*, **Baloglu** (1996) refers to **Russel's** (1980) "*circumplex model of affect*". This consists of a two-dimensional bipolar space with the dimensions *arousal* and *pleasantness*, represented by the adjective-pairs: *pleasant-unpleasant*, *arousing-sleepy*, *exciting-gloomy* and *relaxing-distressing*. The affective appraisal of an environment was shown to be dependent on context, i.e. peripheral and previously encountered stimuli, as suggested by the theory of adaptation level (**Russell & Lanius**, 1984). The *evaluative* and *arousal expressing* dimensions have been confirmed by consistent results over studies (**Baloglu**, 1996: 48-49). Often only one dimension is measured as a result of an overall evaluation process, namely "*pleasant*←→*unpleasant*"¹¹².

Walmsley & Jenkins (1993) summarized 20 freely elicited constructs of the affective dimension of destination image into six constructs¹¹³. They suggest these would reflect Russell's two main dimensions (arousing and pleasant) in a specific destination context. **Walmsley & Young** (1998) applied these six bipolar constructs to destinations at an international and local level confirming the two-components-structure. Also **Baloglu & Brinberg** (1997) confirm the two main continua of affective destination image, translated into four extreme states: "*unpleasantly stimulated as when scared*", "*pleasantly stimulated as when intrigued*", "*unpleasantly not stimulated as when bored*" and "*pleasantly not stimulated as when relaxed*". **Edwards et al.** (2000) used the two dimensions in their study of images of the Portuguese "*Alto Minho*". **Young** (1995), however, only identified one main affective dimension (*favorable*←→*unfavorable*) across a variety of situations.

The importance of the affective dimension is stressed by **Russel & Snodgrass** (1987, cited by **Baloglu**, 1996), who state that tourist behavior (before, at and after travel) "*...may be influenced by the (estimated, perceived, or remembered) affective quality of an environment rather than by its objective properties directly.*" According to **Boulding** (1956) affective destination image is closely linked to motives, which "*determine what we wish to obtain from the object being considered*".

Despite the often-mentioned significance of affective and symbolic image components (**Pearce**, 1988), functional attributes are assessed predominantly in destination image studies. **Jenkins** (1999) explains this fact by the difficulty of measuring psychological aspects, being the only more

¹¹² **Bagozzi & Burnkrant** (1979) refer to Guilford's self-rating "favorable/ unfavorable" scale, which "*can be used to measure affect...*", as supported conceptually and empirically by others.

¹¹³ *commercialized- not commercialized, appealing - not appealing, quiet- busy, trendy- not trendy, boring-interesting, relaxed - fast pace of life*

frequently measured (approximately) psychological item “*friendliness*” (or “*hospitality*”)¹¹⁴. Another reason for the privilege given to *functional attributes* may lie in the easier translation of corresponding evaluations into concrete policy (particularly in terms of product development).

Numerous studies using descriptive attribute evaluations attempt to uncover the corresponding image structure. In a review of 45 studies from the 1970s to the end of the past millenium it became clear that there is no agreement on the range of attributes to include (see table 5). Studies varied considerably both in the number of attributes used and in their content.

DESTINATION IMAGE ATTRIBUTES	N°	%
Hospitality	31	70,5%
Nature/ scenery/ landscape	30	68,2%
Relaxing	29	65,9%
Price/ value for money	26	59,1%
Climate	25	56,8%
Shopping	21	47,7%
Hotels/ accommodation	21	47,7%
Gastronomy	21	47,7%
Night life	20	45,5%
Historical Sites	19	43,2%
Cultural Heritage	18	40,9%
Safety/ security	18	40,9%
Attractions, interest sites	16	36,4%
Tranquil/ peaceful/ quiet	15	34,1%
National/ State Parks	13	29,5%
Sightseeing	13	29,5%
Transportation	13	29,5%
Access	13	29,5%
Beaches	13	29,5%
Tourist information	13	29,5%
Multiple activities/ recreation	11	25,0%
Crowded-uncrowded	11	25,0%
Interesting	11	25,0%
Adventurous	11	25,0%
Skiing/ Winter sports	10	22,7%
Cities/ Towns	10	22,7%
Fun/ entertainment	10	22,7%
Beautiful	10	22,7%
Sports facilities/ opportunities	10	22,7%
Different	10	22,7%
Exciting	10	22,7%

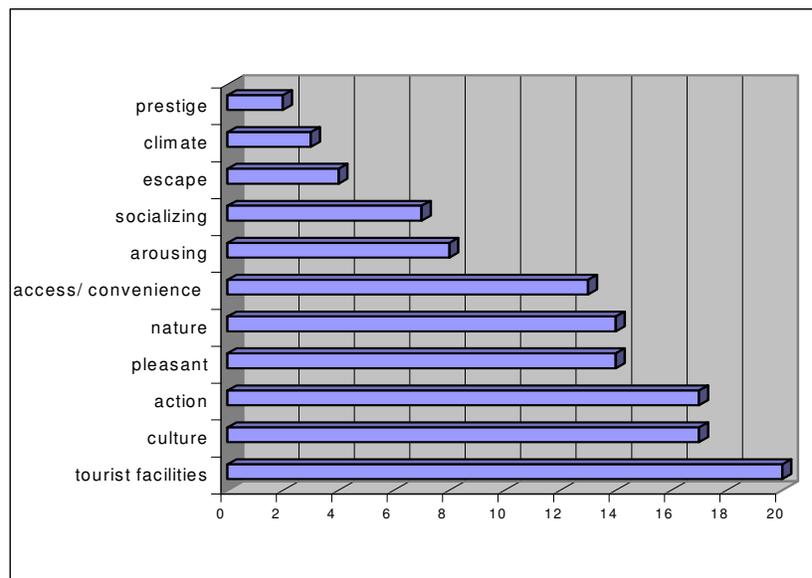
Table 5. Most used destination image attributes

Some used mainly broad categories, like “climate” or “value for money” (e.g. **Baloglu**, 1996), others specified “hot summer temperatures”, “mild winter temperatures”, “lots of sunshine”,

¹¹⁴ Our literature review reveals that also the attributes “relaxing”, “peaceful and quiet”, “exciting” and “interesting” are frequently used, when assessing evaluation of destination features.

“inexpensive food and drink”, “inexpensive accommodation” and so forth (e.g. **Crompton & Duray**, 1985). In the last example there is further a combination of two attributes (price and single tourism offerings). Some identified destination and holiday-type specific attributes (e.g. **Chen & Kerstetter**, 1999, **Ross**, 1993, **Kastenholz**, 1997), whereas others used generally applicable items (e.g. **Baloglu**, 1996, **Haati**, 1986). Some focused on clearly cognitive, descriptive and functional items, whereas most used a mixed approach, combining these items with evaluative and emotion-expressive adjectives (e.g. “exciting nightlife”). Those attributes that were mentioned most (in at least ten of the studies) are presented in table 5 (for a more detailed inspection see appendix A). They may be considered aspects that are most common for tourist destinations, although they may be less relevant for specific holiday types (e.g. “shopping” or “night life” for rural holidays, “historical sights” for beach holidays and “national parks” for urban holidays).

Some authors attempted to identify a more parsimonious structure of image content, using mostly factor analytical procedures. The before-mentioned studies were analyzed according to suggested dimensional structures (identified in 26 studies). Factors were categorized according to main themes, which revealed some dominant dimensions, shown in figure 19. Although these factors reflect diverse attributes used in the instrument and factor constitution is largely heterogeneous, some recurrent dimensions become evident. Thus, there is frequently a dimension relating to the natural environment, to cultural appeal, social interaction, tourism infrastructures, facilities, and opportunities for activities. Studies also measuring the affective component of destination image frequently reveal a dimension of pleasantness and another of arousal.



Crompton (1979b) stresses the need to determine each attribute’s relative importance in determining tourist behavior, which may differ for distinct tourist groups. **Lohman & Kaim**

(1999), for example, stress the role of weather perception for the German tourist market and suggest it for segmentation and positioning. **Ross** (1993) identified the saliency of “*friendliness of local population*” for the North American backpacker market. **Kastenholz** (1997, *et al.*, 1999) showed that different aspects are valued by distinct benefit-segments in the Portuguese countryside.

Focusing on “*rural destination image*”, **Chen & Kerstetter** (1999) quote **Willits, Bealer & Timbers**’ (1990) description of the image of rural America as being a “*nostalgic, heritage-related negative image of poorer quality of life*”, with the “*primary attraction of rural areas... (consisting in) their mystique*”. This “*rural mystique*” is contained in “...*images of farms, small towns with old-fashioned customs and traditional values, open spaces, and wilderness settings*”. **Saunders et al.** (1978: 63, cited by **Chen & Kerstetter**, 1999: 256) call it “*the repository of all that is stable, immemorial, harmonious, pleasant, and reassuring in the modern world.*” However one delimits a rural destination image, in these short descriptions the broad range, complexity and inter-relatedness of ideas, beliefs, impressions, feelings and concrete (visual) images associateable with a destination, being of a cognitive-descriptive-denotative and an affective-emotional-connotative nature, becomes obvious. Here, the image has even reached the status of a *myth*, attributed to rural areas, which underlines the role of *symbolic consumption* in the context of tourism.

Chapter 6.2. Destination Image Formation

6.2.1. General Theories

The process of image formation was defined by **Reynolds** (1965, quoted by **Echtner & Ritchie**, 1991) as the “*development of a mental construct based upon a few impressions chosen from a flood of information*”, ranging from promotional literature, opinions of others, general media, to one’s own experience. **Jenkins** (1999: 3) states that “*despite recent studies...the process of image formation is not well understood and the theoretical framework for understanding it is needed.*”

The discussion around destination image formation has been marked by **Gunn** (1972, 1988a), who introduced the notions “*organic*”, “*induced*” and later “*modified*” image, based on the sources of destination image formation and the consideration of its evolution over time. The major impact of **Gunn’s model of image formation** (1988a) justifies its more detailed discussion. Already in 1972 she suggests the distinction between an “*organic image*” as a result of non-commercial information and an “*induced image*”, resulting from destinations’ information directed at their potential market. **MacKay & Fesenmaier** (1997) name the first a “*person-determined*”, the second a “*destination-determined*” image. **Gunn** (1988a) developed a *model of tourist experience and image formation*, shown in figure 20. Here, the most image-relevant steps are steps 1, 2 and 7, although steps 4-6, namely the experience on trip and on site are crucial for step 7. **Gunn** stresses further that

destination images are more based on a large variety of non-commercial information than is usually the case for “common” product images. Individuals may have images of a destination even if they have never visited it. One may distinguish images before and after the visit, and also images after the first visit should differ from those after repeat visits.

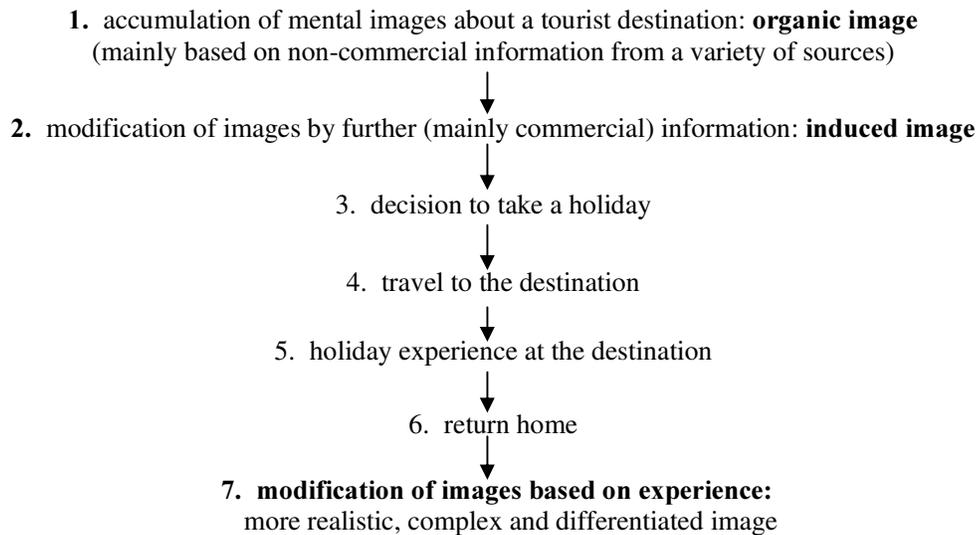


Fig.20. Gunn’s model of image formation

Gunn’s “stage theory” implies that images held by potential visitors, non-visitors, first-time and repeat visitors differ. Empirical evidence shows that images held by repeat visitors tend to be more realistic, complex and differentiated (**Pearce**, 1982, 1988, **Chon**, 1990b). On the other hand, **Phelps** (1986: 172) showed that images may fade or revert over time, especially if intervening visits to similar destinations confuse memory.

Gunn’s major contribution lies in suggesting an analytical framework for destination image formation. This considers the dynamic processes leading to a continuously reshaped and enriched image, based on the accumulation of complex information from a large variety of sources. It further has the merit of combining image-research with travel-experience and decision-making models, considering simultaneously rules of cognitive psychology (e.g. learning theories) and marketing paradigms (e.g. the influence of market communication). However, it does not explicitly recognize the impact of personal variables (such as socio-demographics, motivation, personality) or of travel context (e.g. purpose of visit, length of stay) in image-formation, focusing primarily on cognition based on information. Nevertheless, the model provides a rich basis for further development.

Phelps (1986), perhaps in analogy with the terminology of *primary* and *secondary data*, distinguishes between a “**primary image**”, based on the experience of place, and a “**secondary image**”, based on communication received about the destination. The “**secondary image**” would correspond to Gunn’s “**induced image**” and be located before the trip and the “**primary**” to the

“*complex or modified image*” being developed after the trip. She further uses the term “*prior images*” corresponding to Gunn’s “*organic images*” existing before the trip.

Gartner & Hunt (1987) suggest that a combination of both induced and organic factors determine simultaneously and interactively destination image “...because image change is a slow process, it is not possible to separate out the contributions of any one particular factor.” **Gartner** (1989) develops the idea further, suggesting a continuum between an *organic* (experience-based) and an *induced* (advertising-based) image. Its formation is marked by extensive information search, due to the risk inherent in and the significance of the tourism product. This author differentiates diverse stages on this continuum, using as criteria “*image formation agents*” (**Gartner, 1993**)¹¹⁵:

- **overt induced I**: based on traditional advertising, which attempts to construct an image of salient attributes of the destination in the minds of the targeted audience.
- **overt induced II**: based on information received from tour operators, who project attractive images for areas to which they arrange tours.
- **covert induced I**: transmitted by a recognizable spokesperson, mostly an attractive and credible person, serving as an opinion leader.
- **covert induced II**: image-projection without visibility of the involved destination promoters through travel writers and special interest media.
- **autonomous**: formed by independently produced reports, documentaries, movies, articles, etc. There is no control over the projected image by destination promoters.
- **unsolicited organic**: created by personal communication. Retention of information is low (unsolicited) and credibility depends on the source.
- **solicited organic**: developed during the process of active information search, based on “word-of-mouth”, which are the “*most relied upon sources of information for destination selection*”.
- **organic**: based on previous travel, with “*experience provided through destination visitation (being) of critical importance in forming positive salient beliefs about travel to the area...*”

Chon (1990b) uses the term “*image building*” in the sense of modifying induced images, which should particularly take place through travel experience. Similar to **Gunn** (1988a), also this author analyzes the evolution of image formation along the travel experience, distinguishing:

1. “**Primary image construction**”, influenced by both “*push-motives*” (according to Maslow) as well as the destination’s “*pull factors*” (attractions/ benefits offered). This image determines decision based on the perceived likelihood of satisfying needs through a destination visit.
2. “**Anticipation**”, marked by accumulation of organic images, information search, modification of image and performance expectancy.
3. “**Travel decision**” considering images of alternatives.
4. “**Travel to destination**”, “*experience on-site*”, “*travel back home*” leading to an accumulation of new images.

¹¹⁵ **Gartner** (1993) also discusses the credibility, penetration potential and cost of each stage from a destination marketing approach.

5. “**Recollection**” and further image modification, through comparisons between images and perceived reality, resulting in different congruity conditions and corresponding satisfaction levels.

It is interesting that **Chon** (1990b) uses the term “*primary image*” in the exact opposite way suggested by **Phelps** (1986), namely in the sense of an image prior to tourist experience. The “*anticipation*” phase may actually better be located *after* the travel decision, with more concrete imagery processes taking place. Phase 2 might rather be named “*information seeking*”. Image modification should occur also during the travel experience, not just after the trip, when “*recollecting*” images and experiences. This author primarily studied tourist satisfaction based on (in-) congruity-conditions, focusing on the effect of experience on image change.

Another interesting approach is **Fakeye & Crompton’s** (1991) combination of the traditional models of consumer decision making with Gunn’s image formation model. They suggest the following steps in image formation:

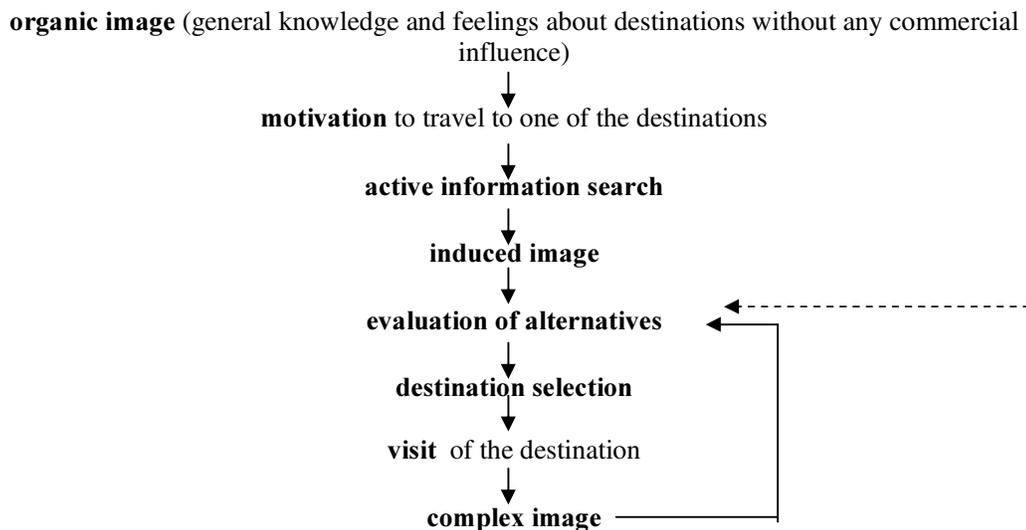


Fig.21. Fakeye & Crompton’s (1991) image formation model

These authors show that organic, induced and complex images all contribute to an overall image, that is evaluated in the decision making process, leading to destination choice and feedback into future decision making.

Images may be *changed* by incoming information. However, individuals tend to avoid contrasting information (cognitive dissonance), which implies selective and distorted perception. Image change tends to be gradual, with a general reassessment only taking place, if enough new and credible information is received (**Gartner**, 1993). The *stability of image* has been stressed by several other authors (**Crompton**, 1979b, **Gartner & Hunt**, 1987, **Fakeye & Crompton**, 1991), who explain

that it may continue long after the determining factors have changed: “... *Image can be changed, but the task is likely to be difficult, costly and time-consuming*” (**Fakeye & Crompton, 1991**).

Gartner (1986) stresses the importance of “*image induction*” from the point of view of destination marketing, “*as tourism boards have a product to sell.*” **Uzzell** (1984: 81) specifies the goal of *destination promotion*: “...*informing people of the existence of a... product... favorably disposing them toward it and changing their opinions, attitudes, and behavior so that they will want to consume that product.*” Resistance to image change should be broken using a long term and consistent promotional strategy. Also **Gartner** (1993) defends that, *induced image formation attempts must be focused and long term* to be effective. This author suggests concentrating efforts on improving the product and using organic formation agents (through client satisfaction), if financial resources are scarce. In any case, *effective image change depends on an assessment of presently held tourism images*, permitting corrections in destination positioning (see also **Wellhoerner, 1992**). **MacKay & Fesenmaier** (1997) focus on the effect of *promotional visuals*, since tourism implies a uniquely visual experience, in which photographs assume an important role. They stress the need to identify salient pictorial dimensions, to analyze how visuals are interpreted and which individual and pictorial attributes influence most interpretation.

Fesenmaier & MacKay (1996) point at the *socio-cultural effects* of tourism literature. Thus, advertising discourse relates to “*cultural identity*” and uses a type of “*political propaganda*” controlling “*culture and image*”. They stress the role of “*advertising and tourism literature in the public representation of tourist experience ...*”. According to **Selwyn** (1996) tourists, destination residents and tourist observers in contemporary culture create “*myths*”. This “*myth making*” is suggested to result from the tension between centers and peripheries, the cultural milieu in which tourism operates and the search for the *authentic*. **Meethan** (1996) stresses in this context, that the “*production and consumption of tourist space is inherently ambiguous*”. He demonstrates this for Brighton, whose dominant image has changed over time through a “*system of distinction and exclusion*” based on power relationships that determine “*control over space*”. Especially in the case of tourists’ images of native people, stereotyping is likely to lead to “*staged authenticity*” (**MacCannell, 1973**), i.e. the projection of images that are far from social reality (**Cohen, 1993**). Even if one admits the negotiability of authenticity (**Selwyn, 1996**), the ambiguous nature of image formation in the process of social construction, depending on the perspective, information sources, cultural background and motives of the observer, must be acknowledged.

Gartner (1993) highlights the role of destination size in the process, claiming that “*the larger the regional entity the more slowly the images of these entities change.*” On the other hand, “*the*

smaller the entity in relation to the whole (destination region) the less of a chance to develop an independent image.”

Crompton (1979b) refers to the theory of image causation by both the perceiver and the stimulus-object. Accordingly, destination-image is both:

- *person-determined*, implying a large image variability due to different experiences, and
- *destination-determined*, with image not being completely controllable due to the complexity of existing attributes. This proposition implies that a destination cannot do much to create any image different from “what it is”.

Similarly, **Um & Crompton** (1990, see also **Um**, 1993) distinguish between external and internal inputs. They suggest a cognitive model of destination choice, considering “*awareness*” and “*evoked sets*”¹¹⁶ and based on image plus situational factors (perceived facilitators and inhibitors).

Baloglu (1996) also stresses that both stimulus factors and travelers’ characteristics determine destination images in a dynamic process. This author suggests a path model showing influences of a series of socio-demographic, motivation and information-related variables (see fig. 23, p.147) on destination image. He claims that cognitive evaluation together with motivations influence affective image, with affect functioning as an intervening variable between cognition and overall image (see also **Baloglu & McCleary**, 1999). Also **Woodside & Lysonski** (1989) suggest in their model (see fig. 7, p.27) that destination awareness is dependent upon marketing and traveler variables. These would determine affective associations and thereby preferences, intentions to visit and, given adequate situational variables, choice.

The psychological basis of image is stressed by **Jenkins & McArthur** (1996: 11), who defend that “*each person’s image of a particular place is unique, comprising their own memories, associations and imaginations of a particular place.*” In a macro perspective, **Stabler** (1990) suggests image formation to be a function of demand and supply, making a link between consumer behavior and economic theory. He defines demand-related factors similar to those included in **Gunn’s** model of organic image formation (socio-economics, psychological features, prior experience) and supply-related factors (tourism marketing, media) as leading to induced image formation. Again, the limitation of supply factors to marketing is debatable.

Phelps (1986) questions how a *secondary image* is formed, relates to reality and how “*false prior images*” may be handled. As perception of place is a highly personal matter, one may question whether there is anything like a “*false image*”. Images may be distorted, with little relation to reality and the detection and correction of any incorrect negative images is fundamental for any destination marketing approach. However, there will always be differences between how a

¹¹⁶ These are the sets of destinations a tourist is aware of, and he/ she considers when seeking information about alternative holiday sites, respectively.

destination views itself and how its visitors see it. Even among visitor groups these differences should be detectable. There is no such thing as the “*exact destination image*” which is objectively observable and measurable. The difference between perception and reality has been highlighted before and has been studied for a number of products, far less complex than tourist destinations. The correspondence between image and reality is, to a certain extent, secondary for image research: “...*whether an image is a true representation of what any given region has to offer the tourist is less important than the mere existence of the image in the mind of the person*” (Jenkins, 1999). Therefore, destination image differences should be accepted as natural. Their identification is a first step in attempting to come closer to the “*ideal*” destination image of a certain, carefully selected tourist group (target market), if this ideal is shared with other relevant destination stakeholders (population, tourism supply, regional development agencies). Obviously, this *ideal* cannot be too far from the *realistically achievable image*, since the stimulus-object itself determines perception.

Still, what actually determines destination image are dreams, expectations, wishes, related to the holiday and shaped by personal variables and a variety of external sources, confronted with reality. Most researchers acknowledge the subjective and dynamic nature of image formation, which has *organic* and *induced* elements, and is both determined by the destination (stimulus) and the tourist (perceiver) (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989, Stabler, 1990). The so formed image is suggested to determine destination choice. Experience on-site is considered most relevant for image validation and eventual correction, leading some authors to distinguish between images prior to and after the visit (Phelps, 1986, Gunn, 1988a,b, Chon, 1990b). Also the distinction between diverse image formation agents or sources has been discussed (Gartner, 1993) and models including diverse factors of image formation have been suggested (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991, Baloglu, 1996).

In this thesis the emphasis is rather on the perceiver than on “objective” features of the destination, when trying to understand how destination image is formed. Although conceptually most interesting, purely *organic* and *induced images* should hardly exist, as images result from a large variety of not always controllable or even conscious sources. However complex the models that researchers produce to assess destination image formation, they will hardly be complete and might differ in the role of specific determinants and inhibitors, when analyzing different tourist markets.

Chapter 6.2.2. Specific Image Determinants

Extending the discussion of general image-formation, the following paragraphs will look in further detail at specific determinants, which have been identified to influence images of destinations.

Across fields the importance of image determinants has been stressed (Phelps, 1986, Gartner, 1989, Fakey & Crompton, 1991, Kotler *et al.*, 1995, Gartner, 1993, Baloglu, 1996). As seen

before, personal and destination-related factors can be distinguished as major categories of determinants of destination image.

One major factor seems to be “*experience with the image-object*”, which is also supported by the image-discussion in cognitive psychology, and can be considered a factor of both personal and stimulus-based nature. *Experience with the destination* was suggested to lead to more detailed and complex images (Hunt, 1975; Pearce, 1982, Gartner & Hunt, 1987, Telisman-Kosuta, 1989). Some authors (Ahmed, 1996, Edwards *et al.*, 2000, Chaudhary, 2000) found that (repeat) visit led to more pronounced convictions about the destination. Hu & Ritchie (1993) stress the role of “*familiarity*”, which should depend upon *distance* between residence and destination, *experience* with the destination and *knowledge* about it. Walmsley & Young (1998) defend *familiarity* to be highest with the place of residence, which is evaluated based on “*organic image*”.

Several authors found evidence for destination image differences between *visitors* and *non-visitors* (Jenkins, 1999, Chon, 1990b, Ahmed, 1999, 1996, Fakey & Crompton, 1991, Milman & Pizam, 1995). Hunt (1975), Garvey (1993) and Milman & Pizam (1995) showed that *repeat visitors* had a *more favorable image* of the destination than non-visitors did. This confirms general consumer behavior research, which has proved that familiarity with the product/ brand leads to sympathy towards this item (Kroeber-Riel, 1992: 630, referring to studies undertaken by Zajonc, 1968, 1980). Phelps (1986) reports that visitation of Menorca altered favorably impressions about this destination. Edwards *et al.* (2000) confirm a positive effect of prior experience on the affective and overall image of the Alto Minho region in North Portugal. MacKay & Fesenmaier (1997) showed that prior experience led to more affective evaluations of visuals, revealing the evolution of emotional links. Favorable destination images found with repeat visits are likely to be due to positive prior experience (Chon, 1990b). This may lead to destination loyalty and an accumulation of positive images in a “*positive vicious circle*” or “*virtuous circle*”:

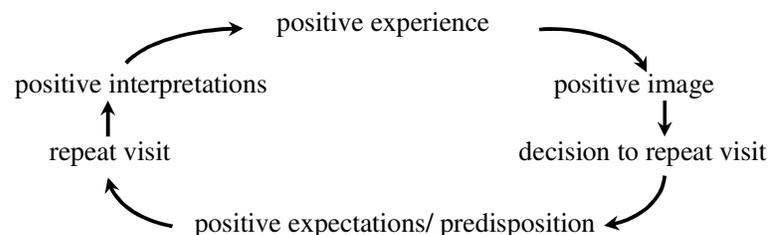


Fig.22. Virtuous circle of destination image and loyalty

Prior experience may stand for three different influencing factors: augmented *knowledge*, increased *involvement* and *habituation*, which may function more or less simultaneously. Increased knowledge may result in a more complex, detailed and less stereotypical image,

including both positive and negative aspects¹¹⁷. Increased involvement/ loyalty may lead to a more positive image, i.e. positive stereotyping. Apart from this, prior experience refers to behavior, which was identified as an important element for image prediction, due to *self-perception theory*.

The role of experience for destination image has also been questioned. Thus, **Phelps** (1986) found that both first-time and repeat visitors to modern Menorca expected to encounter a traditional settlement style. She concludes that the “*public image*” of a destination (projected by destination promotion) may sometimes be more persuasive than personal observation. Another explanation would be the tendency of “*seeing what we want to see*”¹¹⁸. **Young** (1999) reveals similar evidence for a “*significant overlap between ...meanings of place produced by the tourist industry and ...consumed by tourists, ...suggesting that actual experience does not significantly affect place meanings.*” On the other hand, the type of previous travel experience reflecting preference for specific environments determined image differences, which may suggest that “*psychological motivations of visitors may directly influence how place is appraised to a greater extent than actual experience of place.*” Actually, prior experience may not be the most relevant factor, but rather the motivation- and the involvement-revealing nature of repeated experience.

Increased knowledge/ familiarity can also result from sources other than experience. Information may be sought due to an individual special interest, reflecting involvement, or may impose itself on the individual, such as by the fact of geographical or cultural closeness. “*Involvement-reflecting familiarity*” should result in a positive image, whereas “*situation-imposed familiarity*” may not necessarily have this positive effect. **Scott et al** (1978) found that different attribute-perceptions discriminate between preferers and non-preferers of a specific destination, according to distance of residence. This confirms motivational differences, probably linked to perceptual differences, due to proximity. **Hunt** (1975) showed that *distance* from the destination decreased respondents’ capacity of distinguishing sub-areas within a region. **Crompton** (1979b) showed that the farther away respondents resided from Mexico and the fewer prior visits to the destination the more favorable its image. He suggests this fact to be related to the negative stereotype of the Mexican border-towns. This study shows that proximity-caused familiarity may also lead to negative destination image. **Ahmed** (1996) found regional differences of destination image, but no clear correlation between distance and favorable image. Instead, image differences could be more related to socio-cultural differences between regions, with evaluations based on comparisons with the place of residence. In any case, proximity should enhance more detailed and clearer pictures (**Telisman-Kosuta**, 1989), but not necessarily result in more positive images.

¹¹⁷ “*First-hand experience reduces stereotyping and leads to a change in image, shifting the traveler’s images from simple black and white perceptions to more qualified perceptions of the destination.*” (**Pool**, 1965, as cited by **Fakeye & Crompton**, 1991)

¹¹⁸ One may view destination image as “*wishful thinking of holiday-makers*” (**Phelps**, 1986: 174).

Confronting this finding with that of positive image correlated with experience-based familiarity, one may conclude that knowledge alone is not sufficient for a positive destination image. This knowledge must be based on repeated positive personal experience, linked to satisfaction of specific needs, resulting in increased involvement and loyalty. However, even repeated visit may not guarantee positive image enhancement, as visible in **Crompton's** study (1979b), especially if this repeated visit is not based on increased involvement and genuine liking of the destination.

Also *length of stay* may stand for experience/ knowledge, as studied by **Fakeye & Crompton** (1991). They found a typical U-shaped attitude curve, which shows a positive evolution of destination image up to a certain point in time from when on habituation and the adoption of a more critical perspective take place. This can be one reason for increased “*realistic*” images.

One must bear in mind that tourists differ in their need for familiarity versus exoticism. This is related to the optimal level of arousal, which differs from person to person and along a person's life-cycle. The relation between positive image and familiarity may thus be *moderated by a travel-personality variable*, namely the before mentioned “*psychographic style*” (see pp.23-24). Also this may be a reason for a negative correlation between prior visits and positive image of Mexico in Crompton's study. This destination may heavily rely on an image of “exoticism” as basic attraction, which loses its impact after visitation. The assumption of “psychographic style” as a moderating variable has not yet been considered in destination image studies, but will be tested in this thesis. In the context of *destination promotion* **MacKay & Fesenmaier** (1997) suggest different interpretation of visuals, due to color, landform, texture, sense of openness, land cover types, informational and perceptual variables. They refer to evidence showing that *familiarity with landmarks* diminishes excitement felt in a landscape and that *familiarity with natural scenery* enhances a positive feeling. That is, the optimal level of arousal or “*familiarity versus exoticism*” should also depend on the image object and its context. **MacKay** (1995) also concludes that “*more familiar individuals would hold destination images closer to the holistic, psychological and unique ends of the Echtner and Ritchie (1993) image dimension continua. Conversely, individuals unfamiliar with a destination would fall closer to the attribute, functional, and common ends...*”

Considering further the “*spread of effect*” hypothesis, **Pearce** (1982) analyzed whether travel to one destination altered the attitude towards other similar destinations and eventually towards the home country. Travel indeed resulted in image changes for visitors to Greece, viewing it as more adventurous, cheaper, exotic, less crowded, with a generalizing effect visible in relation to Italy. Britain, the respondents' home country, was considered more appealing in terms of food and social life after the holiday. Results support hypotheses for image changes and the “spread-of-effect”

hypothesis. There was no general positivity effect visible for all aspects at the destination or at home, which shows that both apparently serve as mutual points of reference.

Reviewing the empirical evidence and theoretical assumptions concerning “*experience*” and “*knowledge*” as destination image determinants, “*familiarity*” is suggested to be the main construct, which may be “*experience-based*” or “*not-experience-based*” and “*involvement reflecting*” or “*involuntary*”. Generally, it can be assumed that familiarity with a destination may result in a lower degree of stereotyping (although stereotypes seem to be quite persistent socially negotiated constructs, see **Young**, 1999 and **Phelps**, 1986). Second, “*involvement-reflecting familiarity*” should result in positive destination image, especially when experience-based. “*Involuntary familiarity*” may result in both positive and negative image, being a positive result generally more likely, but particularly when experience-based¹¹⁹. Third, a tourist’s “*psychographic style*” and a destination’s “*psychographic appeal*” may moderate the impact of familiarity on destination image.

FAMILIARITY	experience-based	non-experience-based
Involvement reflecting	Most positive image	Positive image
Involuntary	Rather positive image	Neutral

Table 6. Effect of familiarity on image, considering experience and involvement

“*Context*” has been studied as another image-determining factor. **Hu & Ritchie** (1993) stress the importance of context for decision-making, referring to **Belk** (1974), who defines context as “*all those factors particular to a time and place of observation: dimensions of physical and social surroundings, temporal aspects, task definition and antecedent states.*” They suggest that perception of the attractiveness of a destination varies within *usage context*, which may also be defined as “*intended consumption situation*” (**Hu & Ritchie**, 1993). Correspondingly, **Snepenger & Milner** (1990) refer to “*different buyer and user roles anticipated by the individual, as reflected by trip purpose*”. Similarly, **Javalgi et al.** (1992) observed image variation by trip purpose (**Baloglu**, 1996). **Ross** (1993) found specific actual and ideal destination images of backpacker visitors to North Australia. **Hu & Ritchie** (1993) identified different destination images according to the purpose of trip being of a *recreational* versus *educational* nature. These authors refer to studies about the air-travel market, which point at different perceptions of business versus pleasure travelers. **Dadgostar & Isotalo** (1995) relate *leisure motives* and particular *recreational pursuits*¹²⁰ to destination image. **Stabler** (1990) suggests that the tourist market might be segmented by image differences, based on *season, activities sought* or *facilities offered*. **Gartner**

¹¹⁹ Evidence from cognitive psychology suggests that repeated confrontation with a stimulus increases liking (**Kroeber-Riel**, 1992).

¹²⁰ In this context, they refer to **Iso-Ahola’s** (1980) leisure-needs classification: 1) relaxation, 2) diversion and 3) social participation.

(1986) studied the effect of *season* on destination image, without yielding conclusive results, though. The author suggests that “*possibly temporal influences are being masked by a strong brand image*”, but also the research design may not have been the most adequate¹²¹.

The *type of experience* (critical incidents) at the destination, combined with the tourist’s *motivation* and expectations, should also impact on global destination evaluation, as evidenced by a series of studies on *satisfaction*. In this context, also activities pursued, form of accommodation used, distance traveled, length of stay and other variables are of interest. **Weiler** (1989) analyzed the role of contact and interaction with the population at the destination as a determinant factor. He points at “*...studies in the areas of cross-cultural education and ethnic conflict... (which) suggest three key variables... (for) attitude change: 1) pre-trip motives, 2) opportunities for contact with host population, and 3) type of interaction...*”. He suggests “*length of stay*” for operationalizing “contact-opportunity” and “*type of accommodation*” for (more or less structured) “type of interaction”. Results were inconclusive, though, but theoretical assumptions seem worth of more research initiative in this direction.

Richardson & Crompton (1988) studied the impact of *cultural background* on image, defining culture as “*patterns of behavior or organized system of knowledge and belief*”, reflected by a specific “*way of seeing things*”, life styles, work and value orientations, leisure and consumer behavior. They identified differences between French and English speaking Canadians in their image of Canada versus the USA as tourist destinations. Culturally based differences were more significant than those related to income or education. Generally, Canada was viewed favorably by Canadian tourists, which may be linked to the before-mentioned “*experience-based, involvement-reflecting familiarity*”. Especially French speaking Canadians preferred Canada to the USA, which may be related to their closer cultural proximity, enhancing “*involvement-reflecting familiarity*”. **Ahlemoud & Armstrong’s** (1996) study about (organic) images of Kuwait shows differences between Kuwaiti native students and English-speaking foreign residents, which should also be due to cultural differences.¹²² Finally, **MacKay & Fesenmaier** (2000) report interpretation differences of promotional destination images due to different cultural origins of respondents.

Several researchers have studied the role of *tourist information* in destination image formation. **Woodside & Lysonski** (1989) consider tourist information particularly determinant for cognitive destination image. **Dilley** (1986) stresses the significance of international tourist brochures as a

¹²¹ The study was undertaken via two surveys in November 82 and February 83, using a stratified random sample of US households, who were requested to evaluate impressiveness of attractions and activities of four US states. The assumption was that those answering in November referred to the winter season and those answering in February referred to spring/ summer, which seems questionable.

¹²² Kuwaiti native students were more impressed with manufactured attractions, whereas English-speaking foreign residents were more impressed with cultural attractions.

medium for the formation of images in the context of overseas travel. **Gunn** (1988a) and **Gartner** (1993) distinguish different types of tourist information, leading to different stages in destination image construction. **Phelps** (1986) stresses the difference between direct and indirect information acquisition, with personal experience having a stronger impact. **Baloglu** (1996) analyzes the role of “*variety*” and “*type of information sources*” used, which he suggests to impact on cognitive destination image in a proposed path-model. The cognitive image should then impact on affective image. **Baloglu & McCleary** (1999: 890) point at a further probable direct effect of information sources on affective image. **Um & Crompton** (1990) distinguish between “*significative*” (actual visitation), “*symbolic*” (ads) and “*social stimuli*” (interpersonal communication), **Mill & Morrison** (1992) between “*commercial*” and “*social*” information, **Mansfeld** (1995) between “*formal*” (commercial) and “*informal*” information and **Gitelson & Crompton** (1983) between “*internal*” (experienced) and “*external*” information. **Baloglu** (1996) divides “*type of information*” into “professional advice”, “word-of-mouth”, “advertisements” and “books/ movies/ news”. He showed that the larger the variety of information sources used, the more positive the overall image. This variety of information used may actually be an indicator of a higher degree of involvement. *Word-of-mouth* was identified as the most important information source affecting cognitive image. A general problem lies in the distinction between information sources, which may actually interact in a tourist’s image formation process.

Attempting to summarize the diverse approaches on information typologies for destination images, one may distinguish the dimensions “*non-commercial- commercial*”, “*direct-indirect*” and “*personal- impersonal*”, implying different degrees of source credibility, involvement and corresponding impacts on image:

INFORMATION SOURCES	NON-COMMERCIAL	DIRECT	PERSONAL	IMPACT
Personal experience	X	X	X	Highest
Reported personal experiences of others via interpersonal communication	X		X	High
Reported personal experiences via media	X			Mid-high
Promotion via interpersonal communication			X	Medium
Promotion via media				Lowest

Table 7. The impact of types of information sources

Several authors studied the effect of *socio-demographics* on image (**Baloglu**, 1996, **Walmsley & Jenkins**, 1993). **Walmsley & Jenkins** (1993) showed that gender and age affect images. Also **Fridgen** (1984) defends that images vary depending on age. In his model of image formation **Baloglu** (1996) tested in how far age and educational level influenced cognitive and affective destination images. Findings were ambiguous, though, with correlation and regression analyses

supporting the suggested relationships, but the path model not confirming a direct effect on affective image. Further, the role of these variables was found to be destination-dependent.

Other personal factors identified as determinants of destination image are *need-value systems*, *motives*, *expectations* and *personality* (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). Gartner (1993) and Dann (1996) consider *motives or benefits sought* determinant for affective image. Also Goodall (1990) defends that motivations influence perceptions, preferences, expectations and images of tourist destinations. Woodside (1982) and later Hu & Ritchie (1993) used *benefits sought* for positioning. Baloglu (1996) found only weak support for the hypothesis that socio-psychological motivations influence affective destination image, but revealed significant interaction between age and motivation.

Baloglu (1996)'s approach is insofar most interesting, as it attempts to integrate a series of determining variables, from both the destination and tourist domain, in a model of image formation, considering further the theoretical assumptions of attitude research. He further validates the model, applying it to four different destinations, chosen as concurrent tourist destinations. The differences justify doubt about the validity of a general tourist destination choice model and are suggested to be due to a differential "level of awareness" of each destination. Thus, determinants of image are assumed to vary for destinations in the "awareness sets" and "evoked sets" (see also Crompton, 1992)¹²³. The path model permits a decomposition of a correlation into simple (direct) and compound (indirect) effects. Visitation intention is measured in order to assess predictive validity of the model. The model is limited in so far as it is unidirectional and ignores factors, which may play a role in image formation (e.g. season, awareness set, different degrees of familiarity etc.) (Baloglu, 1996). The global model has the following configuration (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999):

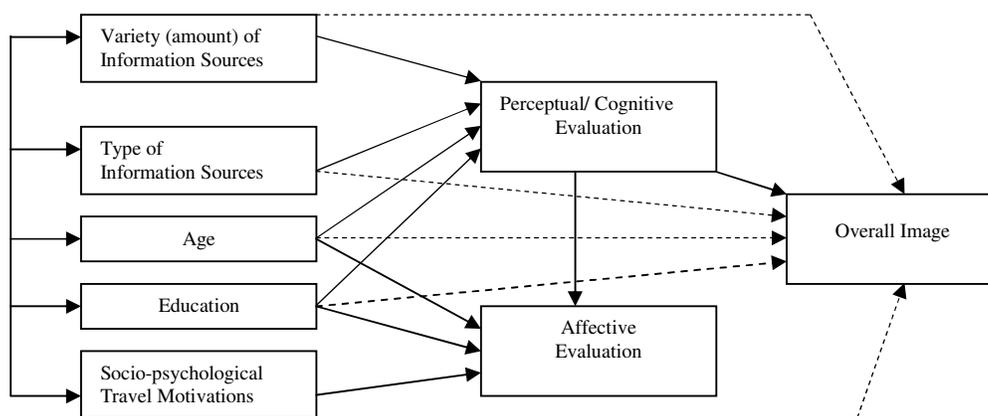


Fig.23. Baloglu's (1996) model of destination image formation
Source: Baloglu & McCleary (1999): 871

¹²³The suggestion of the role of "awareness" may not be the only nor most important explanation. Type of destination and related tourism-purposes may also be relevant.

Also congruity judgements are suggested to determine destination image and travel behavior. **Sirgy & Su** (2000) distinguish between *functional congruity*, depending upon the tourist's perceptions of utilitarian destination attributes compared with respective ideal values, similar to the before mentioned approaches confronting expectations with perceptions, and *self-congruity*. They explain that "*self-congruity involves a process of matching a tourist's self-concept to a destination visitor image*". The authors suggest the development of a model integrating apart from functional and self-congruity, factors affecting the perception of the "typical destination visitor" (inferences are proposed for atmospheric cues, service quality, geographic location, price, advertising messages and media) and behavioral consequences (preference and patronage). In a series of propositions they further specify the dimensions of self-congruity and mediating self-concept motives¹²⁴ and their differential impact on travel behavior, depending on destination, tourist and situation characteristics¹²⁵. Finally, they consider the moderating effect of tourist's level of knowledge, prior experience, involvement and time pressure, affecting the importance of self-congruity compared with functional congruity for the behavioral outcome¹²⁶ and stress the biasing impact of self-congruity on functional congruity judgements.

In the context of rural destination image **Chen & Kerstetter** (1999) studied some of the previously discussed determinants. They suggest that image differences are based on *previous experience*, *familiarity*, *amount of time* spent at the destination, *cultural background*, *geographic origin* and (motivation-related) *expectations*. In an exploratory study of images held by international students of rural Pennsylvania, they examined image differences based on *travel behavior* (prior visit and intention to visit destination) and on *socio-demographics*. The identified image dimensions ("tourism infrastructure", "atmosphere", "natural amenity", "farm life") were perceived partially differently according to visitation intention. "*Those intending to travel to rural areas are significantly more likely than others to perceive tourism infrastructure and nature in these areas positively (whereas)... the atmosphere dimension was perceived positively by all...*". The authors found that a *previous visit* did not result in more positive images. However, indicators of involvement, liking and loyalty are missing. In the presented student sample, prior visit may have been of a non-voluntary, family-determined nature, which would undermine the argument of involvement-reflecting familiarity. *Country of origin* was identified as important, though, which

¹²⁴ "*Actual self-congruity*" is suggested to be mediated by the "*self-consistency motive*", "*ideal self-congruity*" by the "*self-esteem motive*", "*social self-congruity*" by the "*social consistency motive*", and "*ideal social self-congruity*" by the "*social approval motive*".

¹²⁵ Factors suggested to affect the activation of self-concept dimensions are: destination conspicuousness, age and travel party ("co-touring with significant others"), influencing mainly "*public self-type self-congruity*". Destination preference is proposed to be influenced by "*enhancement-type self-congruity*" (ideal self) and destination patronage to be more affected by "*consistency type self-congruity*" (actual self).

¹²⁶ **Sirgy & Sue** (2000) suggest that the less knowledge, experience, involvement and the greater time-pressure, the more important self-congruity effects.

led the authors (1999: 265) to the conclusion that “*various cultures have different images of, and perhaps different preferences for, rural tourism areas*”. On the other hand, since country differences could be summarized as those between domestic and foreign tourists, also the factor “*familiarity*” should be considered as a possible co-determinant of this finding.

Generally, one may retain that image determinants are related to the destination, the travel context and the tourist him/ herself. Some factors, such as prior experience, have received much attention in destination image research. It was suggested that familiarity with the destination may be considered the underlying dimension of this traveler- and destination-based variable, which may further reflect involvement. Another conceptually linked variable is “*proximity to the destination*”, which may also produce familiarity. Finally, information acquired may also lead to familiarity and reflect involvement. Experience and involvement are suggested as relevant co-determinants of the effect of familiarity on destination image. Also context variables, such as season, length of stay, type of accommodation and activities engaged in, have been analyzed, sometimes as proxy variables for other dimensions (motivation, degree of interaction with population, involvement and so on). Motivation is another recurrent and theoretically elaborated theme in destination image studies, as well as the analysis of socio-demographics, which are sometimes linked to motivation. Worth of notice is **Baloglu’s** (1996) effort to combine a series of determinants in a model of cognitive, affective and overall image. Theoretically interesting is **Sirgy & Su’s** (2000) suggestion of the role of self-congruity in destination image, as compared to functional congruity.

Chapter 6.3. Impacts on Tourist Behavior

“*Images are of paramount importance because they transpose representation of an area into the potential tourist’s mind and give him or her a pre-taste of the destination*” (**Fakeye & Crompton**, 1991:10). This is particularly important, “*as the decision-maker, having very limited personal experience with the destination, acts upon his image, beliefs, and perceptions of the destination rather than objective reality*” (**Hunt**, 1975). Similarly, **Gartner** (1993) affirms that “*due to the inability to pretest the tourism product, touristic images will often be based more on perceptions than on reality.*” Also **Crompton** (1979b) stresses the role of image in *destination selection* in the case of *limited personal experience*¹²⁷. He suggests the identification of “*respondents’ salient image attributes..., which are most likely to serve as behavior determinants.*” **Fesenmaier & MacKay** (1997) stress that destination image is a key factor in *pleasure travel* decisions. Understanding a destination’s image in the eyes of its market permits marketers to influence

¹²⁷“*Image of place is formed in the human mind in absence of physical environment*” (**Tuan**, 1990: 208). This is typically the case in destination choice, due to the lack of inspection qualities at the moment of purchase.

decision making of potential tourists (Crompton, 1979b, Woodside, 1982, Court & Lupton, 1997, Jenkins, 1999) or to enhance satisfaction of the effective market (Chon, 1990a).

Fesenmaier & MacKay (1996) explain that destination decisions may be rather based on *symbolic elements* of a destination as *conveyed in pictures* and processed as imagery rather than on their actual features. Mazanec (1989) suggests that the *visual aspects* used in destination promotion are *salient in the early stages of destination evaluation*, when expectations are formed leading to the desire for verification. Satisfaction results from a comparison between expectations and encountered reality, with imagery intervening as a consumptive experience connecting image and satisfaction (Fesenmaier & MacKay, 1996). These authors stress the role of promotional photographs in the orientation of the entire tourism experience, designing “*photography as key vehicle for manipulating imagery by molding what and how things are viewed.*” This has already been suggested by MacCannell (1976), referring to the use of “*markers*”¹²⁸ in destination marketing: “*tourist destinations commonly dramatize the values of selected sights so that the travel consumer is directed to what attractions ought to be seen...*”. This implies a *direction of tourist movements* at the destination via markers. Phelps (1986) confirms the relevance of advertising discourse, to which tourists’ stories seem to conform.

Visual, pictorial images of a destination, represented as imagery in the human mind, are usually associated with meanings and feelings, which determine not only aesthetic expectations, but also those related to atmosphere and experience likely to encounter. This propensity to associations, implicit in visual material, was discussed before and reflects its symbolic and affective richness and ambiguity. The whole imagery-creating process can be considered a *consumptive experience*, coming close to *virtual reality*, which in the case of destination choice commences with dreaming of a blue sky, pure air, fresh water, green valleys, perfumed flowers and so forth¹²⁹. Fesenmaier & MacKay (1996) speak in this context of the “*aesthetic function of images as vicarious fantasy experiences*”. Referring to Holbrook & Hirschman (1982), they explain that “*...tourism ...as a form of hedonic consumption can be linked to imaginative constructions of reality which are based on what consumers desire reality to be.*”

After destination choice, this fertile embellishing process of the destination is likely to become more and more vivid, resulting in an ideal vision of a dream, a holiday-maker is keen to come true and correspondingly eager to invest in to (Ryan, 1994, Phelps, 1986). That is why a strong positive prior image of a destination does not only contribute to its selection, but also to ongoing favorable

¹²⁸ “*highly recognizable carriers of desired connotations*” (Fesenmaier & MacKay, 1996)

¹²⁹ MacInnis & Price (1987) explain that imagery pervades the whole consumption experience: before consumption via vicarious consumption, during consumption by adding value, increasing satisfaction, after consumption via visual reconstruction, memories.

interpretations of and reactions towards signs emitted from the destination, both before, during and after travel, which should help making destination expectations “*self fulfilling prophecies*”, enhancing satisfaction.

Hunt (1975) stresses the importance of meanings conveyed in images as the “*major cause of demand*”, suggesting that *brand-self-image-congruity* may also determine tourist destination choice (see also **Sirgy & Su**, 2000). Several authors base their reasoning on the assumptions of *means-ends-analysis or expectancy-valence theory* (**Goodrich**, 1978, **Scott et al.**, 1978, **Mayo & Jarvis**, 1981, **Woodside**, 1982, **Gartner**, 1989, **Chon**, 1990a, **Gartner**, 1993, **Hu & Ritchie**, 1993, **Mansfeld**, 1995). The underlying idea is that destination-choice corresponds to the selection of a “*benefit package, unique to the destination, expected to provide the greatest intrinsic reward to the traveler*” (**Gartner**, 1989). This author, making a link to choice set models, explains that “*...image is an underlying concept which when formed correctly will force destination into... the evoked set...*”. **Baloglu & Brinberg** (1997) point at the role of destination image in *mental positioning* and recognition of differences, when confronted with a set of alternatives¹³⁰. Evidence for the assumption that “*...those destinations with strong, positive images are more likely to be considered and chosen...*” is reported by **Goodrich** (1978) and **Woodside & Lysinski** (1989).

Goodall (1990) describes the overall destination selection process, based on “*destination-sets*”:

1. “*initially perceived and attainable opportunity set*” (also called “*awareness set*”)
2. “*realizable opportunity set*”
3. social and internal constraints lead to the “*consideration set*”
4. situational and institutional constraints lead to the “*choice set*”
5. priority screening of holiday attributes leads to the “*decision set/ evoked set*” implying an attitudinal evaluation, based on prior experience, activity preference etc.
6. trade-off between evaluated holiday attributes leads to final holiday choice

Each set is composed of destination images, of which the potential tourist is aware and which are evaluated subsequently, based upon a series of criteria, resulting in a subjectively best option.

Also **Um & Crompton** (1990, see also **Um**, 1993) proposed a cognitive model of pleasure travel destination choice, explaining the formation of choice-relevant destination images via external and internal inputs, leading from the awareness, over the evoked set to a finally chosen destination. **Chon** (1990b) integrates image in the multi-stage buying process (need-recognition → information search → evaluation of alternatives → choice → post-purchase behavior). He stresses the role of initial images, since “*man’s image is generally very resistant to change*”. Recalling the “*cognitive dissonance*” paradigm, one may suggest that initial image guides all new incoming information.

¹³⁰ “*Image differentiates tourist destinations from each other and is an integral and influential part of travelers’ decision process*” (**Baloglu & Brinberg**, 1997: 11).

Also **Clawson & Knetsch** (1966)'s *tourist experience stage-model* (anticipation → travel to site → on-site behavior → return travel → recollection) lends itself to the integration of destination image. In each phase images are crucial for understanding, interpreting and evaluating information and experience. **Mercer** (1971) stresses the importance of the *recollection phase* for destination image, as it provides “*feedback into future decisions*”. This argument can be linked to the before evidenced role of personal experience in image formation, possibly resulting in a *virtuous circle* and thereby in a more behavior-relevant loyalty. Consequently, both the initial and the experience-modified image should be crucial for behavior. Experience is generally judged in terms of *satisfaction*, as studied by **Chon** (1990a), confronting prior images with experience. He successfully applied “*Evaluative Congruity Theory*” to destination images. This theory is related to *expectancy-valence theory*, with direction and intensity of behavior being a function of the expectation that certain actions will lead to specific, valued goals. In this context, satisfaction is viewed as “*a post-transactional emotional reaction directly related to motivation and performance*”, based on the comparison between “*performance expectancy*” and “*performance outcome*”. Level of congruity would depend on: 1) the level of congruity between perceptual and evoked values, 2) the strength of perception or belief and 3) the importance of the attribute dimension. The result of congruity would be an enhancement of a favorable attitude (image)¹³¹.

Mansfeld (1995) refers to the constraints in decision-making, the goal of which is not to maximize benefits, “...but rather to *reach a certain level of expectations*...”. He stresses that *random and irrational factors* influence the process, which is made within a given *social environment*. This influences the decision-making process in the context of prevailing social values. The author refers to the concept of “*values stretch*”,¹³² distinguishing between three levels of value:

1. “*preferences*”: preferred level of values; not actually attainable, future level
2. “*expectations*”: identified and tangible goals
3. “*tolerance*”: minimum level of value acceptance

Accordingly, three measurable stretches or gaps between value-levels may be identified:

1. *satisfaction gain*: gap between tolerance and expectation
2. *reconciliation gap*: between achievable and non-achievable goals (expectation--preference)
3. *value stretch*: gap between minimum and maximum goals (tolerance--preference)

¹³¹ Positive attitude enhancement is suggested to be greatest in the positive incongruity condition (negative prior image - positive performance), followed by the positive congruity condition (positive prior- positive final image). Negative image enhancement should result from negative congruity condition (negative prior – negative final image) and, especially, negative incongruity condition (prior positive – final negative image). However, any holiday trip seems implausible in the case of negative prior image, so that actually only the positive congruity and the negative incongruity conditions should be observable. This may be different for business travel and other less voluntary trips.

¹³² This concept has been discussed in the context of common versus class-differentiated value systems in the late 1960s and early 1970s American society with respect to “*success values*”.

Mansfeld suggests the application of the concept “*value stretch*” in tourism, with preferences translated into realistic objectives to achieve tourist “*utilities*” in future trips, expectations based upon last experience, and the tolerance level requiring that basic needs are met. This discussion may be integrated in image research, as also destination images may reflect “*ideal states*”, are further confronted with conscience of “*attainable states*” and demands of “*minimal states*”, translatable in diverse degrees of expectation and corresponding satisfaction. Service marketing literature refers to similar assumptions about different levels of expectation (**Bitner & Zeithaml**, 1998). These are implicit in prior images, shape destination choice and determine satisfaction.

Not only destination choice and satisfaction are variables affected by images, but also other more concrete behavioral variables, such as trip planning timeframe, budgeted travel cost or length of trip, as shown by **Chen & Hsu** (2000). **Dagostar & Isotalo** (1992) show a modest positive effect of image on time spent by near-home tourists in city destinations. Some studies confirm a positive correlation between destination image favorability and the likelihood (**Schroeder**, 1996), as well as the intention to return to the destination (**Ross**, 1993).

The above discussion confirms the influential role of destination image in tourist behavior, in terms of destination choice, behavior on-site, satisfaction and probability to recommend the destination. The relevance of image before travel relates to the specific risks inherent in the product, whereas the post-trip image should determine future behavior (eventual return, word-of-mouth). In this context, the role of imagery in tourism consumption was stressed. Links to the means-ends-theory, the value-stretch model, evaluative congruity theory, choice-set models, multi-stage buyer-behavior models and the model of tourist experience stages were traced.

Chapter 6.4. Role of Destination Image in Destination Marketing

Hunt (1975) summarizes the central role of destination image for a destination’s success as follows: “*Images, beliefs, and perceptions which individuals in the market have about a destination may have as much to do with an area’s tourist development success as the more tangible recreation and tourist resources, as the decision maker, having very limited personal experience with the destination, acts upon his image, beliefs, and perceptions of the destination rather than objective reality.*” That is, the before discussed relevance of destination image in tourist behavior naturally implies a corresponding position in destination marketing.

Confirming this idea, **Richardson & Crompton** (1988) explain that “*...understanding perceptions of the vacation attributes held by current and potential tourists is instrumental to effective tourism marketing and development... (as) perceptions are influential in directing decision making and behavior.*” Or, as **Dagostar & Isotalo** (1995) put it: “*Understanding the cognitive structure of*

destination image is a prerequisite to designing tourism marketing programs aimed at enhancing that image and increasing time spent by tourists in the destination.”

Destination image studies are driven by the conviction that the *understanding of image* and its determinants permits destination marketers to *influence* its *formation* and thus indirectly *decision making* (Crompton, 1979b, Embacher & Buttle, 1989), *tourist behavior* and *levels of satisfaction* (Chon, 1990a). The role of image in destination marketing is therefore directly related to its role in tourist behavior, as destination marketing attempts to influence the latter via image manipulation.

Gartner (1993) stresses the importance of images as determining a destination’s inclusion into the “*perceived opportunity set*”, which is evaluated in a way that “*only destinations with strong images on sought attributes survive...*”. Using **Dann’s** (1977) terminology, **Gartner** (1993: 193) explains that “*destination images can be viewed as «pull» factors. Therefore understanding how images are formed is critical to developing the «pull» potential of a destination.*” This author suggests to carefully manage this “*pull potential*” through an “*image mix*” which is determined by:

- the available budget
- the identification and manipulation of the *decision making body*¹³³
- the timing: different sources should be useful in different phases of the tourist’s information search process
- the type of image projected
- the type of product

Gartner & Hunt (1987) stress the role of *individual attractions* conferring *unique identity*, which are however often neglected, compared to the prevalence of an overall brand image of the locality of attraction. They suggest the following *image development process*:

- a) identification of *comparative advantages*, such as unique attractions;
- b) study of the *images* held by prospective travelers to judge the *actual relative position*;
- c) *shift the image closer to reality* or
- d) find a *gap to meet unfulfilled needs*.

This approach makes clear that the destination-product itself must be central to creating, manipulating and projecting an image, so that image and reality are not too far apart. **Crompton** (1979b) discusses whether to stress strong attributes or correct weak ones in destination marketing, concluding that the decision should depend on their importance to the target market.

¹³³ He suggests that families are most easily influenced by media, higher educated by specific destination literature, those over 60 years by friends & family and students by peers. See also **Kotler et al.** (1999) discussing the concept “*decision making unit*”.

Baloglu (1996: 4) suggests the implementation of “*Strategic Image Management*”, also defended by **Kotler et al.** (1993), as “*destinations compete on nothing more than the images held in the minds of potential travelers.*” This would imply an ongoing process of researching a place’s images among its audiences, choosing a target-market, also considering these images and positioning the place’s benefits to support an existing image or create a new one.

Acknowledging its relevance for behavior, **Jenkins** (1999) defends the usefulness of destination image as a basis for *segmentation*. Similarly **Court & Lupton** (1997) suggest segmentation based on destination image, destination experience and demographics. **Garvey** (1993) identified four image clusters of potential Wyoming tourists. Those with more positive images also quoted it more often as belonging to the “*evoked set*” for an eventual holiday. The author suggests setting marketing priorities by first targeting to segments with most positive prior images. Also different marketing approaches should highlight aspects viewed most positively by each segment.

For *positioning* purposes destination image must be studied and managed, as explained by **Echtner & Ritchie** (1993): “*positioning involves creating the appropriate image of the product in the minds of the consumer in the target markets ...tourism destinations... are certainly not an exception. Creating and managing an appropriate destination image are critical to effective positioning and marketing strategy.*” Also **Calantone et al.** (1989) defend the importance of “*creation and management of a distinctive and appealing image*” in positioning destinations. Both a destination’s holistic and unique aspects play a significant role in this process: “*holistic and unique images are particularly important in determining how a particular destination is categorized (stereotype holistic impressions) and differentiated (unique attractions, auras) in the minds of the targeted markets.....*” (**Echtner & Ritchie**, 1993).

Haati (1986: 32) defends the need of “a theory to guide ...resource allocations” in the context of “image building”, suggesting particularly “a positioning theory anchored in cognitive psychology and psychometrics”. This author stresses the usefulness of connecting **segmentation and positioning** in this context. In a study of Finland’s competitive position she identified relevant choice dimensions per segment. She views positioning as an interface between strategic marketing management and consumer behavior research, as it “shares the microeconomic roots of market segmentation... whereby the marketer determines the segment’s needs in terms of product benefits and decides upon an effective competitive strategy to satisfy those needs ... (leading to) psychological hierarchization of equivalent objects...”. “Image comparability” is a main issue when studying the competitive image of those destinations, which form a strategic group by serving the same needs.

Crompton, Fakeye & Lue (1992) address the frame of reference required by positioning, based on segmentation, image-analysis and selection of distinctive features to emphasize. The main objective would be to achieve a match between the benefits (perceived as) provided with those sought by the target market (**Woodside**, 1982). “Since all elements of a marketing program can potentially affect position, (it is)...necessary to use positioning strategy as a **focus for developing the marketing program**...(in a) consistent and supportive (way)” (**Aaker**, 1982). Based on these authors, **Morrison** (1989) suggests the following stages of destination positioning:

1. identify competitive destinations;
2. identify tourists’ images of the destination and competition (general and preferred);
3. identify benefits sought;
4. select an optimum position.

Focusing on *market growth through repositioning*, **Gartner & Hunt** (1987) propose an in-depth destination image study. “*Information from that study can be used to reposition the «product» and result in more product consumption.*” They stress that “*by understanding the relative importance of the content variables that contribute to the cognitive structure of the tourists’ image of the destination,(destination marketers) can develop more effective marketing programs.*”

The “*benefit-matching*” *destination marketing model* suggested by **Woodside** (1982) considers mainly those *benefits* that visitors perceive as *important and unique*. For positioning purposes, he suggests to particularly focus on these images in the minds of the *largest segment*¹³⁴. In a study of the tourist market of Nova Scotia, he found that the largest segment lacked the intention to visit the area. He claims that management misperceived benefits sought and, worse, focused on marketing the product instead of marketing benefits. The result was a “mismatch”, meaning that what was provided, was not sought. The ideal would be a “supermatch” (what is sought is provided). At least a “match” (most of what is sought, is provided) should be aimed at, as the perceived (expected) benefit-match constitutes a decisive factor in destination selection. **Woodside** (1982) suggests that “*promoting different benefit packages to attract different market segments, is less effective than matching an offer of one set of benefits to the benefits sought by one major market segment.*” This author defends *benefit-analysis* as a basic tool, permitting first *segmentation* and then a “*match-analysis*”, where perceptions are compared to benefits sought.¹³⁵ A focused, well-targeted

¹³⁴ This is discussible, though, as other features of a segment may make it attractive, such as buying power, length of stay, loyalty, compatibility with other stakeholders, facility to reach and satisfy segment, etc.

¹³⁵ Unfortunately he does not explicitly define “*image*” in this context. One could consider “*benefits sought*”, a motivational component of prior or ideal destination image and the “*match*” may be integrated into the final or complex image, which should contain an overall evaluation of the destination, based on experience.

approach should facilitate marketing and enhance success. A carefully selected, unique position should be maintained for some years, enhancing image consistency and stability.

One element of the marketing-mix, which very much relies on *image*, is **market communication** or *promotion*. **Weaver & McCleary** (1984) stress the need to adapt communication to the target-market. “*Since most advertising consists of printed material aimed at **building an image**, it is important for travel marketers to target their messages and use illustrations and photographs which are compatible with the values of the various potential target segments and elicit positive feelings from those segments.*” They found differences in the reaction towards visual ads, due to the type of stimulus (models depicted in holiday settings) and personal variables (sex, age). Several researchers have undertaken image-studies in this context (**Crompton**, 1979b, **Embacher & Buttle**, 1989, **Fakeye & Crompton**, 1991), some linking destination image promotion to positioning (**Reilly**, 1990, **MacKay & Fesenmaier**, 1997, **Kotler et al.**, 1993).

According to **Fakeye & Crompton** (1991) “*the primary goal in promoting a destination is to project images of the destination to potential tourists, so it becomes desirable to them.*” Consequently, tourism promotion has the function to initiate or change purchase behavior through information, persuasion or reminding. These authors suggest different types of promotional content and images, according to the tourist’s stage in the image-building process, namely:

Image stage	Type of promotion	Tourist Type
organic	----> informative	----> non-visitors
induced	----> persuasive	----> first-timers
complex	----> reminding	----> repeaters

Fig.24. Fakeye & Crompton’s (1991) model of promotion type depending on image stage

Crompton (1979b) alerts to the problem of *uncontrollable sources* making image creation and change difficult. He suggests that marketing may inform about attributes, people are not aware of, as long as these are congruent with other beliefs, and not contradicted by other sources.

Schroeder (1996) points at the importance of the *local population’s image* of the destination in so far as it may 1) determine local support of tourism development, 2) influence the destination image of tourists via information provided. Local support of tourism should directly influence destination reality in terms of supply and atmosphere of a destination. Especially *hospitality*, a central element of destination appeal, as confirmed by numerous studies, should depend on this. Also **Fesenmaier & MacKay** (1996) point at the need to consider the residents’ view, trying to avoid negative consequences of promotional image-creation, as the “*stereotyped portrayal of ethnic people makes them object of the tourist gaze*”. They refer to **MacCannell** (1976) explaining that “*...the images manufactured for tourism marketing tools influence how a destination sees itself.*” This implies

that image-creation, independent of local support, results in a correspondingly changed local identity, as also shown by **Cohen** (1993) and **Meethan** (1996). Considering the consequences, the question who defines what as a destination and who has the legitimacy of defining it is crucial (**Fesenmaier & MacKay**, 1996) and has not been satisfactorily solved in most cases.

The role of a shared and locally supported destination image has also been stressed by **Woehler** (1997) when using the term “*Leitbild*” (“guiding image”) in the sense that it should motivate, create enthusiasm and dynamism around tourism development, as well as a favorable background for tourist-resident interaction. It is in this context, that the role of *internal marketing* in terms of an inward-oriented, motivating, involving, cohesion-creating and identity-forming process must be emphasized. This approach has been considered most relevant for service businesses, in which the consumer has a more direct relationship with the producer (e.g. **Groenroos**, 2000). It may be even more important in the tourism context, in which the contact with the host population is a crucial factor for a positive evaluation of a holiday experience (e.g. **Kastenholz**, 1997).

In this section destination image was stressed as an important tool in destination marketing. It is generally used for analytic purposes when trying to identify strong and weak points of a destination from the consumer’s point of view. It may be a concern of marketing strategy, assisting in segmentation and, most importantly, positioning. Its knowledge may further help develop the most effective marketing mix via *image enhancing product development and appropriate market communication*. Finally, destination image may assume increased importance for an integrated and societal destination marketing approach, if shared by both tourists and the host population.

Chapter 6.5. Methodological Issues in Destination Image Research

The following sections address some methodological issues, considered most relevant for destination image research, particularly those related to image assessment and analysis. Actually, these topics should be addressed simultaneously when determining research design and are obviously related to the epistemological and conceptual research background defined. A researcher following the positivist paradigm will be more inclined to use quantitative approaches, whereas a *constructivist* will mainly use qualitative methods. Nowadays many researchers do not exactly fit in one category or the other. Some seem not to reflect on the issue and somewhat “naturally” (or habitually, due to the main paradigm adopted during their learning experience) follow a specific ontological and epistemological position, whereas others seem to be undecided and attempt to combine different paradigms. Obviously the discussion is not limited to destination image research, but implications of certain positions on methods and techniques chosen must be considered.

Chapter 6.5.1. Destination Image Assessment

Image studies are generally based on the *assumption that destination image is created by the human mind* and cannot be objectively captured by any scientific method other than by trying to uncover this mental representation. One possible procedure would theoretically be the *neuro-physiological approach*, attempting to assess image as a type of information stored in memory via electronic access to the human brain. These methods are not (yet?) available for destination image studies, though. They imply technical difficulties and ethical considerations, as to how far one may and should go when trying to obtain information for marketing purposes. This also applies if the final goal is positive in so far as it enhances local and/ or regional development¹³⁶.

Apart from this approach most related to natural sciences, also in the domain of human sciences different approaches are available. Generally, one may distinguish between *quantitative* and *qualitative* methods¹³⁷ and *direct* versus *indirect* approaches. **Echtner & Ritchie** (1991) call for a more specific and complex framework for destination image measurement than that used in product marketing. They suggest that methods could be borrowed from disciplines, such as psychology, environmental planning, marketing and geography.

One of the most popular methods is to *ask subjects directly about their mental image structure*. Generally, free elicitation and in-depth-interviews are used for obtaining more qualitative data and structured surveys for a more quantitative approach, but a strict distinction may be difficult.

Apart from asking directly, one may also try to indirectly obtain image information using *projective techniques*. Some more simple forms of projections are solicited when asking for associations with specific words (destination names) or pictures (destination photos). *Non-verbal techniques* have been used in destination image studies, especially based on *photographic images*, as these have been suggested to be crucial in imagery-formation, destination-experience and memory (**Fesenmaier & MacKay**, 1996, **MacKay & Fesenmaier**, 1997). Photo-associations are

¹³⁶ However, even if one adopts this utilitarian view, also the final goal may be questioned. There is still no consensual definition of *desirable development* and whether or not tourism may contribute in all cases to such a process has been strongly questioned (e.g. **Krippendorf**, 1987, **Turner & Ash**, 1975).

¹³⁷ **René Descartes** (1596-1650) founded the *quantitative research field*, proclaiming the importance of mathematics and objectivity in the search for truth. Later this view was questioned by **Immanuel Kant** (1724-1804) in his "*Critique of Pure Reason*" (1781), that may be the fundament of *the qualitative research stream*. He proposed that human perception is more than the evidence of the senses, and that knowledge is "*ultimately based on understanding, an intellectual state that is more than just a consequence of experience.*" Qualitative research approaches include subjectivism, idealism and relativism, acknowledge the limits of empirical inquiry and the role of the interpreting investigator. **Kant** suggested a distinction between "scientific reason" and "practical reason", between theory and decision-making, which may "*merely derive from inclination, passion, or desire*", implying a certain degree of freedom of human action in contrast to determinism. Later **Dilthey** (1833-1911) distinguished between "natural" and "spiritual/ human/ social sciences" (*Geisteswissenschaften*), stressing the role of understanding in contrast to explanation, as well as the importance of "lived experience", still of central concern in qualitative research today (**Hamilton**, 1994).

generally interpreted via content analysis and may be combined with the repertory-grid technique to elicit contrasting dimensions. Non-verbal and projective techniques are generally applied in combination with some type of direct “asking”. *Content and semiotic analysis* are applied to travel literature, promotional material and personal writing about the tourist experience, which may also indirectly reveal images held and/or projected (e.g. **Dilley**, 1986, **Young**, 1999, **Echtner**, 1999).

When using direct and indirect “asking procedures” a series of subsequent aspects have to be addressed: whom to ask, what to ask, when to ask, where and how to ask. First the “*what*-question” will be treated, considering the before presented definitions of destination image and corresponding ways of operationalizing it. Then the “*whom*” question will be addressed, identifying the relevant population, possible sampling and survey administration/ interviewing procedures, which is further related to the questions “*when*”, “*where*” and “*how*”. Several studies using diverse approaches will show methodological particularities. The discussion does not claim to be exhaustive. It should, however, reflect on the appropriateness of diverse methodological approaches, considering specific thematic and epistemological contexts, and reveal the limitations implicit in these methods.

Focusing first on the survey-method, which is most widely used in destination image research, some very popular *structured instruments* of image assessment are presented. Generally, *item-lists* reflecting the most relevant attributes or attractions of a destination have been used, together with a *Likert-scale for evaluation* (“*very good* \leftrightarrow *very bad*”) or more neutral *perceptual judgements* (“*not present/ offered at all* \leftrightarrow *very much present/ offered*”). This procedure has been suggested to capture the “cognitive” image, although the perfect separation of cognition from affect is discussible. Some understand that affect is generally present as soon as an evaluation is made. Therefore, the second above-mentioned version of perceptual judgements seems more adequate when focusing on cognition. The validity of this assessment instrument depends largely on the *relevance and completeness* of the attributes included in the list¹³⁸. Usually the attribute-list is developed based on literature review, analysis of guidebooks and promotional material, in-depth interviews or focus-group discussions with tourists or agents of the tourism industry. **Mansfeld** (1995) explains that there is a trade-off between increasing validity and decreasing reliability when increasing the number of attributes. That is why results of a pre-test with a large range of attributes are often subjected to *factor-* and *Cronbach alpha-analysis*, leading to fine-tuning of the list. **Reilly** (1990) questions whether a limited number of attributes that may not be the most important to respondents might yield a valid image assessment. He suggests the inclusion of *importance ratings* to validate results and eventually only consider the most important aspects in the “*beliefs* \rightarrow *affect*”

¹³⁸ **Jenkins** (1999) explains that “...*unless care is taken compiling the list of attributes, some or all of these attributes may be totally unimportant to the individual, or important attributes may be missing.*”

model. Importance weightings further permit understanding the underlying motivational structure of the perceiver as well as benefit-segmentation (e.g. **Kastenholz**, 1997, *et al*, 1999). Likert scales for measuring the cognitive/ belief component of destination image have been used by numerous researchers (**Pearce**, 1982, **Phelps**, 1986, **Calantone et al**, 1989, **Fakeye & Crompton**, 1991, **Javalgi et al.**, 1992, **Echtner & Ritchie**, 1993, **Milman & Pizam**, 1995). **Edwards et al.** (2000) also used semantic differential scales for assessing the cognitive component of destination image. They used descriptors with opposite meanings for different thematic domains (e.g. countryside: “*small fields*↔ *wide open spaces*”, food: “*rich*↔ *plain*” etc.). Although an interesting approach, it should require a quite extensive range of semantic differentials to assure completeness. The opposites may sometimes be hard to define and also reveal affective qualities.

The *semantic differential* is usually applied for assessing the affective component of destination image (e.g. **Hunt**, 1975, **Goodrich**, 1977, **Crompton**, 1979b, **Hahti**, 1986, **Gartner & Hunt**, 1986, **Gartner**, 1987, **Ahmed**, 1991, **Walmsley & Jenkins**, 1992, **Walmsley & Young**, 1998, **Edwards et al.**, 2000). This instrument has been originally developed by **Osgood et al** (1957) to measure “*affective space*” which was suggested to reveal three dimensions (evaluation, strength and activity). **Baloglu & Brinberg** (1997) propose the translation of the suggested main continua “*degree of pleasantness*” and “*arousal*” into the semantic differentials “*pleasant*↔*unpleasant*”, “*stimulating*↔*not stimulating*”, “*exciting*↔*boring*”, “*safe*↔*risky*” and “*relaxed*↔*hectic*”.

Likert-type scales focusing on the cognitive component, and the *semantic differential* addressing the affective dimension, are *structured instruments of image assessment*¹³⁹. Advantages of the structured method of image assessment are the ease of subsequent statistical data analysis and reliability and validity testing. Statistics may enhance the understanding of the underlying structure of a large amount of data, as well as relationships between variables. Finally the use of quantitative image data permits the development of models, such as **Fishbein & Ajzen’s** (1975) and **Rosenberg’s** (1956) multi-attribute models or **Trommsdorff’s** (1975) “*ideal-real differential model*” or gap-analysis with data on expectations versus perceptions (**Bitner & Zeithaml**, 1998).

However, **Echtner & Ritchie** (1991) criticize that Likert scales are attribute-focused and leave no opportunity for describing the holistic and unique image elements. Generally, completeness of the item or adjective-list is critical but never totally given at the subjective level. That is why *unstructured methods* are increasingly defended as most relevant for valid image assessment. They permit a free description of impressions, a more holistic approach and the assessment of unique features, which may be critical for destination positioning. Both cognitive and affective elements of the image may be captured by unstructured methods. The level of detail depends on respondents,

¹³⁹ In this context, **Scharf** (1991) refers to evidence for the appropriateness of five or seven point scales.

who may reveal subjectively differing image structures and ways of information processing or reproduction. The disadvantage associated with this approach is the increased difficulty of data treatment and introduction of researcher-biases through categorization and interpretation. Further, the comparability of assessed images is reduced, as are possibilities of using results in multi-variate statistics. Considering the pros and cons of both approaches, one may conclude that to “*fully capture the components of destination image... a combination of structured and unstructured methodologies must be used*” (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). These authors suggest a combination of:

- a series of open-ended questions that capture holistic image components (functional and psychological) as well as distinctive/ unique features or auras;
- a reliable and valid set of scales to measure attribute-based functional and psychological dimensions (see Churchill, 1979).

Using both approaches, **Echtner & Ritchie** (1993) identified stereotypical mental pictures revealed by the open-ended questions that reflected functional and psychological dimensions. Responses tended to be more descriptive, distinctive and detailed, whereas “*the scale item because of its standardized format could not capture such special nuances.*” Generally comparing results, they conclude: “*stereotypical mental images tended to embellish certain aspects of each destination at the expense of failing to provide information on the perception of others. In comparison, the scales provided a broader base of image information, albeit based on more standardized attributes.*” Considering the role of “*unique aspects*” for positioning, the unstructured approach should not be neglected, nor an attempt to capture the “*holistic*” aura of a destination, eventually using a semantic differential. These authors defend that the instrument should assess the following dimensions of the “image-space”: 1) **common- unique**, 2) **holistic- attribute**, 3) **functional- psychological**. Structured approaches should reveal the more common functional and psychological characteristics of a destination and unstructured rather holistic, functional and psychological, as well as unique aspects.

In an exploratory study of rural tourism in Portugal, **Kastenholz** (1997) found that the open-ended question as to what people liked or disliked most in their rural holiday, also led to stereotypical responses, focusing on a limited number of dimensions. A simultaneously used item-battery with Likert-scales was rated both in terms of general importance and presence of the item at the destination. It revealed that some aspects rated highly on importance were not mentioned in the open-ended “liking/ disliking” questions. This led to the conclusion that some aspects, although important for respondents when confronted with an item-battery, would not be freely elicited eventually due to their more “*hygienic*” character. Those rated highly and also freely elicited should represent “*motivational*” factors, using **Herzberg’s** (1979, 1991) terminology. That is, free elicitation may refer basically to most relevant aspects, both from a cognitive and affective point of view. Likert-type scales may further reveal minimum standards considered necessary for a positive

experience. Also these findings support the advantage of using both structured and unstructured approaches¹⁴⁰.

In her review of destination image studies, **Jenkins** (1999) suggests a combination of qualitative and quantitative research. She identifies a “*failure of most studies to address the holistic dimension, a strong preference of structured methods, focusing on attributes (and) ...a concentration on verbal over visual techniques.*” Qualitative methods would be most adequate in an extensive preliminary, exploratory phase and quantitative for more rigorous hypotheses testing. **Crompton** (1979b), for example, used *content analysis* of travel literature, promotional material and interviews to elicit constructs, later used in a survey instrument. Others elicit constructs from focus group discussions. This approach implies the problem of *coding*, i.e. the need of consistent and valid categorization.

Reilly (1990) defends *free elicitation* of image aspects as a most relevant approach to image assessment. The author suggests the following wording: “*What three words best describe the state of... as a destination for vacation or pleasure travel?*” or “*...as a place for...(activity)?*” Responses are subsequently coded into similar categories. This *word association* is used to describe a target stimulus in terms of salient attributes, revealing a subject’s own dimensionalities for constructing an image. However, subjects revealed some difficulties in producing well-articulated image descriptions. This may show the importance of *imagery* and *affect* in destination images, as cognitively developed aspects should be easier to reproduce verbally. According to **Reilly** the main advantages of free elicitation lies in the simplicity of data collection, analysis and detection of salient image dimensions. Disadvantages are inherent in the data coding process, subject to interpretation bias and in the lack of validity and reliability-assessment. **Jenkins** (1999) claims that main advantages lie in the method’s potential to describe the target stimulus in terms that are salient to the individual, permitting also an evaluation of whether the image is lacking or weak. Reaction times and frequencies of particular responses may reveal “*parts of the easy-to-access stereotypical image*”, which may be most relevant for the initial phases of decision making.

As an *unstructured instrument Kelly’s repertory grid technique* has been frequently used (**Pearce**, 1982, **Embacher & Buttle**, 1989, **Walmsley & Jenkins**, 1993, **Walmsley & Young**, 1998, **Coshall**, 2000). This technique is based upon **Kelly’s** (1955) *personal construct theory*, which tries to explain how people view the world. The theory’s basic assumption is that “*individuals, in interacting with people and places around them, generate expectations about what those people*

¹⁴⁰ Although not concluded by the author, **Ross’** (1993) study of images of northern Australia among backpackers may lead to a similar distinction of Herzberg’s factors. Thus, although rated as most important, tourist information and suitable accommodation were not positively related to overall image, intention to return or recommend the destination. However, low ratings on these attributes led to lower enjoyment of trip, which may reveal their “hygienic nature”. On the other hand, friendliness of locals was both rated as most important and positively correlated to image and behavioral intention, as typical for a “motivational” factor.

and places are like...” (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993). In repertory grids, *objects* (here: places) are referred to as “*grid elements*” and evaluated in terms of “*constructs*”, generated by the respondent. The method helps categorizing and differentiating stimuli, corresponding to criteria established by the questioned subjects in a proactive way, thereby revealing a “*private universe*” (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993). Coshall (2000) points at the possibility of deriving meaningful construct subsystems via factor or match analysis. Although developed for the individual, common constructs do exist, which justifies their use in an aggregated manner.

In social sciences the grid is most frequently applied using the “*triadic method*” (Walmsley & Young, 1998, Coshall, 2000). Objects are first grouped in sets of three elements. Then the subject is asked, how similar or different two elements are perceived in relation to the third, and why so. Thereby *constructs* (quality-evaluations), attributed to the *elements* (objects of evaluation) of the grid, are elicited that may be considered “*distinctions people make... (with) 2 poles*” (Pearce, 1982). This is useful for the elicitation of semantic differential scales¹⁴¹. Walmsley & Jenkins (1993) referring to studies on appraisive images in geography, state that it is “*not clear how places are compared to each other.*” They claim that “*non-transitive preference structures*” existing in a complex, multidimensional space “*...cannot be assessed in a reductionist manner that seeks to compare places according to some predetermined criterion.*” That is why they give more credibility to Kelly’s (1955) personal construct theory. Jenkins (1999) refers to properties, which define the relation between constructs and the cognitive structure they are supposed to reveal. For example, *object complexity* can be identified by the number of constructs elicited, *attribute centrality* is based on the frequency of its use, *object valence* depends on the affective quality of most central constructs and *attribute evaluation* reveals the attitude towards an attribute. Jenkins (1999) explains that “*analysis of constructs can yield information about both the image and the people being interviewed.*” Weiler (1989) addresses the problem of language-bias in cross-cultural studies, affecting particularly the repertory-grid and other more qualitative approaches.

Lefkoff-Hagius & Mason (1993) contest, whether the *constructs elicited for comparison*, based on perceptions of similarity, are the *same as those used for preference judgments*, which include a motivational element. Since images have been defined as including both perception and motivation, this method of construct elicitation may have its limitations. Generally, the imposition of constructs for image assessment is discussible. But even if the repertory-grid is used for eliciting constructs, which are subsequently used in a standard questionnaire, the question about imposition of structure partly remains. However, using only repertory-grid analysis on a large scale would be too time-

¹⁴¹ On the other hand, Coshall (2000) defends that “*construct and contrast are not necessarily grammatical (semantic) opposites... (as) individuals do not necessarily construe the environment by means of opposites.*”

consuming and make aggregations and comparisons difficult. That is why the *combined use of this technique in an exploratory phase*, with its *results* used for a *structured, large-scale survey* seems a reasonable compromise (see **Pearce**, 1982, **Walmsley & Jenkins**, 1993).

Jenkins (1999) stresses that destination image research based on *visual information* has been relatively neglected in the past. This author refers to **Pearce & Black**, (1996: 419-420), who explain the preference given to verbal data: “...(*tourism researchers have*) *yet to incorporate the visual domain into the methodological armory of their own research practices... our own familiarity with texts and words predisposes us to use these forms of presentation in our studies; a practice that may well be out of step with the experiences of an increasing number of visitors whose world is increasingly dominated by visual images...researchers need to think creatively about using maps and photographs to aid visitor recall and generate richer data.*” The before-mentioned importance of imagery in destination-image formation and of visual images in promotion sustains this view. In a meta-analysis **Stamps** (1990, cited by **Jenkins**, 1999) reports a correlation of 0.86 between preference expressed in situ and confronted with photographs, which justifies their use for studying reactions to a specific environment. The interpretation of data as complex as visual images, their comparability, categorization, and meaningful analysis remains problematic, though. New methods are needed which may borrow from environmental psychology, neuro-psychology, or even the field of artificial intelligence. The complexity of the destination-product does not make things easier. A combined methodological approach should yield optimal results with the findings from diverse techniques permitting a better overall interpretation of results. To quote an example, **Botterill & Crompton** (1996) had tourists use personal photos to explain differences in the context of a repertory-grid analysis. **MackKay & Fesenmaier** (1997) assessed the image of a Canadian Heritage Park using a multi-method qualitative and quantitative approach. Visual stimuli were selected based on their capacity of clearly representing specific “*attribute scenarios*”. A survey related the previously elicited and literature-based constructs to the selected photos. These authors later (**MackKay & Fesenmaier**, 2000) stress the need of considering cultural differences in visual image interpretation.

When considering “*what*” to ask, one must also address the question, *which objects to include* into analysis. The complexity of the image construct has been discussed before and leads to particular difficulties in construing valid instruments for its assessment (**Weiler**, 1989). For *positioning* purposes *the inclusion of more destinations* in the study is needed. **Scott et al.** (1978) stress the importance of including other brands when studying a specific brand image, since individuals do not form attitudes toward a brand in a vacuum. These brands should correspond to the “*salient brand set*” or the “*evoked set*”. According to **Woodside & Sherrell** (1977) this set generally contains no more than three destinations. The knowledge, familiarity with and popularity of

destinations with the targeted survey-population are usually main criteria for their inclusion in a research instrument. The choice may also be left to the respondent. There is always a trade-off between the need for complete data on a large range of destinations, and the concern with validity of results. If the evaluation of destinations was undertaken under realistic conditions of decision-making, only those destinations with the highest probability of inclusion in the evoked set should enter comparison. Accordingly, **Embacher & Buttle** (1989) permitted individual selection of destinations for their study of Austria's competitive image, based on prior experience. Others use popular, well-known destinations, based on the assumption that respondents have at least some image of these (e.g. **Walmsely & Young**, 1998, **Haati**, 1986). The advantage of this approach is the understanding of the general image of a destination, not only among those most interested in it.

The question *whom to ask* in order to assess destination image is related to the issue of population and sampling. From a marketing point of view, generally actual or potential tourists are interviewed. Some authors defend to survey supply-side agents, such as the local population (**Schroeder**, 1996, **Woehler**, 1997) or agents of the travel industry (**Embacher & Buttle**, 1989). Others understand that *all stakeholders* create the so-called destination image (**Kastenholz**, 2000b). The type of approach (qualitative - quantitative) used and the main aim of research (exploration or hypothesis testing with a claim of generalization) also influences sample size.

The issue whom to ask is closely related with the questions *how, where and when to ask*. When surveying tourists, the population is often not well known beforehand, making area and time cluster sampling a reasonable approach. **Haati** (1986), for example, selected three areas considered representative of the total area frame for sampling Finland tourists. Interviews were conducted each summer month (peak season) at all accommodation units regarded as tourist concentration points. Sampling becomes more complex, if the intention is not just a single measurement, but the analysis of change over time. **Weiler** (1989) addresses this issue, analyzing students' image-change of the place where they took a summer course using a classroom survey at the beginning and the end of this course. Obviously, this form of administration yields a particular high response rate, although results should be limited to this particular type of tourism and population.

In summary, several methods of image assessment were identified, related to different scientific paradigms, being of a more direct or indirect nature, using verbal or non-verbal, structured or unstructured research instruments and addressing different publics in different ways. The complexity of the image construct justifies the use of diverse approaches, although their results may sometimes be only approximately comparable.

Chapter 6.5.2. Destination Image Analysis

Depending on the approach being qualitative or quantitative, unstructured or structured, different analytical tools are available. The first approach is typically linked to content analysis and interpretation, although quantification is often introduced after categorization of answers, permitting some limited use of statistics. Quantitative approaches lend themselves obviously more to statistical analysis of different degrees of complexity, particularly in the context of formal hypotheses testing. This approach is limited by the fundamental question, whether and in how far *destination image* is a quantifiable construct in the first place. The possibility of applying diverse techniques is further limited by the assumptions imposed for their use. Thus, frequently normality of distribution or homogeneity of variance of variables is required. This would actually put many applications in question, as these conditions are rarely found within scale-data related to subjective perceptions and evaluations. Fortunately, assumptions may sometimes be violated without affecting the validity of conclusions. However, results must be confronted with requirements of face validity. Additionally, different methods may be combined whose convergence may provide support for individual results, as well as similar results found by other researchers. In the following, several analytical tools will be briefly presented, as found in destination image studies. Their usefulness for this research field will be discussed, without deepening the epistemological, mathematical and statistical assumptions of each method.

As a qualitative analytical tool, *content analysis* has often been applied to *travel literature* and *promotional material*, as well as *to focus-group discussions or interviews* (Crompton 1979b, Dagostar & Isotalo, 1995). The main approach has been one of finding major themes or most used categories via “pre-statistical” analysis. Thus, the researcher may identify major and secondary issues, based on the frequency of referral to certain aspects, as well as on the extension and depth of their treatment in written and pictorial documents. Also *freely, via photo-association or repertory-grid technique elicited constructs* are subject to content analysis using categorization and frequently combined with some descriptive statistics (mainly frequencies) to assess the importance of categories (Reilly, 1990, Embacher & Buttle, 1989, Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993, Dann, 1996, MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997). Apart from themes, also the type of wording used is relevant. Dann (1996), for example, revealed cognitive evaluation via mental comparison, affective appraisal via “*vocabulary of motive*” and the conative element via imagery elicitation, in a content-analysis of tourists’ projected images and responses to pictorial stimuli. Jenkins (1999) suggests increased transparency in content analysis through teamwork, constant comparisons, revisions and reliability tests (e.g. *Scott’s pi*, 1955) to measure *coding reliability* between individual coders.

Fesenmaier & MacKay (1996) suggest “*image deconstruction*”, defined as a “*post-structuralist interpretive method to question commonly held truths*”. They focus on the institutional power in image construction and control and point at several critical factors to consider when deconstructing destination image¹⁴². The authors defend that effects of projected stereotypes must be analyzed for both tourists and residents in order to understand the deeper meaning of destination image, the social, cultural and political forces that determine it and its role for the individual and society.

Simple *descriptive statistics* are also used in the context of both qualitative and quantitative research (e.g. **Choi et al**, 1999). *Frequencies, percentages, means* and *standard deviations* are most useful for an initial understanding of the phenomenon under study, namely the description of most important image attributes. Also an *analysis of distributions*, their proximity to normality, homogeneity of variance, existence of outliers, may be most interesting at this stage. If more complex uni-variate and multi-variate statistical procedures are aimed at, this *data exploring* phase is considered crucial for achieving a sensitivity towards the data, eventually “cleaning” the data base from distorting outliers, and as a basis for testing assumptions.

Comparisons between groups can be simply undertaken via *cross-tabulations*, which may indicate the expected number of cases per cell. These tabulations combined with a *chi-square test* reveal meaningful differences between groups, if there is a “minimum expected count” of five cases per cell¹⁴³. As a non-parametric statistic, it is particularly appropriate for nominal image data, such as categories of associations. For ordinal, interval-like image data, such as that obtained from Likert and Semantic Differential scales, “nearly metric data” is frequently assumed, so that means may be compared and parametric statistics used.

This comparison is generally made using *t-tests* for comparisons between two groups or *ANOVA* (Analysis of Variance) for more groups. The latter can be further extended to consider the simultaneous effect of multiple dependent variables via *MANOVA*. For ordinal data the **Mann-Whitney U** (for two groups) or the **Kruskal Wallis** test (for more groups) may be preferred. Groups can be created so as to analyze the effect of a particular variable on image. For example,

¹⁴² 1) **authoritative voice**: “*image ... is partial as well as plural in meaning and ideology...conveying a culture, a simplified impression of a place with cues to trigger inferences*”. The issue is who defines this meaning.

2) **recontextualization**: “*viewers of photographs are also involved in conceiving meaning ... markers are used to direct visitors’ attention and “sacralize” specific aspects of the destination.*”

3) **authenticity**: does the destination “truly” represent something “original” or rather a “staged authenticity”? “*for tourism professionals authenticity is philosophical and a given, for tourists it is social and negotiable....and may be considered “emergent”, in so far as a commodified tourist image could evolve to an “authentic” tourist image. This ... should further depend on the type of tourist, using differing degrees of rigor in establishing criteria for authenticity.*”

4) **created meaning**: “*image becomes an artificially created differentiation as product attribute beliefs are formed and influenced...*”. The emphasis is on image-development and projection in a marketing perspective.

¹⁴³ “*The chi-square test of independence is valid only if the sample size is large enough to guarantee the similarity between the theoretically correct ... and the X² sampling distribution*” (**Aaker et al**, 1998).

groups of first-time, repeat and non-visitors may be compared, showing the effect of experience with the destination. Also socio-demographic variables lend themselves for the formation of groups, such as age-range, educational level, level of income, nationality. These techniques are frequently applied within the destination image literature¹⁴⁴.

Apart from comparisons between groups, the *correlation* between two variables may be of interest, e.g. the correlation between image attributes and dimensions. The *Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient* measures this association, independent of sample size and units of measurement (**Aaker et al.**, 1998). Further, correlation analysis may be the first step in attempting to model relationships between image and other variables, as shown by **Baloglu** (1996). Thus, several authors have identified a positive correlation between destination image and preference/visitation intention (**Hunt**, 1975, **Goodrich**, 1978, **Scott et al.**, 1978, **Ross**, 1993, **Baloglu**, 1996).

Factor analysis is frequently used to reveal the underlying structure of a large amount of image data. This is particularly useful, since destination image is an extremely complex construct and its operationalization may lead to extensive attribute lists. The larger the lists, the higher the reliability of item-dimensions as measured by *Cronbach-alpha*, but the more reluctant respondents will be to answer, and the less valid results may be. That is why factor analysis is often used in an exploratory phase, after elicitation of the most complete and domain-representative item list possible. Examples are **Crompton** (1979b), **Fakeye & Crompton** (1991), **Echtner & Ritchie** (1993), **Baloglu** (1996), **Kastenholz** (1997, *et al.* 1999) and **Chen & Kerstetter** (1999), who used factor-analysis in an exploratory phase to refine item-batteries for a larger-scale survey. Resulting factor-scores per respondent may be subsequently used for comparisons (**Fakeye & Crompton**, 1991) or as input for cluster analysis (**Kastenholz**, 1997). Factor-analysis is most useful in producing valid and reliable research instruments, understanding image-structure and enhancing subsequent analysis, based on factor scores or means instead of numerous single items, which facilitates interpretation.

Cluster analysis serves primarily to group objects with the goal of maximizing between-group heterogeneity and within-group homogeneity. This procedure is very popular for market segmentation. In image research it can be applied to group respondents according to their image of the destination, yielding *destination image segments* (e.g. **Garvey**, 1993), i.e. groups of similar perceptions and attitudes that might justify distinct marketing approaches (**Beane & Ennis**, 1987). The motivational component of image ("*benefits sought*") which is often reflected by importance

¹⁴⁴ e.g. **Edwards et al** (2000) compared image differences between first-time and repeat-visitors, based on a t-test; **Fakeye & Crompton** (1991) used ANOVA for comparing first-time, repeat and non-visitors, **Kastenholz** (1997) applied Kruskal Wallis tests to study image-differences between benefit-segments; **Yang** (1995) used MANOVA and MANCOVA to test differences between groups of visitor-status and socio-demographic groups, controlling for "culture shock"; **Chen & Kerstetter** (1999) applied MANOVA when comparing between those likely to visit rural Pennsylvania and those not.

ratings has sometimes been used as a segmentation basis (**Kastenholz**, 1997). **Goodrich** (1978) used a similar benefit-segmentation to test the validity of Fishbein's model, both for the whole sample and for specific benefit-segments. **Pearce** (1982) used cluster-analysis in the context of the repertory-grid technique in order to identify similarly perceived destinations.

Especially for positioning studies, a map representing graphically the position of competitive destinations in the target-client's "perceptual space", is most useful. For this purpose, *perceptual maps* have been developed, using a variety of techniques. The easiest way of representing image data on a series of destinations, based on mean importance and performance ratings of destination attributes, is via importance-performance analysis (e.g. **Crompton & Duray**, 1985, **Oppermann**, 1996). More sophisticated methods use multivariate statistics. When data consists of attribute ratings of diverse destinations, factor analysis, discriminant analysis¹⁴⁵, correspondence analysis¹⁴⁶ and Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) can be used. As input data for MDS similarity, preference ratings or composite attribute-indicators may be used. Some claim overall similarity- and preference-ratings are more valid measures than combined-attribute results, as people tend to evaluate and perceive brands holistically rather than piecemeal. Eventually, a combined approach may yield best results, i.e. holistic image assessment plus elicitation of judgement criteria to facilitate identification of dimensions.

In the tourism field **Goodrich** (1977) was one of the first to use MDS for destination comparison, collecting similarity data on nine regions, eliciting further criteria for comparison. **Haati** (1986) applied MDS based on the ratings of ten selected attributes. A joint space analysis was undertaken, based on an indirect measure of dissimilarity between pairs of countries. Preference rankings of countries were integrated in *Prefmap*, which revealed apart from each country's position, attribute vectors and segments of respondents. **Gartner** (1989) used MDS based on attribute ratings ("benefit-bundles") of selected recreation activities and attractions within four states. The means for each variable per state were used as an input-matrix for *ALSCAL*, which revealed the closeness between states in a map. **Calantone et al.** (1989) used correspondence analysis, resulting in a portrayal of sets of data points in a joint space with axes corresponding to principal components. **Reilly** (1990) points at some disadvantages of MDS. Respondents are required to make complex judgments of eventually unknown destinations. Segments of similar objects are not always visible without property fitting (additional data) and dimension specification may be difficult. He suggests

¹⁴⁵ "Whereas the goal of factor analysis is to generate dimensions that maximize interpretability and explain variance, the goal of discriminant analysis is to generate dimensions (termed discriminant function factors) that will discriminate or separate the objects as much as possible" (**Aaker et al.**, 1998: 617).

¹⁴⁶ It is used for binary data, eventually in form of a checklist, and most adequate "if the number of attributes and objects is large, (so that) the task of scaling each object on each attribute may be excessive and unrealistic" (**Aaker et al.**, 1998: 618).

free elicitation of destination descriptors as an alternative. This would maintain the individual's perceptual space, where similar responses may be combined in segments. However, the approach is subject to interpretative bias, no validity and reliability assessment is available, and an eventual mapping of results would be even more subjective.

Recent developments in perceptual mapping are linked to “*neural networks*” and “*genetic algorithms*”. For example **Mazanec** (1995a,b) used “*positioning analysis with self-organizing maps*” (*SOM*)¹⁴⁷ “*for radically parsimonious representation of multidimensional profile data*”. According to this author, multivariate techniques in positioning serve to reduce redundancy and fuzziness of data, producing a low-dimensional perceptual space through optimal aggregation, permitting simultaneous segmentation and positioning. The author suggests *SOM* for combining “*consumer clustering*” with “*mapping of brands*” without any sample size restriction. In a positioning study of a hotel chain (**Mazanec**, 1995b) image items were rated as binary data, resulting in a data matrix of 152 hotel profiles, used as input in *SOM*. A three-stage learning process revealed nine third-order prototypes. Hotels with a spread distribution had fuzzy images; those with few nodes were better focused. Perceptual segments for each hotel appear via association with specific attribute combinations.

Also in destination image studies *multi-attribute models*, based on Rosenberg's and Fishbein's tradition as well as on “*expectancy-valence*” theory, are most popular. These models yield attitude scores, which may be significantly related to purchase, predisposition, or preference, as shown by **Goodrich** (1978). Further, data collected for the model permits a diagnosis of destination strengths and weaknesses on relevant destination attributes. **Var et al.** (1977) suggest a model or index of tourist attractiveness for comparing destinations, with validity of resultant scores being assessed via comparison with shares of bed-nights of each destination.

The above-mentioned models suggest the elicitation of importance weights. An alternative approach would be their calculation via regression of attribute ratings on overall image, with beta-coefficients reflecting the relative importance of attributes. This method is useful for confronting elicited importance ratings with calculated weights, thus validating results. On the other hand, respondents frequently show a tendency to rate nearly all items as most important, so that these ratings should eventually be subject to within-case standardization. Further, results of the multi-attribute model, as indicators of global image of diverse destinations, may not correspond to direct image scores, as eventually general importance ratings may not be applicable to all destinations

¹⁴⁷ This can be explained as a neuro-computing approach, based on counter-propagation competitive learning, with an artificial neural network extracting prototypes from the database without any “outside teacher” preserving “topology” of data. Particular elements (neurons, units, nodes) process the data in parallel via connections (weights, reflecting learning rules) between “layers of nodes”. *SOM* units are expected to become “prototypes” for a homogeneous class of input data vectors (brand profiles).

judged. **Dagostar & Isotalo** (1995) found that the image scores resulting from the multi-attribute compensatory model were correlated in only 43% with stated image scores. **Scott et al.** (1978) suggest multiple regression or discriminant analysis to identify the combination of attributes most valued. MDA would further provide weights useful for classifying individuals.

Regression analysis has been used also for connecting image attributes or dimensions with a *predictive variable of tourist behavior*, such as intention to return or recommend, i.e. in the context of analysis of predictive validity of a model. **Baloglu** (1996) used regression analysis as a tool in the construction of a *path-model*. Overall image was successively regressed on cognitive and affective image dimensions and independent variables, revealing a unidirectional causal flow, with theoretical assumptions determining linkages. The path-model integrates the factors determining and influencing overall image, in a direct or indirect way (see p.147)¹⁴⁸. **Kerlinger** (1986) considers path analysis an exploratory technique in early stages of theory development, as an analytic and heuristic method to assist conceptualizing complex hypotheses. He suggests *LISREL* for rigorous testing of theory. *Structural equation models* are quite popular in marketing studies of these days, but have not been applied much in the context of destination image studies. This may be related to the fact that there is no established theory of image formation (**Baloglu**, 1996).

Mazanec (1995b) points at some tourism-specific challenges in model building:

- The prevalent behavioral models and explanatory constructs vary over segments (some rely on stereotypes, others build distinct brand attitudes with careful information processing, some are driven by risk perceptions)
- explanatory constructs are made up of several dimensions, being “*redundancy in the list of image items essential to comfort the fuzzy language of the consumer*”
- the metric properties of data is poor, with a large number of attributes making more complicated rating scales inadequate (he suggests binary data as a compromise)

Any kind of model based on only metric data seems not perfectly appropriate for capturing the complex image construct, nor its determinants. Too ambitious models may be inadequate at all, considering the “state of art” in image research, especially if they claim to define perfect causality relationships. Exploratory quantitative, together with qualitative methods and an understanding of the destination and type of tourism and tourist in question, seem more recommendable.

¹⁴⁸Correlations between variables were decomposed into simple (direct: partial regression coefficients) and compound (indirect = sum of products of direct path coefficients from an exogenous variable via intervening variable to an endogenous variable). The total effect is the sum of direct and indirect effects.

Conclusions of Chapter 6

A variety of definitions of the concept “*destination image*” have been suggested. These are based on diverse theoretical and practical backgrounds and make reference to diverse dimensions and components. A major distinction can be made between the *image created by the tourist* and that created and *projected by the destination*. The first approach looks at the concept from a more socio-psychological perspective with a link to marketing via consumer behavior research. The second approach focuses on the destination and its interest in attracting tourists through the creation and promotion of a favorable image in the eyes of the target-market and in relation to competing destinations. Image can be defined in a more holistic way (“*overall impression*”) or rather highlighting specific components, such as the cognitive (“*beliefs and perceptions*”) and affective dimension (“*emotions and feelings associated*”). It may include main content elements (e.g. nature, culture, hospitality, etc.) and consider major meaning-dimensions (attribute \leftrightarrow holistic, functional \leftrightarrow psychological, common \leftrightarrow unique). Examples for all these definitional approaches were found but no consensual overall definition has been agreed upon.

The focus of this thesis is on destination image as created by and affecting the tourist. This approach is discussed in more detail both in terms of *image formation* and *change* and in terms of *impacts* of destination image *on tourist behavior*. In this context, **Gunn’s** (1972, 1988a) stage-model of image formation, evolving from organic images, over induced to complex, experience-based images, was presented. Image-formation agents such as those suggested by **Gartner** (1993) may act simultaneously and make models of image formation with strict separation between stages difficult to find in reality. Several authors have stressed *image stability*, especially in the case of larger regional entities. *Image change* may be one objective of destination marketing. This is usually difficult, costly and time-consuming and should carefully relate to existing prior images. The discussion of image formation and change leads to the analysis of specific determinants of an image, which may be dependent on the stimulus-object (destination) and/ or on the perceiver (tourist). Prior experience, repeat visits, knowledge of the destination and geographical proximity have been suggested as significant influencing factors, reflecting “*familiarity*”. This should determine a more positive image, the more “*involvement reflecting*” and “*experience-based*” this condition. The importance of “*familiarity*” should be further *moderated by “psycho-graphic tourist type”* (psycho-centric, mid-centric, allo-centric). Also *socio-demographics* (e.g. sex, age, education, socio-economic status, country of origin) were identified as significant image determinants as well as *cultural background* of visitors, *motives* or *benefits sought* and *destination- self-congruity*. Further, *context* (e.g. season, purpose of trip), *exposure to information*

(variety and type) and concrete *destination experience* (e.g. *critical incidents*, type of interaction with host population) were suggested.

Destination image is considered most *significant in tourist behavior*, in terms of *destination evaluation and choice*. This is particularly true with the absence of prior experience and considering the risk associated with products without search and experience qualities. Also *satisfaction, repeat purchase and recommendation* is affected by destination image. Expectations defined by prior images serve as references for evaluating the holiday experience. Evaluation results in a confirmed or modified final image, which determines future behavior.

As a consequence, destination image must be carefully analyzed in the context of *destination marketing*. This should be most interested in creating a favorable image in the minds of the target clients to ultimately *influence their decision-making*, attract and satisfy them and thus enhance tourism development. An understanding of different images held by different *segments*, together with additional knowledge about these segments may permit a better choice of the *target market*. It may further improve a destination's *positioning strategy*, its capacity to *develop the destination* according to the target market's needs and *communicate* this enhanced and tailored value more effectively to those of concern. Consequently, for market communication an understanding of actual destination image and of the most adequate forms of enhancing and projecting it is paramount.

In addition to this general targeted marketing approach *inward-directed marketing efforts* can also be based on destination image. When considering all those interested and involved in developing a "*destination-product*", destination image may provide a kind of "*vision*" developed in a consensual, participative process. It may reflect *identity* and function as a *guideline* and a *motivator* in terms of "*internal marketing*". This seems especially important in the context of fragile, "underdeveloped" rural destinations. Here tourism development relies on a combination of numerous small offerings and the entire community; its rural setting and way of life are "commodified". Based on a *compromise between the interests of the tourist* (i.e. the selected target market) and those of the *destination* (its population, planning organisms, heritage conservation priorities), and considering available resources, the "ideal" (adequate and desirable) destination image must be decided upon.

Both the *micro-level* of the individual's destination image and the *macro-level* of a public image, which results from aggregation of *individual images* and the conjoint effort of destination *image projection*, are crucial. Both at the individual and aggregate level, diverse *stakeholders* may be analyzed. This would include tourists, local residents, agents of supply, tour operators, travel agents

and so on. The focus of this thesis is on the analysis of the image held by the individual tourist (micro-level) and at the aggregate level, held by the effective market of a rural destination.

This aspect is related to the final point reviewed in this chapter, namely the question of *assessment*, *measurement* and *analysis* of destination image. In this domain the difference between *quantitative* and *qualitative* methods has been highlighted. It is concluded that a combination of both approaches would be most adequate for destination image research. Correspondingly, verbal, non-verbal and projective techniques have been used for image assessment, e.g. via repertory-grid technique, photo-associations, more or less structured questionnaires with semantic differential or Likert scales and open-ended questions suggesting free-elicitation. These methods have been applied with a more or less strong basis on *theoretical assumptions*, and different degrees of concern with *reliability* and *validity*. Apart from the question of *operationalizing* “*destination image*” and developing an appropriate research instrument, it is also important to address the number of destinations to evaluate and the *context* of questioning. Whom, where and when to ask are all relevant aspects to consider in *research design*. The type of *image analysis* to apply is obviously related to the focus on either quantitative or qualitative methods of image assessment. Thus, *content analysis* is most related to more qualitative methods, although its results may also be treated via simple statistical procedures, based on the categorization of similar responses. However, *statistics* are generally applied for more quantitative or quantified data such as scales used for image assessment. In this context, *hypotheses* may be tested, *groups compared*, *correlations analyzed*, *factor* and *cluster-analyses* undertaken, *perceptual maps* drawn and *models* developed in order to analyze destination image structure and to reveal its determinants as well as its impact on tourist behavior.

PART II. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Chapter 7. Methodology

This chapter connects theory with a concrete empirical research proposal. Results are presented in chapters 8 and 9. Hypotheses are announced, followed by the specification of methodological procedures suggested for testing them. Topics such as secondary and primary data collection and analysis as related to the concrete study of the destination image of rural Northern Portugal are discussed. More specifically, the survey procedure is described, considering both the instrument and sampling. Exploratory steps and pre-tests leading to refinement of research design are presented as well as are considerations of validity and reliability.

Chapter 7.1. Research Framework and Hypotheses

The author is inclined towards the *post-positivist research paradigm*. This is in the sense of admitting a “real” reality, even though only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable. In its epistemological approach, this paradigm stresses the importance of scientific tradition, “*critical community*” and the possibility of replication of findings, as points of reference for critical evaluation of results. As a methodological consequence, emphasis is placed on “*critical multiplism*” as a way of falsifying hypotheses. Further, qualitative techniques are introduced in research design, assisting in determining meaning (Guba & Lincoln, 1994: 109-110).

Image was defined as individually and socially shaped and not directly observable, but rather a mental construction of reality. This basic premise would suggest *constructivism* as an alternative paradigm, defending that “*realities are apprehendable in the form of multiple, intangible mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific in nature...and depending for their form and content on the individual persons or groups holding the constructions. Constructions are not more or less ‘true’, in any absolute sense, but simply more or less informed and /or sophisticated. Constructions are alterable, as are their associated «realities»*”(Guba & Lincoln, 1994: 110-111). However, this paradigm would suggest an epistemological view of transaction and subjectivism. This assumes an interaction between investigator and object of research, leading to methods of dialectical elicitation and refinement of consensual constructs.

For this thesis, the above-cited basic premise of constructed reality is accepted for the main construct under analysis, without however leading to a constructivist research approach. This is so, as this “*constructed reality*” is assumed to be *indirectly measurable* in an *approximately objective* way, using also quantitative instruments. Further, an approach based on multiple techniques, comparison of results with scientific tradition and the capacity of replication of findings are understood as valid means of approximating this subjective and socially shared “reality”. However, limitations of this research approach are acknowledged and doubts about the possibility of any

objective research in this domain are legitimate. An effort is undertaken in the direction of assessing and analyzing the construct in a manner that reflects its essence as truly as possible. Following **Ostergaard & Jantzen** (2000: 15-18), this approach could be located between the perspectives of *consumer behavior research* and *consumer research*. The first puts an emphasis on the human being as rational and conscious of his/ her wants, which may be studied via questionnaires, recurring to cognitive psychology. The second focuses more on emotions, which may be revealed via in-depth interviews and analyzed with the help of existential psychology.

Although this study is more inclined to the consumer behavior perspective and post-positivism, it is hoped that the inclusion of qualitative approaches, as well as the conscience about the constructed nature of the main research object, will permit a sufficiently critical stance when discussing results. Given this, the hypotheses to be tested follow. These are based on the preceding literature review.

Image literature suggests that:

- image does not correspond to reality;
- is shaped by cognitive, affective and imagery-based processes,
- is determined by the perceiver, social influences and stimulus characteristics;
- cognition precedes affective image, eventually resulting in behavior.

Marketing literature suggests that:

- image determines preference, choice and satisfaction;
- *product-self-image-congruity* determines preference, choice and satisfaction;
- image is the more important, the higher the perceived risk, importance and status value of a product, the more difficult it is to judge, and the more publicly it is used;
- image is projected or influenced by marketing action in the context of *brand management* and *positioning*.

Destination image literature suggests that:

- destination image is frequently a substitute for a direct evaluation of the destination;
- destination image is rather stable, especially for larger geographical entities;
- destination image determines preference and choice;
- comparison between (prior) image and perception of reality determines satisfaction;
- there are different stages of destination image formation with different information sources;
- socio-demographics determine destination image;
- cultural background of tourists determines destination image;
- tourist motivation determines destination image;

- travel context determines destination image;
- familiarity determines destination image;
- information sources used determine destination image;
- success of a tourist destination relies on a carefully planned and managed *image policy*.

Based on these general findings, the following hypotheses are suggested:

1. Hypotheses concerning Image Structure:

Destination images are composed of cognitive, affective, holistic and imagery dimensions, with:

- affect and cognition being interrelated,*
- one element of affect being destination-self-congruity feelings* (especially relevant in the case of psycho-centric travelers),
- cognition determining affect via functional congruity,*
- and all elements *determining overall impression.*

These relationships marking the image-structure may be presented in a model¹⁴⁹ as follows:

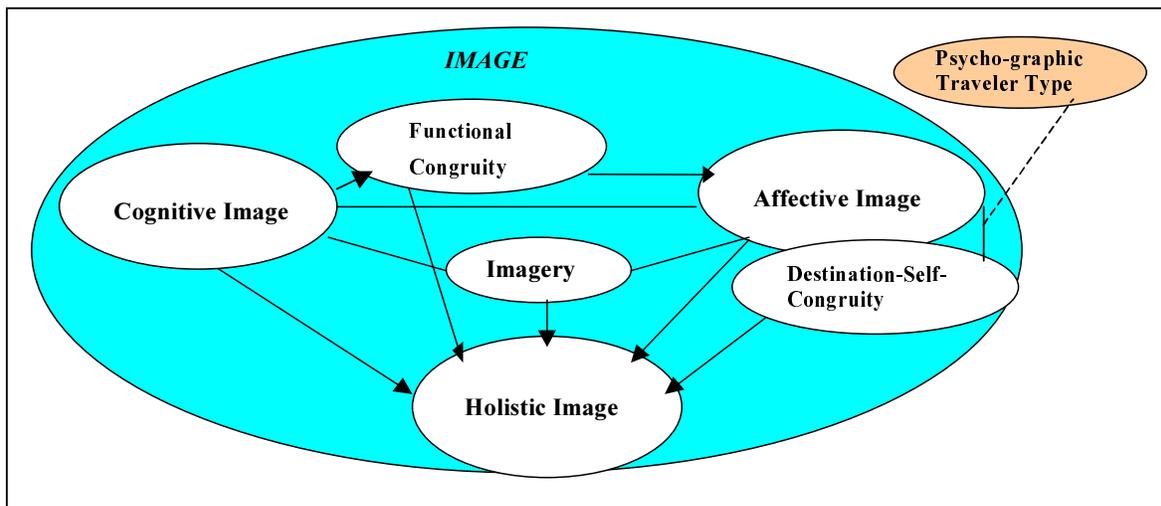


Fig.25. Suggested destination image structure

All the hypothesized relationships, marked by an arrow, are understood as “*probabilistic causal*” in so far as the identified “causal” variables correspond to “*any happening that is necessary but not sufficient for a subsequent happening*”, contrasting with “*determinant causation*” (Davis, 1996: 105). Relationships marked with a straight line represent correlation, and those marked with a dashed line the moderating effect of a variable on a relationship between two other variables.

¹⁴⁹ Generally a model can be considered an abstract and abbreviated representation of some complex original, aiming at the understanding of causal and other relationships between relevant variables or at the prediction of a dependent variable (Stachowiak, 1965).

2. Hypotheses concerning Image Determinants:

Destination images (cognitive, affective, overall) for North Portugal *differ in content and favorableness according to:*

2.1.a) the *stimulus context* in terms of *visited sub-region* (Minho, Douro, Trás-os-Montes).

- *Especially those knowing the region better, i.e. Portuguese and repeat visitors, should perceive differences.*
- *Largest differences are expected between the coastal Minho, on the one hand, and the interior regions of the Douro Valley and Trás-os-Montes, on the other. The latter should be evaluated as more calm, simple and natural, with poorer infra-structure and opportunities of socializing/ fun.*

2.1.b) the *stimulus context* in terms of *season of the year:*

- *Seasonal differences should especially relate to warmth and eventually the perception of activities, fun and socializing, as these aspects are naturally more perceivable in the high season, due to temperature, type of tourism and supply.*
- *The low season has been identified as less crowded and should therefore be perceived as more calm. This may result in correspondingly more positive or negative images, depending on the tourist's motivational background.*

2.2.a) according to *general motivational context or purpose of visit* (only holiday, VFR, business-related), with:

- *those staying also for business reasons viewing the destination more negatively,*
- *those staying only for a holiday more positively and*
- *those visiting friends and relatives as most positively, reflecting increasing degrees of involvement.*

2.2.b) according to *specific motivational context or benefits sought:*

- *It is suggested that there is a tendency of benefit dimensions perceived corresponding to those sought, being this correspondence the stronger, the more familiar the respondent with the region.*
- *It is further suggested that respondents belonging to benefit segments that most appreciate "rurality" should be most positively impressed, given the rural nature of the destination, coinciding with their "rural motivation".*

2.3) according to *travel context* in terms of *length of stay* (short-break visits versus longer stays):

- *It is suggested that those staying longer times perceive the destination as more positive due to their more intense involvement.*

2.4) according to (experience-based) **familiarity**, as reflected by **repeat visit**. This variable should express prior knowledge, and further some degree of involvement and habituation (**destination loyalty**). It is suggested that this relationship should be moderated by **traveler type**.

- Specifically, repeat visitors should perceive the destination as more positively and
- this should hold particularly for respondents of a more psycho-centric type.

2.5. according to **socio-demographics**, concretely in terms of

2.5.a) **nationality group** (domestic versus international market):

- Large perceptual differences are suggested to exist between the **national and foreign** market, due to the simultaneous effect of familiarity, knowledge and involvement as well as due to socio-cultural differences.

2.5.b) **age** (youngest, mid-aged, older age group):

- Differences are suggested to be particularly strong between the two extreme age-ranges.

2.5.c) **gender**, although differences are suggested to be minor.

2.5.d) **education** (low, medium, high levels of education):

- Concretely those visitors with higher levels of education are suggested to be more critical.

2.6) There is an **order of importance** of these image (co-) determining factors. Considering results from other destination image studies, it may be expected that

- familiarity with the destination, foreign versus domestic market, motivation and age are the most important determinants.

2.7) Different independent variables impact on specific single image dimensions.

The above-suggested relationships may be represented by the following model:

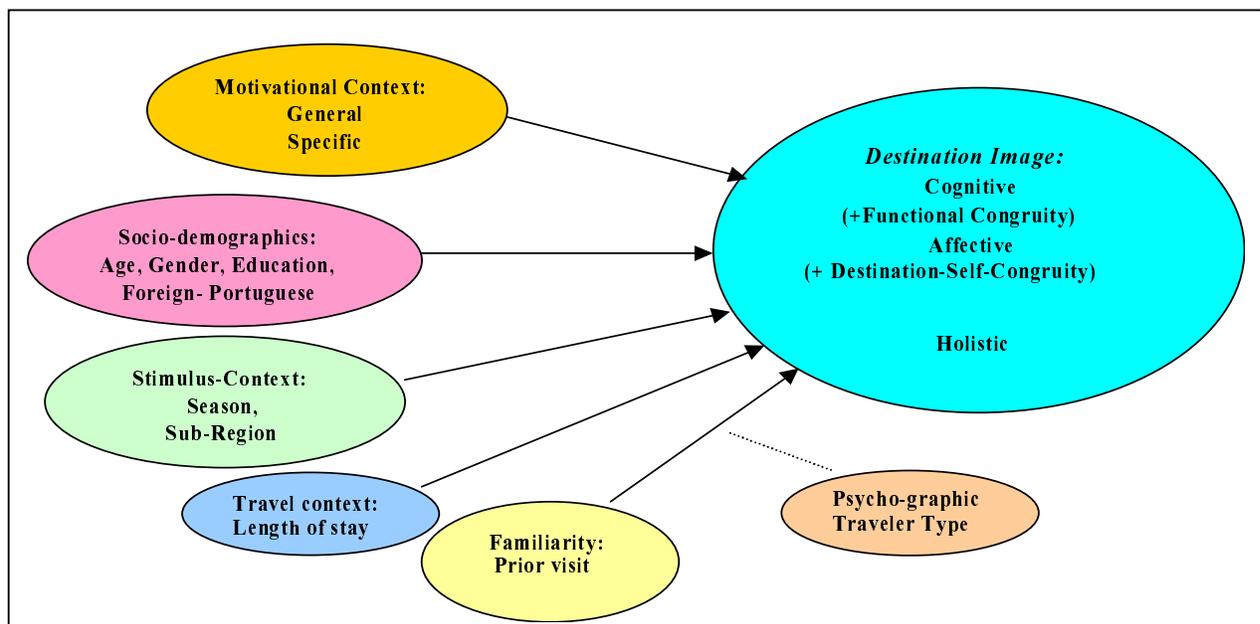


Fig.26. Suggested determinants of destination image

3. Hypotheses concerning Image Effects:

3.1) *Probability to return* is positively affected by:

- a) *Loyalty to the destination*, especially in the case of *psycho-centrism*;
- b) *Destination image*, with the effect of *destination-self-congruity* strongest for *psycho-centrics*;
- c) *Destination image is suggested to play a prominent role.*

3.2) *Probability to recommend* is positively affected by:

- a) *Loyalty to the destination*, especially in the case of *psycho-centrism*, however not as pronouncedly as for the probability to return;
- b) *Destination image*, with the effect of *destination-self-congruity* strongest for *psycho-centrics*;
- c) *An outstanding role is assigned to destination image*, which should be more pronounced than in the context of probability to return.

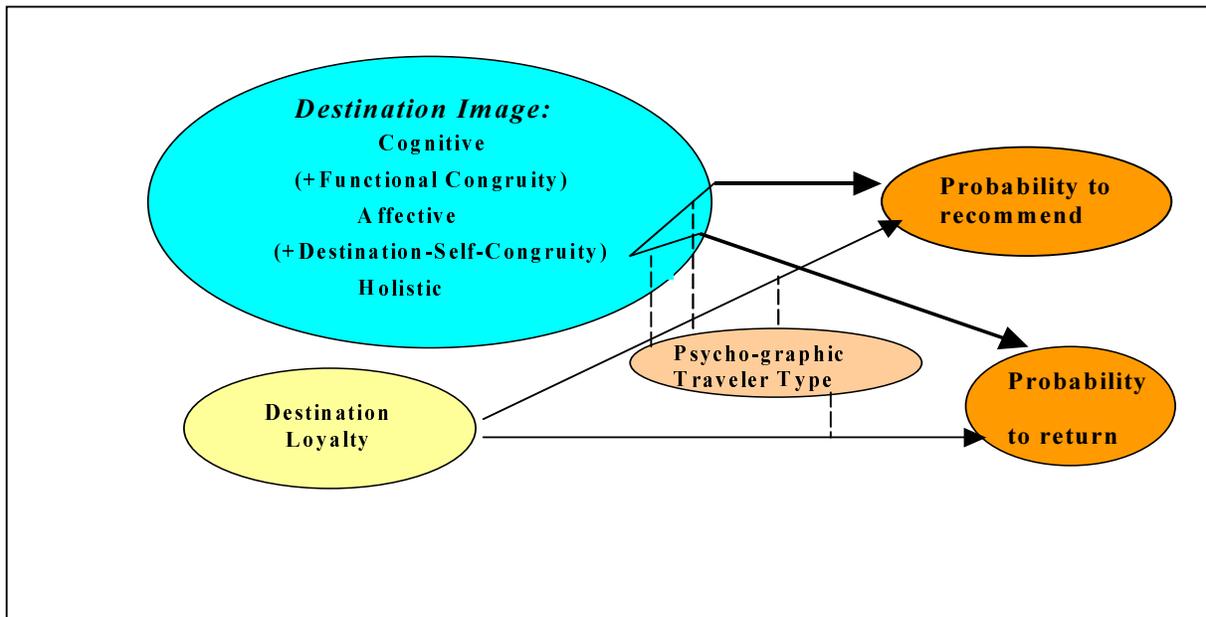


Fig.27. Suggested determinants of probability to return and recommend

Chapter 7.2. Research Design

“The design process can be thought of as a series of decisions concerning what concepts will be studied, how these concepts will be measured, what approach will be used to study the problem, who will be studied, how the data will be collected and analyzed, and, ultimately, how will the information that was collected be presented to solve the problem” (Davis, 1996: 96-97).

The selected constructs and variables and the way they are suggested to be interrelated in a conceptual model were already referred to in the hypotheses. The concrete research approach,

including secondary data analysis and primary data collection and analysis will be presented next. In the context of the primary data approach, the selection of a sample, the development, testing and refinement of a research instrument, data collection and analysis of results are discussed.

As a general framework, a cross-sectional ex-post facto design is used, as independent variables are not controlled and data is collected via survey at one point in time (Davis, 1996: 106-117). The study is mainly *exploratory*, with some *descriptive elements* and an *explanatory objective*. Hypotheses are tested in order to explore relationships between variables. However, causality may only be *presumed*, as the general approach is *non-experimental*, using *attribute independent variables* that cannot be manipulated, with both a *comparative* and *associational purpose* (Gliner & Morgan, 2000: 62-79).

Chapter 7.3. The Image-Object and its Characterization using Secondary Data

The main construct of this thesis is *destination image*, whose content, structure, possible (co-) determinants and effects are studied. However, image is related to an image-object existing in reality. Thus, a specific destination reality, namely that of Northern Portugal as a rural holiday destination is the focus of the empirical part of this thesis. ***This destination was chosen***, since North Portugal constitutes an administrative region for which statistical data is available. This contributes to design of a suitable research framework. The fact that public intervention is organized at a regional level must be taken into account, since it determines any conjoint destination policy and marketing action, which this study may also contribute to. Further, in the context of national tourism promotion the decision was taken to promote this region separately. This is because the region corresponds to a sufficiently homogeneous space-product, simultaneously offers some variety, and permits the designation of a destination area, which is able to cater to tourists with multiple interests. Finally, this destination was selected as opposed to the more traditional beach tourism destinations existing in Portugal. It is more associated with *rural tourism*, which plays an important role as a development tool for rural areas and simultaneously enriches the stereotypical image of Portugal as a tourist destination. In a study of the rural tourism market in areas in North and Central Portugal, the superiority of Northern Portugal in this domain, mainly in the Minho region, became evident (Kastenholz, 1997). This sustained the assumption that this area already disposes of a destination image as a rural holiday region. Last, but not least, the fact that the regional coordinating agency CCRN was interested in this study and provided funding for its realization has to be stressed.

A brief description of the destination, which is the object of tourists' perception and evaluation, is considered necessary. For this purpose, general literature available on North Portugal, tourist guidebooks and promotional material on the region will be summarized. This is a necessary first step for understanding the reality of this tourist destination, given the nature of this geographical,

natural and cultural space. Apart from the above-mentioned documents, which also contribute to the shaping of a destination image (especially commercial literature and tourist guidebooks), statistical data available by primarily INE and DGT on tourist accommodation units and tourist flows in the region will be analyzed. However, secondary data available are not able to answer the questions posed in the suggested hypotheses. There hasn't been undertaken any comprehensive study on images of North Portugal in general, nor of the region as a rural holiday destination. For this reason primary data collection was necessary in order to identify this image, its components, determinants and eventual behavioral consequences.

Chapter 7.4. Primary Data Collection

In order to obtain relevant data on the publicly held destination image of North Portugal a structured quantitative approach was considered appropriate. This was applied at a sample, approximately representative of the tourist market existing in rural areas in this region. However, apart from representation of the population in question, additional aspects such as a balanced number of responses per sub-region and season as well as of the domestic and international market was considered in research design. For developing a quantitative research instrument a qualitative first approach, based on a literature-review, on in-depth interviews and free elicitation exercises was undertaken. Actually, a mixed quantitative - qualitative approach was considered most adequate for studying destination image (see chapter 6.5.1.) also in the context of this survey. The concrete steps in sampling, questionnaire development and methods of analysis chosen are presented next.

Chapter 7.4.1. Sampling

A fundamental decision was the definition of the subjects to include in the questioning process. This decision is based on the population of interest, which is usually too large to be studied completely (in a census). In this context, it must be recognized that sampling affects the "*quality and generalizability of the results obtained from a particular study*" (Davis, 1996).

In the present case, the population of interest was defined as tourists (see WTO definition, p.11), visiting rural areas in North Portugal for a holiday in 1998-1999. However, travelers who also indicated purposes such as business, visiting friends and relatives and health reasons, were included as long as they simultaneously indicated a holiday interest in visiting rural areas in North Portugal¹⁵⁰. That is, respondents were previously screened according to their holiday interest and capacity of evaluating North Portugal as a rural tourist destination.

¹⁵⁰ It has been argued before, that most tourism is nowadays multi-motivated, making the strict categorization of tourists difficult. The sample includes mainly "pure" pleasure-tourists, though (75%). In any case, the distinction of those only travelling for holiday purposes and those combining it with business (11%) or VFR (10%) was undertaken in order to test eventual effects on destination image.

One problem related to sampling these tourists was the lack of statistical data available on their number, geographical and seasonal distribution and profile. Statistics by INE and DGT are only available with a time-lag of 1-2 years, meaning that at the time of designing the research approach, there were no data available on the actual population to be studied, as the tourist population naturally constantly changes. One may argue that there are no major changes in a time period of 1-2 years, so available past data may serve as an indicator of the population expected in the year of the study. Still, there are several problems related to existing data considering the research proposal:

- INE provides data on a county-basis (with aggregation for administrative regions and the whole country), permitting the selection of rural counties according to population density. But it studies only guests of and nights spent in *classic accommodation units* (hotels, pensions etc.) on this territorial basis. It provides further information on nationality of guests and their monthly distribution, however not on a county-basis. Length of stay is only estimated as an average, without indicating any dispersion measure.
- INE further provides data on camping tourists, but not on a county basis.
- DGT provides data on people staying at registered rural tourism (TER) establishments, their distribution per month and the quota of Portuguese versus foreign guests, without specifying nationalities. Geographically, data available when defining the sample (in 1998) referred to the ancient “promotional areas”. However, these neither corresponded to administrative regions nor permitted the identification of rural areas.

This means that:

- tourists staying with friends and family and not at registered lodging units are not considered;
- there is no complete data on nationalities, and county distribution for all registered forms of accommodations;
- there is no distinction made between strict business tourists and those with a holiday purpose, not to mention other possible purposes which may be distinguished.

As it is our perception after a one-year-long research involvement with rural tourism in North Portugal, implying regular visits to the studied area and hundreds of conversations with tourists and tourism suppliers, tourists staying with friends and relatives are an important group (particularly in summer), although the exact quota is not known. The same is true for business tourists in the sense of salespeople traveling through the region, especially in the case of classic accommodation establishments. In the mentioned secondary data, business tourists should be over-represented and those visiting friends and relatives under-represented. For these reasons the available data is not a satisfactory basis for establishing a valid research design in this study. A sampling frame, i.e. a “*means of physically representing the population*” in the sense of an “*actual list of sampling units*”

at any stage in the selection procedure”, was naturally not available. However, the data available will be briefly presented as a background information on tourism in Northern Portugal in chapter 8.

In an attempt to approximate the real holiday/ pleasure-tourist population in rural areas of North Portugal, the rural counties present in this region were identified. These were based on the OECD-population density indicator of fewer than 150 inhabitants per km² (see appendix B). Then, locations were selected as those most likely to attract tourists from the defined counties and therefore most adequate for our sampling approach (see the sampling plan in appendix C). Many rural counties do not offer any important attraction, but attractions in some urban areas (Guimarães, Chaves, Bragança, Vila Real), located in a rural surrounding were also selected¹⁵¹. These attractions were visited by a group of interviewers (including the author of this thesis) on a regular basis during a period of one year (summer 1998-summer 1999).

That is, the sampling procedure used can be considered a “*cluster sampling approach*”, in so far as *“the population of interest is grouped together into aggregates based upon physical proximity. Each cluster is therefore supposed to be a miniature representation of the entire population. The study sample is then drawn by randomly selecting a subset of clusters, then randomly selecting study units of analysis within these clusters”*(Davis, 1996). Each attraction was associated to a cluster of visitors with a high probability of belonging to the population of interest. Attractions were of a diversified nature, including cultural and historical, archeological, natural attractions as well as tourist facilities (hotels, camping sites, cafés, swimming pools, thermal baths etc.). At those attraction sites, ideally all visitors (in the case of large groups, random elements of all visitor groups) were approached and screened for questioning. The assumption was that the selected respondents represented approximately those tourists visiting for holiday reasons rural areas of North Portugal. Our perception is that the obtained sample, except for its relatively larger portion of international tourists¹⁵², and the approximate balance between sub-regions¹⁵³ of North Portugal

¹⁵¹ According to the OECD indicator Vila Real, Chaves and Bragança are rural counties, which may be due to their geographical extension, though, as their central areas present many urban characteristics. Guimarães, on the other hand, would be classified as urban. However, the above-mentioned reasoning considering these counties’ importance for attracting tourists from surrounding more rural areas, as well as the fact that they offer more lodging facilities, used as a base for visiting the rural surrounding, are reasonable arguments for including them in the sampling design.

¹⁵² The number of foreign tourists is larger due to the simultaneous survey-approach at the airport, where both Portuguese and Spanish tourists represented a minority. This approach is justified, though, due to the importance of the international, more experienced rural tourism market for a more generalizable image-assessment of a destination, competing also on the international level.

¹⁵³ Sub-regions were identified according to 1) the site of questioning, 2) the site of stay), and 3) the localities visited during the stay. Although a clear classification into Minho, Douro, Trás-os-Montes, was preferred, many respondents moved across sub-regions, making a clear division difficult. Those who definitely moved predominantly were classified as “rural North” or “North + Porto”. In any case, a clear division, as suggested, may be a bit forced and only approximate reality. The larger number of tourists in the Minho category, followed by the Douro region and finally Trás-os-Montes seems to represent the actual order of importance of regional destinations, although the Minho could be even more dominant.

and seasons¹⁵⁴, more accurately describes the profile of the rural (pleasure) tourist market in the region than the secondary data available.

As previously mentioned, this approach was also complemented by another one at the Oporto airport where tourists were questioned after their visiting rural Northern Portugal. That approach could also be considered a form of *cluster sampling*, questioning all those present at a particular time of a particular day at the airport with the days being selected more or less randomly within regular time periods¹⁵⁵ (see sampling plan in appendix C).

Finally, owners of accommodation situated in rural areas were asked to co-operate by distributing questionnaires to tourists staying for a holiday. This was the only indirect approach undertaken.

Chapter 7.4.2. The Survey Instrument

The survey instrument was developed based on a previous literature review, conversations with agents of rural tourism supply and development, and preliminary qualitative and quantitative exploratory studies. The main constructs under analysis and their suggested relationships and available statistical techniques had to be considered when defining the measurement of variables.

The final questionnaire (see appendix D) had the following structure:

1. Questions about general holiday behavior, namely frequency of taking a holiday and of spending it in the countryside, destinations visited most often, lodging form preferred in the countryside;
2. Questions about the actual holiday in North Portugal, such as frequency of prior visits to the region and to Portugal, locality of stay, type of accommodation used, period of stay, period of reservation, main motivation of visit, composition of travel group, information sources used, expenditures, locations and attractions visited;
3. Image-related questions, such as the open-ended question “*Which images, atmosphere, features come to mind when you think about this region?*”, sixteen five-level semantic differential scales measuring affective image, a uni-dimensional five-level “different-similar” scale, a seven-level uni-dimensional “*very good*←→*very bad*” scale, a twenty-five-item battery of eventual benefits sought, which were both evaluated in terms of their general importance for choosing a rural holiday destination and according to their perceived presence in the region, using a five-point Likert-like scale, two open-ended

¹⁵⁴ According to our perception of reality, the summer months between June and September should dominate the sample of pleasure tourists. Although a dominance is observable, its extent could be more pronounced, if the sampling effort had corresponded to the increasing number of visitors. That is, actually, the double of interviewers could have collected probably twice as many responses on one day, than in the low season, when the effort to obtain just a few was substantial.

¹⁵⁵ The random selection of days was influenced by the availability of students as interviewers, specific requests by the airport administration and, particularly in the low season, more focused on the weekend, due to the larger number of tourists traveling on these days.

- questions concerning the most negative and most positive impressions about the region, and finally a multiple choice question suggesting concrete improvements of the destination.
4. Questions assessing behavioral intention, namely the probability of coming back for a holiday in the region and of recommending it as a holiday destination, using a seven-level semantic differential scale.
 5. Questions for profiling the respondent, namely his/ her nationality, place of residence, age (range), gender, professional activity, level of education and number of (minor) children.
- The before-mentioned semantic differential scales measuring affective destination image were also used for assessing self-image, to test the role of destination-self-image congruity.

Both closed-ended and open-ended questions were used. The trade-off between ease of data treatment and analysis (favoring closed-ended questions) and validity of responses (open-ended questions are more likely to elicit the most important constructs and those closest to actual thinking of respondents) was considered. Also the easiest way of obtaining the intended answer (ease of response) was sought as well as the shortest way of presenting a question, considering length and layout of the questionnaire. Generally, the questionnaire was intended to be easily understandable, as short as possible, but still including the most relevant questions for our research purpose. Additionally, the interest of the funding institution in profiling the market and assessing its behaviors had to be taken into account. The most complex part refers to the destination-image construct measured both in a qualitative and quantitative way. The quantitative operationalization via semantic differential and two-fold Likert-like scales demanded concentration and persistence, but was essential for later multivariate data treatment. The research instrument was subject to several alterations since its first pre-tests. The questionnaire focusing on destination image assessment started off with a four-pages, densely written questionnaire in April 1998 and finished with a shortened two and a half page version by September 1998.

As a complementary exploratory approach, reactions to selected photos, eventually associated with the destination, were studied, which should serve for confirming image aspects revealed by other assessment methods. The aim was to increase the validity and completeness of image assessment, which was suggested to be marked by imagery¹⁵⁶.

¹⁵⁶The photo selection process involved the identification of 190 photos from promotional and informational material, mainly about North Portugal. These were classified by eight tourism researchers and students, concerning their meaning, based on a list of words representing the main dimensions, identified via pre-tests. Participants were asked to add any word to the list, which they might consider necessary. Also comments on any photo were welcome to determine their usefulness as research instruments. Based on this procedure, those photos were extracted that were considered of highest quality and were simultaneously most consensual in reflecting specific meanings. Some overlapping was inevitable in this iconic domain, which is highly affected by subjective interpretation. A combination of 41 photos was finally selected (see appendix E).

The most important pre-tests used to design and refine the research instrument are presented next. The main concern was the valid and reliable measurement of destination image. As the destination image concept involves several dimensions (cognitive and affective, partial and holistic, unique and common, functional, experiential and symbolic), its assessment requires a broad approach using quantitative as well as qualitative techniques. In the quantitative domain, a battery of rating scales was developed, which captured a number of attributes considered relevant for rural destination image. The (evaluative) perception of these attributes are suggested to provide one way of multi-dimensional image-assessment. The development of this item-battery follows **Churchill's** (1979) methodological suggestions, aiming at the instrument's validity and reliability:

1. specify domain of construct:	literature search
2. generate sample of items:	literature search experience survey insight-stimulating examples critical incidents focus group
3. collect data	
4. purify measure:	coefficient alpha factor analysis
5. collect data	
6. assess reliability:	coefficient alpha split-half reliability
7. assess validity:	multitrait multimethod matrix criterion validity
8. develop norms:	average and other statistics summarizing distribution of scores

Table 8. Suggested procedure for developing measures of constructs (adapted from **Churchill**,

Apart from the already presented specification of the construct domain via literature review (point n^o1)¹⁵⁷, the exploratory approaches and pre-tests focused on issues suggested in points two to four.

1. Exploratory Phase April 1996:

To generate a sample of items, apart from the above-mentioned literature search, a series of qualitative research steps were undertaken, aiming at the assessment of general, freely elicited associations with the category "*rural tourism destination*". In a first study, 88 students of diverse courses at the University of Aveiro were asked to write down five to ten aspects, which would come to their mind when thinking about spending a holiday at a rural destination. This approach revealed the following topics as most relevant, being mostly referred to: landscape, climate, peace

¹⁵⁷ A literature review on tourism in general and rural tourism in particular improved the understanding of the specificity of the research object, such as the particular type of experience-based product studied and its strong reliance on image, as well as the particular motivational background for rural destination image formation. A literature review on product, brand, company, country-of-origin and particularly destination image studies provided an understanding of diverse aspects of an image with potential relevance for analysis as well as a background with empirical references and assessment methodologies.

and quiet, local culture and tradition, rivers/ lakes/ cascades, hospitality, contact to nature, accessibility, price, traditional food, simple, rustic houses, outdoor sports and no pollution. Also other associations were made, leading to a combination of the following items and categories:

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <u>landscape/ scenery/ nature</u>: watersides, mountains, rich vegetation, green, variety of nature, untouched nature, close contact to nature, animals, high quality environment, no pollution ➤ <u>peace and quiet/ relaxation</u>: escape stress, isolation ➤ <u>culture</u>: local history, local culture and tradition, monuments, historical attractions ➤ <u>rural way of life</u>: farms, rustic atmosphere, traditional festivities, simple rustic houses, no urban civilization, isolated ➤ <u>novelty</u>: different life style ➤ <u>hospitality</u>: contact with local population ➤ <u>fun and socializing</u>: night life, entertainment, company, socializing ➤ <u>climate</u> ➤ <u>food</u>: traditional food, good food ➤ <u>lodging</u>: rustic houses, comfort, quality of accommodation ➤ <u>sports/ recreation</u>: outdoors sports, walking, horse riding, recreational activities ➤ <u>price</u> ➤ <u>safety</u>

Table 9. Most relevant features of a rural holiday destination

Simultaneously, more profound discussions on the topic were held with University colleagues from the tourism and marketing field, as well as with several agents involved in the offering of rural tourism products, aiming at an understanding of the main aspects of a destination valued by the rural tourist market. Based on this double approach, an initial questionnaire was developed which included a twenty-seven-item battery of potential benefits sought and offered by the destination, as well as two open-ended questions on what people liked and disliked most in the countryside. The questionnaire was translated into four languages (Portuguese, English, French, German) and was briefly pre-tested with a student sample of twenty individuals and a sample of six language teachers, leading to some refinement of wording.

2. Pre-test June- September 1996:

This questionnaire was directed at about 200 tourists staying at a rural holiday destination in the North and Center of Portugal. The aim of this approach was the understanding of the market structure via identification of benefit-segments based on dimensions of benefits sought at a countryside destination. This was the first survey approach testing the instrument under “real market conditions”. Unfortunately the indirect administration approach yielded a low response rate. PCA¹⁵⁸ of the multi-attribute battery of potential benefits sought at a rural holiday destination

¹⁵⁸ Results of the PCA are only very briefly presented, revealing the identified factors and associated items. Generally, assumptions of PCA were satisfied, a VARIMAX rotation was applied to enhance interpretability and internal consistency was measured via computation of Cronbach alpha. The factor solution was refined via item-elimination, using as criteria low factor-loadings, communalities, MSA and item-to-total correlation inside each factor, as well as poor contribution to measured construct and the overall factor solution. Accordingly, the following items were deleted: opportunity for excursions, climate, landscape, novelty, healthy lifestyle. PCA explained 60.6% of variance in data and Cronbach alpha values were between 0.59 and 0.75.

revealed dimensions evaluated differently by different market segments. These dimensions, with varying internal reliability, were expressed through the following items (Kastenholz, 1997):

Principal Component:	Highest loading items:
Informed, independent travel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ease in finding locations/ sign-posting • Independence/ flexibility • Price • Information
Culture and Tradition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional way of life • Get to know culture and history • Architecture/ monuments • Culture/ folk events • Get to know agriculture/ rural life
Social and active hedonism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entertainment/ nightlife • Opportunities for socializing • Opportunities for families with children • Opportunities for sports
Handicraft shopping	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Handicraft • Accessibility • Opportunities for shopping • Professional service
Calm and unpolluted environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peaceful/ quiet atmosphere • Unpolluted environment
Tourism service and comfort	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gastronomy • Lodging • Hospitality

Table 10. Dimensions of benefits sought at a rural holiday destination

3. Pre-test October -November 1997

To test for more affective and holistic aspects of destination image, the three questions suggested by Ritchie & Echtner (1993) were used in another pre-test instrument, as well as a series of semantic differential scales, adapted from Malhotra's (1981) scale. Although this scale had been developed for the domain of automobile brands and their users, it was suggested to be "*appropriate for measuring a wide variety of self-concepts, person concepts and product concepts*" (Malhotra, 1981: 463). This suggestion seems reasonable, considering that the instrument contains relatively broadly applicable scales and has been tested carefully on a variety of concepts related to products and persons.

The applicability of the instrument for tourist destinations was pre-tested on a sample of eighty-five students of tourism and industrial management courses. These were further asked to freely elicit adjective-pairs that would describe a rural tourism destination. Respondents did not report any problem when asked about the applicability of Malhotra's scale to tourist destinations. The self-elicited descriptors provided suggestions for further scales, specific to rural destinations. However, only the following adjective-pairs were included, as they were also applicable to the person

concept: “*active*↔*passive*” and “*natural*↔*artificial*”. Similar approaches in tourism research (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993, and Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997, Echtner & Ritchie, 1993), based on affective/ appraisive images, were compared in order to guarantee the inclusion of the most appropriate dimensions, both applicable to tourist destinations and to persons. This resulted in the further inclusion of the dimension “*unique*↔*common*”.

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. tense (instead of excitable) ↔ calm 2. dominating ↔ submissive 3. rugged ↔ delicate 4. modest ↔ extravagant 5. pleasant ↔ unpleasant 6. modern ↔ traditional 7. organized ↔ unorganized 8. rational ↔ emotional 9. youthful ↔ mature 10. formal ↔ informal 11. conservative (instead of orthodox) ↔ liberal 12. complex ↔ simple 13. colorless ↔ colorful 14. active ↔ passive 15. natural ↔ artificial 16. unique ↔ common 17. friendly/ warm ↔ distant/ cold 18. rich ↔ poor 	<p>Table 11. Semantic differential scales for measuring affective image</p>
--	--

Generally, Malhotra’s scale proved to be relatively comprehensive, including relevant and suggestive dimensions. Some modifications were judged appropriate, though, to better fit the tourist destination concept and facilitate comprehension¹⁵⁹ (see table 11).

4. Pre-test April-May 1998:

The first pre-test focusing on cognitive image (June–September 1996, pp.189-190) aimed actually at analyzing market structure via potential benefits sought. It is true that benefits sought may be considered the motivational complement of destination image and corresponding evaluations are frequently used for measuring cognitive image. However, our redefined research focus led to the need of reviewing especially destination image assessment. Thus, after the above-mentioned approach leading to item reduction, the concern of comprehensiveness of the research instrument led to another more complete approach. A more comprehensive item-battery was developed, considering especially qualitative results from exploratory phases 1) and 2) and a more detailed review of destination image studies. This led to an instrument with 45 cognitive attribute-items, including both “*push*” and “*pull motivators*”. The questionnaire containing this item-battery, the

¹⁵⁹ It was decided to eliminate one dimension, which was judged problematic to apply to persons, especially in its translated version, namely “*comfortable- uncomfortable*”, which was judged to be sufficiently presented by the dimension “*pleasant- unpleasant*”. Another two dimensions, namely “*thrifty - indulgent*” and “*modest - vain*” were combined to “*modest - extravagant*”, and “*contemporary - uncontemporary*” was substituted by “*modern - traditional*” to better suit the rural destination concept.

semantic differential scales and the open-ended questions, was tested with a sample of the tourist population in North Portugal¹⁶⁰.

First, the forty-five-item battery was reduced based on respondents' reported difficulty in interpreting some items, a series of exploratory PCA analyses, the number of missing values and a discussion with colleagues from the tourism field about eventual redundancies. The main goal was to maintain relevant aspects related to theoretically and empirically suggested image-dimensions found in tourism-literature and in own previous results.

Nature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural life/ agriculture • Contact with nature • Peace and quiet • Walking paths • Unpolluted environment • Isolation • Scenery • Rivers and lakes • Climate
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Architecture, monuments • Handicraft • Local history & culture • Festivities and folklore
Socializing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities for socializing • Nightlife
Hospitality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sympathy of population
Tourism and leisure infrastructures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lodging • Gastronomy • Offerings for families with children • Opportunities for sports and recreation • Variety of tourist attractions
Accessibility and basic Infrastructures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accessibility • Sign-posting • Tourist information • Ease of communication • Infrastructures • Professional service
Price	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prices
Psychological	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authenticity • Safety • Reputation • Novelty • Adventure

Table 12. Most relevant attributes of a rural holiday destination

It was further decided that a focus on destination attributes rather than on “*push motives*” that might be satisfied by the destination was adequate. This led to a more consistent approach, in which

¹⁶⁰ The test region was that around the Archeological Park of Foz Côa, a rural zone in the interior North. One hundred and eighty-five responses were collected for this pre-test.

“*push motivators*” are implicit in some “*pull features*” (eg. “*peace and quiet*” reflecting the need for relaxation and escaping stress), but where all aspects relate more directly to the destination, the image of which is at stake¹⁶¹. These items were rated both in terms of their importance and their presence in North Portugal. The reason for this simultaneous approach of assessing motivation and destination evaluation by the same item battery was the need to limit complexity and length of the questionnaire. Further, the link between motivation, corresponding expectation and evaluative perception is most important and should be assessed for each aspect. Thus, the list was reduced to a manageable but significant and still comprehensive list containing thirty-three destination image items¹⁶². The list of items, associated to suggested categories is presented in table 12.

Further, the open-ended questions suggested by **Echtner & Ritchie** (1993) were included in this pre-test questionnaire. These were three distinct questions about unique and distinct aspects, the atmosphere at the destination and specific images that come to the visitor’s mind. However, results showed that respondents felt some difficulty in distinguishing these aspects. People seem to have specific ways of thinking or expressing their thoughts, which may be more or less abstract, picture-like or emotional. A prior directing of these thoughts using abstract classifications, some respondents do not distinguish or have difficulty in relating to may not be adequate. Rather, an a-posteriori classification by the researcher may be preferable and some aspects may actually be fuzzy and belong to more dimensions¹⁶³. That is why it was decided to use only one question in the final questionnaire asking for a free elicitation of any three words that come to mind when thinking of North Portugal in terms of images, atmosphere and distinct features. Another qualitative approach aiming at spontaneously elicited associations is reflected by the questions about the most positive and negative impressions about North Portugal, as a result of the subject’s experience.

Steps five to eight for the development of a reliable and valid image assessment instrument, as suggested by **Churchill** (1979, see table 8, p.188), will be realized with the data collected for hypotheses testing. To permit the test of criterion validity, measures of future consumption behavior (likelihood to come back and to recommend) were also included. That is, apart from theoretical advancements via empirical validation of hypotheses, the development of a useful

¹⁶¹ The *push-motive* “*novelty*” was maintained at this stage, due to its reported importance for visiting North Portugal. The discovery aspect may be an underlying dimension of many aspects, though, such as “*proximity to nature*”, “*culture and tradition*” and “*getting to know rural way of life*”.

¹⁶² Excluded items were: cleanliness, healthy lifestyle, privacy, relaxation, feeling at home, animals, wilderness, romantic atmosphere, simple life, close urban center; the single items sports and recreation were combined to one, village integration and agriculture were combined to “*rural life*”.

¹⁶³ For example, “*beautiful landscape*” may refer to very concrete images in people’s minds, which they have difficulties in expressing clearly in the context of a questionnaire. This aspect may also reflect a specific atmosphere or emotional state, which people may also have difficulties in expressing (e.g. the pleasure of experiencing aesthetics, harmony, beauty). Finally, it may refer to landscape characteristics which are distinct and unique to the perceiver, but which respondents also have difficulties in specifying. That is, some people think or express themselves in more holistic terms and do not reflect much about specific dimensions related to their perceptions and attitudes, even if separate questions should induce them to. For assessing finer differences, in-depth interviews should be more adequate than time-limited self-administered questionnaires.

research instrument for measuring rural destination images is aimed at as a by-product of this study.

Another result of pre-tests was a better-targeted data collection approach. The difficulty of receiving responses via intermediaries suggested the need of personal administration, interviewing or assistance. It became evident that for this type of tourism it would be important to identify adequate sites for interviewing, allowing for a sufficient number of responses per visit, since tourist infrastructures and attractions were typically very dispersed and small-scale. Attractions visited along the day led to satisfactory results, whereas contacting with tourists at lodging establishments was generally less practicable. The first trips to the region already revealed most interesting sites for interviewing, such as the Archeological Park of the Coa Valley or the center of Ponte de Lima.

Chapter 7.4.3. Measurement of Variables and Central Constructs of Analysis

The nature and measurement of constructs and variables is shown next, beginning with the most relevant construct of this thesis, *destination image*, presenting then selected independent variables suggested to partially determine it and finally behavioral variables, assessing the predictive potential of the image construct. Some variables are assessed or aggregated in diverse ways. The measurement used for hypothesis testing should depend on the requirements of the technique to be used. There is a trade-off between the benefit of maintaining the most of the original data collected and the manageability of data and interpretability of results, suggesting an aggregation to reduce complexity.

- ***Destination Image***: this is the main construct of this thesis, a latent multidimensional variable, considered to consist of a *cognitive* and *affective* component, as well as being of a *holistic* nature and containing *imagery* elements.
 - ***Cognitive image component***: those aspects of an image, which are mainly cognitively perceived and processed, implying an intellectual data assessment and treatment, logical inferences and evaluations.

This component is measured as a list of aspects, generally associated with holiday destinations and particularly adapted to a rural holiday destination, also expressing eventual *benefits sought*. Items were collected in an exploratory phase, reviewing studies in the field of destination image, via a *free elicitation exercise* with students (see Exploratory Phase 1996), and considering results of an exploratory study of the profile and motivation of the rural tourism market in North and Central Portugal (see pre-test 1996). Although a few items bear some affective meaning (“peace and quiet”, “hospitality of population”), they are generally more related to perceivable characteristics of the destination, which may be cognitively evaluated. The analytical thinking needed to make separate judgements instead of a holistic appreciation also enhances cognitive evaluation. The presence of attributes

belonging to this *cognitive image* of a rural holiday destination is rated on 5-point Likert-like scales. These ratings are factor-analyzed, leading to the identification of cognitive image factors.

Apart from that, one open-ended question, namely “*Which images, atmosphere, features come to mind when you think about this region?*”, should reveal some cognitive elements of destination image, which are most associated in a free elicitation exercise.

- **Functional congruity:** the degree to which benefits sought are encountered, i.e. the degree to which expectations are met, making the link between motivation and (cognitive) perception. Functional congruity can be understood as a part of the cognitive image component, expressing the result of cognitive data processing.

This construct is operationalized as a single indicator, namely as the average of cognitive evaluations on those items rated as more important (4 and 5 in a 5-point scale). The basic rationale for this was the simultaneous consideration of importance ratings (with those aspects rated above the mid-point considered as relevant *benefits sought*) and evaluations (expressing the cognitive perception of the degree to which those needs are met).

- **Affective image component:** those aspects of an image expressing feelings or the emotional reaction of the perceiver towards the stimulus-object.

The affective component was operationalized as a list of 5-point semantic differential scales. These seem particularly useful, as they express a more holistic evaluation, implying an emotional reaction towards a stimulus rather than its partial description and intellectual rating. The scale battery was developed, based on **Malhotra** (1981)’s product-person-self image scale, which was adapted to a rural tourism destination. The reason for using this scale was the simultaneous interest in testing the importance of destination-self-congruity. A limitation of the approach was the fact that only those scales simultaneously useful for destination and self-evaluation were used. These scales are factor-analyzed producing affective image dimensions. If one dimension reflecting “*pleasantness*” reveals superior explanatory power, it may be used as a summary surrogate variable (see **Russell & Lanius**, 1984). Also the above-mentioned open-ended question assesses affective images.

- **Destination-self-congruity:** the degree to which self-image corresponds to destination image. Destination-self-congruity can be understood as a part of the affective image component, expressing the degree of identification felt with the destination.

The concept is measured by the average difference between self and destination-evaluations, as well as by a single “*similar to me* ↔ *different from me*” scale.

- **Holistic image:** a more or less positive *overall impression*, operationalized as a 7-point “*very good* ↔ *very bad*” scale.

- **Imagery:** picture-like information stored in memory. Imagery elements are assessed via responses to the mentioned open-ended question. Responses are categorized and summarized to reveal the main “pictures in mind”. Further, in an exploratory supplementary exercise, respondents are confronted with selected photos of North Portugal. Those most associated with the destination and those most liked should reveal imagery elements existing in the tourist’s mind.
- **Motivational context:** main interests and driving forces, responsible for tourist behavior. Both the general purpose of trip and more specific benefits sought are considered.
 - **General motivational context:** the main purpose of the trip, as related to holidays, work or visit of friends and family. Responses to an open-ended question are classified into the categories “*holidays only*”, “*business/ work + holidays*” and “*visiting friends & family + holidays*”.¹⁶⁴
 - **Specific motivational context:** specific benefits sought by the individual traveler are measured via *importance ratings* of the mentioned item-list used for the assessment of cognitive image. These ratings on 5-point Likert-like scales are further factor-analyzed leading to benefit-dimensions. Moreover, tourists can be grouped as *benefit-segments*, also useful for hypotheses testing.
- **Experience-based familiarity with the destination:** knowledge of and, to a certain degree, involvement with the destination as a result of prior visit.
- **Loyalty towards the destination (prior visit state):** The habit of repeating visits to the destination is assessed via indication of the number of prior visits to the destination. The number is transformed into an ordinal scale, with either seven categories (no prior visit, one; two; 3-4; 5-6; 7-8; >8 prior visits), or with two categories, resulting from aggregation. Thus, one may distinguish simply between newcomers and repeat visitors.
- **Socio-demographic variables:** variables showing the profile of the individual traveler in terms of age-range, gender, nationality and education.
 - **Age:** ordinal scale with eight categories (<14, 15-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, 56-65, 66-75, >75 years) or three aggregated levels (up to 25 years, between 26 and 55, above 55 years).
 - **Gender:** masculine versus feminine.
 - **Nationality-group:** nominal variable, with originally 49 categories, reduced here in order to distinguish between the Portuguese and the foreign tourist market.
 - **Education:** ordinal variable, with three levels (low: below a-level, medium: a-level to bachelor, high: university degree or higher)

¹⁶⁴ This variable has been classified as “*travel context*” elsewhere (Snepenger & Milner, 1990). However, any motivation shapes the context of travel.

- ***Psychographic traveler type***: reflects the degree to which a traveler tends to travel a lot and to new, different destinations, seeking new and authentic experiences. The variable is based on Plog's typology of the psycho-centric versus allo-centric tourist, with the first seeking the familiar, the second the new and different, apart from revealing travel-specific behavior patterns (see p.24). The construct is assessed through a summated averaged indicator, including several variables, to which a value is attributed according to increasing degree of allo-centrism¹⁶⁵.
- ***Stimulus-context***: the perceptual context in terms of sub-region visited and season of the year, determining perception and evaluation of destination:
 - ***sub-region visited*** (Minho, Douro, Trás-os-Montes) being measured by 1) the site of questioning, 2) the site of stay, and 3) the localities visited during the stay¹⁶⁶.
 - ***season of the year***, identified via the month of stay indicated by respondents and classified, considering the data available on tourist flows during the year (high season = June to September and low season = rest of year)
- ***Traveling context***, particularly ***length of stay***, measured as the number of days a tourist stays at the destination. An originally created ordinal scale with eleven intervals was collapsed into two categories, often used in tourism literature (short break: below four days and holidays: above).
- Both ***probability to recommend and to return*** to the destination are measured on a 7-point “very likely←→very unlikely” scale.

These variables are conceptually integrated in a model with independent, intervening, moderating and dependent variables. For hypotheses testing these variables are further adapted to the statistical technique used. Briefly, the nature of variables for statistical analysis can be summarized as:

¹⁶⁵ The variables included are: frequency of holidays (0-1 times=1, 2-3 times=2, >3times=3), frequency of weekend short-breaks (<3 times=1, 3-6 times=2, >6 times=3), type of destination (familiar=1, more or less exotic=2, very exotic=3), preferred and actual lodging (hotels/ pousadas, F&F =1, pensions, rented flats, countryhouse, manor house, castles =2, camping, agro-tourism, variable= 3), repeat visit (> 6 times= 1, 2-6 times= 2, < 2 times= 3), reservation (>4 months=1, 1-4 months =2, <1 months =3), information sources (travel agency, publicity, catalogue= 1, prior visit, tourist guide, recommendation=2, general literature, internet= 3), distance traveled at destination (<50km =1, 50-150km= 2, >150km=3). The average of these attributed values indicates the overall degree of allo-centrism. Those with values below and above 0.5 from the mean were classified as *psycho-* or *allocentrics* (about 15% each). This approach must be understood as an approximation to a classification of psycho-graphic traveler types, focusing on the extreme ends of the distribution.

¹⁶⁶ When all sites belong to one sub-region correspond, classification is easiest. If not, the most important indicators are 1) and 2), which are further completed by a consideration of 3) in the case of discrepancy. Eventually the classification “rural Northern Portugal” when 1), 2) and 3) all belong to different rural sub-regions, is used, or “Northern Portugal + Porto”, if 2) refers to the city and its surroundings, or if 2) is “variable” and Porto and surroundings are important locations visited. However, only the three rural sub-regions are used for hypotheses testing.

Independent Variables:

- ***Sub-region visited:*** nominal variable with three main categories
- ***Season of the year:*** ordinal variable with two levels
- ***Length of stay:*** ordinal variable with two levels
- ***Purpose of visit*** (general motivational context): nominal variable with three categories
- ***Benefits sought*** (specific motivational context): numerical variables, reflecting benefit-dimensions (factor scores or average summated scales)¹⁶⁷; or nominal variable with the categories reflecting the belonging to benefit-segments
- ***Destination familiarity/ loyalty:*** ordinal variable with seven or two levels
- ***Nationality-group:*** nominal variable with two categories
- ***Age:*** ordinal variable with three levels
- ***Gender:*** nominal variable with two categories
- ***Education:*** ordinal variable with three levels

Moderating Variable:

- ***Psychographic traveler type*** (degree of allo-centrism): numerical variable, ranging from one to three

First-level Dependent Variables:

- ***Cognitive Image:*** several numerical variables, representing cognitive dimensions in terms of factor scores or average summated scales
- ***Functional congruity:*** numerical variable, ranging from one to five
- ***Affective Image:*** either one or several numerical variables, corresponding to the most relevant dimensions identified via factor-analysis
- ***Destination-self-congruity:*** a numerical variable, ranging from one to five
- ***Holistic image:*** ordinal/ interval scale with seven levels

Second-level Dependent Variables or Criterion Variables:

- ***Probability to recommend:*** ordinal/ interval scale with seven levels
- ***Probability to return:*** ordinal/ interval scale with seven levels

¹⁶⁷ Generally, factor scores and summated average scales are strongly correlated, with Pearson's Product Moments of 0.85 and higher. Factor scores are more adequate for regression analysis, due to their orthogonality, whereas average summated scales may facilitate interpretation and include a larger amount of cases, as the average is calculated, even if one variable is missing for a case. Accordingly these values are used alternatively according to the statistical technique employed.

These variables are suggested to be linked in the following manner:

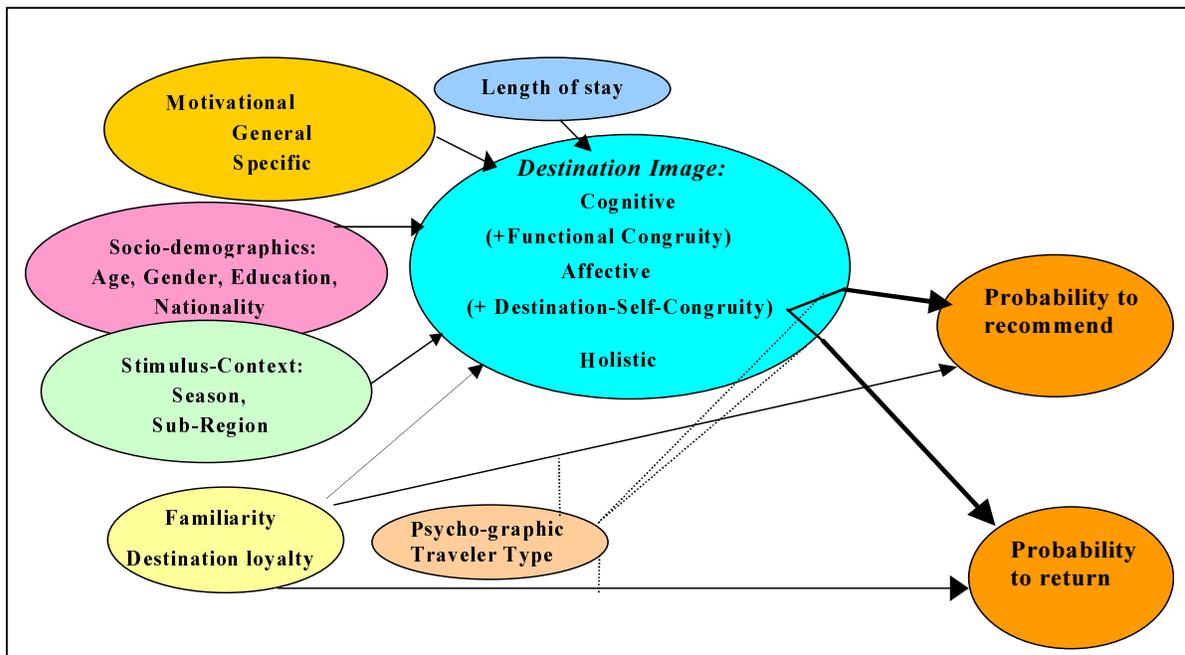


Fig.28. Global model of destination image formation and effects

Chapter 7.4.4. Instrument Validity and Reliability

As shown before, several pre-tests were undertaken to ensure validity and reliability¹⁶⁸ of the research instrument. Veal (1997: 35-36) stresses the limits of applicability of these research requirements in social sciences, as compared with natural sciences. This is due to the imperfect, usually indirect measurement tools available for assessing latent and often fuzzy constructs like motivation, attitudes and images and the subject of research being as inconsistent and complex as human beings.

However, an effort was made to achieve a valid and reliable instrument measuring destination images. This consisted of several more quantitative and qualitative approaches on the construct to be assessed via Likert-like scales, semantic differentials and open-ended questions. The last were considered important for assessing the more unique and subjective images of individuals, the first for assessing a more common, both affective and cognitive image, permitting comparison of groups and hypotheses testing. Both ease of response and usefulness in identifying relevant destination image components and features were considered in choosing questions. Free elicitation was also used for validating responses to the structured image measures, based on the premise that a combined quantitative-qualitative approach yields the most valid overall results.

¹⁶⁸ According to Veal (1997), validity can be defined as the "extent to which information collected by the researcher truly reflects the phenomenon being studied". Reliability refers to "the extent to which research findings would be the same if the research were to be repeated at a later date or with a different sample of subjects" (i.e. would be reproducible).

Correspondingly, the final sample was subjected to several reliability and validity tests. First, factor-analysis and coefficient alpha tests were undertaken with quantitative image measures. Actually, these analyses were undertaken periodically along the one-year research project.

Particularly, after collecting the first three hundred and eighty seven questionnaires, a series of PCAs on cognitive destination image aspects were undertaken, eliminating several items, in diverse orders and numbers, aiming at the simultaneously most parsimonious and representative factor solution. Successive variable elimination was based on the criteria of value of communality, MSA, the variable's overall contribution to the research (**Hair et al.**, 1998: 113-114), as well as on interpretability of components and consequences for the resulting factor structure. Further ease of response identified via interviewing and degree of redundancy were considered for the final decision of eliminating items from the battery. This iterative process led to the elimination of seven items¹⁶⁹, in an attempt to shorten the questionnaire, thereby facilitating response, simultaneously maintaining the main image dimensions. *Cronbach alpha measures* for all components were satisfactory, supporting their reliability.

Also semantic differentials, measuring affective image, were subjected to PCA at the same point in time (N=387). When analyzing for possible scale-elimination, also difficulty of response¹⁷⁰ and the most recurrent choice of the mid-point of the scale were considered. Correspondingly, the scales “*rich-poor*” and “*dominating-submissive*” were eliminated. The final component structure does not reveal very reliable factors, as measured by the *Cronbach alpha* indicator, however the relatively small number of scales initially included may justify this. This scale-battery was intentionally not too extensive, as it was used both for destination and self-evaluation and had to be responded in addition to the comprehensive cognitive item-battery and a number of other questions. Thus, a concern about the length of the questionnaire, which is inversely related to its validity, due to fatigue and irritation of respondents, imposed some contention. Further, prior research undertaken by **Malhotra** (1981) was supposed to have already led to a refinement of the scale-battery, so that actually factor analysis may not be the most appropriate technique to use in these circumstances. However, as new scales were included and proximity to results from other studies on affective destination and environmental images should be analyzed, as well as the relationship to self-image, both components and single scales were considered useful for exploratory research. Additionally, the importance of the single scale “*pleasant-unpleasant*” or a corresponding strong dimension as an eventual surrogate variable for the affective image must be highlighted.

The factor-analyses of the final sample are exposed in detail in chapter 8 when describing the destination image identified for North Portugal. The cognitive image structure revealed five broad

¹⁶⁹ The eliminated items were: handicraft, festivals and folklore, and the more abstract and psychologically laden aspects safety, reputation, novelty, authenticity and adventure.

¹⁷⁰ number of missing data and recorded reactions to scales

components, which were mainly confirmed when undertaking separate PCAs on two randomly identified halves. This also supports the reliability of the quantitative cognitive image measure.

Content or *face validity* refers to the degree to which measures correspond to conceptual definitions (**Churchill**, 1979). As far as the here measured construct is concerned, theory suggests the existence of distinct image dimensions and contents. This has been expressed in the first hypothesis to be tested and will thus be evaluated in Chapters 8 and 9. The multiple pretests undertaken with different populations, the consultation of experts, as well as the consideration of the specialty literature should have contributed to content validity in developing measures (**Hair et al.**, 1998:177). Finally, the use of diverse quantitative and qualitative image measurements and the codification of freely elicited answers by several researchers should enhance content validity¹⁷¹.

Other forms of validity are assessed in terms of the relationship between sets of variables. Thus, *convergent*, *discriminant* and *nomological validity* may be distinguished. *Convergent validity* assesses the degree to which two measures of the same concept are correlated. As several methods for image assessment are used, converging image contents should be observable. *Discriminant validity* expresses the distinctiveness of two conceptually different concepts. It may be tested by confronting image dimensions with behavioral variables, which are considered as related to, but not pertaining to the image construct. *Nomological* or *criterion validity* refers to the degree to which the measure in question confirms theoretically suggested relationships (**Hair et al.**, 1998: 118-119). *Criterion validity* can be tested based on the theoretical assumption that image components determine future travel behavior in that a positive image is likely to induce repeat visits or recommendation.

¹⁷¹ Concretely, the researcher, attempting to be as close as possible to the original, but also avoiding redundancy, coded the first 100 single words used. Correspondingly, new codes were only introduced, if the old ones were considered inadequate of capturing the meaning of the next word to be coded. Very particular aspects were maintained to reflect the individual richness of images. The first coding was revised after the introduction of another 100 answers, leading to a reduction of redundancy. After the introduction of the first 300 questionnaires, a research assistant was instructed to insert questionnaire data. This process led to a further revision according to any doubts that came up. From then on, data insertion was undertaken in sequences by the author of this thesis (who inserted about 1200 responses), and two research assistants (one inserting about 800 responses, the other 300). This process led to continuous refinement, increasing consistency of coding and regular discussions whenever a not previously mentioned expression was encountered and whenever previous codes seemed to become less adequate or redundant. The coding process accompanied the one-year-long ongoing data collection. The resulting codification should provide a reasonable balance between the need to maintain individual mental constructs and that of parsimony.

Chapter 7.4.5. Methods of Analysis

In order to identify any eventual causal probabilistic relationships, three kinds of evidence can be used (Davis, 1996: 106):

1. *Concomitant variation*, revealing the degree to which two variables are associated.
2. *Time order of occurrence*, requiring the causal factor to precede the dependent variable.
3. The *absence of other causal factors*, meaning that there is no other variable that could be responsible for a change in the dependent variable, which is most difficult to demonstrate and eventually impossible to require in the scope of human sciences.

In our research project, most analyses will consider the first kind of evidence, being the second difficult to measure in one-time questioning, although an attempt is made when asking about probable future behavior. On the other hand, our discussion is further based on conceptual advances as presented in the first part of the study, attempting to confirm suggested relationships, however careful one should be considering the limitation of evidence potential. The absence of other causal factors cannot be totally guaranteed, but an effort was made to consider most relevant causal variables, as suggested by literature, as well as their interactions.

Hypotheses are tested, based on the following quantitative techniques and making use of the data analysis software package **SPSS**, version 9.0:

1. *Principal Components Analysis (PCA)*, as a technique for finding structure in a series of interval-like scales, is used in order to identify affective and cognitive image dimensions¹⁷². These are introduced as more parsimonious data in subsequent analyses, thus facilitating interpretation.
2. *Cluster analysis*, with a combination of *hierarchical and k-means analysis* (Hair *et al.*, 1998: 497-498), was used in order to identify groups of tourists seeking similar benefits (*benefit segments*). These groups are later used for difference testing, i.e. in order to permit the analysis of the effect of benefits sought on destination image.
3. *Correlation analysis* helps identifying in how far numerical and ordinal data tend to develop in the same or opposite directions, with the relationship being the more significant the more the absolute value of Pearson's correlation coefficient approximates one. It is most useful as a technique to analyze the relationship between independent variables, as well as between independent and dependent (image and behavioral) variables.

¹⁷² It is true that the suggested interval-like nature of attitude scales is debatable, which leads some researchers to prefer *correspondence analysis* (Matiaske *et al.*, 1994). The latter assumes rather nominal data. Its use was attempted in order to validate identified factors. However, as the number of scales and levels made analysis much too complex and confusing, the five levels per scale were reduced to two (above and below average). Resulting binary data was easier to analyze and approximately confirmed factors found by PCA. Still, PCA was preferred, as it maintained most of the original data and to produce factor scores.

4. *Cross-tabulations and Chi-Square tests*, indicating statistically significant frequency differences between groups. The difference analysis is useful for nominal and ordinal data and will be particularly employed when studying relationships between independent variables.
5. *Kruskall Wallis tests* as non-parametric alternatives to the *ANOVA* for testing mean differences between groups. This technique is adequate for individually testing differences between categories of nominal or ordinal independent variables concerning a numeric, interval or ordinal dependent variable (here: image variables). When only two groups are confronted, the *Mann-Whitney U* test is used. As assumptions of ANOVA (equal interval or ratio scale measurement, normality and homoscedasticity of observations) are not always met, the use of these non-parametric tests seems more appropriate for a uniform treatment of hundreds of single difference analyses¹⁷³. These tests are mainly applied for identifying image differences due to several independent variables, i.e. for analyzing potential image determinants. In the case of benefit segment analysis, ANOVA was considered adequate, as the size of groups was sufficiently large and approximately similar (**Pestana & Gageiro**, 1998: 181).
6. *Multiple Regression Analysis*, aiming at identifying unidirectional causal relationships between several independent and one dependent variable. Assumptions to be considered are: (approximate) linearity, independence, constant variance and normal distribution of error terms (**Hair et al.**, 1998: 173-176). This analysis is basically used in the context of:
7. *Path analysis*, as an extension of multiple regression analysis, based on the assumption of theoretically suggested causal relations. However, “*path analysis cannot establish causality...all it can do is to examine the pattern of relationships between three or more variables...*” (**Bryman & Cramer**, 1994). Relationships are generally suggested to be causal based on theory, are visualized via path diagrams, connecting variables through arrows in the supposed direction. Several multiple regression analyses, looking at the suggested relationships between each dependent variable and its set of independent determinants, are realized, the results of which are introduced in a global model, showing both direct and indirect effects. However, this analysis is not adequate for too many variables (**Loehlin**, 1992 and **Pedhazur**, 1982, as cited by **Pestana & Gageiro**, 1998: 427). It is therefore only used in the context of image structure analysis.

¹⁷³ “However, the need to meet these three conditions for using parametric tests has been strongly questioned” (**Bryman & Cramer**, 1994: 117-118). These authors refer to studies carried out with samples from populations which have been artificially set up to violate assumptions, revealing a certain robustness of parametric tests. But in situations with different sample sizes and heterogeneous variances, as well as with small samples (below 15 cases), non-parametric tests should be always preferred. As in this study, equal sample size and homogeneous variance is not always given, the option for non-parametric tests seems more reasonable. In order to facilitate interpretation and comparison of results, it was further considered preferable to only use one technique consistently for the numerous analyses.

It would be most interesting to integrate the collected data into a *structural equations model*, which would be able to simultaneously assess interaction, direct and indirect effects. However, the state of the art in destination image research does not theoretically support a well-established model, making the application of SEM questionable (Baloglu, 1996). Our suggested model is rather exploratory, attempting to combine a number of hypotheses into a more complex framework. One further problem relates to the complexity and type of data collected, which is mainly of nominal, ordinal or interval type, with sometimes not normal and homoscedastic distributions.

Finally, qualitative techniques, mostly simple content analysis and freely elicited data categorization, were used in order to complete and validate results.

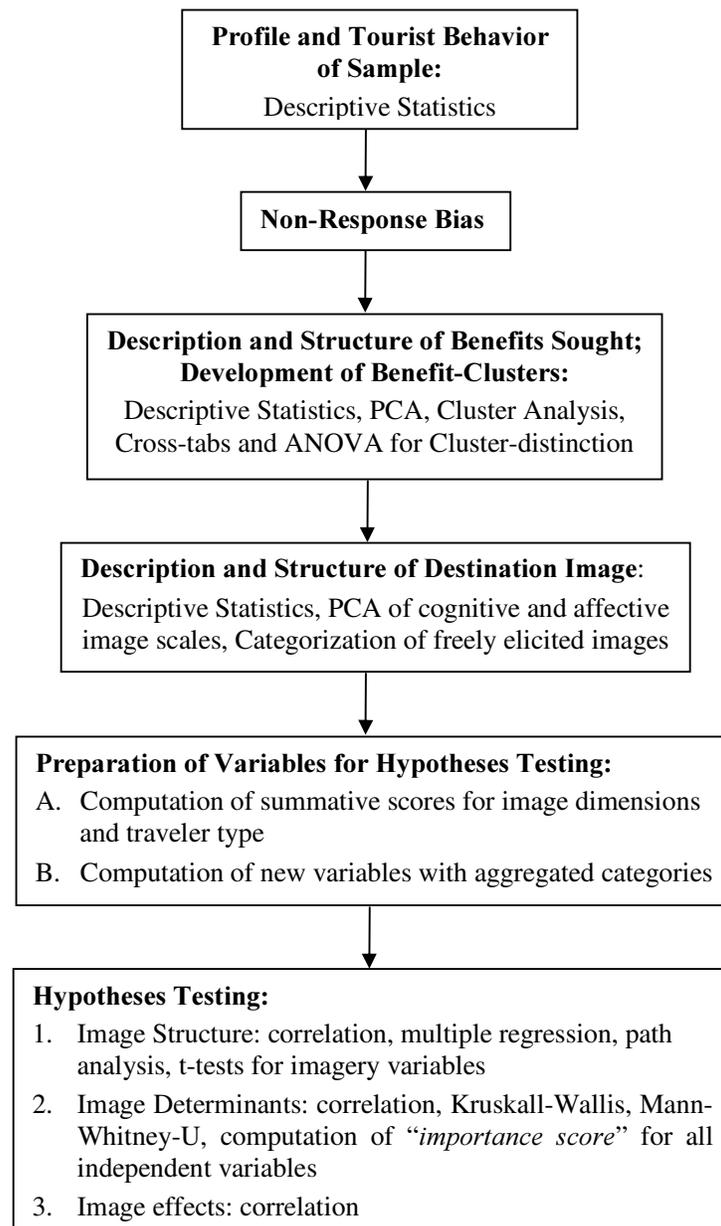


Fig.29. Summary of steps involved in data analysis

Chapter 8. North Portugal as a Rural Tourist Destination

This chapter and the following present the results of the empirical study. The objective is to identify the images tourists hold about North Portugal as a rural tourist destination, the factors that determine these images and consequences these images have for future tourist behavior. In this chapter, the image-object itself will be briefly characterized, namely North Portugal as a tourist destination. Then, results of data collection are presented in a descriptive manner: the sample profile and reported tourist behaviors. Tourist motivation and benefits sought are analyzed more carefully. In this context, benefit segmentation via cluster-analysis of importance ratings of destination features is undertaken. Finally, destination images are assessed in a variety of ways and presented in an aggregated manner. Chapter 9 will be dedicated to hypotheses testing, concerning image structure, determinants and potential behavioral effects.

Chapter 8.1. Destination Profile according to Secondary Data

The specificity of the image-object, namely a tourist destination within a particular geographical, cultural and socio-economic context, requires a brief characterization. Only an approximate understanding of this destination may permit a correct interpretation of image-perceptions. Additionally, this understanding may permit more adequate conclusions about implications of research results on destination marketing.

It is not the purpose of this chapter to analyze exhaustively North Portugal's attractions, infrastructures, potentialities and limitations. Nevertheless, images are supposed to be directly related to reality and this should therefore be minimally understood, before analyzing those images. That is why North Portugal as a rural tourist destination will be briefly presented, based on both documents from the geographical and socio-economic domain and on publications designed to promote and inform tourists about the region. Additionally, data on tourism infrastructures and tourist flows will be analyzed. Following the rationale of various authors the destination's tourism supply is divided into primary and secondary resources (see pp.18-19). The first refer to features that motivate a tourist to visit the destination, while secondary resources are required to cater to these visitors. In a final sub-chapter the tourist market, i.e. the tourist flows and their distribution will be looked at. For this analysis, North Portugal is divided into four sub-regions.

Chapter 8.1.1. The Four Sub-regions of North Portugal

“North Portugal, due to its quantitative and qualitative dimension and its human and territorial richness, has sought to be recognized as an attractive destination, capable of integrating itself into the national and international (tourism) circuits” (Santos & Terrasêca, 1998: 16). However, the

region is not supposed to “*compete with other regions in the country, but rather to present an alternative tourism product, with sufficient specificity and capacity of attraction,(given that) society ... nowadays attributes higher value to health, culture, leisure, outdoors, and rediscovery of nature*” (Santos & Terrasêca, 1998: 19).

The analysis of the region’s tourism potential has led the regional development agency CCRN to the designation of North Portugal as a “*composite tourism product..., (in which)... nature..., related sportive activities, precious cultural heritage... and complementarily for some areas the beaches are important constituting elements.*” Accordingly, its diversity suggests the region to be mostly suitable as an “*itinerary*” tourism product. On the other hand, four sub-regions with “*sufficient specificity, identity, as well as... complementary character*” may be distinguished, namely the Oporto Metropolitan Area, Minho, Douro and Trás-os-Montes (Santos & Terrasêca, 1998: 17-19). Of these only the last three integrate mainly rural areas which constitute the rural tourist destination, the images of which are later analyzed.

The *Oporto area* is an important point of reference for most tourists in North Portugal, as many arrive at the Oporto airport and transportation connections are concentrated here. It represents the region’s most important city with the largest concentration of facilities, apart from a series of notable tourist attractions, which usually convince North Portugal travelers to include a visit to the city, even when on holidays in a rural area.

The Oporto Metropolitan Area was elected by those responsible for tourism promotion of the region as the “*natural leader in the process of tourism development*” (Santos & Terrasêca, 1998: 18). It represents an urban tourist destination with strong historical and monumental references and a special vocation for business tourism. This is due to the concentration of industry and service enterprises in its area, as well as existing facilities for large-scale events (conferences, expositions etc., e.g. the “*Europarque*”). Its Port wine cellars as well as its famous urban landscape, related to the Douro river, the coastline and the ancient parts of the city¹⁷⁴ are important primary resources. However, a not always harmonious urbanization and traffic congestion constitute barriers to this primary role of the city for regional tourism development and promotion.

The *Minho region* may be considered as consisting of three mayor areas of attraction. These are the areas centered at Viana de Castelo, Braga and the National Park of Gerês. The Minho offers most attractive natural and landscape features, an interesting coastline with sandy beaches, a hilly and even mountainous, green interior with small-scale agriculture and a series of picturesque small villages and towns. The proximity between the coast and these green areas has led to the suggestive

¹⁷⁴ Its historic center was classified as *World Heritage* in 1996 (see UNESCO’s homepage at <http://www.unesco.org/whc/sites/755.htm>).

designation “*Green Coast*” in the former promotional terminology¹⁷⁵. Viana de Castelo is famous for its handicraft (especially gold filigree) and folklore, Braga for its monuments and religious importance. The Peneda de Gerês Park is known for its singular natural attraction (**Santos & Terrasêca**, 1998: 18). The region is also known for its numerous manor houses, of which a substantial quantity has been converted to tourist accommodation. Finally, its *green wine* and traditional rural way of life contributes to this region’s uniqueness and attractiveness (**Weimer & Weimer-Langer**, 1997: 32). The promotional material further stresses the importance of the pilgrim path towards Santiago de Compostela crossing the region, its marked religious traditions, monuments and the population’s hospitality (**ADETURN et al.**, “Minho”). However, also this region reveals some urbanization and traffic problems in certain areas (**Reinhard**, 1996: 82).

The *Douro region*, which may be divided into three parts from the coast to the interior, is of rare natural beauty. It is famous for the cultivation of Port Wine in terraces along the river, which results in a most attractive landscape and permits an insight in interesting traditional wine production methods. There is further the opportunity for scenic boat and railway trips along the river, for visits to towns, villages and monuments of interest and a large potential for outdoors sports (**Santos & Terrasêca**, 1998: 18-19). In the promotional material, the Douro river, the landscape and the wine production are dominant themes. Monuments and paleolithic engravings are also referred to in the context of the recently created *Archeological Park of the Côa Valley* (**ADETURN et al.**, “Douro”). Boat trips organized on the river Douro are a main tourist attraction, but are not offered between November and April.

Finally, *Trás-os-Montes* (meaning “beyond the mountains”) is the area most to the interior North. It has the longest frontier with Spain and includes three major towns (Chaves, Bragança and Miranda do Douro) of monumental interest. The region is also rich in thermal resources and offers a beautiful natural landscape with some lakes and a mountainous shape (**Santos & Terrasêca**, 1998: 19). Also typical granite-built villages and small-scale agriculture are points of interest, with traditional handicraft and gastronomy making it quite an “*authentic*” rural area (**Reinhard**, 1996: 88-92). Here the continental climate dominates, with a long, hot summer and a short, cold winter. In both the Douro region and Trás-os-Montes the landscape is more arid and rocky the closer to the interior (**Weimer & Weimer-Langer**, 1997: 43). In the region’s promotional material, its typical gastronomy, unique fauna and flora and archeological heritage are praised (**ADETURN et al.**, “Trás-os-Montes”).

¹⁷⁵ This brand seems very well chosen, especially for the foreign market. It was mentioned by several tourists when asked about what they understood by “North Portugal”, and was used by many tour operators in their promotional material. Most importantly, it is suggestive of a specific and quite unique landscape and environment and may be accordingly preferred to geographically based brands like just “North Portugal”. It thereby corresponds to what is generally considered desirable for a brand (**Kotler et al.**, 1999: 575-577).

Chapter 8.1.2. Primary Resources

Probably the most attractive features of North Portugal are its natural attributes and landscape. Additionally, the impact of Man on this landscape and his traditional and natural way of life contribute to the destination's attractiveness. The landscape is shaped by the extensions of the Iberian Mountain chains, which in some areas¹⁷⁶, particularly when combined with profound river valleys contrasting with granite rocks, is especially attractive.

North Portugal can be viewed as a relatively *green region*, due to abundant water resources and a 30 percent higher rate of precipitation than in the rest of the country. Precipitation decreases from the coastline to the interior where temperature changes are more extreme. Several natural parks protect the rich flora and fauna encountered in the region¹⁷⁷. More than 40 percent of the regional territory's nature are protected by a specific status (7.5 percent as protected areas and 33 percent as National Ecological Reserves) (Pinho & Monteiro, 1999: 13-19).

Problems are becoming increasingly visible, as related to the abandoning of silvi- and agriculture. This has led to forest fires and to a progressive deterioration of landscape quality, particularly in the more interior areas. However, the worst negative impacts of human activity on the quality of the environment are observable in and around the metropolitan area of OPorto, an industrialized densely populated area with high levels of traffic congestion. In recent years environmental degradation in North Portugal is less due to industry and increasingly based on patterns of residence and consumption, which are placing pressure on the OPorto area and the coastline. From an environmental point of view, the continuing marginalization and depopulation of extensive rural areas in the region's interior is as negative as the residential pressure encountered at the coast (Pinho & Monteiro, 1999: 13-19).

Apart from the peculiar rural landscape of North Portugal, interesting ethnographic aspects (handicraft, folklore, traditions), historical monuments (particularly the castles along the Spanish frontier and the churches on the way to Santiago de Compostela), gastronomy and hospitality have been praised by several tourist guide-books and promotional material. On the other hand, there is a lack of specifically organized tourism products, based on these resources.

Chapter 8.1.3. Secondary Resources

One important infrastructure needed to permit tourists the access to this destination is the transportation network. Tourists arrive by car, railway or airplane depending mainly on the distance from their places of residence.

¹⁷⁶ Serra de Nogueira, Cimas de Mogadouro, Serra de Roboredo, Serra de Alvão and Serra de Marão

¹⁷⁷ Parque Nacional da Serra do Gerês, Parque Natural de Montesinho, Parque Natural do Douro Internacional

According to **Costa** (1999: 29-35), the *street system* has improved in recent years, especially considering the links between the urban areas Oporto and Lisbon, as well as along the coastline. However, the metropolitan area of Oporto lacks a restructuring of its streets system. The region's interior is becoming more accessible due to the construction of major roads (IPs- *Itinerários Principais*), connecting Oporto- Vila Real- Bragança (IP4) and Viseu- Vila Real – Chaves (IP3). On the other hand, when examining the street map of North Portugal and considering the experience of the field study in its rural areas, the quality of the street system in many areas continues poor, with many narrow and curvy streets and uneven pavement making driving difficult. This may contribute to isolation, which is appreciated by some tourists as a quality of a rural destination. But it makes accessibility difficult for other tourists who fear the risks of isolation or just do not want to spend too much time on the road. For short-break tourists this factor may be decisive.

The *public transportation supply* via busses is not very well developed. Several companies serve mainly to reach the major towns. Routes sometimes include long deviations across several villages. Trips take considerable time, have very limited schedules and are often not compatible with further connecting lines¹⁷⁸. As far as the railway system is concerned, there is a good connection between the urban areas around Oporto and Lisbon. However, the country's and particularly North Portugal's interior is rather poorly structured also in this respect. Actually, several railway lines with high scenic value have been closed down in recent years. There are intentions of revitalizing some for tourist purposes, though. Finally, a very important point of access is the Oporto Airport *Francisco Sá Carneiro*, with a volume of more than 2.5 million passengers yearly. Seventy seven percent of these are international travelers (**Costa**, 1999: 32-35).

Another most relevant secondary resource is the *accommodation sector*. In the hotel sector North Portugal ranks third among the Portuguese administrative regions, with thirteen percent (28.491 beds in 2000) of the country's total lodging capacity. This falls behind the dominant Algarve (about thirty nine percent) and the Lisbon region (twenty four percent) (**INE**, 2001).

In the North, the Oporto metropolitan area had forty three percent of lodging capacity in 1998, and rural areas (defined by population density of counties) only provided twenty six percent¹⁷⁹.

¹⁷⁸ This led one Australian tourist, who intentionally chose public transportation for environmental reasons (a motive with tendency to increase) to the statement: "*I have been on the bus and at bus-stations waiting for connections for nearly 10 hours today. I was not able to plan the trip, as there was no information available beforehand concerning connections. I started in the morning at Oporto and I have finally arrived at Chaves now and I think I deserve a medal.*" (referring to a distance of about 220 km)

¹⁷⁹ The analysis is based on 1998 data, as it was the latest county-wise data available, permitting a distinction of rural counties and defined sub-regions. If Bragança, Chaves and Vila Real, the relatively more urbanized of the rural counties, are further left out, only 16.4 percent of hotel supply are located in clearly rural areas.

Considering only rural counties, Trás-os-Montes stands out with a lodging capacity of forty three percent, followed by the Minho and Douro region with twenty eight percent both (INE, 1999).

RURAL ACCOMMODATION CAPACITY	MINHO	DOURO	TRÁS-OS-MONTES	OPORTO	TOTAL
Classic accommodation (only rural counties)	2.099 (28%)	2.129 (28%)	3.233 (43%)	88 (1%)	7.549 (100%)
TER (all)	1.448 (67%)	188 (9%)	133 (6%)	396 (18%)	2.165 (100%)
Tourist beds available	3.547 (37%)	2.317 (24%)	3.366 (35%)	484 (5%)	9.714 (100%)
Camping (estimates for rural counties)	9.120 (50%)	5.016 (28%)	4.104 (23%)	--	18.240 (100%)
Total	12.667 (45%)	7.333 (26%)	7.470 (27%)	484 (2%)	27.954 (100%)

Table 13. Rural accommodation capacity in North Portugal

Sources: INE, 1999; DGT, 1999; Santos & Terrasêca, 1998; Portuguese Camping Guide 1998

It is true that TER lodging capacity only corresponds to about two percent of the country's total accommodation (adding it to hotel supply). Its importance in North Portugal increases to seven percent, though, and in the rural counties of the region even to twenty-two percent (see table 13). In the North forty one percent of all TER capacity is concentrated (see figure 10, p.61), with the Minho accounting for sixty seven percent of the region's supply. It is curious that the Porto region follows with eighteen percent, albeit this area's more urban characteristics¹⁸⁰.

When adding TER and hotel accommodation in rural counties, the Minho stands out with thirty seven percent of all rural lodging capacity, marked by a relevant share of TER. It is followed by Trás-os-Montes with thirty five percent and the Douro region with twenty four percent, both mainly providing classic hotel accommodation.

Finally, the Northern region disposes of 42 camping sites, with a capacity for 45.600 campers, corresponding to about eighteen percent of camping capacity in Portugal (INE, 1999). Unfortunately data on camping sites is not published per county, but according to the Portuguese Camping Guide, about half of the sites should be located in rural counties. Additionally, a study undertaken by ADETURN (Santos & Terrasêca, 1998) revealed that about fifty six percent of the capacity of camping sites in 1995 was concentrated in the Porto region¹⁸¹, about twenty four percent in the Minho, eleven percent in the Douro and nine percent in Trás-os-Montes. One may thus estimate about forty percent of camping capacity to be located in rural counties in North

¹⁸⁰ Ninety percent of TER supply is located in urban counties in the Oporto sub-region, according to the criteria of population density. It seems that also here (similarly to the Lisbon region), the proximity to an industrialized, dynamic and wealthy urban center may have enhanced the development of this lodging modality, which may be integrated into business and leisure practice in the "urban fringe".

¹⁸¹ However, the camping guide revealed that none of these was located in rural counties.

Portugal. This corresponds to approximately 18.000 places on camping sites, which reveals their significant role when compared to alternative lodging capacity in rural North Portugal, although camping sites are usually only available for part of the year.

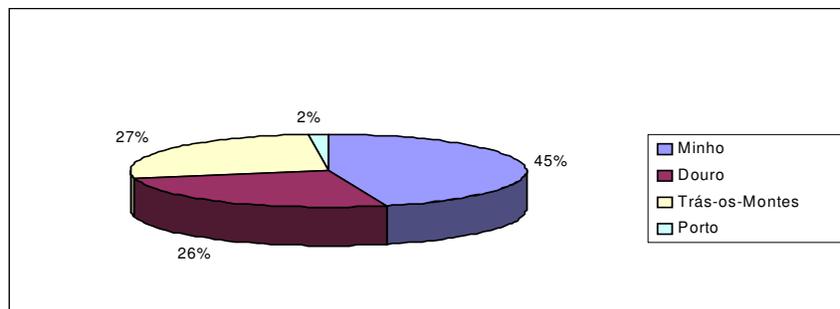


Fig.30 Rural accommodation capacity in North Portugal by sub-region (1998)

Sources: INE, 1999; DGT, 1999; Santos & Terrasêca, 1998; Portuguese Camping Guide, 1998

The approximate sub-regional distribution of global accommodation capacity (hotels, TER and camping sites) reveals again the importance of the Minho region.

Chapter 8.1.4. The Rural Tourist Market in North Portugal

There were a total of 1.612.086 guests staying for 2.922.069 *nights in hotel accommodations* in North Portugal in 1998. In rural counties, the number of guests drops to 260.462 and that of nights spent to 434.793 (fifteen percent of total demand in the North)¹⁸². Comparing these numbers with those of supply (twenty six percent of total supply in the North), it is obvious that the occupancy rate in rural areas is substantially lower than in urban counties. For rural counties this value may be estimated as about sixteen percent versus thirty three percent for urban counties¹⁸³.

Nights spent by tourists in *TER units* in North Portugal were estimated as 146.148 in 1999. Unfortunately no data is available for the county-level, nor for North Portugal for 1998, as before 1999 TER data was aggregated by promotional area. However, when considering the distribution of TER capacity by counties and the demand registered in 1998 for the former *Green Coast* and *Mountains*, the number of nights spent in the region in these units in 1998 may be estimated as close to 61.500. When adding hotel demand in rural counties to this number of TER demand, the latter represented a share of approximately twelve percent of rural lodging demand in 1998. This is a relatively small share, when compared to that identified in corresponding supply (22 percent).

¹⁸² For reasons of data protection some data on the county level is not provided, as in some cases numbers would reveal individual agents' performances. However, it is our perception that the inclusion of these numbers would not substantially increase the mentioned total numbers of aggregated rural counties.

¹⁸³ The occupancy rates are calculated as: demand in bednights/ (lodging capacity *365). The number may be slightly higher, as some establishments do not operate the whole year long. The exact number for rural areas cannot be provided, as data on some counties is not published.

However, given the substantial increase of TER demand between 1998 and 1999, and the only slight increase in regional hotel demand (2.5 percent, **INE**, 2000), but without any county-wise data available for 1999, this share is estimated to have increased to about twenty five percent¹⁸⁴.

Campers stayed for 989.161 nights in North Portugal in 1998 (**INE**, 1999). Without any information about the county-wise distribution, an estimation of *rural camping demand* is based upon the mentioned study undertaken by **Santos & Terrasêca** (1998)¹⁸⁵. Considering all accommodation alternatives, the distribution of rural tourist demand in 1998 may be approximately given by figures 31 and 32.

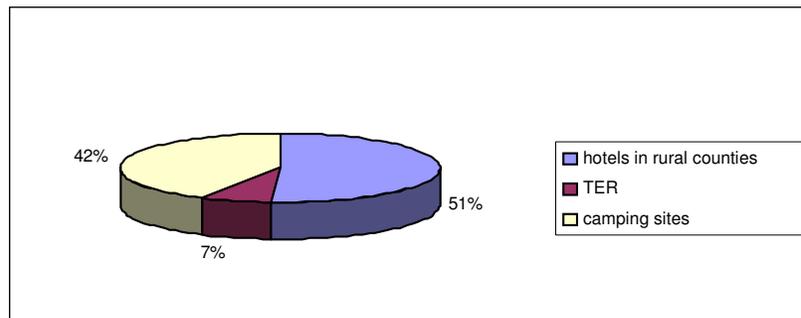


Fig.31 Rural tourist demand (nights spent) in North Portugal by accommodation form (1998)
Sources: **INE**, 1999; **DGT**, 1999; estimates based on **Santos & Terrasêca**, 1998

The predominant role of hotel units is obvious, but the relevance of the business travel market for this modality must be considered in this context. However, as mentioned before, the above-average growth of TER demand between 1998 and 1999 should have increased the share of this accommodation form. This may be significant for leisure-based rural tourism development in North Portugal, when considering the characteristics of the TER market, as evidenced by several studies (**Moreira**, 1994, **Edwards**, 1991). Concretely, this elite segment may generate over-proportional economic benefits and represent an important opportunity for improving the image and attractiveness of rural tourism. The less important role of camping sites in terms of demand when compared to capacity (providing about sixty five percent of supply) is linked to the fact that this accommodation form is generally only used part of the year. Still, it represents an accommodation modality, associated to particular holiday practices, that assumes a relevant position for the tourism reality in many rural counties, particularly in the warmer months of the year.

The phenomenon of tourists visiting friends and family should also be considered, but unfortunately data on this movement is missing.

¹⁸⁴ One may assume a similar distribution between rural and urban hotel demand in 1999, as found for 1998 and thereby estimate the rural hotel demand for 1999.

¹⁸⁵ These authors identified demand for the four sub-regions in 1995, which was considered still approximately valid for 1998. However, camping demand in the Porto region was excluded, and that in the Minho and Douro regions slightly reduced, considering the existence of camping sites in urban counties.

When analyzing rural tourism demand by sub-region, only hotel demand can be (nearly) exactly determined, as here data is available on the county-level. TER demand per sub-region was estimated based on the distribution of supply and camping demand per sub-region according to Santos & Terrasêca's study (1998), combined with the analysis of the national camping guide. Correspondingly, the Minho region stands out with overall highest levels of demand, being followed by Trás-os-Montes and the Douro region.

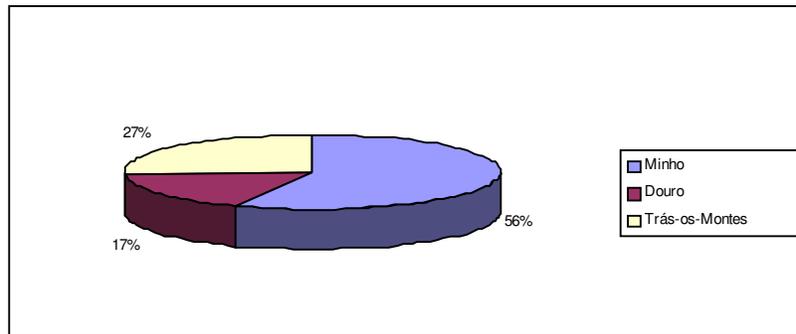


Fig.32 Rural tourist demand (nights spent) in North Portugal by sub-region (1998)
Sources: INE, 1999, estimates based on DGT, 1999, Santos & Terrasêca, 1998

Considering the available data about the constitution of the rural tourism market by nationality (INE, 1999), only about sixteen percent of *hotel demand* (nights spent) in rural areas corresponds to the foreign market. The Douro region stands out with thirty percent of foreign demand. The Spanish are the dominant nationality in rural areas' hotel establishments in the North (thirty nine percent), but visit to a lower degree the Douro region. The British (twenty four percent) prefer the Minho and the German (sixteen percent) are relatively equally distributed in rural sub-regions, which is also true for the French.

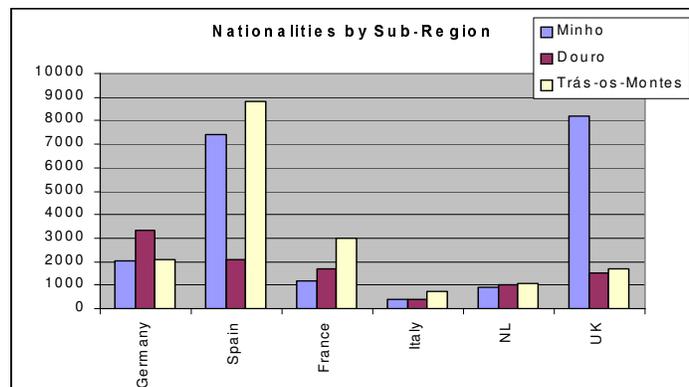


Fig.33. Hotel demand (nights spent) in rural North Portugal by nationality and sub-region (1998)
Source: INE (1999)

It is interesting to note that in TER units the share of the foreign market raises to fifty percent. There are neither county nor sub-regional data available on TER demand by nationality. However, it is our perception that the importance of the international market is particularly relevant for the Minho region, which is well integrated in international commercial networks¹⁸⁶. As far as campers

¹⁸⁶ TURIHAB is partly responsible for this. Data on its clients in 2000 (TURIHAB, 2001) reveals that foreign tourists (70%) outnumber Portuguese substantially. Most important foreign markets are the British (27%), the German (12%), the Dutch (9%), the French, Belgian, Spanish and US-American (about 3% each).

are concerned, foreign tourists generated only about twenty percent of demand in the North in 1998. That is, when considering total demand of the three modalities, the foreign demand in rural North Portugal can be estimated as about twenty percent versus eighty percent domestic demand. The mentioned increase in TER demand should have led to a slightly larger share of the foreign market, here too. In addition, a large share of domestic demand in hotel establishments is generated by business travel, especially in the low season, as interviews with hotel owners revealed (**Kastenholz**, 1999). This may considerably reduce the domestic market's share in the pleasure travel market to between sixty and seventy, although an exact estimation of the market constitution cannot be forwarded.

Chapter 8.2. Primary Data Collection and Descriptive Analysis

Results of primary data collection are analyzed next. First data collection procedures are discussed and then descriptive results presented in an abbreviated way (see appendix F for details).

Chapter 8.2.1. Data Collection

As presented in Chapter 7, data collection was planned to lead to an approximately representative sample of leisure tourists staying in rural areas in Northern Portugal for holiday purposes, controlling for sub-region, season and foreign versus national market. The carefully chosen sampling procedure at diverse tourist attraction sites in the region at different points in time, the very assertive approach of directly interviewing about 88 percent of the tourists encountered in these circumstances, and the global number of valid responses obtained (N= 2280) sustain this assumption. However, three slight biases were introduced, namely:

1. 484 (twenty one percent of total) responses were obtained at the Oporto airport, increasing the number of tourists arriving by airplane, and thereby reducing the percentage of Portuguese in the sample¹⁸⁷. This approach was considered useful in order to achieve a larger number of foreign tourists arriving from greater distances. These are typically more dependent on destination image, engage in larger expenses to get to the destination, and are more likely to spend a holiday in North Portugal, not just a short-break. They should also have chosen the destination more carefully and not just visit it due to proximity as is frequently the reason for the closest markets. It is more likely to find tourists in this group who are experienced international rural tourists whose perceptions and evaluations of rural Northern Portugal may be of particular interest when analyzing the region's destination image. Without this additional sample the Portuguese would correspond to fifty nine percent of the sample. This comes close

¹⁸⁷ About 84 percent of respondents at the airport were foreign tourists.

to the estimated share of the domestic pleasure travel market in rural North Portugal. The adopted procedure led to an approximate balance between Portuguese and foreign tourists.

2. The data collection implied a more intense effort dedicated to the regions Douro and Tras-os-Montes. More time was required in order to obtain a reasonable number of responses and the week-end days were chosen more often, whereas in the Minho region the larger amount of visitors generally present did not require any such effort. That is why the number of responses from tourists of the Minho region should be actually higher to be representative of the pleasure travel population in rural North Portugal. However, the interest in identifying image differences between sub-regions implied the need to obtain a sufficiently large and approximately balanced number of responses in each.
3. The effort of data collection was superior in the low season where a larger percentage of tourists present at sampling sites were actually approached than in the high season (due to the limitation of the number of interviewers). That is, tourists in the high season should numerically stand out more in our sample. The reason for trying to obtain a reasonable number of responses in the low season was the concern for also understanding the image of the region in the off-season, which might be important for assessing its eventual change along the year¹⁸⁸.
4. Finally, our approach at accommodation units focused more on those more typically related to rural tourism (TER establishments and camping sites). It was attempted to thereby increase the importance of the rural tourist market motivated by small scale and closeness to nature.

Considering these actually intended sampling biases, an exact representation of the tourist population in rural areas in North Portugal cannot be expected. If the major concern had been representativeness, a slightly larger number of Portuguese and Spanish should be expected, a larger percentage of Minho tourists and a larger amount of responses from the high season. Since the main interest lies in the analysis of destination image of rural North Portugal for the entire year, for all sub-regions and both the national and international market, the sample seems most appropriate. In any case, when taking conclusions, these slight biases and the difficulty in exactly defining a representative sample must be considered.

A final remark concerning data collection seems adequate: a major effort was undertaken to include all tourists encountered at the sampling sites using both the approach of aided self-administration and interviews according to the respondent's preference. Data collection was undertaken by a group of interviewers, in which the author was nearly at all times present. The other interviewers

¹⁸⁸ According to INE data on guests of classic accommodation units in rural North Portugal (INE, 1999), respondents from the low season should dominate (fifty nine percent), but as mentioned before, these numbers are inflated by business travelers, whereas holiday related travel should dominate in the high season.

were students, generally in their last year of the course “Tourism Management and Planning” at the University of Aveiro. Some students achieved a high degree of professionalism in administrating the survey. The goal was to establish a good rapport with respondents making them feel at ease to express whatever might occur to them, soliciting any critical remarks on the questionnaire itself and solving any eventually arising question¹⁸⁹. Generally, this objective was achieved.

Before tracing the sample profile, the guidelines for inclusion of responses must be stressed:

1. Respondents were only included if they actually spent a holiday in North Portugal, ideally staying in but also visiting rural areas of the region, and consequently being able to express their impressions on the destination. Also those who visited the region for another major reason (business, health, visit of friends and relatives) were included, as long as they indicated to combine this with holiday/ leisure purposes.
2. Generally only respondents with an age of at least 12 years were included.
3. Respondents were excluded when they did not give any information on their socio-demographic profile, making classification impossible.
4. They were also excluded if they gave no information on their image of the destination.

Chapter 8.2.2. Profile of Sample

Numbers of Portuguese and foreign tourists are approximately balanced. The most important *nationalities* present in the foreign market were the German (20 percent), British (15.4 percent), French (14.4 percent), Dutch (10.4 percent) and Spanish (9 percent), followed by the Belgian, Brazilian, and US-American. Comparing these numbers with INE data relative to guests of classical lodging units in rural counties in the North¹⁹⁰, one may identify some divergences. Thus, the Spanish market should be more represented. The poor presence of this nationality group was observed since the beginning, although efforts were made to reduce this tendency. One of the reasons for this may be related to the airport approach. Another possible explanation, suggested by some owners of lodging units, may be that the Spanish visit the Portuguese North more often for business reasons, for shopping in major towns and cities or on their way to the coast or to the South. Therefore they may not have visited the attraction sites selected for interviewing tourists to the same extent as other nationalities. Further our focus on small-scale lodging establishments may

¹⁸⁹ These aspects were considered especially in the initial launch of the questionnaire, leading to some refinement after obtaining an amount of 387 valid responses. This was possible, as questionnaires were treated immediately after their collection, on a continuous basis. However, changes did not lead to inclusion of more items or questions, but rather a reduction and simplification. Further, understanding the difficulty of answering some questions helped providing a better aid to future respondents.

¹⁹⁰ Although the validity of this comparison may be questioned, due to the data itself, which is not representative of all leisure-based tourism in the rural North, as explained before.

not capture this group, as they may prefer more urban infrastructures. On the other hand, this approach may explain the slightly larger share of Dutch, French and German in our sample, compared to INE data. However, as argued before, this distribution may actually be closer to the international rural tourism market in North Portugal than INE data on hotel accommodation.

Respondents tend slightly to the younger *age* ranges, with nearly half the sample being comprised between 15 and 34 years. Correspondingly many respondents do not have any children (48 percent of valid responses, VR=87 percent¹⁹¹), and only 24 percent have minor children, mainly with ages between 11 and 15 years. The distribution by *gender* is approximately balanced. Most respondents reside in *urban areas* (62 percent, VR=86 percent), with cities in North Portugal (17 percent) and the Lisbon area (13 percent) being the most frequently mentioned single urban areas.

About half the sample possesses a degree of higher *education* with only about 7 percent (VR=88 percent) indicating the lowest level of education. There is a large group of technical, scientific and liberal professions present in our sample (30 percent), being followed by students (16 percent) and service employees (15 percent). Accordingly, one might conclude that the sample shows an educational level above the average and should include an important group of the upper and upper middle class, which has also been found as typical for the rural tourist market in other countries (Davidson, 1992, OECD, 1994, see chapter 3.4.).

Chapter 8.2.3. Non-Response Bias

Nearly all tourists approached personally were willing to answer the questionnaire given that they had the time to do so. The response rate of the interview approach can be estimated as close to ninety percent, based on a counting of persons approached and responses obtained on several days. However, when leaving questionnaires with intermediaries at tourist posts and accommodation units, response rates were considerably lower (hardly achieving 20 percent). This can be explained by the lower interest of intermediaries in the study, their difficulty in explaining it to respondents¹⁹² and different persons being in charge of administrating it, leading to a lack of control. The experience of some intermediaries with the administration task was not encouraging. Many tourists showed no interest in answering questionnaires and some actually reacted negatively. It was easier for those involved in the research process to explain objectives and university students and staff may have enjoyed a higher degree of credibility than intermediaries from commercial lodging establishments. However, it was our understanding that intermediaries gave up relatively quickly,

¹⁹¹ Percentages are generally indicated as referring to valid responses, with no special reference if the number of valid responses corresponds to at least 90 percent. If this is not the case, in brackets the percentage of valid responses in relation to the whole sample is stated, in the following way: (VR= ... percent).

¹⁹² It must be stressed that every effort was undertaken to explain these issues to intermediaries and to give further information when following up on a regular basis.

were not as assertive as the group of interviewers and did not find improved ways of trying to obtain a response¹⁹³.

Frequently they may also have been skeptical about the usefulness of this kind of study. Some intermediaries simply left the questionnaire at a public site or in the rooms. The length and relative degree of difficulty of the questionnaire required some motivating approach, though. That is why the approach via intermediaries accounts for only twelve percent of the sample.

Some tourists were asked to state whether they would have responded to the questionnaire if they had found it in a hotel room. This was done in order to assess response bias eventually present in the part of the sample sent in by intermediaries. These respondents were compared with the rest of the sample, on some more relevant profiling variables (gender, age, nationality, education). Also relevant behavioral aspects (number of visits to region, sub-region visited, season of stay, main purpose, likelihood to come back and recommend) and image variables (global impression, different-similar, pleasant-unpleasant) were compared.

The only significant difference found refers to age, with older respondents being slightly over-represented in the potential non-respondent group (especially those between 45 and 65). That is, this age group should be under-represented in the sample achieved via intermediaries. However, as eighty eight percent of our sample was obtained via personal interview, non-response bias should be no major problem.

Chapter 8.2.4. Tourist Behavior of Respondents

Respondents revealed a *high propensity of holiday making*, with the majority taking holidays twice (31 percent) or three to four times a year (33 percent). However, 17 percent of the sample took holidays only once a year. Additionally, a large majority (67 percent) of respondents spent at least three to four weekends per year away from home. *Rural holidays* and weekend-breaks were rather popular amongst this group with about 52 percent visiting the countryside at least three to four times a year. On the other hand, nearly a quarter of respondents never or rarely visited the countryside. That is, despite the large majority of regular countryside visitors there was a group of visitors who not typically seek a rural holiday experience.

¹⁹³ Experience with our direct approach taught us, in which situations the survey would be most successful, in which circumstances a personal interview would be preferable to self-administration, when an explanation was adequate, how to obtain the most relevant information in a short rapport, if respondents became tired or lacked time. All this required a lot of sensitivity and motivation on the part of the interviewers, who were asked to make the situation as pleasant as possible to respondents, sometimes even keeping a long conversation about tourists' experiences even after the questionnaire was answered. Each person should be treated as a person, and not as just another number to complete an ambitious objective, although this was sometimes difficult. However, when this type of atmosphere was created, the survey was most successful.

The *most popular European destinations* visited in the last two years were Spain (25 percent), France (23 percent) and Italy (10 percent), confirming these countries' prime positions in the European destinations ranking, according to **WTTC** (2001c) and **WTO** (2000). In Portugal the most popular tourist destination was the Algarve (17 percent), followed by the Alentejo (7 percent), Minho (7 percent), the North Coast (5 percent) and Trás-os-Montes (5 percent). These numbers do not reflect the general pattern of the country's regional demand, with the Algarve responsible for 44 percent, followed by the Lisbon area (22 percent) and Madeira (15 percent of guests in classic accommodation in 1999, **INE**, 2000). That is, the sample shows a broader interest in the whole country and in less "touristy" areas than the average Portugal-visitor does. A large group (22 percent) actually preferred traveling through the whole country. Outside Europe, the United States (7.5 percent) and Brazil (3 percent) were the most popular destinations.

Rural holiday destinations visited most often in Portugal were the Minho (30 percent), areas in the Central Region (13 percent), Trás-os-Montes (18 percent) and the Alentejo (9 percent). Abroad, France (11 percent), Spain (6 percent), England (5 percent), Germany (3 percent) and Italy (3 percent) were most mentioned as rural holiday destinations. It must be stressed that only France, Spain and particularly Italy may be considered international rural holiday destinations, since the other destinations were basically mentioned by their own residents. About 33% visited only domestic rural tourist destinations, whereas the large majority also visited rural areas abroad.

The *preferred accommodation* form in the countryside was with friends and family (26 percent), followed by camping sites (24 percent), hotels (24 percent), country houses (19 percent) and rented flats/ houses (17 percent). The most *actually used accommodation forms* (VR= 81.5 percent) were hotels (22 percent), pensions (16 percent), camping sites (16 percent), and with friends and relatives (10.5 percent). A larger number of individuals staying with friends and family may have been expected, but the sample included a large number of foreign tourists, which reduced this probability. Further, country houses were not as frequently used as preferences would have suggested. This may be related to an eventual lack of supply or accessibility of this relatively popular accommodation obliging to the choice of more readily available modalities, such as pensions, which are also a financially more accessible option. Also camping was not as much selected as preferred, which may be related to a similar lack of supply in rural areas. For the foreign respondents, particularly those travelling by plane, this option would eventually be less accessible (e.g. via travel agents) and logistically more complicated.

A large part of respondents (40 percent) indicated they had never *visited the region before*. On the other hand, about a third (30 percent) had visited it between one and four times, and another 18 percent more than eight times which revealed the existence of a relatively loyal market.

The *seasonal spread* of responses was approximately balanced, with 51 percent referring to the *high season* (June to September), where July stands out (27 percent). In the *low season* April and May yielded most responses¹⁹⁴.

Duration of stay varied considerably within the sample. About 30 percent (VR=89 percent) stayed between one and two days, 16 percent between three and four days, 35 percent between one and two weeks. Thus, nearly half the sample stayed up to four days, which is often referred to as a “*short break*”. The second largest group (40 percent) was composed of tourists staying longer than this and up to two weeks. Only about 14 percent stayed longer than 16 days. Thus, the sample represents both the short-break and the holiday market. The latter did not show the typical “main holiday” pattern (three to four weeks), but revealed rather the destination’s attraction of a market that splits holidays, spending one part in North Portugal.

Locations of stay in the sub-region Minho were mentioned by 26 percent, in the Douro region by 18 percent, and in Trás-os-Montes by 22 percent. About 4 percent stayed in the Oporto Metropolitan Area, another 4 percent in the Central region and about 12 percent in several locations. In the Minho region, the most cited places of stay were Guimarães, the Gerês Natural Park, Ponte de Lima, several villages in the Minho, Braga, Viana do Castelo, Vieira do Minho and Caminha. In Trás-os-Montes preferred locations were Chaves, Bragança, Mirandela and Vidago and various villages. In the Douro region Vila Nova de Foz Côa, Torre de Moncorvo, Vila Real, Vila Flor and diverse villages were referred to.

For hypothesis testing another variable was created (see chapter 7.4.1.) identifying sub-regions (mainly) visited, which are considered here the object of perception and evaluation. This variable considers site of questioning, site of stay and locations visited. Accordingly, 32 percent of tourists could be classified as visiting mainly the Minho region, 28 percent the Douro region and 26 percent Trás-os-Montes. About 14 percent traveled through the whole Northern region. Of these about 4 percent stayed only in rural areas and 10 percent combined the trip with a stay in Oporto.

Most visited *attractions* were mainly located in the Minho (67 percent), Trás-os-Montes (50%) and the Douro region (48 percent). Oporto was visited by only 17 percent, which may put the prime role attributed to the city for the tourism development of North Portugal (Santo & Terraseca, 1998) into question, at least for the rural tourist market. Attractions often related to historical and

¹⁹⁴ The seasonal spread is conditioned by data collection, as explained before. It was not our goal to reproduce the monthly distribution of tourist flows, but rather to guarantee a balance between high and low season. Still, for a better month-wise representation, December might have yielded more responses due to the concentration of public holidays. Unfortunately no field trip could be organized in the exact period nor accommodation owners yielded much success. Apart from this, the monthly representation may be considered satisfactory.

cultural heritage (69 percent), such as castles and palaces, monuments, museums, churches, towns and villages, archeological sites. Landscape attractions followed (23 percent), such as natural sites, rivers, lakes and natural parks. Some mentioned sportive and recreational attractions (6 percent) and a few agriculture (2 percent)¹⁹⁵. The most visited *specific localities and attractions* were the Archeological Park of the Côa Valley, Chaves, Guimarães, Oporto, Braga, Bragança and Vila Real, confirming the importance of sites of historical and cultural interest.

Generally, tourists in North Portugal did not travel over *distances* above 100km from their place of stay¹⁹⁶ (VR=48 percent). Thus, 29 percent referred to staying within a radius of about 20km, 28 percent visited localities between 20 and 50km from their place of stay, 22 percent between 50 and 100km, 11.5 percent between 100 and 150km, and only 9 percent traveled longer distances.

A large part of respondents traveled as a *couple* (46 percent), another 27 percent with friends, 22 percent brought children along, 14 percent other family members and only 6 percent traveled alone. Of those tourists who traveled in a group, 20 percent referred to groups of between three and four elements and 8 percent traveled in groups with more than 40 individuals (VR= 85%). That is, North Portugal as a rural tourist destination principally attracts independently travelling tourists.

As *information sources* supporting destination choice many respondents (34 percent) referred to the recommendation of friends and relatives, while 21 percent based their decision on a previous visit. This confirms the relevance of *non-commercial, direct and personal information sources* (see chapter 6.2.2.). It shows the importance of a positive experience both for eventually repeating it and for enhancing the most powerful means of destination promotion: *word of mouth*. Another 24 percent sought information in tourist guidebooks and 10 percent used the help of travel agents¹⁹⁷. Other information sources were the school or university (19.5 percent of respondents to an open-ended option with only VR=8 percent), the place of work (15 percent) and the *internet* (15 percent).

Chapter 8.2.5. Motivations and Benefits Sought

Reasons that attracted respondents to North Portugal were generally related to holidays, corresponding to the main target-group of this study. However, 11 percent of respondents combined this motive with business/ work and 10 percent with visiting friends and relatives (VFR). Only 3 percent specified for health reasons and 1.4 percent visited the region by accident. More specifically, motives related to the *discovery of the region* were most frequently mentioned (24

¹⁹⁵ The agricultural element may be considered as part of the landscape referred to more often, as it shapes the aesthetics of the natural environment.

¹⁹⁶ This variable was developed from responses to the question about the location of stay and about localities visited, achieving an approximate distance value, as observable on the map.

¹⁹⁷ The catalogues and documents most referred to were those by *Olimar*, *Michelin*, *Jugend Ferienwerk*, and the *Lonely Planet Guide*.

percent), with *culture* (16 percent) and *nature/ landscape* (14 percent) originating particular interest. Also *relaxation* was mentioned by some as the main purpose (8 percent)¹⁹⁸. An already developed loyalty towards the region was indicated by 5 percent, but the climate accounted for (only) 4 percent. Another 4 percent mentioned the motive “people”, which stands for the sympathy of local population and the wish to avoid tourist crowds. In any case, these responses were freely elicited, revealing on the one hand their relevance and on the other the quality of the mentioned items as *motivational* in *Herzberg's* (1979,1991) *terminology* (see footnote n°18, p.19). Some, not frequently freely elicited items may be taken for granted, although playing an important role, as visible in importance ratings (*hygienic factors*). Their insufficiency should further result in negative impressions. According to this reasoning those aspects spontaneously suggested as main motives should simultaneously be considered important in the mentioned Likert scales, and correspond to *motivational factors*, which should be developed and promoted to create an attractive destination image. On the other hand, *hygienic factors* should be provided at a satisfactory level, to avoid a negative image.

As visible in table 14, the aspects considered most important by respondents via ratings of 25 selected destination features (on a scale from 1= “*not important at all*” to 5= “*very important*”) in a most consensual manner are those linked to landscape, nature and environment. These are followed by climate, sympathy of population, peace and quiet, price and history/ culture. Still quite important (above the average) were accommodation and gastronomy, as well as sign-posting, accessibility, infrastructures, ease of communication and tourist information. Of these, sign-posting and tourist information were least consensual, as visible in standard deviations, probably depending on the degree of dependence on information, i.e. the prior knowledge of the region.

Least important features, with an average ranking below the mid-point 3, were sports and recreation, attractive nightlife and offerings for children. However, these items are also the overall least consensual aspects, which may point at the presence of different interest groups in the sample.

The combination of importance ratings with the answers to the open-ended questions about the reason for visiting the region and about most negative impressions may lead to the distinction of *motivational* and *hygienic factors*, as suggested before. At this point, the following *motivational aspects* are identified: curiosity/ discovery/ novelty, culture/ history, nature/ landscape, relaxation, climate, people. More *hygienic* in nature seem to be: unpolluted environment, sign-posting, price, service, quality of accommodation, quality of food, accessibility, ease of communication,

¹⁹⁸ This motive is generally referred to in the tourism literature as one of the most important, which does not correspond to its importance in this sample, though, suggesting the existence of a more active group of travelers, especially if compared with beach tourism. Edwards (1991) reports similar results for rural tourists.

infrastructures and tourist information. The picture will be completed in the next chapter with the study of destination image.

Important aspects of a rural destination	MEAN	STD. DEV.	N
scenery/ landscape	4,44	0,77	2012
unpolluted, unspoiled environment	4,37	0,88	1998
close contact to nature	4,19	0,94	1995
good climate	4,15	0,93	1987
sympathy of population	4,13	0,91	1983
peace and quiet	4,09	0,97	2005
good prices	4,00	0,96	1991
history & culture	4,00	0,99	1989
architecture, monuments	3,90	1,02	1987
sign-posting/ ease in finding locations	3,90	1,08	1979
quality of accommodation	3,88	1,06	2016
gastronomy/ quality of food	3,85	1,01	2022
Accessibility	3,81	0,98	1972
ease of communication	3,79	1,00	1945
infrastructures (banks, shops, other services)	3,74	1,00	1950
tourist information	3,72	1,13	1976
professional service	3,63	1,13	1940
variety of activities/ attractions	3,55	1,08	1910
opportunities for socializing	3,44	1,15	1980
walking paths	3,43	1,18	1926
isolation/ few people	3,23	1,18	1972
get to know rural life	3,17	1,15	1947
sports, recreation	2,86	1,28	1923
attractive nightlife	2,64	1,38	1933
offerings for children	2,50	1,43	1852
<i>overall mean</i>	<i>3,70</i>		

Table 14. Importance attributed to 25 destination attributes

These 25 importance ratings were subject to a Principal Components Analysis (PCA). Six dimensions of benefits sought were identified, which will be later used as summarized constructs to facilitate further analysis. Missing values were excluded from analysis and Varimax rotation was applied in order to improve the interpretability of components. Both, inspection of the scree-plot and Kaiser's criterion of "eigenvalue > 1" were considered for component-extraction. The results of the PCA are:

- KMO = 0.876; which can be qualified as "good" according to Kaiser (**Pestana & Gageiro**, 1998: 330), confirming the adequacy of PCA.
- Bartlett's test of Sphericity: approximated chi-square = 11242,860, significance level = 0.000; i.e. the null hypothesis of the correlation matrix being an identity matrix can be rejected. This implies the existence of correlation among variables (**Hair et al.**, 1998: 99).

- All Communalities are above 0.46, which is the “*amount of variance accounted for by the factor solution for each variable*” (Hair *et al.*, 1998: 113).
- All variables have factor-loadings (correlation between original variable and its factor) above 0.5, meaning that at least 25% of the variance in the original variable is explained by the respective factor, which is quite reasonable.
- The measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) of all variables are above 0.77.
- 68 percent of the residuals between observed and reproduced correlation have an absolute value of below 0.05.
- 57 percent of total variance are explained by six factors.

Components	“loadings” of components	Cronbach alpha	Accumulated explained variance
I. Information & Access 1. Sign-posting 2. Tourist information 3. Accessibility 4. Professional service 5. Infrastructures 6. Ease of communication	0.75 0.70 0.68 0.65 0.64 0.53	0.82	13.2 percent
II. Nature 1. Peace and quiet 2. Nature 3. Isolation 4. Walking paths 5. Rural life 6. Unpolluted environment	0.70 0.67 0.63 0.62 0.57 0.51	0.72	24.0 percent
III. Action & Socializing 1. Sports and recreation 2. Nightlife 3. Opportunities for children 4. Socializing 5. Variety of attractions	0.79 0.77 0.64 0.55 0.53	0.74	34.4 percent
IV. Basics 1. Climate 2. Sympathy of population 3. Price 4. Landscape	0.66 0.59 0.54 0.53	0.64	43.7 percent
V. History & Culture 1. History and culture 2. Architecture, monuments	0.81 0.76	0.72	51.1 percent
VI. Tourist infrastructures 1. Gastronomy 2. Accommodation	0.80 0.77	0.61	57.0 percent

Table 15. PCA of importance ratings of 25 destination attributes (*benefits sought*)

It must be stressed that several motivations may act simultaneously and that specific tourists may be stimulated by specific motivational constellations. This has already been tested in an exploratory research approach leading to the identification of four *benefit segments* of the rural tourist market in North and Central Portugal (**Kastenholz**, 1997). A similar approach is undertaken next, in order to identify segments of the market motivated by similar factors. For this purpose the importance ratings of the 25 selected aspects of a rural tourist destination were used in a cluster analysis. Both the scores of presented factors resulting from PCA and all single importance ratings were tried as input variables. However, the totality of ratings was preferred, which led to a better discriminating cluster solution.

In order to facilitate the determination of the most appropriate number of clusters, data was subjected to hierarchical cluster analysis using Euclidean distance as a similarity measure between cases and the Ward method for maximization of within-cluster homogeneity (**Sharma**, 1996: 211-217). Conceptually, a limited number of clusters were considered desirable, as resulting segments should be substantial and “actionable”, as defended by **Kotler** (1999: 409). A too fragmented market would not be justifiable in this relatively reduced market. On the other hand, the personalized note of this form of tourism would require some level of differentiation. This may also be desirable from the point of view of small-scale destination areas, where a specialization on a specific type of tourist may enhance not only operational effectiveness, but also the consistent and sustainable development of tourism products, the destination and its image.

A combination of hierarchical and k-means cluster analysis was undertaken, as suggested by **Hair et al.** (1998: 497-498), in order to gain the benefits of both. First the appropriate number of clusters based on the inspection of the dendrogram, and second cluster centroids were determined via hierarchical cluster analysis. The latter were then used as initial cluster centroids in k-means cluster analysis, which helped identifying the clearest four-cluster solution. This solution distinguished reasonably well between segments in terms of *benefits sought*, but also as far as other variables are concerned. A comparison of the identified segments uses cross-tabulations and ANOVA and is presented in Appendix F (pp.23-27). Motivational differences served for naming the clusters:

1. The first cluster was called “*Urbans*” (22 percent), showing relatively little interest in the most “typical” aspects of rural areas, such as nature, walking paths, peace and quiet, isolation, rural life, historical and cultural heritage. The only more valued aspects, compared to other groups, were nightlife, sports and recreation and variety of attractions and activities.
2. The second group, named “*Calm Rural Enthusiasts*” (31 percent), were most interested in the typical features of rural life, as suggested by much of the romantic literature on the topic (see chapter 3). Thus, their strong interest in history and culture, a sympathetic, rural, calm,

unpolluted, scenic and natural atmosphere, as well as in walking paths, is striking. Additionally, tourist information and sign-posting were appreciated by this group. On the other hand, they showed little interest in nightlife, sports and recreation, which are aspects more typical of a hedonist, active and urban-like tourism.

3. “*Active Rural Enthusiasts*” (26 percent), although appreciating all aspects of a typical “rural holiday”, with emphasis on nature and culture, also demanded more infrastructures and activities. The only aspect relatively less desired was isolation.
4. Finally, the “*Simplists*” (21 percent) attributed relatively little importance to any aspect, except for isolation (albeit the low global mean), and, in absolute terms, landscape, a calm and unpolluted environment. Particularly low values in the field of basic and tourism infrastructures stood out, which may reveal a concern about *urbanization* of the rural space.

Calm Rural Enthusiasts and *Simplists* should be most compatible, being both groups most interested in a more natural and authentic rural tourism destination. The other two benefit segments appear to appreciate a more varied and organized tourism supply, based on infrastructures and a comprehensive supply of activities and opportunities. However, *Active Rural Enthusiasts* are generally more interested in rurality and nature. They may therefore be more compatible with the two previously mentioned segments. Finally, *Urbans* seem to be misplaced in the rural space, looking for infrastructures and facilities, which are more typical of urban-like resorts, ignoring rural and natural attractions.

The identified segments can be further characterized in terms of socio-demographic profile and tourist behavior. This, together with an analysis of each group’s particular perceptions and evaluations permits a better understanding of each group:

Urbans are relatively young, include many students, scientific and liberal professionals and service employees. The group is composed of both Portuguese and foreign tourists in approximately the same number, with Germans, French, Spanish, British and Dutch standing out as main foreign nationalities. This segment showed a generally lower interest in holidays and weekends in the countryside. They used mostly self-catering arrangements (camping and rented flats or houses) or hotels when visiting North Portugal, staying mainly in the Minho and Douro regions, and not travelling large distances during their visit.

This segment’s image of North Portugal is generally less favorable, evaluating aspects, such as opportunities to get to know rural life, a peaceful environment, isolation, walking paths, history and culture more negatively. However, this group also sought these items less. Evaluations, which were relatively more favorable than by other groups, but still below the average, refer to attractive

nightlife, sports and recreation. Other aspects, relatively important to *Urbans*, but obtaining a below-average evaluation, were variety of activities and attractions offered by the region, climate and price. These perceptions sustain the relatively poor overall image, as well as the low probability of coming back and recommending the destination. Improvements suggested concern principally activities in the domain of entertainment, sports and socializing, but also cultural supply (theatre, museums, expositions). That is, in order to enhance this group's satisfaction an investment in tourism and leisure facilities, associated primarily to hedonist and cultural motivations, would be required.

Calm Rural Enthusiasts contain a larger number of older and foreign tourists. Main nationalities were, apart from the Portuguese, the British, German, Dutch, French, Belgian, Brazilian and American. The most important professional activities present were the scientific and liberal, followed by the service sector and a relatively important group of retired. This segment contains a large number of newcomers, who (perhaps due to that fact) traveled relatively more through the region and the country, also spending more money during their stay. This group regularly visits the countryside, both at home and abroad. They mostly stayed in hotels, some also at campsites, with friends and family, at a *pousada* or in TER units, most frequently in the Minho.

This group was most favorably impressed by the destination and expressed a large propensity to recommend the destination, and a reasonable, though lower probability of coming back for a holiday. Their interest in nature and culture was generally satisfied. However, walking paths, information, sign-posting, peace and quiet, the climate and particularly an unpolluted environment did not exactly correspond to levels of importance attributed. The group was most concerned about the conservation of heritage and desired fewest changes. Improvements were basically suggested for the supply of walking paths, typical restaurants and the access to cultural heritage.

Active Rural Enthusiasts are mostly Portuguese (75 percent), with foreign nationalities spread among Spanish, French, Brazilian, German, British and others. This segment is relatively young, contains relatively more students, with other occupations like scientific and liberal, service and specialized technical professions also well represented. This segment showed a particular preference for holidays and weekends in the countryside, frequently spent in their own country and repeatedly in the same region. Dispenses were in the average and the visit was mainly spent in one locality and its immediate surroundings. Contrasting with other groups, this one visited mainly the Douro and Trás-os-Montes, showing a preference for the region's interior. Apart from hotels and pensions, this group stayed frequently with friends and family or in a second home. This partly explains the group's preference for the studied region, and their more pronounced probability of coming back and recommending the destination for a holiday.

This group was generally most positively impressed by the destination, especially in terms of nature, culture, hospitality and peace and quiet, being less critical of its weak points. On the other hand, they were also most demanding and would like the destination to provide a larger variety of activities in the domain of sports and recreation, but also cultural events and nightlife.

Simplists are in their majority (60 percent) foreign tourists, mostly British, German and Dutch. Scientific, liberal and service professions are dominant and management occupations above the average. Holidays in the countryside are popular amongst *Simplists*, both at home and abroad. The group showed further a more active travel pattern in North Portugal moving over longer distances than the others did. They preferred camping, pensions and hotels but looked also for houses to rent and rural tourism units, revealing an above the average tendency to use various accommodation forms during their stay in the region. This group predominantly stayed in the Minho region, followed by the Douro, with Trás-os-Montes being little explored.

Although positive, the group's overall evaluation of the destination was below the average, as was the probability to come back for a holiday. Landscape, nature and peace and quiet were most appreciated. This group revealed itself as most adverse to any changes, defending the conservation of heritage most vehemently. Some improvements were suggested in the domain of "soft" outdoors activities (walking paths, canoeing and swimming opportunities), as well as for the supply of typical restaurants, guided tours and museums.

The above description of segments points at substantial image differences, which are closely related to motivational differences. The features of each group may suggest the desirability of selecting it as a target-market and the propensity of a destination to be able to cater to it. Socio-demographic and travel-behavior differences may further help to specifically cater to each group, develop adequate products and a consistent and credible image, likely to attract the chosen market.

It is interesting to note that a benefit-segmentation undertaken with data collected in 1996 in North and Central Portugal, although much more limited in its sample size and representation of the rural tourist market (N=200), led to a partly similar division. *Calm Rural Enthusiasts* and *Active Rural Enthusiasts* seem to correspond to the groups named *Traditional Ruralists* and *Environmental Ruralists* in the earlier approach. *Urbans* may be closest to *Want-it-all Ruralists* and *Simplists* to *Independent Ruralists*, although here similarity is less evident. In any case, the approximate replication of benefit-segments speaks for their validity in the context of the rural tourist market in North Portugal.

8.2.6. Images of North Portugal

Before testing hypotheses about image structure, determinants and effects, a brief description of how this destination is perceived by its visitors is presented. As stated before, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used for image assessment and analysis.

Quantitative Approaches:

1. Cognitive Images assessed via Likert-type scales:

- Means and standard deviations
- Differences importance ratings – evaluations
- PCA

2. Functional Congruity:

- Computation of indicator
- Mean and standard deviation

3. Affective Images via Semantic Differentials:

- Means and standard deviations
- PCA

4. Destination-Self- Congruity:

- Single 5 level scale
- PCA of self-image scales
- Comparison of destination and self factors and scale-by-scale comparison

5. Overall Impression: 7 level Semantic Differential Scale

Qualitative Approaches:

1. Open-ended questions:

- Associations with North Portugal
- Most positive and most negative impressions

2. Photographs:

- Most associated with North Portugal
- Most liked

The quantitative method suggested to measure *cognitive image* used a list of destination features. Tourists evaluated these on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with “one” meaning “not present/ offered at all” and “five” corresponding to “very much present/ offered”. Also the answer “don’t know” was allowed. Considering this, the means and standard deviations, number of “don’t know” answers and number of responses referring to all 25 items are presented in Table 16.

The features that received most positive and consensual evaluations were *scenery* and *proximity to nature*. *Peace and quiet* and *sympathy of population* follow, with average values still above “four”. *History and culture* and *unpolluted, unspoiled environment* are close to this value, however with a relatively high dispersion meaning lower consensus. *Architecture/ monuments* and *climate* are also relatively highly quoted. Aspects still evaluated above the average (mean = 3.5) are *gastronomy*, *price*, *accommodation* and *ease of communication* (the latter with a high dispersion, though).

PERCEPTION OF NORTH PORTUGAL	MEAN	STD. DEV.	N	Nº "dk"
scenery	4,35	0,83	1790	15
close contact to nature	4,24	0,87	1761	20
peace and quiet	4,14	0,93	1773	16
sympathy of population	4,07	0,93	1715	73
history & culture	3,99	0,95	1732	51
unpolluted, unspoiled environment	3,95	1,08	1759	25
architecture, monuments	3,83	1,01	1712	55
good climate	3,83	1,00	1751	31
gastronomy/ quality of food	3,77	0,99	1691	127
good prices	3,75	0,93	1695	95
quality of accommodation	3,69	1,02	1610	192
ease of communication	3,61	1,07	1676	75
accessibility	3,53	0,94	1333	50
isolation/ few people	3,53	1,06	1675	49
infrastructures (banks, shops, other services)	3,48	1,00	1634	124
get to know rural life	3,41	1,07	1540	189
professional service	3,40	1,00	1572	168
walking paths	3,38	1,14	1480	235
opportunities for socializing	3,28	1,11	1661	93
tourist information	3,20	1,11	1623	145
variety of activities/ attractions	3,18	0,99	1442	259
sign-posting/ ease in finding locations	3,03	1,16	1723	60
sports, recreation	2,71	1,12	1217	459
attractive nightlife	2,55	1,19	1283	405
offerings for children	2,51	1,18	1035	594
<i>overall mean</i>	<i>3,54</i>			

Table 16. Cognitive evaluation of destination features

However, many considered *gastronomy and accommodation as unknown*, which may be due to lacking experience, especially of those staying with friends and family or using *self-catering* facilities. Worse evaluations were identified for *sign-posting, sports & recreation, nightlife* and *offerings for children*. It is noticeable that also the number of missing values and “*don't know*” answers was the highest for the last three variables. This may be linked to the fact that these were considered less important and thus not sought, which makes their evaluation irrelevant. In any case, these aspects appear not to stand out at the destination. This is also true for *variety of activities and attractions* and *walking paths*, which many respondents did not know how to evaluate.

Comparing evaluations with the before mentioned importance ratings, one may conclude that average importance ratings are higher than evaluative ratings, suggesting a higher level of expectation than satisfaction. Further, the order of importance and evaluative ratings does not correspond. The most striking difference, only considering the most important features, is visible for *unpolluted and unspoiled environment*, considered extremely important, but being evaluated

below “four”. Also *climate* was evaluated considerably below its level of importance, which is further true for *sign-posting* and *tourist information*.

Those aspects considered most important and correspondingly present may be viewed as *strong points* and those most important, but with (relatively) poor evaluations as *weak points*. Correspondingly *scenery, nature, peace and quiet* can be viewed as strong points, *sign-posting* and *tourist information* as weak points, *climate* and *unpolluted environment* as below optimal aspects of the destination, when compared to their levels of importance.

The cognitive image items were further analyzed for an eventually underlying structure via PCA, similar to that of importance ratings. The resulting factor structure can be described as follows:

- KMO= 0.852, confirming the adequacy of PCA.
- The Bartlett test indicates a chi-square value of 4310.064 with a significance of 0.000.
- Communalities are all above 0.32, which is not very high, but 60% are above the value 0.5.
- All factor-loadings are above 0.52.
- The measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) of all variables are above 0.77.
- 73 percent of the residuals between observed and reproduced correlations have an absolute value of below 0.05.
- The extraction of five principle components leads to the explanation of about 51.1 percent, which can be considered acceptable in the domain of social sciences.¹⁹⁹

After a “*Varimax*” rotation, which facilitates the distinction between principle components, the data structure presented in table 17 becomes visible. When comparing resulting components with those referring to importance ratings (p.224), some differences become apparent, although the global structure is very similar, as was expected²⁰⁰.

¹⁹⁹ This extraction was based on the Kaiser criterion (eigenvalue > 1). When considering the “scree-plot”, the proximity of the sixth factor to the value “1” and the low communalities of some variables (<0.5), a six-factor solution may be another reasonable solution. In this case, the factor *nature* would split into two: *nature* and *rural life + walking*, with the other factors maintaining basically their structure. However, the new factor has a relatively low internal consistency (Cronbach alpha= 0.58). Additionally, this solution would produce some less clear factors. It is interesting to note the possible specificity of a *rural* sub-dimension in the context of a rural destination image study, but for reasons of parsimony and clearness of the global factor solution, the five-factor model was preferred.

²⁰⁰ If importance dimensions actually reflect dimensions of benefits sought, evaluative perceptions should reflect corresponding benefits encountered at the destination. However, some aspects may be linked as related motivational items, whereas the encountered reality is not necessarily perceived as offering similarly consistent benefit dimensions. I.e. importance and perceptive ratings measure actually two different constructs, which may be interrelated but not correspond exactly.

Components	“loadings” of components	Cronbach alpha	Accumulated explained variance
I. Nature			
1. Nature	0.73	0.75	11.7 percent
2. Peace and quiet	0.70		
3. Walking	0.63		
4. Rural life	0.62		
5. Unpolluted environment	0.59		
6. Isolation	0.52		
7. Scenery	0.44		
II. Basics (Welcoming Atmosphere)			
1. Accommodation	0.65	0.69	23.1 percent
2. Sympathy of population	0.62		
3. Climate	0.61		
4. Infrastructures	0.53		
5. Price	0.52		
6. Gastronomy	0.49		
7. Ease of communication	0.45		
III. Action/ Socializing			
1. Sports and Recreation	0.81	0.75	33.5 percent
2. Nightlife	0.72		
3. Opportunities for children	0.71		
4. Socializing	0.52		
5. Variety of activities, opportunities	0.42		
IV. Information & Access			
1. Sign-posting	0.77	0.66	43.4 percent
2. Tourist Information	0.62		
3. Accessibility	0.57		
4. Professional Service	0.55		
V. Culture			
1. Architecture, monuments	0.79	0.68	51.1 percent
2. History & Culture	0.77		

Table 17. PCA of cognitive images

First, only five perceptive dimensions were identified versus six motivational dimensions. More specifically, the benefit dimension *tourist infrastructures* is included in the cognitive image factor *basics*. This perceptive dimension is clearly broader than its motivational counterpart, including further the items “infrastructures” and “ease of communication”, which pertain to the benefit dimension *information & access*. On the other hand, the items “unpolluted environment” and “scenery” are included in the benefit dimension *basics*, whereas these aspects are perceived as more related to the image-component *nature*. When considering the most representative items of the perceptive factor *basics*, one may also call it *welcoming atmosphere*. Apart from that, the principal components *culture* and *action* are composed of exactly the same elements in both motivational and cognitive evaluative perspectives.

The resulting factors will be used as summary constructs in further analyses to facilitate interpretation. It is true that factors only approximately represent original data, but this approach is justifiable due to the large amount of variables, the relationships among which shall be tested.

Functional congruity or the degree to which benefits sought are encountered, can be viewed as a part of the cognitive image, expressing the result of cognitive data processing. This construct, which is close to the *means-ends-paradigm*, is computed as a single indicator, namely as the average of cognitive evaluations on those items rated as more important. With a minimum of one and a maximum of five, *functional congruity* values show a mean of 3.9, with a standard deviation of 0.54. This distribution reveals a relatively positive functional evaluation of the destination.

Affective destination image was assessed via 5-level semantic differential scales, which revealed as the most distinguishing and consensual²⁰¹ adjectives describing North Portugal: *pleasant, natural, calm* and *traditional*. Still distinctive are the adjectives *warm, colorful* and *simple*, though less consensual. Also these scales were subject to PCA, attempting to identify underlying factors. The resulting 5-factor-structure is not as convincing as the one found for cognitive image, with 57.6 percent of variance in data explained, after eliminating three scales that did not contribute much to the solution.²⁰² Internal consistency values measured by Cronbach alpha were not very high, with only the first factor yielding a value close to 0.6, being the next two still acceptable, but low and the last two too low to be considered as meaningful summary constructs for affective dimensions²⁰³. When comparing results with those from environmental psychology and consumer behavior studies about affective image, one may conclude that the first dimension might serve as a surrogate for the holistic affective image, with the main element being *pleasant- unpleasant*. In later analyses, the first dimension may therefore substitute affective image, if complexity reduction is needed. Further the *arousing-unarousing* dimension highlighted by Russell and colleagues may be represented here by the two dimensions *simple* and *calm*, but particularly by the latter²⁰⁴.

²⁰¹ In so far as tending to the extreme values instead of the middle and revealing relatively low degrees of dispersion, measured via standard deviation.

²⁰² Item elimination was undertaken, based on low communalities, factor loadings and little contribution to internal consistency and to a clear factor solution. Also their relevance in understanding main affective dimensions was considered. The eliminated scales were “rugged-delicate”, “active-passive” and “organized-unorganized”. Especially the first scale led to confusion among respondents, being eventually not an adequate scale for destination evaluation. The other two would have belonged to the first dimension, but had low loadings and resulted in a slight decrease of internal consistency in terms of Cronbach alpha.

²⁰³ However, it must be considered that the alpha value is the higher, the larger the number of items in a scale. As the scale-battery was constructed, based on an already tested parsimonious item-battery, adapted for the context under study, the number of items per dimension is obviously relatively small. In this case, an alpha limit of 0.5 has been defended as acceptable (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

²⁰⁴ Kaiser’s criterion “eigenvalue >1” would actually suggest a 4-factor solution, in which the scale *tense-calm* would add to the dimension *simple, modern-traditional* would add to *emotional/ unique*, but *juvenile-mature* would not be well presented (factor loading < 0.4) and should be discarded. However, considering further the scree-plot, the closeness of the fifth factor’s eigenvalue to 1, the percentage of variance explained and internal consistency plus face validity of resulting factors, the five-factor solution was preferred.

Components	“loadings” of components	Cronbach alpha	Accumulated explained variance
<i>I. (un)pleasant</i>			
1. Colorful-colorless	0.73	0.57	13.9 percent
2. Pleasant- unpleasant	0.72		
3. Warm-cold	0.70		
<i>II. simple</i>			
1. Complex-simple	0.75	0.52	26.5 percent
2. Extravagant- modest	0.68		
3. Artificial- natural	0.46		
<i>III. mature/ calm</i>			
1. Juvenile-mature	0.75	0.47	38.3 percent
2. Tense-calm	0.59		
3. Modern-traditional	0.45		
<i>IV. emotional</i>			
1. Rational- emotional	0.81	0.35	48.9 percent
2. Common-unique	0.63		
<i>IV. informal</i>			
1. Formal-informal	0.72	0.17	57.7 percent
2. Conservative-liberal	0.72		

Table 18. PCA of affective destination image scales

Destination-self congruity can be considered one aspect of affective image, expressing identification with the destination. Its role was analyzed, based on two measurements. First, a single 5-level semantic differential scale, namely “*different from me* ← → *similar to me*”, was used in order to obtain a holistic measure of identification with the destination. This single scale has a symmetrical distribution, with a large concentration on the mid-value and a relatively high dispersion (mean of 3.1 and standard deviation of 1.26). Second, the same semantic differential scales used for measuring affective destination image were applied to the evaluation of self, in order to permit a direct scale-by-scale comparison. The development of this scale battery was based on the scale battery suggested and tested by **Malhotra** (1981) in several product and person-domains. It was further adapted to the specific product category under analysis, leading to some alterations, as described before (see pp.190-191). Additionally, data collection revealed that some scales were understood differently for the person and the destination domain, also depending on the language used. This reflects some of the limitations of this approach, in which psychological qualifiers may not be exactly adequate for products (here destinations) or correspond to quite distinct semantic meanings. An example of this potential semantic confusion was the adjective pair “*rugged* ← → *delicate*”, with negative connotations of the first adjective for the person-domain, but not necessarily for the destination. In the case of this study, the assumption of semantic correspondence was tested by factor analyzing the scales for the two objects of evaluation and comparing results. Thus, self-image was subjected to PCA, yielding a five-factor solution, with

KMO=0.708, explaining 52.7 percent of variance, and the factor loadings and Cronbach alpha values presented in table 19.

Results, as presented in tables 18 and 19, reveal that the factor structures do not exactly correspond, although the factors *pleasant/ colorful*²⁰⁵, *calm/ mature*²⁰⁶ and *informal/ liberal* correspond largely. The affective destination-dimension *simple* has a partial counterpart in the affective self-dimension *unique/ complex*, however with opposite affective poling. It seems that the combination “unique, complex, extravagant” has a positive connotation for self, whereas the opposite combination “simple, modest, natural” has a positive connotation for destination image. Quite different seems the two-item factor *emotional*, combined with “unique” in the case of destination image and combined with “delicate” in the case of self-image²⁰⁷.

Components	“loadings” of components	Cronbach alpha	Accumulated explained variance
<i>I. (un)pleasant</i>			
1. Pleasant- unpleasant	0.737	0.59	14.2 percent
2. Warm-cold	0.692		
3. Colorful-colorless	0.620		
4. Natural- artificial	0.515		
5. Organized- unorganized	0.423		
<i>II. calm</i>			
1. Tense-calm	0.704	0.46	25 percent
2. Juvenile-mature	0.550		
3. Active-passive	0.529		
4. Modern-traditional	0.506		
<i>III. unique/ complex</i>			
1. Common-unique	0.736	0.51	35.5 percent
2. Simple-complex	0.699		
3. Modest-extravagant	0.539		
<i>IV. informal</i>			
1. Formal-informal	0.823	0.46	44.4 percent
2. Conservative-liberal	0.656		
<i>V. emotional</i>			
1. Rational- emotional	0.697	0.32	52.7 percent
2. Rugged- delicate	0.516		

Table 19. PCA of self-image scales

Given these divergences, a scale-by-scale comparison is highly questionable, as would be the computation of a summated or averaged value of the totality of differences between ratings of

²⁰⁵ This dimension includes further “organized- unorganized” in the self-concept, which has been eliminated from the destination image factor to improve its internal consistency and “natural- artificial”. The latter is included in the affective destination dimension *simple*.

²⁰⁶ The self-image dimension includes further “active-passive”, which has been eliminated from the destination image scales to enhance internal consistency, but would have been included there in the dimension *pleasant/ colorful*.

²⁰⁷ The scale “rugged-delicate” had to be discarded from the destination-image instrument, due to non-consensual interpretations. Its inclusion would have led to another dimension, combining this scale with “organized- unorganized”, but with low internal consistency.

corresponding adjective-pairs. Actually, the correlation of the single “different-similar” scale with the computed average of all differences is relatively low (0.086), although significant at the 0.01 level. The problem of not corresponding semantic spaces leads to the preference of the single scale. This direct and global “*tapping of the psychological experience of self-congruity*” has been suggested as a more valid approach by **Sirgy et al.** (1997).²⁰⁸

Finally, the **overall image**, a holistic construct summarizing all impressions was measured via a 7-level semantic differential scale (“very good- very bad”), yielding an average of 5.9 and a standard deviation of 1.1. The vast majority (89 percent) had a positive global impression (“4” and above), with 71 percent evaluating the destination as either “good” or “very good” and only 2.5 percent using negative qualifications.

Additionally, three **qualitative approaches** for image assessment were used, which may serve as methods confirming the identified components of the image construct, as suggested by **Churchill** (1979). The first approach, applied at the entire sample, asked in ***an open-ended question what three words people associated most with North Portugal***. The author and two instructed research assistants, who helped establishing categories, coded the numerous and varied answers. More physical descriptors, reflecting imagery-like associations (usually in the form of substantives) were grouped as “*image*”, more emotional expressions, referring to evaluations and reactions (mostly stated in the form of adjectives) to the destination as “*atmosphere*”. Inside each category, a wide range of expressions could be found, which were further grouped into sub-categories²⁰⁹.

In the **image** category, sub-categories relating to *nature/ landscape, culture, people, gastronomy, development, climate, tourism infrastructures, specific localities* and *negative images* were identified. The predominance of images related to *nature/ landscape* is striking (51 percent of all associations made). This category is further the one with the highest number of single descriptors, which reach from the frequently used most abstract words “nature” and “landscape” to more specific descriptions of the environment (mountainous, harsh landscape, landscape terraces, rocky beaches). Also very concrete and unique landscape aspects were perceived (olive, almond and lemon trees, clothes hanging out of windows), as well as colors (green- the most referred to, white and brown), revealing very picture-like images expressed by respondents. Further, one might distinguish those landscape aspects which typically relate more to a rural environment, which are

²⁰⁸ Actually, the requirement of all scales being applicable to a destination and to persons was a limitation to the development of the research instrument and led to a sub-optimal assessment of affective destination image. That is why the simultaneous use in two different semantic domains is not recommended, but rather only one overall similarity scale and a well-developed affective scale battery for the main construct.

²⁰⁹ The same thematic fields were expressed in the form of substantives by some, as adjectives by others (e.g. *nature/ natural*), which highlights the proximity and eventual confusion between cognitive and affective image dimensions and the difficulty of this classification approach.

responsible for about 8.5 percent of associations in this category. Another important distinction should be made for sea-related descriptors (3 percent), as they might reflect a specific natural motivator, not necessarily present in rural tourism. On the other hand, the proximity of green, hilly, rural landscapes and the coast with its beaches might constitute a particularly interesting factor attracting to the Minho region.

The next category with relatively numerous referrals (10 percent) and a large range of different descriptors was *culture*. The most unique items were “azulejos” and “fado”. Worth of mention are further the categories *gastronomy* (8 percent), where “wine” and “good food” were the most mentioned items, and *people* (8 percent), with the association “friendly people” dominating.

When analyzing adjectives used to describe the *atmosphere* or more affective image of North Portugal, the broader categories *peaceful*, *pleasant/ attractive*, *stimulating*, *friendly*, *cultural*, *rural*, *natural*, *authentic*, *developed* and *undeveloped/ simple* could be identified, apart from *negative feelings* and adjectives relating to *climate*.

The most used adjectives related to *attractiveness* (41 percent of respondents), as expressed by “beautiful” (20 percent), “pleasant” (6.5 percent) and “magnificent” (6.4 percent). As general feelings or emotional states associated with the destination *peacefulness* (23.5 percent of respondents), *friendliness* (13 percent) and *stimulation*²¹⁰ (9 percent) stand further out. Also more specific contents were expressed by some adjectives referring to a *cultural atmosphere* (11 percent), to *climate* (8.6 percent; mostly warm- 4.4 percent, but also cold- 2.5 percent), to a *natural* (6.6 percent) and *authentic atmosphere* (5 percent). Finally, the destination was defined as both *poorly developed* (4 percent) and *developed* (2 percent), as well as occasionally in negative terms (2 percent), such as “boring”, “solitarian” or “stinking”.

A second approach using an open-ended question referred to the *most positive and the most negative impressions* of the destination during the respondents’ stay. This question intended to elicit not only general, more descriptive, associations but particularly those which were most positively and negatively evaluated. It also aimed at making people think of their actual stay and anything that particularly might have stood out. These unique and very personal impressions, which are sometimes referred to as *critical incidents* or *moments of truth* (Fisk, Grove & John, 2000: 182), are an important part of the individual image. They are usually most remembered when talking about a holiday, being therefore of particular importance for marketing.

As most *positive* the categories *nature/ landscape* (33.5 percent of respondents) and *people* (32 percent) stand out, followed by *culture* (13 percent), *peacefulness/ relaxation* (9 percent),

²¹⁰ with a broad range reaching from “interesting/ curious”, “different”, “surprising” over “romantic” and “nostalgic” to “lively” or even “dramatic”

gastronomy (6 percent), *authenticity* (5 percent) and *tourism supply* (4 percent). Also *climate* (5 percent), the overall *experience* (3 percent, with variety, novelty, and safety standing out) and the *rural environment* (1.5 percent) were mentioned by some.

Poor traffic conditions (12.4 percent, mainly chaotic driving and bad streets), *pollution* (8.5 percent), *poor information* (9 percent, mainly poor sign-posting, but also poor tourist information) and *bad weather* (8 percent) were mentioned as the most **negative** impressions. *Poor tourism infrastructures* (7 percent), *service* (7 percent) and *development* (7 percent, particularly lack of planning and of public transport) were mentioned next, with some being negatively impressed by *people* (both residents and tourists, 4%) *poor conservation* (2 percent) and *gastronomy* (1.5 percent).

In general, positive impressions outnumber negative impressions considerably (by 72 percent) and some categories are found both on the positive and negative side. For instance, nature is viewed by many as the most positive aspect, while at the same time being heavily criticized due to pollution. The *hygienic* nature of the aspect *safety* becomes clear when observing that only a few mentioned this element as standing out positively whereas its lack in traffic conditions is criticized the most. The same is generally true for *tourism infrastructures/ services*, *climate* and *development*.

When combining these free-elicitation results with before-analyzed importance ratings and main travel motives, one may confirm the distinction between Herzberg's *motivational* and *hygienic* factors. In the domain of motivating factors, one may additionally distinguish *push* and *pull* factors:

Motivating factors:	Hygienic factors:
<p><i>Push:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. curiosity, discovery (novelty) 2. relaxation <p><i>Pull:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. nature and landscape 4. culture and history 5. (friendly) people 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. safe traffic conditions 2. unpolluted environment 3. climate 4. sign-posting/ tourist information 5. price 6. tourism supply (service, accommodation, food) 7. accessibility 8. ease of communication 9. infrastructures/ level of development

Table 20. Most confirmed motivating and hygienic factors

These categories confirm some dimensions and items introduced into the item-battery intended to measure the cognitive image²¹¹.

A question related to negative or below-optimal impressions refers to *improvements* suggested to make North Portugal more attractive as a tourist destination. The most mentioned aspect (35 percent) was better conservation, with 24 percent of respondents preferring no change at all.

As far as specific improvements are concerned, interest in culturally shaped offerings stands out, particularly the supply of typical restaurants (29 percent), excursions (21.4 percent), handicraft (18 percent), expositions (15 percent), museums (14.6 percent), concerts (13 percent) and folk events (13 percent). Further, some respondents felt a lack of sportive and recreational opportunities, such as walking paths (23 percent), canoeing (11 percent), horse riding (11 percent) and swimming (10 percent). Also offerings such as activities for children (8 percent), bars/ pubs (7 percent) and discos (5.4 percent) were missed by some. In an open-ended option, improvements of information, sign-posting and accessibility, as well as better quality accommodation and reduction of pollution, among other aspects, were suggested as important aspects to improve the destination's quality.

A final, exploratory approach was the confrontation of respondents with *photographs* referring to visual aspects which may be found in North Portugal. This approach was based on a prior selection of photos, which most clearly represented the dimensions considered most relevant by respondents (see p.187). These categories are: *nature/ landscape*, *culture* (both constructed heritage and lived culture), *sports and leisure*, *development*, *tourist infrastructures*, *gastronomy* and *negative aspects* (trash in nature, chaotic traffic). The number of photos per domain depended, on the one hand, on the diversity of the underlying meaning category (as visible by responses to the open-ended questions), on the other hand, on the availability of elucidative photos. In any case, the large number of photos referring to culture, especially to living culture and tradition, but also built heritage, may have biased results. Natural landscapes follow, together with sports and recreation, with tourist infrastructures and negative aspects reflected by only a few photos, urban development and gastronomy by only one each. The number of photos should be limited, in order to facilitate the association task, however still attempting to reflect the most important aspects of the region under study. The photos and their attributed meanings are shown in appendix E.

²¹¹ Only the item "safety" is not present in the battery, although it had been initially included in the pre-test phase. The reason for excluding the item was its multidimensionality. Thus, actually many respondents tended to the mid-point, as the destination was frequently judged as not very safe in terms of traffic, but very safe as far as crime is concerned. Further health may be considered, so that this item may result in two or three. In the affective image scales a combination "safe-dangerous" might have been interesting, if these scales had not to be applied to self-judgement, too. Further, push factors were not directly considered in the cognitive image battery (see also chapter 7.4.2.).

As this approach was complementary and exploratory, the representative nature of the sample used was not a major concern. The association test was realized at the last survey-visit of North Portugal and at the airport in June 1999. In this context participants were asked to choose between three and five photos which they liked most and then between three and five photos they considered most representative of the region visited. One hundred and five respondents participated in this approach, some of which also answered the questionnaire. They indicated a total number of four hundred and fifty-three photos most liked and five hundred and twenty-three photos most associated to North Portugal²¹².

Despite its second position in terms of number of photos presented, *natural landscapes are the most appreciated* (liked) illustrations (36 percent of all responses), followed by *living culture* (27 percent), being both categories mentioned at least once by all respondents. Photos relating to built cultural heritage are chosen by 78 percent of respondents and sports and recreation still by 50 percent. Both tourist infrastructures and gastronomy are only referred to by 14 percent of respondents²¹³. Only two respondents indicated an appreciation of a more urbanized landscape and the negative aspects of trash in nature and traffic congestion were obviously not liked by anyone.

When comparing with the photos *most associated* with the visited destination (see table 21), one may first observe that photos are generally more associated with North Portugal than mentioned as most liked (523 against 453). It is second striking that the most appreciated dimension (*natural landscape*) does not correspond to the most associated with North Portugal (*culture*, both *living* and *built*). However, all respondents mentioned at least one of the photos pertaining to the most appreciated dimensions as associated with the destination. Another important group of associations is visible for sports and recreation (50 percent of respondents), particularly walking and fishing. *Gastronomy* was evidenced by 18 percent of respondents, tourist infrastructures by only 6 percent, and the least liked aspects of urban development, chaotic traffic and trash in nature were mentioned by 15 percent. This shows that perceived reality did not correspond exactly to the ideal of a rural holiday destination, although generally most appreciated aspects seem to be encountered. In detail one may identify the following most liked and most associated photos (see also appendix E):

²¹² The sample that participated in this approach had the following characteristics: 51% were in the age range between 25 and 44 years, traveling mainly for holiday reasons only (80%). Foreign tourists dominated (73%), with most important nationalities being the Dutch (20%), French (11%) and German (10%). Gender was equally spread and 53% possessed a university degree. Trás-os-Montes (43%) and Minho (30%) were the most represented regions.

²¹³ Although globally a poor result for these dimensions, it is better for gastronomy, as this is only depicted by one photo.

Most liked:	Most associated:
Douro Valley (N=38)	Harsh landscape with granite rocks (N=31)
Mountains with lake, vast horizons (N=34)	Ribeira do Porto (river margin in Oporto) (N=31)
River margin of Oporto (“Ribeira”) (N=28)	Douro Valley (N=30)
Vast, lonesome sand beach (N=26)	Small Church (N=30)
Typical village, rural life (N=21)	Castle (N=30)
Harsh landscape with granite rocks (N=21)	Typical village, rural life (N=28)
Walking through a mountainous landscape with village (N=20)	Azulejos (N=27)
	Walking through a mountainous landscape with village (N=23)

Table 21. Most liked and most associated photos of North Portugal

This comparison shows that generally most liked aspects are actually associated, i.e. have actually been encountered in North Portugal. There are some exceptions, though, namely the mountainous area with a lake, which actually exists in Trás-os-Montes, but has apparently not been encountered by many respondents (N=12). Also the beach landscape, which seems to attract a lot, but is not as much associated with North Portugal (N=16) as other, probably more distinctive features. Finally neither “azulejos” (N= 17) nor “castles” (N=16) evoked much spontaneous liking, were however clearly associated with North Portugal.

8.2.7. Intentional future behavior

Finally, future tourist behavior was measured via two 7-level scales, indicating the likeliness (with the extremes “*very unlikely* \leftrightarrow *very likely*”) of coming back and recommending the destination. It is true that this is a measure of intention and not actual behavior and might be positively biased due to the effect of social desirability and the dominance of the destination in the respondents’ minds²¹⁴. However, the measure of intention of future purchase behavior has been found correlated to actual behavior making it a relevant variable for testing criterion validity of destination image. The two measures will later be used for hypotheses testing when analyzing possible effects of destination image. Results of a real-context pre-test have shown that personal recommendation is a most relevant determinant of destination choice (Kastenholz, 1997: 156-157). This could also be

²¹⁴ The effect of social desirability is likely to occur, as most responses were obtained via direct interviews undertaken by mainly Portuguese students, probably associated with the destination, especially by foreign tourists. Dominance of this destination in respondents’ minds is obviously related to the fact that interviews were undertaken at the destination, during or at the end of the holiday. The same question asked some time later and eventually in the context of other destinations mentioned, could lead to quite different, probably less positive answers.

confirmed for the present sample (p.221). However, the *push* motive of variety and change²¹⁵ may decrease likelihood of repeating a visit to a destination, even if the first visit was very pleasant. That is why probability of recommendation was considered as an eventually more important image effect than probability to come back. In any case, future market performance should also be directly related to recommendation, due to image implications on the behavior of others.

The mean probability to come back was 5.35 in a scale ranging from one to seven (with a standard deviation of 1.92). The mean probability to recommend was 5.92, being more consensual in terms of positive future involvement (with a standard deviation of 1.61). On the other hand, one must bear in mind that only intentions were measured, whereas actual behavior may differ considerably. Interestingly, there is a strong correlation between probability to come back and to recommend (Pearson Correlation =0.598), which may reflect a need for response congruency in the context of behavioral intentions.

Conclusions of Chapter 8

This chapter presents *results of an empirical study* of images of North Portugal as a rural tourism destination. *Literature and secondary data on North Portugal* underlined the rural features of this region, particularly of the three identifiable sub-regions Minho, Douro and Trás-os-Montes. Nature and landscape were identified as the probably most relevant primary tourism resources, although culture and hospitality of local population must also be considered. Conservation of natural and cultural heritage and careful territorial planning are therefore main concerns for enhancing the destination's attractiveness. Secondary tourism resources are less impressive, particularly in the interior rural areas, where accessibility is frequently poor and accommodation facilities not abundant. It is true that large-scale tourism infrastructures might not be the most appropriate for these rural areas, but a larger number of small-scale establishments, such as TER units, may be desirable. This more characteristic accommodation type is still a minor supply, except for the Minho region, which is the overall most developed rural tourism destination in the North.

A *one-year-long survey of tourists visiting rural areas in North Portugal* led to a *sample of 2280 respondents*, consisting of Portuguese and foreign tourists, both in the high and low season, in approximately equal numbers. Also the share of respondents in each sub-region was similar. Apart from these voluntarily introduced biases, the way of data collection enhanced representativity of this sample of leisure travelers in rural North Portugal. A minor non-response bias of the indirect data collection approach, favoring younger respondents, could be identified. It was judged of minor

²¹⁵ especially in the case of "allo-centric" tourists, as explained before, and to be tested in hypothesis 3)

importance, though, as most responses were obtained by personal interviews with extremely high response rates.

Respondents revealed a high propensity to travel and to visit rural areas, both at home and abroad. Both short-break visitors and longer-duration holiday-makers were present. Nearly half the sample traveled in a couple and not even a quarter with minor-aged children. Personal recommendation was the most relevant information source mentioned, although a previous visit, travel guide-books and agencies were also referred to. The most important motivations were the discovery of the region, nature/ landscape and culture, i.e. rather *pull motives*. Also climate and friendly people were referred to. The main mentioned *push motives* were curiosity/ novelty and relaxation, although *pull motives* generally imply a *push* element (Uysal & Lee, 1993). Benefits sought were measured by a 25-item-battery with 5-level Likert-like scales and summarized via PCA in six dimensions, namely: *information & access, nature, action & socializing, basics, history & culture, tourist infrastructures*. Four benefit segments could be distinguished via cluster analysis of these importance-ratings, which were named: *Urbans, Calm Rural Enthusiasts, Active Rural Enthusiasts* and *Simplists*. These benefit-segments showed also demographic, travel behavior and destination image differences, justifying a targeted approach.

Destination images were measured via structured and more qualitative approaches. **Cognitive image** was assessed via 25 Likert-type scales, which were further summarized via PCA in five factors: *nature, basics, action, information & access* and *culture*. It showed that particularly *nature-related* items were very favorably evaluated, but also *sympathy of population* and *culture* stood out. On the other hand, particularly *tourist information* and *sign-posting* represent important destination attributes that received less favorable evaluations. **Affective image** was assessed via semantic differential scales, characterizing North Portugal as pleasant, natural, calm and traditional. Also these scales were factor analyzed, resulting in five dimensions, of which only three showed sufficient internal consistency (*colorful/ pleasant, simple, calm*). These confirm approximately the two main dimensions of *pleasantness* and *arousal* found in many approaches in environmental psychology. **Destination-self congruity** was analyzed as an important aspect of affective image, expressing identification with the destination. The comparison of corresponding semantic differential scales used for destination- and self-image assessment seemed a debatable approach, as semantic spaces appeared as quite distinct. The single 5-level semantic differential scale (*different from me- similar to me*) was accordingly preferred. It revealed a distribution, which concentrated on the mid-point with a relatively large deviation.

Overall image, measured on a 7-level semantic differential scale was globally very positive. The more qualitative approaches used **free elicitation of associations** made with the destination and of

most *positive and negative impressions*. Again, *nature* and *landscape* stands out as a central and highly differentiated category. Also a *pleasant, friendly* and *peaceful* atmosphere is frequently mentioned as distinctive for the region. A few negative impressions were linked to *traffic conditions, pollution, bad weather* and *poor information*. However, generally positive impressions outnumbered the negative ones. Finally, an exploratory *photo association* exercise confirmed the preference for *natural* and *landscape* aspects. Associations with the region also included many landscape components, but also typical architecture and *unique cultural heritage* aspects (churches, castles and azulejos). Improvements were suggested in the domain of *heritage conservation*, with some specific items standing out as most demanded (typical restaurants, walking paths, excursions/guided tours).

The combination of different image assessment approaches confirmed a number of *recurrent image dimensions*, which could further be distinguished as more *motivational* (e.g. *nature, culture* and *people*) or *hygienic* in nature (e.g. *safe traffic conditions, unpolluted environment* or *sign-posting*). That is, a combined approach increases validity of image assessment. More unique, varied and motivational aspects are revealed by the qualitative approaches, whereas the quantitative approach permits the assessment of more consensual and also hygienic aspects. Additionally, subsequent analysis of the more quantitative image elements may lead to interesting conclusions, based on an understanding of patterns of destination images, visible in large numbers of responses.

Probability to recommend the destination was relatively high, *probability to return* as well, but comparatively lower. This was expected, due to the motive of *novelty* frequently shaping destination choice. However, the relevance of recommendation for a destination's market success should not be sub-estimated. The following chapter will analyze the role of destination image for these two aspects of intentional future travel-behavior, as well as pursue a more systematic understanding of image structure and image (co-) determinants.

Chapter 9. Hypothesis Testing

In chapter 7 a series of hypotheses related to the image construct were suggested. In this chapter these hypotheses are tested making use of several statistical devices, as announced before (see pp.202-203). Different approaches have been tested, but the presented results refer to methods that appeared as the most appropriate, considering the nature of data and the complexity of suggested relationships. Generally, quantitative data analysis is privileged in this context. In the first sub-chapter image structure is analyzed, in the second eventual (co-) determinants of destination image and in the last the possible effect of image on behavior.

Chapter 9.1. Image Structure

As suggested by the first group of hypotheses, one may distinguish between cognitive and affective image, holistic and imagery aspects, which are all interrelated. Specific relationships are suggested to exist between cognition and affective image, which is addressed in point 9.1.1. The role of *destination-self-congruity* in the context of affective image is analyzed in point 9.1.2. Subsequently, the relationship between cognition and affective image is analyzed in more detail, suggesting the mediating role of functional congruity. Finally, the effect of all image aspects on overall impression, expressing *holistic image*, is studied.

Chapter 9.1.1. Relationship between Cognitive and Affective Image

Hypothesis 1a) states that *destination images* are composed of *cognitive, affective, holistic and imagery* dimensions, with *affect and cognition being interrelated*. Freely elicited associations with the destination revealed the existence of a range of cognitive, affective, holistic and picture-like aspects (see Chapter 8.2.6). This supports the first assumption. The first two dimensions were also assessed via Likert-like and Semantic Differential Scales and imagery via photo-association. For hypothesis testing the cognitive image factors revealed via PCA and the three most relevant affective image dimensions, plus the single *destination-self-congruity* measure²¹⁶ were used. Correlation analysis of corresponding summated scales (Hair et al, 1998: 116-117)²¹⁷ shows:

²¹⁶ As explained before, the single scale is preferred to the alternative average value of total differences for all analyses involving the *destination-self-congruity* construct (see pp.234-235).

²¹⁷ Average summated scales, instead of factor scores, are more adequate for representing the most relevant variables of the identified dimension, which are used for its interpretation. They permit making more use of the data, as also those responses may be included, which have just one missing value amongst the variables in a dimension, whereas factor scores exclude these cases. However, summated scales and factor scores are extremely correlated (all above 0.855), making their use interchangeable.

	Nature	Basics	Action/ Fun	Information	Culture
Pleasant	0.187	0.360	0.211	0.159	0.159
Simple	0.304	0.074			0.079
Calm	0.262		(-) 0.215		
DSC	0.235	0.175	0.120	0.114	0.095

Table 22. Correlation between cognitive and affective image factors

Note: all correlations are significant at the 0.01 level

Results demonstrate that affective and cognitive dimensions are significantly interrelated. It is particularly interesting that the most relevant affective dimension, which may serve as a surrogate variable for affective image (*pleasantness*), is significantly correlated with all cognitive factors. Especially *basics* show a strong positive correlation with this affective dimension, which should be due to several aspects of this factor revealing a welcoming atmosphere. Also *destination-self-congruity* is positively correlated with all cognitive factors, although to a lower degree except for the factor *nature*. The affective dimensions *simple* and *calm* are mostly related to *nature* and the last inversely related to *action/ fun*. It is worth noticing that the cognitive dimension *nature* seems to convey the strongest and most varied emotional contents. Generally, one may retain that both the cognitive dimensions *nature* and *basics* convey strongest affective meanings. The least emotion-laden dimension is *information*. This is understandable considering its rather *hygienic* character (see table 20, p.238). The cognitive dimension *culture* also does not evoke much emotional content, which may be surprising. ***Globally, hypothesis 1a) is confirmed and specified in terms of concrete relations between dimensions.***

Chapter 9.1.2. The Relevance of Destination-Self-Congruity for Affective Image

Hypothesis 1b) highlights the construct of *destination-self-congruity* in the context of affective image, especially in the case of psycho-centric travelers. Its existence could not be confirmed via free elicitation, as this construct does not appear as close to consciousness as other more descriptive aspects of the destination. The scale “*different from me- similar to me*” caused some respondents to reflect more than in the case of other scales. This suggests that the corresponding feeling would not be “on the top of one’s mind”. However, most respondents could produce an answer, confirming the existence of a similarity or difference feeling in relation to the destination. This was suggested as a specific affective construct, as it represents rather a feeling state than a cognitive judgement. This should be confirmed by its correlation to the identified main or holistic affective dimension *pleasant/ colorful*. The correlation is relatively high ($R=0.263$) and significant at the 0.01 level. It is generally higher than the correlation with any cognitive factor, as seen before. The correlation with the affective dimension *simple* is also significant ($R=0.170$). Analyzing the correlation between the most coinciding affective dimensions identified for self- and for affective destination image, those respondents viewing themselves as *pleasant*, are more likely to view the destination likewise

($R=0.218$). This is also true for the characteristic *calm* ($R= 0.170$) and *informal* ($R= 0.296$). That is, some of the dimensions of both semantic spaces that are relatively corresponding (see pp.233-235) show a correlation, revealing feeling states with corresponding content for themselves and the destination, i.e. strongest degrees of identification concerning these dimensions.

It is interesting that the correlation between *destination-self-congruity* and the dimension *pleasantness* is stronger in the case of the *psycho-centric* ($R=0.311$) and less important in the case of the *allo-centric* ($R=0.222$). The *mid-centric* are slightly above the average ($R=0.259$). *Destination-self-congruity* feelings were thus the more important for overall affective image the more *psycho-centric* the respondent, as expected. These results confirm hypothesis 1b) suggesting that *destination-self-congruity feelings are an important element of affective image, especially in the case of psycho-centric travelers.*

9.1.3. The Relationship between Cognition and Affect via *Functional Congruity*

For testing *hypothesis 1c)* the suggested surrogate for the affective image *pleasant/ colorful* will be used. Its factor score is introduced in a regression model as the dependent variable. The cognitive factor scores are used as explanatory variables and *functional congruity* as an intervening variable. This type of variable can be understood as “*both a product of the independent variable and a cause of the dependent variable*” (Bryman & Cramer, 1994: 222). For testing mediation three regression equations should be estimated (Grapentine, 2000):

1. the mediator variable is regressed on the independent variables revealing a significant relation (equation one);
2. the dependent variable is regressed on the independent variables, also revealing a significant relation (equation two);
3. the dependent variable is regressed on both independent and mediator variables (equation three), revealing a significant relation between mediator and dependent variable. Eventually persisting relations between exogenous and dependent variable should be weaker than in equation two.

There would be no mediation, if there was no relationship between exogenous and mediator variable (step 1) or if the mediator variable was not related to the dependent variable (step 3). Partial mediation would exist if regression coefficients of an exogenous variable were significant in steps 1) and 3). Mediation would be perfect for an exogenous variable, which is related to the mediator variable (step 1), but whose effect on the dependent variable (step 2) is totally absorbed by the mediator variable (step 3). The analysis corresponds to a two-step regression procedure, based on the principles of *path analysis*. It further permits identifying direct and indirect effects.

Assumptions of applicability of multiple regression analysis, such as linearity, normality and homoskedasticity of residuals and multicollinearity were tested and did not reveal any significant violation (see **Pestana & Gageiro**, 1998: 361-425). More concretely, linearity was checked by examining the residual plots of linear regression and curve estimation. Normality of residuals was analyzed via normal probability (Q-Q) plots, showing no substantial departure from the diagonal line. Residual plots were examined in order to examine constant variance of residuals. As no increase or decrease of residuals with predicted values was observable, data was judged homoscedastic. Multicollinearity was analyzed by checking the correlations among independent variables, which were all below 0.45, which seems acceptable (values above 0.7 have been considered problematic, see **Baloglu**, 1996: 170). Also tolerance values, indicating the degree in which a variable is not explained by all other variables, were acceptable (well above the minimal level of 0.1). The use of factor scores instead of summated scales for cognitive and affective image dimensions in the regression models contributed to low values of correlation among independent variables. Finally, outliers were identified and excluded, if absolute values of standardized residuals were above three. All regression models presented showed significant F-values at the 0.000 level. The first regression equations used to test hypothesis 1c) are presented in table 23.

Equation 1) Regression of <i>functional congruity (FC)</i> on cognitive image factors					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.840	CI1 (Nature)	0.36	16.1	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.702	CI2 (Basics)	0.51	22.5	0.000
		CI3 (Fun)	0.21	9.3	0.000
		CI4 (Information)	0.41	18.2	0.000
		CI5 (Culture)	0.31	13.9	0.000
Equation 2) Regression of affective image factor 1 (<i>pleasant</i>) on cognitive image factors					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.414	CI1 (Nature)	0.16	4.01	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.164	CI2 (Basics)	0.32	8.05	0.000
		CI3 (Fun)	0.15	3.83	0.000
		CI4 (Information)	0.03	0.71	0.476
		CI5 (Culture)	0.16	4.18	0.000
Equation 3a) Regression of <i>AI I</i> on cognitive image factors and <i>FC</i>					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.485	CI1 (Nature)	0.03	0.72	0.470
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.227	CI2 (Basics)	0.14	3.07	0.002
		CI3 (Fun)	0.06	1.44	0.151
		CI4 (Information)	-0.11	-2.52	0.012
		CI5 (Culture)	0.07	1.60	0.110
		FC	0.38	6.60	0.000
Equation 3b) Regression of <i>AI I</i> on cognitive image factors and <i>FC</i> (stepwise regression)					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.479	CI2 (Basics)	0.11	2.6	0.009
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.225	CI4 (Information)	-0.13	-3.17	0.002
		FC	0.44	9.54	0.000

Table 23. Regression equations for testing a path model from cognitive image dimensions over *FC* to *AI*

The result of this analysis leads to a path-analytical model represented in the following way:

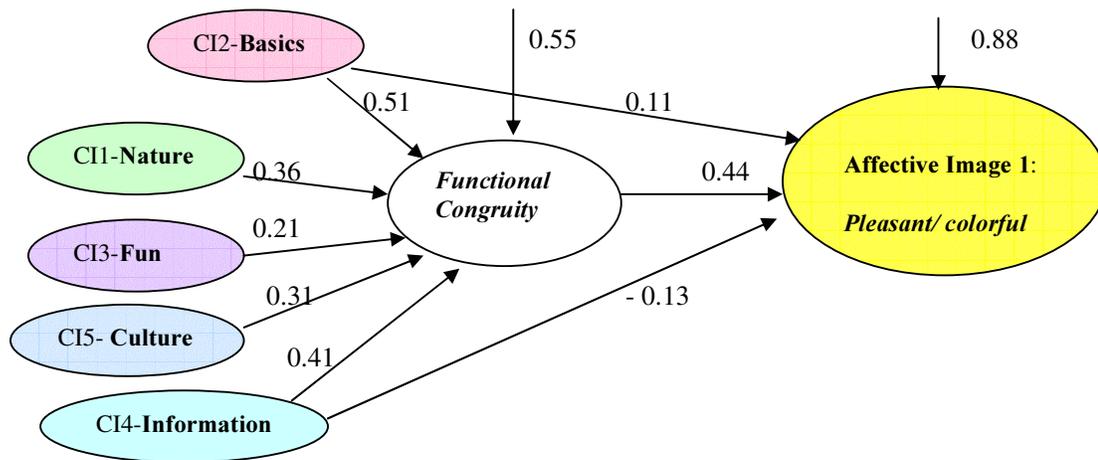


Fig.34. Path analytical model of image structure from cognition to overall affect

Note: error terms are calculated as the square root of unexplained variance (1-R²)

The total effects of each cognitive image factor on global affective image are:

independent variable	direct effect	indirect effect via	total effect on global affective image
Functional Congruity	0.44	----	0.44
Basics	0.11	FC: 0.51*0.44	0.11+0.51*0.44 =
Nature	----	FC: 0.36*0.44	0.36*0.44 =
Culture	----	FC: 0.31*0.44	0.31*0.44 =
Fun/ Action	----	FC: 0.21*0.44	0.21*0.44 =
Information	- 0.13	FC: 0.41*0.44	0.41*0.44 – 0.13 =

Table 24. Direct and indirect effects of FC and cognitive image factors on overall affective image

The analyses demonstrated that:

1. All cognitive factors contribute directly or indirectly via *functional congruity* to overall affective image.
2. The connection between cognitive factors and *functional congruity* is very strong, with the corresponding model explaining 70% of variance of the dependent variable and all cognitive factors revealing strong and significant relationships (see equation 1). This is not surprising, as the indicator of *functional congruity* is partly composed of cognitive evaluations. Eventually, *functional congruity* may be therefore used as a surrogate variable for cognitive evaluation.
3. *Basics* and *Information* are the most relevant cognitive factors determining *functional congruity* although all cognitive factors contribute significantly and positively to this variable. The least important factor is *action/ fun* in this context, which confirms that this aspect is also not considered very important for a rural tourism destination, as high degrees of *functional congruity* are less dependent on favorable perceptions of this dimension.

4. The inclusion of functional congruity improves the model by 6.2% of total variance explained. This may not be much in absolute terms but corresponds to an improvement of 38%, when compared to the initial model, which contained only cognitive image factors. This shows the relevance of simultaneously considering importance attributed to cognitive factors, which have been suggested as motivational elements in image constitution. The final model explains 22.5% of variance of the dependent variable which is a significant contribution ($F=52.8$, $\text{sig}=0.000$).
5. Equations 1) and 2) proved the role of *functional congruity* as a mediating variable, except for the exogenous variable *information*, which does not significantly relate to *pleasantness*. The effects of cognitive factors on *pleasantness* are all lower (*partial mediation*), when *functional congruity* enters the equation (Equation 3), actually negative for *information* and suppressed (*perfect mediation*) for *nature*, *fun* and *culture*.
6. When *functional congruity* is included, the order and absolute value of the overall contribution of cognitive factors is not changed much (comparing equation 2 with total effects on overall affective image, table 24). *Basics* contribute most and are followed by *nature* and *culture*. The factor *fun* is slightly underrepresented in its total path-analytical contribution as its minor direct contribution is ignored in stepwise regression at the presence of *functional congruity*.
7. The type of contribution appears modified, since the direct effects of *nature*, *culture* and *fun* disappear. Further, *information* contributes indirectly positively and directly negatively. This results in a low overall contribution to global affective image as was suggested by the regression model without *functional congruity*. This factor seems to determine a positive image in terms of *functional congruity*, but does not show any important effect on an overall emotional attitude towards the destination. This fact may be due to the more *hygienic* character of *information*, which is considered important and originates high expectations, but not motivating. Still, if dissatisfaction with this aspect was below a certain level, an overall negative affective image might result, which should be expressed by a significant positive correlation. As this is not the case, a relatively neutral relationship can be presumed. In any case, these considerations support the argument for keeping cognition and affect apart in analysis, even though they are interrelated and may combine to an overall image.

From the above discussion, ***hypothesis 1c) is largely confirmed as far as the overall affective image surrogate is concerned.*** However, the determination is not perfect, since there exists a large amount of unexplained variance of the dependent variable in the model.

In an exploratory approach, the affective dimensions *simple* and *calm* as well as *destination-self-congruity* were subjected to the same type of analysis. It must be stressed, though, that the hypothesis refers particularly to the overall affective dimension labeled as *pleasant*.

Equation 2) Regression of affective image factor 2 (<i>simple</i>) on cognitive image factors					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.314	CI1 (Nature)	0.26	6.36	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.090	CI2 (Basics)	-0.08	-1.91	0.057
		CI3 (Fun)	-0.12	-2.95	0.003
		CI4 (Information)	-0.07	-1.64	0.101
		CI5 (Culture)	-0.05	-1.33	0.186
Equation 3a) Regression of <i>AI 2</i> on cognitive image factors and <i>FC</i>					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.316	CI1 (Nature)	0.27	5.95	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.090	CI2 (Basics)	-0.07	-1.31	0.191
		CI3 (Fun)	-0.12	-2.59	0.010
		CI4 (Information)	-0.05	-0.97	0.331
		CI5 (Culture)	-0.05	-1.08	0.280
		FC	-0.04	-0.641	0.522
Equation 3b) Regression of <i>AI 2</i> on cognitive image factors and <i>FC</i> (stepwise regression)					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.309	CI1 (Nature)	0.29	6.34	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.090	CI3 (Fun)	-0.096	-2.91	0.025
		FC	-0.11	-2.48	0.014

Table 25 Regressions for testing a path model from cognitive image dimensions over *FC* to *AI 2*

From this analysis it becomes visible that *functional congruity* affects *simplicity* negatively. This is also true for the factor *action/ fun*. When *functional congruity* is considered as an intervening variable its negative relation to *simplicity* implies a correspondingly negative impact of the cognitive factors related to the dependent variable only via *functional congruity*²¹⁸. Only *nature* contributes positively to this affective dimension. However, the inclusion of *functional congruity* does not improve the percentage of variance explained in the dependent variable. Therefore its role as an intervening variable is questionable. Further, considering **Baron & Kenny's** (1983) criteria²¹⁹, conditions from equations two and three are hardly confirmed²²⁰. Conceptually, findings highlight the contrast between two types of cognitive dimensions, either increasing (*nature*) or reducing the feeling of *simplicity* (all other cognitive factors). The regression model does not

²¹⁸ The composed effects of all independent variables are:

<i>FC</i> :		=	-0.11
Nature:	0.29-0.11* 0.36	=	0.25
Basics:	-0.11*0.51	=	-0.056
Culture:	-0.11*0.31	=	-0.034
Fun:	-0.096-0.11*0.21	=	-0.073
Information:	-0.11*0.41	=	-0.045

²¹⁹ Equation 1) is presented in Table 23 and not repeated in following analyses.

²²⁰ There are only two independent variables significantly contributing to *simplicity*, with *FC* only contributing significantly in the case of stepwise regression. Further, *nature* increases its contribution after inclusion of *FC*, compensating for this variable's negative relation to *simplicity*.

explain much of the variance in the dependent variable (nine per cent) although its F value indicates a significant relationship ($F=18.747$, $\text{sig}=0.000$).

Next, the effect of cognitive factors via *functional congruity* on the affective factor *calm* is tested.

Equation 2) Regression of affective image factor 3 (<i>calm</i>) on cognitive image factors					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.413	CI1 (Nature)	0.35	8.84	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.163	CI2 (Basics)	-0.002	-0.055	0.956
		CI3 (Fun)	-0.21	-5.3	0.000
		CI4 (Information)	-0.02	-0.47	0.637
		CI5 (Culture)	0.03	0.80	0.424
Equation 3a) Regression of AI 3 on cognitive image factors and FC					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.418	CI1 (Nature)	0.33	7.47	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.166	CI2 (Basics)	-0.03	-0.59	0.557
		CI3 (Fun)	-0.22	-5.32	0.000
		CI4 (Information)	-0.04	-0.96	0.340
		CI5 (Culture)	0.01	0.22	0.826
		FC	0.06	1.01	0.313
Equation 3b) Regression model of AI 3 on cognitive image factors (stepwise regression)					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.415	CI1 (Nature)	0.35	8.91	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.169	CI3 (Fun)	-0.21	-5.31	0.000

Table 26 Regressions for testing a path model from cognitive image dimensions over FC to AI3

In this case *functional congruity* is no intervening variable, since it does not appear as a significant variable in equation 3) at all. Similar to *simplicity*, the affective factor *calm* is positively related to the cognitive factor *nature* and negatively to the factor *action/ fun*. This confirms the already suggested proximity of the two factors in the context of a larger *arousal*-reflecting dimension, albeit their differences in content. The final regression model explains about 17 per cent of the variance in the dependent variable ($F=55.369$, $\text{sig}=0.000$). This is more than in the case of *simplicity*, but no mediating effect of *functional congruity* could be found.

Finally, eventual cognitive determinants of *destination-self-congruity* feelings are analyzed. *Destination-Self-Congruity* is determined mainly by the perception of *nature*, *basics*, *fun* and *functional congruity*. However, in this case, the opportunities for *fun*, *socializing and action* as well as *functional congruity* and *basics* have a positive impact on similarity feelings²²¹. This corresponds to the pattern found for the overall affective image. The positive effect of *socializing/ fun* contrasts from the pattern found for *simple and calm*. It may reflect a type of proximity felt,

²²¹ The composed effects of all independent variables are:

$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 FC: & & = 0.1 \\
 Nature: & 0.22+0.1*0.36 & = 0.26 \\
 Basics: & 0.13+0.1*0.51 & = 0.18 \\
 Culture: & 0.1*0.31 & = 0.03 \\
 Fun: & 0.1+0.1*0.21 & = 0.12 \\
 Information: & 0.1*0.41 & = 0.04
 \end{array}$$

expressed by playful socializing. Similar to the results for all affective dimensions, *nature* plays a dominant role in determining *destination-self-congruity* feelings. *Culture* and *information* play a minor role. Here *functional congruity* plays a role as an intervening variable, as the three before-mentioned conditions can be confirmed. The mediation is not as strong as in the case of *pleasantness*, though, as the effect of influential cognitive image factors does not decrease much after the inclusion of *functional congruity*. Also the overall explanatory power of the model hardly increases through the inclusion of this variable, which only slightly passes the required significance level of 0.05 in stepwise regression. The overall model including the most relevant factors explains only 11% of variance ($F=12.825$, $\text{sig}=0.000$).

Equation 2) Regression of <i>DSC</i> on cognitive image factors					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	T	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.335	CI1 (Nature)	0.25	6.515	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.105	CI2 (Basics)	0.18	4.563	0.000
		CI3 (Fun)	0.12	3.156	0.002
		CI4 (Information)	0.003	0.089	0.929
		CI5 (Culture)	0.05	1.397	0.163
Equation 3a) Regression of <i>DSC</i> on cognitive image factors and <i>FC</i>					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	T	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.342	CI1 (Nature)	0.22	5.145	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.108	CI2 (Basics)	0.13	2.648	0.008
		CI3 (Fun)	0.09	2.216	0.027
		CI4 (Information)	-0.03	-0.660	0.509
		CI5 (Culture)	0.02	0.530	0.596
		FC	0.11	1.785	0.075
Equation 3b) Regression model of <i>DSC</i> on cognitive image factors (stepwise regression)					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	T	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.340	CI1 (Nature)	0.22	5.35	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.11	CI2 (Basics)	0.13	2.88	0.004
		CI3 (Fun)	0.1	2.32	0.021
		FC	0.1	2.01	0.045

Table 27 Regressions for testing a path model from cognitive image dimensions over *FC* to *DSC*

From these analyses, one may conclude that the first affective dimension (*pleasant*), suggested as a surrogate for overall affective image, is best explained by cognitive image factors, when compared to other affective dimensions. In this context, *functional congruity* plays a significant role as an intervening variable. The determining factors (in order of relevance) for this affective dimension are *functional congruity*, *basics*, *nature*, *culture* and *action/ fun*. The two other identified affective image dimensions related to *arousal* are not significantly affected by *functional congruity*, being generally not as well defined as *pleasant* by cognitive image dimensions. Both affective dimensions are positively affected by the perception of *nature* and negatively by that of *action/ fun*. Similar to *pleasantness*, although with a different order and a lower overall explanatory power,

destination-self-congruity is positively related to *nature*, *basics* and *action/ fun*, with *functional congruity* also acting as an intervening variable.

Nature and *basics* are generally the most relevant cognitive factors determining affective image. *Nature* is the only cognitive factor that affects positively all affective dimensions. Culture and particularly *information* are of minor importance, although contributing significantly to *functional congruity*. This construct only adds significantly to the explanation of the first affective dimension. *Action/ fun* represents a hybrid cognitive factor, in so far as it affects affective image both positively (in the case of *pleasantness* and *destination-self-congruity*) and negatively (in the case of *simple* and *calm*). The distinction of two dimensions of affective image (*pleasantness* and *arousal*) as suggested by Russel (1980) may be considered for explaining this phenomenon.

From the above discussion, ***hypothesis 1c) is largely confirmed as far as the overall affective image surrogate is concerned. It is only partly confirmed as far as the other affective image dimensions are concerned. These can be considered as partly determined by cognitive image, but not via functional congruity.*** This makes sense, since the dimension reflecting *pleasantness* should be contingent upon satisfaction with the experience, which should be reflected by the construct *functional congruity*. On the other hand, *calm* and *simple* may be viewed as more neutral expressions of arousal felt at the destination rather than expressing an overall evaluation.

Chapter 9.1.4. The Effects of all Image Components on Overall Impression

For testing the relationship between all image components and *overall image*, the before identified relationships are included in a path analytical model with successive multiple regressions, except for the imagery dimension, which is studied separately. The model suggests cognitive image factors as independent exogenous variables, *functional congruity* as first-order intervening variable, affective image factors and *destination-self-congruity* as second-order intervening variables and *overall image* as dependent variable (see table 28).

When analyzing regressions of cognitive and affective image factors separately, the *affect-> OI* model yields a higher adjusted R squared than the *cognition-> OI* model. This suggests a better explanation. On the other hand, all cognitive factors contribute significantly to *overall image*, whereas the affective dimension *simple* seems irrelevant.

Results further suggest the importance of the factor *pleasantness* as intervening variable between cognitive factors, *functional congruity* and overall image. All significant relationships in equation 2) become less relevant after inclusion of *overall affective image* in equation 3). *Destination-self-congruity* completely disappears as perfectly explained by the intervening variable. Moreover, the model including *pleasantness* reveals a stronger explanatory power.

Regression of Overall Image on cognitive image factors					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.483	CI1 (Nature)	0.289	8.056	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.227	CI2 (Basics)	0.319	8.880	0.000
		CI3 (Fun)	0.134	3.742	0.000
		CI4 (Information)	0.135	3.766	0.000
		CI5 (Culture)	0.111	3.085	0.002
Regression of <i>OI</i> on affective image factors					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.509	A1 (pleasant)	0.446	20.491	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.258	A2 (simple)	-0.028	-1.326	0.185
		A3 (calm)	0.099	4.711	0.000
		DSC	0.125	5.696	0.000
Regression of <i>OI</i> on all factors, except <i>FC</i>					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.619	CI1 (Nature)	0.207	5.342	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.383	CI2 (Basics)	0.203	5.566	0.000
		CI3 (Fun)	0.082	2.277	0.023
		CI4 (Information)	0.127	3.691	0.000
		CI5 (Culture)	0.004	0.105	0.917
		A1 (pleasant)	0.393	10.309	0.000
		A2 (simple)	-0.041	-1.132	0.258
		A3 (calm)	0.048	1.299	0.194
		DSC	0.063	1.692	0.091
Equation 2) Regression of <i>OI</i> on all factors, except <i>AI1</i>					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.549	CI1 (Nature)	0.174	3.929	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.289	CI2 (Basics)	0.176	3.899	0.000
		CI3 (Fun)	0.039	0.953	0.341
		CI4 (Information)	0.023	0.536	0.592
		CI5 (Culture)	-0.028	-0.709	0.479
		<i>FC</i>	0.314	5.517	0.000
		A2 (simple)	-0.062	-1.602	0.110
		A3 (calm)	0.014	0.346	0.729
		DSC	0.108	2.757	0.006
Equation 3a) Regression of <i>OI</i> on all factors					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.637	CI1 (Nature)	0.161	3.944	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.395	CI2 (Basics)	0.136	3.247	0.001
		CI3 (Fun)	0.038	0.994	0.321
		CI4 (Information)	0.065	1.629	0.104
		CI5 (Culture)	-0.044	-1.195	0.233
		<i>FC</i>	0.172	3.153	0.002
		A1 (pleasant)	0.375	9.556	0.000
		A2 (simple)	-0.036	-0.998	0.319
		A3 (calm)	0.035	0.936	0.350
		DSC	0.051	1.389	0.165
Equation 3b) Regression model of <i>OI</i> on cognitive and affective image factors (stepwise regression)					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.629	CI1 (Nature)	0.163	4.494	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.391	CI2 (Basics)	0.127	3.260	0.001
		<i>FC</i>	0.214	4.969	0.000
		AI1 (pleasant)	0.376	9.803	0.000

Table 28. Regressions for testing a path model from *CI* over *FC* and *AI* to overall image

As other affective factors do not appear as significant for explaining *overall image*, they are not included in the final model (figure 35). Generally, the surrogate for overall affect appears as the most relevant determinant of *overall image*. *Functional congruity*, *nature* and *basics* follow this. The relevance of affect is not surprising considering this emotion-laden product-category. Also *functional congruity* stands out for understandable reasons, since it makes a link between cognition and affect, representing those cognitive aspects most valued by respondents. As suggested before, it may be considered to summarize the content of all subjectively relevant single *cognitive image* factors. However, when ignoring *functional congruity* in the regression of *overall image* on all image dimensions, the adjusted R squared is only slightly inferior. That is why this variable may also be dismissed in order to stress the contribution of each *cognitive image* factor. In the present model it is maintained to highlight a conceptually relevant aspect. Single contributions are visible when analyzing total effects (table 29).

independent variable	direct effect	indirect effect via	total effect on overall image	
Functional Congruity	0.21	AI: $0.44*0.38=0.17$	$0.21+0.17=$	0.38
Basics	0.13	FC: $0.51*0.21=0.11$	$0.13+0.11=0.24$	
		FC-AI: $0.51*0.44*0.38=0.085$	$0.24+0.085=0.325$	
		AI: $0.11*0.38=0.04$	$0.325+0.04=$	0.37
Nature	0.16	FC: $0.36*0.21=0.08$	$0.16+0.08=0.24$	
		FC-AI: $0.36*0.44*0.38=0.06$	$0.24+0.06=$	0.30
Culture	----	FC: $0.31*0.21=0.065$	0.065	
		FC-AI: $0.31*0.44*0.38=0.05$	$0.065+0.05=$	0.12
Action/ Fun	----	FC: $0.21*0.21=0.044$	0.044	
		FC-AI: $0.21*0.44*0.38=0.035$	$0.044+0.035=$	0.08
Information	----	FC: $0.41*0.21=0.086$	0.086	
		FC-AI: $0.41*0.44*0.38=0.07$	$0.086+0.07=0.15$	
		AI: $-0.13*0.38=-0.05$	$0.15-0.05=$	0.10
Pleasant	0.38		0.38	0.38

Table 29 Direct and indirect effects of cognitive and affective image factors on overall image

This compositional analysis shows that both *pleasantness* and *functional congruity* have very similar total effects on *overall image*. *Basics* stand out next, being followed by *nature*, and at some distance *culture*, *action/ fun* and *information*. In this approach, the relevance of cognition becomes more evident, with *basics* standing out more than in the analysis of direct effects. The effect of each cognitive dimension on *overall image* can be interpreted as revealing the importance attributed to these dimensions when evaluating the destination holistically. Thus *basics*, including accommodation, gastronomy, sympathy of population, ease of communication, climate, infrastructure and price, reveals aspects that tourists value most, as they affect the tourist experience most directly and stand for a “*welcoming atmosphere*”. Also *nature* is valued considerably, which is not surprising for a rural holiday destination and considering its relevance

for affective image. The relatively inferior role of *culture* may not correspond to expectations as literature frequently stresses the importance of this dimension for rural holiday destinations. However, perhaps one may distinguish between *erudite* and *popular culture*. The latter would include aspects like “*rural way of life*”, “*gastronomy*” and “*sympathy of population*”, actually integrated in the dimensions “*nature*” and “*basics*”. One may conclude that these popular and traditional elements of culture, visible in daily life, are more important for a rural holiday than *erudite cultural elements*, eventually more represented by the factor *history & culture*. However, *culture* is not insignificant, nor is *information* or *action/fun* in shaping *overall impression*.

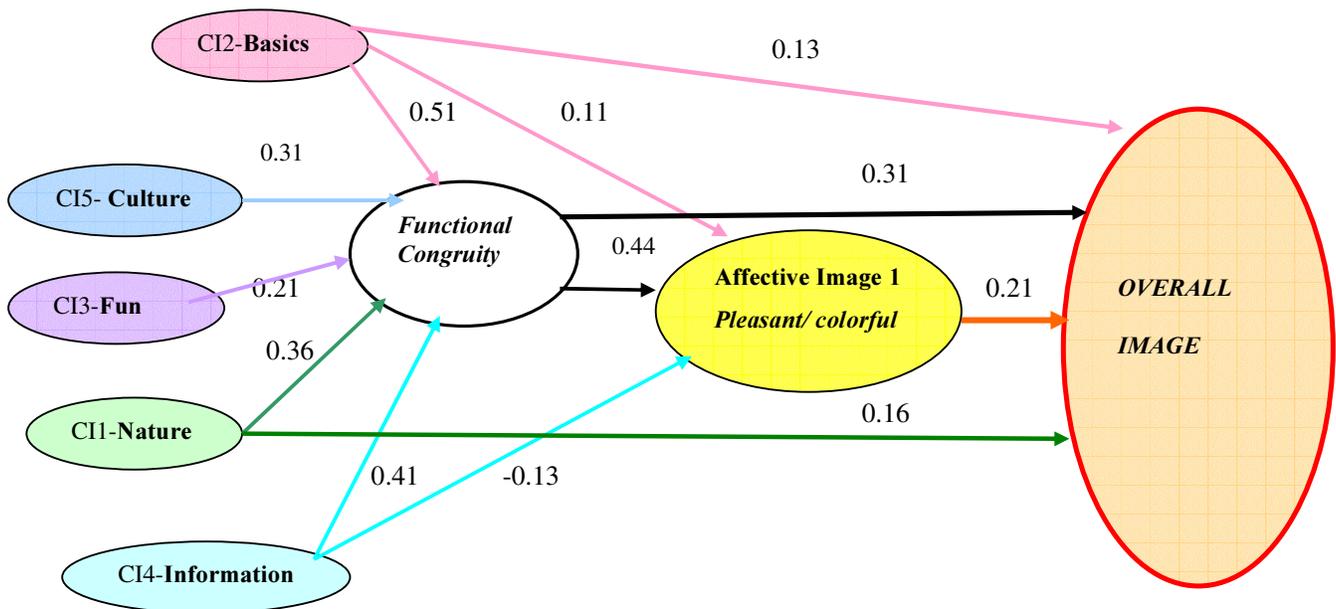


Fig. 35. Path model from cognition over *FC* and *AII* to overall image

Considering affective dimensions, only the surrogate variable for overall affect (*pleasantness*) is significantly related to *overall image*, if cognitive aspects are considered simultaneously. When the latter are excluded the dimension *calm* and *destination-self-congruity* also contribute significantly. When *pleasantness* is not considered, *destination-self-congruity* represents the only significant effect on *overall image*. That is, the dimension *simple* appears irrelevant in this context, whereas *destination-self-congruity* may contribute indirectly, being closely related with *pleasantness* (see chapter 9.1.2.)²²². The other two dimensions are not correlated with *pleasantness*, as resulting from *PCA* with *VARIMAX* rotation. However, *simple* and *calm* are significantly and positively correlated

²²² As no causal relation was suggested between *DSC* and *AII*, though, *DSC* is not included in the calculation of total effects in table 29. In order to highlight causal relationships, the path model presented in figure 35 also neither includes this correlation nor the identified effects of cognitive factors on *DSC*.

with *nature* and negatively with *action/ fun* (see chapter 9.1.1.), so that their impact on *overall image*, however small, is indirectly given.

Consequently, *hypothesis 1d) concerning the effect of all image elements on overall image can be considered largely confirmed*, especially with *pleasantness* as a surrogate for affective image. When considering the other two, however less convincing affective dimensions and *DSC*, this confirmation is less evident, if solely based on path-analysis. It is still justifiable when considering the correlation between affective and cognitive variables and that between *DSC* and *pleasantness*.

When analyzing the moderating impact of psycho-graphic traveler-type on the relationship between *destination-self-congruity* and *overall image* in the context of affective image impacts, the hypothesis about the effect of *destination-self-congruity* being strongest for psycho-centric tourists and weakest for the allo-centric is confirmed.

Regression of <i>OI</i> on <i>AI</i> and <i>DSC</i> (psycho-centric)					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.380	A1 (pleasant)	0.300	4.822	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.131	A2 (simple)	0.014	0.241	0.809
		A3 (calm)	0.044	0.745	0.457
		DSC	0.154	2.497	0.013
Regression of <i>OI</i> on <i>AI</i> and <i>DSC</i> (mid-centric)					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.500	A1 (pleasant)	0.440	16.542	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.247	A2 (simple)	-0.011	-0.440	0.660
		A3 (calm)	0.067	2.632	0.009
		DSC	0.137	5.126	0.000
Regression of <i>OI</i> on <i>AI</i> and <i>DSC</i> (allo-centric)					
		Variable	Stand. Beta	t	Sig.
<i>Multiple R</i>	0.579	A1 (pleasant)	0.469	9.190	0.000
<i>Adj. R Squared</i>	0.336	A2 (simple)	-0.073	-1.489	0.138
		A3 (calm)	0.210	4.231	0.000
		DSC	0.101	1.995	0.047

Table 30. Moderating effect of psycho-graphic type on regressions of *OI* on *DSC* and *AI*

Finally, the relationship between imagery variables and other image variables, particularly overall impression, is analyzed. For that purpose the effect of imagery variables relating to specific themes was analyzed. A series of t-tests confronting means of image dimension scales of those respondents indicating specific image categories and those not, revealed the following pattern²²³:

²²³ These tests were applied whenever image categories resulted in sufficiently large groups (smallest N=46), as in this case a violation of the assumption of normality does not interfere much with test results, being relatively robust when samples are larger than N=30 (Pestana & Gageiro, 1998: 147-148). When the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, as indicated by Levene's test, the alternative value of the t-test, as given by the SPSS output, was used. Only those differences with a significance-level of at least 0.05 are mentioned. Summated scales were used permitting the inclusion of a larger amount of respondents.

- Those referring to *nature* aspects when freely eliciting destination images tended to perceive the region as *calmer*, less *similar*, worse in terms of *basics* and *socializing/ action/ fun*.
- Those eliciting *culture images* tended to perceive the region as less *colorful/ pleasant*, as less *similar*, but better in terms of *culture*.
- Those indicating *development* features to distinguish the region revealed no significant image differences compared to those who did not refer to these features.
- Respondents who indicated *climate* as characteristic of the destination perceived it less *calm*, *simple* and *similar*, worse in terms of *nature*, but better in terms of *socializing/ action/ fun*.
- Those stressing elements of *gastronomy* tended to perceive the region as more *colorful/ pleasant*, but worse in terms of *nature*.
- Respondents referring particularly to *people* as distinctive of North Portugal tended to perceive the region as more *colorful/ pleasant*, as less *calm* and *simple*, as worse in terms of *nature* and *culture*, but better in terms of *basics* and *socializing/ action/ fun*.
- Finally, most image differences could be observed for respondents who indicated a *negative image aspect* as distinctive of the destination versus those who did not. As could be expected, those negatively impressed respondents perceived nearly everything as significantly more negative and to a larger degree than the before-mentioned differences. The region was considered less *pleasant/ colorful*, less *calm*, *simple* and *similar*, worse in terms of *nature*, *basics*, *socializing/ action/ fun*, *information* and *global impression*.

This analysis shows that most elicited image categories (except for developmental features) are related to other affective and cognitive image dimensions. It may be surprising that the indication of nature aspects is not significantly related to the image-dimension *nature*. Higher degrees of consistency are visible for *culture* (related to the culture dimension) and *people* (related to *basics* and *socializing/ action/ fun*). Of further interest is the positive relation between *climate* and *socializing/ action/ fun*. This may confirm the hedonist motivation of “*sun-lust*” travelers. However, a relation with the dimension *basics* could not be found, as might be expected.

The overall affective image factor *colorful/ pleasant/ warm* was only found as negatively related to *culture* and *negative images* and as positively related to *gastronomy* and *people*. Finally, ***overall image could only be found directly*** (inversely) ***related to the indication of negative destination features***, which was further the strongest indicator for most negative image evaluations.

In summary, the hypothesis of imagery elements impacting directly on holistic image is not confirmed, except for the elicitation of negative impressions. On the other hand, the identified relationships with other image dimensions suggest an indirect impact in most cases.

Chapter 9.2. Image Determinants

Independent variables likely to have an impact on image formation are studied next. The image variables considered are:

- the three most consistent affective image dimensions (*pleasant, simple, calm*), identified via PCA,
- the “*different-similar scale*”, reflecting *destination-self-congruity (DSC)*,
- the five cognitive image factors (*nature, basics*²²⁴, *fun, information, culture*), identified via PCA,
- the computed indicator of *functional congruity (FC)* and
- the *overall image scale*.

Impacts should be reflected by image differences and may be studied both via non-parametric tests and ANOVA, depending on the distributions of dependent variables. As conditions for ANOVA are not always given and in order to make the approaches more uniform and comparable non-parametric tests were preferred²²⁵. To facilitate analyses between groups (categories of independent variables) and considering the complexity of potential relationships, independent variables were used in a more aggregated form.

The eventual simultaneous impact of other independent variables on identified image differences, i.e. interaction effects, were also considered. All first-order interaction effects were analyzed. When first-order interaction could be identified, leading to the elimination, substantial reduction or alteration of the main effect pattern for a category, eventual second-order interaction was analyzed. This was done in particular with categories of another variable, which were closely related.²²⁶

²²⁴ Although PCA identified a single factor that may reflect a *welcoming atmosphere*, this composite variable includes seven thematically slightly different aspects (accommodation, gastronomy, climate, sympathy, ease of communication, infrastructure and price). Therefore, whenever an independent variable revealed a significant effect on *basics*, mostly independent of interaction, this variable’s effect on each single item was analyzed on cross-sectional data.

²²⁵ In any case, even if punctually ANOVA with factor scores could have been applied, a more consistent approach was sought, using the same technique for all situations, which facilitates comprehension and permits comparison. As **Gliner & Morgan** (2000: 203) explain “*little power is lost in using these tests, so it is probably wise to use them when assumptions are markedly violated*”. Mostly both approaches lead to similar results in terms of acceptance and direction of differences, being the non-parametric version eventually more conservative which should improve validity of results. Two of these tests were used:

- a) **Mann-Whitney U** is a non-parametric equivalent to the t test, using ranks of cases. It requires an ordinal level of measurement. U is the number of times a value in the first group precedes a value in the second group, when values are sorted in ascending order.
- b) **Kruskal-Wallis** is a non-parametric equivalent to one-way ANOVA, which tests whether two independent samples are from the same population. It assumes that the dependent variable has a continuous distribution, and requires an ordinal level of measurement.

²²⁶ For example if Portuguese and repeat visitors showed the same substantial regional differences, but foreigners did not, it was tested whether foreign repeat visitors still perceived these differences. If so, repeating the visit would be more relevant than belonging to the nationality group for perceiving regional image differences.

CHAPTER 9. HYPOTHESES TESTING

For this purpose, the association between independent variables must be assessed. As variables can all be presented as either nominal or ordinal, this is done via cross-tabulations. In the following table only those relationships are shown, which show at least 60 percent of the *row category* in the *column category* (e.g. 63 percent of Minho visitors came in the high season). However, this particular over-representation of one category must simultaneously not correspond to a general pattern of over-representation in the sample (e.g. most respondents are in the mid-range of age, so that a corresponding overrepresentation in single categories would be expected). Further, those percentages above 65 percent in each category are highlighted, as they should be considered as particularly relevant for interaction testing. This table also shows the percentages of respondents pertaining to each category and the percentage of valid responses considered for hypothesis testing, as visible in brackets in the shadowed rows.

Region (VR=86%)	Minho (37%)	Douro (32%)	Trás-os-Montes (31%)	
Season	63 percent HS	64 percent LS		
Prior Visit		63 percent RV	65 percent RV	
Length of Stay	70 percent >4days	70 percent SB		
Domestic-Foreign Market	68 percent F	75 percent P		
Season (VR=93%)	High (51%)	Low (49%)		
Prior Visit		65 percent RV		
Length of Stay	67 percent >4d	67 percent SB		
Domestic-Foreign Market		62 percent P		
Prior Visit (VR=96%)	Repeat Visitor (58%)	Newcomer (42%)		
Domestic-Foreign Market	71 percent P	74 percent F		
Length of Stay (VR=89%)	Short break (45%)	> 4 days (55%)		
Season	66 percent low	68 percent high		
Prior Visit	66 percent RV			
Domestic-Foreign Market	76 percent P	71 percent F		
Purpose of Visit (VR=89%)	Holidays (72%)	+ Business (12%)	+ VFR (11%)	
Prior Visit		72 percent RV	78 percent RV	
Length of Stay		78 percent SB	74 percent >4 days	
Domestic-Foreign Market		76 percent P		
Benefit Segments (VR=67%)	Urban (22%)	Calm Rural (31%)	Active Rural (26%)	Simple (21%)
Prior Visit			72 percent RV	
Length of Stay			63 percent SB	
Domestic-Foreign Market		61 percent F	78 percent P	
Gender				65 percent male
Gender (VR=98%)	Male (51%)	Female (49%)		
Prior Visit	63 percent RV			
Nationality Group (VR=100%)	Portuguese (49%)	Foreign (51%)		
Prior Visit	80 percent RV	63 percent NC		
Length of Stay	73 percent SB	74 percent >4 days		
Age (VR=98%)	<25 years (22%)	25-55 years (62%)	> 55 years (16%)	
Prior Visit	62.5 percent RV			
Length of Stay			70 percent >4 days	
Domestic-Foreign Market	69 percent P		71 percent F	
Education (VR=80%)	Low (24%)	Medium (26%)	High (50%)	
Prior Visit	71 percent RV	68 percent RV		
Domestic-Foreign Market	71 percent P			

Table 31. Relevant correlation between nominal independent variables

The first sub-chapter shows a more detailed analysis, in order to highlight the processes used, especially in terms of interaction analyses undertaken. The following sub-chapters only show the most striking differences found by first-and second-order interaction analysis. The interested reader may study relationships in detail, analyzing summary tables in appendix H.

Chapter 9.2.1. The Effect of Stimulus Context – Sub-Region visited

Hypothesis 2.1.a) states that *destination images* for North Portugal differ in content and favorableness according to the *visited sub-region* (Minho, Douro, Trás-os-Montes). Especially those *knowing the region better*, i.e. *Portuguese* and *repeat visitors*, should perceive differences. Largest differences are also expected between the *coastal Minho* and the *interior regions* (Douro Valley and Trás-os-Montes). The latter should be evaluated as more *calm, simple and natural*, with *poorer infrastructure (basics, information)* and *opportunities of socializing/ fun*.

As previously discussed, literature about North Portugal suggests the existence of differences between Minho, Douro, and Trás-os-Montes, the destination's three rural sub-regions. As tourists could be distinguished according to the sub-region, where they have principally spent their holidays, a Kruskal-Wallis test of image differences between tourists visiting these regions could be undertaken. This test showed significant differences, as visible in appendix G.

Generally, *Minho was viewed as relatively less calm and simple*, being the perception of its *nature inferior* to the other regions. *Trás-os-Montes* was perceived as *more simple and similar to the respondent*. The *Douro* region was perceived as *less pleasant and colorful, worse in terms of functional congruity and overall image*, specifically *worse in terms of basics and action/ fun*. That is, the suggested direction of differences was only partly confirmed, particularly as far as the less simple, calm and natural image of the Minho region is concerned. However, the more interior regions are not perceived as homogeneously, with particularly the Douro standing out with a more negative image of *infrastructures and fun*.

Results of this cross-sectional analysis in terms of relative position of each region on a set of image variables are shown in table 32, where differences were statistically significant at a level of at least 0.05. The tendency of deviation is indicated by a *plus* or *minus* sign before the image component. If only one category was significantly different from the others, only this is indicated. This implies a contrary effect of the other two regions on this variable and no significant difference between the latter. Otherwise several more significant patterns are shown²²⁷.

²²⁷ Some differences between groups could not be directly derived from a visual comparison of mean ranks, requiring post-hoc tests with Mann-Whitney U.

MINHO	DOURO	TRÁS-OS-MONTES
	- pleasant	
- calm		
- simple		+ simple + similar
- nature		
	- basics	
	- fun/ action	
	- FC	
	- overall image	

Table 32. Image differences according to sub-regions on cross-sectional data

Note: differences are presented in the order in which they were tested (affective, cognitive, overall image)

Considering potential *interaction effects*, the same test was repeated controlling for other potential co-determinants. In order to facilitate analysis of these effects, the above-mentioned procedure was translated into a comparative table. This table shows most relevant differences as identified via non-parametric tests. For illustrating the procedure, part of this table is presented in the case of the first independent variable tested (table 33). The others are included in the appendix.

	Portuguese			Foreigner			Repeat Visitors			New-Comers			short-break			> 4 days		
	Minho	Douro	T-o-M	Minho	Douro	T-o-M	Minho	Douro	T-o-M	Minho	Douro	T-o-M	Minho	Douro	T-o-M	Minho	Douro	T-o-M
pleasant		(-)					(+)		(-)		(-)		(-)					
calm	(-)						(-)			(-)			(-)					
simple	(-)						(-)			(-)			(-)					
similar		(+)									(+)							(+)
nature				(-)						(-)						(-)		
basics										(+)								
fun																		(+)
information	(+)										(+)		(+)					(+)
culture																		
FC	(+)												(+)					
OI													(+)					

Table 33. Interaction effects of independent variables on regional image differences

Regional differences were particularly found with the *Portuguese*, for whom the Minho had a slightly better image and the Douro a markedly worse. On the other hand, *foreigners* hardly perceived any regional differences, except for a more negative impression of *nature* in the Minho and of *fun* in the Douro region.

Repeat visitors basically confirmed image differences found for Portuguese. Controlling further for second-order interactions, especially **Portuguese repeat visitors** confirmed the previously identified regional differences whereas they hardly held for foreign repeat visitors. That is, the belonging to the domestic market is more relevant than the fact of repeating the visit for perceiving regional image differences. **Newcomers**, on the other hand, did not perceive as many and strong differences, independently of being foreign visitors or Portuguese. It appears that coming for the first time reduces regional difference perceptions.

Those tourists staying for only a **short-break** tended to confirm regional differences found for the Portuguese, with a particularly favorable image of the Minho and a negative of the Douro region. This is due to the predominance of Portuguese short-break visitors, as **foreign short break visitors** hardly perceived any difference. A **longer stay** generally reduced these differences, also for Portuguese visitors. Only a positive deviation for Trás-os-Montes was found and a more negative impression of nature in the Minho.

In the **low season regional image differences were more pronounced**, especially those concerning the negative image of the Douro region. This pattern was stronger for **Portuguese** than **foreign tourists**. **Short break visitors in the low season** confirmed the negative image of the Douro region, but not those **staying longer**, who only revealed a more positive image of Trás-os-Montes. That is, generally the negative image of the Douro region seems to be rather due to the predominance of Portuguese short break visitors in that season. In the **high season**, fewer image differences were found, independent of length of stay. In this season, the Douro was perceived as more favorably in terms of culture and nature, although **Portuguese** revealed a more negative image of the Douro region again.

When examining **travel purpose**, those tourists staying only for a holiday mostly confirmed the global pattern. However, **those also staying for business reasons** perceived fewer differences and **those visiting friends and family** perceived no significant regional differences at all.

The **youngest visitors** revealed a more ambivalent image of the Douro region. They perceived it as calmer, simpler and better in terms of nature, but worse in terms of basics and fun. On the other hand, they viewed the Minho as more pleasant and generally better, although worse in terms of nature. The **mid-aged** confirmed the overall pattern. **Older visitors** hardly perceived any significant differences, even if belonging to the domestic market or coming for a short-break. **Female** visitors perceived the Douro as calmer and better in terms of nature, but less pleasant and generally worse, whereas the Minho was generally viewed more positively. **Male** visitors confirmed the negative image of the Douro and perceived Trás-os-Montes as more similar, calm and simple. However, these gender-specific differences were **only found for the Portuguese** again.

The *low-level education* group showed a particular pattern for both the foreign and the domestic market, although both confirmed the more negative image of the Douro region. Portuguese in this group identified more with Trás-os-Montes and foreign tourists viewed the Minho as better. The *higher education groups* mostly confirmed the overall difference pattern found for the Minho and Douro, but primarily in the case of *Portuguese*.

Urbans and *Active Rurals* revealed regional differences concerning Minho and Douro again, although in a less pronounced way. The last group, apart from a generally worse image of the Douro, viewed it as calmer and better in terms of nature. *Calm Rurals* and particularly *Simplists* perceived fewest differences, confirming a slightly poorer image of the Douro region. However, these differences were *only found for Portuguese* again.

In summary, the globally identified regional differences *held particularly for Portuguese, especially those coming for a short-break and as repeat visitors and were especially related to a more negative image of the Douro region*. Foreigners, newcomers, those staying for longer periods, those visiting friends and relatives, older visitors and the benefit-segments *Calm Rurals* and *Simplists* hardly perceived any regional differences.

When considering all first-order interaction effects, the following differences were most confirmed (The percentage presents the number of significant differences in relation to the total number of categories tested for interaction-effects. This must reveal a correspondence of at least 40% to be shown. Most relevant tendencies are highlighted, if percentages are above 60%.):

MINHO	DOURO	TRÁS-OS-MONTES
	- pleasant (74%)	
- calm (70%)		
- simple (61%)		
- nature (52%)		
	- basics (83%) ²²⁸	
	- fun (74%)	
	- overall image (57%)	

Table 34. Most confirmed regional image differences

One may thus conclude that *hypothesis 2.1.a) is partly confirmed* insofar as regional differences could be found and were relatively strong. However, not all respondent-groups identified differences. The fact that *Portuguese repeat visitors* perceived more differences may confirm the suggested relationship “*the more knowledgeable, the more differences perceived*”. On the other hand, foreign repeat visitors did not confirm these differences. This may be due to a culturally

²²⁸ Identifying the effect on each aspect of this slightly heterogeneous factor, the negative evaluation of all aspects in the Douro region is observable. However, accommodation, gastronomy, infrastructure and climate stand out as particularly worse. Only ease of communication was judged worse in the Minho, which should be due to the predominance of the foreign market in this region.

shaped different type of knowledge, but also eventually reflect a higher level of involvement of those coming repeatedly from longer distances for a holiday. The *importance of involvement and motivational structure* may be confirmed by the fact that longer stays, visits of friends and relatives, older age and benefits sought eliminated perceived differences also for the Portuguese. The argument that stronger involvement seems to reduce perceived differences is plausible as image differences were mainly found for the Douro region and these were in a negative direction. Further, the suggested difference between the coastal Minho and the interior regions could also be only partly confirmed, mostly for the Minho and Douro regions in the suggested directions.

Chapter 9.2.2. The Effect of Stimulus Context – Season of Stay

Hypothesis 2.1.b) suggests that *destination images* for North Portugal differ in content and favorableness according to the season of the year:

- *Seasonal differences should especially relate to the affective image factor “pleasant/ warm”²²⁹ and eventually the perception of “action/ fun/ socializing”, as these aspects are naturally more perceivable in the high season, due to temperature, type of tourism and supply.*
- *The low season has been identified as less crowded and should therefore be perceived as more calm. This may result in correspondingly more positive or negative images, depending on the tourists’ motivational background.*

Mann-Whitney U tests on cross-sectional data revealed that generally the *low season* is viewed as *more simple, calm* and *similar* to the respondent. The image of *nature, information, culture* and *functional congruity* is also *better*. Tourists in the *high season* perceived North Portugal as *more pleasant/ warm/ colorful and better in terms of action/ socializing/ fun*. This confirms the suggestions of hypothesis 2.1.b). The importance and pattern of seasonal difference perceptions may be moderated by interaction with other variables, though.

HIGH SEASON	LOW SEASON
+ pleasant/ warm/ colorful	
	+ calm
	+ simple
	+ similar
	+ nature
+ fun	
	+ information
	+ culture
	+ functional congruity

Table 35. Image differences according to seasons on cross-sectional data

Thus, *Portuguese* perceived the region as slightly more pleasant in the high season, simpler and culturally more interesting in the low. *Foreigners* perceived it as better in terms of fun in the high season, calmer and better in terms of nature, information and functional congruity in the low.

²²⁹ If this is confirmed, the relevance of the aspect “warm”, as most determined by climate, is analyzed.

Seasonal differences were much less important in the case of the Minho and Douro regions. The *Minho* was perceived as slightly better in the low season and the *Douro* slightly better in the high. The better image of the Douro region in the high season can be linked to the increased presence of foreign tourists in that period. *Trás-os-Montes* visitors in the low season generally perceived the region as substantially simpler and in many aspects better.

Both *repeat visitors* and *newcomers* confirmed a slightly more pleasant/ warm image of the high season and a better image of nature in the low. However, only newcomers perceived more *fun*, but worse information and less similarity in the high season. Only repeat visitors perceived the destination as more calm, simple and culturally interesting in the low season. Interaction tests show that this is related to the predominance of either the domestic or the foreign market in each group.

Short-break visitors hardly perceived any seasonal image differences, whereas those *staying for longer periods* mostly confirmed the overall seasonal difference pattern (table 35). Portuguese staying longer perceived the low season as slightly better, whereas foreign visitors in the same condition only perceived *fun* more favorably in the high season.

Seasonal image differences were less evident for those *visiting friends and family*, those also staying for *business purposes* and *benefit segments*. They were partly found for *Urbans* who viewed the region as better in the low season and *Simplists*, who perceived it as more calm and simple in the low season, but as better in terms of basics and fun in the high.

The *oldest age group* perceived no significant seasonal image differences at all. *Gender* did not affect the global seasonal image difference pattern much, although the male revealed more positive biases for the low season than did the female. *Educational level* affects seasonal image differences in so far as those with *lower and medium education levels* perceived the region more positively in the low season, whereas tourists with *higher education* perceived it generally better in the high.

The globally most confirmed image differences, when controlling for first-order interaction, were:

HIGH SEASON	LOW SEASON
+ pleasant/ warm/ colorful ²³⁰ (42%)	
	+ calm (46%)
	+ simple (58%)
	+ nature (58%)
+ fun (42%)	
	+ information (50%)
	+ culture (50%)

Table 36. Most confirmed seasonal image differences

²³⁰ When isolating the effect on single aspects, although all pointing to a tendency of better evaluations in the high season, the difference in terms of “warm-cold” was particularly significant (at the 0.001 level), whereas the other two scales showed only differences at the 0.05 level.

Summarizing, seasonal image differences were identified as *more pronounced for Trás-os-Montes*, tourists staying for *more than four days* and *only holiday* reasons. The difference pattern is slightly different for Portuguese and foreign tourists. Differences were minor for the Minho and Douro regions, short-break visitors, business tourists and those visiting friends and relatives, older visitors, *Calm and Active Rural* benefit segments. This points at a larger degree of homogeneity in these groups in terms of seasonal image pattern. Interaction tests revealed the importance of the Portuguese versus foreign market. They further confirmed the strong individual effect of the older age group, specific travel purposes and benefit segments.

The *type of image differences found*, with the *high season* being perceived as slightly more *pleasant/ warm and fun* and the *low season* as *more calm*, confirms suggested relations. Some tourists perceived the low season as better (e.g. tourists staying in Trás-os-Montes, male tourists or Portuguese staying longer). Others perceived the high season as more favorable (e.g. visitors of the Douro region and those with a higher level of education). These differences may be linked to different motivational backgrounds and types of involvement with the destination, when coming in different seasons. However, an exact relationship between motivation and the mentioned independent variables affecting seasonal image differences cannot be established. As an example, Trás-os-Montes may generally be perceived as more pleasant in the low season as a matter of a specific stimulus context, whereas the better image of the Douro region in the high season should be rather related to the increased number of foreigners in this season. That is, *hypothesis 2.1.b. is partly confirmed*, in terms of existence of seasonal image differences, with suggested directions being largely confirmed. Interaction with other variables dilutes seasonal image differences and partly changes its overall pattern, though.

Chapter 9.2.3. The Effect of Motivation: Global Motivation/ Purpose of Travel

According to *hypothesis 2.2.a) destination images* for North Portugal *differ* in content and favorableness according to *general motivational context or purpose of visit* (holiday, VFR, business-related). Due to different degrees of involvement:

- *those staying also for business reasons should view the destination more negatively,*
- *those staying only for a holiday more positively and*
- *those visiting friends and relatives as most positively.*

When analyzing differences related to holiday purposes on an aggregated basis it was found that those *visiting friends and relatives* perceived the region as significantly *better* in terms of *basics* and *culture*. Those combining holidays with *business* considered *basics and functional congruity* most negatively and *showed the worst overall and affective image*. Tourists staying for *holiday*

purposes only viewed the region as *worse in terms of fun*. These overall results mostly confirm the suggested hypothesis, especially concerning the least and most involving travel purposes.

HOLIDAYS + BUSINESS	ONLY HOLIDAYS	HOLIDAYS + VFR
- pleasant/ warm		
- basics		+ basics
	- fun/ action	
		+ culture
- functional congruity		
- overall image		

Table 37. Image differences according to holiday purposes on cross-sectional data

Portuguese perceived substantially fewer differences due to holiday purpose, whereas the *foreign* market mostly confirmed the overall difference pattern related to purpose of trip.

Controlling for interaction with *regions*, differences are only poorly confirmed, mostly by business tourists staying in the Minho. Both *repeat visitors* and *newcomers* showed a slightly positive bias when visiting friends and family. Only *foreign repeat visitors* further confirmed the negative bias of business travelers. *Portuguese newcomers* revealed no travel-purpose-related differences.

Short-break visitors showed hardly any travel-purpose-related image differences, whereas *those staying longer* confirmed differences partly. In the *high season* the overall difference pattern was largely confirmed, in the *low season* only slightly. Second-order interaction tests showed that the predominance of the domestic versus foreign market in each group was largely responsible for the identified difference-pattern rather than length of stay or season.

When isolating *benefit segments* image differences nearly disappear. Benefit segments showed, again, a strong homogeneous pattern of perceptions. Also the *oldest age group* hardly perceived any purpose-related differences. Only those with *higher education* confirmed some image differences, particularly when belonging to the foreign market. Several interaction effects are therefore visible, diluting image differences due to travel purpose. The globally most confirmed image difference was only:

Holidays + business	ONLY HOLIDAYS	HOLIDAYS + VFR
		+ basics ²³¹ (65%)

Table 38. Most confirmed image differences due to travel purpose

Image differences according to travel purpose hold *particularly for foreign tourists*, especially the negative bias of business travelers. This is particularly true for those with a higher education and

²³¹ Considering single aspects included in this factor, the identified pattern was most visible for climate, food and infrastructure, but insignificant for ease of communication.

repeating their visit, independently of length of stay and season. This result may be linked to a higher expectation of foreign tourists, especially when coming with a business purpose, being particularly critical in that case. However, the effect of global motivational differences is only poorly confirmed. The fact that older age, some sub-regions, the domestic market and benefit segments did not confirm the difference pattern, demonstrates these variables' effect in leading to a more homogeneous image.

The content of image was found as generally *most negative for tourists with a business purpose and most positive for those visiting friends and relatives*. Those spending only holidays could be classified as in the middle between the two extremes. They only perceived fun (foreign tourists) and culture (Portuguese tourists) as relatively worse. Concluding, *hypothesis 2.2.a) and its extensions are partly confirmed*.

Chapter 9.2.4. The Effect of Motivation: Benefits sought and Benefit Segments

Hypothesis 2.2.b) assumes that *destination images* for North Portugal *differ* in content and favorableness according to *specific motivational context or benefits sought*.

➤ *It is suggested that there is a tendency of benefit dimensions perceived corresponding to those sought, being this correspondence the stronger, the more familiar the respondent with the region.*

➤ *It is further suggested that respondents belonging to the benefit segment identified as Urbans perceive the region as most negatively and the two "rural" segments as most positively, given the rural nature of the destination, coinciding with their "rural motivation".*

Benefits sought have been identified via importance ratings and summarized in benefit factors or dimensions (see pp.223-224), which were analyzed in terms of correlation, revealing that²³²:

1. The *benefit dimension "information"* is positively correlated with the perception of *information (0.264)*, *basics (0.171)*, *culture (0.117)* and *nature (0.106)*.
2. The *benefit dimension "nature"* is most positively correlated with the image of *nature (0.389)*, the feeling of *destination-self congruity (0.171)*, *functional congruity (0.166)*, the perception of a *calm (0.192)* and *simple (0.167)* atmosphere and a positive *overall impression (0.114)*.
3. The *benefit dimension "action/ fun/ socializing"* is most positively correlated with image of *"action/ fun/ socializing" (0.430)*, and negatively with that of a *calm* atmosphere (-0.140).
4. The *benefit dimension "basics"* is most positively correlated with the image of *basics (0.277)*, *nature (0.230)*, *culture (0.149)* and *information (0.101)*. It is also positively related to the impression of *simplicity (0.158)* and a *pleasant, warm and colorful* atmosphere (0.121). Consequently, a positive correlation can also be found for *functional congruity (0.145)* and *overall image (0.106)*.

²³² Only those values of Pearson correlation above 0.10 are presented, being the correlation significant at the 0.01 level. The Pearson correlation coefficient is shown in brackets.

5. The *benefit dimension “culture”* shows a strong positive correlation with the perception of *culture* (0.426), being further positively related to the image of *nature* (0.139) and *basics* (0.129), as well as to *functional congruity* (0.130).
6. The *benefit dimension “food and lodging”* shows only a positive correlation to the image of *basics* (0.181).

It is striking that *generally people tended to find what they were looking for*, with a positive correlation existing for all dimensions, but especially for *action/ fun/ socializing, culture* and *nature*. All benefit factors are significantly correlated with image dimensions. This shows an important impact of benefits sought on destination perceptions. The most influencing benefit factors, in terms of determining several image dimensions, are *basics, nature* and *information*, the less influencing are *food & lodging* and *action/ fun/ socializing*. Those benefit factors determining most *overall image* are *nature* and *basics*, meaning that people looking particularly for corresponding benefits are globally most positively impressed by the destination.

Further *familiarity is controlled* for in terms of repeat visitors versus newcomers and Portuguese versus foreign market. Repeat visitors tended to confirm the presence of benefits sought more than newcomers, except for the dimensions *action/ fun/ socializing* and *food & lodging*. Portuguese tended to confirm the presence of benefits sought more than foreign tourists, except for *action/ fun/ socializing* and *culture*. There is consequently some, but no perfect, evidence suggesting that the more familiar with the region, the more benefits sought are found.

When comparing benefit segments using Kruskal-Wallis tests, *Urbans* stand out with a *more negative image* of North Portugal in terms of *nature, basics, culture, functional congruity, affective* and *overall image*. This group only perceived *fun* better than other segments. They further viewed the region as *less calm, simple and similar*. The *second most negative image* could be found for *Simplists*. They viewed the region as *less pleasant/ colorful*, worse in terms of *nature, culture*, and particularly *basics* and *fun*. The *most positive image* was found for *Active Rurals* in all aspects. Also *Calm Rurals* perceived the region as relatively better, especially in terms of *nature, basics, information, culture, functional congruity* and *overall image* as well as *affective image*, but worse in terms of *fun*.

The overall pattern is basically confirmed, independent of regions, prior visit, length of stay, season, nationality group, proximity, gender or education. Differences are particularly confirmed for the *cognitive image* components. As far as *pleasantness, simplicity and destination-self-congruity* feelings are concerned, differences could not be identified between *foreign* benefit-segments and those staying in the *Minho* region. The *oldest age group* only revealed the more positive image pattern of the *Active Rurals* and the more negative pattern of *Simplists*. Those

travelers coming *also for business reasons* and *visiting friends and relatives* perceived relatively fewer benefit-segment differences.

URBANS	CALM RURALS	ACTIVE RURALS	SIMPLISTS
- calm (72%)	+ calm (45%)		
- simple (64%)		+ simple (68%)	
- similar (55%)		+ similar (68%)	
- nature (96%)	+ nature (68%)	+ nature (100%)	- nature (68%)
- basics (68%)	+ basics (50%)	+ basics (96%)	- basics (100%) ²³³
+ fun (77%)	- fun (86%)	+ fun (86%)	- fun (96%)
		+ information (86%)	- information (91%)
- culture (82%)	+ culture (77%)	+ culture (86%)	- culture (91%)
- functional congruity (86%)		+ functional congruity (41%)	
- overall image (73%)	+ overall image (55%)	+ overall image (64%)	- overall image (41%)

Table 39. Most confirmed image differences due to benefit-segments

Diverse interaction tests revealed that *differences between benefit-segments were so strong that they were basically confirmed in nearly all situations*. That is, benefits sought affect destination image substantially, *strongly confirming hypothesis 2.2.b*). Only an older age-level and a travel purpose not only related to holidays diminishes this effect. Also the suggested *direction of differences for benefit-segments could be confirmed*. This is also true for *the tendency of perceiving most was is sought most*, with *familiarity partly increasing this pattern*, as suggested.

Chapter 9.2.5. The Effect of Traveling Context: Length of Stay

According to *Hypothesis 2.3) destination images* for North Portugal *differ* in content and favorableness according to *length of stay*. *It is suggested that those staying longer times perceive the destination as more positive due to their higher level of involvement*.

SHORT-BREAK VISITOR	TOURIST STAYING FOR > 4DAYS
	+ pleasant/ warm/ colorful
+ calm	
+ simple	
+ similar	
+ nature	
	+ basics
	+ fun
+ culture	
	+ overall image

Table 40. Image differences due to length of stay on cross-sectional data

²³³ The particularly negative tendency of the segment *Simplists* is confirmed in all single aspects constituting the factor *basics*, but particularly for the items communication, sympathy and infrastructure. *Active Rurals* stand out particularly positively in terms of climate and communication and *Calm Rurals* in terms of price.

When analyzing image differences between short-break visitors and those staying longer, generally, *short-break visitors perceived North Portugal as more calm, simple, similar and better in terms of nature and culture*. Those tourists *staying for longer periods* viewed the region as *more pleasant/ colorful, better in terms of basics, fun and overall image*.

When controlling for interaction, the strongest differential effect becomes evident for the foreign versus the domestic market. *Portuguese* generally perceived the *region better when staying for more than four days*. They only viewed the region as more calm when coming for a short-break. *Foreign* tourists perceived the region as significantly *more positive when coming for a short-break*. The difference between Portuguese and foreign tourists must be considered when analyzing the effect of other variables.

Short-break visitors of the Minho revealed a substantially better image of the region than did tourists staying longer. This pattern was shaped by the predominance of the foreign market, as Portuguese did not reveal any significant difference due to length of stay. In the *Douro region tourists staying longer* perceived the destination as more pleasant, better in terms of basics, fun and overall image and short break visitors only as more calm, simple and better in terms of nature. The predominance of the domestic market determined this pattern. Foreign Douro visitors actually perceived the region only more pleasant when staying longer, but in no case better when coming for a short break. The pattern of foreign tourists in the Douro region differs thereby from that of foreign tourists in general. Finally, in *Trás-os-Montes* short-break visitors perceived the region slightly better (despite the predominance of the domestic market).

Repeat visitors mostly confirmed the overall pattern and in particular the better destination image when staying longer. However, foreign repeat visitors only slightly followed this pattern. On the other hand, *newcomers* perceived the region as better in most aspects when coming for a short-break. These results reflect the before stated patterns of the domestic (mostly repeat visitors) versus foreign market (mostly newcomers). Portuguese newcomers, though, perceived no significant differences due to length of stay. That is, significant image differences could only be confirmed for *Portuguese repeat visitors* (better for longer stays) and *foreign newcomers* (better for short-break visits).

Seasons do not interact much with length of stay nor does *gender*. When looking at *age*, *only the oldest* did not perceive any difference at the 0.01 level according to length of stay, confirming the already stated perceptual homogeneity of this group. Those *visiting friends and relatives* only confirmed a few image differences due to length of stay. Considering education only the *low-level education group* showed a distinct pattern, viewing the region more positively when traveling as short-break visitors, despite of the dominance of Portuguese and repeat visitors in this group. The

benefit-segments also basically confirmed the overall pattern, however Urbans and Simplists in a more pronounced way and Active Rurals in only a few points.

SHORT-BREAK VISITOR	TOURIST STAYING FOR > 4DAYS
	+ pleasant/ warm/ colorful (50%)
+ calm (88%)	
+ simple (67%)	
+ similar (63%)	
+ nature (92%)	
	+ basics (46%) ²³⁴
	+ fun (46%)
	+ overall image (42%)

Table 41. Most confirmed image differences due to length of stay

Differences between those staying for a short-break and those staying longer are therefore confirmed, except for the older age group, those visiting friends and family, and except for some interaction effects with other variables. This *mainly confirms the first part of hypothesis 2.3*.

However, *the assumption that those staying for longer perceive the destination as most favorably is not totally confirmed*. It is true, though, that overall image and global affective image is perceived generally more positively by this group, supporting the relevance of involvement. Interesting exceptions to this rule were foreign tourists, visitors of the Minho and newcomers, who viewed the region as more positively when coming for a short-break. This may reflect a very positive first impression of these foreign newcomers, which may suffer some corrections when tourists stay for longer. Eventually foreign newcomers hold exaggerated expectations, associated with a prolonged holiday, combined with low levels of prior knowledge and eventual prior misconceptions (idealization due to promotional literature) of the region. On the other hand, particularly *for Portuguese repeat visitors the rule “the longer, the better” was true*, which may show that these tourists already knew what to expect, combined with a higher degree of involvement.

Chapter 9.2.6. The Effect of Familiarity: Repeated Visit

According to *hypothesis 2.4.a) destination images* for North Portugal differ in content and favorableness according to *familiarity*, as reflected by *repeat visit*. This variable should express prior knowledge, and further some degree of involvement and habituation (*destination loyalty*). It is suggested that this relationship be moderated by *traveler type*.

²³⁴ The more positive image of *basics* by those staying longer was particularly confirmed for climate, lodging, price and infrastructure. Ease of communication was more positively viewed by short-break visitors, though, which must be due to the predominance of the domestic market, whereas a significant difference for gastronomy and sympathy due to length of stay could not be found.

- *Specifically, repeat visitors should perceive the destination as more positively and*
- *this should hold particularly for respondents of a more psycho-centric type.*

When distinguishing broadly between repeat and first-time visitors, *those repeating their visit to North Portugal perceived the region as more simple, similar and better in terms of nature.*

REPEAT VISITORS	NEWCOMERS
+ simple	
+ similar	
+ nature	

Table 42. Image differences due to prior visit state on cross-sectional data

In the *Minho*, repeat visitors perceived further *basics, information, functional congruity* and the *overall image* as significantly better. The fact that the Minho is visited mainly for longer periods and by foreign tourists may have influenced results. Indeed, short-break and Portuguese visitors viewed the Minho more homogeneously (generally better than foreigners), independent of prior visit. In *Trás-os-Montes* repeat visitors viewed further *basics* and *overall image* as better. The *Douro* region was only viewed as more *simple and similar* to repeat visitors, but better in terms of *functional congruity* by newcomers. Foreign tourists revealed a more homogeneous image of the Douro region (generally better than that held by Portuguese), independent of prior visit.

Generally, substantially *better impressions* were found for *repeat visitors staying for more than four days*, reflecting a special degree of involvement. This was particularly found for foreign tourists. On the other hand, *newcomers staying for a short-break* expressed better impressions of *fun, culture* and *functional congruity*. Portuguese short-break visitors perceived fewer differences related to prior visit, though.

Particularly *foreigners, the youngest age group* and those with *lowest and highest education level* showed a significantly more positive image when repeating their visit.

Business travelers hardly perceived any image differences due to prior visit. The *benefit segment Urbans* showed a globally more favorable image when repeating their visit, whereas *Active Rurals* hardly followed the pattern, except when staying longer.

Finally, the assumption that *psycho-centric repeat visitors* should perceive the region substantially better than *allo-centric repeat visitors* did not hold. It may be that the region is seen as sufficiently interesting and varied for *allo-centrics* not getting bored on repeated visits.

REPEAT VISITORS	NEWCOMERS
+ simple (67%)	
+ similar (100%)	
+ nature (68%)	

Table 43. Most confirmed image differences due to prior visit state

The *overall pattern is mostly confirmed, especially as far as destination-self-congruity is concerned*, but also the impression of a simpler and more natural destination is confirmed, as well as the general tendency of impressions being more positive for repeat visitors. However, there is an important interaction effect with *length of stay* and *nationality group*. Especially foreigners staying for longer periods perceived the region substantially better when repeating their visit. This should be linked to the higher degree of knowledge and involvement of foreign visitors choosing the region repeatedly for a holiday. Foreign short-break visitors, on the other hand, perceived some aspects better when coming as newcomers. This may be linked to the excitement of novelty and the already suggested eventually excessive expectations of foreign newcomers staying longer. Finally, an exceptional status of *business tourists* and *foreign tourists in the Douro and Portuguese in the Minho region* could be identified in terms of homogenizing destination image.

Hypothesis 2.4.a) is therefore partly confirmed, as far as image differences due to prior visit are concerned. A moderating effect of psycho-graphic style could not be identified, though.

Chapter 9.2.7. The Effect of Socio-Demographics: Portuguese- Foreign

According to *Hypothesis 2.5.a) destination images* for North Portugal differ in content and favorableness according to *nationality group*. *Large perceptual differences are suggested to exist between the national and foreign tourist market, due to the simultaneous effect of familiarity, knowledge and involvement as well as due to socio-cultural differences.*

PORTUGUESE	FOREIGN
+ calm	
+ simple	
+ similar	
+ nature	
	+ basics
	+ fun
	+ overall image

Table 44. Image differences according to domestic versus foreign market on cross-sectional data

Generally, *Portuguese perceived the destination as more calm, simple, similar and better* in terms of *nature*, whereas *foreigners viewed it as better in terms of basics, fun and overall image*.

In all regions, Portuguese perceived more simplicity, similarity and better nature than foreign tourists did. The *Minho* stands out as being viewed more positively and the *Douro* as more negatively by the domestic market, especially when coming as short-break visitors to the Douro region. A longer stay diminished image differences between foreign and domestic visitors in this region, while accentuating them in the Minho.

When coming as repeat or newcoming *short-break visitors*, foreign tourists viewed the destination as more favorable than Portuguese did. This should be related to a stronger degree of involvement in the first case. In the second case, it reveals a particularly positive first impression of the destination for foreign, particularly newcoming travelers staying for a few days.

No relevant interaction with the overall pattern was visible for *season* or *gender*. The *oldest* and *youngest age groups* showed a slightly deviant pattern. *Young* Portuguese revealed a more pronounced positive image pattern, whereas young foreigners did not confirm any more positive impression. The *oldest age* group perceived fewest differences, only confirming partly the pattern found for Portuguese. This was also true for tourists with *low-level education*, whereas those with *high-level education* perceived the region slightly better when belonging to the foreign market.

Business travelers perceived the region substantially better when belonging to the domestic market. *Urbans* revealed no nationality-group specific image differences, whereas other benefit-segments mostly confirmed the overall difference pattern.

One may conclude that overall differences between Portuguese and foreign tourists hold in most situations, particularly considering the image specificity of the domestic market. A more favorable image of foreign visitors could be found for the Douro region, short-break and repeat visitors. Portuguese revealed a more positive image when younger or staying in the Minho region.

PORTUGUESE	FOREIGN
+ calm (75%)	
+ simple (96%)	
+ similar (96%)	
+ nature (88%)	
	+ basics (58%) ²³⁵
	+ fun (50%)
	+ overall image (46%)

Table 45. Most confirmed image differences between Portuguese and foreign tourists

Thus, *hypothesis 2.5.a) is generally confirmed*, with a more positive image found for the domestic market in terms of *nature*, *simplicity* and a *calm* environment, as well as *destination-self-congruity*, and a partly more positive evaluation of *basics*, *fun* and *overall impression* for the foreign market. The evaluation of simplicity and destination-self-congruity reflect a natural knowledge and familiarity surplus of the domestic market. The Portuguese evaluation of the destination as more calm and better in terms of *nature* may be a socio-culturally and motivationally shaped difference. Foreign tourists may be used to higher standards and more sensitive and demanding in respect to

²³⁵ The more positive image of foreign tourists compared with the domestic market holds particularly for climate, price, lodging and infrastructure, but was in the inverse direction for ease of communication, as might have been expected, and insignificant for gastronomy and sympathy.

these aspects. On the other hand, Portuguese may be more demanding in terms of *basics* and *fun*. The globally more positive destination image of foreigners in many cases reveals a relatively higher overall satisfaction, probably due to the better perception of *basics*. It may also reveal a higher degree of involvement of those coming from farther distances, interested in an a-posteriori justification of their choice.

Chapter 9.2.8. The Effect of Socio-Demographics: Age

Hypothesis 2.5.b.) states that *destination images* for North Portugal differ in content and favorableness according to *age*. Differences are suggested to be particularly strong between the two extreme age-ranges.

Kruskal-Wallis tests revealed substantial cross-sectional image differences for age groups, especially between the youngest and oldest age group, with some correlation tendencies visible.

< 25 YEARS	25- 55 YEARS	> 55 YEARS
		+ pleasant
- calm		
		+ basics
		+ information
+ fun		
- culture		+ culture
		+ functional congruity
		+ overall image

Table 46. Image differences according to age ranges on cross-sectional data

Foreign tourists showed a particularly strong positive bias for the oldest and a negative for the youngest age group. *Portuguese* did not confirm the negative cognitive impressions of the youngest. Actually, the mid-aged group of Portuguese perceived the region worst (in terms of fun and information). The predominant length of stay of respondents in each group influenced this pattern. So, strongest differences were found for *foreign visitors staying longer*, whereas *Portuguese* perceived more age-related differences when coming for a *short-break*.

Newcomers revealed more age-related image differences than did repeat visitors, confirming the tendency “*the older the better*”. This only holds for foreign visitors, though, as differences almost disappeared for Portuguese newcomers. Among *repeat visitors* foreign tourists perceived hardly any age-related differences, contrary to the Portuguese. This contradicts the before-identified pattern for the foreign market and reveals a strong interaction effect. Resuming findings, *foreign newcomers* and *Portuguese repeat visitors* perceived most age-related differences.

Visitors of the *Minho* region perceived relatively fewer age-related image differences and visitors of the *Douro* revealed a more negative image, when belonging to the mid-age group. *Season* and *gender* hardly affected the overall difference pattern. *Educational levels* affected age-related

differences in so far as those tourists with *low-level education* perceived the region generally more negatively, when in the youngest age group. Those with higher education levels confirmed the positive bias of the oldest age. The *highest education-level* generally perceived fewer differences. Those combining holidays with business and visiting friends and relatives hardly revealed any age-related image differences, whereas those spending only holidays confirmed the above-mentioned tendency “*the older the better*”. Also *Benefit-segments* tended to perceive the region more homogeneously in terms of age-groups, except for the *Active Rurals*, who viewed the destination as better when belonging to the older age-group.

< 25 YEARS	25- 55 YEARS	> 55 YEARS
		+ pleasant (40%)
- calm (74%)		+ basics (78%) ²³⁶
		+ information (44%)
+ fun (44%)		+ overall image (61%)

Table 47. Most confirmed image differences between age ranges

Generally, a tendency of the *older age-group perceiving the region as best* could be confirmed. In some situations the mid-aged stood out as the most critical group (in the Douro, in the case of Portuguese and short-break visitors). In several cases a trend “*the older the better*” was visible. Additionally, fewer age-based image differences could be found for business travelers and those visiting friends and relatives, *Urban, Calm Rural* and *Simplist* benefit-segments. On the other hand, age-related differences were most confirmed for foreign tourists staying longer and coming for the first time, and for Portuguese short-beak and repeat visitors.

On the whole, one may consider *hypothesis 2.5.b. as largely confirmed*, particularly as far as the oldest age group is concerned, showing a persistent pattern of viewing the region more favorably. Further, differences were frequently, but not always, strongest between the extreme age groups.

Chapter 9.2.9. The Effect of Socio-Demographics: Gender

According to *hypothesis 2.5.c) destination images* for North Portugal differ in content and favorableness according to *gender*, although differences are suggested to be minor.

MALE	FEMALE
	+ nature
	+ information
	+ culture
	+ overall image

Table 48. Image differences due to gender on cross-sectional data

²³⁶ The more positive image of the oldest was particularly confirmed for the impression of infrastructure and lodging, climate, sympathy and gastronomy.

Globally North Portugal is viewed *slightly better by female* than by male tourists, particularly in terms of information and nature, but also culture and overall image.

This pattern can be particularly confirmed for the *Douro* region, however only for Portuguese and short-break visitors. In *Trás-os-Montes* no significant gender differences could be observed. *Portuguese females* confirmed the better image of nature, information and culture, whereas for *foreign females* gender-related image differences were found for overall affective image, basics, functional congruity and overall image.

Tourists staying for longer hardly perceived any gender-related image differences, nor did foreign short-break visitors. Also *repeat visitors* hardly perceived any differences, which further holds for the *oldest age group*, the *lowest education group*, *tourists visiting friends and relatives* and *benefit segments*.

MALE	FEMALE
	+ nature (42%)
	+ information (50%)
	+ overall image (42%)

Table 49. Most confirmed image differences between Portuguese and foreign tourists

Summarizing, a tendency of female visitors perceiving the destination more favorably was observable. However, this pattern was less evident or even non-existing in several conditions. Correspondingly *hypothesis 2.5.c) could be only partly confirmed*. Substantial interaction with other variables suggests that *gender differences play a minor role*, as suggested.

Chapter 9.2.10. The Effect of Socio-Demographics: Education

Hypothesis 2.5.d.) suggests that *destination images* for North Portugal differ in content and favorableness according to *education*. *Concretely those visitors with higher levels of education are suggested to be more critical*.

LOW EDUCATION	MID EDUCATION	HIGH EDUCATION
		+ calm
+ simple		- simple
+ similar		- similar
		- nature
+ fun		- fun
+ information		
+ functional congruity		- functional congruity
+ overall image		

Table 50. Image differences due to education level on cross-sectional data

When analyzing group-differences via Kruskal-Wallis, generally respondents with *low education perceived the region as more favorable*. Actually, a *negative correlation could be found for level of education and perception of simplicity, similarity, fun and functional congruity*. The group with *highest education* viewed the region also as *worse* in terms of *nature*, however as *calmer*.

Particularly *Portuguese* confirmed the positive image bias for the low education group, especially when coming for a short-break. No significant differences were found *for the foreign market*, though. *Repeat visitors* confirmed much more educational differences than newcomers did, however not when belonging to the *foreign market*. Deviating from the more homogeneous pattern of newcomers, *Portuguese newcomers* confirmed the generally better image of those with lower education. These findings support the strong determining effect of nationality group for education-related image differences.

Also *short-break visitors* perceived much more education-related image differences than those staying longer. However, this did not hold for *foreigner short break visitors*, confirming the determining role of Portuguese in this group again. On the other hand, *longer stays* should generally lead to more homogeneous destination images, as also *Portuguese staying for longer* revealed only few education-related image differences.

Tourists in the *low season* perceived more education-related differences than did those in the high season. Controlling for interaction, *in the low season* hardly any education-based image differences were perceived by *foreigners* and by *those staying longer*. However, *in the high season*, neither *Portuguese* nor *short-break visitors* perceived many education-related differences. That is, the high season diminished the effect of education-related image differences, whereas the low season reflected the predominance of Portuguese and short-break visitors in its difference pattern. In all *sub-regions* fewer education-related image differences were found, generally confirming the better image of the low education group. *Male respondents* were slightly more positively biased in the low-education group and *females* more negatively biased in the high-education group.

The *younger age* group revealed no education-based image differences, eventually due to the fact that many young respondents have not completed their education yet. Also *business travelers* and those *visiting friends and family* hardly showed any differences, which confirms the homogenizing nature of these categories. This is also true for *benefit segments*, which did not reveal any significant image differences, except for *Active Rurals*. This may be due to the predominance of Portuguese in this segment, as differences for foreign *Active Rurals* were insignificant.

LOW EDUCATION	MID EDUCATION	HIGH EDUCATION
+ simple (53%)		
+ similar (44%)		- similar (47%)

Table 51. Most confirmed image differences due to education level

Briefly, educational differences were mainly found for Portuguese, repeat and short-break visitors and those in the low season. The effect was reduced in the high season, when staying longer, belonging to the foreign market, the youngest age group, to the Urban, Calm Rural or Simplist benefit segment, business travelers and those visiting friends and family. Correspondingly, *hypothesis 2.5.d) could only be partly confirmed*. The direction of the hypothesis in terms of the higher the education level, the more negative destination image, could frequently be confirmed. Particularly the opposite direction, the lower educational level, the better, was often found to be true. This may reveal the less critical stance of the lowest education group, eventually due to less travel experience and a generally lower level of self-confidence.

Chapter 9.2.11. The Relative Importance of each Variable for Determining Destination Image

Finally *hypothesis 2.6)* suggests that there is an *order of importance* of these factors, which must be identified. Considering results from other destination image studies, it may be expected that familiarity, international versus domestic market, motivation and age are the most important determinants, with substantial interaction among variables interfering with the final effect on overall image.

For assessing the order of importance of variables in determining destination image, an overall “*importance score*” is estimated, based on the following procedure (see appendix I):

1. the occurrence of an effect of the independent variable on the three most holistic destination image variables (*functional congruity* for the cognitive image, *pleasantness* for the affective image and *overall impression*) is assessed on aggregated data and the occurrence in the total of possible effects (three) is expressed as a percentage (indicator n°1),
2. the number of differences on the other single image dimensions in the total of eight tested image variables is assessed on aggregated data and expressed as a percentage (indicator n°2),
3. the number of times the overall pattern is confirmed for each image variable, considering all possible first-order interactions, has been expressed as “*degree of confirmation*”; an “*average degree of confirmation*” is further calculated considering the number of effects (on aggregated data) and their respective degrees of confirmation, as compared to the highest possible total, if confirmation was 100%, which corresponds to the total number of effects²³⁷ (indicator n°3);
4. relevant interaction effects on the total pattern are assessed by identifying the cases, in which at least 50% of the overall difference pattern is changed (by either eliminating or adding difference

²³⁷ I.e. a weighted average sum is calculated, summing the number of effects * confirmation degrees, which is then divided by the total number of effects. For example, prior visit resulted in three most confirmed image effects with a confirmation degree of 67%, 68% and 100%, which would give an average weighted sum of: $1*0.67+1*0.68+1*1=2.35$, which is then related to the total number of possible confirmations, namely 3. The “*average degree of confirmation*” would be: $2.35/ 3= 0.78$.

effects, when compared to the overall pattern on aggregated data). This procedure resulted in two further indicators for each independent variable, namely:

- the *degree of affecting other independent variables*, expressed as a percentage (number of effects/ number of total possible effects) (indicator n°4) and
- the *degree of overall “independence”* (from other independent variables), measured as: “1- (relevant interactions suffered/ total possible interactions suffered)” (indicator n°5).

5. an average score is produced, considering results of the above described analyses. The score is expressed as a percentage indicating the importance of the variable in affecting destination image. This value results from the average of the five above presented percentage scores.

These overall importance values for each independent variable are combined in levels of importance, but present only approximate indicators. Correspondingly, the following levels of importance could be identified (from highest down to lowest):

Level of importance (in percentage)	Variables
Level 1 (above 0.80)	benefit segments (0.88)
Level 2 (0.70 to 0.79)	-----
Level 3 (0.60 to 0.69)	regions (0.69), length of stay (0.66), nationality group (0.64)
Level 4 (0.50 to 0.59)	age (0.58), season (0.55)
Level 5 (0.40 to 0.49)	education (0.49), travel purpose (0.45), prior visit (0.43)
Level 6 (0.30 to 0.39)	gender (0.35)

Table 52. Level of importance of independent variables in determining image

Benefit segments stand out as most affecting destination image differences. It is worth of notice that specific motivational backgrounds shape tourists’ destination images more than actual stimuli. Sub-regions visited follow at some distance, i.e. a stimulus variable, underlining the heterogeneous perceptions of the North Portuguese rural areas. However, the specificity of the market encountered in each region must also be considered, as it should have contributed to image differences. This should be particularly the case for a negative image bias of the Douro region, due to the dominance of Portuguese short-break visitors in this region. Next, length of stay is quite relevant, a travel context variable reflecting some degree of involvement and eventually distinct motivational backgrounds. Also nationality group (Portuguese versus foreign tourist market) plays a significant role. This should be related to different knowledge and cultural backgrounds concerning this particularly image object, which is part of one group’s home-country. Differences between age groups must also be considered, especially in the confrontation between the extreme age groups with naturally differing travel motivations. The particular homogenizing role of the positively biased older respondents is reminded here. Of relative importance were further differences between the high and low season, which are related to different length of stay, nationality groups and

eventually distinct motivations. On the next importance level follow education, global travel purpose (with a homogenizing effect of business and VFR travel) and prior visit, with gender revealing a relatively minor effect on the complex image construct.

Consequently, an order of importance could be established, which confirms the relevance of motivation, nationality group and age, but not to the expected degree of familiarity. On the other hand, the relevance of the stimulus variables, particularly of region, but also to the context variable length of stay, was not suggested in hypothesis 2.6), as not evidenced by prior destination image research. Hypothesis 2.6) is thus partly confirmed.

Chapter 9.2.12. Determinants of different Image Dimensions

Finally, *hypothesis 2.7)* suggests that different independent variables impact on different specific image dimensions. In order to test this assumption, each category’s effect on the diverse image dimensions was analyzed, both considering the direction of the impact and its confirmation across first-order interaction-tests. This analysis is summarized in table 53, which shows the categories that impact most on each image dimension. Only those with effects that were confirmed in at least 40% of interaction-tests are presented.

		>90%	80-90%	70-79%	60-69%	50-59%	40-49%
pleasant	+					>4d	HS, old
	-			Do			
calm	+		SB	P			LS
	-			Urb, young, Mi			
simple	+	P			AR, SB, RV	LS, lo edu	
	-				Urb, Mi		
similar	+	RV, P			AR, SB		lo edu
	-					Urb	hi edu
nature	+	AR, SB	P		CR, RV	LS	fem
	-	Urb			Simpl	Mi	
basics	+	AR		old	VFR	F, CR	>4d
	-	Simpl	Do		Urb		
fun	+		AR	Urb		F	>4d, young, HS
	-	Simpl	CR	Do			
information	+		AR			LS, fem	old
	-		Simpl				
culture	+		AR	CR		LS	
	-	Simpl	Urb				
FC	+						AR
	-		Urb				
OI	+				AR, old	CR	F, >4d, fem
	-			Urb		Do	Simpl

Table 53. Categories impacting on diverse image dimensions, according to level of confirmation

Note: positive impacts are shown in the shadowed rows, negative impacts are printed in red

A. Affective Image:

The affective image dimension *pleasantness*, which may be considered a surrogate for overall affective image, was most negatively affected by staying in the *Douro* region and positively by

length of stay. Also the *oldest tourist group* and those coming in the *high season* viewed the region as more pleasant. The positive bias may be due to a higher degree of involvement, particularly when staying longer, coming for a main holiday in summer, apart from a generally more positive attitude of older travelers. The negative bias may be partly due to the constitution of the market visiting the less developed Douro region (*Portuguese short-break visitors*) (see chapter 9.2.1.).

The destination was perceived as more *calm* by those coming for a *short-break*, belonging to the *domestic market*, and traveling in the *low season* (the latter as hypothesized). A stronger contrast with the daily work life may occur in short-break visits, especially in the case of Portuguese travelers living mostly in urban areas. *Urbans, younger tourists* and those traveling in the *Minho* perceived the region as less calm. As the two first groups did not actually look for a calm holiday, they might have preferred more arousing experiences at the destination. It seems logical that the *Minho* is perceived as less calm in relation to the other two more interior and less developed regions (as hypothesized).

The *domestic market* perceived naturally a higher degree of *simplicity* and the *foreign market* more complexity. *Active Rurals, short-break and repeat visitors*, as well as those with *lower education* and coming in the *low season* confirmed the perception of more simplicity. *Urbans, Minho visitors, newcomers, those staying for longer, in the high season* and with a *higher education* perceived more complexity. This image dimension seems to be mainly determined by (experience- and knowledge-based) familiarity, but also other factors (e.g. education) seem to play a role.

Also *destination-self-congruity* is most contingent upon *familiarity*, reflected by *repeat visit* and belonging to the *domestic market*, as seems logical. Also *Active Rurals*, those coming for a *short-break* and with a *lower education* perceived a higher degree of similarity, whereas *Urbans, those staying longer* and having a *higher education* perceived more difference. In the case of benefit segments this perception seems to be related to a generally more positive or negative attitude towards the destination, whereas in the case of a longer stay and higher education, the type of perception seems to be different, less superficial, identifying more complexity and difference. Also the relevance of the foreign market in these groups must be considered.

B. Cognitive Image:

The perception of *nature* was determined by benefit-segments, length of stay, nationality group, prior visit, season, region and gender, being one of the image dimensions impacted by most independent variables. Concretely, *Active Rurals* and *Calm Rurals* view the region as best in terms of nature and *Urbans* and *Simplists* as worst. This may be due to different benefits sought, with *Active Rurals* seeking nature mainly for outdoors activities and *Calm Rurals* as most significant environment in a calm, rural holiday. On the other hand, *Urbans* did not consider nature as

important as the other groups. But for *Simplists* a pristine nature and landscape were actually the most important features of a rural holiday, in relation to which they seem to be very demanding, though. *Short-break* visitors viewed the destination better in terms of nature than those staying longer, particularly in the case of foreign tourists, which may be due to a more positive first impression of this generally more critical group (in terms of nature). Thus, *Portuguese* perceived the destination generally as more favorable in terms of nature than foreign tourists did, which may be due to culturally shaped different degrees of environmental sensibility. *Repeat visitors* are also more positively impressed by nature than newcomers, particularly when *staying longer*, revealing a stronger degree of involvement. Nature is viewed as better in the *low season* than in the high, which may be due to a greener environment in the more humid low season. It is viewed comparatively less positive in the *Minho region*, which may be due to the predominance of foreign tourists in that region, but also linked to its more urbanized and industrialized character in some areas, when compared to the less developed interior sub-regions.

Benefit-segments determined the perception of *basics*, with *Active Rurals* standing out as positively and *Simplists* as negatively biased. This contradictory tendency is confirmed by *Calm Rurals* versus *Urbans*, although to a lower degree, reflecting these groups' general image pattern. The *Douro* region was viewed relatively worse on this dimension, which may be related to the more poorly developed infrastructures in this interior region. It may also be due to the predominance of Portuguese short-break visitors in this region, as foreign tourists and those staying longer did not confirm this impression. Particularly the *older* age-group and *those visiting friends and family* revealed a more positive image of basics, which may correspond to their generally more positive attitude towards the destination. *Foreigners* also perceived *basics* as better than Portuguese tourists. The domestic market was particularly critical in terms of climate, price, lodging and infrastructure, revealing distinct levels of expectation. Finally those *staying longer* were more positively impressed, as understandable by this group's higher degree of involvement.

The impression of *socializing/ action/ fun* was substantially affected by benefit-segment, with those seeking this attribute least (*Simplists* and *Calm Rurals*) perceiving it as least present and those seeking it most as relatively more present. This confirms the assumption of tourists tending to find what they look for acting as *active holiday makers*, as suggested by **Ryan** (1994). This dimension is found relatively less in the *Douro* region, however particularly in the case of the here dominating *Portuguese short-break visitors*. *Foreign tourists* and those *staying longer* generally viewed this dimension as more positively, eventually demanding less or being more involved and therefore eager to make the best out of the holiday. Finally, in the *high season* this dimension was perceived as relatively better, which seems logical, as this season attracts more tourists and leads to an increased supply of entertainment and activities.

Benefit-segments, season, age and gender influenced the impression of *information*. This dimension was perceived as best by *Active Rurals* and as worst by the most critical *Simplists*. It was further perceived as better in the *low season*, when eventually communication might be more personalized. It was actually more sought in the low season (Mann-Whitney U, sig=0.002). *Older* and *female visitors* confirmed their generally less critical attitude also in respect to information.

Benefit-segments and season determined the perception of *culture*. *Culture* is more sought in the low season than in the high (Mann-Whitney U, sig= 0.006), corresponding to a more positive evaluation of this image dimension. Apart from the before-mentioned motivational tendency of finding what is sought most, the generally more positive bias of *Active* and *Calm Rurals* versus the negative of *Simplists* and *Urbans* is confirmed again.

Functional congruity, which has been suggested as a surrogate for cognitive evaluation, is only more substantially affected by benefit segments, with *Urbans* standing out most negatively and *Active Rurals* most positively, as finding least or most what was most valued in a rural holiday.

C. Overall Image:

Finally the overall impression is most affected by benefit-segments again, but also by age, region, nationality group, length of stay and gender. A most favorable tendency could be identified for *Active* and *Calm Rurals* and a most negative bias for *Urbans* and *Simplists*, confirming the above-mentioned deviations on single image dimensions, except for the factor *socializing/ action/ fun* (more positively viewed by *Urbans* and more negatively by *Calm Rurals*). The positive bias of the *older age group and female* respondents is also recurrent, as is the negative bias of the *Douro* region, however co-determined by the type of visitors mostly present (*Portuguese short-break*). The more positive overall image of *foreign tourists* may surprise, as single dimensions were not always perceived as better (e.g. nature, a calm and simple environment and destination-self-congruity). On the other hand, simplicity and destination-self-congruity may not be too relevant for a positive overall impression, as also novelty is sought in a holiday experience. Additionally, foreign tourists came mostly for a longer stay from farther distances, being thus more involved and interested in an overall positive experience. The generally observable positive impact of a *longer stay* on overall image should therefore be related to a higher degree of involvement.

As a conclusion, one may retain that single image dimensions are in fact affected by different independent variables, although some of these stand out as relevant determinants in several cases (or all, as for benefit-segments). That is, results support **hypothesis 2.7**. Further, some variables show particular effects in the case of specific categories affecting specific image dimensions (e.g. the Douro region with a negative bias and the older age group with a positive bias in many cases, or foreign tourists' more negative image of nature). Apart from analyzing impacts of each

independent variable on image in an aggregated manner, the analysis of the impact of each category on single image dimensions is therefore important to enhance the understanding of the concrete role of image determinants.

Chapter 9.3. Image Effects

Finally, image is suggested to impact on behavior, which may serve for testing external validity of the suggested image construct. In this context, probability to recommend and probability to return are criterion variables useful for testing the predictive capacity of the image construct²³⁸. Correlation analysis was used for this purpose. It is true that correlation analysis does not provide an indication of causal flow, but this is conceptually assumed. In any case, no strictly causal evidence is provided here, but rather an external validation, which “*usually involves establishing a correlation coefficient between the instrument and the external or outside criterion*”(Gliner & Morgan, 2000: 321).

Apart from that, an eventually concurring independent variable (destination loyalty) was considered to reveal the relative role of destination image in affecting probable future travel behavior, eventually moderated by psycho-graphic traveler type.

Chapter 9.3.1. Probability to Return

According to *hypothesis 3.1.) probability to return* is positively affected by:

- loyalty to the destination*, especially in the case of *psycho-centrism*;
- destination image*, with the effect of *destination-self-congruity* strongest for *psycho-centrics*;
- destination image is suggested to play a prominent role*.

PEARSON CORRELATION	ALL	N	PSYCHOCENTRICS	N	ALLOCENTRICS	N
Probability to come back						
Global impression	0,34	1902	0,29	282	0,40	298
N° of visits to the region	0,28	1918	0,32	275	0,23	299
Colorful, pleasant, warm	0,28	1573	0,20	229	0,31	258
Functional congruity	0,27	1703	0,22	252	0,27	273
Basics	0,25	1570	0,25	223	0,23	261
Different-similar	0,24	1806	0,22	272	0,26	288
Nature	0,18	1605	0,13 *	234	0,13 *	259
Information	0,16	1549	0,14 *	231	0,25	245
Fun/ action	0,15	1213				
Culture	0,13	1529				
Calm, mature, traditional	0,09 *	1573				

Table 54. Correlation between destination loyalty, image and probability to come back

Note: * correlations significant at the 0.05 level, all other correlations are significant at the 0.01 level
Outstanding highest (red) and lowest values (black) are highlighted in bold letters

²³⁸ Actually, predictive evidence should be provided by an external criterion, measured in the future (Gliner & Morgan, 2000: 321). However, behavioral intentions may be used as approximate criterion variables.

All image factors, except for *simple*, as well as number of prior visits correlated significantly, at a 0.01 level, with probability to come back. The order of importance of variables is visible in table 54, which further shows the extreme psycho-graphic *conditions (psycho- versus allo-centrism)*.

Loyalty to the destination, as measured by the number of prior visits, was also significantly correlated with the probability to come back. This was especially true for psycho-centrics, for whom destination loyalty was actually the most positively correlated factor. ***Hypothesis 3.1.a) could thus be confirmed.***

Destination image also positively affected probability to return, especially *overall impression, the impression of pleasantness, functional congruity, basics*²³⁹ and *destination-self-congruity*. ***Thereby hypothesis 3.1.b) is supported in its first part.*** The suggestion that high *destination-self-congruity* is correlated with probability to return particularly in the case of *psycho-centrics* ***could not be confirmed***, though. Actually, the opposite was found.

Generally, *overall destination image* was identified as the most relevant factor, although for psycho-centrics the number of prior visits was the most correlated factor²⁴⁰. *Destination loyalty* generally occupied the second rank. *Overall affective image* and *functional congruity* follow, with the perception of *basics* and *nature* standing out as cognitive image dimensions and *destination-self-congruity* as another relevant affective image component. The fact that nearly all image components were significantly correlated to probability to come back also supports the relevance of destination image. ***Hypothesis 3.1.c) could thus be generally confirmed, although for psycho-centrics destination loyalty was slightly more relevant than image.***

Concluding, the ***hypothesis complex 3.1) could largely be confirmed***, suggesting the impact of image and destination loyalty on probability to come back. The suggested moderating effect of *psycho-centrism* could only be confirmed for *destination loyalty*.

Chapter 9.3.2. Probability to Recommend

Hypothesis 3.2.) suggests that ***probability to recommend*** is positively affected by:

- a) ***loyalty to the destination***, especially in the case of ***psycho-centrism***, however not as pronouncedly as for the probability to return;
- b) ***destination image***, with the effect of *destination-self-congruity* strongest for *psycho-centrics*;
- c) an ***outstanding role is assigned to destination image.***

²³⁹ When isolating the items of this factors, particularly gastronomy, ease of communication and sympathy of population were positively correlated with probability to come back. Also infrastructures, lodging and climate were significantly correlated, but not price (!).

²⁴⁰ It is interesting to observe that for allo-centrics overall image was most correlated with probability to come back, whereas destination loyalty played a minor role. This seems plausible, given the characteristics of this traveler type.

Destination loyalty was significantly correlated with probability to recommend, but to a lower degree than with the probability to come back. Further, *psycho-centrics* showed a stronger correlation between destination loyalty and probability to recommend, as suggested. Correspondingly, *hypothesis 3.2.a) was supported*²⁴¹.

PEARSON CORRELATION RECOMMEND	ALL	N	PSYCHOCENTRICS	N	ALLOCENTRICS	N
Global impression	0,39	1866	0,24	277	0,51	298
Functional congruity	0,33	1675	0,21	249	0,40	273
Basics	0,32	1546	0,29	219	0,37	261
Colorful, pleasant, warm	0,31	1546	0,18	224	0,38	258
Nature	0,25	1578	0,17	229	0,27	259
Information	0,20	1524	0,14 *	227	0,27	245
Culture	0,18	1506			0,24	248
Different-similar	0,18	1767			0,23	288
Fun	0,17	1189			0,23	184
N° of visits to region	0,13	1881	0,21	273	0,18	299
calm, mature, traditional	0,12	1546			0,15*	258
simple, modest, natural	0,07	1546				

Table 55. Correlation between destination loyalty, image and probability to recommend

Note: * correlation significant at the 0.05 level, all other correlation values are significant at the 0.01 level
Outstanding highest (red) and lowest values (black) are highlighted in bold letters

All image factors could be identified as significantly related to the probability to recommend the destination at the 0.01 level. The Pearson correlation coefficients were generally higher than in the case of probability to come back, suggesting a more relevant position of destination image in the present context. Destination image, particularly *overall image, functional congruity*, the impression of *basics, pleasantness, nature* and *information* stood out, with destination loyalty playing a relatively less important role. Finally, the correlation of *destination-self-congruity* with probability to recommend was not stronger for *psycho-centrics*, as suggested, but actually insignificant and strongest for *allo-centrics*. Consequently, *hypotheses 3.2.b) and 3.2.c) could be basically confirmed*, except for the moderating effect of psycho-graphic style for destination-self-congruity.

Chapter 9.4. Reliability and Validity

Cook & Campbell (1979, as quoted by **Gliner & Morgan**, 2000: 82) have divided research validity into four components:

1. Measurement reliability and statistics
2. Internal validity
3. Measurement validity and generalizability of the constructs, and
4. External validity

²⁴¹ However, the fact that also allo-centrics showed an above-average positive correlation does not suggest a linear relationship (“*the more psycho-centric, the higher the correlation, the more allo-centric, the lower*”).

Measurement reliability was assessed for the cognitive and affective image components, resulting from PCA, by computing the **Cronbach alpha** coefficients for each (see chapter 8.2.6). Coefficients for cognitive image components had values of at least 0.66, which seems acceptable (Hair *et al.*, 1998: 118). Affective image components showed lower internal consistency, which should be related to the smaller number of items per scale, as discussed before. Only the first factor (*pleasant/ warm/ colorful*) was close to the limit of an acceptable Cronbach coefficient (0.57), whereas the other two still considered components (*simple* and *calm*) showed a value close to 0.5. For this reason and also due to results of similar studies and conceptual arguments, the first affective factor was considered more relevant in this study. For descriptive analysis, a coding of open-ended questions was undertaken. In this context, inter-coder reliability was tested by comparing the coding procedure of two-by-two coders²⁴².

Measurement validity can be assessed in terms of face, content and criterion-related validity. **Face and content validity** can be assumed as given, as both literature review, a careful preliminary investigation, pre-testing and refinement process led to the final instrument (see chapter 7). Criterion validity can be assumed as given, as the main latent construct under analysis (destination image) was significantly related to behavioral criterion variables (see chapter 9.3.2.).

Construct validity could only be measured in terms of **factorial evidence**. Identified factors for cognitive image could confirm some of the generally suggested image components for general and rural destinations, although empirical evidence from many image studies leads to no conclusion about a generally applicable destination image structure²⁴³.

For testing **convergent validity** several measures for the same constructs must be used. Theory about the destination image concept is still in its initial stage and generally Likert-scales have been used²⁴⁴. Although different approaches were undertaken in the present study to assess destination image, open-ended questions, scale-measures and photo-associations do not exactly measure the same thing. As discussed before, free-elicitation of associations should produce image aspects of a more motivational type, whereas the scale also includes more hygienic aspects. The photo-association exercise was undertaken as a merely exploratory and complementary exercise, trying to include the visual imagery dimension. However, recurrent themes could be identified and provided

²⁴² This was done punctually for 50 cases in several instances of the coding process and revealed an inter-coder reliability of about 0.7 on the average.

²⁴³ The most consensual factors, also confirmed by this study, were *culture* and *nature*, followed by *access* and *action*, with *basics* corresponding mainly to the factor *tourist facilities* in other studies, but further including *climate* and *price*. However a large variety of results could be found, as shown in chapter 6.1.2.

²⁴⁴ Generally, these scale batteries have been developed for specific study contexts, i.e. particular destinations or types of holidays or have been used in a very summarized form, using items judged as most relevant and broad (see chapter 6.1.2.).

convergent evidence for the existence of specific image contents in the context of a rural holiday destination, such as: *nature, culture, peace and quiet* and *friendly people*.

For testing *discriminant validity*, measures of destination image should be compared with measures of another construct. In the present case, one might correlate image with behavioral variables, which should lead to higher correlations amongst image dimensions and behavioral aspects than between image and behavioral aspects. Image and behavior were assumed as separate, although related constructs. That is why a correlation between them should exist, but it should be lower than that between variables measuring different dimensions of the same construct. In the following table correlation between the most relevant and holistic image dimensions (surrogates for affective and cognitive image, as well as overall image) and intentional future travel behavior is presented.

	pleasant	Functional Congruity	Overall image	come back	recommend
pleasant	1.0	0.3	0.45	0.2	0.3
Functional Congruity	0.3	1.0	0.42	0.2	0.3
Overall image	0.45	0.42	1.0	0.3	0.3
come back	0.2	0.2	0.3	1.0	0.6
recommend	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.0

Table 56. Correlation between most relevant image dimensions and behavioral intentions

Note: all correlation values are significant at the 0.01 level

It is visible that all dimensions are significantly correlated. However, the degree of correlation among image constructs and behavior-related variables is higher than that between image and behavior variables, which supports the assumption of discriminant validity. Still, for a rigorous testing, less related constructs should be used, which would have increased complexity of the already complex questionnaire, though. The image construct is of such a complex nature, that several approaches seem to be necessary to assess it. These approaches must be further refined and more detailed studies are needed to test convergent and discriminant validity of diverse image dimensions. However, for this study a more complex survey would have been impracticable, given the objective of a large-scale destination image study, interested in factors influencing it.

Internal validity refers to the equivalence of groups on attributes other than the independent variables (Gliner & Morgan, 2000: 83-88). This problem has been addressed by controlling for other variables, when assessing group differences due to a specific suggested determinant of image. Interaction effects have been analyzed and the overall impact of the specific variable was estimated.

Finally, *external validity* concerns generalizability of results (Gliner & Morgan, 2000: 158-160). In this context, the representativeness of the studied population, adequacy of sampling, and response rates are important issues. In the present study, the sampling method was designed in a way to enhance the representativeness of the leisure tourist population in rural North Portugal, although some slight biases were introduced to equally represent all sub-regions, high and low season and international versus domestic market. However, as secondary data on the population is missing, an exact judgement of representativeness cannot be made. Response rates of the direct interviewing approach, realized regularly along one entire year and at several attraction points in all sub-regions, were extremely high. This should also have improved the quality of the sample. In any case, results may only be valid for this particular destination. The fact that a large part of respondents were experienced international rural holiday-makers may eventually imply validity for other rural destinations, particularly for those with similar features. Still, whether this is true should be assessed in corresponding replication studies. Further, tourism literature suggests that different tourist destinations may be related to different holiday types, which results in image studies highlighting different destination features. This implies a difficulty of transferring results from this study to other types of destinations.

Ecological validity in terms of naturalness of data collection settings, adequacy of rapport with testers, naturalness of procedures or tasks and appropriateness of timing, should be given. Tourists were addressed in natural tourist settings, the instrument had been pre-tested to ensure ease of response and the interviewer helped out, whenever necessary to explain a question, but with great care of not inducing answers. The timing and selection of data collection sites should guarantee that results are not restricted in time and space.

Generally, reliability and validity were major concerns of this study, enhanced by the careful development of the research instrument and planning of data collection, but also through particular validity checks in the coding phase. Finally, the selection of adequate statistical measures, given the research objectives and nature of collected data, should also have contributed to enhanced validity of results. However, limitations must be acknowledged, as destination image research has not yet led to a very sound theoretical body of knowledge. During the research process the possibility of improvements of both the instrument and the administration method became evident. The present results may be considered a contribution to a better understanding of destination images and the factors influencing them, although eventually not generalizable to all kinds of destinations. Replication studies should be undertaken to assess external validity of the suggested relationships.

Conclusions of Chapter 9

This chapter tested suggested hypotheses about destination image structure, determinants and effects and addressed reliability and validity issues.

As far as image structure is concerned, *cognitive, affective, holistic* and *imagery* dimensions could be identified. Confirming hypothesis 1a), *affective and cognitive dimensions* were *interrelated*. The proposition of *cognition determining affect via functional congruity* (hypothesis 1b) was confirmed via path analysis, but only for the affective dimension “*pleasant/ warm/ colorful*”, which was suggested to represent *overall affective image*. The relevance of *destination-self-congruity feelings* in the context of affective image could be confirmed (hypothesis 1c) by the strong correlation of the corresponding variable with *overall affective image*. This correlation was strongest for psycho-centric and weakest for allo-centric travelers, as suggested. Finally, all identified image elements *determined* more or less *overall destination image* (hypothesis 1d), although some not always in a direct manner. Correspondingly, hypotheses concerning image structure could be mainly confirmed.

The suggested differences in destination images for North Portugal could be generally confirmed. Especially *benefits sought* were responsible for many and strong image differences, confirming the relevance of a specific motivational background. A tendency of finding what was most sought was also visible.

The *stimulus context variable “sub-regions”* was confirmed as relatively significant, although differences related mainly to a more negative image of the Douro region, especially from the point of view of the domestic short-break market, which predominated in that region. Higher levels of familiarity together with a lower degree of involvement were considered determinant for this. Still, also the Minho and Tras-os-Montes regions showed some particularities, which may justify the separate treatment of destination image for sub-regions of North Portugal.

The *traveling context* variable “*length of stay*” also revealed relevant impacts on image, as visible in the confrontation of short-break visitors with those staying longer. This should be due to different levels of involvement of those who decide to stay for different periods of time. However, the assumed tendency “*the longer the better*” only held for Portuguese repeat visitors, whereas foreign newcomers especially in the Minho region, perceived the destination as better when coming for a short-break. This may be due to a better first impression and eventually a kind of disillusion when staying for a longer period.

The socio-demographic variable “*domestic versus international tourist market*” revealed a strong impact on image differences. This variable should reveal differences in cultural background and

familiarity with the destination. The impacts of this variable become also visible in numerous interaction effects of its categories with the other independent variables.

Also *age* stood out as a socio-demographic variable when testing image differences, especially when considering the extreme age groups (youngest and oldest). A particularly positive image bias could be found for the older age group. Moreover, this group generally perceived fewer image differences due to other independent variables, revealing a higher level of homogeneity in destination perception.

Seasonal image differences were also quite relevant, with the high season being perceived as slightly more pleasant/ warm and *fun* and the low season as more calm. However, interaction with nationality group and length of stay was observable, eventually linked to different motivational backgrounds and types of involvement, when coming in different seasons.

Some variables were identified as still relatively important, but only in relation to some image dimensions and in specific contexts, revealing strong interaction effects. These variables were *education* (with a positive bias for the lower education group) and *travel purpose* (with a homogenizing effect of the purposes “*visiting friends and family*” and “*business travel*”, the first with a slightly positive the second a negative bias). Contradicting results of other studies, *destination loyalty* played only a secondary role (with a stronger positive bias identified for foreign repeat visitors, though). Also *gender* showed only a minor impact on image differences (with a positive bias for females).

That is, all hypotheses testing image determinants could be at least partly confirmed, with an *order of importance* of these factors visible. This order was only approximately identified, though, as a series of conditions had to be considered for the relevance of each.

Further, different impacts were identified for different independent variables (and herein of specific categories) on particular image dimensions, which makes an overall appreciation of independent variables difficult. Not all categories of independent variables showed a clear tendency of inducing a positive or negative image in all image dimensions. In any case, both an overall and aggregated analysis, as well as a more detailed appreciation of this very complex construct and of the numerous potential and interacting effects of several independent variables seems most adequate.

As far as *potential effects of destination image on tourist behavior* are concerned, the relevance of image for the *probability to return* was confirmed, with overall destination image revealing the strongest correlation. *Destination loyalty*, *overall affective image* and *functional congruity* followed, with the perception of *basics* and *nature* standing out as cognitive image factors and *destination-self-congruity* as an affective image component. *Destination loyalty* should be considered as nearly as important as destination image, especially in the case of *psycho-centrics*.

The suggested moderating effect of *psycho-graphic traveler type* for probability to return could thus be confirmed in the case of destination loyalty (particularly *psycho-centric* travelers were more likely to return, the more often they had repeated their visit), but not for the impact of *destination-self-congruity* on probability to return.

The importance of image dimensions for the *probability to recommend* could be confirmed, too. *Loyalty to the destination* was also significant, especially in the condition of *psycho-centrism*. However, *destination image dimensions* assumed a relatively higher level of importance (except for the *arousal-revealing* affective image factors). *Overall image, functional congruity*, the impression of *basics, pleasantness, nature* and *information* stood out. The moderating effect of *psycho-graphic traveler-type* for the correlation between *destination-self-congruity* and probability to recommend could not be confirmed, though.

Generally, the *outstanding role of destination image* on behavioral intentions could be largely confirmed, with stronger effects observable for the probability to recommend than for the probability to return.

Although results are only of an indicative nature, as probabilities of behaviors and not actual behaviors were measured, they confirm the behavioral relevance of image, already found in other studies. This justifies the extensive effort invested in destination image research, attempting to improve assessment of destination image, the understanding of its structure and determinants. The complexity of dimensions and variables involved is challenging and inputs from diverse disciplinary backgrounds seem to be useful.

Reliability and validity of the presented results should be assured by the careful research design, although some limitations were identified. However, the reported relationships may be destination-specific, and eventually valid for the tourism form “rural tourism”. That is why the query for globally valid relationships would call for replication studies, first at different rural holiday destinations to test tourism-form-specific validity and second, at different types of destinations. Eventually some relationships may be more generalizable than others (e.g. the older age group may generally have a more favorable attitude or eventually only when at a “rural holiday destination”, whereas sub-regional differences should largely depend on the specific destination studied). Many questions are left open, but it is hoped that the identified results enrich the discussion about destination image, its structure, role and relevance for the tourist and the destination.

Chapter 10. Discussion of Results, Implications and Conclusions

The primary purpose of this dissertation was to advance the understanding of destination image, its structure, (co-) determinants and potential behavioral effects. These three main fields of inquiry were developed in a series of hypotheses and empirically tested for the rural tourist market in North Portugal. The objective of this chapter is to discuss and integrate findings from the diverse phases and approaches of this research effort. A comprehensive overview of results is presented and alternative explanations discussed, implications for destination marketing suggested, major contributions in several fields summarized and directions for future research proposed, after an acknowledgement of limitations of the study.

Chapter 10.1. Conclusions from Findings and Alternative Explanations

Chapter 10.1.1. Image Structure

Results confirmed the existence of a *very complex destination image*, containing diverse *cognitive, affective, imagery and holistic* elements (see chapters 8.2.6 and 9.1). These may be measured by a variety of instruments and techniques, of which some have been used in the context of this dissertation. Quantitative instruments, such as Likert and semantic differential scales proved to be most adequate for hypotheses testing, permitting the use of associational and comparative statistic techniques. Qualitative measures contributed to the development of the quantitative research instrument and also to the assessment of diverse unique image aspects and validation of some results. Further, qualitative techniques, like free elicitation, permit an analysis of complexity and valence of destination image as well as the assessment of attribute centrality (Jenkins, 1999). The complexity and generally positive valence of the region's destination image could thereby be confirmed (see chapter 8.2.6.). The category *nature* stood out as the most central and complex attribute, with *culture, gastronomy* and *friendly people* also relevant. The *object valence* can be identified as predominantly positive as positive qualifiers were referred to most often. A simultaneously *pleasant and peaceful atmosphere* reveals the position of the destination on the affective image dimensions *pleasantness and arousal* suggested in environmental psychology (Russel & Lanius, 1984). When considering the strong correlation between the (quantitatively assessed) cognitive image dimension *nature* and all *affective dimensions* the centrality and valence of this particular category are confirmed (see chapter 9.1.1.). Thus, a more *holistic and psychologically shaped destination image* containing the elements *nature, peacefulness and pleasantness* was most associated with North Portugal. Affective image is further determined by the *friendliness of population*, which is integrated in the cognitive dimension named *basics*. Since affective image was suggested as most related to motivation (see chapter 6.1.2), these aspects

should receive particular attention in the region's destination marketing. As more *unique elements* aspects related to specific *landscape elements, culture* and *gastronomy* should be considered.

These results confirm that a mixed qualitative-quantitative research approach is most adequate for image assessment. This permits most valuable insights in different dimensions of destination image and cross-validation of single approaches.

The test of relationships between cognitive, affective and overall image revealed the existence of the suggested *path from cognition over affect to a holistic image* (see chapter 9.1.4.). This path also been found in a series of other consumer behavior studies within tourism (**Mayo & Jarvis**, 1981, **Woodside & Lysonski**, 1989, **Gartner** 1993, **Baloglu**, 1996). The finding is an important contribution to *information integration theory* applied to destination image and partially confirms the *hierarchy of effects paradigm* (**Sirgy**, 1983)²⁴⁵. The path-model may be related to **Keller's** (1993) three levels of abstraction (chapter 5.1.5.c), with the cognitive image corresponding to the attribute-level, functional congruity to the benefit-level and the affective image to the attitude-level, all leading to an overall image.

➤ **Functional Congruity**

In this context, the variable *functional congruity* was constructed and introduced into the model as a mediating variable. This variable is similar to **Sirgy & Su's** (2000) construct referring to a destination's subjectively defined instrumental value (see chapter 6.2.2). It may be thought of as a *surrogate variable for the overall cognitive image*, reflecting the evaluation of the most valued aspects of a rural tourism experience. *Functional congruity* was identified as particularly relevant for *overall affective* and *overall image* (see chapter 9.1.3. and 9.1.4.). It should be a particularly action-relevant construct according to *expectancy-valence theory* (see chapter 6.3.), as confirmed when testing hypotheses 3.1) and 3.2) (see chapter 9.3.).

➤ **Cognitive Image Factors**

The cognitive aspects included in the Likert-scale battery could be aggregated into five *cognitive factors* (*basics, nature, culture, information* and *socializing/action/ fun*), which partly correspond to other factors identified in destination image studies (*tourist facilities, nature, culture, access and action*, see chapters 6.1.2. and 8.2.6.). These dimensions reflect the items, which were identified as important aspects to be considered in a rural tourist destination image study (see chapter 7.4.2.).

²⁴⁵ For a complete confirmation, the path model should further include behavioral variables, which were ignored, as otherwise excessive complexity might have negatively affected validity of results (**Pestana & Gageiro**, 1998). However, the relation between image and behavioral intentions was analyzed and confirmed via simple correlation analysis.

The identification of strong (*scenery, nature, peace and quiet, sympathy of population*) and weak points (*sign-posting, tourist information and unpolluted environment*) from the tourists' point of view, by confronting **importance and performance** ratings, helps revealing image structure (attribute valence and centrality) and may assist in guiding destination marketing. Responses to open-ended questions confirmed the relevance of these items, adding further *chaotic traffic* on the negative side. The distinction between more *motivational* and *hygienic* cognitive aspects permitted further insights in these factors' relevance for behavior and satisfaction (see chapter 8.2.6.).

Considering results of path-analysis, the most relevant single cognitive image factors determining *overall affective image* were *basics*, followed at some distance by *nature* and *culture*. The cognitive image factors most affecting *overall image* were *basics* and *nature*, followed at some distance by *culture* (see chapter 9.1.3. and 9.1.4.). These factors and their integrating destination attributes should be considered most important for the creation of an attractive destination image. Particularly *basics* (including accommodation, gastronomy, climate, sympathy of population, ease of communication, infrastructure and price) stand out, integrating elements that may provide a generally *welcoming atmosphere*. This factor is also most closely related to *probability to return* and to *recommend* (see chapter 9.3.). The second most important factor is *nature* (proximity to nature, peace and quiet, walking paths, rural life, unpolluted environment, isolation, scenery), as might be expected of a rural tourist destination.

➤ **Affective Image Factors**

The *affective image* was assessed by a semantic differential scale battery, also used to assess *self-image* and developed on the basis of **Malhotra's** scale suggestion (1982), adapted to the rural tourist destination as the image-object (7.4.2. and 8.2.6.). Also in the context of affective destination image PCA revealed a, however less clear, image structure, with five factors (*colorful/pleasant, simple, calm, emotional* and *informal*). Of these only the first three were considered sufficiently clear, as revealed by *Cronbach alpha* values. Particularly the dimension "*colorful/pleasant/ warm*" was considered most significant and suggested as a surrogate for overall affective image, as also recommended by **Bagozzi & Burnkrant** (1979) and **Young** (1995). This comes close to **Trommsdorff's** (1975) supposition of a *uni-dimensional attitude*, revealed by an evaluative image dimension (see chapter 5.2.1). The tested path-model from cognitive over affective to overall image supports the relevance of this dimension, which is in this context the only actually significant of the three considered affective dimensions.

Other affective image dimensions found (*simple* and *calm*) may correspond to the second most relevant affective image dimension (*arousal*), as suggested by **Russel and colleagues**. However,

they revealed no relevant role in the mentioned path-analytical model²⁴⁶ (see chapter 6.2.1). They may correspondingly stand for a less evaluative affective dimension, which could still be relevant for understanding the affective atmosphere of a destination. Furthermore, strong relations between all more relevant affective and cognitive image factors were detected, indicating at least an indirect relation of all affective dimensions with overall image.

➤ **Destination-Self-Congruity**

Apart from these affective image dimensions the role of *destination-self-congruity* was analyzed. This has been suggested as significant for destination image elsewhere (Sirgy & Su, 2000). However, these authors proposed a different operationalization, namely the degree of identification of the tourist with other tourists visiting the destination. This may be more adequate, since the image objects are semantically closer. Another alternative would be the degree of identification with the resident population at the destination. Initially Sirgy (1983), Malhotra (1982) and in the following other authors (e.g. Metha, 1999) applied the concept of product-self-congruity to the comparative evaluation of *product personality* versus *self*. This approach was based on the assumptions of *social comparison theory*, *implicit personality theory* and *consistency theory* (see chapter 5.1.4.). This possibility was tested for the *destination product* in this thesis.

A strong relationship with the overall affective image dimension *pleasant/ warm/ colorful* could be detected, which was the stronger the more *psycho-centric* the tourist (see chapter 2.6.), as expected. Those tourists who prefer more familiar holiday experiences tend to react emotionally the more positively towards the destination the more they identify with it. On the other hand when introducing it together with cognitive and affective image dimensions into multiple regression, no significant relation to overall image was identified. Consequently *destination-self-congruity* may be considered more relevant for affective image than for a holistic, also cognitively determined, image. Its relevance for behavioral intention was confirmed via correlation analysis, even though the suggested moderating effect of *psycho-graphic traveler type* was not visible here. Concretely, the assumption “*the more psycho-centric, the more destination-self-congruity is related to behavioral intentions*” could not be confirmed. In the case of *psycho-centric travelers* the number of prior visits seems actually to be more relevant than image aspects and similarity judgments. This reveals a strong habituation and loyalty effect, which does not necessarily translate into substantially increased *destination-self-congruity* feelings. That is, *psycho-graphic traveler type* did not affect the suggested behavioral effects of *self-congruity theory* but intensified behavioral tendencies, reflected by *destination loyalty*. This habituation effect among psycho-centric travelers

²⁴⁶ The theoretically eventually existing *potency dimension* (Osgood *et al.*, 1957) could not be confirmed, but the most relevant scale for this dimension (*dominating - submissive*) was eliminated due to validity concerns (see chapter 7.4.4.).

may actually have led to a decreased relevance of image when compared with allo-centric travelers. The latter, more unfamiliar with the destination, may rely more on a cognitively developed image (**Howard & Sheth, 1969, Sirgy, 1983**, see chapter 5.1.5.a.). This was particularly visible for the probability to recommend the destination. It is interesting to note that, in general, the effect of *destination-self-congruity* on the probability to return was slightly more important than the effect on probability to recommend. This may confirm **Sirgy's** (1983) assumption that *actual self-congruity judgements*, as used here, should be particularly related to *purchase intention*. The probability to recommend may be rather dependent on *ideal or social self-congruity judgements*, since this behavior should be affected by the tourist's perception of others, what he/ she considers relevant to them and how he/ she would like to be seen by them.

The construct *destination-self-congruity* was argued to be best revealed by a single “**very similar**←→**very different**” scale, as also suggested by **Sirgy et al.** (1997). The reason for this was the difference in image structure identified for the semantic domains “*destination*” and “*self*”, although using the same scales. Additionally, the average difference values did not correlate much with the single scale. The latter may more validly reflect an overall similarity feeling (see chapter 8.2.6.). Dimensions suggesting *pleasantness* and *arousal* could also be found for the concept of *self* with corresponding *pleasantness* dimensions correlating positively. This may reflect a more positive (less critical) attitude of respondents referring to themselves as *pleasant*.

Chapter 10.1.2. Image Determinants

➤ Region

As far as potential *destination image (co-) determinants* are concerned (see chapter 6.2.2.), *regional and seasonal image differences* were identified, which may confirm the relevance of the stimulus object. *Regional differences* were strong, particularly for Portuguese short-break visitors perceiving the Douro region more negatively. The suggested relationship “*the more knowledgeable, the more differences perceived*” (as already suggested by **Hunt, 1975**) could thus be confirmed for the Portuguese but not for foreign repeat visitors. Generally, a more profound knowledge of regions belonging to one's own country may be assumed. This should result in stronger *organic* and *complex* images (**Gunn, 1972**) based on own prior experience and that of closely related others. This *culturally shaped knowledge surplus* of the domestic market may be more relevant than the length of stay or repeat visit. The domestic market may also possess a particular *culturally shaped pre-defined stereotype* of certain Portuguese sub-regions that does not necessarily correspond to real differences. In this study *involvement and motivational structure* should be additionally relevant, as repeat visits of foreigners, longer stays, visits of friends and relatives and older age eliminated differences (particularly the negative bias of the Douro region).

Specific differences for the Minho and Trás-os-Montes may also be rather related to the type of market present (foreigners dominating the Minho and Portuguese Trás-os-Montes). Therefore, observable sub-regional differences seem to be simultaneously dependent on nationality group (reflecting knowledge differences) and the respondent's involvement (reducing negative images of a particular sub-region). As a conclusion, *prior knowledge* is one important aspect moderating regional destination image differences, but *cultural factors*, *involvement* and *motivational background* should also be considered relevant factors. Sub-regional image differences have rarely been studied elsewhere, but should also depend on the type of destination and the real distinct features of its corresponding sub-areas (see chapter 8.1.).

➤ **Season**

Seasonal image differences have been suggested as relevant context variables for destination image differences (Stabler, 1990), but a corresponding study undertaken by Gartner (1986) did not produce any conclusive results. In the present study, seasonal image differences may be due to different types of respondents in both seasons staying for different periods of time and moved by different interests. Still, the suggested season-typical image differences were confirmed. The high season was perceived as slightly more *pleasant/ warm* and "*fun*" and the low season as more *calm*. A different type of experience, due to different weather conditions, tourist movements and corresponding supply should be partly responsible for seasonal image differences, as well as different types of tourist markets (foreigners preferring the high season) and travel behaviors (short break visits prevailing in the low season). Simultaneously, tourists travelling in different seasons and staying for different periods of time should be looking for different travel experiences, corresponding to different motivation backgrounds, which people strive to satisfy (Ryan, 1994, see chapter 2.6.).

As a conclusion, *stimulus-related image differences* should be partly due to actually perceivable stimulus differences (see chapter 5.3.), and partly dependent on traveler type, travel context and motivational background. Obviously, this should further be destination-specific.

➤ **Purpose of Travel**

Purpose of travel did not strongly affect image differences although a general negative bias for *business travelers* and a positive for *those visiting friends and family* could be confirmed. These two groups revealed a more homogeneous perception when analyzing the effect of other independent variables on image. These effects may reflect similar motivational backgrounds of these groups. In any case, many interaction effects reduced the impact of travel purpose on image. The research design led to an inclusion of only those who simultaneously revealed a leisure motive, which may have diluted differences among travel purpose groups in the present study.

➤ **Benefits Sought**

On the other hand, *specific motivational context in terms of benefits sought* was responsible for many and strong image differences. A tendency of finding what was most sought was visible, as also identified by **Phelps** (1986) and **Young** (1999). This lends support to **Ryan's** (1994) findings of an active holidaymaker, interested in making the best of his/ her trip. This may be related to *self-perception theory* and the psychological phenomenon of a *self-fulfilling prophecy*. Also distinct benefit-segments were identified, having more or less favorable destination images. Two of these revealed a strong preference for the rural nature of the destination and were correspondingly named *rural benefit segments*, with a more active and hedonistic versus a calm and contemplative motivational background respectively (see chapter 8.2.5.).

➤ **Length of Stay**

The *traveling context* variable "*length of stay*" revealed relevant impacts on image, when comparing short-break visitors with those staying longer. This variable should be related to higher degrees of involvement of those staying longer, eventually (also) via increased *contact opportunity* (**Weiler**, 1989, see chapter 6.2.2.). However, the assumed involvement-based tendency "*the longer the better*" only held for Portuguese repeat visitors. Foreign newcomers (especially in the Minho region) perceived the destination as better when coming for a short-break. This could reveal a kind of disillusion when staying for longer and eventually recognizing the destination's weak points. Perhaps exaggerated advertising promises may be partly responsible for this disillusion of newcomers staying for a longer holiday.

➤ **Repeat Visit**

According to **Fakeye & Crompton** (1991), first-time visitors are in the "*induced image stage*", with their initial *organic image* being subject to "*persuasive information*". Repeat visitors on the other hand should hold a more *complex image*. Contradicting results of other studies, *destination loyalty/ familiarity* played only a secondary role in the present study with a stronger positive bias identified for foreign repeat visitors that stayed longer. Those may be considered a particularly involved group of tourists. This would confirm the supposition that involvement-reflecting experienced-based familiarity should result in the most positive destination image (see chapter 6.2.2.). However, a general, multidimensional and strong positive bias for repeat visitors, as eventually expected as a result of a *virtuous circle* (explainable by *self-perception and consistency theory*), could not be observed. Generally, familiarity with the destination resulted in stronger *destination-self-congruity feelings*. Also an increased perception of *simplicity* seems natural, as repeat visitors perceived lower degrees of strangeness. The higher degree of personal identification and the more pronounced affective images of repeat visitors may confirm **MacKay's** (1995)

findings of a more affective evaluation of a destination due to experience. The fact that *repeat visitors perceived nature more favorably* should be partly due to the predominance of Portuguese in this group. Contrary to expectations, foreign short-break visitors tended to perceive the destination as better when coming for the first time. This may reveal a very positive first impression of these newcomers and again a disillusion effect when repeating the trip. Recognition of existing weak points previously not identified should be partly responsible for this. Apart from that, short-break visitors are less involved and may therefore perceive the destination as better due to the excitement of novelty in their first trip. However, a repeated short-break may lead to saturation of these less involved tourists. The optimal level of arousal (**Kroeber-Riel**, 1992), as linked to the optimal level of familiarity (**Cohen**, 1972, **MacKay & Fesenmaier**, 1997) may have influenced results (see chapter 2.6.).

In any case, the suggested relevance of prior visit could not be totally confirmed, particularly not when only distinguishing between repeat visitors and newcomers. Eventually, a further distinction according to different degrees of familiarity/ loyalty would have yielded more convincing results. Actually, when using the original variable “*number of prior visits*” in a correlation analysis with intentional future behavior, this variable revealed itself as relatively important, especially for the *psycho-centric tourists*.

➤ **Nationality Group**

The variable “*domestic versus foreign tourist market*” (*nationality group*) revealed a strong impact on destination image. This variable should reveal differences in cultural background, knowledge of and familiarity with the destination (see chapter 6.2.2.). The impacts of this variable become also visible in numerous interaction effects with the other independent variables. A generally more favorable image of *nature, similarity, a calm and simple atmosphere* from the point of view of the domestic market contrasts with a more positive evaluation of *basics, fun* and most importantly *overall image* found for the foreign market. The latter should be related to the higher level of involvement of foreign tourists traveling to North Portugal for a holiday, compared with the relatively more numerous Portuguese short-break visitors. The other image differences may be related to familiarity differences (*simplicity and similarity*) and different sensibilities or requirements (*nature, basics, fun*).

➤ **Age**

Also *age* stood out as a significant variable affecting image especially when considering the extreme age groups (youngest and oldest). A particularly positive image bias could be found for the older age group. This group generally perceived fewer image differences when testing other potential image determinants, thus revealing a higher level of homogeneity in destination

perception. Age was found to be correlated with motivation (**Baloglu**, 1996), which was also the case here particularly when considering the interest in and consequent evaluation of *action/ fun* and a *calm environment*. The fact that *older visitors* perceived North Portugal more homogeneously might be related to a more limited cognitive capacity, as suggested by some researchers, however questioned by others (**Smith & MacKay**, 1999). It may also be linked to a more homogeneous motivational structure eventually related to cohort effects (**Oppermann**, 1995).

➤ **Education**

The variable *education* was identified as still quite important but only in relation to some image dimensions and in specific contexts (due to strong interaction effects). A positive bias for the lower education group and a more negative bias for the higher education group were identified. This effect may be due to different degrees of self-confidence and the education-based habit of assuming a more demanding and critical posture. Additionally, higher education is generally related to higher socio-economic status and may correspond to a more experienced and demanding traveler group²⁴⁷.

➤ **Gender**

Gender showed only a minor impact on image differences with a positive bias for females. These socio-demographic differences may partly be due to different forms of socialization, eventually preparing the female for a more positive, generous role in social interaction.

➤ **Order of Importance of Image Determinants**

The suggested differences in destination images for North Portugal could be mostly confirmed. A relative *order of importance* of these factors was visible although this could only be approximately identified (see chapter 9.2.11). This order of importance did not correspond exactly to what was suggested, especially when considering the identified secondary role of destination loyalty/familiarity and the most important role of benefits sought. The relevance of nationality group and age was correctly suggested, with further sub-region, length of stay and season revealing a more significant role than initially expected.

Different impacts were identified for different independent variables on specific image dimensions. This makes an overall appreciation of independent variables difficult (see chapter 9.2.12.). For example, some dimensions were more positively perceived aspects in the low others in the high season or by the Portuguese versus foreign tourists, without any general positive or negative tendency confirmed. Further, some particular and consistent effects were encountered on image dimensions like *destination-self-congruity* or *nature*, suggesting specific correlation between

²⁴⁷ In our sample a tendency of those with higher education undertaking more holidays and weekend-breaks during the year could be confirmed (the Kruskal-Wallis tests were significant at the 0.000 level).

categories and image components. In any case, both an aggregated analysis and a more detailed appreciation of the complex destination image construct and of the numerous potential and interacting effects seem most appropriate.

Chapter 10.1.3. Image Effects

Generally, the *outstanding role of destination image* on behavioral intentions could be confirmed, with stronger effects observable for the probability to recommend than for the probability to return. However, **Fishbein's** suggestion (cited by **Malaka**, 1990) that perceived instrumentality (here operationalized as *functional congruity*) would be more important than personal liking (here: *overall affective image*) could not be confirmed for behavioral intentions. Probably both dimensions are mutually reinforcing.

The relevance of image for the *probability to return* was confirmed, with *overall destination image* revealing the strongest correlation. *Destination loyalty*, *overall affective image* and *functional congruity* followed, as did the perception of *basics*, *nature* and *destination-self-congruity*. *Destination loyalty* was nearly as important as destination image, especially for *psycho-centrics*. The importance of image dimensions for the *probability to recommend* was confirmed. *Loyalty to the destination* was significant, as well, especially in the case of *psycho-centrism*. However, *destination image dimensions* assumed a relatively higher level of importance (except for the “arousal-revealing” affective image factors). *Overall image*, *functional congruity*, the impression of *basics*, *pleasantness*, *nature* and *information* stood out (see chapter 9.3).

These results largely answered questions about destination image structure, factors influencing its formation and its potential impact on aspects of consumer behavior. Not all hypotheses were confirmed and some unexpected effects were revealed. These would justify future research. The presented findings of this destination image study also permit conclusions in the domain of destination marketing, as presented next.

Chapter 10.2. Implications of Results for Destination Marketing

One of the most relevant conclusions of findings for destination marketing is the *relevance of destination image for future tourist behavior*. This effect confirms other destination image studies (e.g. **Schroeder**, 1996, **Ross**, 1993). Particularly the importance of a favorable destination image for the probability to recommend a destination became evident. This effect must be recognized as most significant, as *positive word of mouth* has been identified as a powerful communication tool (see chapter 8.2.4.) with particular relevance for rural tourism destinations lacking resources to engage in a strong promotional campaign (see chapter 4.4.). The impact of a positive image for probability to come back is weaker, as tourism is by definition partly driven by the motive of

novelty/ curiosity (see chapter 2.6.), especially in the case of allo-centrics. Still, a positive destination image was found to have an impact on this behavioral variable, particularly through the development of *liking* or a positive affective image.

This relevance of destination image on behavior of the perceiving tourist and other potential tourists justifies the need of destination image analysis. This process helps identifying *relevant weak points* that should be improved as well as *strong points* to be enhanced. That is, destination image studies assist in *product (destination) development* and *market communication*. In the present case, aspects related to *nature* and *basics* should be maintained and stressed, whereas aspects related to *information* and *access* should be improved (see chapter 8.2.6).

➤ **Segmentation and Target Marketing**

Further, identified *image differences* show that different groups of tourists or tourists in different circumstances perceive the destination differently. Correspondingly, *segmentation* may be based on these differences and thereby assist in defining the target market (**Beane & Ennis**, 1987, **Garvey**, 1993, **Jenkins**, 1999). Different perceptions and evaluations correspond to different experiences, degrees of satisfaction and inclinations or attitudes towards the destination. Thus, tourists' destination image as a segmentation basis may help identifying those that are most satisfied with the actual supply and to whom the destination is most apt to cater. *Segment-specific image analysis* may assist in more effectively improving destination development and market communication, targeted at the selected segment(s) (see chapters 4.2. and 4.4.). Additionally, opportunities may be detected linked to the potential of image improvement for specific groups.

Friedmann (1986: 11) suggests that segmentation should focus on those image aspects with relative salience in terms of psychological meaning. In the present case the cognitive dimensions *nature* and *basics* were identified as most salient and related to affective dimensions (see chapters 8.2.6. and 9.1.1.) and might be therefore of particular importance, as also visible when analyzing their total impact on *overall image* (see chapter 9.1.4.).

Presented results reveal that particularly *benefits sought* lead to substantial image differences. This suggests benefit-segmentation as an appropriate tool for dividing the market, as has been assumed in several marketing studies before (**Haley**, 1968, **Calantone & Johar**, 1984, **Gitelson & Kerstetter**, 1990, **Loker & Perdue**, 1992, **Kastenholz**, 2000b). This type of segmentation has the advantage of permitting subsequent strategic and operational decisions to be based on the perhaps most relevant variable from a marketing point of view: *consumer needs and desires*. These needs are simultaneously related to concrete product features, thereby reflecting specific consumption motivations. As all marketing action strives at the satisfaction of consumer needs, this understanding is paramount and may assist in concretely defining consumer value (see also chapter

4.2.). Generally, tourism marketers should target those market segments, which have favorable images of a destination and include it within their *evoked set* (Garvey, 1993). From this point of view, in the present study, the benefit-segments named *Calm* and *Active Rural Tourists* should be considered as the most interesting for rural North Portugal, as they revealed the most positive images of the region and may be most successfully catered to.

As segmentation should lead to a measurable, substantial, accessible, actionable and appropriate target market, it should be further linked to other more descriptive variables that may clearly profile the market and reveal its attractiveness. These criteria are generally met for the two segments and their profiling is possible, as shown in chapter 8.2.5. Relevant variables in this context are segment dimension, nationality, age and length of stay: *Calm Rurals*, with 31 percent of the studied market, the largest segment, are mostly foreign and older tourists staying for longer periods of time, *Active Rurals*, with 26 percent of the market, are mainly domestic and younger tourists tending to travel to North Portugal for a short-break.

Actually, the two segments reveal quite distinct characteristics, which a destination must consider in product development and market communication. The choice of the *calm segment* would require a particular effort in international market communication and distribution, eventually feasible through associative approaches and use of latest communication technology. Targeting to this segment would result in the development of a holiday destination where people stay for between one and three weeks with a likely concentration on the high season, which may eventually expand from April to October. The fact that these tourists tend to be older and less interested in entertainment and sports implies fewer requirements in the development of corresponding facilities. Improvements are needed in terms of sign-posting and tourist information, as well as cultural and natural heritage protection and accessibility. Consequently, this tourist market integrates well in a *soft or sustainable destination development strategy* where impacts of tourism on the destination are minor and rather in the sense of conservation of primary resources. Economically, this market is attractive as average per day spending during the holidays was highest for this group and as this group further tends to stay for longer periods of time.

On the other hand, the choice of the *active segment* would imply facilitated access and communication to this mainly domestic market. Secondary data analysis revealed the opportunity of attracting an increasing domestic market (see chapter 3.5.3.). Apart from that, this segment is likely to come all year long (with an above-average presence in the low season observable) and thus reduce seasonality, although tourists tend to come only for a short-break.

According to the results of image analysis, segmentation may also be based on *length of stay*, *nationality group*, *age*, *region* and *season*, all leading to a distinct perception of the destination.

The relationships among these variables must be remembered since those staying longer tended to be particularly foreign coming in the high season and short-break visitors Portuguese coming in the low season. Further, the older age group tended to be foreign and to stay for longer and the younger tended to be Portuguese. Actually the image pattern distinguishing between the domestic and foreign market and that distinguishing between those staying for a short-break and for longer was nearly identical. That is, *nationality group* and *length of stay* should be considered in conjunction. Both markets, the domestic short break and the foreign holiday market should be considered most important, the first for guaranteeing business along the whole year and for its easier access, the second for its economic relevance, as well as for the national balance of payments. A mix of domestic and foreign markets is further desirable to reduce market dependency in this already volatile business context. For enhancing satisfaction of foreign tourists a greater care for the environment and an improvement of sign posting and tourist information as well as an improved access to natural (walking paths!) and cultural heritage should be provided. When the satisfaction of the domestic market is at stake, additional efforts should be undertaken for providing high quality infrastructures and facilities and adding activities and socializing opportunities. This may actually convince the domestic market to stay for longer periods.

Image differences between *seasons* may suggest a different holiday experience that may be sought by and provided and promoted to tourists in each season. The low season should promote a more *calm* and the high season a more *active, hedonistic, warm and colorful experience*. The low season may be more adequate for *relaxation motives* and the high season partly more adequate for “*sunlust*” motives. However, this should be further nationality group-specific. Foreign tourists tend to encounter a *pleasant, warm, active and socializing experience in the high season* and a more *natural and calm experience in the low*. Portuguese, on the other hand, found a *culturally more interesting experience in the low season*. That is, for the domestic market apart from *relaxation* the “*wanderlust*” motive seems more relevant in the low season (Ross, 1998: 22), linked to the exploration of *culture*. For foreigners the exploration of *nature* seems more relevant in the low season. Alternatively, the actually not explored attraction may be better organized for and promoted to the respective markets in order to increase diversity and overall attractiveness.

Finally, the *oldest age group* stands out as particularly satisfied, less demanding and most interested in sustainable destination development. As seen before, this market segment reveals a very interesting growth perspective in the main tourist-generating countries (see chapter 2.7.). **Oppermann** (1995), for example, identified in the case of the German market a particular growth potential for Portugal as a holiday destination for the older age groups. These findings confirm the most attractive market opportunity this segment represents for the studied rural tourist destination.

All these groups seem to be of interest and may be attracted in a *complementary* fashion *along the year* (with an emphasis on *active rurals*, *short-break visitors* and *domestic tourists* in the low season and on the older *calm rurals* and *foreign holiday-makers* in the high) and eventually *across sub-regions*. Identified sub-regional image differences must be viewed contingent upon the predominant type of market in each area. Thus, the negatively biased image of the *Douro* region may be improved by attracting a different market (more foreign tourists and longer staying holiday-makers instead of Portuguese short break visitors). When considering the type of benefits sought by the foreign market, this should actually be more satisfied by the less developed, more *authentic* and natural interior rural areas of North Portugal (*Douro* and *Tras-os-Montes*). However, in order to enhance longer stays some basic infrastructures should also be improved. The *Minho* region, with a very positive image among the Portuguese should improve its image in the foreign market by insisting on an environmentally sustainable development and preventing excessive urbanization, as far as possible.

Segmentation may thus be based on the most salient image differences between groups of tourists. Some segments may be of interest as most homogeneously perceiving the destination, independently of interaction with other profiling variables. The stimulus context (here: sub-region visited and season) must be simultaneously considered as shaping destination profile and correspondingly presenting *context-dependent advantages, which should be offered to specific market segments, according to their preference structure*. That is, target marketing should further adapt to specific sub-regional and seasonal contexts and different sub-regions may successfully attract different target markets in different times of the year.

Alternatively, *segmentation may be undertaken directly based upon perceptions and evaluations*, using a cluster-analysis with evaluative ratings for this purpose. The profile of resulting clusters may also reveal the most determining variables for cluster differences. As the main concern of this study was not segmentation, but the understanding of destination image structure and the effect of a series of independent variables on this construct, the corresponding comparative analyses were more appropriate. They may, as a by-product, suggest interesting market segments. In any case, the understanding of the effect of diverse independent variables on destination image may help shape this image by considering the context and target of image formation.

One group might be treated separately, namely the *psycho-centric destination-loyal repeat visitors*, for whom the *habituation effect* seems to be more relevant than destination image for behavioral intentions. That is, it might be worth while investing in *relationship building* with the psycho-centric market and to provide incentives for repeat visits to this group, although it is not easy to identify before-hand. For this group this effort would be more action-relevant than image building.

The focus of the destination on specific segments, eventually changing over time and across space may be designed as *market-portfolio management* (McKercher, 1995). This combined with an *integrated and sustainable destination management and marketing approach* (Font & Ahjem, 1999, Jenkins & McArthur, 1996, Heath & Wall, 1992, Ashworth & Voogd, 1990, Lundberg, 1990) seems most adequate (see chapter 4), particularly for rural destinations. This is particularly true if the destination aims at a *quality strategy* (Roth, 1992), where high quality experiences should be clearly targeted to a carefully chosen, identifiable and controllable market segment. The alternative *price-quantity strategy* may be problematic in rural areas, for which several authors defend restrictions of tourist numbers and tourism development (e.g. Ryan, 1991, Ribeiro, 1991).

The capacity of adapting to and attracting one or more segments with concentrated or differentiated strategies (Gultinan & Paul, 1994, Kotler, 1998) obviously depends on the destination's primary and secondary resources and their evaluation by the market. Also on a micro-level, each company integrating a destination's supply-system should identify the most appropriate market considering both the market's attractiveness and its own competencies. On a macro-level, the suggested integrated marketing approach is only feasible if single agents cooperate creating well functioning *networks* (European Commission, 1999, Jansen-Verbeke, 1996, Costa, 1996, Heath & Wall, 1992). Also *leadership, dynamism, closeness to the market* and *focus on local heritage* and *community participation* have been stressed as key factors of success (European Commission, 1999, Lengkeek, 1998, Palmer, 1996, Heath & Wall, 1992, McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990).

➤ **Brand Image Development and Management**

Also in the context of destinations the development of a strong *brand-image*, which must be carefully managed over time (Park *et al.*, 1986), is recommended (see chapter 5.1.5.b.). This image must be based on both a corresponding *product (destination)-reality* and effective *market communication*. If an image is understood as a *meaning profile* (Durgee & Stuart, 1987), associations of meanings, symbols and features must be carefully controlled and effectively directed to the selected target-market. The stage in the process of image formation of this target market must be considered (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991) so that the destination can be effectively promoted. The present study only addressed the *effective market*, i.e. first time and repeat visitors of North Portugal. Still, the *potential market* may be indirectly reached by word-of-mouth of visitors who thereby participate in creating an organic image among non-visitors. The effectiveness of *image induction* in the case of first-time holiday-makers in the Minho region may be questioned, as those spending more time at the destination perceived it less positively than short-break visitors did (which contradicted the general pattern). It may have resulted in persuading tourists to come but failed in creating a realistic, achievable image. This may lead to a negative overall outcome via

dissatisfaction and negative word-of-mouth. In the case of repeat visitors, messages reminding the destination and its most distinct and valued features should be highlighted in destination promotion.

It is in this context most important to understand the effect of *visual promotional material*, which should significantly assist in the image communication process (**MacKay & Fersenmaier**, 1997, **Weaver & McCleary**, 1984, see chapter 6.2.2.). It is also most relevant to understand what the market appreciates and values most and how it actually perceives specific destination offerings. If a destination intends an *image change*, it may follow **Malaka's** (1990) suggestion to improve those *salient features that are easiest to change* and whose changes *optimize overall positive effects*. **Crompton** (1979) suggests that particularly those image aspects valued most by the target-market should be the focus of attention. The need of *matching benefits sought* (**Woodside**, 1982, **Crompton et al.**, 1992) through a *consistent and supportive marketing program* (**Aaker**, 1982, **Gartner & Hunt**, 1987) is often stressed in this context. The particular relevance of *affective image* and *imagery* in destination image must also be considered (**Reilly**, 1990).

In the present study *nature-related items* stand out as most salient and strongly related to the motivation-reflecting affective image. They may be correspondingly viewed as the most *push-reinforcing pull factors* (**Uysal & Hagan**, 1993). Nature is generally viewed as a relevant primary tourism resource and could be identified as particularly significant in the rural tourism context. It was also identified as particularly relevant for the *rural benefit segments*. As an example, nature-related aspects that seem easy to improve and were further most demanded, especially by the most interesting market segments, were *walking paths* and corresponding *sign-posting*. Eventually more difficult to change would be environmental conservation (reduction of litter and pollution in the landscape, improved territorial planning, reduction of forest fires etc.), although this should be a general sustainable development concern, most relevant for the resident community itself.

It was suggested that image change is the slower and more difficult, the larger the regional entity (**Gartner**, 1993). That is, North Portugal must be viewed in the context of the image of Portugal as a tourist destination, which is not actually that of a rural tourist destination, but marked by a "*beach and sun*" image. Correspondingly, the effort of creating a distinct image of the studied region in a broad market may be substantial. The eventual creation of very distinct sub-regional images may not be advisable. A relatively consistent image of a peaceful, natural and culturally interesting rural North should have a stronger impact, particularly in the international market. The sub-regional differences may be pointed out as examples of variety within this global destination. As a matter of fact, this study's definition of North Portugal may not correspond to what the tourist defines as North Portugal. Some foreign tourists defined everything north of Lisbon as North Portugal and actually traveled in this entire area. It may therefore be useful to promote a larger Central-North

region to the international market (**Lundberg**, 1990). Thus, different destination definitions should exist for the domestic and foreign market and the consideration of sub-regions within North Portugal should be a reasonable approach only for the first.

However important a destination's effort in building a favorable and consistent image that is supported by the destination's real qualities, it must be acknowledged that there are numerous uncontrollable factors intervening in the process. Apart from the relevance of a series of independent variables shaping perception and identified in the study the existence of *uncontrollable information sources* (**Baloglu**, 1996, **Crompton**, 1979) must be stressed. In this context the relevance of *organic image formation agents* (**Gartner**, 1993) must be acknowledged. These may be indirectly used via the guarantee of *tourist satisfaction* and *positive word-of-mouth*, especially when resources for engaging in promotion are scarce. Satisfaction may also lead to *habitual buying* especially in the case of *psycho-centric travelers*, even though to a lesser degree than in the case of other product categories. In this case, image stability, favorableness and brand loyalty function in a mutually enhancing way (**Malaka**, 1990) or as a *virtuous circle* (see chapter 6.2.2.). The effect of a positive image on destination recommendation was shown to be stronger than on likelihood to come back.

➤ Positioning

Strategic image management (**Baloglu**, 1996, **Kotler**, 1993) should also consider competing destinations in an attempt to create a strong and distinct market position. Correspondingly *distinctive, unique and appealing* (**Echtner & Ritchie**, 1993, **Calantone et al**, 1989, **Woodside**, 1982) features must be identified. In the present study, specific *landscape features* (e.g. the Douro valley with its wine terraces, the Oporto river margin, the lakes surrounded by mountains in Trás-os-Montes, the sandy beaches or typical villages and harsh mountainous landscapes) and *friendly people* stand out as most distinctive and appreciated. Also *cultural elements* (e.g. *azulejos*, *fado*) and *gastronomy (especially wine)* are worth of notice. These features, which may be dramatized as destination *markers* (**MacCannell**, 1976), may also position the destination successfully in the context of its *strategic group* (**Haati**, 1986). This group may be defined as those destinations more directly competing with the destination in question (**Kastenholz & Carneiro**, 2001) or as those destinations integrating the *evoked set* (**Scott et al**, 1978, **Um & Crompton**, 1990).²⁴⁸

²⁴⁸ A strategic group was not identified for comparison purposes in this study, but should be those rural tourist destinations that compete most directly in the target consumer's *evoked set*. As most mentioned rural holiday destinations, one might assume *Italy*, *Spain* and *France* as probably the most relevant international competitors, although this delimitation should further depend on the selected target-market. For the Portuguese sample, domestic destinations, such as the Alentejo or the Serra da Estrela should be more significant. These destinations should be compared on those most salient features in order to understand North Portugal's competitive position.

➤ **Internal Marketing: Development of an *Overall Concept***

The image held by the local population, being part of its *identity* (Cohen, 1993, Methan, 1996, Schroeder, 1996), should be considered. This image, also designed as “*Leitbild*”, “guiding image” or *overall concept*, may motivate the population’s interest and participation in the tourism development process (Woehler, 1998) (see chapters 4.1. and 4.4.). As particularly in rural tourism *sympathy of population* could be identified as an essential aspect of a satisfactory holiday experience (see chapter 6.4.), the engagement of the resident population in tourism development should not be underestimated. The question of who defines destination image is most relevant in this context, as it should not be completely left to the tourism industry or to the tourist market. However, agents of tourism supply and intermediaries play an important role in creating and transmitting a destination image. It is therefore interesting to analyze the images held by the travel industry (Embacher & Buttle, 1989) in order to understand image formation and identify image gaps, which may explain misunderstandings and sub-optimal tourist destination development. A corresponding study would be most useful for a well-designed marketing approach. This was partly undertaken in an exploratory exercise comparing tour operators, travel agents and agents of tourism supply in North Portugal, revealing a series of interesting gaps (Kastenholz, 2000a). Still, it should be completed by an analysis of the population’s destination image.

➤ **Specific Implications for Rural Tourist Destinations**

Considering characteristics of *rural tourist destinations* the above-discussed conclusions must be integrated in a particularly cautious *sustainable development framework* (see chapter 4.4.). Due to the relevance of *nature, culture and sympathy of population* as motivational aspects of the rural tourist destination image, a *sustainable development approach*, with particular *conservationist concerns*, as well as a *community-based tourism-product development* are also required from a market point of view (see chapter 4.1.). This makes the careful choice of the destination’s target market, which takes consequences of this option into consideration, a strategically most relevant issue. *Lack of resources* should be a reason for carefully planned marketing action rather than a reason for non-planning, since this marketing planning effort will determine most efficient allocation of scarce resources and the destination’s market-success.

If the studied tourist market is (at least partly) representative of a *typical rural tourist market*, the sometimes-encountered *misperception of a homogeneous rural tourist market* could be defeated (see chapters 3.3., 3.4., 8 and 9). Different travelers visit different parts of the countryside, at different times along the year, for different periods of stay, for different reasons, appreciating different aspects of the rural destination, feeling more or less attracted to it and seeking different types of tourism products. Considering the two identified *rural benefit segments* as particularly

interesting for North Portugal, it must be realized that even this market is heterogeneous. This requires different types of supply although always integrated in an attractive, consistent rural setting. The development of complementary and not-contradictory offerings should be a prime concern. Eventually the separation of segments in space and time could be another solution. In any case, a profound knowledge of the market, its desires, perceptions and behaviors is the first step in choosing the target-market that best fits overall development goals. Obviously the latter are contingent upon a sound knowledge of the destination's resources and competences, as well as the diverse stakeholders' interests. Next, corresponding products may be developed, the most adequate prices defined, the best way of commercialization identified and the most effective communication chosen. Due to the *dispersion and small scale* of rural tourism agents and the particular *interdependency* of parts of a rural destination's supply, *associative marketing and management approaches* are especially required in this context.

➤ **Specific Implications for North Portugal**

Finally, specific implications for destination marketing in rural areas of *North Portugal* can be derived. Apart from the identification of most interesting target markets, as discussed before (*rural benefit segments, the older age group*), overall image strengths and weaknesses could be encountered. This permits the identification of urgent destination improvements (e.g. information, sign-posting, environmental protection). It further may help in identifying and emphasizing relevant positively evaluated features in market communication (e.g. nature, sympathy of population²⁴⁹). However, both concrete product development and communication efforts should be clearly targeted and eventually differentiated as previously discussed (*active versus rural benefit segment*). Also distinct approaches seem reasonable for the different sub-regions identified, particularly considering the coastal versus interior regions.

The presented results should be primarily relevant for North Portugal, as they were based upon a sample of tourists visiting rural areas of that destination. Some aspects, such as the heterogeneity of the rural tourist market, the relevance of nature and landscape as well as sympathy of population (due to the close-contact nature of this tourism form) should apply to rural tourist destinations in general. The relevance of destination image for future tourist behavior, concretely more for positive word of mouth than for repeat visitation, should be valid for all destinations.

²⁴⁹ Particularly the last aspect seems to be underestimated in promotional communication, where people appear only rarely, whereas monuments seem to be over-evaluated, when considering the interests of the studied market.

Chapter 10.3. Summary of Contributions

The results of this piece of research are particularly located in the context of consumer behavior in tourism. Findings may simultaneously be an interesting contribution for consumer behavior, in general, as the present field of application may replicate results found in other domains. *General contributions* of this study in the domain of *consumer behavior* are:

- a clarification of the structure of “*image*” and relations between image components: all elements identified in image studies in other product domains, namely the cognitive, affective, imagery and holistic were confirmed and their interrelation shown; further multi-dimensionality of both the cognitive and affective image was confirmed, with affective image being best represented by one more evaluative dimension;
- the *hierarchy of effects paradigm* (cognition → affect → behavior) was assumed in the present study and its first part was represented in a reasonably well defined path-model, although the direction of causality could not actually be proved by this procedure. It may be of interest to consider in this model the here suggested constructed variable *functional congruity*, as derived from *means-ends-analysis*, and indicating in one summary variable the subjectively perceived capacity of an object to satisfy a need-state. This variable may link cognition and affect, as being principally derived from cognitive image, but also including a motivational element. Further, our results suggest the relevance of the *evaluative affective image dimension* in the context of this model, whereas the other affective (arousal revealing) dimensions may be rather indirectly affecting the main suggested causal flow.
- Image could be confirmed as relevant for behavior. The impact of image on *word-of-mouth* was more significant than that on repeat behavior. This should be related to the major *push motive* called *novelty* in the context of tourism. Also for other products the *novelty-seeking* motive may be identified. One may suggest that particularly when this motivation is present, a positive image should be more correlated to increased likelihood of recommendation than to the probability to repeat purchase and consumption. That is, the effect of image on probability to repeat purchase should be moderated by the degree of *novelty-seeking*, typical for the product category in question.
- Also the proposition of self-congruity feelings impacting on behavioral intentions could be confirmed. Concretely, *actual self-congruity* was shown to impact on intended repeat purchase, as suggested by self-congruity theory (Sirgy, 1983), and to a lesser extent on probability to recommend. The latter may be more influenced by *ideal or social self-congruity*, as referring to a socially relevant behavior.

The major *general contributions* of this research project in the domain of *tourism marketing*, more specifically *consumer behavior in tourism*, are:

- a clarification of the concept of “*destination image*” and its structure;
- the development of complex instruments for its assessment;
- the identification of relevant (co-) determinants of destination image, with a particular emphasis on *benefits sought*, *length of stay*, *nationality group*, *stimulus context (sub-region and season)* and *age*, whereas the expected effect of *repeat visit* was not confirmed; *length of stay* and *stimulus-context variables* are worth of notice, as variables rather neglected in destination image research;
- the confirmation of the tendency of *finding what is sought* or of *active and positively constructive holiday making* (Ryan, 1994);
- the confirmation of the role of destination image for (intentional) future tourist behavior, especially probability to recommend;
- the partial confirmation of *self-congruity theory* in the domain of destination image research;
- the identification of the moderating role of *psycho-graphic traveler type* in the context of destination image structure and the relationship between *destination loyalty* and behavioral effects.

Correspondingly the following contributions in the domain of *tourist destination marketing* may be identified:

- the confirmation of the importance of destination image for consumer behavior, justifying the relevance of its study for improving destination marketing;
- the identification of different destination images, according to different benefits sought, traveling and stimulus context and socio-demographic traveler variables, suggesting a differential treatment of these groups; and consequently
- the identification of the relevance of destination image for market segmentation and target marketing;
- the identification of the destination’s strong and weak points, in general and from the point of view of different market segments, particularly relevant for both destination development and market communication.

In the domain of *rural tourism* the following contributions may be summarized:

- the identification of specific image contents (*nature, local population, culture*), which largely confirm the findings presented in rural tourism literature;
- the development of valid and reliable forms of destination-image assessment in the context of rural tourism;
- the identification of heterogeneity in the *rural tourism market*, in terms of motivations, travel behavior, socio-demographics and destination image;
- the identification of specific characteristics of the most enthusiastic and most critical rural tourist market;
- the identification of ways to adapt destination marketing of rural areas to the specific rural tourist markets via destination image analysis.

As far as *tourism in rural areas in North Portugal* is concerned, this study assists in:

- assessing the image of North Portugal as a rural tourist destination;
- identifying the effective market of this destination, its profile, motivations and behavior patterns;
- identifying the most interesting tourist segments in terms of destination image (*active and calm rural tourists, older age group*) as well as the possibility of *market-portfolio management*;
- revealing the destination's strong and weak points, motivational and hygienic attributes, and aspects that might be improved or enhanced in order to attract and satisfy specific tourist groups;
- thereby providing a basis for a tourist destination marketing strategy, which should be completed by the integration of further political, geographic, cultural and social data and the involvement of the main actors of rural tourism in North Portugal. The importance of this study lies in the fact that it is the first large-scale image-study and psycho-graphic survey undertaken in rural areas in North Portugal, which confers particular practical relevance to its results for the strategic marketing planning process in this region.

Chapter 10.4. Limitations of the Study

This thesis, as any piece of research, has its limitations. Conceptually, it could not be based on any one *theory of destination image*. Even the tourism field, although a specific domain of research for several decades, lacks a sound theoretical basis (**Tribe**, 1997). This is partly true for marketing as well (**Baker**, 1991:6-8). Both fields of research have heavily borrowed from other disciplines.

Since this thesis makes a connection between tourism and marketing research, the *theoretical background* of the thesis is interdisciplinary and complex. The envisaged scope of the thesis required a series of subjective options, which were guided by a particular research interest and a logical line of reflection.

In the *empirical research approach* limitations must be admitted. The *sampling* procedure aimed at an approximately representative sample of tourists in rural areas in North Portugal. This was to a high degree achieved, although some biases were intentionally introduced and others could not be avoided. In any case, the population of interest is not exactly definable (see chapters 7.4.1 and 8.2.1), due to the lack of reliable data available on leisure tourism in rural areas in North Portugal.

The image object, North Portugal, was defined according to its *administrative and promotional geographical delimitation*, even though (particularly foreign) tourists would frequently define North Portugal differently (some including anything north of Lisbon). From a marketing perspective this demand-based definition might be more adequate (Lundberg, 1990). Still, destinations are actually planned and managed based on these supply-side based definitions and a clear geographical delimitation was needed in order to take valid conclusions about a specific geographical area. However, the data administration procedure assured that respondents referred primarily to *North Portugal*, as defined for this study (see chapter 7.4.1).

The *imagery component* of destination image was only assessed in a limited and explanatory manner via *photo-association* by part of the sample. The *semantic differential* scale battery only sub-optimally assesses affective destination image, being limited to descriptors that were also appropriate for the evaluation of self (see chapters 7.4.2. and 8.2.6.). The diverse approaches used to assess destination image may have led to a counterproductive response fatigue. Finally, the *translation* of the image batteries to five different languages may imply some problems. Even if words were correctly translated, meanings, broadness and associations of linguistic signs may vary from one sign-system to the other (see also Weiler, 1989). However, this limitation was consciously accepted, as the alternative would have been a smaller and probably distorted sample.

The assessment and operationalization of some *independent variables* that were suggested to affect destination image may be discussible (e.g. the exact delimitation of the high and low season or of age-groups). The definition of corresponding categories, especially concerning the upper and lower limits is to a certain degree arbitrary. Some independent variables were not analyzed, even though they had been considered relevant in other destination image studies, such as sources of information and image induction. The difficulty in exactly distinguishing information sources in the context of the suggested research design led to the conscious disregard of this theoretically

important variable (see chapter 6.2.2.). Still, the consideration of *prior visit* as an independent variable implies at least the inclusion of this most impacting information source in the model.

The *explanatory* ambition of the study is only achievable in an *exploratory* manner. Additional research would follow more sophisticated tests of a complex model of destination image determinants and effects. Mainly first-order and sometimes second-order interaction effects were considered. An analysis of higher-order interaction would have become too complex. In the context of image structure a more complex path analytical model was applied, but for testing (co-) determinants of destination image, mainly single relations between independent, image and behavioral variables were explored. For this purpose correlational or comparative analysis was used, but it must be remembered that correlational studies do not provide causal evidence, which can only be logically derived.

Chapter 10.5. Recommendations for future research

Considering the limitations of the present research project, a series of improvements may be recommended and areas identified in which further research might be most promising.

First considering *methodological aspects, increasing the number and variety of sampling sites and frequency of sampling may enhance representativeness of the sample*. Eventually, a greater effort should be undertaken to include the Spanish and the Portuguese visiting friends and relatives. Apart from that, the analysis of the *potential but actually not reached market* might be most interesting in order to identify opportunities (e.g. the family market with minor children, which is a significant segment in other countries, see chapter 3.4.).

Eventually, it would be interesting to increase the *geographical scope* of the image object; particularly considering what part of the market defines as “North Portugal”. Additionally, the rural and urban North Portugal may be compared and the irradiation effects from one space to the other from the point of view of the itinerary tourist market identified. Further, the assessment of images of Portugal, as a whole, among the effective market of the diverse Portuguese regions, should be most interesting in order to identify eventual *halo- or irradiation-effects*. An analysis of destination images of the *potential tourist market directed both to rural North Portugal and other Portuguese destinations* may be useful, although difficult and expensive to realize. Finally, a simultaneous assessment of *destination images of the most relevant rural tourism competitors* (those belonging to the *evoked set*) may be undertaken. This should permit to identify the competitive position of the destination and to take strategic destination marketing conclusions with more complete background information.

Different approaches on *image assessment* may enrich results. The significance of pictorial representation and imagery in the context of destination image formation and projection justifies a particular effort to include corresponding elements in destination image assessment and analysis. So, the use of *destination photos* may be improved, eventually by the use of destination photos produced by the tourists themselves, a more systematic, complete, but parsimonious and balanced selection of image dimensions clearly represented by the photos and the application of this technique to a more representative sample. Also the analysis of visuals in promotional material of rural North Portugal may be of interest in order to compare projected and perceived images. Another important qualitative approach would be the use of *in-depth interviews* and diverse applications of *projective techniques* may complete the assessment and understanding of destination image, its determinants and effects.

Also the *quantitative image assessment* instrument used may be improved. For example, some items may be added to the *cognitive image battery* (e.g. aspects reflecting safety dimensions) and particularly to the *affective image battery*, without any limitation due to simultaneous use for self-evaluation. In any case, the total number of items should not be too extensive, as otherwise the validity of answers should be affected. It might be interesting to attempt the elaboration of more *consensual item lists across studies*, considering the destination type and holiday experience sought, i.e. apart from rural tourism, sun & beach tourism, city-breaks, eco-tourism, spa-tourism, etc.

The diverse self-rating scales may actually be eliminated, since for *destination-self-congruity* a single scale was suggested to be sufficient and actually preferred. On the other hand, a more profound approach on *destination-self-congruity* may be interesting, considering different image objects (instead of the destination, its population or visitors) and distinguishing social, ideal and actual self. If *personality* is analyzed as a relevant variable influencing destination image, other tested scales from psychology might be used. Another independent variable that might be of interest and more thoroughly analyzed in the domain of destination image is *involvement*. This variable that has received much attention in consumer research (e.g. **Laurent & Kapferer**, 1985) was suggested to be partly reflected by the variables *length of stay* and *repeat visit*. Still, it might be operationalized as a complex scale battery reflecting several dimensions, if this variable was a major focus of interest. Also the degree and types of *familiarity* might be a relevant variable, which justifies a more profound analysis, especially if combined with measures of involvement and experience. Also this variable was partly included in *repeat visit* as well as *domestic market*, but could be operationalized in a more explicit way. Apart from that, *information sources* influencing destination image have been suggested as relevant variables (**Baloglu**, 1996, **Gartner**, 1993) and might be analyzed in a different research design, which would separate different source effects.

Other eventually interesting variables suggested by other researchers may be: *opportunities and type of tourist-resident interaction* (Weiler, 1989), *recreational pursuits* (Dagostar et.al, 1995), *distance between site of residence and destination* (Hu & Ritchie, 1993), *cultural background* (Richardson & Crompton, 1988), although partly included in the variable *nationality group*, but eventually operationalized in a more complex way.

It would be most interesting to analyze all these variables and their impact on destination image together with the already included variables. However, the complexity and dimension of the resulting questionnaire may not be feasible when aiming at a large sample. Still, the analysis of other variables would enrich and complete results presented here.

In terms of *image analysis* different methods may be used, such as more systematic qualitative methods (e.g. the *repertory grid technique*) or those using software assistance to find structure and relations among categories in texts (e.g. programs like *nudist*). The iconic richness of visual data may require the introduction of specific techniques of pictorial interpretation. Apart from that, it would be most interesting to apply complex models adequate for both categorical and numerical data, capable of integrating several levels with numerous variables and categories each, and eventually using artificial intelligence approaches. The most confirmed relationships and eventually others, which were not tested here, but suggested as relevant in destination image literature, would be included in these models.

Identified destination images should be *periodically re-evaluated* especially after the introduction of image-relevant product-modifications or other marketing actions. Also the evolution of destination image over time for each specific market segment should be monitored.

Finally, it would be most interesting to *validate results through replication studies* in other (rural and non-rural) tourist destinations. This process may lead to the identification of a recurrent image structure, reveal common and distinct image components for distinct types of destinations and provide evidence for the existence of complex relationships among several variables influencing and resulting from destination image. This may contribute to the consolidation of a *destination image theory*, which could hopefully be advanced by the presented exploratory research results.

REFERENCES

- Aaker**, D.A. 1982. "Positioning your product." *Business Horizons* 25 (May/ June): 56-62.
- Aaker**, J.L. 1997. "Dimensions of brand personality." *Journal of Marketing Research* XXXIV: 347-356.
- Aaker**, D., V. **Kumar**, and G.S. **Day**. 1998. *Marketing Research*. 6th edition. New York: Wiley.
- ADETURN**, Região de Turismo do Alto Minho, Região de Turismo do Verde Minho and Região de Turismo da Serra do Marão. 1998. *Minho*. (official tourist brochure) Porto: Edições Livro Branco.
- ADETURN**, Região de Turismo do Douro Sul, Região de Turismo do Nordeste Transmontano and Região de Turismo da Serra do Marão. 1998. *Douro*. (official tourist brochure) Porto: Edições Livro Branco.
- ADETURN**, Região de Turismo do Nordeste Transmontano, Região de Turismo do Alto Tâmega e Barroso and Região de Turismo da Serra do Marão. 1998. *Trás-os-Montes*. (official tourist brochure) Porto: Edições Livro Branco.
- Alhemoud**, A.M. and E.G. **Armstrong**. 1996. "Image of Tourism Attractions in Kuwait." *Journal of Travel Research* 34 (4) (Spring 1996): 76-80.
- Ahmed**, Z.U. 1991. "The influence of the components of a state's tourist image on product positioning strategy." *Tourism Management* (Dec. 1991): 331-340.
- Ahmed**, Z.U. 1996. "The need for the identification of the constituents of a destination's tourist image: a promotional segmentation perspective." *The Tourist Review* (2/1996): 37-60.
- Aigner**, J.G. and C. **Wandl**. 1994. *Das Image von Milch- Die Positionierung von Milchmarken auf der Grundlage der Nonverbalen Imagemessung*. Linz: Universitaetsverlag Rudolf Trauner.
- Alba**, J.W., and A. **Chattopadhyay**. 1986. "Salience Effects in Brand Recall." *Journal of Marketing Research* XXIII (Nov. 1986): 363-369.
- Allanson**, P., J. **Murdoch**, G. **Garrod** and P. **Lowe**. 1995. "Sustainability and the rural economy: an evolutionary perspective." *Environment and Planning* 27: 1797-1814.
- Arroteia**, J. 1994. *O Turismo em Portugal- subsídios para o seu conhecimento (Cadernos Turismo e Sociedade)*. Aveiro: Universidade de Aveiro.
- Ashworth**, G. and H. **Voogdt**. 1994a. "Marketing and Place Promotion.", In *Place Promotion- The use of publicity and marketing to sell towns and regions*. Eds. Gold and Ward. Chichester, New York, Brisbane, Toronto, Singapore: John Wiley & Sons, 39-52.
- Ashworth**, G. and H. **Voogdt**. 1994b. "Marketing of Tourism Places: What are we doing?" In *Global Tourist Behavior*. Ed. Uysal. New York: International Business Press, 5-19.
- Ashworth**, G. and H. **Voogdt**. 1991. "Can Places be sold for Tourism?" In *Marketing Tourism Places*. Eds. Ashworth and Goodall. London and New York: Routledge, 1-16.
- Azevedo**, A. and M. **Farangmehr**. 2000. "Importância da personalidade de marca na construção e posicionamento das marcas de roupa." In: *Actas do I Seminário Marketing Estratégico e Planeamento*, Ed. Farangmehr, M. Braga: Escola de Economia e Gestão da Universidade do Minho, 101-116.

- Badouin, R.** 1982. *Socio-Economia do Ordenamento Rural*. Porto: Res-Editora Lda.
- Bagozzi, R.P.** 1988. "The rebirth of Attitude Research in Marketing." *Journal of the Market Research Society* 30 (2): 163-195.
- Bagozzi, R.P.** and R.E. **Burnkrant.** 1979. "Attitude Organization and the Attitude-Behavior Relationship." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 37 (6): 913-929.
- Bagozzi R.P.** and R.E. **Burnkrant.** 1985. "Attitude Organization and the Attitude-Behavior Relationship: A Reply to Dillon and Kumar." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 49 (1): 47-57.
- Baloglu, S.** 1996. *An empirical investigation of determinants of tourist destination image*. PhD Dissertation. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, UMI dissertation Services.
- Baloglu, S.** and D. **Brinberg.** 1997. "Affective Images of Tourism Destinations." *Journal of Travel Research* 35 (4): 11-15.
- Baloglu, S.** and K.W. **McCleary.** 1999. "A model of destination image formation." *Annals of Tourism Research* 26 (4): 868-897.
- Banks, W.P.** and D. **Krajicek.** 1991. "Perception" *Annual Review of Psychology* 42: 305-331.
- Baptista, M.** 1990. *O Turismo na Economia: uma abordagem técnica, económica, social e cultural*. Lisboa: Instituto Nacional de Formação Turística.
- Baptista, M.** 1997. *Turismo, Competitividade sustentável*. Lisboa: Verbo.
- Baron, R.M.** and D.A. **Kenny.** 1986. "The moderator- mediator distinction in social psychological research: conceptual, strategic and statistical considerations." *Journal of Personality and social psychology* 51: 1173-11882.
- Beane, T.P.** and D.M. **Ennis.** 1987. "Market Segmentation: A Review." *European Journal of Marketing* 21 (5): 20-42~.
- Belk, R.W.** and R.W. **Pollay.** 1985. "Images of Ourselves: The Good Life in Twentieth Century Advertising." *Journal of Consumer Research* 11: 887-897.
- Bendapudi, N.** and L.L. **Berry.** 1997. "Customers' Motivations for Maintaining Relationships with Service Providers." *Journal of Retailing* 73 (1): 15-37.
- Berger, A.** 1975. *La nouvelle economie de l'espace rural*. Paris: Éditions Cujas.
- Bergler, R.** 1963. *Psychologie des Marken- und Firmenbildes*. Goettingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht.
- Bitner, M.J.** 1992. "Servicescapes: the impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees." *Journal of Marketing* 54: 57-71.
- Bitner, M.J.** and V. **Zeithaml.** 1998. *Services Marketing*. New York: MacGrawHill.
- Boivin, Y.** 1986. "A free response approach to the measurement of brand perceptions." *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 3 (86): 11-17.
- Boorstin, D.** 1972. *The Image. A Guide to Pseudo-Events in America*. New York: Atheneum.
- Botterill, T.D.,** and J.L. **Crompton.** 1996. "Two Case Studies Exploring the Nature of the Tourist's Experience." *Journal of Leisure Research* 28 (1): 57-82.

- Boulding**, K.E. 1956. *The Image: Knowledge and Life in Society*. Ann Arbor MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Bouquet**, M. and M. **Winter**. (eds) 1987. *Who from their labours rest? conflict and practice in rural tourism*. Aldershot: Avebury.
- Bryden**, J. 2000. "Declínio? Que declíneo?" *LEADER magazine* 22 (Spring 2000): 10-12.
- Bryman**, A. and D. **Cramer**. 1994. *Quantitative Data Analysis for Social Scientists*. (revised edition) London and New York: Routledge.
- Burkart**, A.J. and S. **Medlik**. 1974. *Tourism- past, present, future*. London: Heinemann.
- Burton**, R. 1995. *Travel Geography*, London: Pitman Publishing.
- Busby**, G. and S. **Rendle**. 2000. "The transition from tourism on farms to farm tourism." *Tourism Management* 21: 635-642.
- Butler**, R. 1980. "The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution - implications for management of resources." *Canadian Geographer* 24 (1): 5-12.
- Calantone**, R.J., C.A. **di Benedetto**, A.**Hakam** and D. C. **Bojanic**. 1989. "Multiple Multinational Tourism Positioning using Correspondence Analysis." *Journal of Travel Research* 28 (2): 25-32.
- Calantone**, R.J. and J.S. **Johar**. 1984. "Seasonal Segmentation of the Tourism Market using a Benefit Segmentation Framework." *Journal of Travel Research* (Fall 1984): 14-24.
- Calatrava**, J. and P.R. **Avilés**. 1993. "O turismo, uma oportunidade para as zonas rurais desfavorecidas?" *Cadernos LEADER "Comercializar um turismo rural de qualidade"* Bruxelles: Célula de Animação LEADER (AEIDL), 9-18.
- Campbell**, D.T. and D.W. **Fiske**. 1959. "Convergent and discriminant validation by the multi-trait-multimethod-matrix." *Psychological Bulletin* 56: 81-105.
- Cavaco**, C. 1993. "Da Integração na PAC ao Turismo cinegético." *InforGeo- Turismo* (Dez 1993): 37-53.
- Cavaco**, C. 1995. "Rural Tourism: The creation of new tourist spaces." In *European Tourism: Regions, Spaces and Restructuring*, Eds. Montanari and Williams. Chichester: European Science Foundation, John Wiley & Sons Ltd., 127-149.
- CCRN**. 2001. "Ecos Ouverture project »Europe of Traditions«- Final Conference." Porto: CCRN.
- Chapon**, A. 1992. "Lessons from abroad: the Gite experience in France." In *Tourism on the Farm- Proceedings of two conferences on farm tourism in Ireland*. Ed. Feehan, J. Dublin: Environmental Institute, University College Dublin, 55-64.
- Chaudhary**, M. 2000. "India's image as a tourist destination- a perspective of foreign tourists." *Tourism Management* 21: 293-297.
- Chen**, J.S. and C.H.C. **Hsu**. 2000. "Measurement of Korean Tourists' Perceived Images of Overseas Destinations." *Journal of Travel Research* 38 (May 2000): 411-416.
- Chen**, J.S. and D.L. **Kerstetter**. 1999. "International Students' Image of Rural Pennsylvania as a Travel Destination." *Journal of Travel Research* 37 (February 1999): 256-266.

- Choi, W.M., A.Chan and J.Wu.** "A qualitative and quantitative assessment of Hong Kong's image as a tourist destination." *Tourism Management* 20: 361-365.
- Chon, K.-S.** 1990a. *Consumer Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction as related to destination image perception*. PhD Dissertation. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, UMI dissertation Services.
- Chon, K.-S.** 1990b. "The role of Destination Image in Tourism: A Review and Discussion." *The Tourist Review*: 2-9.
- Churchill, G.A.** 1979. "A paradigm for developing better measures of Marketing Constructs." *Journal of Marketing Research* XVI (Feb 1979): 64-73.
- Clary, D.** 1993. *Le tourisme dans l'espace français*. Paris: Masson Géographie.
- Clawson, M. and J.L. Knetsch.** 1966. *Economics of Outdoor Recreation, Resources for the Future*. Baltimore: John Hopkins.
- Cohen, E.** 1993. "The Study of Touristic Images of Native People. Mitigating the Stereotype of the Stereotype." In *Tourism Research: Critiques and Challenges*. Eds. Pearce, D.G. and R.W. Butler. London: Routledge, 36-69.
- Cohen, E.** 1996. "A phenomenology of tourist experiences." In *The Sociology of Tourism*. Eds. Apostolopoulos, Leivadi and Yiannakis. London: Routledge, 90-111.
- Cooper, C.** 1993. "An introduction to tourism." In *Tourism: Principles and Practices*. Eds. Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert and Wanhill. London: Pitman, 1-10.
- Cooper, C.** 1993. "Patterns and characteristics of the supply of tourism", In *Tourism: Principles and Practices*. Eds. Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert and Wanhill. London: Pitman, 80-93.
- Cooper, C. and D. Buhalis.** 1993. "The future of tourism." In *Tourism: Principles and Practices*. Eds. Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert and Wanhill. London: Pitman, 265-276.
- Cooper, C., J. Fletcher, D. Gilbert and S.Wanhill.** (Eds). 1993. *Tourism: Principles and Practices*. London: Pitman.
- Coshall, J.T.** 2000. "Measurement of Tourists' Images: The Repertory Grid Approach." *Journal of Travel Research* 9: 85-89.
- Costa, A.** 1999. "Infra-estruturas- Vias de Comunicação e Transportes." In: *Região Norte de Portugal: Atualizar e Aprofundar o Conhecimento*. Eds. Delfim & Bessa. Porto: Edições Afrontamento.
- Costa, C.** 1996. *Towards the improvement of the efficiency and effectiveness of tourism planning and development at the regional level: planning, organisations and networks: the case of Portugal*. unpublished PhD Dissertation. University of Surrey/ UK.
- Countryside Agency.** 2001. *The State of the Countryside- 2001*. Wetherby: Countryside Agency Publisher.
- Court, B. and R.A. Lupton.** 1997. "Customer Portfolio Development: Modeling Destination Adopters, Inactives, and Rejecters." *Journal of Travel Research* 36 (1): 35-43.
- Creusen, M.E.H. and J.P.L. Schoormans.** 1997. "The nature and differences between similarity and preference judgements- a replication with extensions." *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 14 (1): 81-87.

- Crick, M.** 1996. "Representations of international tourism in the social sciences: sun, sex, sights, savings and servility." In *The Sociology of Tourism*. Eds. Apostolopoulos, Leivadi and Yiannakis. London and New York: Routledge, 15-50.
- Crompton, J.L.** 1979(a). "Motivations for Pleasure Vacation." *Annals of Tourism Research* 6 (4): 408-424.
- Crompton, J.L.** 1979(b). "An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon that image." *Journal of Travel Research* (Spring 1979): 18-23.
- Crompton, J.L.** 1992. "Structure of Vacation Destination Choice Sets." *Annals of Tourism Research* 19: 420-434.
- Crompton, J.L.** and N.A. **Duray.** 1985. "An Investigation of the relative Efficacy of four alternative approaches to Importance-Performance Analysis." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 13 (4): 69-80.
- Crompton, J.L., P.C. Fakeye,** and C-C.**Lue.** 1992. "Positioning: The example of the Lower Rio Grande Valley in the Winter Long Stay Destination Market." *Journal of Travel Research*, (Fall 1992): 20-26.
- Crosby, Daries, Fernandez, Luengo, Galán, García, Sastre** and **Mendoza.** 1993. *Desarrollo Turístico Sostenible en el Medio Rural*. European Centre for Environmental and Touristic Education (C.E.F.A.T.-NATOUR).
- Dadgostar, B.** and R.M. **Isotalo.** 1992 "Factors affecting the time spent by near-home tourists in city destinations." *Journal of Travel Research* 31 (2): 34-39.
- Dadgostar, B.** and R.M. **Isotalo.** 1995. "Content of City Destination Image for Near-Home Tourists." *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing* 3 (2): 25-34.
- Dann, G.** 1977. "Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism." *Annals of Tourism Research* 4 (4): 184-194.
- Dann, G.** 1996. "Tourists' Images of a Destination- An Alternative Analysis.", In *Recent Advances in Tourism Marketing Research*. Eds. Fesenmaier, O'Leary and Uysal. Binghampton, NY: The Haworth Press, 41-55.
- Davidson. R.** 1992. *Tourism in Europe*. London: Pitman.
- Davis, D.** 1996. *Business Research for Decision Making*. 4th edition. Duxbury Press.
- de Castro, A.** 1994. *Assimetrias regionais de desenvolvimento e capacidade inovativa : elaboração de um modelo de desenvolvimento baseado no conceito de incorporação do progresso técnico em bens de capital*. unpublished PhD Dissertation. Universidade de Aveiro/ Portugal.
- Dec.-Lei nº 256/86** of August 27th 1986.
- Dec.-Reg. nº37/97** of September 25th 1997.
- Decr-Lei nº 169/ 97** of July 4th 1997.
- Dibb, S., Simkin, L. Pride, W.M.** and O.C. **Ferrell.** 1997. *Marketing – Concepts and Strategies*. 3rd European Edition. Boston, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Dichter, E.** 1985. "What's in an Image?" *The Journal of Consumer Marketing*: 75-81.

- Dickson, P.R.** 1982. "Person-Situation: Segmentation's Missing Link." *Journal of Marketing* 46 (4) (Fall): 56-64.
- Diedenhofen, H.-J.** 1991. *Imageanalyses: Aussagefaehige Grundlage fuer Strategien pharmazeutischer Unternehmungen*. Dissertation Nr. 1263. Hochschule St.Gallen fuer Wirtschafts-, Rechts- und Sozialwissenschaften.
- Dilley, R.S.** 1986. "Tourist Brochures and Tourist Images." *The Canadian Geographer* 30 (1): 59-65.
- Dimanche, F., Havitz, M.E., Howard, D.R.** 1993. "Consumer Involvement Profiles as a Tourism Segmentation Tool." *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 1: 33-51.
- Direcção-Geral do Turismo (DGT).** 1999. *Férias dos Portugueses 1998- análise dos resultados*. Lisboa: DGT.
- Direcção-Geral do Turismo (DGT).** 1999. *O Turismo em '96/ 97/ 98*. Lisboa: DGT.
- Direcção-Geral do Turismo (DGT).** 1999-2001. *O turismo em espaço rural em 1998*. unpublished copies. Lisbon: DGT.
- Direcção-Geral do Turismo (DGT).** 2000. *O turismo em espaço rural em 1999*. unpublished copies. Lisbon: DGT.
- Direcção-Geral do Turismo (DGT).** 2001. *O turismo em espaço rural em 2000*. unpublished copies. Lisbon: DGT.
- DLG.** 1995. *Bauernhof und Landurlaub: Gute Saison 1995*. Frankfurt: Pressedienst DLG.
- Dobni, D. and G.M. Zinkhan.** 1990. "In search of brand image: a foundation analysis." *Advances in Consumer Research*. 17: 110-119.
- Dolli, N. and J.F. Pinfold.** 1997. "Managing rural tourism businesses: financing, development and marketing issues." In *The Business of Rural Tourism: International Perspectives*. Eds. Page and Getz. London, Boston: International Thomson Business Press, 38-58.
- Dretske, F.** 1990. "Seeing, Believing, and Knowing.", In *Visual Cognition and Action*. Ed. Osherson, D. Vol.2. Cambridge/ Mass: The MIT Press, 129-148.
- DTV-Lexikon.** 1972. *Ein Konversationslexikon in 20 Baenden*. Muenchen: Deutscher Taschenbuch Verlag.
- Dumazedier, J.** 1962. *Vers une Civilisation du Loisir*. Paris: Seuil.
- Durgee, J.F. and R.W. Stuart.** 1987. "Advertising symbols and Brand Names that best represent key product meanings." *The Journal of Consumer Marketing* 4 (3) (Summer): 15-24.
- Echtner, C.** 1999. "The semiotic paradigm: implications for tourism research." *Tourism Management* (20): 47-57.
- Echtner, C. and T.B. Jamal.** 1997. "The disciplinary dilemma of tourism studies." *Annals of Tourism Research* 24 (4): 868-883.
- Echtner, C. and J.R.B. Ritchie.** 1991. "The Meaning and Measurement of Destination Image." *The Journal of Tourism Studies* 2 (2): 2-12.
- Echtner C. and J.R.B. Ritchie.** 1993. "The Measurement of Destination Image: An Empirical Assessment." *Journal of Travel Research* 31 (4) (Spring 1993): 3-13.

- Edmunds, M.** 1999. "Rural Tourism in Europe." *Travel & Tourism Analyst* 6: 37-50.
- Edwards, J.** 1991. "Guest-host perceptions of rural tourism in England and Portugal." In *The Tourism Industry: an International Analysis*. Eds. Sinclair and Stabler. Wallingford: CAB, 143-164.
- Edwards, J.** and **C. Fernandes.** 1999. "Emigrants and Espigueiros- Tourism Activities in a Peripheral Area of Portugal" *International Journal of Tourism Research* 1/1999: 329-340.
- Edwards, J., C. Fernandes, J. Fox** and **R. Vaughan, R.** 2000. "Tourism Brand Attributes of the Alto Minho, Portugal." In *Tourism Sustainable Community Development*. Eds. Richards and Hall. London and New York: Routledge Advances in Tourism, 285-296.
- Embacher, J.** and **F. Buttle, F.** 1989. "A Repertory grid analysis of Austria's image as a summer vacation destination." *Journal of Travel Research* 27 (3) (Winter 1989): 3-7.
- Engel, J.F., R.D. Blackwell,** and **P.W. Miniard.** 1990. *Consumer Behavior*. 6nd edition. Chicago: Dryden Press.
- European Commission.** 1999. *Towards quality rural tourism- Integrated Quality Management of rural tourist destinations*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.
- European Travel Commission.** 2001. <http://www.etc-europe-travel.org/uk/index.html>.
- EUROSTAT.** 1998. *Metodologia comunitária sobre estatísticas do turismo*. Bruxelles: European Commission, DG XXIII Tourism Unit.
- EUROTER.** 1993. *Pour une signalétique Européenne harmonisée dans le domaine du tourisme rural et analyse des circuits d'information, de distribution et de vente*. Bruxelles, Luxemburg: Commission of the European Communities, DG XXIII Tourism Unit.
- Eysenck, M.W.** and **Keane, M.T.** 1990. *Cognitive Psychology- a Student's Handbook*. Hove and London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Fakeye, P.C.** and **J.L. Crompton.** 1991. "Image Differences between Prospective, First-time, and Repeat Visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley." *Journal of Travel Research* 30 (2) (Fall 1991): 10-16.
- Fesenmaier, D.** and **K. MacKay.** 1996. "Deconstructing destination image construction." *Revue de Tourisme: 37-43*.
- Festinger, L.** 1957. *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*. Stanford, Cal.: Stanford University Press.
- Filipec, J.** 1991. "Anmerkungen zu dem Konzept freizeitorientierte Weiterbildung." In *Freizeit bildet - bildet Freizeit? - Theoretische Grundlagen für eine freizeitorientierte Weiterbildung*. Eds. Stehr, Nahrstedt and Beckmann. Bielefeld: IFKA, 241-247.
- Fischer, V.** 1992. *Auslaenderstereotype und Gedächtnis*. Hamburg: Verlag Dr.Kovac.
- Fishbein, M.** 1967. *Readings in attitude theory and measurement*. New York, London, Sydney: Wiley.
- Fishbein, M.** and **J. Ajzen.** 1975. *Beliefs, Attitude, Intentions and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley Publ. Co.

- Fisk, G.** 1962. "A conceptual model for studying customer image." *Journal of Retailing* 37 (4): 1-8.
- Fisk, R.P., Grove, S.J. and J. John.** 2000. *Interactive Services Marketing*. Boston, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Fiske, S.T.** 1993. "Social Cognition and Social Perception." *Annual Review of Psychology* 44: 155-194.
- Font, X. and T.E. Ahjem.** 1999. "Searching for a balance in tourism development strategies." *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 11 (2/3): 73-77.
- Foxall, G.R. and Greenley, G.E.** 1999. "Consumers' emotional responses to service environments." *Journal of Business Research* 46 (2): 149-158.
- Frey, B.** 1992. *Zur Bewertung von Anmutungsqualitaeten*. Koeln: Universitaet Koeln, Reihe Beitrage zum Produkt-Marketing
- Fridgen, J.D.** 1984. "Environmental Psychology and Tourism." *Annals of Tourism Research* 11: 19-39.
- Fridgen, J.D.** 1991. *Dimensions of Tourism*. Michigan: American Hotel & Motel Association, Educational Institute Books.
- Friedmann, R.** 1986. "Psychological meaning of products: Identification and Marketing Applications." *Psychology and Marketing* 3: 1-15.
- Gardner, B.B. and S.J. Levy.** 1955. "The product and the brand." *Harvard Business Review* 33 (2): 33-40.
- Gartner, W.C.** 1986. "Temporal influences on image change." *Annals of Tourism Research* 3: 635-644.
- Gartner, W.C.** 1989. "Tourism Image: Attribute Measurement of State Tourism Products using multidimensional Scaling Techniques." *Journal of Travel Research* (Fall 1989): 16-20.
- Gartner, W.C.** 1993. "Image Formation Process." *Communication and Channel Systems in Tourism Marketing* 2 (2/3): 191-215.
- Gartner, W.C. and J.H. Hunt.** 1987. "Analysis of state image change over a twelve-year period (1971-1983)." *Journal of Travel Research* 26 (2) (Fall 1987): 15-19.
- Garvey, C.** 1993. *Tourism market segmentation of images*. Phd Dissertation, Colorado State University. UMI dissertation Services.
- Getz, D. and J. Carlsen.** 2000. "Characteristics and goals of family and owner-operated businesses in the rural tourism and hospitality sectors." *Tourism Management* 21: 547-560.
- Gilbert, D.** 1989. "Rural tourism and marketing: synthesis and new ways of working." *Tourism Management* 10 (1): 39-50.
- Gilbert, D.** 1993, "Consumer behavior and tourism demand." In *Tourism: Principles and Practices*. Eds. Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert and Wanhill. London: Pitman, 20-31.
- Gilg, A.** 1985. *An Introduction to Rural Geography*. London: Edward Arnold.

- Gitelson, R.J.** and **J.L. Crompton.** 1983. "The Planning Horizons and Sources of Information Used by Pleasure Vacationers." *Journal of Travel Research* 23 (3): 2-7.
- Gitelson, R.J.** and **D.L. Kerstetter.** 1990. "The Relationship between sociodemographic variables, benefits sought and subsequent vacation behavior: a case study." *Journal of Travel Research* 28 (3) (Winter 1990): 24-29.
- Gîtes de France.** 2001. <http://www.gitescharente.com>. (October 2001)
- Gliner, J.** and **G. Morgan.** 2000. *Research Methods in Applied Settings- an Integrated Approach to Design and Analysis*. New Jersey, London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gnossens, C.** 2000. "Tourism Information and Pleasure Motivation." *Annals of Tourism Research* 27 (2): 301-321.
- Goodall, B.** 1990. "How Tourists choose their Holidays: An Analytical Framework." In *Marketing in the Tourism Industry- The Promotion of Destination Region*. Eds. Goodall and Ashworth. London: Routledge, 1-17.
- Goodrich, J.N.** 1977. "Differences in Perceived Similarity of Tourism Regions: A Spatial Analysis." *Journal of Travel Research* XVI (1): 10-13.
- Goodrich, J.N.** 1978. "The relationship between preferences for and perceptions of vacation destinations: application of a choice model." *Journal of Travel Research* (Fall 1978): 8-13.
- Graburn, N.H.** 1989. "Tourism: The sacred journey." In: *Hosts and Guests. The Anthropology of Tourism*, 2nd edition. Ed. V. Smith. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Graeff, T.R.** 1996. "Using promotional messages to manage the effects of brand and self-image on brand evaluations." *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 13 (3): 4-18.
- Grapentine, T.** 2000. "Path Analysis versus structural equation modeling." *Marketing Research* Vol.2 (3): 12-19.
- Groenroos, C.** 2000. *Service Management and Marketing – a Customer Relationship Management Approach*. 2nd edition. Chichester: Wiley.
- Grolleau, H.** 1993. "A emoção primeiro que tudo", *Cadernos LEADER "Comercializar um turismo rural de qualidade"* Bruxelles: Célula de Animação LEADER (AEIDL): 35-48.
- Groome, D.** 1993. *Planning and Rural Recreation in Britain*. Avebury: Aldershot.
- Grove, S.J.** and **R.P. Fisk.** 1997, "The impact of others upon customers' service experiences: a critical incident examination of getting along." *Journal of Retailing* 73 (1): 63-85.
- Gruffudd, P.** 1994. "Selling the countryside: representations of rural Britain." In *Place Promotion- The use of publicity and marketing to sell towns and regions*, Eds. Gold and Ward. Chichester, New York, Brisbane, Toronto, Singapore: John Wiley & Sons, 247-263.
- Guba, E.G.** and **Y. Lincoln.** 1994. "Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research." In *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Eds. Denzin, N.K. and Y.S.Lincoln. Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications, 105-117.
- Guiltinan, J.P.** and **G.W. Paul.** 1994. *Marketing Management- Strategies and Programs*. 5th ed. Mc.Graw-Hill International Edition.

- Gunn, C.** 1972. *Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions*. Austin: University of Texas.
- Gunn, C.** 1988a. *Vacationscape*. 2nd ed. New York: Van Nostrand Reinold.
- Gunn, C.** 1988b. *Tourism Planning- Basics, Concepts, Cases*. 2d ed. Washington: Taylor & Francis.
- Gunn, C.** 1994. *Tourism Planning- Basics, Concepts, Cases*. 3d ed. Washington: Taylor & Francis.
- Haati, A.J.** 1986. "Finland's Competitive Position as a Destination." *Annals of Tourism Research* 13: 11-35.
- Hair, J.F., R.E. Anderson, R.L. Tatham and W.C. Black.** 1998. *Multivariate Data Analysis*. (5th edition) New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Halbritter de Sousa, F. and J. Vala.** 1999. "Justiça nas Organizações." *Psicologia XIII* (1-2): 25-52.
- Haley, R.I.** 1968. "Benefit Segmentation: A Decision-oriented Research Tool." *Journal of Marketing* 32 (July 1968): 30-35.
- Hamilton, D.** 1994. "Traditions, Preferences, and Postures in Applied Qualitative Research." In *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Eds. Denzin, N.K. and Y.S.Lincoln. Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications, 60-69.
- Han, M.C.** 1989. "Country Image: Halo or Summary Construct?" *Journal of Marketing Research* XXVI (May 1989): 222-229.
- Hauser, M.** 1991. "Evolución del turismo rural en Austria, intento de aplicación ed una idea de marketing al caso del Tirol." *Estudios Turisticos* 110: 19-26.
- Heath, E. and G.Wall.** 1992. *Marketing Tourism Destinations - A Strategic Planning Approach*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Herzberg, F.** 1979. (revised 1991) "One more time: how do you motivate employees?" In *Managing People and Organizations, Readings selected by John J.Gabarro*. Ed. J.J. Gabarro (1991). Boston/ Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Publications, 159-178.
- Higgins, E.T.** 1987. "Self-Discrepancy: a Theory relating Self and Affect." *Psychological Review*. 94 (3): 319-340.
- Holbrook, M.B. and E.C. Hirschman** 1982. "The Experiential Aspects of Consumption: Consumer Fantasies, Feelings, and Fun." *Journal of Consumer Research* 9 (sept): 132-140.
- Holloway, J.C.** 1995. *The Business of Tourism*. 4th ed. London: Longman.
- Hong, J.W. and G.M. Zinkhan.** 1995. "Self-concept and advertising effectiveness: the influence of congruency, conspicuousness, and response mode." *Psychology and Marketing* 12 (1): 53-77.
- Howard, J.A. and J. Sheth.** 1969. *The theory of buyer behavior*. New York: Wiley.
- Hoyer, W.D. and D.J. MacInnis.** 1997. *Consumer Behavior*. Boston, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.

- Hu, Y.** and **J.R.B. Ritchie.** 1993. "Measuring Destination Attractiveness: A Contextual Approach." *Journal of Travel Research* 32 (2) (Fall 1993): 25-34.
- Hudson, S.** 1999. "Consumer Behavior related to Tourism." In *Consumer Behavior in Travel and Tourism*. Eds. Pizam and Mansfield. New York: Haworth Hospitality Press, 7-32.
- Hummelbrunner, R.** and **E.Miglbauer.** 1994. "Tourism Promotion and Potential in Peripheral Areas: The Austrian Case." In *Rural Tourism and Sustainable Rural development*. Eds. Bramwell and Lane. Special issue of *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*: 41-60.
- Hunt, J.** 1975. "Image as a Factor in Tourism Development" *Journal of Travel Research* (Winter 1975): 1-7.
- ICEP.** 1996. "Turismo no Espaço Rural." *Turismo- Mercados Emissores* 5: 26-29.
- Instituto Nacional de Estatística (INE).** 1991-2000. *Estatísticas do Turismo*. (years 1990-1999) Lisboa: INE.
- Jafari, J.** and **B. Ritchie.** 1981. "Towards a Framework of Tourism Education: Problems and Prospects." *Annals of Tourism Research* 8: 13-34.
- Jansen-Verbeke, M.** 1996. "Towards an integrated marketing of a tourism destination region." paper presented at the *Seminário Internacional Marketing de Destinos Turísticos*. Faro: Universidade do Algarve, May 1996.
- Javalgi, R.G., E.G. Thomas** and **S.R. Rao.** 1992. "US Pleasure Travellers' Perceptions of Selected European Destinations." *European Journal of Marketing* 26 (7): 45-64.
- Jenkins, O.** 1999. "Understanding and Measuring Tourist Destination Images." *International Journal of Tourism Research* 1: 1-15.
- Jenkins, O.** and **S. McArthur.** 1996. "Marketing Protected Areas." *Australian Parks and Recreation* 32 (4): 10-15.
- Joaquim, G.** 1994. *Turismo e Ambiente: complementaridade e responsabilidade*. unpublished Master Thesis. Lisbon: ISCTE.
- Johannsen, U.** 1968. *Das Marken- und Firmen-Image – Theorie, Praxis, Methodik und Analyse*. PhD Dissertation. Technische Universitaet Braunschweig.
- Johnson, M.R.** 1974. "Trade-off analysis of consumer values." *Journal of Marketing Research* XI: 121-127.
- Kaas, K.P.** and **A. Busch.** 1996. "Inspektions-, Erfahrungs- und Vertrauenseigenschaften von Produkten." *Marketing ZFP* 4 (4/1996): 243-252.
- Kappert, J.** 2000. "Community and rural development in Northern Portugal." In *Tourism Sustainable Community Development*. Eds. Richards and Hall. London and New York: Routledge Advances in Tourism, 258-267.
- Kapferer, J.N.** 1994. *As Marcas- capital da empresa*. Mem Martins: Edições CETOP.
- Kastenholz, E.** 1997. *The Background and Market Profile of Tourism in Rural Areas in the Portuguese North and Central Regions*. unpublished Master Thesis, Porto: Instituto Superior de Estudos Empresariais (ISEE)- Universidade do Porto.
- Kastenholz, E.** 1999. *O Mercado do Turismo em Espaço Rural no Norte de Portugal- 2º Relatório Intercalar*. unpublished document. Porto: ISEE/ CCRN.

- Kastenholz, E.** 2000a. "O Mercado do Turismo em Espaço Rural no Norte de Portugal- Relatório Final." unpublished document. Porto: ISEE/ CCRN
- Kastenholz, E.** 2000b. "The market for rural tourism in North and Central Portugal: a benefit-segmentation approach." In *Tourism Sustainable Community Development*. Eds. Richards and Hall. London and New York: Routledge Advances in Tourism, 268-284.
- Kastenholz, E., D. Davis, and G.W. Paul.** 1999. "Segmenting Tourism in Rural Areas: The case of North and Central Portugal." *Journal of Travel Research* 37 (4): 353-363.
- Kastenholz, E. and M.J.Carneiro.** 2001. "Positioning Analysis of Rural Tourism Destinations and Implications for Destination Planning and Marketing- The Case of North Portugal." paper presented at the *European Association of Leisure and Tourism Education 10th Anniversary International Conference*. Dublin, Oct.2001.
- Keane, M.** 1992. "Rural Tourism and Rural Development." In *Tourism and the Environment*. Eds. Briassoulis, H. and J.van der Straaten. Dordrecht/ NL: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Keller, K.L.** 1993. "Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity." *Journal of Marketing* 57 (Jan93): 1-22.
- Keller, P.** 1991. "Turismo rural, esperança o ilusão? Una aportación vista desde la perspectiva de Suiza" *Estúdios Turísticos* 110: 27-33.
- Kelly, G.A.** 1955. *The Psychology of Personal Constructs*. London: Routeledge.
- Kerlinger, F.** 1986. *Foundations of behavioral research*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Kirstges, T.H.** 1982. *Sanfter Tourismus*. Muenchen/ Wien: Oldenburg Verlag.
- Kleining, G.** 1959. "Zum gegenwaertigen Stand der Imageforschung." *Psychologie und Praxis* 3: 198-212.
- Koppelman, U.** 1976. *Produktmarketing und Warenverkaufskunde*. 1.Aufl. Berlin: Schmidt.
- Kosslyn, S.M.** 1987. "Seeing and Imagining in the Cerebral Hemispheres: A Computational Approach." *Psychological Review* 94 (2): 148-175.
- Kotler, P.** 1994. *Marketing Management- Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control*. 8th edition. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.
- Kotler, P.** 1997. *Marketing Management- Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control*. 9th edition. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.
- Kotler, P., Haider, D.H. and I. Rein.** 1993. *Marketing Places: Attracting Investment, Industry, and Tourism to Cities, States, and Nations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Kotler, P., Haider, D.H. and I. Rein.** 1995, *Marketing Places*. 2nd ed. New York, Oxford, Singapore, Sydney: The Free Press Maxwell Maxmillan International.
- Kotler, P., Armstrong, G. Saunders, J. and V. Wong.** 1999. *Principles of Marketing*. (2nd European edition) London: Prentice Hall Europe.
- Krippendorf, J.** 1987a. *The Holiday Makers*. Oxford: Heinemann Professional Publishing.
- Krippendorf, J.** 1987b. "Ecological approach to tourism marketing." *Tourism Management* (June 1987): 174-176.

- Krippendorf, J.** 1989. "The new tourist - turning point for leisure and travel." *Tourism Management* (June 1989): 131-135.
- Kroeber-Riel, W.** 1992. *Konsumentenverhalten*. 5th edition. München: Verlag Franz Vahlen.
- Lane, B.**, 1994, "What is rural tourism?" *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 2: 7-21.
- Laurent, G.** and **J-N. Kapferer.** 1985. "Measuring Consumer Involvement Profiles." *Journal of Marketing Research* 22 (Feb 1985): 41-53.
- Laws, E.** 1995. *Tourist Destination Management*. London: Routledge.
- Lawson, R.** 1995. "Demographic Segmentation." In *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*. Eds. Witt, S. and L. Moutinho. London: Prentice Hall, 306-315.
- LEADER European Observatory.** 1997. *Marketing quality rural tourism: The experience of Leader I*. Bruxelles: AEIDL.
- LEADER work group on rural tourism.** 1994. "Comercialização do turismo rural: a experiência do LEADER I." *Cadernos LEADER "Comercializar um turismo rural de qualidade"*. Bruxelles: AEIDL.
- Lefkoff-Hagius, R.** And **C.H.Mason.** 1993. "Characteristic, Beneficial, and Image attributes in consumer judgements of similarity and preference." *Journal of Consumer Research* 20 (June 1993): 100-110.
- Leiper, N.** 1979. "The Framework of Tourism - Towards a definition of Tourism, Tourist, and the Tourism Industry." *Annals of Tourism Research* VI (4): 390-407.
- Leite, A.** 1990. "Que turismo rural no Alto Minho?" In *1º Encontro: Minho-Identidade e Mudança*. Braga: Escola de Economia e Gestão, Universidade do Minho. 396-402.
- Lendrevie, J., D. Lindon, P. Dionísio** and **V. Rodrigues.** 1993. *MERCATOR- Teoria e Prática do Marketing*. (4th edition) Lisboa: Publicações Dom Quixote.
- Lengkeek, J.** 1999. "A Thorn for Beauty: Tourism involution as a pitfall of Sustainability." *Loisir et Société/ Leisure and Society* 2 (1): 83-98.
- Levy, S.J.** 1959. "Symbols for sale." *Harvard Business Review* 37: 117-124.
- Liebman Parrinello, G.** 1993. "Motivation and Anticipation in Post-Industrial Tourism." *Annals of Tourism Research* 20: 233-249.
- Lilli, W.** 1983. "Perzeption, Kognition: Image." In *Handbuch der Psychology, Bd.12-Marktpsychologie als Sozialwissenschaft*. Ed. Irle, M. Goettingen/ Toronto/ Zuerich: Verlag fuer Psychologie, 402-471.
- Lindekens, R.** 1976. *Essai de Sémiotique Visuelle*. Paris: Éditions Klincksieck.
- Lohman, M.** and **E. Kaim.** 1999. "Weather and Holiday Destination Preferences- Image, Attitude and Experience." *The Tourist Review* 2/1999: 54-64.
- Loker, E.L.** and **R.R. Perdue.** 1992. "A Benefit-based Segmentation of a Nonresident Summer Travel Market." *Journal of Travel Research* (Summer 1992): 30-35.
- Lowyck,E., L. van Langenhove** and **L. Bollaert.** 1992. "Typologies of Tourist Roles." In *Choice and Demand in Tourism*. Eds. Johnson and Thomas. London: Mansell Publishing, 13-32.

- Lozato-Giotart, J.-P.** 1987. *Géographie du Tourisme*. 2nd ed. Paris: Masson.
- Lundberg, D.E.** 1990. *The Tourist Business*. 6th ed. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Lutz, R.** 1991. "The role of Attitude Theory in Marketing." In: *Perspectives in Consumer Behavior*. (4th edition) Eds. Kassarian, H.H. and T.S. Robertson. Englewood-Cliffs: Prentice Hall International, 317-339.
- MacCannell, D.** 1973. "Staged Authenticity: Arrangements of Social Space in Tourist Settings." *American Journal of Sociology* 79 (3): 589-603.
- MacCannell, D.** 1976. *The Tourist: A new theory of the leisure class*. New York: Schocken Books.
- MacCannell, D.** 1989. "Semiotics of tourism." *Annals of Tourism Research* 16 (1) (Special Issue).
- MacInnis, D.J.** and **L.L. Price.** 1987. "The role of imagery in information processing: a review and extension." *Journal of Consumer Research* 13: 473-491.
- MacKay, K.** 1995. *The Pictorial Element of Destination Promotions in Tourist Destination Image Formation*. PhD Dissertation. University of Illinois/ Urbana, UMI Dissertation Services.
- MacKay, K.** and **Fesenmaier, D.R.** 1997. "Pictorial Element of Destination in Image Formation." *Annals of Tourism Research* 24 (3): 537-565.
- MacKay, K.** and **Fesenmaier, D.R.** 2000. "An exploration of Cross-Cultural Destination Image Assessment." *Journal of Travel Research* 38 (May 2000): 417-423.
- Malaka, B.** 1990. *Imageorientierte Entscheidungen im Produktmarketing*. Phd Dissertation. Universitaet Koeln.
- Malhotra, N.** 1981. "A scale to measure self-concepts, person concepts, and product concepts." *Journal of Marketing Research* XVIII (Nov 81): 456-464.
- Mannell, R.** and **S.E. Iso-Ahola,** 1987. "Psychological Nature of Leisure and Tourism Experience." *Annals of Tourism Research* 14: 314-331.
- Mansfeld, Y.** 1995. "The «value stretch» model and its implementation in detecting tourists' class-differentiated destination choice." *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 4 (3): 71-92.
- Mantel, P., Kardes, S.** and **F.R. Kardes.** 1999. "The Role of direction of comparison, attribute-based processing, and attitude-based processing in consumer preference." *Journal of Consumer Research* 25: 335-352.
- Martin, W.H.** and **S. Mason.** 1987. "Social trends and tourism futures." *Tourism Management* (June 1987): 112-114.
- Martineau, P.** 1958. "The personality of the retail store." *Harvard Business Review* 36 (1): 47-55.
- Maslow, A.H.** 1943. "A theory of human motivation." *Psychological Review* 50: 370-396.
- Matiaske, W., I. Dobrov** and **R. Bronner.** 1994. "Anwendung der Korrespondenzanalyse in der Imageforschung- dargestellt am Beispiel des Automobilmarktes." *Marketing ZFP* 1 (1/1994): 42-54.
- Mathieson, A. & G. Wall.** 1982. *Tourism - Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. London: Longman.

- Matos Dias, I.M.** 1997. *Uma ontologia do sensível- a Aventura Filosófica de Maurice Merleau-Ponty*. unpublished Phd Dissertation. Universidade de Lisboa/ Faculdade de Letras.
- Mayo, E.J.** and **L.P. Jarvis**, 1981. *The Psychology of Leisure Travel*. Boston: CBI Publishing Company.
- Mazanec, J.** 1978. *Strukturmodelle des Konsumentenverhaltens*. Wien: Wirtschaftsverlag Orac.
- Mazanec, J.** 1989. "Consumer Behavior in Tourism." In *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*. Eds. Witt, S. and L. Moutinho. New York: Prentice Hall, 23-26.
- Mazanec, J.** 1995a. "Competition among European tourist cities: a comparative analysis with multidimensional scaling and self-organizing maps." *Tourism Economics* 1 (3): 283-302.
- Mazanec, J.** 1995b. "Positioning analysis with self-organizing maps." *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* (Dec 1995): 80-95.
- McGuire, W.J.** 1969. "The nature of attitudes and attitude change." In *The Handbook of Social Psychology (Vol.III)*. Eds. Lindzey and Aronson. Reading/ Mass, 136-314.
- McIntosh, R.W.** and **C.R. Goeldner**. 1990. *Tourism, Principles, Practices, Philosophies*. (6th edition) New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- McKercher, B.** 1995. "The Destination-Market Matrix: A tourism market portfolio analysis model." *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 4 (2): 23-40.
- Meethan, K.** 1996. "Place, Image and Power: Brighton as a Resort." In *The Tourist Image: myths and myth making in tourism*, Ed. Selwyn. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, 179-196.
- Mendigorri, A.M.** 1994. "La recreación rural en la montaña media española." *Estudios Geográficos* 214 (enero-marzo 1994): 81-107.
- Mercer, D.** 1971. "The role of perception in the recreation experience: a review and discussion." *Journal of Leisure Research*: 261-276.
- Metha, A.** 1999. "Using self-concept to assess advertising effectiveness." *Journal of Advertising Research* (Feb.99): 81-89.
- Mick, D.G.** 1986. "Consumer Research and Semiotics: Exploring the Morphology of signs, symbols, and significance." *Journal of Consumer Research* 13 (Sept 1986): 196-213.
- Middleton, V.T.C.** and **R. Hawkins**. 1998. *Sustainable tourism: a marketing perspective*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Mill, R.C.** and **A.M. Morrison**. 1992. *The Tourism System*. (2nd edition) Englewood-Cliffs, New York: Prentice Hall.
- Milman, A** and **A. Pizam**. 1995. "The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination." *Journal of Travel Research* (Winter 1995): 21-27.
- Ministério do Comércio e Turismo**. 1994. *Programa de Recuperação de Aldeias Históricas de Portugal*. Lisboa.
- Moliner, P.** and **E. Tafani**. 1997. "Attitudes and social representation: a theoretical and experimental approach" *European Journal of Social Psychology* 27/ 1997: 687-702.

- Montemagno, G.** and **V. Arancio.** 1991. "Turismo rural y agroturismo - El caso italiano." *Estúdios Turísticos* 110: 5-17.
- Moreira, F.J.** 1994. *O Turismo em Espaço Rural: Enquadramento e Expressão Geográfica em portugal.* (Estudos Gerais, B8) Lisbon: Centro de Estudos Geográficos/ Universidade de Lisboa.
- Morisette, D.** and **M. Gingras.** 1989. *Enseigner des Attitudes- planifier, intervenir, évaluer.* De Boeck Université
- Morrison, A.M.** 1989. *Hospitality and Travel Marketing.* New York: Delmar Publishersc.
- Moutinho, L.** 1991. "Strategies for Tourism Destination Development: an Investigation of the Role of Small Businesses." In *Marketing Tourism Places*, Eds. Ashworth & Goodall. London, New York: Routledge, 104-122.
- Moutinho, L.** (ed.) 2000. *Strategic Management in Tourism.* New York: CABI International.
- Mueller, G.** 1971. *Das Image des Markenartikels.* Opladen: Westdeutscher Verlag Opladen.
- Myers, J.H.** and **Alpert, M.I.** 1968. "Determining Buying Attitudes: Meaning and Measurement." *Journal of Marketing* 32 (4/ Part I): 13-20.
- O'Donnell, M.** 1991. "Rural Tourism: The evolving Irish Model." paper presented at the *OMT Seminar on new forms of Demand- new Products.* Nicosia, May 1991.
- OECD.** 1994. "Les Stratégies du tourisme et le développement rural." In *Politiques du tourisme et tourisme international dans les pays de l'OCDE 1991-1992.* Paris: OECD, 13-79.
- Opperman, M.** 1995a. "The Travel Lifecycle." *Annals of Tourism Research* 22 (3): 535-552.
- Oppermann, M.** 1995b. "Holidays on the Farm: A Case Study of German Hosts and Guests." *Journal of Travel Research* (Summer 1995): 63-67.
- Oppermann, M.** 1996. "Convention Destination Images: Analysis of Association Meeting Planners' Perceptions." *Tourism Management* 17 (3): 175-182.
- Oppermann, M.** 1997. "Rural tourism in Germany: farm and rural tourism operators." In *The Business of Rural Tourism: International Perspectives.* Eds. Page and Getz. London, Boston: International Thomson Business Press, 108-205.
- Osgood, C.E., G.J. Suci** and **P.H. Tannenbaum.** 1957. *The Measurement of Meaning.* Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Ostergaard, P.** and **C. Jantzen.** 2000. "The shifting perspectives in consumer research: from buyer behavior to consumption studies." In *Intrepretative Consumer Research- Paradigms, Methodologies & Applications.* Eds. Beckmann and Elliott. Copenhagen: Business School Press, 9-23.
- Ottman, J.A.** 1993. *Marekting Verde.* São Paulo: Makron Books
- Page, S.J.** and **D. Getz.** 1997. "The business of rural tourism: international perspectives." In *The Business of Rural Tourism: International Perspectives,* Eds. Page & Getz. London, Boston: International Thomson Business Press, 4-37.
- Palmer, A.** 1996. "Linking external and internal relationship building in networks of public and private sector organizations: a case study." *International Journal of Public Sector Management* 9 (3): 51-60.

- Parasuraman, A., V. Zeithaml, and L.L. Berry.** 1985. "A Conceptual Model of Service Quality and its Implications for Future Research." *The Journal of Marketing* 49: 41-50.
- Park, C.W., Jaworski, B. and D.J. MacInnis,** 1986. "Strategic Brand Concept Management." *Journal of Marketing* 50 (Oct. 1986): 135-145.
- Payne, A.** 1993. *The essence of Services Marketing*. New York: Prentice Hall International.
- Pearce, P.L.** 1982. "Perceived changes in holiday destinations." *Annals of Tourism Research* 9: 145-164.
- Pearce, P.L.** 1993. "The Psychology of Tourism." In *VNR's Encyclopedia of Hospitality and Tourism*. Eds. Khan, Olsen and Var. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 873-883.
- Pearce, P.L.** 1988. *The Ulysses Factor: Evaluating Visitors in Tourist Settings*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Pearce, D.** 1989. *Tourist Development*. (2nd edition) London: Longman Scientific & Technical.
- Pedhazur, E.J. and L.P. Schmelkin.** 1991. *Measurement, Design, and Analysis: An integrated approach*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Pessemier, E.A.** 1980. "Store Image and Positioning." *Journal of Retailing* 56: 94-106.
- Pestana, M.H. and J.N. Gageiro.** 1998. *Análise de Dados para Ciências Sociais*. Lisboa: Edições Sílabo.
- Phelps, A.** 1986. "Holiday destination image- the problem of assessment- an example developed in Menorca." *Tourism Management* (Sept 1986): 168-180.
- Pinho, P. and A. Monteiro.** 1999. "Qualidade do Ambiente e Ordenamento do Território da Região Norte." In *Região Norte de Portugal: Actualizar e Aprofundar o Conhecimento*. Eds. Delfim and Bessa. Porto: Edições Afrontamento, 13-27.
- Pinto Leite.** 1992. "O LEADER e o SIFIT." paper presented at *Seminário - Turismo no Espaço Rural*. Tomar, September 1992.
- Plog, S.** 1974. "Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity." *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Quarterly* 14 (4): 55-58.
- Plummer, J.T.** 1974. "The concept and application of life style segmentation." *Journal of Marketing* 38 (1): 33-37.
- Poon, A.** 1993. *Tourism, Technology and Competitive Strategies*. Wallingford: CAB International.
- Porcher, L.** 1987. *Introduction à une sémiotique des images*. Paris: Didier.
- Pride, W.M. and O.C. Ferrell.** 1997. *Marketing, International Edition*. Boston/ New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Pringle, H. & Thompson, M.** 1999. *Brand spirit: how cause related marketing builds brands*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Pritchard, G.** 1986. *Farm Holidays in Austria, Denmark and France*. London: The British Educational Trust.
- Ramos, P., A. Salazar and J. Gomes.** 2000. "Trends in Portuguese tourism: a content analysis of association and trade representative perspectives." *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 12 (7): 409-416.

- Reilly, M.D.** 1990. "Free Elicitation of descriptive adjectives for tourism image assessment" *Journal of Travel Research* (Spring 1990): 21-26.
- Reinhard, H.** 1996. *Olimar Reisen- Reisefuehrer Portugal*. Muenchen: Polyglott Verlag.
- Reutterer, T.** 1994. "Analytische Modelle zur Unterstuetzung von Positionierungsentscheidungen- Versuch einer Bestandsaufnahme." *der markt* 129 (1994/2): 88-109.
- Ribeiro, J.C.** 1991. *Turismo no Espaço Rural em Portugal: Um Apontamento Introdutório. (Documento de Trabalho produzido no âmbito do Projecto de Investigação sobre Turismo Rural e Empresas de Lazer na Europa)*. working paper. Braga: Universidade do Minho, Escola de Economia e Gestão.
- Richardson, S. and J.L. Crompton.** 1988. "Cultural variations in perceptions of vacation attributes." *Tourism Management* (June 1988): 128-136.
- Rita, P.M.** 1992. *An Expert System for Promotional Budget Allocation in National Tourist Offices*. Service Industries Management Research Unit Working Paper Series 2 (4). Cardiff: Cardiff Business School.
- Rosenberg, M.J.** 1956. *The functions of social conflict*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Ross, G.** 1993. "Ideal and actual images of backpacker visitors to northern America." *Journal of Travel Research* 32 (2): 54-59.
- Roteiro Campista (Portuguese Camping Guide) 1998.** (37th edition).
- Roth, P.** 1992a "Grundlagen des Touristik-Marketing." In *Touristik-Marketing*. Eds. Roth, P. and A. Schrand. Muenchen: Verlag Franz Vahlen, 111-192.
- Roth, P.** 1992b. "Umweltvertraeglicher Tourismus: Von der Forderung zur Realitaet." In *Touristik-Marketing*. Eds. Roth, P. and A. Schrand. Muenchen: Verlag Franz Vahlen, 45-80.
- Roth, M.S.** 1995. "The effects of culture and socioeconomics on the performance of global brand image strategies." *Journal of Marketing Research* XXXII (May 95): 163-175.
- Ruão, T. and M. Farangmehr.** 2000. "A imagem de marca: análise das funções de representação e apelo no marketing das marcas- Um estudo de caso." In *Actas do I Seminário Marketing Estratégico e Planeamento*. Ed. Farangmehr, M. Braga: Escola de Economia e Gestão da Universidade do Minho, 89-100.
- Ruge, H-D.** 1988. *Die Messung bildhafter Konsumerlebnisse*. Series Konsum und Verhalten Vol.16. Heidelberg: Physica-Verlag.
- Russell, J.A.** 1980. "A Circumplex Model of Affect." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 39: 1161-1178.
- Russell, J.A. and U.F.Lanius.** 1984. "Adaptation Level and the Affective Appraisal of Environments." *Journal of Environmental Psychology* 4: 119-135.
- Ryan, C.** 1991. *Recreational Tourism- A Social Science Perspective*. London: Routledge.
- Ryan, C.** 1994. *Holiday maker satisfaction a measure derived from the Ragheb and Beard leisure motivation scale*. PhD Dissertation. London: The British Thesis Service.
- Santiago, R.A.** 1996. *A escola representada pelos alunos, pais e professores*. Aveiro: Universidade de Aveiro.

- Santos, L.D. and R. Terrasêca.** 1998. *O Sector do Turismo no Norte de Portugal*. Porto: Adeturn-Edições Afrontamento.
- Santos, L.D. and R. Terrasêca.** 1999. "Turismo." In *Região Norte de Portugal: Actualizar e Aprofundar o Conhecimento*. Eds. Santos, L.D. and D. Bessa. Porto: Edições Afrontamento.
- Schade, C. and E. Schott, E.** 1993. "Kontraktgueter im Marketing." *Marketing ZFP* 1 (1/ 1993): 15-25.
- Scharf, A.** 1991. *Konkurrierende Produkte aus Konsumentensicht- Erfassung und räumliche Darstellung unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Korrespondenzanalyse*. PhD Dissertation. Universitaet Goettingen.
- Schmidhauser, H.** 1989. "Tourist needs and motivations." In *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*. Eds. Witt, S. and L. Moutinho. New York: Prentice Hall, 569-572.
- Schmidt, A.** 1994. "Die Agrarreform 1992." *Raumforschung und Raumordnung* (3/ 1994): 174-183.
- Schmitz, C.** 1990. *Die Entwicklung eines Imagery-Instrumentariums zur Erhebung von Anmutungsanspruechen*. Koeln: Foerdergesellschaft Produkt-Marketing.
- Schoerner, B.** 1993. *Soziale Stereotype und Selbstbeurteilung*. PhD Dissertation. Serie Dissertationen der Universitaet Wien n°240. Wien: VWGO.
- Schroeder, T.** 1996. "The Relationship of residents' image of their state as a tourist destination and their support for tourism." *Journal of Travel Research* (Spring 1996): 71-73.
- Schweiger, G. and C. Wusst.** 1988. "Neue Wege in der Nonverbalen Imagemessung am Beispiel der Länderforschung." *Werbeforschung und Praxis* (2/ 1988): 32-43.
- Scott, L.M.** 1994. "Images in Advertising: The Need for a Theory of Visual Rhetoric." *Journal of Consumer Research* 21 (Sept.94): 252-273.
- Scott, D.R., C.D. Schewe and D.G. Frederick,** 1978, "A Multi-Brand/ Multi-Attribute Model of Tourist State Choice." *Journal of Travel Research* (Summer 78): 23-29.
- Seitz, E.** 1983. *Die Bewertung alternativer Strategien der Imagewerbung im Fremdenverkehr (Staedtetourismus) auf der Grundlage von Werbeerfolgskontrollen*. Berlin
- Seitz, E. and W. Meyer.** 1995. *Tourismusmarktforschung*. Muenchen: Verlag Vahlen.
- Selwyn, T. (ed)** 1996. *The Tourist Image: myths and myth making in tourism*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Serra, E.M. and J.V. Gonzalez.** 1998. *A Marca- Avaliação e Gestão Estratégica*. Lisboa, São Paulo: Editorial Verbo.
- Sharma, S.** 1996. *Applied Multivariate Techniques* New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sharpley, R.** 1993. *Tourism and leisure in the countryside*. Kings Ripton: ELM Publications.
- Sirgy, M.J.** 1982. "Self-Concept in Consumer Behavior: A critical Review." *Journal of Consumer Research* 9 (Dec.1982): 287-300.
- Sirgy, M.J.** 1983. *Social Cognition and Consumer Behavior*. New York: Praeger Publishers.

- Sirgy, M.J., D. Grewal, T.F. Mangleburg, J. Park, K-S. Chon, C.B. Claiborne, J.S. Johar and H. Berkman.** 1997. "Assessing the Predictive Validity of Two Methods of Measuring Self-Image Congruence." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 25 (3): 229-241.
- Sirgy, M.J. and C. Su.** 2000. "Destination Image, Self-Congruity, and Travel Behavior: Toward an Integrated Model." *Journal of Travel Research* 38 (May 2000): 340-352.
- Slee, B.** 1989. *Alternative Farm Enterprises*. (2nd edition) London: Farming Press Ltd.
- Smith, M. & K. MacKay.** 1999. "Age And Memory for visual information on tourist destinations." paper presented at the *Ninth Biennial World Marketing Congress of the Academy of Marketing Science* Malta, June 1999.
- Snepenger, D. and L. Milner.** 1990. "Demographic and Situational Correlates of Business Travel." *Journal of Travel Research* 28 (Spring): 27-32.
- Solomon, M.R.** 1983. "The role of products as social stimuli: A symbolic interactionism perspective." *Journal of Consumer Research* 10: 319-329.
- Spatt, E.** 1975. *Allgemeine Fremdenverkehrslehre*. Innsbruck: Umverlag.
- Spiegel, B.** 1961. *Die Struktur der Meinungsverteilung im sozialen Feld. Das psychologische Marktmodell*. Bern/ Stuttgart.
- Stabler, M.** 1990. "The image of destination regions: theoretical and empirical aspects." In *Marketing in the Tourism Industry- The Promotion of Destination Regions*. Eds. Goodall and Ashworth. London: Routledge, 133-161.
- Stachowiak, H.** 1965. *Gedanken zu einer allgemeinen Theorie der Modelle*. Serie Studium Generale 18.Jg. Vol.7.
- Tapachai, N. and R.Waryszak.** 2000. "An examination of the Role of Beneficial Image in Tourist Destination Selection." *Journal of Travel Research* 39 (Aug.2000): 37-44.
- Telisman-Kosuta, N.** 1989. "Tourist Destination Image." In *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*. Eds. Witt, S. and L. Moutinho. New York: Prentice Hall, 557-561.
- Torkildsen, G.** 1992. *Leisure and Recreation Management*. (3d edition) London: E&F Spon.
- Travis, A.S.** 1991. "New demand trends and the wide range of new tourism products in Europe." paper presented at the *Seminar on New Forms of Demand, New Products*. Nicosia (Cyprus), May 1991.
- Tribe, J.** 1997. "The indiscipline of tourism." *Annals of Tourism Research* 24 (3): 638-657.
- Trommsdorff, V.** 1975. *Die Messung von Produktimages fuer das Marketing -Grundlagen und Operationalisierung*. Koeln, Berlin, Bonn, Muenchen: Carl Heymanns Verlag KG.
- Trommsdorff, V.** 1989. *Konsumentenverhalten*. Stuttgart: Kohlhammer.
- Tuan, Y-F.** 1990. *Topophilia: a study of environmental perception, attitudes, and values*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- TURIHAB.** 2001. *Memorando- Relatório de Atividades 2000*. Unpublished working document.
- Turner, L. and J. Ash.** 1975. *The Golden Hordes: International Tourism and the Pleasure Periphery*. London: Constable.

- Tyler, W.D.** 1957. "The Image, the Brand, and The Consumer." *The Journal of Marketing*: 162-165
- Um, S.** 1993. "Pleasure Travel Destination Choice." In *VNR's encyclopedia of hospitality and tourism*, Eds. Kahn, Olsen and Var. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 811-821.
- Um, S. and J.L. Crompton.** 1990. "Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice." *Annals of Tourism Research* 17: 432-448.
- United Nations/ WTO.** 1993. *Recommendations on Tourism Statistics*. New York, Madrid: UN/ WTO
- Uysal, M. and L.A.R. Hagan** 1993. "Motivation of Pleasure Travel and Tourism", In *VNR's encyclopedia of hospitality and tourism*, Eds. Kahn, Olsen and Var. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 798-810.
- Uzzell, D.** 1984. "An Alternative Structuralist Approach to the Psychology of Tourism Marketing." *Annals of Tourism Research* 11 (1): 101-112.
- Var, T., R.A.D. Beck and P. Loftus.** 1977. "Determination of Touristic Attractiveness of the Touristic Areas in British Colombia." *Journal of Travel Research* 15: 23-29.
- Veal, A.J.** 1997. *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism – a practical guide*. London: Financial Times Pitman Publishing.
- Venema, M.** 1996. "Marketing destinations by tour operators." paper presented at the *Seminário Internacional - Marketing de Destinos Turísticos*. Faro: Universidade do Algarve, May 1996.
- Wakefield, K.L. and J.G. Blodgett.** 1994. "The Importance of Servicescapes in Leisure Settings." *Journal of Services Marketing*, 8 (3): 66-76.
- Wakefield, K.L. and J.G. Blodgett.** 1996. "The effect of servicescape on customers' behavioral intentions in leisure service settings." *Journal of Services Marketing* 10 (6): 45-61.
- Walmsley, D.J. and J.M. Jenkins.** 1993. "Appraisive Images of tourist areas: application of Personal Constructs." *Australian Geographer* 24 (2): 1-13.
- Walmsley, D.J. and Young, M.** 1998. "Evaluative Images and Tourism: The Use of Personal Constructs to Describe the Structure of Destination Images." *Journal of Travel Research* 36 (Winter 98): 65-69.
- Weaver, P.A. and K.W. McCleary.** 1984. "A Market Segmentation Study to Determine the Appropriate Ad/ Model Format for Travel Advertising." *Journal of Travel Research* (Summer 1984): 12-16.
- Weiler, B.** 1989. "The effects of international travel on the tourist: seeing and clearing methodological roadblocks." *GeoJournal* 19 (3): 303-317.
- Weimer, A. and B. Weimer-Langer.** 1997. *Marco Polo- Portugal- Reisen mit Insider-Tips*. Ostfildern: Mairs Geographischer Verlag.
- Wellhoerner, B.** 1992. *Das Image von Reisezielen*. Starnberg: Studienkreis fuer Tourismus e.V.
- Wilkie, W.L. and E.A. Pessemier.** 1973. "Issues in Marketing's Use of Multiattribute Attitude Models." *Journal of Marketing Research* (10): 428-441.
- Williams, B.** 1999. "Strategic partnership development in small and medium sized tourism enterprises." *The Tourist Review* (4/1999): 20-35.

- Wiswede, G.** 1991. *Einfuehrung in die Wirtschaftspsychologie*. Muenchen: Reinhardt.
- Witt, C.A. and P.L. Wright.** 1992. "Tourist Motivation: Life after Maslow." In *Choice and Demand in Tourism*. Eds. Johnson, P. and Thomas, B. London: Mansell Publishing, 33-55.
- Woehler, K.** 1993. "Internalisierungsbereitschaft externer Kosten umwelt-verträglichlicher Angebote bei Urlaubern." In *Tourismus und Landschaftsbild*. Eds. Langer and Weiermeier. Verlag Kultur/ Austria, 213-242.
- Woehler, K.** 1997. *Marktorientiertes Tourismusmanagement- Tourismusorte: Leitbild, Nachfrage und Konkurrenzanalyse*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag.
- Woehler, K. and Saretzki, A.** 1999. *Umweltvertraeglicher Tourismus- Grundlagen- Konzeption-Marketing*. Limburgerhof: FBV Medien-Verlags GmbH.
- Woodside, A.** 1982. "Positioning a Province using travel research." *Journal of Travel Research* (Winter): 2-6.
- Woodside, A.G. and S.Lyonski.** 1989. "A General Model of Traveler Destination Choice." *Journal of Travel Research* 27 (Spring): 8-14.
- Woodside, A.G. and D. Sherrell.** 1977. "Traveler Evoked, Inept and Inert Sets of Vacation Destinations." *Journal of Travel Research* 6 (1): 14-18.
- World Tourism Organisation (WTO).** 2001. <http://www.world-tourism.org/>. Madrid: 2001.
- WTO.** 1999. *Conta Satélite do Turismo (CST)- Quadro Conceptual*. Madrid: Organização Mundial de Turismo (WTO/ OMT).
- WTO.** 2000. *Tourism Highlights 2000*. (2nd edition) <http://www.world-tourism.org>. Madrid Aug.2000
- WTO.** 2001a. "Tourism industry takes action to end crisis." In *WTO news releases*. <http://www.world-tourism.org/newsroom/Releases/>. London: 12th November, 2001.
- WTO.** 2001b. "Working together to reactivate tourism." In *WTO news releases*. <http://www.world-tourism.org/newsroom/Releases/> Madrid: 6^h December, 2001.
- WTTC.** 2001. *Year 2001 TSA Research*. <http://www.wttc.org>.
- Yang, M.-C.** 1995. *An exploratory analysis of the travel benefits sought, travel satisfaction, culture shock and image differences among international tourists*. PhD Dissertation. Pennsylvania State University. UMI dissertation Services.
- Yiannakis, A. and H. Gibson.** 1992. "Roles Tourists Play." *Annals of Tourism Research* 19: 287-303.
- Young, M.** 1995. "Evaluative Constructions of Domestic Tourist Places." *Australian Geographer Studies* 33 (2): 272-286.
- Young, M.** 1999. "The Social Construction of Tourist Places." *Australian Geographer* 30 (3): 373-389.
- Zeithaml, V.** 1991. "How Consumer Evaluation Processes differ between goods and services." In *Services Marketing*. (2nd edition) Ed. Lovelock. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall

APPENDIX A

Attributes and factors/ dimensions characterizing destination images according to a series of destination image studies

Destination Attributes	N	%
<i>Hospitality/ receptiveness/ friendliness</i>	31	69%
<i>Climate/ nice weather</i>	25	56%
<i>atmosphere</i>		
relaxing	29	64%
tranquil/ peaceful/ quiet	15	33%
interesting	11	24%
adventurous	11	24%
exciting	10	22%
different	10	22%
beautiful	10	22%
exotic	8	18%
appealing/ attractive	7	16%
unique	6	13%
natural	5	11%
wild	4	9%
enjoyable	4	9%
pleasant	4	9%
healthy	4	9%
familiar	3	7%
escape	3	7%
simple	3	7%
unusual	3	7%
open-minded	2	4%
colorful	2	4%
vacation	2	4%
novel experience	2	4%
freedom	1	2%
young-old	1	2%
romantic	1	2%
escape crowds	1	2%
fragile	1	2%
challenging	1	2%
unknown	1	2%
rational-emotional	1	2%
dream	1	2%
conservative-liberal	1	2%
nationalist	1	2%
<i>nature</i>		
Nature /Scenery/ Landscape	31	69%
National/ State Parks	13	29%
Skiing/ Winter sports	10	22%
wildlife	9	20%
Camping	9	20%
wilderness/ closenes to nature	8	18%
Fishing	8	18%
remote/ isolated	8	18%
Forests	7	16%
countryside/ rural	7	16%
Hunting	6	13%
pristinene/ unspoiled/ unpolluted	6	13%
green	5	11%
open space	5	11%
hiking	5	11%
mountain	4	9%

Boating	4	9%
desert/ arid	3	7%
coast	2	4%
river/ lake	2	4%
birdwatching	2	4%
tropical	2	4%
inland	1	2%
central location	1	2%
ecologically important	1	2%
fresh air	1	2%
important to preserve/ threatened	1	2%
<i>culture</i>		
Cultural Heritage	19	42%
Historical Sites	19	42%
attractions, interest sites	17	38%
Sightseeing	13	29%
Cities/ Towns	11	24%
traditions	9	20%
cultural events/ festivals	9	20%
lifestyle	8	18%
similarity/ difference	7	16%
historical	7	16%
handicraft/ art	6	13%
cultural mixture/ diversity	6	13%
architecture	6	13%
educational	5	11%
authentic	5	11%
local people	5	11%
Museums	4	9%
fairs + exhibits	3	7%
Concerts	3	7%
spiritual/ religious	2	4%
rural lifestyle	2	4%
farms	2	4%
political issue	2	4%
ancient	2	4%
original	1	2%
simple way of life	1	2%
scientific value	1	2%
privilege to visit	1	2%
<i>status</i>		
trendy/ popular	4	9%
famous	4	9%
elegant/ sophisticated	2	4%
grandeur	2	4%
tell friends about	1	2%
<i>hedonics</i>		
Shopping	21	47%
Night life	20	44%
beaches	13	29%
multiple activities/ recreation	12	27%
fun/ entertainment	11	24%
sports facilities/ opportunities	10	22%
variety	9	20%
water recreational opportunities	7	16%
Night Clubs/ Bars	4	9%
standard of living	4	9%

outdoor activities	4	9%
golf	3	7%
Liquor Laws	2	4%
Shows	1	2%
theme parks	1	2%
tennis	1	2%
luxury resorts	1	2%
sports events	1	2%
<i>social</i>		
doing things with children	4	9%
family oriented	4	9%
meeting other tourists	4	9%
meeting locals	3	7%
VFR	3	7%
socializing	2	4%
be with friends	1	2%
be with family	1	2%
for all ages	1	2%
privacy	1	2%
opportunities for volunteering	1	2%
<i>hygienics/ tourist infrastructure</i>		
price/ value for money	26	58%
food + drinks	21	47%
hotels/ accommodation	21	47%
safety/ security	19	42%
tourist information	13	29%
transportation	13	29%
access	13	29%
restaurants	9	20%
no language barriers/ easy communication	9	20%
hygiene/ cleanliness	8	18%
services	7	16%
infrastructure	6	13%
good roads/ highways	5	11%
tourist facilities	4	9%
medical facilities	3	7%
comfort	3	7%
package tours	3	7%
adequate for individual tourists	2	4%
souvenirs	2	4%
rent-a-car	2	4%
centrality for trips	2	4%
dining	1	2%
signposting	1	2%
<i>development</i>		
busy/ active	6	13%
modern	5	11%
economic development	3	7%
fast pace of life	3	7%
big-small	2	4%
undeveloped	2	4%
man-made, artificial	2	4%
urbanization	2	4%
touristy	1	2%
cities	1	2%
political stability	1	2%
dynamic	1	2%

negative

crowded-uncrowded	11	24%
commercialized	7	16%
traffic	6	13%
dangerous	3	7%
monotonous/ boring	3	7%
rugged individualists	2	4%
overdeveloped	1	2%
destroyed landscape	1	2%
begging	1	2%
pollution	1	2%
noise	1	2%
cheating	1	2%
xenophobia	1	2%

Studies analyzed:

Var et al., 77, Goodrich, 77, 78, Scott et al., 78, Pearce, 82, Russell & Lanius, 84, Crompton & Duray, 85, Phelps, 86, Haati, 86, Gartner, 86, Dilley, 86, Gartner & Hunt, 87, Richardson & Crompton, 88, Calantone et al., 89, Weiler, 89, Gartner, 89, Reilly, 90, Ahmed, 91, Fakeye & Crompton, 91, Javalgi et al., 92, Wellhoerner, 92, Crompton, Fakeye & Lue, 92, Hu & Ritchie, 93, Walmsley & Jenkins, 93, Ross, 93, Echtner & Ritchie, 93, Mansfeld, 95, Young, 95, Dagostar & Isotalo, 92, 95, Schroeder, 96, Court & Lupton, 97, MacKay & Fesenmaier, 97, Baloglu & Brinberg, 97, Walmsley & Young, 98, Young, 99, Choi et al., 99, Baloglu & McCleary, 1999, Chen & Kerstetter, 99, Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000, Chen & Hsu, 2000, Chaudhary, 2000, Kastenholz, 2000, MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000, Edwards, 2000

APPENDIX B

**Rural Counties in North Portugal according to the OECD indicator
(population density < 150 inhabitants/ km²)**

Rural Counties of North Portugal:(<150 inhabitants/ km²)**sub-region**

as defined by ADETURN, see Santos & Terraseca, 1998

Minho-Lima	<i>Minho</i>
Arcos de Valdevez	<i>Minho</i>
Caminha	<i>Minho</i>
Melgaço	<i>Minho</i>
Monção	<i>Minho</i>
Paredes de Coura	<i>Minho</i>
Ponte da Barca	<i>Minho</i>
Ponte de Lima	<i>Minho</i>
Valença	<i>Minho</i>
Vila Nova de Cerveira	<i>Minho</i>
Cávado	
Terras de Bouro	<i>Minho</i>
Ave	
Vieira do Minho	<i>Minho</i>
Tâmega	
Baião	<i>Porto</i>
Cabeceiras de Basto	<i>Minho</i>
Castelo de Paiva	<i>Porto</i>
Celorico de Basto	<i>Minho</i>
Cinfães	<i>Douro</i>
Mondim de Basto	<i>Minho</i>
Resende	<i>Douro</i>
Ribeira de Pena	<i>Minho</i>
Entre Douro e Vouga	
Arouca	
Douro	
Alijó	<i>Porto</i>
Armamar	<i>Douro</i>
Carrazeda de Ansiães	<i>Douro</i>
Freixo de Espada à Cinta	<i>Douro</i>
Moimenta da Beira	<i>Douro</i>
Penedono	<i>Douro</i>
Sabrosa	<i>Douro</i>
Santa Marta de Penaguião	<i>Douro</i>
São João da Pesqueira	<i>Douro</i>
Semancelhe	<i>Douro</i>
Tabuaço	<i>Douro</i>
Tarouca	<i>Douro</i>
Torre de Moncorvo	<i>Douro</i>
Vila Flor	<i>Douro</i>
Vila Nova de Foz Côa	<i>Douro</i>
Vila Real	<i>Douro</i>
Alto Trás-os-Montes	
Alfândega da Fé	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Boticas	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Bragança	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Chaves	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Macedo de Cavaleiros	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Miranda do Douro	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Mirandela	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Mogadouro	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Montalegre	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Murça	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Valpaços	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Vila Pouca de Aguiar	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Vimioso	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>
Vinhais	<i>Trás-os-Montes</i>

APPENDIX C

Sampling Plan

used for the field project in rural North Portugal

1998-1999

Sampling Plan:

Population: all tourists visiting rural areas in North Portugal for holiday/ pleasure purposes, between June 1998 and July 1999

Cluster Sampling: random selection of groups of tourists, of which a complete count is taken. Groups of tourists are defined as the randomly encountered tourists at pre-defined tourist attraction sites at particular points in time. In order to include an approximately balanced number of respondents from all sub-regions of North Portugal, both high and low season and the international and domestic market, a correspondingly more intensive data collection effort was necessary in the low season, for the foreign market and the interior sub-regions (Douro, Trás-os-Montes).

Sample size: in order to guarantee a representative sample of the defined population and in order to permit use of multivariate statistical techniques, the *largest possible sample* size was considered desirable. Being image the main construct of analysis, the indicator of *overall image* or the percentage of tourists with a positive overall image may be considered as a parameter assisting in the definition of sample size. Alternatively, percentage values for positivity of all image components may be taken as a reference to use in the equation:

$$n = \frac{z^2 Pq}{B^2}$$

If there is no *a priori* inclination for P (percentage of respondents satisfying a criterion), the value 0.5 is often used, being the most cautious approach (Davis, 1996: 221). Using further the z-value corresponding to a confidence level of 95% and an error of 3 percentage points, the required sample size would be:

$$n = \frac{1.96^2 * 0.5^2}{0.03^2} = 1067$$

Consequently, a sample size of about 1100 valid responses may be considered satisfactory. Any number beyond that would be welcome to improve validity of results.

Data collection:

One field trip per month with 3-4 interviewers (including the author of the thesis) for a *period of 4 days* is planned. Field trips aim at visiting selected attraction sites in all three sub-regions, in order to interview all tourists encountered at these sites and points in time.

The *selected sites* are: Guimarães (Paço de Duques), Ponte de Lima (tourist office, cafés, historical center, TER units), Parque Nacional da Peneda de Gerês (camping sites, Caldas do Gerês, pensions, pousada, Soajo-village tourism), Caminha (camping site, historical center), Valença (historical center), country houses, hotels and camping sites on the way over Arcos de Valdevez, Ponte da Barca, Vila Verde, Vieira do Minho, Cabeceiras de Bastos, Vila Pouca de Aguiar, Vila Real (particularly camping site and “casa de Mateus”), Vidago (Hotel Palace), Chaves (historical center, museums, cafés, hotels), Valpaços, Mirandela, Macedo de Cavaleiros, Bragança (here castle, historical center, hotels, pousada), Parque Natural de Montesinho (camping sites, village tourism), Vila Flor (camping site), Torre de Moncorvo (historical center, pensions), Vila Nova de Foz Côa and Archeological Park, Figueira de Castelo Rodrigo, São João de Pesqueira, Sabrosa, Alijó.

Not always all of these sites will be visited, however during each visit all sub-regions will be approached, passing over different sites and staying for interviewing, whenever tourists are encountered. The field trips will be carefully prepared to include particularly days when more tourist movements may be expected (public holidays, weekends, special festivities at specific sites). Still, the procedure will largely depend upon situational factors, requiring a flexible approach.

One or two one-day visits per month with 3-4 interviewers to the ***airport Francisco Sá Carneiro*** in Oporto, in order to interview tourists after their stay in rural North Portugal. Tourists will be approached when waiting in the launch for their flights home.

Questionnaires will be distributed both for (assisted) ***self-administration*** and administered via ***personal interview***, depending on the respondent's preference and capacity. Also in the case of self-administration, an assertive approach will be used, assuring that respondents answer all relevant questions, understand the most complex parts of the questionnaire and maintain a positive rapport and interest in the study. The group of interviewers will be identified as students of the University of Aveiro, participating in a research project, financed by the Coordinating Commission of North Portugal. The author of the thesis will be mostly present, assist in difficult cases, instruct interviewers "on the job" and actively participate in data collection, in order to assure validity of the approach.

Respondents will only be ***included if*** they actually spend a holiday in North Portugal, ideally staying in, but also visiting rural areas of the region, and consequently being able to express impressions on the destination. Also those who visited the region for another main reason (business, health, visit of friends and relatives) were included, as long as they indicated to combine this with holiday/ leisure purposes. Generally only respondents with an age of at least 12 years are included in the sample.

Simultaneously, ***questionnaires will be sent*** for complete self-administration to selected accommodation units in the defined rural counties, which will be contacted beforehand and express willingness to participate in the study. Intermediaries will be instructed about the questionnaire, to eventually assist in case of doubts. A regular follow-up will be needed. In this context, the co-operation of TURIHAB will be useful. For validity concerns, the direct interviewing approach should produce at least 1000 and more than 60% of total responses.

APPENDIX D

Questionnaires:

- 1. English**
- 2. Portuguese**
- 3. French**
- 4. German**
- 5. Spanish**

15. Who is in your travel group? (*various answers possible*) N° of persons in group (including yourself): _____
 spouse/ partner children other family members friends organized group I travel alone
16. Which source of information helped you to choose and inform yourself about this destination? (*various answers possible*)
 travel agency tourist guide book ads in: newspapers , TV , magazines
 catalogue/s of : _____ (company/ organization) other non-commercial literature
 previous visit personal recommendation other: _____

17a. The following list shows you aspects of a holiday, which might be more or less important to you. Please indicate the **degree of importance you attribute to each item when choosing a rural holiday destination**. Please **evaluate next the region you are staying in**, indicating to which degree these items are offered/ present, circling the corresponding numbers of the scale.

	1 – not at all	2 – a little	3 – more or less	4 - quite	5 - very	dk: don't know					
	Important					Present/ Offered					
	<i>for chosing rural destination</i>					<i>in this region</i>					
Quality of accommodation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Gastronomy/ quality of food	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Isolation/ few people	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Close contact to nature	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Get to know people/ opportunities for socializing	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Local/ regional history and culture	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Attractive scenery/ landscape	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Peace and quiet	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Unpolluted, unspoiled environment	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Walking paths	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Get to know rural life/ agriculture	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Architecture/ Monuments	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Good tourist information	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Sign-posting/ ease in finding locations	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Professional Service	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Attractive Night Life	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Sports and Recreation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Offerings for children (activities, facilities, equipment)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Good climate	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Variety of activities/ opportunities offered	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Sympathy of local population	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Good infrastructures (banks, shops, other services)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Ease of communication	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Acessibility of region	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk
Good prices	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	dk

17b. How satisfied are you with this region as a tourist destination (0-100%)? _____ % satisfied

18. How much did you approximately spend per person and per day in Portugal (lodging, food, transportation, shopping...):
 < 500 esc 500-1000 esc 1000-2000 esc 2000-4000 esc 4000-6000 esc
 6000-8000 esc 8000-10.000 esc 10.000 – 12.000 esc 12.000- 14.000 esc > 14.000 esc

19. What localities/ attractions did you (and do you still want to) visit during your stay in this region? _____

20a. What was your *most negative* impression about this region (incident or feature)? _____

20b. What was your *most positive* impression about this region? _____

21. How could this region become more attractive to you as a rural holiday destination?

- a. no changes
- b. better conservation
- c. through more or better opportunities and offerings, namely:
- horse riding cycling fitness tennis swimming golf hunting fishing
 canoeing windsurf other sports: _____ walking paths
 excursions/ guided tours theatre concerts cinema museums folk events
 expositions/ fairs handicraft activities for children participation in agriculture
courses of: languages , folk dance handicraft , art , gastronomy discos bars/ pubs
restaurants: typical , luxurious , cheap , international , vegetarian , with some vegetarian meals

c. other conditions: _____

22. How likely is it for you to (*Please mark the field corresponding to the most correct answer in the scale*):

a. come back to spend a holiday in this region?

b. recommend this region as a holiday destination?

Very unlikely								Very likely									Very likely
---------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	-------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	-------------

Finally I would appreciate some information about you:

23. How would you approximately characterize yourself in reference to the following aspects? *Please mark the most adequate field in the scale*

Agitated, tense						Calm
Organized						Unorganized
Rugged						Delicate
Modest						Extravagant
Formal						Informal
Modern						Traditional
Common						Unique
Pleasant						Unpleasant
Rational						Emotional
Active						Passive
Conservative						Liberal
Warm						Cold/ Distant
Juvenile						Mature
Artificial						Natural
Complex						Simple
Colorful						Colorless

24. Nationality: _____

25. Place of Residence (Country): _____, in a city , town , village

26. Age: <14 years 15-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65-74 >75 years

27. Gender: male female

28. Professional Activity: _____

29. Level of education: _____

30. I have _____ children, with the following ages: _____

If you wish to add any ideas on this study, the questionnaire, this region, your experience with holidays in the countryside, please do so below:

Thank you very much! We wish you a very pleasant stay!

We are also very grateful to the hosts in the accommodation units, to Turihab, ICEP and the tourist offices, which were as kind as to support this study.

Caro/a Visitante!

Este questionário faz parte de um estudo que visa compreender as necessidades e os desejos daqueles que visitam esta região. Os resultados poderão ajudar o sector público e privado a desenvolver ofertas que se aproximem a estes desejos, aproveitando da melhor forma os recursos regionais e considerando também os interesses da população local e as prioridades de conservação do património. Estamos muito gratos por cada contributo, já que a validade dos resultados depende de um elevado número de respostas.

Muito obrigada pela sua valiosa ajuda!

Elisabeth Kastenholtz, Universidade de Aveiro, em colaboração com o ISEE/ Universidade do Porto e a Comissão de Coordenação Norte

1a. Quantas vezes ao longo do ano costuma passar férias (pelo menos 4 dias)? cerca de ____ vezes

b. Quantas vezes ao longo do ano costuma passar fins-de-semana fora de casa (2/3 dias)?

Nunca raramente 1 vez 2 vezes 3 - 4 vezes 5 - 6 vezes 7 - 8 vezes > 8 vezes

2. Indique até 3 destinos (países ou regiões) que tem visitado nos últimos dois anos para férias:

3. Quantas vezes por ano costuma visitar (para férias ou fins-de-semana) o campo?

Nunca raramente 1 vez 2 vezes 3 - 4 vezes 5 - 6 vezes 7 - 8 vezes > 8 vezes

4. Que destinos rurais tem visitado mais frequentemente? (primeiro o mais visitado)

5. Que alojamento prefere no espaço rural? (várias respostas possíveis): Hóteis Pensões Casa alugada

Campismo Quarto com pequeno almoço em: casas rústicas de agroturismo casas solarengas (TH) Castelos/ Palácios

Casa de Amigos/ Familiares outro: _____

As suas férias nesta região

6. Como denominaria esta região? Norte de Portugal

outro: _____

7. Quantas vezes já esteve nesta região? nunca cerca de ____ vezes

8. Onde está alojado? a) Localidade: _____

b) Tipo Estabelecimento de Alojamento: _____

9. Qual é o período da sua estadia? de: _____ até: _____

10. Quando reservou o alojamento? mês: _____ não reservei

11. Se tivesse que descrever esta região em 3 palavras, considerando *imagens, características distintas e o ambiente* que palavras escolheria? _____

12. Como caracterizaria a região onde está a passar férias? Considere o ambiente prevalectente, marcado pelas pessoas residentes e visitantes e pelas características físicas da região. Assinale o campo mais adequado. Veja o exemplo:

muito agitado:					equilíbrio entre agitado e calmo:					mais calmo do que agitado:																			
Agitado	X				Calmo					Agitado			X		Calmo					Agitado			X		Calmo				

O destino de férias (ambiente, pessoas) parece:

Agitado						Calmo					
Organizado						Desorganizado					
Austero						Delicado					
Modesto						Extravagante					
Formal						Informal					
Moderno						Tradicional					
Comum						Único					
Agradável						Desagradável					
Racional						Emocional					
Activo						Passivo					
Conservador						Liberal					
Caloroso						Frio/ Distante					
Juvenil						Maduro					
Artificial						Natural					
Complexo						Simple					
Colorido, vivo						Cinzento					
Diferente de mim						Semelhante comigo					

A minha impressão global sobre esta região enquanto destino turístico é: Muito boa

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Muito má

13. Por que razão (principal) está a visitar esta região? _____

14. Com quem está a passar as férias? (várias respostas possíveis) _____ em casal com filhos outros familiares
 amigos/ em grupo organizado viajo sozinho N° de pessoas no grupo (incluindo você): _____

15. Quais as fontes de informação que o ajudaram a escolher e a informar-se sobre o destino? (várias respostas possíveis)
 agência de viagens guia turístico publicidade em: jornais TV revistas
 catálogos de : _____ (empresa/ organismo) outra literatura não-comercial
 visita anterior recomendações pessoais outros: _____

16. Por favor, indique até que ponto os aspectos abaixo referidos são, em primeiro lugar importantes para escolher um destino de férias no campo, e, em segundo lugar, oferecidos pela região onde se encontra, usando a seguinte escala:

1 - nada	2 - pouco	3 - mais ou menos	4 - bastante	5 - muito	ns: não sei
<i>Em relação às seguintes rubricas:</i>					
			Importante <i>para escolher um destino</i>	Presente/ Oferecido <i>nesta região</i>	
Qualidade do alojamento	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Qualidade da gastronomia	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Isolamento/ pouca gente	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Contacto próximo com a natureza	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Oportunidades para conhecer pessoas, convívio	1	2	3	4	5 ns
História e cultura local/ regional	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Paisagem atraente	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Ambiente calmo e tranquilo	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Ambiente despoluído e não danificado	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Trilhos pedestres	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Oportunidades para conhecer vida rural, agricultura	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Arquitetura/ monumentos	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Boa informação turística	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Sinalização/ Facilidade de encontrar sítios	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Serviço Profissional	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Vida nocturna animada	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Oferta de desportos e actividades recreativas	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Oferta para crianças (diversões, actividades, equipamento)	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Clima agradável	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Variedade de atracções e oportunidades na região	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Simpatia da população local	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Boas infraestruturas de apoio (bancos, lojas, serviços)	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Facilidade de comunicação (com a população)	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Acessibilidade à região	1	2	3	4	5 ns
Bons preços	1	2	3	4	5 ns

16b. Qual é a sua satisfação global com esta região, em percentagem (0-100%)? _____ % satisfeito

17. Quanto gasta aproximadamente na região por pessoa e por dia? (alojamento, alimentação, transporte, compras, diversões...):

< 500 esc 500-1000 esc 1000-2000 esc 2000-4000 esc 4000-6000 esc
 6000-8000 esc 8000-10.000 esc 10.000- 12.000 esc 12.000- 14.000 esc > 14.000 esc

18. Que locais/ atracções visitou (e pensa ainda visitar) nesta região? _____

19 a) Quais foram as suas impressões mais negativas na sua estadia (aspecto ou acontecimento)? _____

19 b) Quais foram as suas impressões mais positivas na sua estadia? _____

20. Como é que esta região poder-se-ia tornar mais atraente para si ? (várias respostas possíveis):

- a) Se não houvesse mudanças
- b) Se tudo ficasse melhor conservado
- c) Se fossem oferecidas **mais/ melhores oportunidades e actividades, nomeadamente:** (várias respostas possíveis)
 equitação ciclismo ginástica ténis natação golfe caça pesca
 canoagem windsurf outros desportos: _____ trilhos (pedestres)
 excursões/ visitas guiadas teatro concertos cinema museus eventos folclóricos
 exposições/ feiras artesanato actividades para crianças participação em actividades agrícolas
cursos de: línguas de danças folclóricas de artesanato de arte de gastronomia discotecas bares/ pubs
restaurantes: típicos de luxo baratos internacionais (com pratos) vegetarianos
- c) **Outras condições:** _____

21. Por favor, assinale o campo que corresponde à sua resposta na escala apresentada. Qual é a probabilidade de você:

a) voltar a passar umas férias nesta região?

b) recomendar esta região para passar férias?

Muito improvável						Muito provável	Muito improvável						Muito provável
------------------	--	--	--	--	--	----------------	------------------	--	--	--	--	--	----------------

Por fim, agradeceria algumas informações a seu respeito

22. Como caracterizaria, aproximadamente, a sua própria pessoa relativamente aos seguintes aspectos?

Agitado						Calmo
Organizado						Desorganizado
Austero						Delicado
Modesto						Extravagante
Formal						Informal
Moderno						Tradicional
Comum						Único
Agradável						Desagradável
Racional						Emocional
Activo						Passivo
Conservador						Liberal
Caloroso						Frio/ Distante
Juvenil						Maduro
Artificial						Natural
Complexo						Simple
Colorido, vivo						Cinzento

23. Nacionalidade: _____

24. Residência (Distrito): _____ ambiente de: cidade vila aldeia

25. Idade: < 14 anos 15-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65- 74 > 75 anos

26. Sexo: masculino feminino

27. Ocupação Profissional: _____

28. Habilitações literárias: _____

29. Tenho _____ filhos, com as seguintes idades: _____

Se quiser, pode colocar observações e respostas alternativas no espaço em branco:

Muito obrigada pela sua cooperação! Desejamos-lhe uma agradável estadia!

Agradecemos também aos proprietários das unidades de alojamento, à

Turihab ao ICEP e aos postos de turismo que tão amavelmente concederam o seu apoio a este estudo!

14. Pour quelle raison (*principale*) visitez-vous cette région? _____

15. Je suis accompagné par (plusieurs réponses possibles):

partenaire enfants autres membres de famille

N° de personnes dans le groupe (vous inclusé): _____

amis groupe organisé je suis seul

16. Quelles sources d'information ont attirées votre attention et renseignées sur cette région? (plusieurs réponses possibles):

agence de voyage guide de voyage publicité en: journaux , TV , magazines

catalogue de : _____ (entreprise) littérature non-publicitaire

visite antérieure recommandation personnelle autre: _____

17a. S'il vous plaît, indiquez, 1) dans la 1ère colonne, l'importance de chaque aspect pour choisir un lieu de vacances à la campagne, 2) jusqu'à quel point ces aspects sont présents/ offerts dans la région où vous passez ces vacances. Marquez la valeur correspondante:

	1 – pas du tout	2 – un peu	3 – plus ou moins	4 - assez	5 - très	sp: ne sais pas					
<i>Relativement aux catégories suivantes:</i>	Important					Present/ Ofert					
	<i>pour choisir un lieu de vacances</i>					<i>dans cette région</i>					
Qualité du logement	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Qualité de la gastronomie	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Isolement/ peu de personnes	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Contact proche avec la nature	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Opportunités pour connaître d'autres, vie sociale	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Histoire et culture locale/ régionale	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Paysage attractif	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Calme/ tranquillité	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Environnement pas pollué	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Chemins pour marcher	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Connaître vie rurale, agriculture	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Architecture/ monuments	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Bonne information touristique	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Signalisation/ Facilité d'orientation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Service Professionnel	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Vie nocturne	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Offre de sports et de activités récréatives	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Offre pour des enfants (diversions, activités, équipements)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Climat agréable	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Variété d'atractions et d'opportunités dans la région	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Sympathie de la population local	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Bonnes infrastructures de support (bancs, magasins, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Facilité de communication (avec la population)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Acessibilité à la region	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp
Bons prix	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	sp

17b. Quel est votre degré de satisfaction avec cette région, exprimée en pourcentage (0-100%)? _____ % satisfait/e

18. Combien dépensez-vous, plus ou moins, dans la région par jour par personne: (logement, alimentation, transports, achats, ...)

< 500 esc 500-1000 esc 1000-2000 esc 2000-4000 esc 4000-6000 esc
 6000-8000 esc 8000-10.000 esc 10.000 –12.000 esc 12.000-14.000 esc > 14.000 esc

19. Quels lieux/ attractions visitez-vous (et voulez-vous encore visiter) dans cette région? _____

20a. Quelles sont vos impressions les plus négatives de votre séjour ici (aspect ou événement)? _____

20b. Quelles sont vos impressions les plus positives? _____

21. Cette région pourrait devenir plus attractive, s'il y avait: (plusieurs réponses possibles)

a) pas d'altération

b) une meilleure conservation

c) plus et des meilleures offres, notamment (plusieurs réponses possibles):

équitation cyclisme gymnastique tennis natation golf chasse pêche
 canoe "windsurf" autres sports: _____ chemins (pour marcher)
 excursions/ tours guidés théâtre concerts cinema musées événements folkloriques
 expositions/ marchés artisanat activité pour des enfants participation en activités agricoles
 courss de: langues , de danses folkloriques , de artisanat , d'art , de gastronomie discos bars/ pubs
 restaurants: typiques , de luxe , bons marché , internationaux , (avec des plats) végétariens

d) Autres conditions: _____

14. Aus welchem (Haupt)grund haben Sie dieses Reiseziel ausgewählt? _____

15. Wer reist mit? (mehrere Antworten möglich) *Anzahl der Personen (Sie inbegriffen):* _____

Partner/ Gatte Kinder andere Familienangehörige Freunde Gruppenreise Ich reise allein

16. Welche Informationsquellen haben Ihnen geholfen, den Ferienort auszuwählen? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

Reisebüro Reiseführer Katalog/e von : _____ (Firma/ Verein)
 Werbung: in Zeitungen , TV , Magazinen nicht-kommerzielle Literatur vorheriger Besuch
 persönliche Empfehlung anderes: _____

17a. Folgende Liste zeigt Ihnen Aspekte, die für einen Urlaub auf dem Lande mehr oder weniger von Bedeutung sind. Geben Sie bitte an, wie wichtig Ihnen jeder der Aspekte ist, wenn Sie ein ländliches Reiseziel auswählen. Bitte bestimmen Sie ferner, inwieweit jeder Aspekt in dem Gebiet, in dem Sie Urlaub machen, angeboten wird.

Markieren Sie bitte die entsprechende Zahl auf der Skala:

	1 – gar nicht	2 – wenig	3 – etwas	4 – ziemlich	5 – sehr	wn: weiss nicht					
	Wichtig										
	Für die Wahl des Reiseziels										
	Angeboten/ existiert										
	in diesem Feriengebiet										
Qualität der Unterkunft	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Gastronomie (Qualität von Speisen/ Getränke)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Einsamkeit/ wenig Menschen	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Naher Kontakt zur Natur	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Leute Kennenlernen/ Geselligkeit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Örtliche/ regionale Geschichte und Kultur	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Attraktive Landschaft	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Ruhige Umgebung	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Unverschmutzte, unzerstörte Umwelt	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Wanderwege	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Landleben/-wirtschaft kennenlernen	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Architektur/ Monumente	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Gute Touristeninformation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Ausschilderung/ leichte Orientierung	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Professioneller Service	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Nachtleben/ Unterhaltung	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Sport- und Freizeitangebot	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Angebote für Kinder (Aktivitäten, Ausstattung)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Gutes Klima	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Abwechslungsreiches Angebot	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Gastfreundschaft der Bevölkerung	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Gute Infrastrukturen (Banken, Geschäfte)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Leichte Verständigung	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Erreichbarkeit des Feriengebiets	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn
Günstige Preise	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	wn

17b. Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit dieser Region als Urlaubsgebiet (0-100%)? _____ % zufrieden

18. Wie hoch sind in etwa Ihre (plus bzw. ansonsten) täglichen Ausgaben in Portugal (Unterkunft, Verpflegung, Fahrten, etc.):

< 500 esc 500-1000 esc 1000-2000 esc 2000-4000 esc 4000-6000 esc
 6000-8000 esc 8000-10.000 esc 10.000 –12.000 esc 12.000- 14.000 esc > 14.000 esc

19. Welche Orte/ Attraktionen haben Sie (möchten Sie noch) in der Gegend besuchen? _____

20a. Was war Ihr negativster Eindruck von dieser Region? (Geschehniss oder Merkmal) _____

20b. Was war Ihr positivster Eindruck? _____

21. Wie könnte ein Aufenthalt in dieser Region für Sie attraktiver werden?

a) keine Veränderungen, bessere Instandhaltung

b) durch mehr und bessere Angebote, insbesondere: Reiten Radfahren Gymnastik Tennis
 Schwimmen Golf Jagd Fischen Kanu fahren Windsurfen Wanderwege
 andere Sportarten: _____ Exkursionen/ Führungen Theater Konzerte Kino
 Museen Folkloredarbietungen Ausstellungen/ Märkte Kunsthandwerk Angebote für Kinder
 Teilnahme an landwirtschaftlichen Tätigkeiten Kurse: Sprachen , Folkloretanz , Kunsthandwerk , Kunst , Gastronomie
 Discos Bars/ Pubs typische , luxuriöse , billige , internationale , vegetarische Restaurants

c) andere Bedingungen: _____

22. Bitte markieren Sie das für Sie am ehesten zutreffende Feld: Wie wahrscheinlich ist es, daß Sie:

a. einen Urlaub in dieser Region wiederholen?

b. diese Region als Feriengebiet empfehlen?

Sehr unwahrscheinlich								Sehr wahrscheinlich	Sehr unwahrscheinlich								Sehr wahrscheinlich
-----------------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	---------------------	-----------------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	---------------------

Zum Schluß wäre ich Ihnen noch für einige Angaben zu Ihrer Person dankbar:

23. Wie würden Sie sich (in etwa) unter Berücksichtigung folgender Aspekte selbst charakterisieren? Bitte markieren Sie das jeweils für Sie am ehesten zutreffende Feld auf der Skala:

Unruhig						Ruhig
Organisiert						Unorganisiert
Grob/ Rauh						Fein, Zart
Bescheiden						Extravagant
Förmlich						Unförmlich
Modern						Traditionell
Gewöhnlich						Einzigartig
Angenehm						Unangenehm
Rational						Emotional
Aktiv						Passiv
Konservativ						Liberal
Warm						Kalt/ Distanziert
Jugendlich						Reif
Künstlich						Natürlich
Komplex						Simplel
Farbenfroh, lebhaft						Grau

24. Staatsangehörigkeit: _____

25. Wo leben Sie? Land: _____ Dorf Kleinstadt Stadt

26. Alter: <14 Jahre 15-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65-74 >75 Jahre

27. Geschlecht: männlich weiblich

28. Berufstätigkeit: _____

29. höchster Bildungsabschluß: _____

30. Ich habe _____ Kinder, folgenden Alters: _____

Wenn Sie gerne etwas kommentieren oder alternative Antworten geben möchten, tun Sie das bitte im Anschluß:

Nochmals vielen Dank! Ich wünsche Ihnen einen angenehmen Aufenthalt!

Mein Dank gilt auch den Gastgebern der verschiedenen Unterkünfte, sowie Turihab, ICEP und den Fremdenverkehrsbüros, die sich freundlicherweise bereiterklärt haben, diese Studie zu unterstützen.

Estimado Visitante!

Este cuestionario hace parte de un estudio que pretende comprender las necesidades y los deseos de aquellos que visitan esta región. Los resultados podran ayudar al sector público y privado en el desenvolvimiento de ofertas que se aproximen a estos deseos, aprovechando de la mejor forma los recursos regionales y considerando también los intereses de la población local y las prioridades de la conservación del patrimonio. Estamos muy agradecidos por su contributo, ya que la validez de los resultados depende de un elevado número de respuestas. *Muchas gracias por su valiosa ayuda!*

Elisabeth Kastenholz, Universidad de Aveiro, en colaboración con ISEE/ Universidad de Porto y la Comisión de Coordinación Regional Norte

1a. Cuantas veces durante el año acostumbra sacar vacaciones (por lo menos 4 días)? cerca de ____ veces

b. Cuantas veces durante el año pasa fines de semana fuera de casa (2/3 días)?

Nunca de vez en cuando 1 vez 2 veces 3 - 4 veces 5 - 6 veces 7 - 8 veces > 8 veces

2. Indique hasta 3 destinos (países o regiones) que han visitado en los últimos dos años en vacaciones:

3. Cuantas veces durante el año acostumbra visitar (para vacaciones o fines de semana) el campo?

Nunca de vez en cuando 1 vez 2 veces 3 - 4 veces 5 - 6 veces 7 - 8 veces > 8 veces

4. Que destinos rurales ha visitado más frecuentemente? (primero el más visitado)

5. Que alojamiento prefiere en el espacio rural? (varias posibles respuestas): Hoteles Pensiones Casa alquilada

Campismo Cuarto con desayuno en: casas rústicas de agroturismo casas asoleadas (TH) Castillos/ Palácios

Casa de Amigos/ Familiares otros: _____

Sus Vacaciones En Esta Región

6. Cómo denominaria esta región? Norte de Portugal otro: _____

7a. Cuántas veces ya estuvo en esta región? nunca cerca de ____ veces

b. Cuántas veces ya estuvo en otras regiones portuguesas? nunca cerca de ____ veces,

e dónde? _____

8. Dónde esta hospedado? a) Localidad: _____

b) Tipo de Alojamiento: _____

9. Cúal es el período de su estadia? _____

10. Cuándo reservo su alojamiento? mes: _____ nó reserve

11. Como describiria esta región en terminos de imagenes, características, ambiente (3 tópicos)?

12. Cómo caracterizaria la región donde está pasando sus vacaciones? Considere el ambiente prevalesciente, marcado por los residentes y visitantes y por las características físicas de la región. Señale el campo más adecuado. Veja o exemplo:

muy agitado:				equilibrio entre agitado y calmo:				mas calmo que agitado:				
Agitado	X			Calmo		Agitado	X	Calmo		Agitado	X	Calmo

El destino de vacaciones (ambiente, personas) parece:

Agitado					Calmo
Organizado					Desorganizado
Austero					Delicado
Modesto					Extravagante
Formal					Informal
Moderno					Tradicional
Comum					Unico
Agradable					Desagradable
Racional					Emocional
Activo					Passivo
Conservador					Liberal
Caluroso					Frio/ Distante
Juvenil					Maduro
Artificial					Natural
Complejo					Sencillo
Colorido, vivo					Grís
Diferente de mi					Semejante conmigo

Mi impresión global sobre esta región como destino turístico es:

Muy buena

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Muy mala

13. Por qué razón (principal) esta visitando esta región? _____

14. Com quien esta pasando las vacaciones? (es posible dar varias respuestas) N° de personas(incluyendolo a usted): _____
 en pareja con los hijos otros familiares amigo/s en grupos organizados viajó solo
15. Cuáles las **fuentes de información** que lo ayudaron a escoger y a informarse a cerca de este destino? (várias posibles respuestas)
 agencia de viajes guía turístico publicidad en: periódicos TV revistas
 catálogos de : _____ (empresa/ organismo) otra literatura no comercial
 visita anterior recomendaciones personales otros: _____

16. Por favor, indique hasta que punto los aspectos señalados abajo son, en primer lugar importantes para escoger como destino de vacaciones el campo y, en segundo lugar, ofrecidos por la región donde se encuentra, usando la siguiente escala:

	1 - nada	2 - poco	3 – más o menos	4 - bastante	5 - mucho	ns: no sé					
<i>En relación alas siguientes rubricas:</i>											
	Importante para escoger un destino					Presente/ Ofrecido en esta región					
Calidad del alojamiento	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Calidad de la gastronomía	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Isolamiento/ poca gente	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Contacto con la naturaleza	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Oportunidad de conocer personas, convivir	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Historia y cultura local	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Paisaje atrayente	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Ambiente calmo y tranquilo	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Ambiente sin contaminación y no dañado	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Trillos pedestres	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Conocer la vida rural, agricultura	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Arquitectura/ monumentos	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Buena información turística	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Señalización/ Facilidad de encontrar sitios	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Servicio Profesional	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Vida nocturna animada	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Oferta deportiva y actividades recreativas	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Oferta para los niños (diversiones, actividades, equipamiento)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Clima agradable	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Variedad de atracciones y oportunidades en la región	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Simpatía de la población local	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Buenas infraestructuras de apoyo (banco, tiendas, servicios)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Facilidad de comunicacion (con la población)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Accesos para la región	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns
Buenos precios	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	ns

- 16b. Cual es su satisfacción global con la región, en porcentaje (0-100%)? _____ % satisfecho
17. Cuál fué la cantidad que gastó durante su viaje por persona y por día (alojamiento, alimentación, transporte, compras...):
- | | | | | |
|---------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| < 500 esc | 500-1000 esc | 1000-2000 esc | 2000-4000 esc | 4000-6000 esc |
| 6000-8000 esc | 8000-10.000 esc | 10.000- 12.000 esc | 12.000- 14.000 esc | > 14.000 esc |
18. Qué locales/ atracciones visitó (y lo piensa todavia visitar) en esta región?

19 a) Cuales fueron las impresiones más negativas que tuvo durante su estadia (aspecto o acontecimiento)?

19 b) Cuales fueron las impresiones más positivas?

20. Cómo esta región se podria hacer mas atrayente para usted? (várias posibles respuestas)

- d) Si nó hubieran mudanzas b) Si todo se quedara mas conservado
- c) Si se ofrecieran más/ mejores oportunidades y actividades, como: (várias posibles respuestas)
- | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|----------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------|--|---------------------|-------------|
| equitación | ciclismo | gimnasia | tenis | natación | golf | caza | pesca |
| canoage | windsurf | otros deportes: _____ | | | | caminos (pedestres) | |
| excursiones/ visitas guiadas | | teatro | conciertos | cine | museos | eventos folkloricos | |
| exposiciones/ ferias | | artesanía | actividades infantiles | | participación en actividades agricolas | | |
| <i>cursos de:</i> lenguas | | de danzas folkloricas | de artesanía | de arte | de gastronomía | discotecas | bares/ pubs |
| restaurantes: típicos | | de lujo | baratos | internacionales | (con platos) vegetarianos | | |
- d) **Otras condiciones:** _____

21. Por favor, señale el espacio al que corresponde su respuesta dentro de la escala. Cual es la probabilidad de que usted:

a) vuelva a pasar vacaciones en esta región?

b) recomiende esta región para pasar vacaciones?

Muy improbable						Muy probable	Muy improbable						Muy probable
----------------	--	--	--	--	--	--------------	----------------	--	--	--	--	--	--------------

Por fin, agradecería alguna información a su respecto

22. Cómo se caracterizaría a sí mismo dentro de los siguientes aspectos?

Agitado						Calmo
Organizado						Desorganizado
Austero						Delicado
Modesto						Extravagante
Formal						Informal
Moderno						Tradicional
Comum						Unico
Agradable						Desagradable
Racional						Emocional
Activo						Passivo
Conservador						Liberal
Caluroso						Frio/ Distante
Juvenil						Maduro
Artificial						Natural
Complejo						Sencillo
Colorido, vivo						Gris

23. Nacionalidad: _____

24. Dirección (Distrito): _____ ambiente de: **ciudad** **villa** **pueblo**

25. Edad: < 14 años 15-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65- 74 > 75 años

26. Sexo: masculino femenino

27. Profesión: _____

28. Habilitaciones literarias (Estudios): _____

29. Tengo _____ hijos, con las siguientes edades: _____

Si desea, puede colocar observaciones y respuestas alternativas en el espacio en blanco:

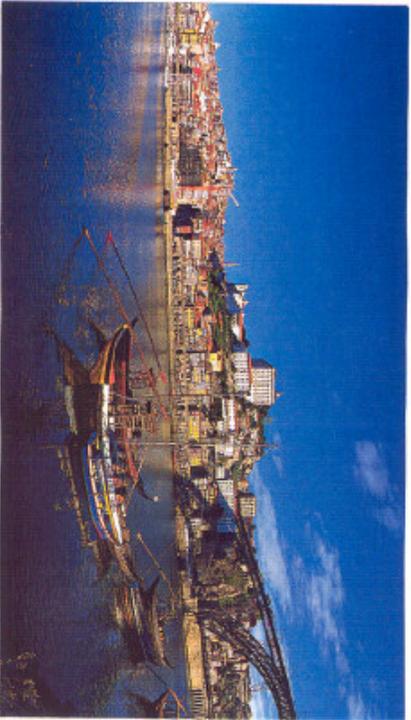
*Muchas gracias por su colaboración! Le deseo una estadia agradable!
Agradesco también a los propietarios de las unidades de alojamiento, a Turihab, al ICEP y los postos de turismo que con tanta amabilidad me brindaron su apoyo!*

APPENDIX E

Photos used for exploratory association and preference exercise



← n°1



n°2



← n°3



n°4 →



← n°5

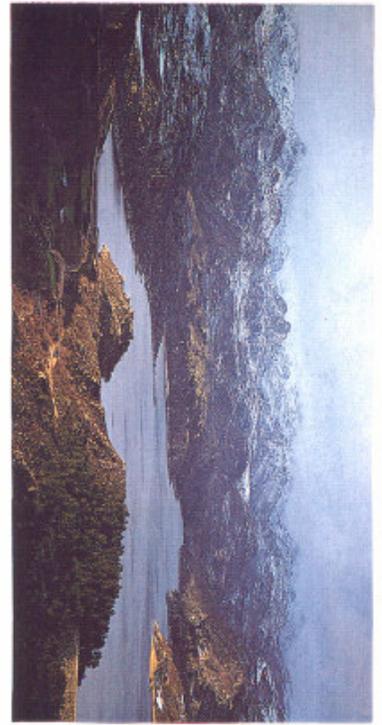
← 9. n



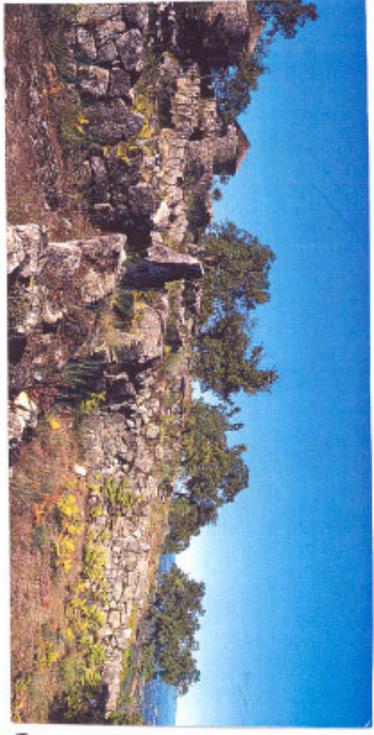
↑ 7. n



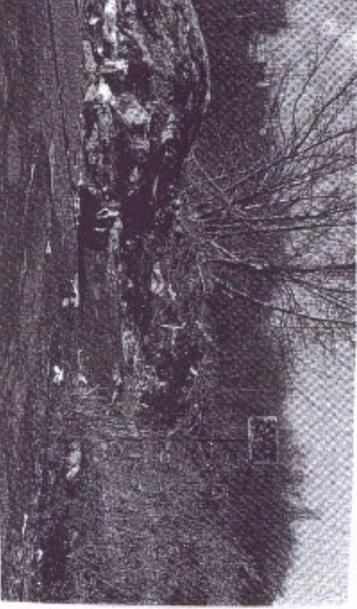
→ 8. n



2. n



01. n



11. n



n°12



n°13



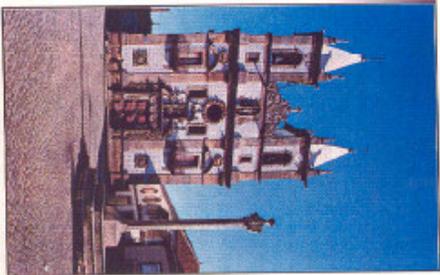
n°14



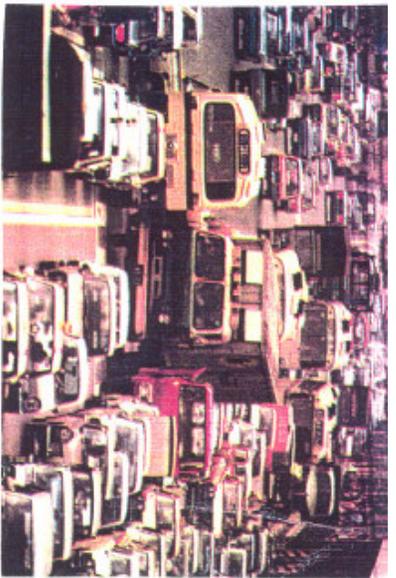
n°15



n°16



n°17



n°18



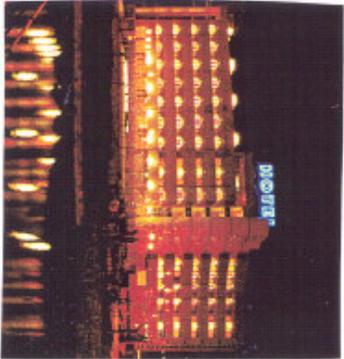
n°19



n°20



← n°21



← n°23



n°24 ↑



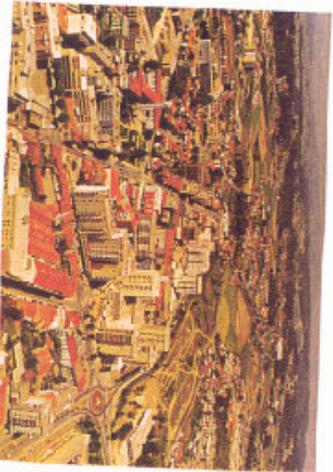
↑ n°26



→ n°22



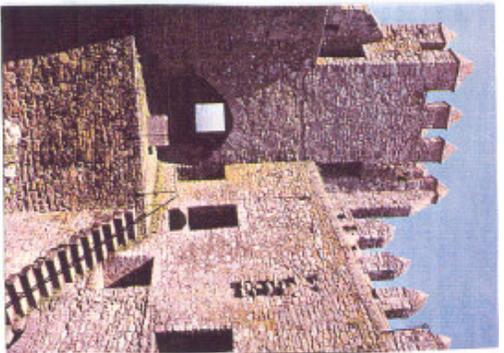
↑ n°25



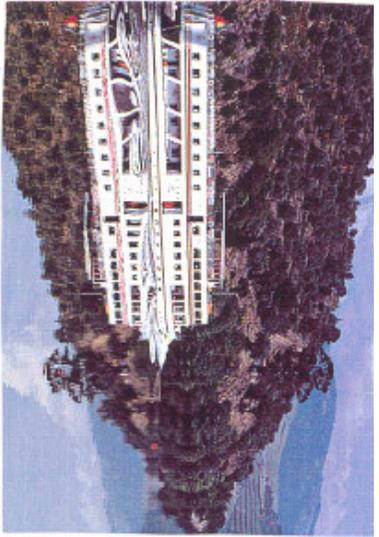
→ n°27



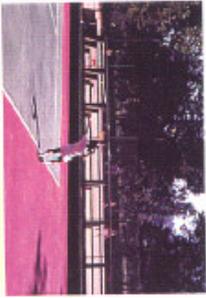
n°28



n°30 ↑

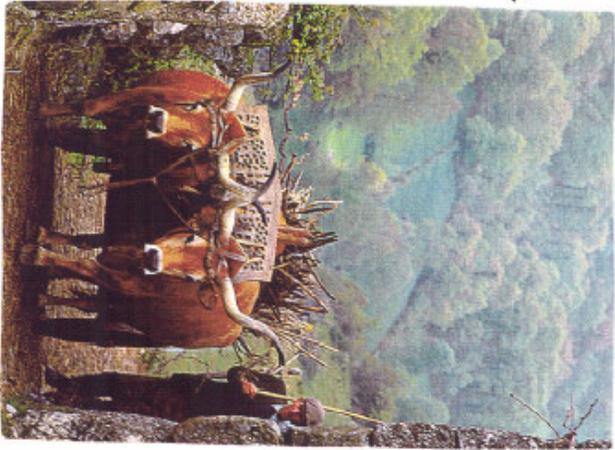


n°31 ↑

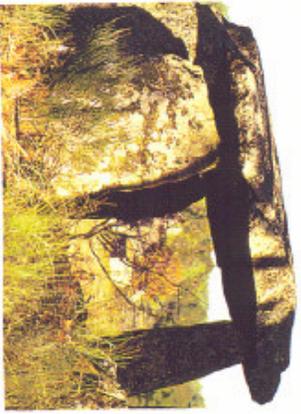


n°34 →

n°32 →



n°33 ↓



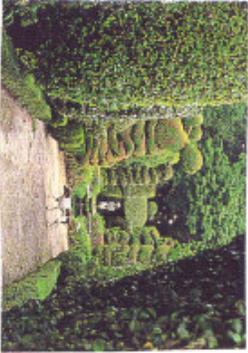
n°35 ↑



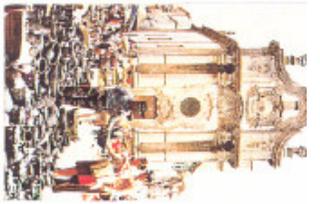
n°29



n°36 ←



n°39 ↑



n°37 →

n°38 ↓



n°40 ↑



n°41 ↑

Categories of Photos

nature & landscape	
1	forest, green
3	beach
5	green, garden
9	mountain, vast horizons, lake
10	harsh landscape, granite
22	harsh landscape, vast horizons
39	park
28	Douro Valley
monuments	
2	Porto (Ribeira)
13	roman church
17	village church
21	manor house
30	castle
35	prehistorical art
36	historical town
recreation, leisure	
4	walking path
15	fishing
19	café at beach, sea
20	horse riding
25	golf
31	Douro boat
33	hunting
34	tennis
urban development	
27	urban development
living culture/ traditions	
12	typical village
32	rural life, typical village
6	azulejos
7	religion, procession
8	handicraft artisit
14	folk dance
26	countryhouse
29	folklore
37	handicraft, marketplace
40	agriculture
41	handicraft (ceramics)
Negativo	
11	trash in nature
18	chaotic traffic
tourist infrastructure	
16	swimming pool
23	hotel
24	manor house
gastronomy	
38	gastronomy

Most liked photos		(N = 105)	
N.º photo		frequency	% resp.
	nature & landscape	162	154,29%
28	Douro Valley	38	36,19%
9	mountain, vast horizons, lake	34	32,38%
3	beach	26	24,76%
10	harsh landscape, granite	21	20,00%
1	forest, green	16	15,24%
39	park	10	9,52%
5	green, garden	9	8,57%
22	harsh landscape	8	7,62%
	monuments	82	78,10%
2	Porto (Ribeira)	28	26,67%
30	castle	16	15,24%
17	village church	10	9,52%
35	prehistorical art	8	7,62%
36	historical town	8	7,62%
21	manor house	7	6,67%
13	roman church	5	4,76%
	recreation, leisure	51	48,57%
4	walking path	20	19,05%
15	fishing	12	11,43%
31	Douro boat	10	9,52%
19	café at beach, sea	5	4,76%
20	horse riding	2	1,90%
33	hunting	2	1,90%
25	golf	1	0,95%
34	tennis	1	0,95%
	urban development	2	1,90%
27	urban development	2	1,90%
	gastronomy	15	14,29%
38	gastronomy	15	14,29%
	tourist infrastructure	15	14,29%
16	swimming pool	7	6,67%
24	manor house	6	5,71%
23	hotel	2	1,90%
	living culture/ traditions	124	118,10%
32	rural life, typical village	21	20,00%
29	folklore	19	18,10%
6	azulejos	17	16,19%
12	typical village	17	16,19%
7	religion, processions	10	9,52%
8	handicraft artist	9	8,57%
40	agriculture	8	7,62%
41	handicraft (ceramics)	8	7,62%
26	countryhouse	6	5,71%
37	handicraft, marketplace	5	4,76%
14	folk dance	4	3,81%
Total		453	431,43%

Photos most identified with North Portugal (N = 105)

N.º photo		frequency	% resp.
	nature & landscape	120	114,29%
10	harsh landscape, granite	31	29,52%
28	Douro Valley	30	28,57%
3	beach	16	15,24%
22	paisagem árida, agreste	14	13,33%
9	mountain, vast horizons, lake	12	11,43%
1	forest, green	9	8,57%
39	park	8	7,62%
	monuments	154	146,67%
2	Porto (Ribeira)	31	29,52%
17	village church	30	28,57%
30	castle	30	28,57%
21	manor house	19	18,10%
36	historical town	19	18,10%
13	roman church	13	12,38%
35	prehistorical art	12	11,43%
	recreation, leisure	52	49,52%
4	walking path	23	21,90%
15	fishing	13	12,38%
31	Douro boat	6	5,71%
19	café at beach, sea	4	3,81%
33	hunting	3	2,86%
34	tennis	2	1,90%
25	golf	1	0,95%
	urban development	7	6,67%
27	urban development	7	6,67%
	negative	9	8,57%
18	chaotic traffic	5	4,76%
11	trash in nature	4	3,81%
	gastronomy	19	18,10%
38	gastronomy	19	18,10%
	tourist infrastructure	6	5,71%
24	manor house	3	2,86%
23	hotel	2	1,90%
16	swimming pool	1	0,95%
	living culture/ traditions	156	148,57%
32	rural life, typical village	28	26,67%
6	azulejos	27	25,71%
12	typical village	21	20,00%
40	agriculture	20	19,05%
37	handicraft, marketplace	16	15,24%
7	religion, processions	15	14,29%
26	countryhouse	15	14,29%
29	folklore	13	12,38%
41	handicraft (ceramics)	9	8,57%
14	folk dance	7	6,67%
8	handicraft artist	6	5,71%
Total		523	498,10%

APPENDIX F

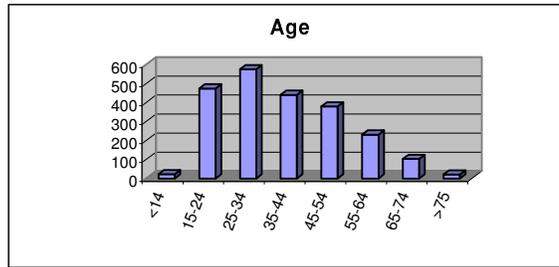
Survey Results in Detail

Sample

N=2280

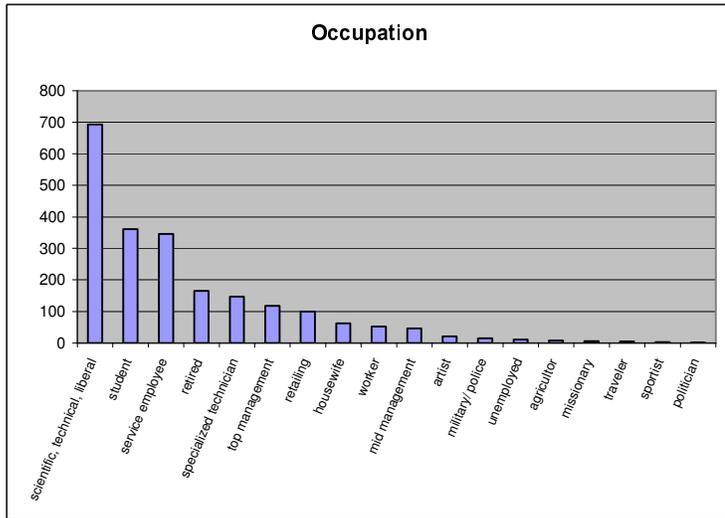
Age

	Frequency	%	valid %
<14	22	1,0	1,0
15-24	474	20,8	21,1
25-34	575	25,2	25,6
35-44	440	19,3	19,6
45-54	379	16,6	16,9
55-64	231	10,1	10,3
65-74	102	4,5	4,5
>75	20	0,9	0,9
Total	2243	98,4	100,0
missing	37	1,6	
Total	2280	2280,0	100,0



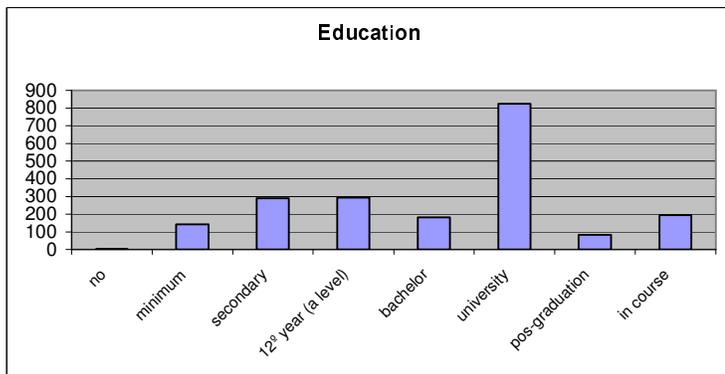
Occupation

	Frequency	%	valid %
scientific, technical, liberal	693	30,4	32,1
student	361	15,8	16,7
service employee	346	15,2	16,0
retired	165	7,2	7,6
specialized technician	147	6,4	6,8
top management	118	5,2	5,5
retailing	99	4,3	4,6
housewife	62	2,7	2,9
worker	52	2,3	2,4
mid management	46	2,0	2,1
artist	21	0,9	1,0
military/ police	15	0,7	0,7
unemployed	11	0,5	0,5
agricultor	8	0,4	0,4
missionary	6	0,3	0,3
traveler	5	0,2	0,2
sportist	3	0,1	0,1
politician	2	0,1	0,1
Total	2160	94,7	100,0
missing	120	5,3	
Total	2280	100,0	



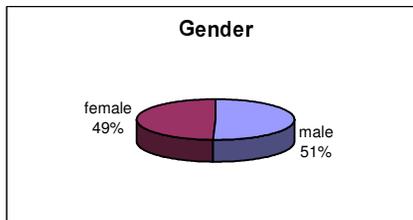
Education

	Frequency	%	valid %
no	2	0,1	0,1
minimum	143	6,3	7,1
secondary	289	12,7	14,3
12 ^o year (a level)	294	12,9	14,6
bachelor	182	8,0	9,0
university	826	36,2	41,0
pos-graduation	84	3,7	4,2
in course	195	8,6	9,7
Total	2015	88,4	100,0
missing	265	11,6	
Total	2280	100,0	



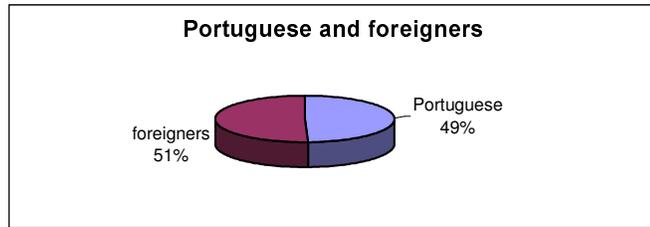
Gender

	Frequency	%	valid %
male	1135	49,8	50,6
female	1108	48,6	49,4
Total	2243	98,4	100,0
missing	37	1,6	
Total	2280	100,0	



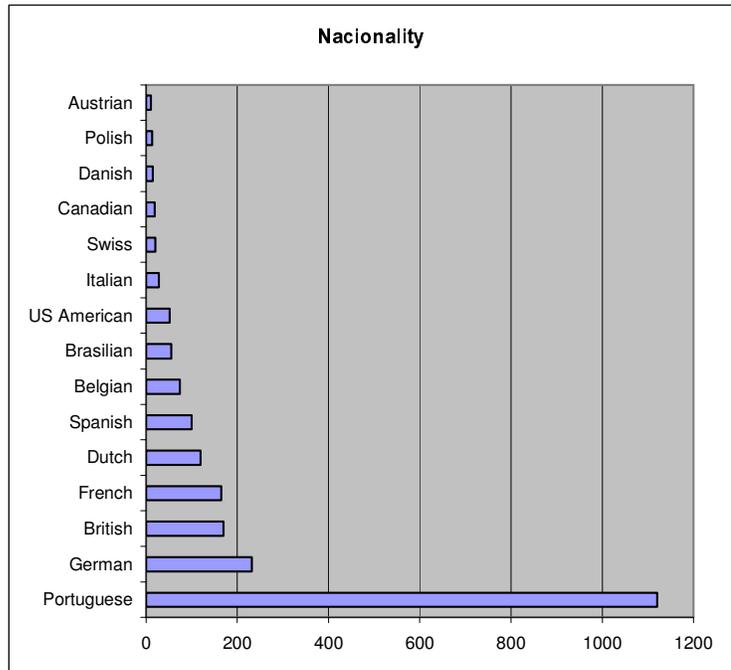
Portuguese and foreigners

	Frequency	%	valid %
Portuguese	1120	49,0	49,3
foreigners	1151	50,5	50,7
Total	2269	99,5	100,0
missing	9	0,5	
	2280	100,0	



Nationality

	Frequency	%	valid %
Portuguese	1120	49,1	49,3
German	232	10,2	10,2
British	170	7,5	7,5
French	165	7,2	7,3
Dutch	120	5,3	5,3
Spanish	100	4,4	4,4
Belgian	74	3,2	3,3
Brasilian	55	2,4	2,4
US American	52	2,3	2,3
Italian	28	1,2	1,2
Swiss	21	0,9	0,9
Canadian	19	0,8	0,8
Danish	15	0,7	0,7
Polish	13	0,6	0,6
Austrian	11	0,5	0,5
Swedish	9	0,4	0,4
Irish	8	0,4	0,4
Australian	7	0,3	0,3
Scottish	6	0,3	0,3
Angolan	6	0,3	0,3
New Zealandian	5	0,2	0,2
South African	5	0,2	0,2
Japaneese	4	0,2	0,2
Greek	4	0,2	0,2
Norwegian	4	0,2	0,2
Venezuelan	4	0,2	0,2
Luxemburg	2	0,1	0,1
Finish	1	0,0	0,0
Mexican	1	0,0	0,0
Russian	1	0,0	0,0
Chile	1	0,0	0,0
Hungarian	1	0,0	0,0
Chzec Republic	1	0,0	0,0
Colombian	1	0,0	0,0
Argentinian	1	0,0	0,0
Romenan	1	0,0	0,0
Dominicanian	1	0,0	0,0
Guiniense	1	0,0	0,0
Galish	1	0,0	0,0
Total	2271	99,6	100,0
missing	9	0,4	
	2280	100,0	

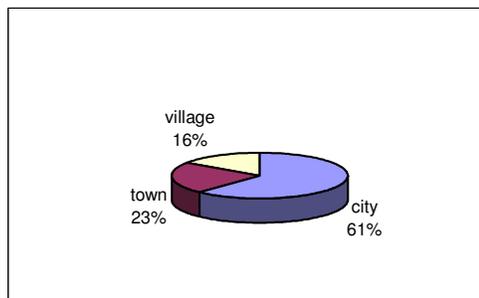


Emigrants

	Frequency	%	valid %
Portuguese emigrant	51	2,2	58,6
Emigrant in Portugal	36	1,6	41,4
Total	87	3,8	100,0
missing	2193	96,2	
	2280	100,0	

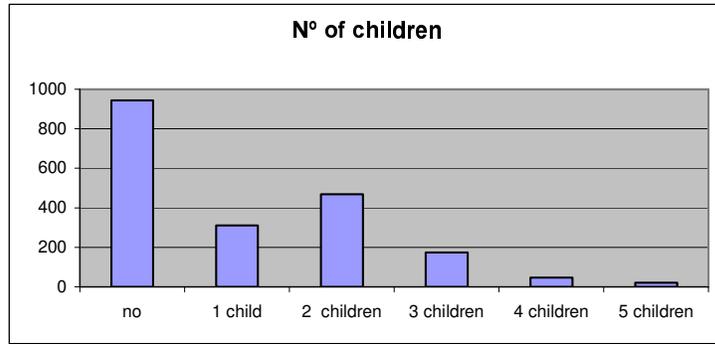
Area of Residence

	Frequency	%	valid %
city	1212	53,2	61,8
town	443	19,4	22,6
village	305	13,4	15,6
Total	1960	86,0	100,0
missing	320	14,0	
	2280	100,0	



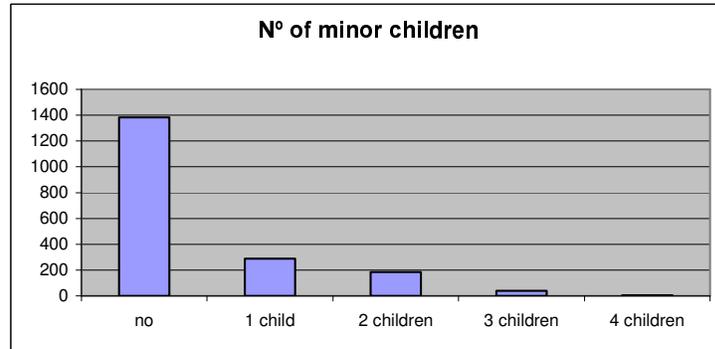
N° of children

	Frequency	%	valid %
no	944	41,4	47,7
1 child	311	13,6	15,7
2 children	469	20,6	23,7
3 children	174	7,6	8,8
4 children	46	2,0	2,3
5 children	20	0,9	1,0
6 children	4	0,2	0,2
7 children	3	0,1	0,2
8 children	6	0,3	0,3
Total	1977	86,7	100,0
missing	303	13,3	
	2280,00	100,0	



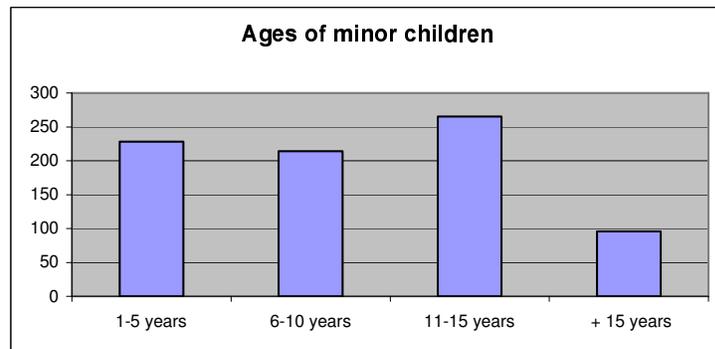
N° of minor children

	Frequency	%	valid %
no	1383	60,7	72,8
1 child	289	12,7	15,2
2 children	184	8,1	9,7
3 children	39	1,7	2,1
4 children	6	0,3	0,3
Total	1901	83,4	100,0
missing	379	16,6	
	2280	100,0	



Age of minor children

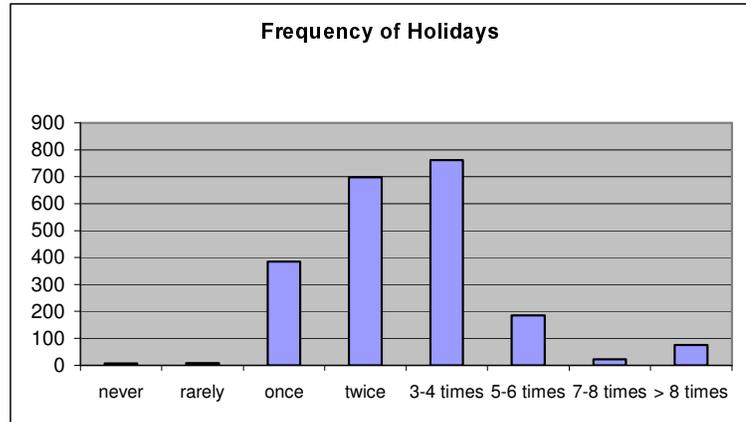
	Frequency	%	valid %
1-5 years	228	10,0	28,4
6-10 years	214	9,4	26,7
11-15 years	265	11,6	33,0
+ 15 years	96	4,2	12,0
missing	803	35,2	100,0
	1477	64,8	
	2280	100,0	



Holiday behavior

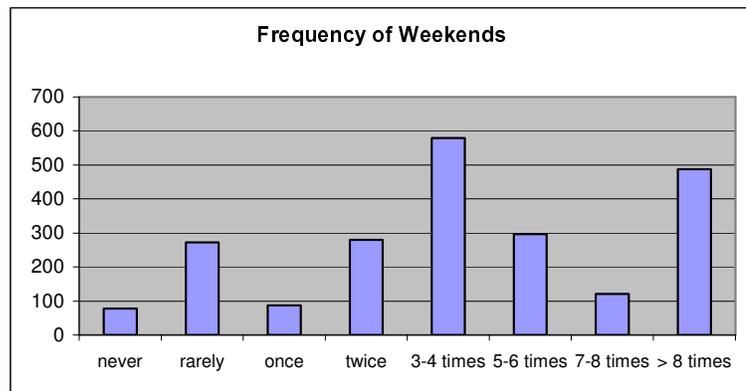
Frequency of holidays (>4 days)

	Frequency	%	valid %
never	6	0,3	0,3
rarely	8	0,4	0,4
once	385	16,9	18,0
twice	698	30,6	32,6
3-4 times	762	33,4	35,6
5-6 times	185	8,1	8,6
7-8 times	22	1,0	1,0
> 8 times	75	3,3	3,5
Total	2141	93,9	100,0
missing	139	6,1	
	2280	100	



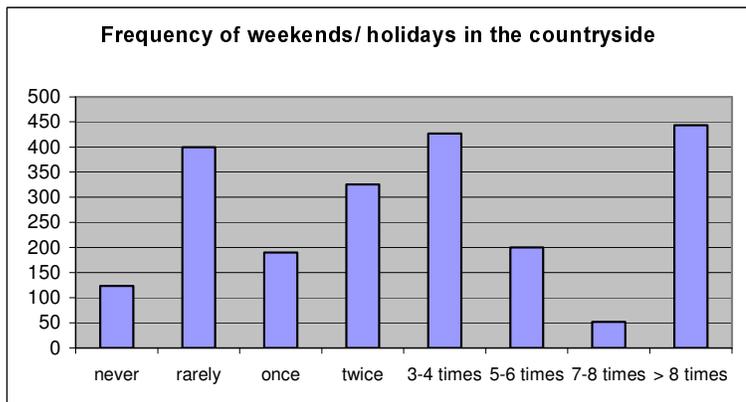
Frequency of weekends

	Frequency	%	valid %
never	78	3,4	3,5
rarely	273	12,0	12,4
once	87	3,8	3,9
twice	280	12,3	12,7
3-4 times	579	25,4	26,3
5-6 times	297	13,0	13,5
7-8 times	121	5,3	5,5
> 8 times	488	21,4	22,2
Total	2203	96,6	100,0
missing	77	3,4	
	2280	100	



Frequency of weekends/ holidays in the countryside

	Frequency	%	valid %
never	123	5,4	5,7
rarely	400	17,5	18,5
once	190	8,3	8,8
twice	326	14,3	15,1
3-4 times	427	18,7	19,8
5-6 times	200	8,8	9,3
7-8 times	52	2,3	2,4
> 8 times	443	19,4	20,5
Total	2161	94,8	100,0
missing	119	5,2	
	2280	100	



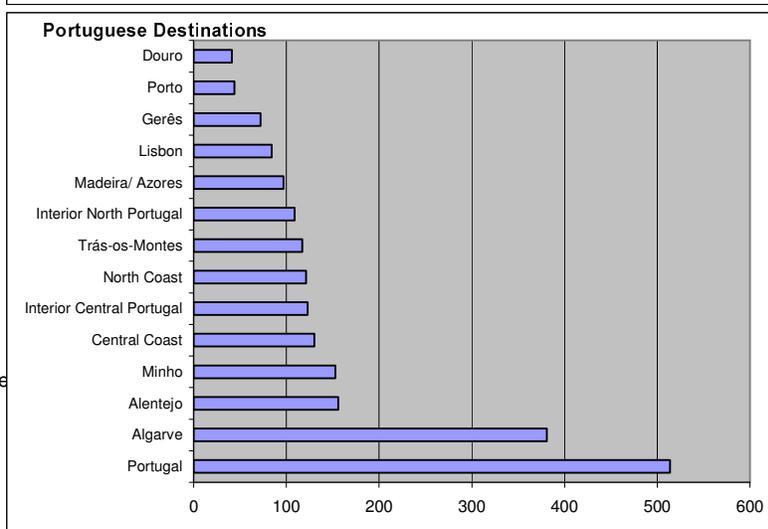
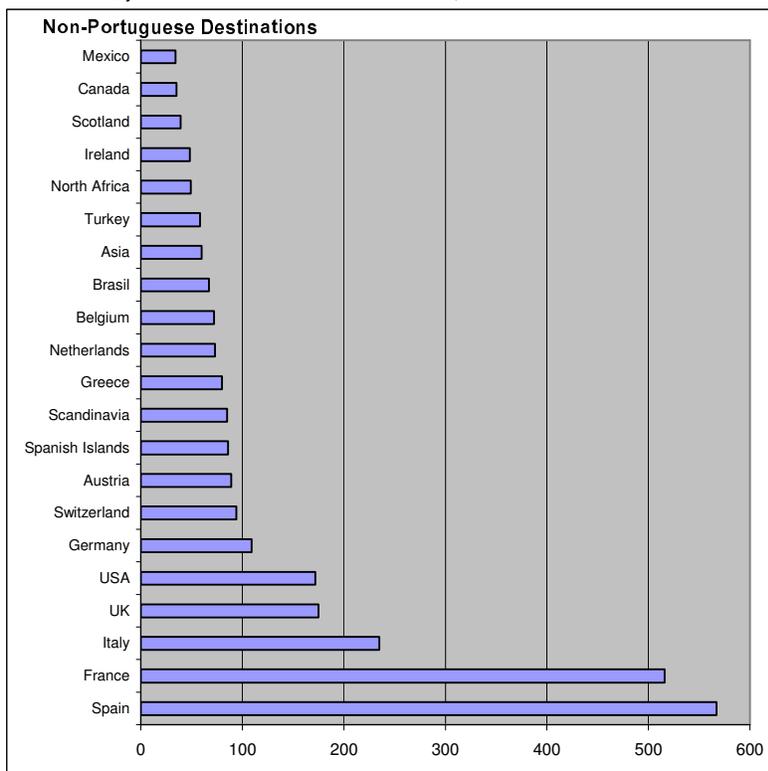
Holiday destinations visited in the last two years

Non-Portuguese Destinations

	Frequency	%
Spain	567	24,9%
France	516	22,6%
Italy	235	10,3%
UK	175	7,7%
USA	172	7,5%
Germany	109	4,8%
Switzerland	94	4,1%
Austria	89	3,9%
Spanish Islands	86	3,8%
Scandinavia	85	3,7%
Greece	80	3,5%
Netherlands	73	3,2%
Belgium	72	3,2%
Brasil	67	2,9%
Asia	60	2,6%
Turkey	58	2,5%
North Africa	49	2,1%
Ireland	48	2,1%
Scotland	39	1,7%
Canada	35	1,5%
Mexico	34	1,5%
Chzec Republic	29	1,3%
Galicia	28	1,2%
Cuba	28	1,2%
Australia	28	1,2%
Africa	27	1,2%
South America	22	1,0%
India	20	0,9%
Hungary	20	0,9%
South Africa	19	0,8%
Egypt	18	0,8%
Poland	17	0,7%
Venezuela	14	0,6%
Cyprus	14	0,6%
Caribic Islands	14	0,6%
Andaluzia	13	0,6%
New Zealand	12	0,5%
Malta	11	0,5%
Iceland	11	0,5%
Estremadura	11	0,5%
China	10	0,4%
Luxemburg	9	0,4%
Japan	9	0,4%
Europe	9	0,4%
Andorra	9	0,4%
Dominican Republic	8	0,4%
Russia	7	0,3%
Central America	7	0,3%
Astúrias	7	0,3%
Slovenia	6	0,3%
Seysshelles	5	0,2%
Macau	5	0,2%
Arabic Countries	5	0,2%
Israel	3	0,1%
Guadalupe	3	0,1%
Croacia	3	0,1%
Chile	3	0,1%
Alaska	3	0,1%
Central Europe	2	0,1%
Romenia	1	0,0%
Ucrania	1	0,0%
Baltic States	1	0,0%

Portuguese Destinations

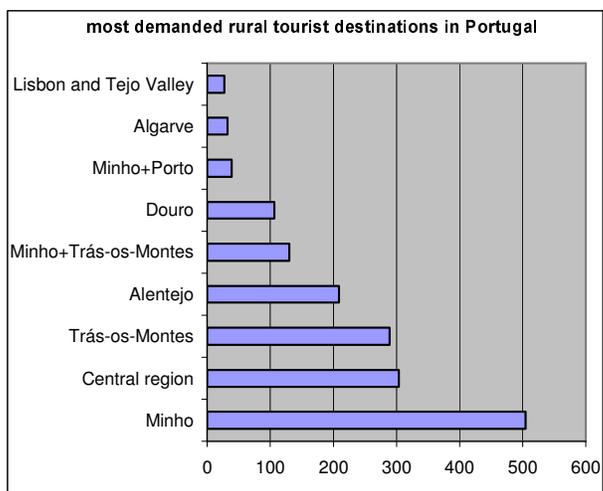
	Frequency	%
Portugal	514	22,5%
Algarve	381	16,7%
Alentejo	156	6,8%
Minho	153	6,7%
Central Coast	130	5,7%
Interior Central Portugal	123	5,4%
North Coast	121	5,3%
Trás-os-Montes	117	5,1%
Interior North Portugal	109	4,8%
Madeira/ Azores	97	4,3%
Lisbon	84	3,7%
Gerês	72	3,2%
Porto	44	1,9%
Douro	41	1,8%
Estremadura	11	0,5%
Lisbon Coast	4	0,2%
Ribatejo	2	0,1%



note: both regions and countries were mentioned and considered as tourist destinations

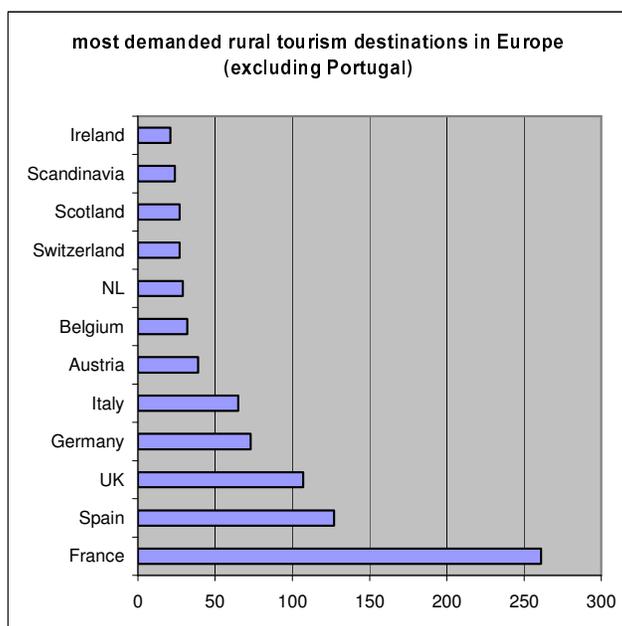
Most demanded rural tourist destinations

Portugal	Frequency	% of sample
Minho	674	29,6%
Trás-os-Montes	419	18,4%
Central Region	304	13,3%
Alentejo	209	9,2%
Douro	106	4,6%
Algarve	32	1,4%
Lisbon and Tejo Valley	27	1,2%



Other European countries and regions

France	261	11,4%
Spain	127	5,6%
UK	107	4,7%
Germany	73	3,2%
Italy	65	2,9%
Austria	39	1,7%
Belgium	32	1,4%
NL	29	1,3%
Switzerland	27	1,2%
Scotland	27	1,2%
Scandinavia	24	1,1%
Ireland	21	0,9%
Greece	16	0,7%
Galicia	15	0,7%
Turkey	8	0,4%
Hungary	7	0,3%
Alps	7	0,3%
Poland	6	0,3%
Europe	3	0,1%
Czech Republic	3	0,1%
Asturias	3	0,1%
Slovenia	2	0,1%
Malta	2	0,1%
Luxemburg	2	0,1%
Ukraine	1	0,0%
Croatia	1	0,0%
Bask Country	1	0,0%
909	39,9%	



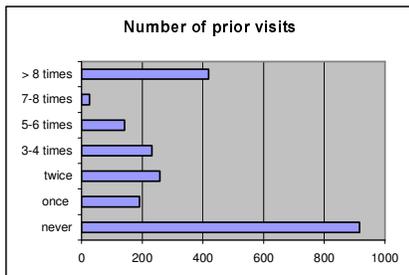
Other countries

North America	34	1,5%
Brasil	28	1,2%
Canada	12	0,5%
Australia	11	0,5%
SAfrica	8	0,4%
Mexico	4	0,2%
Africa	4	0,2%
Venezuela	2	0,1%
South America	2	0,1%
North Africa	2	0,1%
China	2	0,1%
Japan	1	0,0%
Indonesia	1	0,0%
India	1	0,0%
Asia	1	0,0%
113	5,0%	

note: more than one response possible

Number of prior visits to region

	Frequency	%
never	916	40,2
once	191	8,4
twice	258	11,3
3-4 times	232	10,2
5-6 times	141	6,2
7-8 times	26	1,1
> 8 times	419	18,4
total	2183	95,7
missing	97	4,3
	2280	100,0



Douro

Vila Nova Foz Côa	175	7,7%
Moncorvo	55	2,4%
Vila Flôr	41	1,8%
village in Douro region	29	1,3%
Freixo de Numão	21	0,9%
North Portugal	19	0,8%
Lamego	18	0,8%
Douro ship	15	0,7%
Miranda douro	11	0,5%
Régua	8	0,4%
Pinhão	6	0,3%
Alijó	4	0,2%
Mogadouro	2	0,1%
Resende	1	0,0%
Muxagata	1	0,0%
Total	406	17,8%

Trás-os-Montes

Chaves	151	6,6%
Bragança	114	5,0%
Mirandela	59	2,6%
Vidago	46	2,0%
Vila Real	41	1,8%
village in Tras-os-Mont	34	1,5%
North Portugal	19	0,8%
Montesinho	14	0,6%
Valpaços	7	0,3%
Alfândega da Fé	5	0,2%
Vila Pouca d'Aguiar	4	0,2%
Melgaço	3	0,1%
Pedras Salgadas	3	0,1%
Vinhais	3	0,1%
Vidoeiro	1	0,0%
Macedo Cavaleiros	1	0,0%
Montalegre	1	0,0%
Total	506	22,2%

note: more than one response possible

Site of stay
Minho

	Frequency	% of sample
Guimaraes	83	3,6%
Gerês	74	3,2%
Ponte de Lima	72	3,2%
village in Minho	62	2,7%
Braga	52	2,3%
Viana do Castelo	42	1,8%
Vieira do Minho	39	1,7%
Caminha	32	1,4%
North Portugal	19	0,8%
Esposende	18	0,8%
Arcos de Valdevez	14	0,6%
Ofir	14	0,6%
Minho	13	0,6%
Barcelos	11	0,5%
Vila do Conde	10	0,4%
Praia de Ancora	7	0,3%
Soajo	6	0,3%
Entre-os-rios	5	0,2%
Monção	4	0,2%
P. Varzim	4	0,2%
VNFamalicão	3	0,1%
Valença	3	0,1%
Fafe	3	0,1%
Caldas do Geres	2	0,1%
Ponte de Barca	1	0,0%
Vila do Conde	1	0,0%
Cab.Bastos	1	0,0%
Celorico de basto	1	0,0%
Fão	1	0,0%
Total	597	26,2%

Porto Metropolitan Area

	Frequency	% of sample
Porto	56	2,5%
North Portugal	19	0,8%
Espinho	8	0,4%
Santo Tirso	6	0,3%
Amarante	3	0,1%
Castelo de Paiva	3	0,1%
Miramar	1	0,0%
Felgueiras	1	0,0%
Trofa	1	0,0%
São João da Madeira	1	0,0%
Total	99	4,3%

Sub-region in North Portugal visited

	Frequency	Percent	Valid %
Minho	730	32,02	32,02
Douro	631	27,68	27,68
Trás-os-Montes	599	26,27	26,27
North+Porto	234	10,26	10,26
rural North	86	3,77	3,77
Total	2280	100,00	100,00

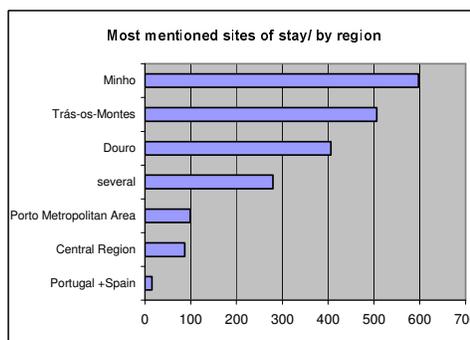
Note: Sub-regions were identified according to

1) the site of questioning, 2) the site of stay, and 3) the localities visited during the stay.

Although a clear classification into Minho, Douro, Trás-os-Montes, was preferred, many respondents

moved across sub-regions. Those who definitely moved predominantly were classified as "rural North" or "North + Porto", depending on the inclusion or not of Oporto as a place of stay or visit.

Frequency % of sample



Central Region

Guarda	14	0,6%
Almeida	13	0,6%
Trancoso	11	0,5%
village in Interior Center	11	0,5%
Fig.Cast.Rodrigo	10	0,4%
Viseu	10	0,4%
Costa Centro	5	0,2%
Pinhel	3	0,1%
Aveiro	3	0,1%
Meda	3	0,1%
Mangualde	3	0,1%
Vilar Formoso	1	0,0%
Total	87	3,8%

Lisbon and Tejo Valley

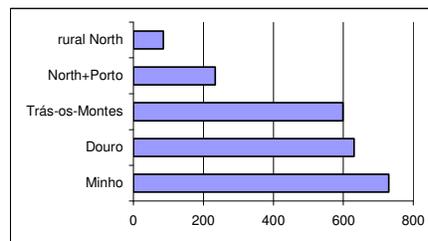
Lisbon	1	0,0%
--------	---	------

Algarve

Alvor	1	0,0%
-------	---	------

Other

several	280	12,3%
Portugal + Spain	16	0,7%
not decided yet	1	0,0%
Total	297	13,0%

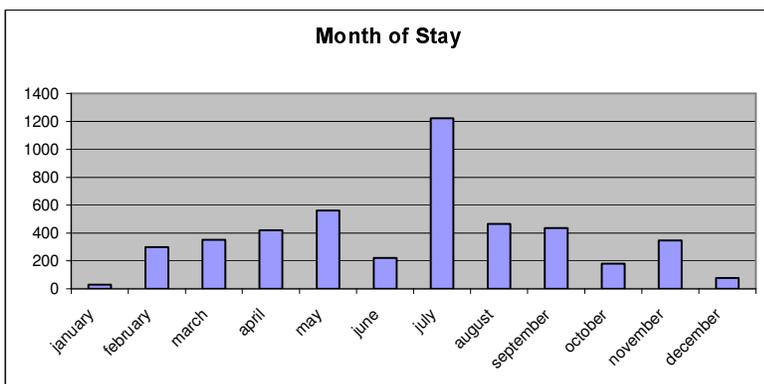
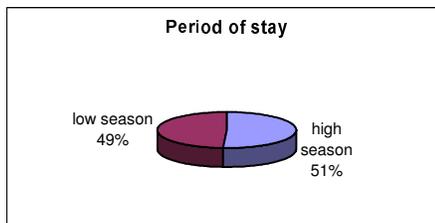


Month of stay

	Frequency	%	valid %
january	31	1,4	0,7
february	299	13,1	6,5
march	353	15,5	7,7
april	419	18,4	9,1
may	561	24,6	12,2
june	222	9,7	4,8
july	1222	53,6	26,5
august	464	20,4	10,1
september	436	19,1	9,5
october	179	7,9	3,9
november	347	15,2	7,5
december	77	3,4	1,7
	4610		100,0

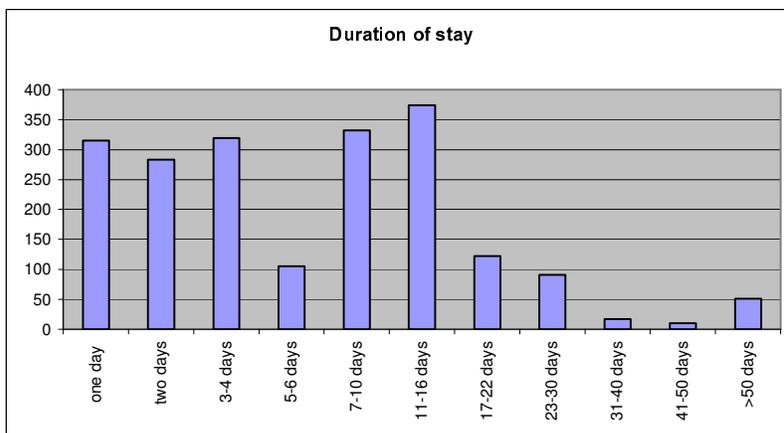
high season 2344
 low season 2266
 high season: June -September
 low season: rest of the year

some respondents stay in more than one season



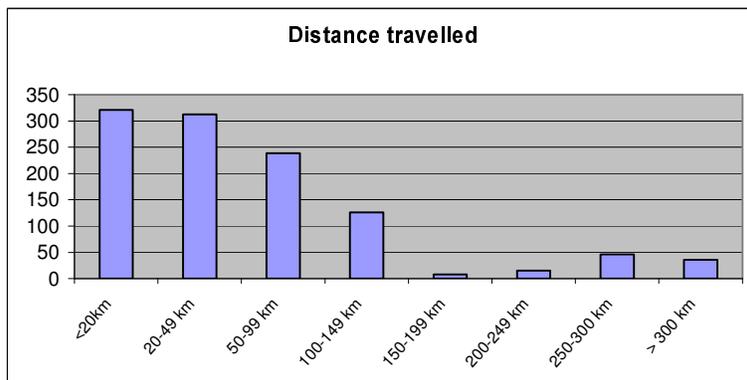
Duration of stay

	Frequency	%	valid %
one day	315	13,8	15,6
two days	283	12,4	14,0
3-4 days	319	14,0	15,8
5-6 days	105	4,6	5,2
7-10 days	332	14,6	16,4
11-16 days	374	16,4	18,5
17-22 days	122	5,4	6,0
23-30 days	91	4,0	4,5
31-40 days	17	0,7	0,8
41-50 days	10	0,4	0,5
>50 days	51	2,2	2,5
Total	2019	88,6	100,0
missing	261	11,4	
	2280	100,0	



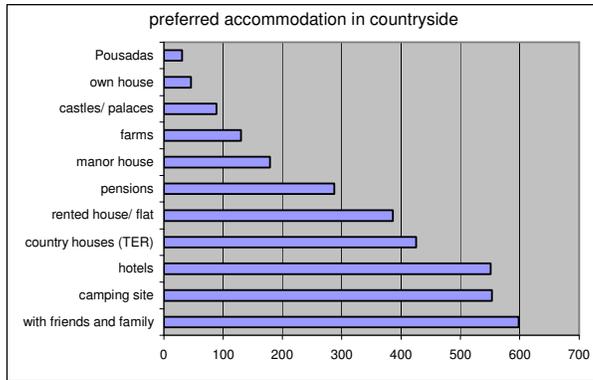
Distance travelled at destination

	Frequency	%	valid %
<20km	321	14,1	29,1
20-49 km	313	13,7	28,4
50-99 km	239	10,5	21,6
100-149 km	126	5,5	11,4
150-199 km	8	0,4	0,7
200-249 km	15	0,7	1,4
250-300 km	46	2,0	4,2
> 300 km	36	1,6	3,3
Total	1104	48,4	100,0
missing	1176	51,6	
Total	2280	100,0	



Preferred accommodation in the countryside

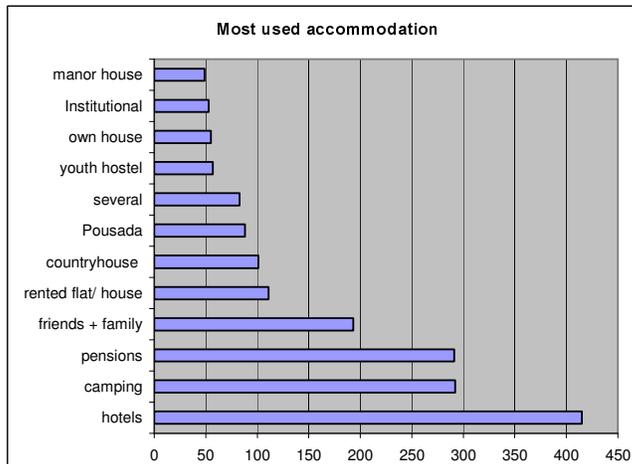
	Frequency	% of sample	% responses
with friends and family	598	26,2	18,2
camping site	553	24,3	16,8
hotels	551	24,2	16,8
country houses (TER)	425	18,6	12,9
rented house/ flat	386	16,9	11,7
pensions	287	12,6	8,7
manor house	179	7,9	5,4
farms	130	5,7	4,0
castles/ palaces	89	3,9	2,7
own house	46	2,0	1,4
Pousadas	31	1,4	0,9
youth hostel	5	0,2	0,2
Time share	3	0,1	0,1
any/ several	2	0,1	0,1
ship	2	0,1	0,1
hut	1	0,0	0,0
Total	3288		100



note: more than one response possible

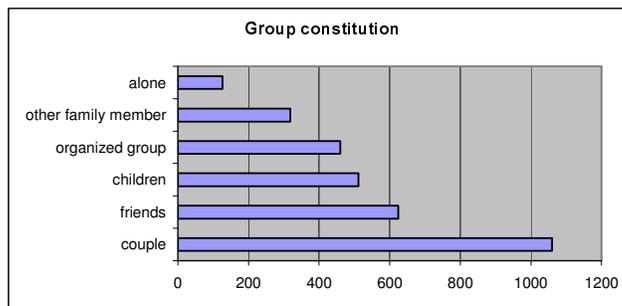
Accommodation used

	Frequency	%	valid %
hotels	415	18,2	22,3
camping	292	12,8	15,7
pensions	291	12,8	15,7
friends + family	193	8,5	10,4
rented flat/ house	111	4,9	6,0
countryhouse	101	4,4	5,4
Pousada	88	3,9	4,7
several	83	3,6	4,5
youth hostel	57	2,5	3,1
own house	55	2,4	3,0
Institutional	53	2,3	2,9
manor house	49	2,1	2,6
hut	17	0,7	0,9
caravan	16	0,7	0,9
farm	14	0,6	0,8
boat/ ship	14	0,6	0,8
village tourism	5	0,2	0,3
time share	4	0,2	0,2
castle/ palace	1	0,0	0,1
Total	1859	81,5	100,0
System Missing	421	18,5	
Total	2280	100,0	



group constitution

	Frequency	%	% of sample
couple	1060	34,2	46,5
friends	624	20,1	27,4
children	511	16,5	22,4
organized group	460	14,8	20,2
other family member	319	10,3	14,0
alone	126	4,1	5,5
colleague	3	0,1	0,1
Total	3103	100,0	



note: more than one response possible

Number of persons in group

	Frequency	%	valid %
one	116	5,1	6,0
two	773	33,9	39,9
3-4 persons	379	16,6	19,6
5-6 persons	172	7,5	8,9
7-10 persons	118	5,2	6,1
11-19 persons	85	3,7	4,4
20-29 persons	75	3,3	3,9
30-39 persons	63	2,8	3,3
>40 persons	156	6,8	8,1
Total	1937	85,0	100,0
missing	343	15,0	

Sites/ attractions visited
Minho

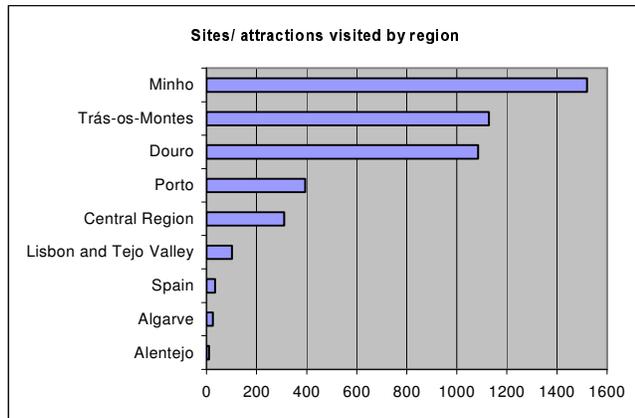
	Frequency	% of responses	% of sample
Guimarães	315	6,8	13,8
Braga	297	6,4	13,0
Gerês	191	4,1	8,4
Viana do Castelo	136	2,9	6,0
Caminha	134	2,9	5,9
P.Lima	114	2,4	5,0
Barcelos	63	1,4	2,8
Valença	47	1,0	2,1
village in Minho	40	0,9	1,8
Minho	29	0,6	1,3
Arcos de Valdevez	27	0,6	1,2
Bom Jesus	24	0,5	1,1
Monção	16	0,3	0,7
Soajo	14	0,3	0,6
North	12	0,3	0,5
P.Barca	10	0,2	0,4
Vila do Conde	9	0,2	0,4
Lindoso	8	0,2	0,4
Esposende	8	0,2	0,4
S.João de Pesqueira	5	0,1	0,2
Cabeceiras de Basto	5	0,1	0,2
Vale do Minho	4	0,1	0,2
Ave	4	0,1	0,2
Vila Nova Cerveira	2	0,0	0,1
Mondim de Basto	2	0,0	0,1
Stª Luzia	1	0,0	0,0
Lima river	1	0,0	0,0
Quinta do Vesúvio	1	0,0	0,0
Celourico de Basto	1	0,0	0,0
1520	32,6	66,7	

Douro

Arqu.Park of Cõa Vall	520	11,2	22,8
Douro	127	2,7	5,6
VNFozCoa	92	2,0	4,0
Moncorvo	65	1,4	2,9
Lamego	44	0,9	1,9
Vila Flôr	34	0,7	1,5
Freixo Numão	29	0,6	1,3
villages in Douro	28	0,6	1,2
Miranda do Douro	27	0,6	1,2
Casa Mateus	24	0,5	1,1
Vale do Cõa	21	0,5	0,9
Pinhão	18	0,4	0,8
North	12	0,3	0,5
Freixo de Espada à C	12	0,3	0,5
Castelo Melhor	10	0,2	0,4
Régua	8	0,2	0,4
museum of Ermavoir	6	0,1	0,3
Sãbrosa	4	0,1	0,2
Alijó	3	0,1	0,1
Carviçais	1	0,0	0,0
1085	23,3	47,6	

Trás-os-Montes

Chaves	346	7,4	15,2
Bragança	178	3,8	7,8
Vila Real	176	3,8	7,7
Mirandela	89	1,9	3,9
Marialva	71	1,5	3,1
PN Montesinho	46	1,0	2,0
villages in ToM	41	0,9	1,8
Vidago	36	0,8	1,6
Macedo de Cavaleiros	23	0,5	1,0
Pedras Salgadas	19	0,4	0,8
Serapicos	18	0,4	0,8
Montalegre	13	0,3	0,6
North	12	0,3	0,5
Boticas	12	0,3	0,5
Valpaços	10	0,2	0,4
Mogadouro	10	0,2	0,4
Vila Pouca d'Aguiar	7	0,2	0,3



Porto Metropolitan Area

	Frequency	% responses	% sample
Porto	305	6,5	13,4
Amarante	34	0,7	1,5
P.Varzim	16	0,3	0,7
North	12	0,3	0,5
Espinho	10	0,2	0,4
Penafiel	8	0,2	0,4
Trofa	3	0,1	0,1
Paiva river	3	0,1	0,1
Paços Ferreira	2	0,0	0,1
Castelo de Paiva	1	0,0	0,0
394	8,5	17,3	

Central Region

Coimbra	72	1,5	3,2
Almeida	37	0,8	1,6
Trancoso	29	0,6	1,3
Aveiro	29	0,6	1,3
Viseu	19	0,4	0,8
Guarda	16	0,3	0,7
Centro	14	0,3	0,6
Serra da Estrela	10	0,2	0,4
Nazaré	10	0,2	0,4
Linhares da Beira	10	0,2	0,4
Castelo Rodrigo	9	0,2	0,4
Figueira da Foz	7	0,2	0,3
Fátima	6	0,1	0,3
Buçaco	6	0,1	0,3
Batalha	5	0,1	0,2
Tomar	4	0,1	0,2
Sabugal	4	0,1	0,2
Óbidos	4	0,1	0,2
Mealhada	4	0,1	0,2
Meda	3	0,1	0,1
Mangualde	3	0,1	0,1
Seia	2	0,0	0,1
Pinhel	2	0,0	0,1
Ovar	2	0,0	0,1
Caramulo	2	0,0	0,1
Celourico da beira	1	0,0	0,0
310	6,7	13,6	

Lisbon and Tejo Valley

Lisbon and Tejo Valley	63	1,4	2,8
Expo 98	29	0,6	1,3
Sintra	9	0,2	0,4
101	2,2	4,4	

Alentejo

Évora	6	0,1	0,3
Alentejo	4	0,1	0,2
10	0,2	0,4	

Algarve

Algarve	21	0,5	0,9
---------	----	-----	-----

Type of attractions

Culture/ monuments

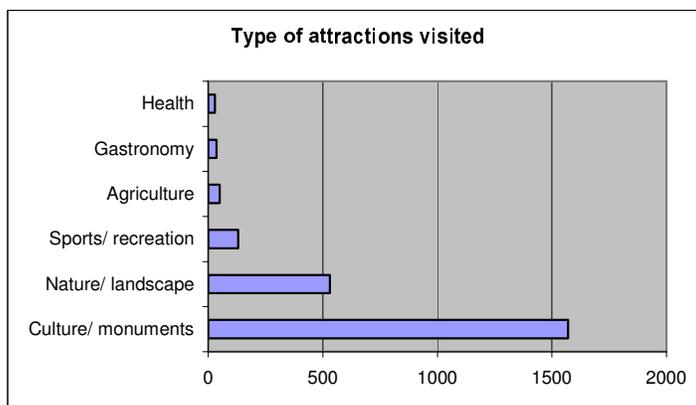
	Frequency	% of sample
historical	265	11,6
castles/ palaces	258	11,3
cultural	256	11,2
monuments	153	6,7
museums	119	5,2
churches	119	5,2
cities	114	5,0
towns	94	4,1
villages	83	3,6
archeological sites	49	2,1
local markets	17	0,7
local festivals	16	0,7
monasteries	9	0,4
manor houses	5	0,2
university	3	0,1
religious	3	0,1
handycraft	3	0,1
fishery ports	3	0,1
pousadas	2	0,1
ExpoCòa	1	0,0
	1572	68,9

Nature/ landscape

natural	148	6,5
rivers/ lakes	99	4,1
natural park	72	3,2
beach/ coast	56	2,5
countryside	49	2,1
mountains	40	1,8
garden/park	36	1,6
waterfalls	24	1,1
almond trees	8	0,4
	532	23,1

Agriculture

wine/ vinyards	23	1,0
farm	19	0,8
almond trees	8	0,4
	50	2,2



Sports/ recreation

	Frequency	% sample
shops	19	0,8
local markets	17	0,7
swimming pool	16	0,7
local festivals	16	0,7
fun	13	0,6
spectacle	12	0,5
walking paths	10	0,4
recreation	6	0,3
casino	6	0,3
boat-trip	6	0,3
nightlife	3	0,1
golf	3	0,1
train-trip	2	0,1
Bracalândia	1	0,0
	130	5,7

Gastronomy

restaurants	21	0,9
wine cellars	16	0,7
	37	1,6

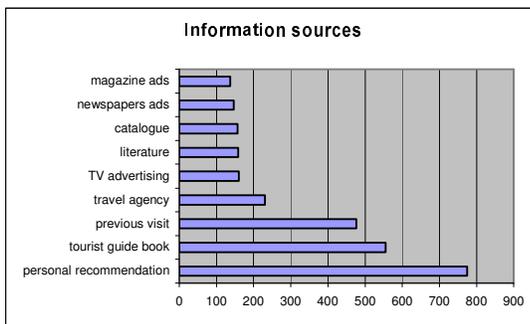
Health

spa	29	1,3
health	1	0,0
	30	1,3

note: more than one response possible

Information sources

	Frequency	% responses	% sample
personal recommendation	775	26,0	34,0
tourist guide book	555	18,6	24,3
previous visit	476	16,0	20,9
travel agency	230	7,7	10,1
TV advertising	160	5,4	7,0
literature	159	5,3	7,0
catalogue	157	5,3	6,9
newspapers ads	147	4,9	6,4
magazine ads	137	4,6	6,0
others	181	6,1	7,9



catalogue/ guide/ magazine

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Olimar	35	1,5	19,8
Michelin	10	0,4	5,6
Jugend Ferienwerk	10	0,4	5,6
Lonely Planet Guide	7	0,3	4,0
Portuguese Tourist Board	6	0,3	3,4
Studiosus	6	0,3	3,4
Ski & Surf	6	0,3	3,4
ICEP	6	0,3	3,4
Routard	5	0,2	2,8
Campsites	4	0,2	2,3
Vintage Travel	4	0,2	2,3
Saga	4	0,2	2,3
Individual Travellers	3	0,1	1,7
Jules Verne	3	0,1	1,7
Explore Worldwide	3	0,1	1,7
Waymark	3	0,1	1,7
RCI	3	0,1	1,7
Wolfs Reisen	2	0,1	1,1
NPGerres	2	0,1	1,1
Wolters Reisen	2	0,1	1,1
Falcon Travel	2	0,1	1,1
VIP Club	2	0,1	1,1
DGT-TER guide	2	0,1	1,1
Guide Hotel	2	0,1	1,1
Experience Plus	2	0,1	1,1
Carnival Tours	2	0,1	1,1
Portugala	2	0,1	1,1
Enatur	2	0,1	1,1
ANWB	2	0,1	1,1
Brittany ferries	2	0,1	1,1
Baedecker	2	0,1	1,1
Travellers way	2	0,1	1,1
Portugal Travel	2	0,1	1,1
Magic of Portugal	2	0,1	1,1
Uniworld	2	0,1	1,1
Arker	2	0,1	1,1
ADAC	2	0,1	1,1
Descobrir	1	0,0	0,6
Turihab	1	0,0	0,6
Rough Guide	1	0,0	0,6
Itatour	1	0,0	0,6
Offroad Driving	1	0,0	0,6
Off the beaten track	1	0,0	0,6
Club Aventura	1	0,0	0,6
Cycling through Centuries	1	0,0	0,6
Tornado	1	0,0	0,6
Travel Scene Sunvil	1	0,0	0,6
Hotelplan	1	0,0	0,6
PAVC	1	0,0	0,6
Berlitz	1	0,0	0,6
Petit Futé	1	0,0	0,6
Dr.Tiggges	1	0,0	0,6
Travel Sphere	1	0,0	0,6
First Choise	1	0,0	0,6
Guias do Expresso	1	0,0	0,6
Cresta Holidays	1	0,0	0,6
Total	177	7,8	100,0
missing	2103	92,2	
	2280	100,0	

other information source

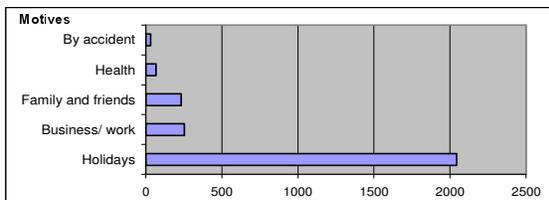
	Frequency	%	Valid %
VFR	32	1,4	14,7
internet	28	1,2	12,8
work	27	1,2	12,4
school/ university	36	1,6	16,5
tourist office	16	0,7	7,3
by chance	10	0,4	4,6
conference documentation/ organization	10	0,4	4,6
discovery	9	0,4	4,1
work placement	8	0,4	3,7
fuzzy image	7	0,3	3,2
Expo 98	4	0,2	1,8
church	4	0,2	1,8
youth holiday association	3	0,1	1,4
map	3	0,1	1,4
archeological report	3	0,1	1,4
Portuguese Consulate	2	0,1	0,9
Enatur	2	0,1	0,9
sport association	2	0,1	0,9
archeological park	1	0,0	0,5
cinema	1	0,0	0,5
trade union	1	0,0	0,5
park guide	1	0,0	0,5
caravan magazine	1	0,0	0,5
reception center Foz Coa	1	0,0	0,5
wine books	1	0,0	0,5
hotel reception	1	0,0	0,5
holiday fair	1	0,0	0,5
medical advice	1	0,0	0,5
Seleções	1	0,0	0,5
rough guide	1	0,0	0,5
Total	218	9,6	100,0
missing	2062	90,4	
	2280	100,0	

Motives

	Holidays		
	Frequency	% of sample	% responses
Discovery			
curiosity/ discovery	430	18,9	16,3
different/ change	53	2,3	2,0
round trip	30	1,3	1,1
Portugal travel	12	0,5	0,5
Expo+ country discovery	6	0,3	0,2
trip to Europe	4	0,2	0,2
variety	1	0,0	0,0
looking for a place to live	1	0,0	0,0
interesting sites	1	0,0	0,0
	538	23,6	20,4
Culture			
Archeological Park	159	7,0	6,0
culture	78	3,4	3,0
history	51	2,2	1,9
monuments	24	1,1	0,9
authenticity	22	1,0	0,8
architecture	9	0,4	0,3
railway lines and stations	3	0,1	0,1
tradition	2	0,1	0,1
literature/ book "Trás-os-Montes"	4	0,2	0,2
Lisbon	2	0,1	0,1
art	2	0,1	0,1
path of Santiago de Compostela	1	0,0	0,0
cities	1	0,0	0,0
archeology	1	0,0	0,0
	359	15,7	13,6
Nature			
nature	111	4,9	4,2
landscape	93	4,1	3,5
beautiful region	40	1,8	1,5
environment	22	1,0	0,8
sea/ beach	21	0,9	0,8
montanhas	8	0,4	0,3
ausência de poluição	7	0,3	0,3
river trip	5	0,2	0,2
Douro	5	0,2	0,2
Natural Park of Montesinho	2	0,1	0,1
Natural Parks	1	0,0	0,0
Côa Valley	1	0,0	0,0
	316	13,9	12,0
Rural			
rural	11	0,5	0,4
far from city	6	0,3	0,2
unspoiled countryside	5	0,2	0,2
	22	1,0	0,8
Leisure/ Recreation			
fun	14	0,6	0,5
surfing	3	0,1	0,1
shopping	3	0,1	0,1
sports	2	0,1	0,1
cycling tour	2	0,1	0,1
horse-riding on beach	1	0,0	0,0
golf	1	0,0	0,0
fishing	1	0,0	0,0
active holidays	1	0,0	0,0
	28	1,2	1,1
Events			
celebration of almonds in flower	9	0,4	0,3
horse riding competition	5	0,2	0,2
queima das fitas/ student week	4	0,2	0,2
jeep competition	3	0,1	0,1
concert	3	0,1	0,1
off road rally	2	0,1	0,1
BTT competition	2	0,1	0,1
youth exchange	1	0,0	0,0
festival	1	0,0	0,0
25 years married	1	0,0	0,0
	31	1,4	1,2
Climate			
good weather	57	2,5	2,2
sun	22	1,0	0,8
not too hot	7	0,3	0,3
	86	3,8	3,3
Relaxation			
relaxation	104	4,6	4,0
peace and quiet	85	3,7	3,2
	189	8,3	7,2

	Frequency	% of sample	% responses
Gastronomy			
gastronomy	16	0,7	0,6
Port wine	9	0,4	0,3
wine	8	0,4	0,3
	33	1,4	1,3
Tourist facilities			
hotel/ camping/ house	11	0,5	0,4
tourist attraction	9	0,4	0,3
well-equipped lodging	2	0,1	0,1
TER	1	0,0	0,0
	23	1,0	0,9
people			
people	28	1,2	1,1
company	26	1,1	1,0
escape tourist crowds	25	1,1	0,9
hospitality	12	0,5	0,5
scouts camp	6	0,3	0,2
show friends	5	0,2	0,2
group tour	5	0,2	0,2
friendly people	4	0,2	0,2
	111	4,9	4,2
price			
cheap air fare	2	0,1	0,1
accessible prices	15	0,7	0,6
good relation price/ quality	1	0,0	0,0
	18	0,8	0,7
loyalty			
like region	68	3,0	2,6
like Portugal	20	0,9	0,8
good past experience	20	0,9	0,8
habit	1	0,0	0,0
	109	4,8	4,1
other			
holidays	88	3,9	3,3
recommendation	44	1,9	1,7
weekend/ short-break	9	0,4	0,3
advertising	6	0,3	0,2
unique attraction	1	0,0	0,0
good reputation	1	0,0	0,0
	149	6,5	5,7
Total Holidays	2632		100,0

	Frequency	% of sample	% responses
Holidays plus			
Business/ work			
work	140	6,1	5,3
travel writer	1	0,0	0,0
research/ study	88	3,9	3,3
conference	26	1,1	1,0
	255	11,2	9,7
Holidays plus			
Visit friends and relatives			
VFR	174	7,6	6,6
seek origins	18	0,8	0,7
homesick	2	0,1	0,1
family wedding	6	0,3	0,2
family roots	33	1,4	1,3
	233	10,2	8,9
Health			
spas	52	2,3	2,0
health	15	0,7	0,6
	67	2,9	2,5
by accident/ convenience			
on the way	17	0,7	0,6
close to home	14	0,6	0,5
by accident/ convenience	12	0,5	0,5
close to Spanish cities	8	0,4	0,3
convenience	4	0,2	0,2
parents oblige	2	0,1	0,1
obliged	2	0,1	0,1
paid trip	2	0,1	0,1
accessible by car	1	0,0	0,0
	57	2,5	2,2

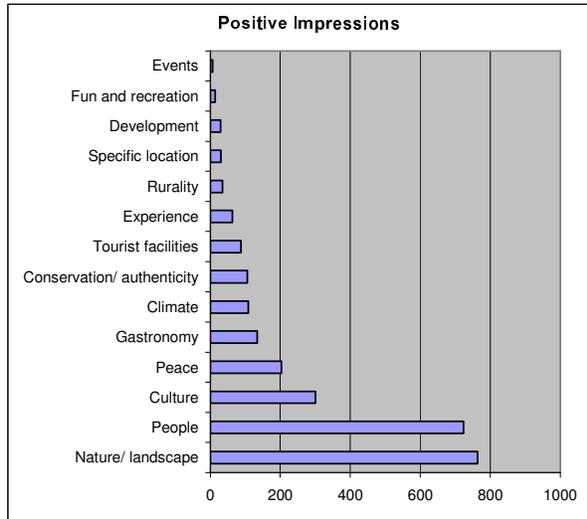


note: more than one response possible

Images of North Portugal

Positive impressions

	Frequency	% sample	% responses
People			
friendly people	431	18,9	15,9
hospitality	141	6,2	5,2
nice company	42	1,8	1,5
people	37	1,6	1,4
pleasant way of life	25	1,1	0,9
helpfulness	24	1,1	0,9
get to know people	8	0,4	0,3
local pride	3	0,1	0,1
meeting village people	3	0,1	0,1
people speak foreign languages	2	0,1	0,1
spontaneous contact/ communication	2	0,1	0,1
active women	1	0,0	0,0
people like Brasilians	1	0,0	0,0
many young people	1	0,0	0,0
people inform about region	1	0,0	0,0
reserved, not pushy, friendliness	1	0,0	0,0
respect for pedestrians	1	0,0	0,0
	724	31,8	26,6
Nature/ landscape			
beautiful landscape	390	17,1	14,3
nature	169	7,4	6,2
environment	60	2,6	2,2
beauty of site	44	1,9	1,6
healthy environment	17	0,7	0,6
beaches	15	0,7	0,6
rivers/ lakes	14	0,6	0,5
gardens	11	0,5	0,4
ocean	10	0,4	0,4
sightseeing	8	0,4	0,3
picturesque towns	5	0,2	0,2
wild flowers	5	0,2	0,2
mountains	4	0,2	0,1
reforestation	3	0,1	0,1
waterfalls	3	0,1	0,1
nature reservation	2	0,1	0,1
walking in nature	2	0,1	0,1
colorful	1	0,0	0,0
forests	1	0,0	0,0
	764	33,5	28,1
Rural environment			
rusticity/ rurality	22	1,0	0,8
countryside	13	0,6	0,5
	35	1,5	1,3
Conservation/ authenticity			
cleanliness	27	1,2	1,0
conservation	26	1,1	1,0
authenticity	22	1,0	0,8
no pollution/ unspoilt	15	0,7	0,6
no/ few tourists	7	0,3	0,3
no crowds	4	0,2	0,1
isolation	1	0,0	0,0
no industry	1	0,0	0,0
no mass tourism	1	0,0	0,0
students restaure castle	1	0,0	0,0
valorization of local products	1	0,0	0,0
	106	4,6	3,9
Climate			
climate	88	3,9	3,2
sun	21	0,9	0,8
	109	4,8	4,0
Peace			
peace & quiet	170	7,5	6,3
relaxation	33	1,4	1,2
	203	8,9	7,5
Development			
good roads	9	0,4	0,3
development of region	8	0,4	0,3
public investment	4	0,2	0,1
organized cities/ towns	3	0,1	0,1
good access to cities	2	0,1	0,1
modern facilities	1	0,0	0,0



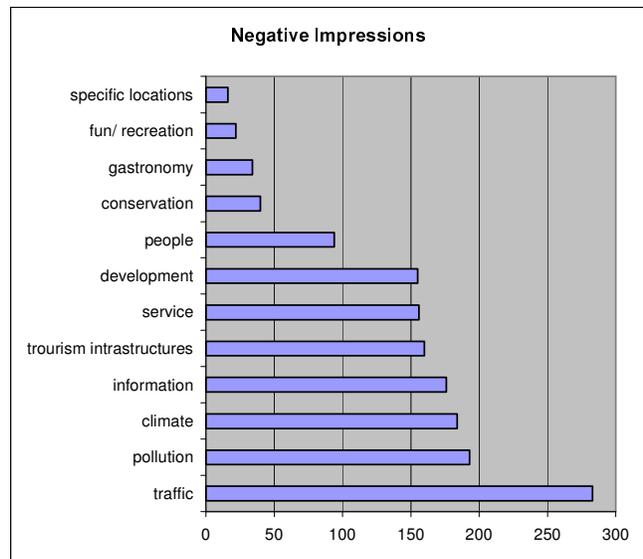
	Frequency	% sample	% responses
Culture			
monuments	75	3,3	2,8
carvings	49	2,1	1,8
arquitecture	42	1,8	1,5
culture	36	1,6	1,3
history	35	1,5	1,3
Archeological Park	22	1,0	0,8
traditional	11	0,5	0,4
beautiful churches	7	0,3	0,3
art	5	0,2	0,2
interesting cities	4	0,2	0,1
villages	4	0,2	0,1
family roots	2	0,1	0,1
handicraft	2	0,1	0,1
holy region	2	0,1	0,1
old urban centers	2	0,1	0,1
language	1	0,0	0,0
medieval villages	1	0,0	0,0
old center of Porto	1	0,0	0,0
	301	13,2	11,1
Events			
markets	2	0,1	0,1
Expo 98	1	0,0	0,0
Expo C6a	1	0,0	0,0
folk events	1	0,0	0,0
spontaneous fado	1	0,0	0,0
	6	0,3	0,2
Tourist facilities			
accommodation	27	1,2	1,0
park organisation	14	0,6	0,5
hotel/ house and location	12	0,5	0,4
tourism development	8	0,4	0,3
good info by guide	7	0,3	0,3
good tourist information	4	0,2	0,1
spa	4	0,2	0,1
guided tour	3	0,1	0,1
sign-posting	2	0,1	0,1
swimming pool	2	0,1	0,1
family accommodation	1	0,0	0,0
golf	1	0,0	0,0
pousada	1	0,0	0,0
stopping at nice cafés	1	0,0	0,0
variety of activities	1	0,0	0,0
	88	3,9	3,2

	% sample	% responses
Gastronomy		
gastronomy	115	5,0
wine	13	0,6
lots of fish	2	0,1
sangria	2	0,1
coffee	1	0,0
port wine	1	0,0
	134	5,9
Experience		
variety	22	1,0
novelties	10	0,4
educational	7	0,3
simplicity	6	0,3
freedom	5	0,2
pleasant	3	0,1
like at home	2	0,1
came up to expectations	1	0,0
good experience last year	1	0,0
integration in traditional women party	1	0,0
lush	1	0,0
pleasant evening	1	0,0
see how wine is made	1	0,0
train rides into interior of Portugal	1	0,0
waterfall shower	1	0,0
	63	2,8
total responses	2719	

	% sample	% responses
Specific location		
Geres	7	0,3
Guimarães	3	0,1
P.Lima	3	0,1
Braga	2	0,1
PNMontesinho	2	0,1
Porto	2	0,1
Vila Verde	2	0,1
Amarante	1	0,0
Bragança	1	0,0
Lisbon	1	0,0
Moledo	1	0,0
Monção	1	0,0
Moncorvo	1	0,0
Ribeira (Porto)	1	0,0
Sra.da Peneda	1	0,0
Viana do Castelo	1	0,0
	30	1,3
Fun and recreation		
fun	7	0,3
nightlife	4	0,2
good leisure park	1	0,0
parties/festivals	1	0,0
canoe-trip	1	0,0
	14	0,6
Others		
everything	58	2,5
price	26	1,1
none	19	0,8
safety	8	0,4
many dogs	1	0,0
no Germans	1	0,0
	113	5,0

Negative impressions

	Frequency	% sample	% responses
People			
distant people	21	0,9	1,1
noisy neighbors at night	13	0,6	0,7
language difficulties	12	0,5	0,6
unfriendly/ rude people	6	0,3	0,3
Portuguese men	5	0,2	0,3
people	4	0,2	0,2
unfriendly drinking men	3	0,1	0,2
neighbors at camping	3	0,1	0,2
rude young people	2	0,1	0,1
residents' attitude towards emigrants	2	0,1	0,1
police officer	2	0,1	0,1
passivity	2	0,1	0,1
many gipsies at campsite	2	0,1	0,1
machism	2	0,1	0,1
lack of dynamism	2	0,1	0,1
distant tour guide	2	0,1	0,1
voyerism	1	0,0	0,1
too many smokers	1	0,0	0,1
talkative women	1	0,0	0,1
talkative people	1	0,0	0,1
struggle with company	1	0,0	0,1
old population	1	0,0	0,1
nobody greets	1	0,0	0,1
no respect for law/ rules	1	0,0	0,1
hotel community	1	0,0	0,1
conservative people	1	0,0	0,1
begging children	1	0,0	0,1
	94	4,1	5,0
Pollution			
trash in nature	81	3,6	4,3
pollution	43	1,9	2,3
forest fires	19	0,8	1,0
poor environmental conscience	14	0,6	0,7
dirty streets	12	0,5	0,6
burnt landscape	8	0,4	0,4
polluted river/ lake/ sea	4	0,2	0,2
noise	4	0,2	0,2
dirty beaches	3	0,1	0,2
sea pollution	2	0,1	0,1



	% sample	% responses
Fun and recreation		
poor nightlife	21	0,9
poor state of tennis courts	1	0,0
	22	1,0
Traffic/ roads		
chaotic traffic/ driving	140	6,1
bad streets	96	4,2
poor access	31	1,4
bad parking	6	0,3
chaotic parking	5	0,2
traffic in Porto	4	0,2
lorries	1	0,0
	283	12,4
Gastronomy		

Conservation/ authenticity				Development			
poor conservation of architecture	35	1,5	1,9	lack town planning/ territorial order	41	1,8	2,2
decadence	3	0,1	0,2	lack of public transport	25	1,1	1,3
few typical products	2	0,1	0,1	lack of infrastructures/ facilities	12	0,5	0,6
	40	1,8	2,1	poverty	9	0,4	0,5
tourism infrastructures				poor development	8	0,4	0,4
accommodation	50	2,2	2,7	construction works	6	0,3	0,3
closed museums/ monuments/ churches	18	0,8	1,0	isolation	5	0,2	0,3
lack walking paths	14	0,6	0,7	slums	4	0,2	0,2
lack of activities	13	0,6	0,7	lack of medical support	4	0,2	0,2
poor camping facilities	9	0,4	0,5	disorganization	4	0,2	0,2
few accommodations	8	0,4	0,4	beggars	4	0,2	0,2
poor tourism supply	5	0,2	0,3	robbery	3	0,1	0,2
pay for visits	5	0,2	0,3	monotony	3	0,1	0,2
few restaurants	5	0,2	0,3	drugs	3	0,1	0,2
bathrooms	5	0,2	0,3	population density	2	0,1	0,1
unused rails	2	0,1	0,1	overindustrialized	2	0,1	0,1
tourist menus	2	0,1	0,1	no security	2	0,1	0,1
poor restaurants	2	0,1	0,1	no fresh water fountains	2	0,1	0,1
no horse riding	2	0,1	0,1	bad conditions for cyclists	2	0,1	0,1
lack of attractions	2	0,1	0,1	vandalism	1	0,0	0,1
lack of cultural activities	2	0,1	0,1	ugly cities	1	0,0	0,1
few campsites	2	0,1	0,1	too quiet	1	0,0	0,1
car rental	2	0,1	0,1	too much fast food	1	0,0	0,1
cafés closed too soon	2	0,1	0,1	striking differences city-countryside	1	0,0	0,1
tourism office	1	0,0	0,1	public toilets	1	0,0	0,1
poor condition of walking paths	1	0,0	0,1	over-populated	1	0,0	0,1
no café outside	1	0,0	0,1	no newspapers	1	0,0	0,1
lack of sports	1	0,0	0,1	many restrictions	1	0,0	0,1
have to pay to use swimming pool	1	0,0	0,1	lack of shops	1	0,0	0,1
few natural swimming-pools	1	0,0	0,1	many high buildings	1	0,0	0,1
distant tourism post	1	0,0	0,1	few green spaces	1	0,0	0,1
cold in monuments	1	0,0	0,1	car park providers	1	0,0	0,1
campingsites closed	1	0,0	0,1	arrogant, ignorant authorities	1	0,0	0,1
boat not well organized	1	0,0	0,1		155	6,8	8,2
	160	7,0	8,5	Service			
Information				poor service	53	2,3	2,8
poor sign-posting	123	6,5	5,4	poor cleaning	34	1,5	1,8
poor tourist information	38	1,7	2,0				
poor info on walking paths	6	0,3	0,3	antipathetic service	11	0,5	0,6
lack of maps	4	0,2	0,2	waiting at park	8	0,4	0,4
lack of info on other regions	3	0,1	0,2	poor airport organization	6	0,3	0,3
inaccurate maps	2	0,1	0,1	rigid timetable (youth hotel)	5	0,2	0,3
	176	8,9	8,2	not professional	5	0,2	0,3
Experience				no visit of park available	5	0,2	0,3
Expo visit	5	0,2	0,3	no English spoken	5	0,2	0,3
promised boat-trip (Douro) canceled	1	0,0	0,1	waiting in restaurants	4	0,2	0,2
flight	1	0,0	0,1	complicated park reservation	4	0,2	0,2
churchbells	1	0,0	0,1	poor cleaning at camping site	3	0,1	0,2
	8	0,4	0,4	visit (archeological park) too short	2	0,1	0,1
Specific locations				shops and services opening hours	2	0,1	0,1
dirty Porto	6	0,3	0,3	poor service at banks	2	0,1	0,1
got lost in Braga	3	0,1	0,2	no air conditioning	2	0,1	0,1
VNFozCoa	1	0,0	0,1	breakfast	2	0,1	0,1
park too big	1	0,0	0,1	no train tickets	1	0,0	0,1
dangerous Lamego	1	0,0	0,1	no French spoken	1	0,0	0,1
crap hotel in VNFC	1	0,0	0,1	different treatment for different people	1	0,0	0,1
chaotic Nazare	1	0,0	0,1		156	6,8	8,3
Braga	1	0,0	0,1	Others			
beggars in Porto	1	0,0	0,1	expensive	14	0,6	0,7
	16	0,7	0,9	dangerous dogs/ lost dogs	12	0,5	0,6
Climate				insects	10	0,4	0,5
climate	42	1,8	2,2	lot of walking	5	0,2	0,3
rain	40	1,8	2,1	questionnaire	3	0,1	0,2
too cold	37	1,6	2,0	lack of wildlife	1	0,0	0,1
too hot	28	1,2	1,5	dead animals on streets	1	0,0	0,1
bad weather	17	0,7	0,9	crowded at weekends	1	0,0	0,1
cold wind	8	0,4	0,4	create too high expectations	1	0,0	0,1
cold water	6	0,3	0,3	air conditioning	1	0,0	0,1
foggy/ cloudy	3	0,1	0,2		49	2,1	2,6
cold nights	2	0,1	0,1				
fog	1	0,0	0,1	none	311	13,6	16,5
	184	8,1	9,8				
				total responses	1882		

Images-features

Nature/ landscape

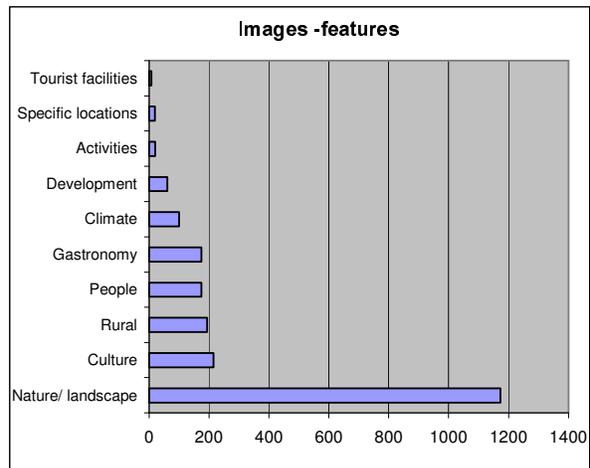
	positive	Fre	% sample	% responses
beautiful landscape		112	4,9	5,2
	negative		0,0	0,0
dirty		12	0,5	0,6
pollution		9	0,4	0,4
burnt landscape		2	0,1	0,1
	neutral			
green		216	9,5	10,0
mountainous/ hilly		156	6,8	7,2
nature		135	5,9	6,2
landscape		97	4,3	4,5
harsh landscape		89	3,9	4,1
sea		53	2,3	2,4
river/ lake		40	1,8	1,8
environment		36	1,6	1,7
large horizons		28	1,2	1,3
forest		23	1,0	1,1
water		18	0,8	0,8
beach		16	0,7	0,7
granit/ stones		15	0,7	0,7
vineyards		13	0,6	0,6
no pollution		12	0,5	0,6
varied landscape		10	0,4	0,5
flowers		9	0,4	0,4
almonds trees		9	0,4	0,4
vegetation		8	0,4	0,4
slate		6	0,3	0,3
olive trees		5	0,2	0,2
clothes hanging from windows		5	0,2	0,2
old houses		4	0,2	0,2
gardens		4	0,2	0,2
landscape-terrasses		3	0,1	0,1
few forests		3	0,1	0,1
attractive coastline		3	0,1	0,1
donkeys		3	0,1	0,1
white		2	0,1	0,1
mediterranean landscape		2	0,1	0,1
animals		2	0,1	0,1
wood		1	0,0	0,0
winding roads		1	0,0	0,0
surroundings		1	0,0	0,0
sunsets		1	0,0	0,0
stony beaches		1	0,0	0,0
small fields		1	0,0	0,0
rocks		1	0,0	0,0
light		1	0,0	0,0
lemons/oranges		1	0,0	0,0
green coast		1	0,0	0,0
cities		1	0,0	0,0
brown		1	0,0	0,0
Bridges		1	0,0	0,0
		1173	51,4	54,1

Rural environment

rurality/ rusticity		111	4,9	5,1
rural		62	2,7	2,9
agriculture		19	0,8	0,9
rural exodus		1	0,0	0,0
typical farms		1	0,0	0,0
		194	8,5	8,9

Development

	positive	Fre	% sample	% responses
clean		26	1,1	1,2
	negative		0,0	0,0
crazy drivers/traffic		6	0,3	0,3
too much traffic		6	0,3	0,3
dense population		3	0,1	0,1
no/poor sign-posting		2	0,1	0,1
	neutral			
good roads		4	0,2	0,2
factories		4	0,2	0,2



Culture

	negative	Fre	% sample	% responses
poorly preserved		4	0,2	0,2
	neutral			
monuments/ arquitetura		43	1,9	2,0
culture		30	1,3	1,4
preserved		29	1,3	1,3
archeological carvings		29	1,3	1,3
monasteries/ churches		21	0,9	1,0
fortification/ castles		16	0,7	0,7
old towns		11	0,5	0,5
typical villages		8	0,4	0,4
art		8	0,4	0,4
folklore		6	0,3	0,3
manor houses		5	0,2	0,2
markets		4	0,2	0,2
azulejos		3	0,1	0,1
holy region		2	0,1	0,1
handicraft		2	0,1	0,1
urban architecture		1	0,0	0,0
small houses/ churches		1	0,0	0,0
museums		1	0,0	0,0
fado		1	0,0	0,0
		225	9,9	10,4

Gastronomy

wine		70	3,1	3,2
good food		58	2,5	2,7
Port wine		11	0,5	0,5
gastronomy/ food		8	0,4	0,4
green wine		7	0,3	0,3
fish		6	0,3	0,3
sangria		5	0,2	0,2
seafood		3	0,1	0,1
beer		2	0,1	0,1
"alheira"		2	0,1	0,1
ham		1	0,0	0,0
grey bread		1	0,0	0,0
caldo verde		1	0,0	0,0
		175	7,7	8,1

People

	negative	Fre	% sample	% responses
pushy men		1	0,0	0,0
	neutral			
friendly people		149	6,5	6,9
family/friends		9	0,4	0,4
reserved people		5	0,2	0,2
people		4	0,2	0,2
many people		2	0,1	0,1
old people		1	0,0	0,0
not crowded		1	0,0	0,0
black clothes		1	0,0	0,0

Images-features

Tourist Facilities

	negative	% sample	% responses
toilets in the middle of the room	1	0,0	0,0
	neutral	0,0	0,0
swimming pool	2	0,1	0,1
spa	2	0,1	0,1
guided tours	2	0,1	0,1
camping	1	0,0	0,0
	8	0,4	0,4

Service

good service	1	0,0	0,0
different treatment of tourists in restaurants	1	0,0	0,0
	2	0,1	0,1

Activities

fishing	8	0,4	0,4
walking	4	0,2	0,2
surf	4	0,2	0,2
hunting	2	0,1	0,1
tennis	1	0,0	0,0
interesting rail journeys	1	0,0	0,0
football	1	0,0	0,0
	21	0,9	1,0

Climate

sun	55	2,4	2,5
good climate	23	1,0	1,1
rain	7	0,3	0,3
cloudy/ foggy	6	0,3	0,3
wind	4	0,2	0,2
weather	3	0,1	0,1
snow	1	0,0	0,0
unstable weather	1	0,0	0,0
	100	4,4	4,6

Specific locations

	% sample	% responses
Douro	7	0,3
Porto	4	0,2
Coa/Valley	3	0,1
Natural Park Montesinho	2	0,1
Ribeira	1	0,0
grey Porto	1	0,0
Bom Jesus	1	0,0
	19	0,8

Comparison with other area

similar to Chile	1	0,0
like Greece	1	0,0
like German mountain area	1	0,0
difference Minho-TOM	1	0,0
good exemple to other places	1	0,0
	5	0,2

Others

inexpensive	7	0,3
work/business	2	0,1
hell	1	0,0
shadows	1	0,0
	11	0,5

Atmosphere

Peaceful

	Freq	% sample	% responses
peace and quiet	458	20,1	16,0
relaxing	77	3,4	2,7
	535	23,5	18,7

Attractive

beautiful	461	20,2	16,1
pleasant	149	6,5	5,2
magnificent	145	6,4	5,1
charming/ attractive	42	1,8	1,5
unique	30	1,3	1,0
colorful/ diversified	30	1,3	1,0
paradise	23	1,0	0,8
good	17	0,7	0,6
luminous	13	0,6	0,5
harmony	11	0,5	0,4
picturesque	6	0,3	0,2
cosy/ comfortable	9	0,4	0,3
desire to come back every year	1	0,0	0,0
	937	41,1	32,7

stimulating

curious/ interesting	50	2,2	1,7
different	26	1,1	0,9
surprising	21	0,9	0,7
romantic	18	0,8	0,6
lively/ vital	16	0,7	0,6
fun/pleasure	13	0,6	0,5
enigmatic	12	0,5	0,4
freedom	8	0,4	0,3
happy	7	0,3	0,2
varied/ multifaceted	6	0,3	0,2
agitated	5	0,2	0,2
adventurous	3	0,1	0,1
unforgettable	2	0,1	0,1
nostalgia	2	0,1	0,1
lush	2	0,1	0,1
impressing	2	0,1	0,1
dramatic	2	0,1	0,1
exotic	1	0,0	0,0
discovery	1	0,0	0,0
polemic	1	0,0	0,0
juvenile	1	0,0	0,0
	199	8,7	6,9

friendly

welcoming	207	9,1	7,2
friendly	86	3,8	3,0
honest	4	0,2	0,1
open-minded	1	0,0	0,0
	298	13,1	10,4

Climate

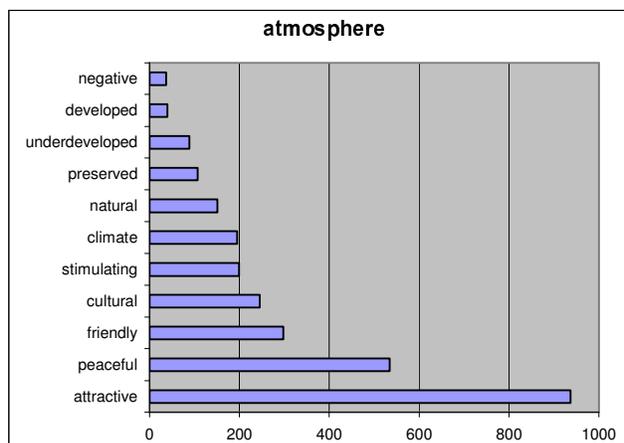
warm/ hot	100	4,4	3,5
cold	57	2,5	2,0
dry	19	0,8	0,7
fresh	10	0,4	0,3
windy	5	0,2	0,2
humid	4	0,2	0,1
	195	8,6	6,8

Natural

natural	54	2,4	1,9
healthy	32	1,4	1,1
wild	31	1,4	1,1
pure air	25	1,1	0,9
fertile	9	0,4	0,3
	151	6,6	5,3

preserved/ authentic

pure	45	2,0	1,6
authentic/ not touristic	38	1,7	1,3
stopped in time	23	1,0	0,8
ecological	1	0,0	0,0
	107	4,7	3,7



cultural

historical	138	6,1	4,8
traditional	73	3,2	2,5
catholic/religious	13	0,6	0,5
typical	7	0,3	0,2
culture	7	0,3	0,2
prehistorical	4	0,2	0,1
medieval	3	0,1	0,1
	245	10,7	8,5

developed

rich	14	0,6	0,5
developing	13	0,6	0,5
organized	4	0,2	0,1
modern	4	0,2	0,1
big	4	0,2	0,1
efficient	1	0,0	0,0
	40	1,8	1,4

underdeveloped

remote/ isolated	29	1,3	1,0
poor	18	0,8	0,6
simple	16	0,7	0,6
primitive/ backward	9	0,4	0,3
old	6	0,3	0,2
small	3	0,1	0,1
unorganized	3	0,1	0,1
forgotten	2	0,1	0,1
contrasts	2	0,1	0,1
modest	1	0,0	0,0
	89	3,9	3,1

Negative

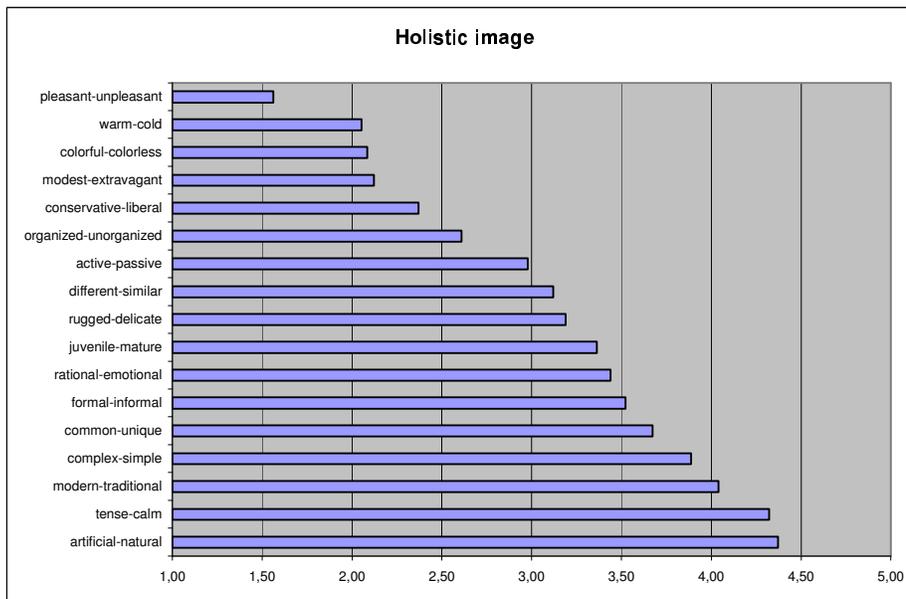
boring	10	0,4	0,3
solitude	9	0,4	0,3
smelly/ stinking	5	0,2	0,2
noisy	3	0,1	0,1
slow	2	0,1	0,1
sad	2	0,1	0,1
rugged/ severe	1	0,0	0,0
incertitude	1	0,0	0,0
grey	1	0,0	0,0
dangerous	1	0,0	0,0
congested	1	0,0	0,0
confusion	1	0,0	0,0
	37	1,6	1,3

Others

important	4	0,2	0,1
touristic	8	0,4	0,3
delicate	5	0,2	0,2
friends&family	4	0,2	0,1
dominant	4	0,2	0,1
safe	3	0,1	0,1
holidays	2	0,1	0,1
hardworking	2	0,1	0,1
family roots/homesick	2	0,1	0,1

Holistic image

	Mean	Std. Deviat	N	
			Valid	Missing
artificial-natural	4,37	0,83	2030	250
tense-calm	4,32	0,90	2146	134
modern-traditional	4,04	0,99	2088	192
complex-simple	3,89	1,03	2004	276
common-unique	3,67	1,11	2018	262
formal-informal	3,52	1,24	1995	285
rational-emotional	3,44	1,06	1984	296
juvenile-mature	3,36	1,00	1971	309
rugged-delicate	3,19	1,12	2003	277
different-similar	3,12	1,26	2021	259
active-passive	2,98	1,20	2010	270
organized-unorganized	2,61	1,12	2056	224
conservative-liberal	2,37	1,07	1997	283
modest-extravagant	2,12	0,95	2019	261
colorful-colorless	2,08	1,08	2050	230
warm-cold	2,05	1,04	2053	227
pleasant-unpleasant	1,56	0,84	2120	160



Important items to choose a destination

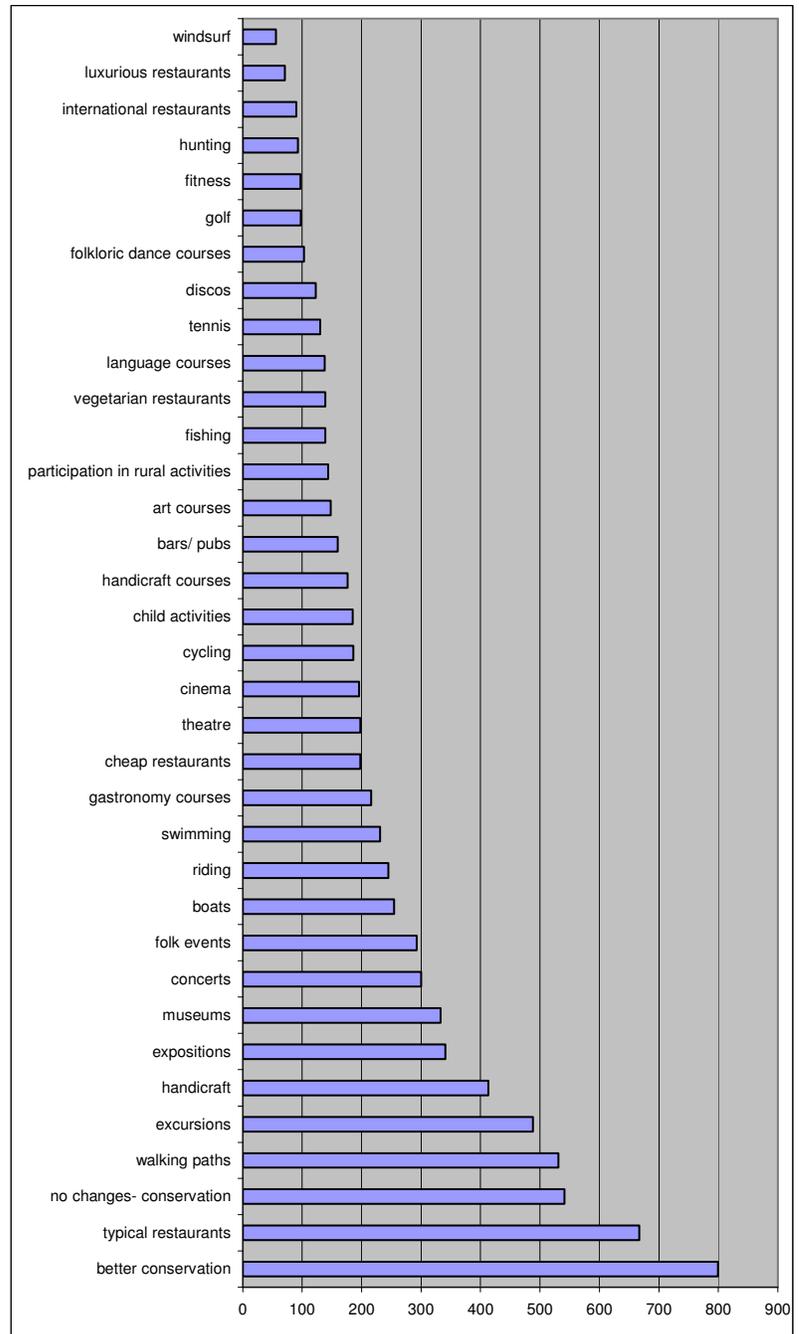
	Mean	Std. Deviat	N
scenery	4,44	0,77	2012
unpoll.environment	4,37	0,88	1998
nature	4,19	0,94	1995
climate	4,15	0,93	1987
sympathy	4,13	0,91	1983
peace and quiet	4,09	0,97	2005
price	4,00	0,96	1991
history&culture	4,00	0,99	1989
architecture, monuments	3,90	1,02	1987
sign-posting	3,90	1,08	1979
lodging	3,88	1,06	2016
food	3,85	1,01	2022
accessibility	3,81	0,98	1972
communication	3,79	1,00	1945
infrastructure	3,74	1,00	1950
tourist information	3,72	1,13	1976
professional service	3,63	1,13	1940
variety	3,55	1,08	1910
socializing	3,44	1,15	1980
walking paths	3,43	1,18	1926
isolation	3,23	1,18	1972
rural life	3,17	1,15	1947
sports, recreate	2,86	1,28	1923
nightlife	2,64	1,38	1933

Items offered- Perception of Presence

	Mean	Std. Deviat	N
scenery	4,35	0,83	1790
nature	4,24	0,87	1761
peace and quiet	4,14	0,93	1773
sympathy	4,07	0,93	1715
history&culture	3,99	0,95	1732
unpoll.environment	3,95	1,08	1759
architecture, monuments	3,83	1,01	1712
climate	3,83	1,00	1751
food	3,77	0,99	1691
price	3,75	0,93	1695
lodging	3,69	1,02	1610
communication	3,61	1,07	1676
accessibility	3,53	0,94	1333
isolation	3,53	1,06	1675
infrastructure	3,48	1,00	1634
rural life	3,41	1,07	1540
professional service	3,40	1,00	1572
walking paths	3,38	1,14	1480
socializing	3,28	1,11	1661
tourist information	3,20	1,11	1623
variety	3,18	0,99	1442
sign-posting	3,03	1,16	1723
sports, recreate	2,71	1,12	1217
nightlife	2,55	1,19	1283

Improvements

	N	%
better conservation	799	35,0
typical restaurants	667	29,3
no changes- conservation	541	23,7
walking paths	531	23,3
excursions	488	21,4
handicraft	413	18,1
expositions	341	15,0
museums	333	14,6
concerts	300	13,2
folk events	293	12,9
boats	255	11,2
riding	245	10,7
swimming	231	10,1
gastronomy courses	216	9,5
cheap restaurants	198	8,7
theatre	198	8,7
cinema	196	8,6
cycling	186	8,2
child activities	185	8,1
handicraft courses	176	7,7
bars/ pubs	160	7,0
art courses	148	6,5
participation in rural activities	144	6,3
fishing	139	6,1
vegetarian restaurants	139	6,1
language courses	138	6,1
tennis	130	5,7
discos	123	5,4
folkloric dance courses	103	4,5
golf	98	4,3
fitness	97	4,3
hunting	93	4,1
international restaurants	90	3,9
luxurious restaurants	71	3,1
windsurf	56	2,5
other sports	16	0,7
other sports		
football	12	0,5
alpinism	7	0,3
volei	7	0,3
basketball	5	0,2
skating	5	0,2
athletism	4	0,2
BTT	4	0,2
traditional games	3	0,1
nautic sports	3	0,1
nautic ski	2	0,1
adventure	2	0,1
diving	1	0,0
motorcycling	1	0,0
rafting	1	0,0
sailing	1	0,0
dancing	1	0,0
ralleys	1	0,0
hang-gilding	1	0,0



Other improvements (open-ended)

	Frequency	%
better information	24	1,1
better signposting	22	1,0
less pollution	17	0,7
better accommodation	15	0,7
better access	12	0,5
value/ preserve heritage	12	0,5
restaure buildings	10	0,4
well signposted walking paths	9	0,4
wider promotion	9	0,4
more English spoken	8	0,4
saver driving	7	0,3
better streets	7	0,3
more public transport	6	0,3
better infrastructures	6	0,3
more good camping sites	5	0,2
some more activities	5	0,2
better urban/ regional planning	5	0,2
better service	4	0,2
preserve nature	4	0,2
better access to nature	3	0,1
not too much innovation/ change	3	0,1
more shopping facilities	3	0,1
better cleaning	3	0,1
not to much tourism	3	0,1
more innovative attitude	2	0,1
greater choice of food in shops	2	0,1
better access to lake/ river	2	0,1
more youth activities	2	0,1
youth hostel	2	0,1
more economic development	2	0,1
warmer sea	2	0,1
more French spoken	2	0,1
flexible/better timetables	2	0,1
sport facilities	2	0,1
more restaurants in countryside	1	0,0
more seats in park	1	0,0
physiotherapy	1	0,0
jeeps to tour landscape	1	0,0
more camping sites	1	0,0
entertainment program	1	0,0
offer excursions at hotel	1	0,0
better nightlife	1	0,0
better organisation	1	0,0
more tolerance	1	0,0
walking maps	1	0,0
use old rails	1	0,0
better opening hours for banks	1	0,0
conservation of spa hotels	1	0,0
less rush in restaurants	1	0,0
pine trees back	1	0,0
more government attention	1	0,0
activities that allow to get to know the region	1	0,0
english menus with same prices as portuguese	1	0,0
historical itineraries	1	0,0
preserve traditional architecture	1	0,0
less population	1	0,0
more supply also in lower season	1	0,0
TER	1	0,0
cultural events	1	0,0
better visual souvenirs	1	0,0
fado events	1	0,0
museums and monuments open earlier	1	0,0
zoo	1	0,0
more safety	1	0,0
more trees	1	0,0
gourmet restaurants	1	0,0
explore tourism	1	0,0
discounts to young people	1	0,0

comparison of benefit segments

cluster	N	%
1= Urbans	340	22,40
2= Calm Rurals	471	31,03
3= Active Rurals	392	25,82
4= Simplists	315	20,75
Total	1518	100,00

Urbans
Calm Rurals
Simplists

Note:

ANOVA is applied in an exploratory manner, since the dimension of groups is similar

only comparisons with significant differences at the 0.05 level are shown

Cross-tabs: all reveal differences with a significance level of at least 0.05 in Chi-Square tests

only categories with at least 30 (total) cases are shown

with a difference between segments of at least 2 percentage points between lowest and highest value

highest values are marked in bold, lowest by shadowed cells

Segment Profile

segment	N	mean	ANOVA	
			F	Sig.
age-range	1	339	3,14	56,14005 0,000
	2	465	4,28	
	3	391	3,34	
	4	308	3,86	
Total	1503	3,69		

domestic/ international market

		Cross-tabulation				
segment		1	2	3	4	Total
portuguese	Count	165	179	295	128	767
	% within segment	48,67	38,17	75,26	40,76	50,66
foreign	Count	174	290	97	186	747
	% within segment	51,33	61,83	24,74	59,24	49,34
Total	Count	339	469	392	314	1514

nationality

		Cross-tabulation				
segment		1	2	3	4	Total
Portuguese	Count	165	180	295	128	768
	% within segment	48,67	38,30	75,26	40,76	50,69
German	Count	43	51	10	43	147
	% within segment	12,68	10,85	2,55	13,69	9,70
Brazilian	Count	6	15	11	2	34
	% within segment	1,77	3,19	2,81	0,64	2,24
Dutch	Count	16	40	4	21	81
	% within segment	4,72	8,51	1,02	6,69	5,35
British	Count	16	48	10	46	120
	% within segment	4,72	10,21	2,55	14,65	7,92
Spanish	Count	17	18	17	8	60
	% within segment	5,01	3,83	4,34	2,55	3,96
French	Count	33	37	14	18	102
	% within segment	9,73	7,87	3,57	5,73	6,73
Belgian	Count	12	27	3	13	55
	% within segment	3,54	5,74	0,77	4,14	3,63
US American	Count	6	14	3	9	32
	% within segment	1,77	2,98	0,77	2,87	2,11
Total	Count	339	470	392	314	1515

occupation

		Cross-tabulation				
segment		1	2	3	4	Total
scientific, technical	Count	87	186	104	109	486
	% within segment	26,13	40,97	27,30	36,21	33,08
liberal	Count	14	27	14	24	79
	% within segment	4,20	5,95	3,67	7,97	5,38
top management	Count	12	20	21	17	70
	% within segment	3,60	4,41	5,51	5,65	4,77
service	Count	56	72	58	52	238
	% within segment	16,82	15,86	15,22	17,28	16,20
worker	Count	7	8	12	4	31
	% within segment	2,10	1,76	3,15	1,33	2,11
specialized technician	Count	24	23	32	16	95
	% within segment	7,21	5,07	8,40	5,32	6,47
domestic	Count	2	18	11	5	36
	% within segment	0,60	3,96	2,89	1,66	2,45
student	Count	104	35	93	40	272
	% within segment	31,23	7,71	24,41	13,29	18,52
retired	Count	10	43	16	18	87
	% within segment	3,00	9,47	4,20	5,98	5,92
Total	Count	333	454	381	301	1469

Holiday Behavior on-site

	segment				
number of prior visits to region	1	329	1,95	19,275	0,000
	2	460	1,73		
	3	379	2,91		
	4	309	1,91		
	Total	1477	2,12		
daily expenses	1	222	5,48	4,938	0,002
	2	323	6,12		
	3	213	5,54		
	4	208	5,49		
	Total	966	5,71		
distance travelled	1	183	2,49	11,946	0,000
	2	256	2,97		
	3	209	2,10		
	4	172	2,85		
	Total	820	2,62		

accommodation used		Cross-tabulation				
	segment	1	2	3	4	Total
hotels	Count	60	98	63	43	264
	% within segment	21,35	23,00	20,39	16,10	20,58
pensions	Count	41	77	53	47	218
	% within segment	14,59	18,08	17,15	17,60	16,99
rented house/ flat	Count	24	15	21	23	83
	% within segment	8,54	3,52	6,80	8,61	6,47
camping	Count	58	57	40	53	208
	% within segment	20,64	13,38	12,94	19,85	16,21
rural tourism	Count	9	34	9	21	73
	% within segment	3,20	7,98	2,91	7,87	5,69
friends and family	Count	28	37	45	16	126
	% within segment	9,96	8,69	14,56	5,99	9,82
pousada	Count	4	26	7	13	50
	% within segment	1,42	6,10	2,27	4,87	3,90
own house	Count	11	6	20	4	41
	% within segment	3,91	1,41	6,47	1,50	3,20
youth hostel	Count	14	6	22	5	47
	% within segment	4,98	1,41	7,12	1,87	3,66
various	Count	7	23	5	19	54
	% within segment	2,49	5,40	1,62	7,12	4,21
Total	Count	281	426	309	267	1283

sub-region of stay		Cross-tabulation				
	segment	1	2	3	4	Total
Minho	Count	121	162	104	117	504
	% within segment	39,54	40,10	28,42	44,32	37,61
Douro	Count	106	130	145	91	472
	% within segment	34,64	32,18	39,62	34,47	35,22
Trás-os-Montes	Count	79	112	117	56	364
	% within segment	25,82	27,72	31,97	21,21	27,16
Total	Count	306	404	366	264	1340

season		Cross-tabulation				
	segment	1	2	3	4	Total
high	Count	177	231	155	167	730
	% within segment	56,01	51,22	43,06	54,93	51,01
low	Count	139	220	205	137	701
	% within segment	43,99	48,78	56,94	45,07	48,99
total	Count	316	451	360	304	1431

	segment	N	média	F	Sig.
probability to come back	1	316	5,03	6,801	0,000
	2	441	5,31		
	3	359	5,68		
	4	289	5,26		
	Total	1405	5,33		
probability to recommend	1	307	5,57	12,883	0,000
	2	435	6,17		
	3	351	6,12		
	4	285	5,67		
	Total	1378	5,92		
global impression	1	330	2,32	9,392	0,000

Importance attributed to diverse aspects of a rural tourist destination

	segment	N	ANOVA		
			média	F	Sig.
accessibility	1	340	3,74	212,99	0,000
	2	471	3,88		
	3	392	4,47		
	4	315	2,90		
	Total	1518	3,80		
get to know rural life	1	340	2,48	93,08	0,000
	2	471	3,30		
	3	392	3,69		
	4	315	2,85		
	Total	1518	3,13		
architecture, monuments	1	340	3,58	99,98	0,000
	2	471	4,15		
	3	392	4,35		
	4	315	3,29		
	Total	1518	3,90		
offerings for children	1	340	2,44	333,21	0,000
	2	471	1,69		
	3	392	3,92		
	4	315	1,83		
	Total	1518	2,47		
climate	1	340	4,19	74,26	0,000
	2	471	4,19		
	3	392	4,58		
	4	315	3,63		
	Total	1518	4,17		
ease of communication	1	340	3,75	193,84	0,000
	2	471	3,85		
	3	392	4,41		
	4	315	2,88		
	Total	1518	3,77		
gastronomy	1	340	3,68	57,89	0,000
	2	471	3,98		
	3	392	4,23		
	4	315	3,33		
	Total	1518	3,84		
history and culture	1	340	3,50	103,63	0,000
	2	471	4,30		
	3	392	4,39		
	4	315	3,52		
	Total	1518	3,98		
tourist information	1	340	3,69	230,47	0,000
	2	471	3,92		
	3	392	4,41		
	4	315	2,59		
	Total	1518	3,72		
infrastructures	1	340	3,80	242,83	0,000
	2	471	3,76		
	3	392	4,42		
	4	315	2,73		
	Total	1518	3,72		
isolation	1	340	2,41	85,69	0,000
	2	471	3,52		
	3	392	3,37		
	4	315	3,51		
	Total	1518	3,23		
accommodation	1	340	3,81	55,88	0,000
	2	471	3,90		
	3	392	4,31		
	4	315	3,32		
	Total	1518	3,86		
nature	1	340	3,59	115,59	0,000
	2	471	4,37		
	3	392	4,67		
	4	315	3,98		
	Total	1518	4,19		
nightlife	1	340	3,55	405,33	0,000
	2	471	1,63		
	3	392	3,60		
	4	315	1,92		
	Total	1518	2,63		

Evaluation of destination attributes of North Portugal

	segment	N	ANOVA		
			média	F	Sig.
accessibility	1	231	3,35	13,88	0,000
	2	321	3,60		
	3	277	3,70		
	4	210	3,29		
	Total	1039	3,51		
get to know rural life	1	260	3,14	13,96	0,000
	2	380	3,43		
	3	329	3,66		
	4	242	3,23		
	Total	1211	3,39		
architecture, monuments	1	288	3,58	27,45	0,000
	2	424	3,99		
	3	346	4,06		
	4	263	3,48		
	Total	1321	3,82		
offerings for children	1	197	2,55	15,55	0,000
	2	222	2,20		
	3	256	2,85		
	4	171	2,27		
	Total	846	2,49		
climate	1	298	3,75	10,80	0,000
	2	431	3,87		
	3	351	4,02		
	4	268	3,59		
	Total	1348	3,83		
ease of communication	1	283	3,45	30,07	0,000
	2	422	3,62		
	3	340	3,97		
	4	263	3,20		
	Total	1308	3,59		
gastronomy	1	287	3,65	11,40	0,000
	2	415	3,83		
	3	327	3,96		
	4	261	3,52		
	Total	1290	3,76		
history and culture	1	291	3,70	21,58	0,000
	2	421	4,10		
	3	348	4,20		
	4	275	3,79		
	Total	1335	3,98		
tourist information	1	281	3,14	14,50	0,000
	2	398	3,26		
	3	336	3,41		
	4	246	2,83		
	Total	1261	3,19		
infrastructures	1	287	3,40	12,97	0,000
	2	411	3,57		
	3	326	3,63		
	4	250	3,15		
	Total	1274	3,47		
isolation	1	281	3,11	23,05	0,000
	2	409	3,75		
	3	346	3,61		
	4	266	3,58		
	Total	1302	3,54		
accommodation	1	271	3,59	6,81	0,000
	2	397	3,81		
	3	309	3,82		
	4	248	3,50		
	Total	1225	3,70		
nature	1	299	4,05	24,22	0,000
	2	433	4,32		
	3	353	4,51		
	4	276	4,01		
	Total	1361	4,25		
nightlife	1	256	2,93	36,44	0,000
	2	259	2,15		
	3	283	2,88		
	4	211	2,15		
	Total	1009	2,55		

Importance attributed to diverse aspects of a rural tourist destination

	segment				
peace/ quiet	1	340	3,22	166,62	0,000
	2	471	4,42		
	3	392	4,43		
	4	315	3,95		
	Total	1518	4,06		
good price	1	340	3,96	128,81	0,000
	2	471	4,10		
	3	392	4,56		
	4	315	3,32		
	Total	1518	4,03		
scenery	1	340	4,09	79,26	0,000
	2	471	4,66		
	3	392	4,76		
	4	315	4,21		
	Total	1518	4,47		
professional service	1	340	3,56	236,35	0,000
	2	471	3,72		
	3	392	4,39		
	4	315	2,50		
	Total	1518	3,61		
sign-posting	1	340	3,86	248,38	0,000
	2	471	4,21		
	3	392	4,54		
	4	315	2,79		
	Total	1518	3,92		
opportunities for socializing	1	340	3,65	89,44	0,000
	2	471	3,19		
	3	392	3,99		
	4	315	2,76		
	Total	1518	3,41		
sports/ recreation	1	340	3,31	351,54	0,000
	2	471	2,01		
	3	392	4,01		
	4	315	2,24		
	Total	1518	2,86		
sympathy of population	1	340	3,98	153,94	0,000
	2	471	4,32		
	3	392	4,61		
	4	315	3,38		
	Total	1518	4,12		
unpolluted environment	1	340	3,99	84,99	0,000
	2	471	4,63		
	3	392	4,76		
	4	315	4,09		
	Total	1518	4,41		
variety attractions activities	1	340	3,87	184,53	0,000
	2	471	3,29		
	3	392	4,21		
	4	315	2,69		
	Total	1518	3,53		
walking paths	1	340	2,76	80,83	0,000
	2	471	3,63		
	3	392	3,93		
	4	315	3,12		
	Total	1518	3,41		

Evaluation of destination attributes of North Portugal

	segment				
peace/ quiet	1	296	3,80	26,86	0,000
	2	436	4,24		
	3	359	4,39		
	4	273	4,03		
	Total	1364	4,14		
good price	1	282	3,56	12,41	0,000
	2	420	3,94		
	3	334	3,79		
	4	266	3,59		
	Total	1302	3,75		
scenery	1	301	4,06	35,13	0,000
	2	435	4,53		
	3	357	4,59		
	4	276	4,18		
	Total	1369	4,37		
professional service	1	274	3,22	25,41	0,000
	2	402	3,51		
	3	330	3,61		
	4	238	2,96		
	Total	1244	3,37		
sign-posting	1	293	2,99	15,50	0,000
	2	428	2,96		
	3	344	3,35		
	4	265	2,74		
	Total	1330	3,02		
opportunities for socializing	1	291	3,22	15,96	0,000
	2	404	3,21		
	3	338	3,54		
	4	259	2,94		
	Total	1292	3,24		
sports/ recreation	1	231	2,91	19,33	0,000
	2	259	2,35		
	3	272	2,96		
	4	196	2,53		
	Total	958	2,69		
sympathy of population	1	286	3,91	21,70	0,000
	2	427	4,22		
	3	337	4,23		
	4	267	3,76		
	Total	1317	4,06		
unpolluted environment	1	299	3,76	14,58	0,000
	2	432	3,96		
	3	355	4,24		
	4	275	3,77		
	Total	1361	3,95		
variety attractions activities	1	270	3,17	8,95	0,000
	2	354	3,15		
	3	289	3,34		
	4	234	2,90		
	Total	1147	3,15		
walking paths	1	252	3,21	12,61	0,000
	2	366	3,33		
	3	321	3,69		
	4	242	3,18		
	Total	1181	3,37		

Improvements suggested

Cross-tabulation

	segment	1	2	3	4	Total
none	Count	73	130	82	112	397
	% within segment	21,47	27,60	20,92	35,56	26,15
better preservation	Count	119	193	150	135	597
	% within segment	35,00	40,98	38,27	42,86	39,33
horse-riding	Count	55	35	69	19	178
	% within segment	16,18	7,43	17,60	6,03	11,73
cicling	Count	37	32	40	28	137
	% within segment	10,88	6,79	10,20	8,89	9,03
fitness	Count	20	10	38	5	73
	% within segment	5,88	2,12	9,69	1,59	4,81
tennis	Count	28	10	39	16	93
	% within segment	8,24	2,12	9,95	5,08	6,13
swimming	Count	52	26	65	29	172
	% within segment	15,29	5,52	16,58	9,21	11,33
golf	Count	12	15	28	10	65
	% within segment	3,53	3,18	7,14	3,17	4,28
hunting	Count	13	13	35	8	69
	% within segment	3,82	2,76	8,93	2,54	4,55
fishing	Count	22	20	46	11	99
	% within segment	6,47	4,25	11,73	3,49	6,52
canoing	Count	53	42	72	34	201
	% within segment	15,59	8,92	18,37	10,79	13,24
windsurf	Count	16	3	17	8	44
	% within segment	4,71	0,64	4,34	2,54	2,90
walking paths	Count	63	138	107	94	402
	% within segment	18,53	29,30	27,30	29,84	26,48
excursions	Count	82	98	127	53	360
	% within segment	24,12	20,81	32,40	16,83	23,72
theatre	Count	35	32	73	17	157
	% within segment	10,29	6,79	18,62	5,40	10,34
concerts	Count	66	50	80	31	227
	% within segment	19,41	10,62	20,41	9,84	14,95
cinema	Count	53	25	63	15	156
	% within segment	15,59	5,31	16,07	4,76	10,28
museums	Count	58	81	79	33	251
	% within segment	17,06	17,20	20,15	10,48	16,53
folk events	Count	40	91	68	21	220
	% within segment	11,76	19,32	17,35	6,67	14,49
expositions	Count	66	69	92	35	262
	% within segment	19,41	14,65	23,47	11,11	17,26
handicraft	Count	67	95	101	50	313
	% within segment	19,71	20,17	25,77	15,87	20,62
offerings for children	Count	33	19	68	22	142
	% within segment	9,71	4,03	17,35	6,98	9,35
participation in rural life	Count	18	36	47	17	118
	% within segment	5,29	7,64	11,99	5,40	7,77
language courses	Count	18	31	42	16	107
	% within segment	5,29	6,58	10,71	5,08	7,05
folk dancing courses	Count	14	19	31	10	74
	% within segment	4,12	4,03	7,91	3,17	4,87
handicraft courses	Count	22	29	54	16	121
	% within segment	6,47	6,16	13,78	5,08	7,97
art courses	Count	21	22	53	11	107
	% within segment	6,18	4,67	13,52	3,49	7,05
gastronomy courses	Count	33	46	52	21	152
	% within segment	9,71	9,77	13,27	6,67	10,01
discoteques	Count	46	5	33	6	90
	% within segment	13,53	1,06	8,42	1,90	5,93
bars/ pubs	Count	54	9	50	6	119
	% within segment	15,88	1,91	12,76	1,90	7,84
typical restaurants	Count	107	145	158	100	510
	% within segment	31,47	30,79	40,31	31,75	33,60
cheap restaurants	Count	36	33	49	24	142
	% within segment	10,59	7,01	12,50	7,62	9,35
international restaurants	Count	25	8	27	8	68
	% within segment	7,35	1,70	6,89	2,54	4,48
vegetarian restaurants	Count	23	30	36	18	107
	% within segment	6,76	6,37	9,18	5,71	7,05

APPENDIX G

Examples of Image Difference Analyses using Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney tests for the case of Sub-Regions as independent variable, including examples of first-order interaction and Post-hoc tests

Note: Only some SPSS output examples are presented, in order to clarify the type of analysis undertaken. The entire set of outputs, for all independent variables analyzed, may be inspected on request, but would unnecessarily increase the size of this appendix. In appendix H, all results were summarized in tables, revealing significant differences on image dimensions for all independent variables, considering first-order interaction and after checking (via post-hoc tests) for significant differences among variables with more than two levels/ groups.

Ranks

	region in North Portugal	N	Mean Rank
SS_COLOR	Minho	677	827,03
	Douro	557	1024,25
	Trás-os-Montes	560	856,61
	Total	1794	
SS_CALM	Minho	677	835,48
	Douro	566	950,52
	Trás-os-Montes	562	936,48
	Total	1805	
SS_SIMPL	Minho	654	782,78
	Douro	543	893,01
	Trás-os-Montes	544	955,09
	Total	1741	
PNAT_SS	Minho	552	678,64
	Douro	477	817,51
	Trás-os-Montes	476	774,59
	Total	1505	
PBAS_SS	Minho	555	780,54
	Douro	433	594,98
	Trás-os-Montes	476	801,58
	Total	1464	
PFUN_SS	Minho	440	606,03
	Douro	355	478,21
	Trás-os-Montes	346	621,65
	Total	1141	
PINFO_SS	Minho	533	739,69
	Douro	457	686,41
	Trás-os-Montes	453	737,09
	Total	1443	
PCUL_SS	Minho	540	712,95
	Douro	447	694,53
	Trás-os-Montes	441	736,63
	Total	1428	
FUNCCONG	Minho	584	836,65
	Douro	503	747,60
	Trás-os-Montes	517	817,34
	Total	1604	
global impression	Minho	694	969,51
	Douro	574	834,71
	Trás-os-Montes	578	956,43
	Total	1846	
different-similar	Minho	647	834,90
	Douro	551	843,99
	Trás-os-Montes	537	932,51
	Total	1735	

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	SS_COLOR	SS_CALM	SS_SIMPL	PNAT_SS	PBAS_SS	PFUN_SS	PINFO_SS	PCUL_SS	FUNCCONG	global impression	different-similar
Chi-Square	50,556	18,857	37,283	27,921	65,895	41,420	4,930	2,411	10,774	25,766	13,701
df	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,085	,300	,005	,000	,001

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: region in North Portugal

Ranks

	region in North Portugal	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SS_COLOR	Minho	677	556,23	376567,00
	Douro	557	691,97	385428,00
	Total	1234		
SS_CALM	Minho	677	585,88	396638,50
	Douro	566	665,21	376507,50
	Total	1243		
SS_SIMPL	Minho	654	564,53	369203,53
	Douro	543	640,51	347799,50
	Total	1197		
different-similar	Minho	647	596,32	385819,00
	Douro	551	603,23	332382,00
	Total	1198		
PNAT_SS	Minho	552	471,38	260200,00
	Douro	477	565,48	269735,00
	Total	1029		
PBAS_SS	Minho	555	549,19	304801,50
	Douro	433	424,40	183764,50
	Total	988		
PFUN_SS	Minho	440	437,21	192373,50
	Douro	355	349,40	124036,50
	Total	795		
PINFO_SS	Minho	533	512,28	273047,00
	Douro	457	475,93	217498,00
	Total	990		
PCUL_SS	Minho	540	499,90	269947,50
	Douro	447	486,87	217630,50
	Total	987		
FUNCCONG	Minho	584	571,87	333973,00
	Douro	503	511,64	257355,00
	Total	1087		
global impression	Minho	694	676,59	469552,00
	Douro	574	583,61	334994,00
	Total	1268		

Test Statistics^a

	SS_COLOR	SS_CALM	SS_SIMPL	different-similar	PNAT_SS	PBAS_SS	PFUN_SS	PINFO_SS	PCUL_SS	FUNCCONG	global impression
Mann-Whitney U	147064,000	67135,500	55018,500	76191,000	07572,000	89803,500	60846,500	12845,000	17502,500	130599,000	169969,000
Wilcoxon W	376567,000	96638,500	369203,500	85819,000	60200,000	83764,500	24036,500	217498,000	17630,500	257355,000	334994,000
Z	-6,734	-3,930	-3,831	-,354	-5,072	-6,832	-5,368	-2,003	-,729	-3,154	-4,724
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,723	,000	,000	,000	,045	,466	,002	,000

^a. Grouping Variable: region in North Portugal

Ranks

	region in North Portugal	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SS_COLOR	Douro	557	611,28	340484,50
	Trás-os-Montes	560	507,00	283918,50
	Total	1117		
SS_CALM	Douro	566	568,81	321945,50
	Trás-os-Montes	562	560,16	314810,50
	Total	1128		
SS_SIMPL	Douro	543	524,50	284801,50
	Trás-os-Montes	544	563,47	306526,50
	Total	1087		
different-similar	Douro	551	516,76	284735,00
	Trás-os-Montes	537	572,96	307681,00
	Total	1088		
PNAT_SS	Douro	477	491,03	234220,50
	Trás-os-Montes	476	462,94	220360,50
	Total	953		
PBAS_SS	Douro	433	387,58	167824,00
	Trás-os-Montes	476	516,33	245771,00
	Total	909		
PFUN_SS	Douro	355	306,81	108919,00
	Trás-os-Montes	346	396,34	137132,00
	Total	701		
PINFO_SS	Douro	457	439,48	200844,50
	Trás-os-Montes	453	471,66	213660,50
	Total	910		
PCUL_SS	Douro	447	431,66	192953,00
	Trás-os-Montes	441	457,51	201763,00
	Total	888		
FUNCCONG	Douro	503	487,96	245445,00
	Trás-os-Montes	517	532,43	275265,00
	Total	1020		
global impression	Douro	574	538,60	309156,50
	Trás-os-Montes	578	614,14	354971,53
	Total	1152		

Test Statistics^a

	SS_COLOR	SS_CALM	SS_SIMPL	different-similar	PNAT_SS	PBAS_SS	PFUN_SS	PINFO_SS	PCUL_SS	FUNCCONG	global impression
Mann-Whitney U	126838,500	16607,500	17105,500	12659,000	16834,500	13863,000	145729,000	196191,500	192825,000	118689,000	144131,500
Wilcoxon W	283918,500	4810,500	34801,500	44735,000	20360,500	17824,000	108919,000	200844,500	192953,000	245445,000	309156,500
Z	-5,462	-,452	-2,074	-3,031	-1,578	-7,393	-5,861	-1,854	-1,529	-2,410	-4,036
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,651	,038	,002	,115	,000	,000	,064	,126	,016	,000

^a. Grouping Variable: region in North Portugal

Ranks

	region in North Portugal	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SS_COLOR	Minho	677	609,80	412837,97
	Trás-os-Montes	560	630,12	352865,00
	Total	1237		
SS_CALM	Minho	677	588,60	398484,00
	Trás-os-Montes	562	657,82	369696,00
	Total	1239		
SS_SIMPL	Minho	654	545,75	356918,97
	Trás-os-Montes	544	664,12	361282,00
	Total	1198		
different-similar	Minho	647	562,58	363989,00
	Trás-os-Montes	537	628,55	337531,03
	Total	1184		
PNAT_SS	Minho	552	483,76	267036,50
	Trás-os-Montes	476	550,15	261869,50
	Total	1028		
PBAS_SS	Minho	555	509,35	282688,00
	Trás-os-Montes	476	523,76	249308,00
	Total	1031		
PFUN_SS	Minho	440	389,32	171300,50
	Trás-os-Montes	346	398,82	137990,50
	Total	786		
PINFO_SS	Minho	533	494,41	263518,50
	Trás-os-Montes	453	492,43	223072,50
	Total	986		
PCUL_SS	Minho	540	483,55	261118,00
	Trás-os-Montes	441	500,12	220553,00
	Total	981		
FUNCCONG	Minho	584	557,28	325449,50
	Trás-os-Montes	517	543,91	281201,50
	Total	1101		
global impression	Minho	694	640,42	444451,00
	Trás-os-Montes	578	631,79	365177,00
	Total	1272		

Test Statistics^a

	SS_COLOR	SS_CALM	SS_SIMPL	different-similar	PNAT_SS	PBAS_SS	PFUN_SS	PINFO_SS	PCUL_SS	FUNCCONG	global impression
Mann-Whitney U	183335,000	68981,000	142734,000	54361,000	14408,500	28398,000	74280,500	120241,500	15048,000	147298,500	197846,000
Wilcoxon W	412838,000	98484,000	356919,000	63989,000	67036,500	82688,000	71300,500	223072,500	261118,000	281201,500	365177,000
Z	-1,010	-3,432	-5,966	-3,392	-3,579	-,776	-,583	-,109	-,927	-,696	-,441
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,313	,001	,000	,001	,000	,438	,560	,913	,354	,486	,659

^a. Grouping Variable: region in North Portugal

Ranks

	region in North Portugal	N	Mean Rank
SS_COLOR	Minho	223	410,16
	Douro	416	561,84
	Trás-os-Montes	335	446,67
	Total	974	
SS_CALM	Minho	223	438,59
	Douro	426	502,48
	Trás-os-Montes	339	521,26
	Total	988	
SS_SIMPL	Minho	213	419,23
	Douro	410	464,48
	Trás-os-Montes	324	522,06
	Total	947	
PNAT_SS	Minho	180	419,52
	Douro	358	409,94
	Trás-os-Montes	283	406,93
	Total	821	
PBAS_SS	Minho	171	435,29
	Douro	317	306,48
	Trás-os-Montes	282	444,14
	Total	770	
PFUN_SS	Minho	155	357,39
	Douro	274	283,17
	Trás-os-Montes	221	355,61
	Total	650	
PINFO_SS	Minho	180	454,22
	Douro	342	364,48
	Trás-os-Montes	273	402,93
	Total	795	
PCUL_SS	Minho	176	399,20
	Douro	334	372,41
	Trás-os-Montes	255	385,70
	Total	765	
FUNCCONG	Minho	185	501,43
	Douro	379	390,46
	Trás-os-Montes	304	448,67
	Total	868	
global impression	Minho	227	562,54
	Douro	428	449,40
	Trás-os-Montes	350	529,93
	Total	1005	
different-similar	Minho	215	519,30
	Douro	412	419,71
	Trás-os-Montes	320	513,46
	Total	947	

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	SS_COLOR	SS_CALM	SS_SIMPL	PNAT_SS	PBAS_SS	PFUN_SS	PINFO_SS	PCUL_SS	FUNCCONG	global impression	different-similar
Chi-Square	54,205	12,161	19,594	,324	68,355	24,151	18,366	1,816	25,856	29,683	30,739
df	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	,000	,002	,000	,850	,000	,000	,000	,403	,000	,000	,000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: region in North Portugal

Ranks

	region in North Portugal	N	Mean Rank
SS_COLOR	Minho	449	399,87
	Douro	138	425,17
	Trás-os-Montes	225	408,28
	Total	812	
SS_CALM	Minho	449	396,45
	Douro	137	437,49
	Trás-os-Montes	223	402,26
	Total	809	
SS_SIMPL	Minho	436	387,38
	Douro	130	373,72
	Trás-os-Montes	220	417,31
	Total	786	
PNAT_SS	Minho	368	319,89
	Douro	117	369,97
	Trás-os-Montes	193	358,42
	Total	678	
PBAS_SS	Minho	380	341,96
	Douro	114	336,31
	Trás-os-Montes	194	354,29
	Total	688	
PFUN_SS	Minho	282	243,91
	Douro	80	205,22
	Trás-os-Montes	125	269,03
	Total	487	
PINFO_SS	Minho	349	314,03
	Douro	113	330,00
	Trás-os-Montes	180	330,65
	Total	642	
PCUL_SS	Minho	360	319,46
	Douro	111	325,80
	Trás-os-Montes	186	349,37
	Total	657	
FUNCCONG	Minho	395	359,90
	Douro	122	382,52
	Trás-os-Montes	213	366,13
	Total	730	
global impression	Minho	462	412,60
	Douro	143	420,71
	Trás-os-Montes	228	423,58
	Total	833	
different-similar	Minho	427	389,71
	Douro	136	370,76
	Trás-os-Montes	217	404,42
	Total	780	

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	SS_COLOR	SS_CALM	SS_SIMPL	PNAT_SS	PBAS_SS	PFUN_SS	PINFO_SS	PCUL_SS	FUNCCONG	global impression	different-similar
Chi-Square	1,279	3,379	3,816	8,340	,729	10,065	1,252	3,194	1,076	,404	1,985
df	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	,528	,185	,148	,015	,694	,007	,535	,203	,584	,817	,371

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: region in North Portugal

APPENDIX H

Summary Tables for Image Differences based on Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney tests for all independent variables, including first-order interaction

- 1. Sub-Region**
- 2. Season**
- 3. Travel Purpose**
- 4. Benefit Segment**
- 5. Length of Stay**
- 6. Prior Visit**
- 7. Portuguese- foreign market**
- 8. Age**
- 9. Gender**
- 10. Education**

Significant differences between Sub-Regions MINHO, DOURO, TRÁS-OS-MONTES

	male		female		youngest		mid-aged		oldest		low education		mid-level education		high education		Urban		Calm		Active		Simplists		Douro %	T-o-lv %	
	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro	Minho	Douro			Minho
pleasant	(-)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	17	73.9%	
calm	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	4	17.4%	
simple	(+)	(+)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	14	60.9%	
similar	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	1	4.3%	
nature	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	3	13.0%	
basics	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	5	21.7%	
fun	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	19	82.6%	
information	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	17	73.9%	
culture	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	7	30.4%	
FC	(-)	(-)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	3	13.0%	
OI	(-)	(-)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	8	34.8%	
	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	13	56.5%	
																										0	0.0%

Significant differences between High - Low season

	REGIONS		Douro		Trás-os-Montes		PRIOR VISIT		LENGTH OF STAY		PURPOSE OF VISIT		DOMESTIC-FOREIGN MARKET		
	overall	Minho	high	low	high	low	RV	NC	short-break	> 4 days	only holidays	business+th	VFR	Portuguese	Foreign
	high	high	high	low	high	low	high	high	high	low	high	high	high	high	low
pleasant	(+)		(+)				(+)	(+)			(+)			(+)	
calm							(+)		(+)				(+)		(+)
simple	(+)						(+)				(+)			(+)	
similar	(+)						(+)		(+)					(+)	
nature	(+)						(+)	(+)			(+)				(+)
basics			(+)												
fun	(+)				(+)			(+)			(+)		(+)		
information															
culture	(+)							(+)		(+)				(+)	
FC	(+)						(+)			(+)					(+)
OI	(+)						(+)		(+)						(+)

Significant differences between	Travel Purposes											
	REGIONS						HOLIDAYS ONLY, HOLIDAYS+BUSINESS, HOLIDAYS+VFR					
	overall holidays business VFR	Minho holidays business VFR	Douro holidays business VFR	ToM holidays business VFR	PRIOR VISIT RV holidays business VFR	NC holidays business VFR	LENGTH OF STAY short-break holidays business VFR	>4 days holidays business VFR	SEASON high season holidays business VFR	low season holidays business VFR	DOMESTIC-FOREIGN MARKET Portuguese holidays business VFR	Foreigner holidays business VFR
pleasant	(-)											(-)
calm					(+)							
simple									(+)			
similar												
nature												(+)
basics												
fun	(-)	(+)		(-)	(+)	(-)	(-)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(-)	(+)
information												
culture											(+)	(+)
FC	(+)				(+)							(+)
OI	(-)				(-)					(-)		(-)

Benefit Segments

	high season		low season		only holidays		business+ holidays		VFR		Portuguese		Foreigner		male		female	
	urbans	simple	urbans	simple	urbans	simple	urbans	simple	urbans	simple	urbans	simple	urbans	simple	urbans	simple	urbans	simple
pleasant					(-)						(-)							
					(+)						(+)							
calm	(-)		(-)		(-)						(-)					(-)		(-)
					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
simple	(-)		(-)								(-)					(-)		(-)
					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
similar																		
					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
nature	(-)		(-)		(-)						(-)					(-)		(-)
					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
basics	(-)		(-)		(-)						(-)					(-)		(-)
					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
fun	(+)		(+)		(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
					(-)						(-)					(-)		(-)
Information					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
					(-)						(-)					(-)		(-)
culture	(-)		(-)		(-)						(-)					(-)		(-)
					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
FC	(-)		(-)		(-)						(-)					(-)		(-)
					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
OI	(-)		(-)		(-)						(-)					(-)		(-)
					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
					(+)						(+)					(+)		(+)
					(-)						(-)					(-)		(-)

	Benefit Segments												active %	calm %	simplicists %					
	youngest		mid-aged		oldest		low edu		mid edu		high edu					urbans	urbans %	calm %	active %	simplicists %
	urbans	calm	urbans	calm	urbans	calm	urbans	calm	urbans	calm	urbans	calm								
pleasant	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	6	27.3%	5	22.7%	6	27.3%		
calm	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	16	72.7%	10	45.5%	2	9.1%	7	31.8%
simple	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	14	63.6%	2	9.1%	15	68.2%	0	0.0%
similar	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	12	54.5%	1	4.5%	15	68.2%	3	13.6%
nature	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	21	95.5%	15	68.2%	22	100.0%	1	4.5%
basics	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	15	68.2%	11	50.0%	21	95.5%	15	68.2%
fun	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	17	77.3%	19	86.4%	19	86.4%	22	100.0%
information	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	3	13.6%	7	31.8%	19	86.4%	21	95.5%
culture	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	18	81.8%	17	77.3%	19	86.4%	20	90.9%
FC	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	19	86.4%	6	27.3%	9	40.9%	20	90.9%
OI	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	16	72.7%	12	54.5%	14	63.6%	2	9.1%
	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)	(+)	(-)					14	63.6%	9	40.9%

Significant differences between Short break visitors - tourists staying for > 4 days

Length of Stay	REGIONS		PRIOR VISIT				SEASON				PURPOSE OF VISIT				DOMESTIC-FOREIGN MARKET	
	overall SB > 4 days	Mirinho SB > 4 days	Douro SB > 4 days	Trás-os-Montes SB > 4 days	RV SB > 4 days	NC SB > 4 days	high season SB > 4 days	low season SB > 4 days	only holidays SB > 4 days	business+holiday SB > 4 days	VFR SB > 4 days	Portuguese SB > 4 days	Foreign SB > 4 days			
pleasant																
calm	(+)		(+)		(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)			(+)	(+)			
simple	(+)		(+)		(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)							
similar	(+)	(+)		(+)		(+)		(+)	(+)				(+)			
nature	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)				(+)			
basics		(+)											(+)			
fun	(+)			(+)	(+)		(+)					(+)				
information	(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)				(+)			
culture	(+)	(+)		(+)		(+)							(+)			
OI																
FC	(+)	(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)			(+)	(+)			

Length of Stay	AGE				GENDER				EDUCATION				BENEFIT SEGMENTS				
	youngest SB > 4 days	mid-aged SB > 4 days	oldest SB > 4 days		male SB > 4 days	female SB > 4 days	low education SB > 4 days	mid-level education SB > 4 days	high education SB > 4 days	Urbans SB > 4 days	Calm SB > 4 days	Active SB > 4 days	Simplists SB > 4 days		%	> 4 days	
pleasant	(+)	(+)	(+)			(+)		(+)	(+)			(+)		0	0,0%	12	50,0%
calm	(+)	(+)			(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	21	87,5%	0	0,0%
simple	(+)	(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)			16	66,7%	0	0,0%
similar		(+)			(+)	(+)	(+)			(+)		(+)	(+)	15	62,5%	0	0,0%
nature	(+)	(+)			(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	22	91,7%	1	4,2%
basics														2	8,3%	0	0,0%
fun		(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)	(+)	0	0,0%	11	45,8%
information	(+)	(+)			(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)				7	29,2%	11	45,8%
culture	(+)					(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)				8	33,3%	0	0,0%
OI														0	0,0%	0	0,0%
FC					(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)				(+)	4	16,7%	10	41,7%
																1	4,2%

Repeat Visitors- New Comers

	AGE			GENDER			EDUCATION			BENEFIT SEGMENTS						RV	NC	%	
	youngest	mid-aged	oldest	male	female	low education	mid-level education	high education	Urbanans	Calm	Active	Simplists	RV	NC					
	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV	RV					
pleasant	(+)															5	20,8%	0	0,0%
calm								(+)								1	4,2%	0	0,0%
simple	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)					16	66,7%	0	0,0%	
similar	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)					24	100,0%	0	0,0%	
nature	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)					16	66,7%	0	0,0%	
basics						(+)									6	25,0%	0	0,0%	
fun														(+)	2	8,3%	0	0,0%	
information															4	16,7%	1	4,0%	
culture															1	4,2%	0	0,0%	
FC	(+)														3	12,5%	1	4,0%	
OI	(+)			(+)											8	33,3%	2	8,0%	

Significant differences between Portuguese- Foreign Tourists

	REGIONS		Douro		Trás-os-Montes		RV		NC		LENGTH OF STAY		SEASON		PURPOSE OF VISIT		
	overall	Foreigner	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreign	short-break	> 4 days	high season	low season	only holidays	business+holiday	
	Portuguese	Foreigner	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreigner	Portuguese Foreigner
pleasant		(+)		(+)							(+)						
calm	(+)				(+)				(+)			(+)		(+)			
simple	(+)			(+)				(+)			(+)		(+)				(+)
similar	(+)			(+)				(+)			(+)		(+)				(+)
nature	(+)			(+)				(+)			(+)		(+)				(+)
basics																	
fun		(+)		(+)				(+)			(+)		(+)				(+)
information		(+)						(+)			(+)		(+)				(+)
culture																	
FC				(+)												(+)	
OI																	
		(+)		(+)				(+)			(+)		(+)				(+)

Portuguese- Foreign Tourists

	AGE		GENDER		EDUCATION			BENEFIT SEGMENTS			Simplists	Active	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreigner	P	%	F
	youngest	mid-aged	oldest	male	female	low education	mid-level education	high education	Urbans	Calm								
	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreign	Portuguese	Foreigner	Portuguese	Foreigner	Portuguese	Foreign								
pleasant															2	8,3%	4	16,7%
calm	(+)	(+)		(+)		(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)			(+)			18	75,0%	0	0,0%
simple	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)			(+)			23	95,8%	0	0,0%
similar	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)			(+)			23	95,8%	0	0,0%
nature	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)		(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)			(+)			21	87,5%	0	0,0%
basics															0	0,0%	14	56,3%
fun		(+)		(+)		(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)			(+)			0	0,0%	12	50,0%
information	(+)			(+)											2	8,3%	3	12,5%
culture	(+)			(+)											1	4,2%	6	25,0%
FC															3	12,5%	2	8,3%
OI															0	0,0%	11	45,8%

Education levels

	Portuguese		Foreigner		youngest		mid-aged		oldest		male		female		Urban		Calm		Active		Simplists		medium		high		%		
	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high	low	high			
pleasant	(+)										(+)												6	26,1%	0	0,0%			
calm																							1	4,3%	0	0,0%			
simple	(+)				(+)						(+)		(+)										12	52,2%	0	0,0%	7	28,0%	
similar	(+)				(+)					(-)	(+)		(-)										10	43,5%	0	0,0%	6	26,1%	
nature					(-)					(-)			(-)										0	0,0%	2	8,7%	11	47,8%	
basics	(+)				(-)					(-)			(-)										5	21,7%	0	0,0%	5	21,7%	
fun	(+)										(+)		(+)										9	39,1%	0	0,0%	1	4,3%	
information	(+)												(-)										7	30,4%	1	4,3%	6	26,1%	
culture																							0	0,0%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	
FC	(+)				(+)																		4	17,4%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%	
OI	(+)				(-)						(+)												9	39,1%	1	4,3%	3	13,0%	
																										1	4,3%	2	8,7%

APPENDIX I

**Calculation of (approximate) “Importance Scores” for
all independent variables**

variables	n° holistic effects		n° overall diff	degree of confirmation of image variables with differences											average confirmation
	n°	%		V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	
Regions	3	1,00	6	0,74	0,7	0,61	0,52	0,82	0,74	0,57	0,35	0,22		0,59	
Season	2	0,67	7	0,42	0,46	0,58	0,58	0,42	0,5	0,5	0,25	0,38		0,45	
Purpose of Visit	3	1,00	3	0,09	0,65	0,26	0,35	0,17	0,22					0,29	
Benefit Segment	3	1,00	8	0,32	0,73	0,68	0,68	1	1	0,96	0,91	0,91	0,86	0,80	
Length of Stay	2	0,67	7	0,5	0,88	0,67	0,63	0,92	0,46	0,46	0,33	0,42		0,59	
Repeat Visit	0	0,00	3	0,67	0,68	1								0,78	
Portuguese-Foreign	1	0,33	6	0,75	0,96	0,96	0,88	0,58	0,5	0,46				0,73	
Age	3	1,00	5	0,40	0,74	0,78	0,44	0,44	0,3	0,39	0,61			0,46	
Gender	1	0,33	3	0,42	0,5	0,25	0,42							0,40	
Education	2	0,67	6	0,28	0,52	0,48	0,22	0,39	0,3	0,17	0,39			0,31	

impacts on overall pattern *

relevant impacts on other indep.variables	impacts on overall pattern *		relevant impacts		total	importance score	%	importance (importance score)	total
	total possible	%	suffered	total possible					
19	27	0,70	13	23	0,69	0,43	0,57	0,43	Benefit Segment 0,88
6	18	0,33	14	24	0,55	0,42	0,58	0,42	Regions 0,69
14	27	0,52	22	23	0,45	0,04	0,96	0,04	Length of Stay 0,66
29	36	0,81	4	22	0,88	0,82	0,18	0,82	Portuguese-Foreign 0,64
10	18	0,56	9	24	0,66	0,63	0,38	0,63	Age 0,58
10	18	0,56	14	24	0,43	0,42	0,58	0,42	Season 0,55
13	18	0,72	8	24	0,64	0,67	0,33	0,67	Education 0,49
14	27	0,52	16	23	0,58	0,30	0,70	0,30	Purpose of Visit 0,45
5	18	0,28	15	24	0,35	0,38	0,63	0,38	Repeat Visit 0,43
12	27	0,44	17	23	0,49	0,26	0,74	0,26	Gender 0,35

* relevant impacts on overall pattern identified as follows:
at least 50% change in pattern (differences suppressed or added)