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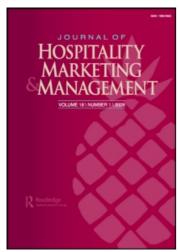
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Destination Image: A Meta-Analysis of 2000-2007 Research

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Destination Image: A Meta-Analysis of 2000–2007 Research

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Determining destination image is a complex task, and the construct is often subjectively assessed. No standardized system of analysis exists to determine destination image and its related components, resulting in a variety of techniques and strategies being used. This study provides a comprehensive review of conceptual and empirical research on destination image published between January 2000 and October 2007 with the aim of identifying current and emerging trends in the area of destination image studies. Meta-analysis of 152 articles that discuss various strategies for destination image assessment summarizes the state of destination image research and examines new destination image assessment approaches. The findings are contrasted to earlier destination image reviews where appropriate.

KEYWORDS Destination image, destination image measurement, meta-analysis

INTRODUCTION

Destination image (DI) research has been one of the major areas in tourism scholarly inquiry for more than three decades due to its high practical

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importance for destination management, marketing, and branding. To be successfully promoted in a particular market, "a destination must be favorably differentiated from its competition, or positively positioned, in the minds of the consumers" (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003, p. 37). A desirable differentiation and positioning is often achieved by destination marketing organizations (DMOs) creating and managing the perceptions, or images, that potential travelers hold about the destination. Thus, studying DIs help DMOs to better understand how to control existing DIs, to repair damage inflicted by negative events occurring at a destination, and, ultimately, to project desirable images of the destination in economically important markets.

The marketing policies of DMOs largely depend on knowledge of how the destination is perceived by potential visitors. Intelligent decisions are often impossible to make without a solid understanding of what consumers desire in a destination. Moreover, in the global competitive tourist market-place, consumers have almost unlimited choices with respect to where they want to go. Travel decision-making is not entirely rational and economically motivated: as has been suggested, people act on their perceptions rather than on facts (Boulding, 1956; Chon, 1990). Motivations, interests, cultural background, emotional state, self-image, and a plethora of other factors are of importance in the consumer travel decision-making process and intertwined with the image that people have about a particular destination.

The concept of DI was introduced into tourism studies in the early 1970s by Hunt (1975), Gunn (1972), and Mayo (1973), and has since become one of the most researched topics in tourism-related research. Since then, several studies provided an overview of DI articles in order to help researchers better navigate the field (Chon, 1990; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Gallarza, Saura, & Garcia, 2002; Pike, 2002; Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007a). These meta-analyses surveyed the body of literature on DI along the following streams of research: conceptualization and dimensions of the DI construct (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Gallarza et al., 2002; Tasci et al., 2007a); assessment and measurement of DI (Chon, 1990; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Gallarza et al., 2002; Pike, 2002; Tasci et al., 2007a); formation and change of image (Chon, 1990; Gallarza et al., 2002; Tasci et al., 2007a); influence of distance on DI (Gallarza et al., 2002); role of residents in DI studies (Gallarza et al., 2007a); and relationship of DI and traveler satisfaction with travel (Chon, 1990).

Previous meta-studies noted that heterogeneous, complex, and dynamic nature of the image concept led to multiple definitions of DI, variability with conceptualization of the DI construct, and various and inconsistent measurement approaches. Theoretical soundness of the DI construct, its measurement approaches, and usefulness to practical applications, especially in the area of destination management, has also been questioned (Tasci, 2007; Tasci et al., 2007a). Given this background, the current study attempts to summarize recent literature on DI studies to help tourism

researchers and marketers understand the current state of knowledge on the subject. As the discipline moves forward, it is imperative to catalogue and examine past work in the field to avoid duplication of efforts and to more streamline research efforts in order to consistently provide cuttingedge knowledge on DI. To this end, this study surveys and meta-analyzes the most current research on DI and its measurement in order to identify major topics and emerging trends in this line of scholarly inquiry, contrast findings against earlier DI reviews where appropriate, and to suggest future research directions for DI researchers.

STUDY BACKGROUND

DI Construct

Before the concept of "image" gained wide recognition in tourism research, it had been studied for several decades in such disciplines as social and environmental psychology (Fridgen, 1987), marketing (Assael, 1984), and consumer behavior (Boulding, 1956; Herzog, 1963). As most scholars agree, the DI construct has at least two distinctive dimensions—rational and emotional (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). The rational, or cognitive, element refers to all knowledge, perceptions, and beliefs that potential travelers hold about a destination and interprets image as a set of relevant attributes. Gensch (1978) stated that "products seldom are measured or evaluated as single lump sum entities; rather, it is the attributes of the alternatives that are measured, compared, and form the basis for choice" (cited in Gartner, 1986, p. 636). Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1986) shared this view, asserting that image is the consumer's subjective perceptions that take into account how an alternative performs on key evaluative criteria. Emotional, or affective, element of DI refers to consumers' feelings about a destination, which can be favorable, unfavorable, or neutral. Baloglu and McCleary (1999) provide a review of research which supports the view that cognitive and affective elements are interrelated, with affect being largely dependent on cognition. However, Russell and Snodgrass (1987, p. 246) argue that the affective component should be separated from the cognitive element of DI to better understand how people evaluate environments or places: "behavior may be influenced by the (estimated, perceived, or remembered) affective quality of an environment rather than by its objective properties directly." Researchers also recognize that there is an association between DI and how travelers act toward a destination on the basis of the cognition and affect. Some researchers conceptualize this association as a behavioral, or conative, component of DI (Gartner, 1993; Pike & Ryan, 2004), which is a likelihood of destination selection, or brand purchase, and can be interpreted as a propensity to visit a destination within a certain time frame. The three elements of DI, as well as its overall, or gestalt, impression

are what Gallarza and her colleagues referred to as the complexity of the DI construct (Gallarza et al., 2002).

The continuing discussion on what DI truly is and how it should be conceptualized has generated a whole list of definitions (Echner & Ritchie, 1991; Tasci et al., 2007a), which, after more than three decades of research, signaled a lack of consensus among scholars due to the complexity, subjectivity, and elusive nature of the concept. Echtner and Ritchie (1991, 1993) proposed a somewhat unique conceptualization of the DI construct based on an extensive review of literature for the period of 1975-1990. These authors proposed that DI should be envisioned as consisting of two main components—those that are attribute-based and those that are holistic. Each of these DI components contains functional, or more tangible, and psychological, or more abstract, characteristics. Moreover, images of destinations can also range from those based on "common" functional and psychological traits to those based on more distinctive or even unique features, events, feelings or auras. Echtner and Ritchie's approach recognizes both cognitive and affective components of DI and is consistent with MacKay and Fesenmaier's (1997, p. 538) view that "a destination image is a composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression."

Another aspect of DI is its relativistic and dynamic nature: images change from person to person, with time, depending on destination proximity to potential traveler, and with respect to other destinations (Gallarza et al., 2002). People who are more knowledgeable about a destination tend to have more favorable images of it (Baloglu, 2001; Crompton, 1979). Thus, familiarity represents a key marketing variable in segmenting and targeting potential visitors (Baloglu, 2001). Research has also found that images at different time points, such as pre- and postvisitation images, differ (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Pearce, 1982; Phelps, 1986). With regards to the destination positioning, potential travelers perceive a destination with respect to other destinations (Ahmed, 1991; Calantone, Benedetto, Hakam, & Bojanic, 1989). Markets that are closer to the destination have more detailed images than geographically distant markets: the greater the distance, the more distorted the reality becomes (Gartner, 1993). The dependency of DI on distances is particularly pertinent for practitioners, since it regulates the level of detail required in projecting desirable images, as well as managing distorted or negative images (Kale & Weir, 1986). It should be noted that image formation occurs through various agents, whose detailed typology from the perspective of their influence and credibility was given by Gartner (1993). As Gartner argues, more credible agents are those that do not have a vested interest in promoting a destination, examples are general print and television media, documentaries, travel guides, and books, as well as word-of-mouth, which are collectively referred to as organic information sources.

DI Measurement

The measurement of a phenomenon is greatly affected by how it is conceptualized; thus, it is not surprising that various aspects of the DI construct are measured using different instruments. Image research has greatly benefited from the advancements of data handling methodology and introduction of such techniques as factor analysis, discriminant analysis, multidimensional scaling, correspondence analysis, perceptual maps, conjoint analysis, etc., to image assessment (Mazanec, 1994). Gallarza et al. (2002) noted that multivariate information reduction techniques, such as factor analysis methods, predominate, since they allow for the identification of latent dimensions of the DI construct through data reduction. According to Pike (2002), the majority of studies favored measuring the cognitive DI component by using Likert-type scales. There are much fewer studies which measured the affective component using semantic differential scales, as did Baloglu and Brinberg (1997), and even fewer measuring both components in the same study as did Pike and Ryan (2004). The rationale being that cognition, affect, and conation require separate measurement scales (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999), and surveys incorporating all three components can be burdensome for respondents. The prevalence of quantitative studies over qualitative ones (Jenkins, 1999; Pike, 2002), with the latter being typically more time consuming and costly, also contributed to the cognitive component of DI receiving more attention. Echtner and Ritchie (1993) were the early proponents of using qualitative methodologies as part of assessing holistic components of DI; however, previous metastudies found that there are still too few studies which employ qualitative approaches not for instrument development or as a part of Echtner and Ritchie's (1993) framework but as the main technique. Large bodies of data and the demanding nature of analysis associated with qualitative studies led researchers to compromise continuously on sample sizes; this practice was cited as one of the major shortcomings of qualitative image research (Tasci et al., 2007a).

METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

Articles on DI published during the period January 2000–October 2007 were collected. The choice of the starting point ensured that the absolute majority of the selected studies had not been included in reviews by Pike (2002) and Gallarza et al. (2002). Integrated computer databases Hospitality and Tourism Complete, Web of Science, Business Source Premier, and Social Sciences Abstracts/Full Texts were searched to identify relevant research in both tourism and nontourism journals. Search terms included keywords

"destination," "image," "perception," "branding," "marketing" and their combinations. Several criteria were applied to the collected articles. First, only full-length academic articles and research notes were selected: editor's comments, reader's comments, book reviews, and industry publications were excluded to minimize the variance within the sample. Second, articles were included in the sample if they appeared in tourism and hospitality academic journals adhering to a double-blind review. Third, research on DI published in nontourism journals in the selected time period was also included to broaden the perspectives of the study. Finally, due to the complex nature of image, the search procedure inevitably resulted in a number of studies tagged with "destination image" keyword in the databases, but which primary focus was not DI assessment. Articles which investigated DI under the name of destination perception or destination attractiveness and/or in conjunction with related constructs such as branding or sense of place were included in the sample. However, articles that assessed a single destination attribute, for example, price or value for money, were excluded, because they usually had a narrower focus (Tasci et al., 2007a).

The procedure resulted in a sample of 152 articles: 137 articles were published in the hospitality and tourism journals, and 15 appeared in business, marketing, and sociology journals (see Table 1). The largest number of articles, 29, was published in *Tourism Management* journal, followed by *Annals of Tourism Research* with 18 articles. *Journal of Travel Research, Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, and *Journal of Vacation Marketing* each had 17, 16, and 13 articles, respectively. The largest number of articles, 32, 27, and 31 were published in years 2005, 2006, and 2007, respectively. It was also determined how much the obtained sample overlapped with samples from the previous DI reviews. Out of 152 papers used in this study, 5, 0, and 14 papers were reviewed by Pike (2002), Gallarza et al. (2002), and Tasci et al. (2007a), respectively. This overlap was not regarded as a problem, since the focus of analysis differed from those of the previous reviews.

Data Analysis

In the meta-analysis of a large number of studies in a particular field either a quantitative or a qualitative approach will dominate (J. E. Hunter, Schmidt, & Jackson, 1982). The former is geared towards comparing the studies by tabulating them into selected categories and then aggregating through any single category (e.g., Pike, 2002). The latter, while following the same classification procedure, is more interpretive than aggregative (Paterson, Thorne, Canam, & Jilings, 2001). Reviews by Gallarza et al. (2002) and Tasci et al. (2007a) are examples of a meta-analysis with a dominating qualitative component. This meta-analysis lies within the second, more qualitatively oriented, paradigm,

TABLE 1 Sample Articles by Publication Source

Hospitality & tourism journal	N	Non-tourism journal	N
Tourism Management	29	Journal of International Consumer Marketing	2
Annals of Tourism Research	18	Brand Management	1
Journal of Travel Research	17	Discourse & Society	1
Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing	16	International Journal of Consumer Studies	1
Journal of Vacation Marketing	13	International Journal of Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Marketing	1
Tourism Analysis	13	International Planning Studies	1
Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing	6	Journal of Business Research	1
Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism	4	Journal of Communication Inquiry	1
Tourism Review International	4	Journal of Sport Management	1
Information Technology and Tourism	3	Services Marketing Quarterly	1
Tourism Review	3	Sport Management Review	1
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research	2	The Journal of Services Marketing	1
Journal of Leisure Research	2	The Service Industries Journal	1
Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	1	Urban Studies	1
Cornell Quarterly	1	Total Non-tourism	15
Current Issues in Tourism	1		
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	1		
Journal of Convention and Event Tourism	1		
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	1		
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	1		
Total Hospitality & Tourism	137	Total	152

and it follows the approach proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994), which emphasizes three flows of analytical activity: data reduction, data display, and verification of the data.

At the data reduction stage, a content analysis technique of establishing categories and classifying a particular article into those categories was adopted (Baloglu & Assante, 1999). Categories were defined as areas of DI research where new trends are likely to emerge. Based on the literature review, it was initially proposed that these areas are: research focus, theoretical foundations, conceptualization of DI construct, geographical scope, methodologies employed, and destination management policies (e.g., positioning or promotion). To refine the set of categories, 63 articles (\sim 40% of the sample) were first speed read and tabulated. For representativeness of the issue scope, these 63 articles were taken from *Annals of Tourism*

Research, Journal of Travel Research, and Tourism Management journals, as these tourism journals are, respectively, predominantly conceptually, methodologically, and practically oriented. Speed reading consisted of reading the abstract, first paragraph, and as much text from relevant sections as needed for tabulating the article in predetermined categories (Crawford-Welch & McCleary, 1992). Data collection and data reduction were not considered as detached, disconnected phases of the analytical procedure but rather as a continuous process of data analysis (Y. Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007). Such a methodological approach allowed tabulation and visualization of data at the early stage of the research, and initial tentative formulation of the prevalent themes and emerging trends in DI research. Tabulation of the subsequent articles allowed further development of the classification categories and, consequently, verification of the findings.

As a result of this multistage analytical process, all sample articles were tabulated along several perspectives. If an article sought to develop an indepth understanding of concepts by building on existing knowledge, the article was considered conceptual. Conversely, if an article tested original research or theory by employing human subjects or textual samples and statistical techniques, it was classified as empirical. The conceptual versus empirical dichotomy signals in what areas, theoretical or methodological, new trends might appear. Soon into the analysis it became clear that a new category "conceptual/empirical" was needed, because a number of articles proposed a theoretical model of the DI construct and further tested it empirically. Theoretical foundations of all articles were examined to get a scope of perspectives from which the DI construct had been studied. Empirical and conceptual/empirical articles were further classified into quantitative versus qualitative streams based on predominant methodologies. Articles employing qualitative approaches were sorted by type and source of data collected and methods of analysis. Statistical methods employed in quantitative studies were also tabulated. Research that used online surveys as a data collection technique or used web-based texts or visuals was organized into a separate category. The scope of the DI research was also considered from a geographical perspective, as well as took into account what destination entity (e.g., country, town, or heritage site) was the object of DI study. Figure 1 illustrates the flow of analysis and lists identified current and emerging trends which are discussed next.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Interdisciplinary Studies Lead the Way

Several streams of research were identified with respect to a broader context in which the DI concept has been placed. These are as follows: sociocultural (e.g., Andsager & Drzewiecka, 2002; Kokosalakis, Bagnall, Selby, & Burns,

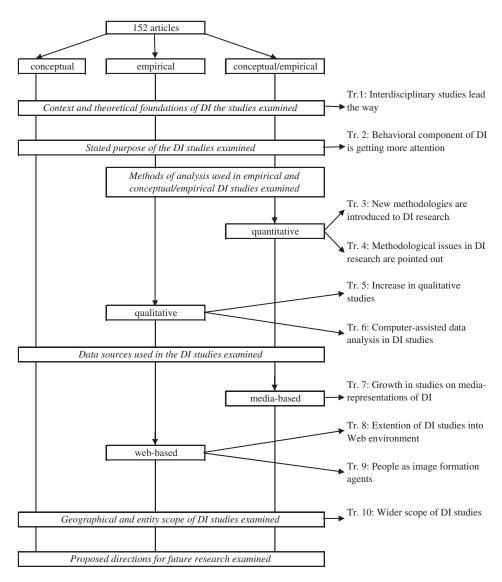


FIGURE 1 Data analysis flow chart.

2006); general media and communications (e.g., Frost, 2006; Mercille, 2005); consumer behavior (e.g., Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007); and marketing (e.g., Ahmed, Sohail, Myers, & Chan Pui, 2006; Cai, 2002; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). The business and economic perspective was represented by research on competitiveness (e.g., Bahar & Kozak, 2007) and product-country images (C. W. Lee, Suh, & Moon, 2001; Mitteistaedt, Hopkins, Raymond, & Duke, 2004). Studies on the images of nature (Stamou & Paraskevolpoulos, 2004) and on enhancement of DI and competitiveness by sound environmental practices (Hu & Wall, 2005) provided an environmental viewpoint on DI.

The sociological aspect with the focus on the sense of place and politics of place was represented by the studies of Stokowski (2002) and D. R. Williams (2002). This trend of examining DI in a wide multidisciplinary framework is likely to continue, given the complexity and multidimensionality of the construct. Research extensions into related disciplines allow for a broader perspective in a search for conceptual approaches and methodologies to solidify the knowledge of the DI construct and create methods for its measurement. In subsequent sections, a discussion is developed with respect to four streams of interdisciplinary DI research: sociocultural studies, media studies, studies on DI and self-concept, and image management policies. (See Trend 1 in Figure 1, "Interdisciplinary studies lead the way").

SOCIOCULTURAL STUDIES

A number of studies explore DI within a sociocultural context. Andsager and Drzewiecka (2002) estimated DI in terms of familiarity and desirability, and whether stereotypes influence interpretation. Familiarity was considered with reference to the concept of "other" that represented less known cultures. This theme was further developed by Bandyopadhyay and Morais (2005) with respect to Third World destinations. Research by Dewar, Li, and Davis (2007) concluded that the novel and the unfamiliar are largely determined by the cultural background of potential travelers. A growing numbers of developing countries and regions within countries enter the tourism market and compete for visitors (see section Geographical Scope). Whether these destinations should maintain their "otherness" and attract potential tourists by exoticism, serenity, pristine nature, or employ a more realistic representation of current tourist conditions is an area of significant debate (W. C. Hunter & Suh, 2007; Garcia, Saura, Garcia, & Gallarza, 2004; Oliver, 2003; Prebensen, 2007; Prideaux, Agrusa, Donlon, & Curran, 2004; Pritchard & Morgan, 2001; Therkelsen, 2003; Xiao & Mair, 2006). The notion of familiarity needs to be further explored and expanded in scales designed to measure aspects of DIs; models of tourism imagery that underscore familiarity call for refinement. Future research on familiarity also should incorporate potential tourists with a more diverse background and examine how tourism imagery reflects "realistic" DIs (Andsager & Drzewiecka, 2002; Prentice, 2004; Prentice & Andersen, 2003).

A group of studies considered DI from a cross-cultural perspective and raised the issue of meaning plurality (Bonn, Joseph, & Dai, 2005; Kozak, Bigne, Gonzales, & Andreu, 2003; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000; Therkelsen, 2003). How do potential travelers from culturally different target markets decode media and marketing messages about DI? Does DI have a core which perception is shared by people of various cultural backgrounds? Therkelsen (2003) considers destinations as culture-bound products; these

products have associations and meanings in the minds of potential visitors, and these meanings are impacted by the cultural backgrounds of potential visitors. Therkelsen (2003, p. 134) argues that a "tourism destination may generate certain internationally shared meanings which can constitute a standardized platform from which a culturally differentiated market communication can take its point of departure." The same concern of meaning plurality was addressed from a branding perspective by Murphy, Benckendorff, and Moscardo (2007). These scholars point out that much of the discussion on destination branding implies a single brand personality profile for a destination; little consideration has been given to possible implications of destination marketing to a range of distinctive market segments. Thus, cultural plurality is one of the future research directions in DI research, since it has direct practical relevance: limited marketing resources can be allocated to those markets for which there is a positive destination perception and strong self-congruence (see DI and Self-Concept).

MEDIA STUDIES

There is an age-old and still ongoing debate over whether mass media create public opinion, attitudes, and perceptions, or reflect existing attitudes, perceptions and culture. Most media researchers agree that, with limitations, mass media do both (Newbold, Boyd-Barrett, & Van Den Bulck, 2002). Studies of media communication content conducted by social scientists reveal that data derived from media messages correlate with other indicators obtained independently (Neuendorf, 2002). The influence of mass media on audiences has been extensively studied within a mass media effects research tradition (Hall, 1980), which utilizes a whole range of methodologies, including uses and gratifications approaches, reception analysis, and cultural studies, as well as empirical and critical methods (Mercille, 2005). Urry (1990, p. 3) contended that the tourist gaze "is constructed and sustained through a variety of non-tourist practices, such as film, TV, literature, magazines, records, and videos." Research that investigates how DI is manifested through media content and affects public perceptions of places has been growing in body and sophistication (Bandyopadhyay & Morais, 2005; Dore & Crouch, 2003; Frost, 2006; Hill, 2003; Hudson & Ritchie, 2006; H. Kim & Richardson, 2003; Mercille, 2005; Sadler & Haskins, 2005; Xiao & Mair, 2006).

Bandyopadhyay and Morais (2005) examined the differences between ways in which India is represented in American tourism media and by the Indian government; differences in the two representations were found, reflecting the colonial nature of international tourism. Xiao and Maio (2006), building upon the contexts of postcolonial representation of the other, analyzed the images of China projected by representational narratives published in major English newspapers; the researchers suggested that the images

observed in the media should be checked against the perceptions of reading public. This view was adopted by Mercille (2005), who used a theoretical framework of effects research provided by Hall (1980) and compared media productions consulted by tourists to Tibet with tourists' perceptions of the region; medium to strong congruence was found between media representations and perceived DIs. Four studies in the surveyed pool of articles focused on motion pictures as sources of DI formation. The influence of a film on DI was examined by Frost (2006) from historical and authenticity perspectives focusing on how the film can be instrumental in promoting heritage tourism. Hudson and Ritchie (2006) presented a multifactor conceptual framework for understanding the film tourism phenomenon; the framework was further tested in a case study. H. Kim and Richardson (2003) studied the motion picture impacts on DIs; the conceptual framework introduced the notion of vicarious experience through empathy. Sadler and Haskins (2005) examined depictions of New York in five TV shows; the analysis was grounded in critical urban studies, film theory, semiotics, and critical ethnography. Hill (2003) as well as Mercille (2005) point out that consumers are capable of active interpretations of media content (Fiske, 1989); therefore, in order to understand the effects of media, researchers need to investigate audience interpretations of media messages with respect to the motives, interests, and values that audiences bring (Hill, 2003).

DI AND SELF-CONCEPT

The meta-analysis found that the relationship between DI and personal selfconcept, as well as the influence of this relationship on destination choice, has been attracting significant interest from DI researchers (Beerli et al., 2007; Carden, 2006; Kastenholz, 2004; Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo, 2007; Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007; Sirgy & Su, 2000); the notion is often termed as destination-self-congruity (Kastenholz, 2004). Congruity is a match between tourist's self-concept, i.e., his or her actual, ideal, and social self-image, and perceived DI. Conceptual article by Sirgy and Su (2000) proposed an integrative model of DI, self-congruity, and travel behavior and was followed by a number of empirical studies. Research indicates that the greater the agreement between a DI and one's self-concept, the greater the tendency for one to visit that place (e.g., Kastenholz, 2004; Beerli et al., 2007); the results are in support of findings in a larger marketing literature on self-concept, brand personality, and brand-purchase (Sirgy, 1982). Studying the congruity of images brings DI research closer to the field of branding research, which postulates that brands should appeal to consumers on a personal level, and that the personalities of potential customers and product brands should match (Aaker, 1996).

According to Kastenholz (2004), operationalization of destination-self-congruity and its effect on destination choice requires further study with

respect to different types of self-image, groups of tourists, and previous experience with destination. Beerli et al. (2007) outline such venues of further destination-self-congruity research as influence of social and ideal-social identities in the image agreement mechanism; comparative measurement of the different self-congruities for various destination; factors that act as moderators in the mechanism of self-congruity; and the influence of self-congruity on such marketing outcomes as destination loyalty and willingness to recommend. Beerli et al. (2007) also note the connection between personality and emotions and posit a chain of questions to researchers, one of them being "How does emotional involvement influence congruity?"

As was already mentioned, DI is studied with connections to personality and emotions. Carden (2006) argues that tourists' self-concept induced by emotions has helped to sustain Route 66 as a tourist destination for eight decades by guiding the rebranding efforts in successive time periods. Carden (2006) points out the role that destination-self-congruity plays in perception and selection of tourist destinations and that the link is especially relevant to development of sustainable and fiscally attractive heritage tourism. Prideaux et al. (2004) discuss the practices of the tourism industry to form DIs by using sex and sexuality as powerful human emotions and examines the potential for image confusion when "exotic" and "erotic" are used next to each other in DI promotional efforts. Trauer and Ryan (2005) build upon the concept of intimacy (Piorkowski & Cardone, 2000), utilizing the notions of self- and other-centeredness in personal relationships and extending the latter concept to travel environments; the researchers argue that travel should reflect one's personal essence, since people put into travel one of their most valuable resources—free time.

C. J. White and Scandale (2005), as well as Yuksel and Akgul (2005) investigated the role the personal emotions played in influencing destination visitation intentions. C. J. White and Scandale (2005) found a linear relationship between a cognitive component of DI, positive emotions and visitation intentions and suggest that researchers further investigate whether similar patterns of emotions and cognitions occur between respondents of various nationalities and from different marketing segments, as, for example, leisure and business travelers. Yuksel and Akgul (2005) recommend a large-scale study to establish which emotions most strongly affect the attitude toward destination.

DI AND POSITIONING, MARKETING, AND BRANDING

DI management policies (Gallarza et al., 2002) are a topic of high practical relevance in DI research, which was confirmed by a large number of studies that investigated DI in a management context. Surveyed articles

addressed the issues of destination positioning analysis (J. S. Chen & Uysal, 2002; Dolnicar & Grabler, 2004; Kanso, 2005; S. S. Kim, Chun, & Petrick, 2005; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Puczko, Ratz, & Smith, 2007; Uysal, Chen, & D. R. Williams, 2000), destination competitiveness (Bahar & Kozak, 2007; Hsu, Wolfe, & Kang, 2004; Kang, Suh, & Jo, 2005; Uysal et al., 2000), marketing strategies (Ahmed et al., 2006; Pritchard & Morgan, 2001; Tasci & Gartner, 2007; Y. Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007), market segmentation (Huh, Uysal, & McCleary, 2006; Leisen, 2001; Obenour, Groves, & Lengfelder; 2006; Obenour, Lengfelder, & Groves, 2005), promotion (Govers, Go, & Kumar, 2007a; Hudson & Ritchie, 2006; Puczko, Ratz, & Smith, 2007; Shukla, Brown, & Harper, 2006; Therkelsen, 2003), and branding (Ooi, 2004; Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007b; Tasci & Holecek, 2003; Tasci & Kozak, 2006). The studies drew on developments from services marketing literature, consumer behavior, consumption value theory, brand equity area, and spreading activation theory; the list is not exhaustive.

A number of studies have considered DI from a branding perspective applying branding theories to tourism places (e.g., Bagaeen, 2007; Cai, 2002; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Henderson, 2007; Hankinson, 2004; Hanlan & Kelly, 2005; Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006; Konecnic, 2004; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007). Although place branding is a relatively new concept, there is a general agreement among academics and practitioners that places can be branded in much the same way as consumer goods and services (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). Destination brands, similar to product brands, are now considered not as mere identifiers, but rather as independent bodies that want to occupy a place in the mind of the consumer (Morgan & Pritchard, 2001). However, despite the similarity between destination branding and product branding, the former is more complicated because of its multifunctional nature and relevance for diverse groups of stakeholders—tourists, investors, and residents (Ooi, 2004). Tasci and Kozak (2006) analyze the construct of destination brand versus that of DI and provide a conceptual model of brand equity, arguing that DI contributes to developing destination brand and its success with potential visitors. These scholars conclude that researchers and practitioners are inconsistent in defining the destination brand and its conceptual relationship with DI.

Several suggestions have been made with respect to future research directions on the branding perspective of DI. Konecnic and Gartner (2007) raise a question whether techniques for customer-based brand evaluations can be transferred to the destination level. Murphy et al. (2007) as well as Hosany, Ekinci, and Uysal (2006) point out that traditional product brand personality model (Aaker, 1997) does not translate well to the travel destination context and recommend development of a valid and reliable personality model specifically for tourism destinations. Moreover, the link between

brand personality and destination choice needs to be evaluated with attention paid to a direct impact of self-congruity on tourist's choice behavior (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006).

Behavioral Component of DI

This section discusses the second identified trend in modern DI studies, which is labeled "Behavioral component of DI is getting more attention" in Figure 1. Review by Chon (1990) found that DI and its influence on satisfaction and travel behavior is a topic of considerable interest in tourism studies. However, the "DI and behavior" research perspective has not been explicitly addressed in the later reviews. The meta-analysis has registered that the behavioral aspect of DI research has been getting increased attention: 27 studies examined it under names of purchase behavior (Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001; Bigne, Garcia, & Blas, 2005), travel behavior (Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2007; Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Leong, 2003; Sirgy & Su, 2000), destination choice (Beerli et al., 2007; Govers & Go, 2003; Hong, Kim, Jang, & Lee, 2006; C.-H. Lin, Morais, Kerstetter, & Hou, 2007; Mazanec & Strasser, 2007; Molina & Esteban, 2006; Perdue & Fang, 2006; Sirakaya, Sonmez, & Choi, 2001; Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002), behavioral/visitation intentions, propensity to visit (C.-F. Chen & Tsai, 2007; Hallab & Kyungmi, 2005; Hill, 2003; C.-K. Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005; Y.-H. Lin et al., 2006; Phillips & Jang, 2007; C. J. White & Scandale, 2005), intention to recommend (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006), and loyalty (Cai, Wu, & Bai, 2004). A number of studies examined how the DI perceptions relate to motivations to visit a destination (Correia & Crouch, 2003; Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo, 2007; Poria, Reichel, & Biran, 2006; Yuksel & Akgul, 2007), and impact of visitation on DI was examined by Tasci (2006). The DI research involving the behavioral perspective builds on theories of consumer behavior, cognitive psychology, and services marketing literature; it also involves personality theories and previous research on emotions.

There is still no consensus as to what methodologies are most appropriate for measurement of the behavioral aspect of DI: latest empirical research has employed such techniques as factor analysis (e.g., Govers & Go, 2003; Hallab & Kyungmi, 2005; C.-H. Lin et al., 2007); multidimensional scaling (e.g., Hong et al., 2006); regression analysis (e.g., Molina & Esteban, 2006; Phillips & Jang, 2007); and cluster analysis (e.g., Castro et al., 2007). A study by Govers and Go (2003) demonstrates that DI research that focuses on the multiattribute operationalization of the DI construct is inadequate in predicting destination choice behavior. Causal relationships between DI and tourist's behavior begin to be studied with such methodological approaches as path analysis (e.g., Bigne et al., 2005) and SEM (e.g., C.-F. Chen & Tsai, 2007). Sirgy and Su (2000), in a theoretical and integrative piece, proposed a conceptual model of DI, self-congruity, and

travel behavior; the model specified relationships between destination environment, DI, tourists' self-concept, self-congruity, functional congruity, and travel behavior. Studies that followed proposed models that, besides DI and travel behavior, included a number of related constructs and tested these models with the SEM technique (see section *New Methodologies in DI Research*). Further research should examine what are the most appropriate methods to assess various aspects of the "DI-tourist behavior" relationship (Tasci, 2007).

Quantitative Aspect of DI Research

The next two sections discuss Trend 3 (New methodologies are introduced to DI research) and Trend 4 (Methodological issues in DI research are pointed out) in Figure 1.

NEW METHODOLOGIES IN DI RESEARCH

Having advanced into social, cultural, and behavioral studies, DI research has also employed methodologies accepted in these areas of scientific inquiry. It is especially noticeable with the growing number of applications of the structural equation modeling (SEM) and path analysis approaches to estimate conceptual models involving behavioral component. SEM methodology tests cause-effect relationships between DI and other constructs, and studies applying SEM were mentioned neither by Pike (2002) nor by Gallarza et al. (2007). Bigne et al. (2001) proposed and tested a model which included such constructs as DI, perceived quality, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. Bigne et al. (2005) modeled and tested the relationships between DI, service quality, satisfaction, intention to return, and willingness to recommend. Castro et al. (2005) proposed and tested several alternative SEM models involving DI, service quality, propensity to visit, intention to recommend, and tourist's satisfaction in order to evaluate the effect of DI on loyalty. C.-F. Chen and Tsai (2007) included DI and perceived value into the "quality-satisfaction-behavioral intentions" paradigm and tested it with the SEM technique. Various DI components, tourist needs, brand personality, self-congruity, overall image attitudes towards the destination, intention to visit or repeat, and satisfaction with destination were included into a model by Murphy et al. (2007). C.-K. Lee et al. (2005) tested the influence of various aspects of DI (e.g., attractions and value for money) on tourist satisfaction and of that on willingness to recommend and revisit intentions. Finally, C.-H. Lin et al. (2007) specified structural relationships between cognitive, affective, and overall image and destination preferences and tested it using SEM methodology.

Previous research recognized multidimensionality and complexity of image but applied different methods for measuring different components of DI, which was not conducive to assessing the holistic nature of the construct. Beerli and Martin (2004a, 2004b) focused on DI formation; they developed a model which explained the influence of such factors as information sources, motivations, and sociodemographic characteristics on the postvisit image of the destination and empirically validated it using the SEM technique. S. Kim and Yoon (2003) developed and tested a measurement model of DI using second-order factorial structure. Konecnic and Gartner (2007) proposed and tested using SEM a model of brand equity, which included all three main components of DI—cognitive, affective, and conative. Integrated conceptual models specifying various aspects of DI might be a better way of capturing the gestalt nature of the DI construct.

Advanced statistical methodologies in DI research also include application of techniques from marketing, economics, and natural sciences. Hong et al. (2006) used a two-stage nested multinomial logit model to study how propensity to visit a specific destination is determined. Perception-based analysis technique used for studies of choice alternatives in economics was employed by Mazanec and Strasser (2007) for differentiating between perceptions of various alternatives in tourist consideration set and by Dolnicar and Grabler (2004) for making destination positioning decisions. Voges (2006) employed a hybrid computational intelligence technique developed for estimating mechanics of natural evolution for clustering objects like perceivers of images; the researcher argued that this approach is better suites than k-clustering techniques traditionally used in segmentation studies. Applications of mentioned innovative methods are still exploratory and sparse; not enough studies involving DI have been conducted using these techniques, which makes it difficult to draw any conclusions with respect to these methods' potential. However, methodological expansion is a good sign for DI research: the broad range of approaches can be considered as a triangulation of image measurement (Kokosalakis et al., 2006; Oliver, 2003), which helps solidify knowledge of the construct.

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES IN DI RESEARCH

Concern about appropriateness of widely used methodologies for DI measurement has been raised by Deslandes, Goldsmith, Bonn, and Joseph (2006) and Tasci (2007). Deslandes and his colleagues state that scales proposed by seminal studies by Crompton (1979), Haahti and Yavas (1983), and Echtner and Ritchie (1993), as well as their numerous modifications, produce inconsistent results when applied to different destinations. Deslandes et al. (2006) strongly advocate for a standardized scale instrument (e.g., similar to the Jackson [1976] personality scale) which would provide a valid, reliable measure of DI and would permit comparisons across time, studies,

and destinations. This idea is also supported by Leisen (2001). Such a standardized DI measurement instrument is preferable for both academics and industry practitioners, since it saves time and effort in DI studies. In some cases, adequate instruments for DI research do not exist; researchers borrow instruments from other disciplines and adapt them to DI studies. Thus, Hosany, Ekinci, and Uysal (2006) have measured destination personality using the scale for consumer goods; these researchers advocate a creation of a destination specific scale, so that personality traits are representative to the destination. Moreover, Tasci (2007) convincingly argue that researchers' choice of methodologies to study DI can influence the results of DI measurement, and different data collection and analysis approaches need to be simultaneously tested to reveal potential sources of bias. The issue is particularly important, since destination management policies are often defined based on outcome of DI studies.

Sample selection and adequate response rates are crucial factors in improving data quality; increasing the inferential value of the data is always a concern in studies involving surveys, especially administered electronically (e-surveys). E-surveys have a number of advantages over paper-based questionnaires: they are cost-effective, increase speed of data collection, have a wider reach across geographical and cultural boundaries, convenient and environmentally friendly. The serious disadvantages of e-surveys are difficulties with obtaining a representative sample and the absence of a reliable method to calculate a response rate (Couper, 2000). The meta-analysis registered eight studies that employed the Internet as a data collection and/or survey distribution channel. Estimations of a response rate seem to be lower when the researchers draw a sample from a larger general population, such as, for example, members of online communities (Govers et al., 2007a, 2007b; Y.-H. Lin, Wu, & Chang, 2006) or subscribers to LISTSERV (Rezende-Parker, Morrison, & Ismail, 2003): response rate in these studies is under 4%. Response rate tends to be higher when invitations are sent to individuals to form focus groups (Byrne & Skinner, 2007) or when responses are solicited from experts (Obenour et al., 2006; Obenour et al., 2005; Tasci & Kozak, 2006); response rate in these studies is over 20%.

Recent research on e-surveying advocates using mixed-mode surveys that offer alternative response formats including e-mail-based, web-based, and the traditional pencil-and-paper methodology (Ilieva, Baron, & Healey, 2002; Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004). Another approach is proposed by MacKay and Couldwell (2004) who argue that survey design and techniques, which are more interesting and enjoyable for subjects and provide a higher level of personal involvement, increase response rate. In particular, these scholars advocate the use of personal photography, personal diaries, and similar data. MacKay and Couldwell (2004), as well as Vogt and Andereck (2003) who used personal diaries as a data source reported 95% and 71% response rates, respectively.

Qualitative Aspect of DI Research

The following two sections discuss Trends 5 (Increase in qualitative studies) and 6 (Computer-assisted data analysis in DI studies) from Figure 1. The third section deals with Trends 8 (Extension of DI studies into web environment) and 9 (People as image formation agents) seen in Figure 1.

TEXT AND IMAGERY IN DI RESEARCH

Meta-analysis identified 47 articles which used qualitative data—textual and/or pictorial materials—at a certain stage of DI research; among them 20 studies used imagery such as pictures or photographs (sometimes in addition to textual data). Nine studies used imagery as a major data source to extract projected images from promotional booklets and brochures (Espelt & Benito, 2005; Henderson, 2007; Kokosolakis et al., 2006; Pritchard & Morgan, 2001), destination websites (Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Govers & Go, 2005), postcards (Markwick, 2001), and drawings (W. C. Hunter & Suh, 2007), or analyze congruency between DIs projected by two media sources, as did Singh and Formica (2006) for web images and pictures in travel brochures. Eleven studies used imagery primarily as visual stimuli to elicit perceived DIs from respondents (Andsager & Drzewiecka, 2002; Dewar, Li, & Davis, 2007; Hem & Iversen, 2004; Jacobsen & Dann, 2003; MacKay & Couldwell, 2004; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000; Prebensen, 2007; Prentice, 2004; Son & Pearce, 2005; Xing & Chalip, 2006; Yuksel & Akgul, 2007).

A wide range of methodological approaches has been used to analyze visual data. Espelt and Benito (2005) offered a new methodology of quantitative and qualitative analysis of the images using tourist guidebooks of Girona, Spain; these researchers viewed images as social constructs and applied Dilley's (1986) approach to image classification. Markwick's (2001) analysis employed qualitative interpretations of Maltese postcards images theoretically based on the representational nature of imagery and its associated social function; the analysis was applied to tourist motivations. W. C. Hunter and Suh (2007) contextualized the *Jeju* standing stones from a cultural perspective; both qualitative and quantitative techniques were used while research progressed from field drawings to a pilot study and to a questionnaire. Due to its relative newness in tourism studies (MacKay & Couldwell, 2004), imagery analysis is less developed in comparison to analysis of structured questions and texts, and content analysis techniques used for studying text are not automatically transferable to studying imagery. Thus, research on projected imagery is currently of a more interpretive nature, drawing from cultural studies, social cognition, and social psychology and borrowing on such concepts as the self and the other. Studies that used imagery as an elicitation technique often converted participants' responses to visual stimuli to a scale format and consequently applied quantitative

techniques of image measurement (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000; Prentice, 2004; Son & Pearce, 2005; Yuksel & Akgul, 2007; Xing & Chalip, 2006). Other approaches included Q-methodology (Dewar et al., 2007), picture associations and collage techniques (Prebensen, 2007), and content analysis (Henderson, 2007; MacKay & Couldwell, 2004; Pritchard & Morgan, 2001).

Approaches for analyzing textual messages in order to measure DI traditionally borrowed from content analysis methodology developed in social sciences (Neuendorf, 2002). An accepted method is to employ sorting and categorization techniques to identify the frequencies of certain concepts, words, or people in textual materials and treat most frequent ones as variables, or dimensions, of the DI construct. Twenty-four studies used content analysis or similar technique to analyze qualitative textual data collected by researchers from open sources or generated in the research process from study participants (Andreu, Bigne, & Cooper, 2000; Andsager & Drzewiecka, 2002; Bandyopadhyay & Morais, 2005; Byrne & Skinner, 2007; Choi et al., 2007; Davidson & Yingmiao, 2005; Govers & Go, 2005; Govers et al., 2007a, 2007b; Grosspietsch, 2006; W. C. Hunter & Suh, 2007; Jacobsen & Dann, 2003; G. Lee, Cai, & O'Leary, 2006; Prentice & Andersen, 2003; Pritchard & Morgan, 2001; Ryan & Cave, 2005; Son & Pearce, 2005; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2006; Smith, 2005; Stamou & Paraskevolpoulos, 2004; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007b; Y. Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007; Xiao & Mair, 2006). Ten studies reported the use of content analysis or similar techniques at preliminary stages of research, for example, for questionnaire development (Cai, 2002; McNicol, 2004; Poria et al., 2006; Volo, 2004) or within Echtner and Ritchie's (1993) framework of measuring holistic, affective, and uniqueness images (Baloglu & Love, 2005; Grosspietsch, 2006; Hsu et al., 2004; O'Leary & Deegan, 2003; Rezende-Parker et al., 2003; C. White, 2005).

COMPUTER-AIDED TEXT ANALYSIS

Tourism researchers have been reluctant to rely on computer-aided text analysis (CATA) software: only nine studies reported use of CATA programs to deal with collected textual data. Andsager and Drzewiecka (2002) analyzed written responses of college students to stimuli from destination guidebooks using VBPro (Miller, 1993) software. The matrix of keyword co-occurrences within the cases was cluster-analyzed to determine relationships between most frequent words used by students to describe destinations. Govers and Go (2005) used CATPAC software for content analysis of texts from Dubai-based websites, as did Choi et al. (2007) in measuring the image of Macao projected by travel websites. Govers, Go, and Kumar (2007a, 2007b) utilized CATPAC to measure images of Middle Eastern destinations expressed as narratives by study subjects. To examine images of Australian cities, Ryan and Cave (2005) processed large volumes of data

obtained through qualitative interviews and constructed perceptual maps of cities' images using both CATPAC and TextSmart software. Stepchenkova and Morrison (2006) used a combination of two CATA programs, CATPAC and WORDER, to compare online travel offers of U.S. and Russian tour operators with respect to travel to Russia. Rezende-Parker et al. (2003) analyzed textual responses to open-ended questions using SPSS 10.0 to obtain frequencies of image variables. Xiao and Mair (2006) used more qualitatively-oriented Nudist Nvivo software for coding of textual material obtained from articles about China published in major English newspapers. Several other studies (e.g., Henderson, 2007; Kokosalakis et al., 2006; Ooi, 2004; Richards & Wilson, 2004) clearly involved a wealth of textual data; however, they did not report use of any CATA program, and technical details on how the qualitative data were handled are sparse.

The extremely wide range of content analysis applications makes it impossible to create a program which can support all imaginable operations for all types of content analysis. Alexa and Zuell (2000) conducted a review of 16 CATA programs and concluded that all have their strengths and weaknesses and might not support certain operations associated with content analysis in an efficient and accessible manner. This opinion is shared by Romano, Donovan, Chen, & Nunamaker (2003, p. 216): "no one [CATA] program supports the entire qualitative research life cycle, rather there are categories of software designed to support specific functions within the process." One of the ways to alleviate this lack of support is to combine "two or more different software packages for a single test analysis project in a seamless and user-friendly way" (Alexa & Zuell, 2000, p. 318). There have already been attempts to integrate several software products (e.g., Romano et al., 2003; Wickham & Woods, 2005), including that of for analyzing data typical in DI research (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2006). A comprehensive review of CATA programs with respect to their suitability to projects emblematic for tourism research, like the one provided by Mehmetoglu and Dann (2003), are desirable and will aid in a wider acceptance of CATA software. Such reviews are suggested as further research directions for advancing tourism studies which involve analysis of qualitative data.

THE INTERNET: DATA SOURCE AND IMAGE FORMATION AGENT

Travel websites, virtual travel communities, and online modes of general media and destination promotional materials can provide a wealth of information for studies of DIs, significantly shorten the data collection period, and offer data in the already digitized format, which facilitates further analysis; moreover, qualitative data lacks the complications associated with human subjects. While the meta-analysis has registered an increase in studies using text and imagery, it identified only seven studies that employed qualitative data collected on the web (Choi et al., 2007; Govers & Go, 2003, 2005;

Davidson & Yingmiao, 2005; G. Lee, Cai, & O'Leary, 2006; Singh & Formica, 2006; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2006), signaling that this resource is not sufficiently utilized by researchers. Further efforts should be made to propose methodologies for analysis of qualitative data, which would be suitable for assessing DIs, whether projected or perceived, and would allow the power of online data reach its full potential.

Traditionally, DI is viewed as having an object (a certain destination entity), and a subject, which can be a person or people who carry images and perceptions. DMOs, travel agents, and media sources are generally considered as image formation agents, while tourists or residents are seen as image receivers. However, in the digital era, the typology of image formation agents proposed by Gartner (1993) needs to be adjusted, so that it includes various online sources. Moreover, tourists themselves have unlimited opportunities for projecting DIs by sharing their travel experiences, photos, and diaries with fellow travelers or potential visitors in virtual communities, discussion forums, and personal blogs. Research suggests that potential travelers do not rely exclusively on Internet sources directly associated with destinations and tend to trust independent sources like travel blogs or portals which accumulate independent travel accounts (Y. Wang, Yu, & Fesenmaier, 2002).

Sharing personal experiences over the Internet can be seen as an amplified word-of-mouth source of DI formation, and individuals engaged in this activity as image formation agents. From a business perspective, where DMOs used to employ a business-to-consumer model with respect to communicating with potential travelers, now, with the proliferation of Internet applications, consumers more and more often see the consumer-to-consumer communicational and transactional model which does not involve any commercial intermediary in the exchange of information, goods, and services (Klooster, Go, & Baalen, 2004; Y. Wang et al., 2002). The combined effect of DI "broadcasting" by numerous visitors to a destination on DI perceptions of potential travelers and its interference with images projected by DMOs need further investigation.

Wider Scope of DI Studies

Within identified Trend 10 (Wider scope of DI studies, Figure 1), the next section deals with a geographical aspect of the analyzed DI studies; while the second section discussed nontraditional entities of modern DI research.

GEOGRAPHICAL SCOPE

With the tourism and hospitality industry on the rise, more places in various parts of the world have been emerging as travel destinations,

and this socioeconomic trend is reflected in DI research. In the 1970s most studies concentrated on North American and European countries, states, or cities, followed by research on Asian, Australasian, and Central American destinations. The prevalence of these geographical regions in DI research continued into the 1980s (Pike, 2002). Gradually, other destinations began to be studied; surveyed articles report research on Brazil (Rezende-Parker et al., 2003), China (S. Wang, Qu, & Ap, 2005; Xiao & Mair, 2006), Cuba (Garcia et al., 2004), Dubai (Bagaeen, 2007; Govers & Go, 2005; Henderson, 2006), India (Bandyopadhyay & Morais, 2005; Chaudhary, 2000), South Korea (J. S. Chen, 2001; S. S. Kim & Morrison, 2005; S. S. Kim & Petrick, 2005), Indonesia (Litvin & Ling, 2001), Lebanon (Kanso, 2005); Macao (Choi et al., 2007), Russia (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2006), Singapore (Henderson, 2006, 2007); Taiwan (Davidson & Yingmiao, 2005; Y.-H. Lin et al., 2006), Thailand (Prideaux et al., 2004; Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Brown, 2001; Vieregge, Phetkaew, Beldona, Lumsden, & DeMicco, 2007), and Turkey (Bahar & Kozak, 2007; Baloglu, 2001; Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002; Tasci, Meydan, & Cavusgil, 2006). African destinations of Kenya (Abubakar & Shanka, 2005), Nigeria (Awaritefe, 2004), and Rwanda (Grosspietsch, 2006), as well as Central Asian countries of Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan (Kantarci, 2007) and Western European destinations of Slovenia (Konecnik, 2004; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007) and city of Budapest (Puczko et al., 2007) are also represented; the list is not exhaustive.

The geographical expansion in DI image studies, first registered by Pike (2002), is an ever developing trend which is going to continue. Kotler and Gertner (2002, p. 251) pointed out that "a country's image results from its geography, history, proclamations, art and music, famous citizens and other features." Destination and country images are interrelated, overlapping constructs (Mossberg & Kleppe, 2002; Prebensen, 2005); however, to what degree destination's image is influenced by the country's image is unclear. Further developments in this area of DI studies are of significant importance, as destinations strive for a bigger share of travel market in the intensely competitive environment; not only countries or regions, but also smaller entities as national parks, heritage sites, or sea resorts should be studied from perspective of positioning and competitiveness.

NONTRADITIONAL ENTITIES OF DI RESEARCH

The results of meta-analysis suggest that the scope of DI studies has also become wider with respect to entities of DI research. The DI concept has been applied to such nontraditional destinations as theme parks (C.-H. Lin et al., 2007), national parks (Hong et al., 2006), heritage sites (Huh et al., 2006; Poria et al., 2006; Poria, Biran, & Reichel, 2007), anthropological sites (W. C. Hunter & Suh, 2007), resorts (McNicol, 2004; Perdue & Fang, 2006),

festivals (Prentice & Andersen, 2003; Li & Vogelsong, 2005), rural areas (Cai, 2002; Y. Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007), historic road routes (Carden, 2006), borderland areas (Shin, 2007), as those connected with sports events (Hill, 2003; C.-K. Lee et al., 2005; Smith, 2005; S. D. Williams & Gibson, 2004; Xing & Chalip, 2006). Top-down penetration of the DI concept is a sign that practitioners have recognized its high relevance to destination positioning, marketing and branding. However, shifting focus from traditional objects of DI research like countries to nontraditional entities brings forth a problem of potential image fragmentation. From the marketing and branding perspective, there should be cohesion in positioning various local destinations within larger entities, and, at the same time, the distinctiveness of smaller entities needs to be preserved (S. Wang et al., 2005). Research on how tourists' perceptions of "umbrella" and smaller nontraditional destinations interact and influence each other and, more importantly, visitations, is one of the future venues of DI research.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The continued growth of tourism in general and emergence of a large number of new destinations in particular provide justification for seeking evidence concerning current developments in DI research and future directions and progress of DI studies. Destination development, marketing, branding, and overall management are highly dependent on knowledge about behavior of potential visitors with respect to destination choice, which, in turn, is closely connected with DIs as perceived by tourists. Thus, advancement in understanding DI and its assessment has high practical relevance. Using 152 articles obtained from academic tourism, hospitality, business, and social sciences sources, a qualitative meta-analysis was conducted to determine current and emerging trends in the literature on DI.

The methodological limitation of the study is that only one researcher collected and tabulated the articles. While categorizing is always susceptible to the researchers' biases (Krendel, 1970), the absence of reliability checks is not desirable in research involving classification procedures. To mitigate this limitation and verify the findings, i.e. trends presented in Figure 1, the results of the meta-analysis were discussed in semistructured interviews with five academic and industry professionals and two doctoral students from a large Midwestern university, with study emphasis in DI, marketing, and branding. The outcome of the interviews generally supported the classification proposed in this article. The authors hope that these discussions as well as strict adherence to methodological recommendations in the process of article selection, tabulation, and classification to some degree alleviate the study limitation.

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