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The influence of personality traits on (factors influencing) destination image: a case study of Amsterdam, the Netherlands

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Preface

This thesis is written for the master Leisure, Tourism, and Environment at the Cultural Geography group at Wageningen University. It is an interesting read for fellow students and people who want to know more about destination image and factors influencing it.

It is more than often mentioned that a thesis is the hardest part of your master. I won't agree! Just choose a topic you are interested in, and the rest follows itself. My choice to do something with destination image was quite simple. I did my bachelor in Business- and Consumer studies and specialized in marketing. Due to personal interest, all reports in my master were somehow related to destination image. This thesis was the opportunity to deepen myself even more into this topic!

There are several people I would like to sincerely thank for their support and help.

First of all, I would like to thank my supervisor Maarten Jacobs, who gave clear feedback, but also challenged me to make the right decisions. Besides, I would like to thank my family and friends for their loving words and support the last months. A special thanks to my library-buddies, as they made working in the library fun! Finally, I would sincerely thank my boyfriend, who always cheered me up when I lost motivation, and helped me collecting 400 questionnaires in Amsterdam.

Having said this all, it is time for you to read my thesis. I hope you read it with pleasure!

Kind regards,

Sanne Westerink
Wageningen, 2017

Summary

Over the last six decades, tourism has experienced continued expansion and diversification, so that it is nowadays one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors in the world (UNWTO, 2016). Due to tourism, destinations can earn a lot of money. Therefore, more than ever before places compete with each other to attract tourists (Buhalis, 2000). *Destination image* is often used by marketers to make the right decision when it comes to planning, development, positioning, and the promotion of a destination (Tasci et al., 2007). Over the past decades destination image got much attention from tourism researchers. Today, there is a general consensus about the importance of destination image and the significant role it plays in the process of decision making, choice, and evaluation (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martín, 2004). This study used the definition of Gartner (1994) to identify destination image, and therefore it consists of three distinct but interrelated components (cognitive image, affective image, and global image). Multiple authors have examined the relation between destination image and personal characteristics, travel motivations, and information sources.

This thesis aims to expand existing knowledge about destination image, but it also goes beyond the already known variables. Therefore, the goal of this research is to include a new variable in the process of destination image formation, and to analyze how this new variable relates to the existing model. A very important and frequently studied topic within psychology and consumer behavior research is *personality* (Servidio, 2015; Yoo and Gretzel, 2011). Given the importance of personality traits in other disciplines, it is surprising that only very little research was done regarding tourism. This study connects personality traits and destination image, by investigating the relationship between personality traits and (factors influencing) destination image. A correlational design was used to test the nine hypotheses of this study. Data was collected in Amsterdam and 402 respondents form the sample size of this research.

To expand existing knowledge about destination image formation, the results of this research show that the global image is predicted by both the cognitive image and affective image, where the cognitive image also influences the affective image. Besides this, relations were found between travel motivation and the cognitive image, but not with other components of the destination image. Furthermore, social media and word-of-mouth predict most of the components of destination image, except arousal, where all other information sources do not significantly influence destination image. Finally, personal characteristics have no significant relation with destination image.

Additionally, the outcome of this research emphasizes the unimportance of personality traits regarding destination image. This indicates that personality does not affect the image of a city, and should therefore not be included in the process of destination image formation. Furthermore, it suggests that personality traits do not affect tourists behavior, which is surprisingly given the importance of personality traits on consumer behavior. Therefore, this research states that tourists are different from consumers, as personality does play a role in consumer behavior, and not in tourist behavior.

Keywords: Tourism, destination image, personality traits, travel motivation, information sources, personal characteristics, Amsterdam

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Tables and Figures

1. Introduction

"Tourism can be thought of as a whole range of individuals, businesses, organizations, and places which combine in some way to deliver a travel experience. Tourism is a multidimensional, multifaceted activity, which touches many lives and many different economic activities."

(Cooper et al, as cited in Neito, 2009, p. 46).

Over the last six decades, tourism has experienced continued expansion and diversification, so that it is nowadays one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors in the world (UNWTO, 2016). In 2015, there were almost 1,2 billion international tourist arrivals worldwide, an increase of 4.6% over the previous year. According to UNWTO's long-term forecast report *Tourism Towards 2030*, the amount of international tourist arrivals will grow even further. A 3.3% average growth is expected between 2010 and 2030, which will lead to 1.8 billion international arrivals by 2030.

Tourism accounts for more than 10% of worlds GDP, and one out of eleven jobs is within the tourism industry. Furthermore, due to tourism, destinations have earned 1,260 billion US Dollar in 2015 (UNWTO, 2016). The numbers are given to support the above mentioned definition of tourism, and to emphasize the importance of tourism worldwide.

The fact that more and more people will travel in the future, together with the corresponding (financial) benefits for destinations, make that more than ever before places compete with each other to attract tourists (Buhalis, 2000). Destinations can be seen as brands, where a strong brand can differentiate the destination from its competitors (Lim and O'Cass, 2001). In order to become and/or stay a strong brand, most destinations have a destination marketing organization (DMOs). Their task is to promote the destination, increase brand awareness, and differentiate the destination from competitors. This with the goal to establish a competitive position in the market and to attract potential visitors (Choe et al., 2016; Pike, 2017). The terms *brand image* and *destination image* are used interchangeably, since in tourism research a brand is mostly a destination. In the rest of this report, the term destination image will be used.

Destination image is often used by marketers to make the right decision when it comes to planning, development, positioning, and the promotion of a destination (Tasci et al., 2007). This is mainly because destination image has strong influence on consumer (decision) behavior, and therefore plays a huge role in the success of tourist destinations (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Agapito et al., 2013).

Over the past decades destination image got much attention from tourism researchers. Today, there is a general consensus about the importance of destination image and the significant role it plays in the process of decision making, choice, and evaluation (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martín, 2004). Hence, as far as known, destination image was only studied in the field of tourism, and only little research was done on factors influencing it.

The importance of destination image requires for more insight into the origin of a destination image. It is not only important for academic purposes to generate more knowledge, but also for destination marketers. Knowing the factors that influence destination image will help marketers to make better decision.

This thesis aims to expand existing knowledge about destination image. The literature review (Chapter 2) critically discusses existing knowledge about variables influencing destination image, but it also goes beyond the already known variables. Therefore, the goal of this research is to include a new variable in the process of destination image formation, and to analyze how this new variable relates to the existing model. To come up with a more specific aim, including the main research question, it is important to first understand the existing literature better. Due to this, the main research question is stated in paragraph 2.3.

This study makes several contributions to the destination image literature. First of all, further research is conducted in order to extend existing knowledge about factors influencing destination image. Secondly, this study aims to go beyond the existing literature by identifying and testing a new variable. Finally, this study is of great importance to marketers of the city Amsterdam, as data is collected in Amsterdam and therefore the destination image of Amsterdam is examined. Further contributions of this report are discussed in paragraph 2.3.

The remainder of this paper consists of several chapters, starting with the literature study in Chapter 2. Here, existing literature is analyzed and a new variable is introduced and critically discussed. Based on the literature a conceptual framework and corresponding hypotheses are formed. The methodology is explained in the third chapter of this research, followed by the results in Chapter 4. The final chapter, Chapter 5, consists of the conclusion and discussion, even as the practical application of the results, the limitations, and the suggestions for further research (Chapter 5).

2. Literature study and theoretical framework

The theoretical framework of this study is based on a review of scientific literature. Section 2.1 explains the concept of destination image, where section 2.2 critically discusses the existing factors influencing it. Besides, section 2.3 aims to fill a knowledge gap by introducing a new variable. Finally, section 2.4 presents the conceptual framework of this study and the corresponding hypotheses.

2.1 Destination image

Destination image is a frequently studied topic within tourism. It became a focus in the 1970s, but from the 1990s the attention rapidly increased (Tasci et al., 2007; Camprubi, 2013). This is not surprising given the fact that destination image has strong influence on consumer (decision) behavior, and is therefore of great importance for destination marketers (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999).

2.1.1   Definition destination image

It is often mentioned that the definition of destination image is vague, incomplete, and/or lacking in literature (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Tasci et al., 2007). Many authors came up with their own definition, three of them are stated below.

"The sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination"

Crompton (1979)

"Destination image is defined as not only the perceptions of individual destination attributes but also the holistic impression made by the destination."

Echtner and Ritchie (1991. P. 43-44)

"Destination images are developed by three hierarchically interrelated components: cognitive, affective, and conative"

Gartner (1994, p. 193)

Crompton (1979) was one of the first researchers doing research on destination image. The simplicity of his definition makes it a very clear and straightforward definition to use. This definition is used by many authors, such as Chen and Tsai (2007), and Mak (2017).

The second definition was the one by Echtner and Ritchie (1991). In their article they reviewed previous destination image literature to enhance the current understanding of destination image. According to them, the concept of destination image was not critically examined, and therefore an appropriate

definition of destination image was missing. Until 1991, most studies conceptualized image as a list of attributes (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991), rather than seeing destination image as a multidimensional concept. Therefore, for Echtner and Ritchie (1991) destination image consists of components of three continua (three-dimensional continuum approach): attribute/holistic, functional/psychological, and common/unique.

The studies of Gartner (1994), and later also the studies of Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) and Baloglu and McCleary (1999), found that image is a construct formed by three distinct but interrelated components: *cognitive*, *affective, and conative*. This is better known as the three-component approach, which states that the global destination image consists of the reasoned interpretation of the consumer (cognitive image) and its emotional interpretation (affective image). Gartner's classification has been used by many researchers (e.g. Beerli and Martìn, 2004; Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike, 2010; Baloglu, 2000; Kim and Richardson, 2003).

Over the years, the three-dimensional continuum approach and the three-component approach became the two major approaches in conceptualizing destination image (Lu et al., 2015). Though, prior studies on destination image formation (e.g. Beerli and Martìn, 2004; Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike, 2010) used the three component approach. In order to compare and expand existing knowledge, this research also uses the three component approach to determine destination image.

2.1.2   Three-component approach

The three components of Gartner (1994) are explained in this section. It should be noted that the components can be used to determine the destination image both before and while/after visiting a destination.

Cognitive image

The first component, the cognitive image, is often seen as an evaluation or understanding of the known attributes of a destination (Scott, 1965; Gartner, 1994). Gartner (1994) states that this component is the sum of beliefs and attitudes of a destination, which leads to some internally accepted pictures. Beerli and Martìn (2004) add to this that the cognitive image refers to someone's knowledge and beliefs about a destination. Furthermore, Stabler (1988) suggests that the cognitive image is assessed on a set of attributes, which correspond to specific attractions and resources of a city or destination. Those attractions are the elements of a place that attract tourists.

Multiple authors have a somehow similar understanding of the cognitive image. In this research, the cognitive image refers to the attributes of a destination, consisting of for example the scenery of the destination, activities, and facilities.

It is mentioned that the cognitive image has influence on the conative image and affective image (Beerli and Martìn, 2004).

Affective image

Where the cognitive image referred to the attributes of a destination, the affective image refers to the feelings someone has towards a destination (Boulding, 1956; Beerli and Martìn, 2004; Tasci et al., 2007). For example, a person could have a very pleasant or unpleasant feeling about a destination, or could feel very bored or excited about a city.

Conative image

According to Gartner (1994), the conative image is analogous to behavior, as the tourists choose a destination. This definition is applicable only if a tourist is not at a destination yet. Once at the destination, the third component refers to the evaluation of the cognitive and affective image (Tasci et al., 2007, Beerli and Martìn, 2004). This leads to a positive or negative image of the destination. As this definition is slightly different from the definition of Gartner (1994), the name *conative image* has been renamed by multiple authors. Beerli and Martìn (2004) use the term *overall image*, where Baloglu and McCleary (1999), and Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010) call it *global image*.

The rest of this report uses the term *global image*. There are several reasons why this name was chosen. First of all, the destination image of Amsterdam is determined at the destination. Therefore, tourists have already chosen, which makes the term conative image unsuitable. The term overall image seems inappropriate, as it is only one of the three components of destination image. This term gets easily confused with the overall destination image (the combination of the three components). The word 'global image' covers the meaning of the third component and suits therefore the best.

To conclude, this research splits destination image into three components; *cognitive image*, *affective image*, and *global image*.

2.2 Factors influencing destination image

After knowing what destination image is, it is important to understand how it is formed. Destination image is often seen as a dependent variable, meaning that several factors play a role in the process of forming a destination image (Gartner, 1994; MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997; Smith and MacKay, 2001; Tasci and

Gartner, 2007). Numerous researchers from different fields and disciplines agree that destination image is primarily caused by two major forces: stimulus factors and personal factors (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). Personal characteristics are seen as the characteristics of the perceiver, both social and psychological. Stimulus factors are formed by external stimulus (e.g. information sources), physical object, and previous experience (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). These variables are presented in a general framework (Figure 1), which is often the starting point in destination image research.
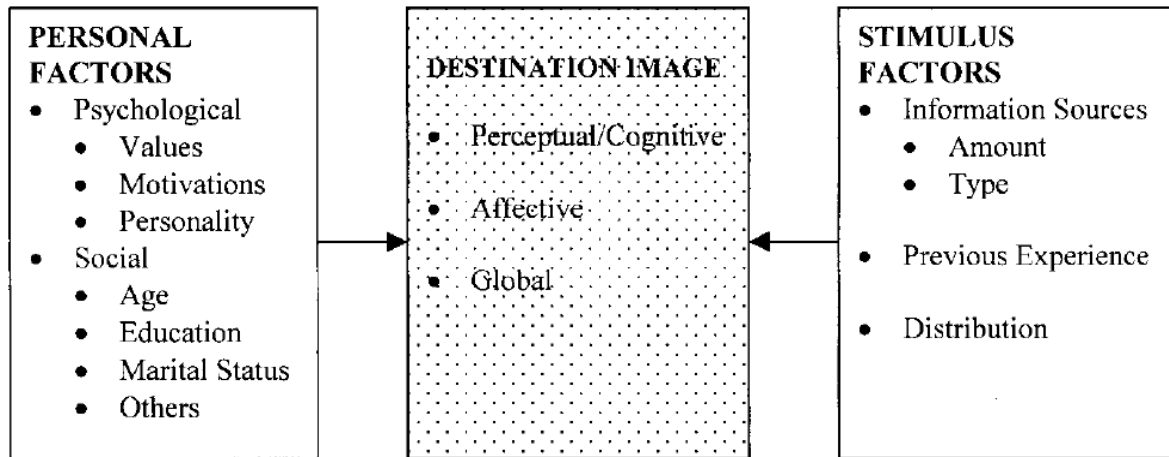
Figure 1. General Framework of Destination Image Formation (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999)

This research aims to understand the process of destination image formation, and therefore this framework is the starting point. Multiple authors used this model, but some of them changed it slightly to meet their research goal (e.g. Baloglu, 1999; Beerli and Martín, 2004; Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike, 2010). Table 1 gives an overview of the variables used by some other scientists.

Table 1. Variables used by other authors in destination image research

Author(s)	Variables

Beerli and Martín (2004)	Perceived Destination Image
	  ➢ Cognitive Image
	  ➢ Overall Image
	  ➢ Affective Image
	
	Information Sources
	  ➢ Secondary
	  ➢ Primary
	
	Personal Factors
	  ➢ Motivations
	  ➢ Vacation Experience
	  ➢ Socio-demographic Characteristics

Baloglu (1999)	Variety (amount) of information sources
	Type of information sources
	Socio-psychological travel motivations
	Perceptions/Cognitions
	Affect
	Visitation Intention
Llodrà-Riera et al. (2015)	Destination image
	Information sources
Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010)	Education
	Socio-Psychological Motivations
	Age
	Perceptual-Cognitive Evaluation
	Affective Evaluation
	Global Image

From the above list it becomes clear that multiple researchers examined the relationship between *destination image* and *travel motivations*, *information sources*, and personal characteristics such as *education* and *age*. Each of the variables are described and discussed in the next sections, aiming to determine whether or not the variables should be included in this research.

2.2.1 Personal characteristics

Personal factors are the social and psychological characteristics of a person (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). It is more than once mentioned that personal characteristics effect destination image (e.g. Um and Compton, 1990; Beerli and Martìn, 2004). Um and Compton (1990) mention in their research that beliefs about the attributes of a destination are formed when individuals are exposed to external stimuli, but that the nature of those beliefs rely on the internal factors of a person. Thus, the perceived image is a combination between the image projected by the destination and a persons' own needs, motivation, preferences, prior knowledge, and other personal characteristics (Um and Compton, 1990; Beerli and Martìn, 2004).

From a consumer behavior perspective, personal factors are a combination of the sociodemographic characteristics of a person (level of education, age, gender, social class, place of residence etc.) and its psychological nature (motivations, values, lifestyle etc.) (Baloglu and McCleary, 1990; Beerli and Martìn, 2004). Sociodemographic characteristics influence the perception of a destination (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton, 1990).

Most sociodemographic characteristics were studied in the past, but mainly age and education appear to be significant determinants of destination image (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Stern and Krakover, 1993). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) found that age and level of education influence the cognitive image, but that they do not significantly affect the affective image. Stern and Krakover (1993) found a significant relation between the level of education and the cognitive image. On the other hand, research carried out by MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997), shows no significant relation between age and the components of destination image. Nevertheless, they found significant differences related to gender and level of income.

In their article '*Factors influencing destination image*', Beerli and Martìn (2004) found a significant relation between gender and destination image. Further, a significant relation between level of education and the affective image was found, even as a moderate relation between previous experience and the cognitive and affective image. Country of origin also significantly influenced the cognitive and affective image.

From previous literature it becomes clear that there are many personal characteristics. *Age* and *level of education* appear to be the most influential sociodemographic variables, and therefore they are included in this research. Furthermore, *country of origin* and p*revious experience* were studied.

It is good to mention that in most studies motivation was part of personal characteristic (e.g. Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martìn, 2004). Nevertheless, this study sees motivation as a separate variable, due to its importance regarding destination image. The next section explains motivation further.

2.2.2   Motivations

There are many variables explaining tourist behavior, but a driving force behind all is motivation (Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Božić et al., 2017). Basic motivation theories describe motivation as a dynamic process involving the psychological factors *needs*, *wants*, and *goals*. When inner needs are not satisfied, the factors could generate an unpleasant level of tension within the minds and bodies of people. In order to release this tension, people take action (Fodness, 1994).

In tourism literature a distinction is made between *pull* and *push* factors of motivation (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979; Kim and Lee, 2002; Božić, at all, 2017). According to Dann (1977) push factors are related to internal forces, such as social-psychological motivations. These motivations are considered important for explaining the desire to travel. Pull factors on the other hand are more likely to explain the choice of a destination. These motivations are aroused by the destination, rather than within the traveler himself (Crompton, 1979). Push and pull factors work simultaneously, and therefore they are both of great importance.

So far, it became clear that motivations are very important in the decision-making process of going on a trip and deciding where to go. It is of great importance to understand the factor motivation and the way it influences tourists to visit particular places. Understanding motivations could help marketers to set out the right marketing strategy to differentiate from other places and to respond to the needs of tourists.

The influence of motivation on destination image has been studied by multiple authors (e.g. Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martín, 2004; Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike, 2010). Gartner (1994) and Dann (1996) suggest that travel motivations directly affect the affective image. The affective image refers to the feelings aroused by a destination, and therefore people with different motives may assess the destination in the same way, as long as they perceive the desired benefits of the destination (Beerli and Martìn, 2004). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) studied the relationship between the affective image, the overall image, and tourists' socio-psychological motivations. They found a moderate relationship. The relation between motivations and the cognitive image is disregarded by some researchers (e.g. Beerli and Martin, 2004). Nevertheless, Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010) found a direct relation between motivations and the cognitive image.

There are several reasons why it is desirable to further investigate the relation between travel motivation and the three components of destination image. First of all, most studies conducted their data in a particular city or island, which could mean that the results in the Netherlands differ. Secondly, prior studies were not always clear about the motivations they studied, the significance level they used, and the p-values of each of the motivations. This might have influenced the reliability and validity of these studies. For example, in the study of Beerli and Martìn (2004) it is not clear which significance level they used for analyzing motivations. They state to use the 19-Item scale of Fodness, but only 13 motivations (without p-value) were mentioned in their article. This requires more transparent research, so that it becomes clear if and which motivations (do not) influence the components of destination image. Furthermore, although research of Baloglu and McCleary (1999) shows a moderate relationship between their variables, they point out that their findings should be assessed carefully, as their sample displayed some homogeneous characteristics.

A lot remains unclear about travel motivations, and therefore this variable is included in this research.

2.2.3 Information sources

Next to personal factors and travel motivation, information source is an important factor influencing destination image (Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike, 2010; Llodrà-Riera et al., 2015; Baloglu, 1999; Seabra et al., 2007; Frias et al., 2008). Tourists use information sources to plan their trip and to reduce the level

of perceived risk (Murry, 1991; Seabra et al., 2007). Gartner (1994) classified three types of information source agents. First, the induced agent, which refers to traditional forms of advertising, such as television, radio, brochures, and printed media advertisements, all provided by suppliers or providers. Second, the autonomous agents, who consist of independently generated movies, documentaries, books, and news articles. Finally, the organic agents that are based on own experience and the experiences of friends and relatives. The last mentioned agent has the highest credibility as it is based on someone's' own experience. Beerli and Martìn (2004) partially agree with this, as they found that organic and autonomous sources have significant influence on destination image. Except of the induced source 'travel agency staff', there was no significant relation found between the induced sources and destination image. A moderate relation was found between organic and autonomous information sources and the cognitive image. Hanlan and Kelly (2005) did similar research, and concluded again that destination image is predominately formed through organic and autonomous sources.

To investigate the influence of organic and autonomous information sources more, two types of autonomous information sources ((travel)books and travel programs) and two organic information sources (word of mouth and previous experiences) are included in this study.

The sources described above, are traditional information sources. They are still important today, but also new sources, such as the internet, play an important role in forming a destination image (Llodrà-Riera et al., 2015). With the rise of the internet in the 1990s, it became easy to share information globally (Frias et al., 2008). The internet became an important resource for tourists' information needs (Gursoy and McCleary, 2004; Frias et al., 2008). Choi et al. (2007) note that although image formation has been examined thoroughly in prior literature, there is a lack of research into image formation through the internet. Many researchers have analyzed the impact of Internet on corporate brands (e.g. Ind and Riondino, 2001; Stuart and Jones, 2004), but only few paid attention to the effect on brand image (Merrilees & Fry, 2003). With the advent of the internet, travelers can easily produce, consume and diffuse travel information. This so called consumer-generated media (CGM) is important in the context of travel decision-making (Litvin et al., 2008; Yoo and Gretzel, 2008), as many travelers use CGM while planning a trip (eMarketer, as cited in Yoo and Gretzel, 2011). A frequently studied example of travel-related CGM, are travel blogs (Yoo and Gretzel, 2011). Also the role of social media has been investigated, and suggested that social media plays an important role in tourism marketing (Xiang and Gretzel, 2010).

Despite its importance, only little research discusses the influence of CGM on destination image. Therefore, this research uses *(travel) blogs* and *social media* as an information source, so that the relation with destination image can be tested.

2.3 Introducing a new variable

Previous paragraphs introduced and discussed known variables within the process of destination image formation. It was stated that multiple authors have examined the relation between destination image and personal characteristics, travel motivations, and information sources. There is need for further research into those variables, but there is also need to seek for new variables who might influence destination image. This can be done by asking the question '*are these the only factors influencing destination image or are others missing?*".

A very important and frequently studied topic within psychology and consumer behavior research is personality (Servidio, 2015; Yoo and Gretzel, 2011). Personality is an influential trait that can predict behavior over time and across situations (Woszczynski et al., 2002), but it also influences behavior and choice (Landers & Lounsbury, 2006). Given the importance of personality traits in other disciplines, it is surprising that only very little research was done regarding tourism. As far as known, only one article was written about personality traits and destination image (written by Servidio, 2015). Though this article focused on a very specific part of destination image, and therefore a lot remains unclear.

There are several reasons why connecting personality traits and destination image is interesting. First of all, not much is known about the influence of personality traits in tourism research, and therefore combining both concepts is of great importance for tourism literature. Besides, more specific, this study is as far as known the only article that analyses the influence of personality traits on (factors influencing) destination image. Consequently, this study expands existing literature on destination image formation. Finally, this research contributes to the ongoing discussion about the question if tourists are the same as 'normal' people. For example, Dolnicar and Grun (2009) and Wearing et al. (2002) suggest that while on holiday, tourists want a break from their daily responsibilities, and therefore behave differently. As personality traits are important in the field of consumer behavior and psychology research, it is interesting to determine the importance of personality trait in the field of tourism. To do so, the following main research question is formed:

"*What is the relationship between personality traits and (factors influencing) destination image?*"

The variable *personality traits* is further explained in section 2.3.1. Besides, the Big Five personality traits are discussed in section 2.3.2, where section 2.3.3 discusses the existing literature about personality traits regarding (factors influencing) destination image. In paragraph 2.4 the conceptual model of this study and the corresponding hypotheses are shown.

2.3.1   Personality traits

Personality has frequently been studied in the field of psychology and consumer behavior research (Servidio, 2015; Yoo and Gretzel, 2011). Personality refers to a lasting emotional, experiential, interpersonal, attitudinal, and motivational style, obsessed by an individual (McCrae and Costa, 1989). It is an influential trait that can predict behavior over time and across situations (Woszczynski et al., 2002), but it also influences behavior and choice (Landers & Lounsbury, 2006). As regards personality, it was said that continuous changes in the tourism industry, competition among destinations, and tourists' motivations for selecting a destination, underline the importance of investigating how personality traits influence consumer behavior within tourism (Hosany et al., 2006; Jani, 2014; Jani et al., 2014; Servidio, 2015).

Personality traits refer to the "*differences among individuals in a typical tendency to behave, think or feel in some conceptually related ways, across a variety of relevant situations and across some fairly long periods of time.*" (Ashton, 2007, p. 27). Human personality traits are often assessed based on five personality traits, the so called Big Five personality traits (McCrae and John, 1992). These five traits (*agreeableness*, *conscientiousness*, *extraversion*, *neuroticism*, and *imagination*) adequately provide a complete picture of someone's personality (Myers et al., 2010). The Big Five personality traits have been verified empirically (e.g. Costa and McCrae, 1992), and are therefore used in this study to examine personality traits.

2.3.2   Big Five personality traits

Multiple studies have used the Big Five personality traits to analyze personal behavior. Nevertheless, not much research was done with regard to tourism. Therefore, the five traits are generally explained, not yet with a specific focus on tourism.

Agreeableness

This trait is related to social skills, as it measures how well an individual goes along with other people. Characteristics of a person with a high score of agreeableness are: friendly, considerate, helpful, courteous, avoid conflict, accommodating, eagerness for communion, and are sympathetic towards other

people (Fayombo, 2010; Tan and Tang, 2013). The often have a very positive/optimistic view, since they believe that people are mostly decent, honest, and willing to help (Bierman, 2003).

Conscientiousness

Individuals with conscientiousness personalities are normally very organized, thorough, plan ahead, and related to impulse control (Fayombo, 2010; Costa and McCrae, 1992). People with a high level of conscientiousness are persistent, confident, determined, and have self-discipline. In general, they are competent people, who have the drive to accomplish their goals (Costa and McCrae, 1992; Roberts and Good, 2010). Roberts and Good (2010) state that people with high conscientiousness are less intimidated by idealized images than people with low conscientiousness. This research was done with regard to idealized images on body dissatisfaction in woman, but might apply to destination image. This has to be analyzed.

Extraversion

Extraversion means being predominantly concerned with and obtaining satisfaction from external factors (things that are outside the self). In other words, this trait is characterized by a great interest in other people and external events (Ewen, 1998; Fayombo, 2010). People who score high on extroversion are generally outgoing and very comfortable and happy in social situations. People who score low on this trait are more introvert, which means they are more reserved and for them it costs energy to be in social settings.

Neuroticism

Neuroticism is a continuing tendency to experience negative emotional states and feelings (anger, guilt, anxiety, and depressed mood) (Matthews and Deary, as cited in Fayombo, 2010; Tan and Tang, 2013). Where extraversion is related to positive emotions, neuroticism is associated with negative emotions (Mooradian and Olver, 1997). It is expected that in a stressful situation, people who score high on neuroticism show more emotional reactions (Van Heck, as cited in Fayombo, 2010).

Imagination

This trait (also known as *intellect* or *openness to experience*) refers to a person's receptivity to learning, change, and novelty. Individuals who score high on imagination normally have a wide range of interests and are insightful, imaginative and curious (Costa and McCrae, 1992; Fayombo, 2010; Roberts and Good, 2010; Tan and Tang, 2013). With regard to tourism, people who score high on this trait are generally more open to experience new and different cultures and lifestyles (Foyombo, 2010). A greater endorsement of traditional values is related to people with a lower score on this trait (Roberts and Good, 2010).

2.3.3 Personality traits related to destination image

Within tourism, not much research was done related to personality traits. Especially not regarding destination image. The article of Servidio (2015) is, as far as known, the only article connecting destination image and personality traits. The aim of that research was to investigate which emotions were evoked by postcards of an Italian destination and whether their affective image influenced the perception of the destination's identity. Conscientiousness and emotional stability were found to be the two most important personality traits when it comes to buying postcards with images. This research focused on images on postcards rather that destination image itself. Therefore, further research on personality traits and destination image is required.

Tan and Tang (2013) examined the influence of personality traits on information sources. They found that openness to experience significantly influenced the perception of word-of-mouth-related (WOM) sources, where conscientiousness was a better predictor for non-WOM sources. Similar research of Jani et al. (2011) found that individuals high in neuroticism and openness to experience are more likely to search for information online. Nevertheless, they state that more research is needed to examine the relation between (online) information search and personality traits.

Furthermore, there are some studies who focus on the relation between motivations and personality traits (Abbate and Nuovo, 2013; Park et al., 2011). However, only few were in the field of tourism studies. Abbate and Nuovo (2013) examined the relation between personality traits and motivations for religious travel. Although they found some relations, religious travel motivations are different than general travel motivations. Therefore, more research is desirable to investigate the influence of personality traits on tourists' motivations.

2.4 Conceptual framework

From the literature it became clear that there are several knowledge gaps that need further investigation. Destination image is a frequently studied topic, but the relation with personality traits is new. The variables derived from the literature are visualized in the conceptual framework of this study (Figure 2, next page). The conceptual framework shows nine hypotheses, aiming to test the relation between different variables.

In this study, *personality traits* and *personal characteristics* are independent variables, where *destination image* is the dependent variable. *Information sources* and *motivation*s are both dependent and independent variables. The methods used to analyze this model, can be found in the next chapter.
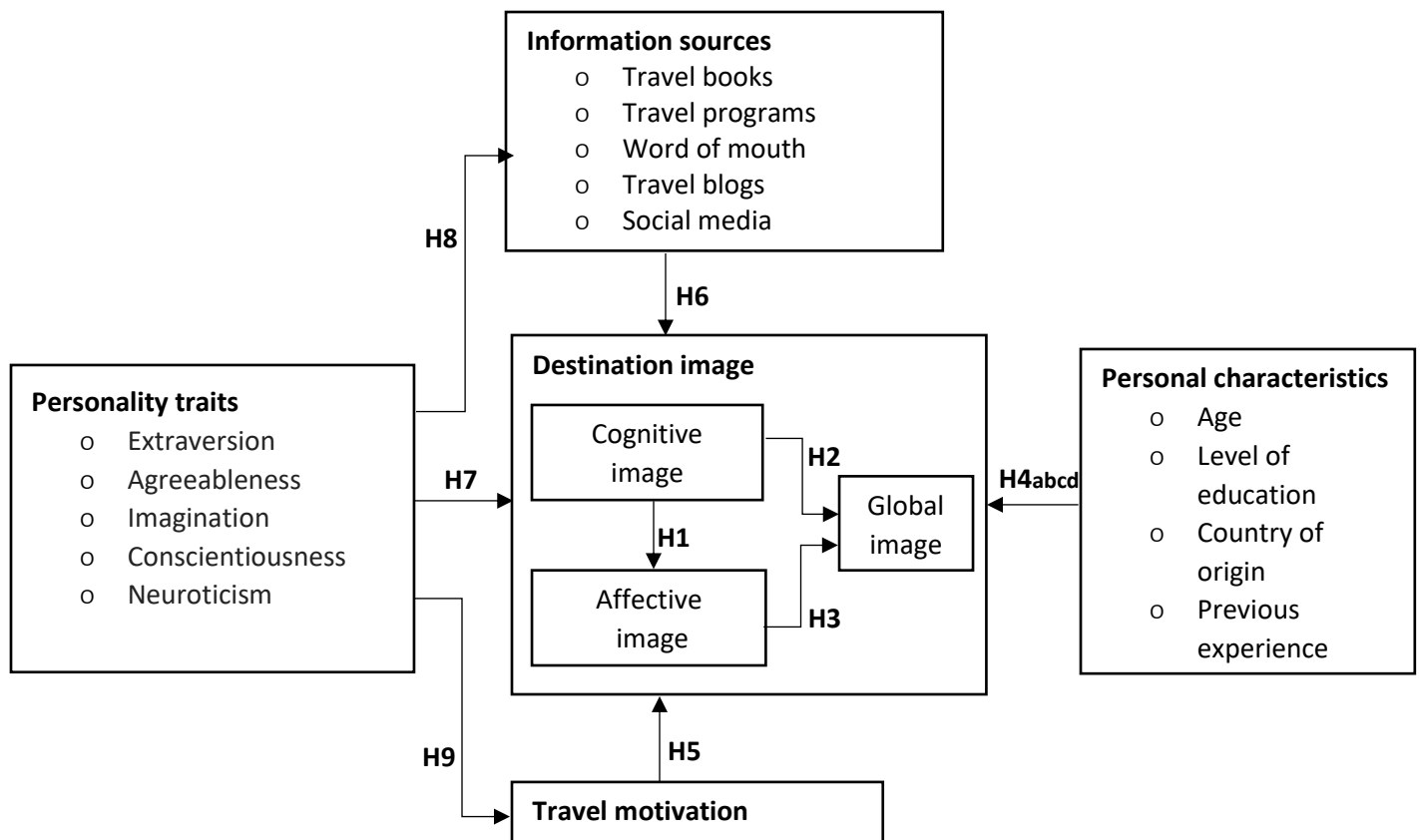
Figure 2. Conceptual Framework

The following hypotheses are tested in this research:

H1   *The cognitive image is related to the affective image*

H2   *The cognitive image is related to the global image*

H3   *The affective image is related to the global image*

H4a   *Age is related to the components of destination image*

H4b   *Level of education is related to the components of destination image*

H4c   *Country of origin is related to the components of destination image*

H4d   *Previous experience is related to the components of destination image*

H5   *Travel motivation is related to the components of destination image*

H6   *Information sources are related to the components of destination image*

H7   *Personality traits are related to the components of destination image*

H8   *Personality traits are related to information sources*

H9   *Personality traits are related to travel motivation*

3. Methods

This chapter explains the methodology used in this research. First, the overall methodological design is presented (paragraph 3.1). Amsterdam is used as case study, and therefore information about Amsterdam is provided in paragraph 3.2. The third paragraph discusses the population, sample and sampling procedure, together with the data collection procedure of this research. Paragraph 3.4 gives information about the measurement instruments, where the final paragraph (3.5) explains how data is analyzed.

3.1 Correlational research design

The conceptual framework of this research was tested based upon a quantitative study. The hypotheses examine the relationship between variables, and therefore a correlational design suites the best (Field, 2009, p. 12). A quantitative method was selected, as this gives the possibility to conduct a considerable amount of data (Tasci et al., 2007). This is necessary, because the variables tested in this research are very personally, and therefore many people need to be asked in order to get a reliable outcome.

3.2 Amsterdam as a case study

This research takes Amsterdam as a case study, meaning that data was collected in Amsterdam and the destination image of Amsterdam is determined.

The history of Amsterdam goes back to the 13th century, when the Dam was built and the name of the city was born. Amsterdam was mainly a fisherman city, but this changed in the 17th century when it became one of the most-famous and rich cities by the time. This was mainly due to the largest share in both the Dutch East India Company and the Dutch West India Company, which gave us trading links all over the world. The rich history of Amsterdam is still reflected in the historical architectural buildings of the city (Amsterdam.info, n.d.).

Another big happening in the history of Amsterdam was World War II. Many lives were taken in Amsterdam, mainly due to the deportation of Jewish people to Nazi concentration camps. The Anne Frank House is nowadays one of the most popular attractions of Amsterdam, reminding us of this period (Amsterdam.org, n.d.).

Amsterdam is furthermore famous for its rich architectural history, the many museums the city offers, and the canals within the city center. According to TripAdvisor and the Holland website, top things to see in Amsterdam include the Rijksmuseum, Van Gogh Museum, the Canals, Vondelpark, and the Anne Frank House (Holland, 2017; TripAdvisor, 2017). Queues for some of the museums can be huge, especially in summer time.

In 2016, the Netherlands received almost 16 million international tourists, of which many went to Amsterdam. This number has grown extensively the last few years and is expected to grow even further (NBTC Holland Marketing, 2017). Amsterdam receives the most tourists in the months July and August, and therefore those months are considered to be peak season (CBS, 2017). Tourists visiting Amsterdam come from all over the world, but top five countries are the UK, Germany, USA, Italy, and France (Table 2).

Table 2. Tourists arrivals Amsterdam, high season 2016 (CBS, 2017)

Country of Origin	July 2016	August 2016
United Kingdom	100,000	97,000
Germany	71,000	81,000
United States of America	82,000	72,000
Italy	25,000	38,000
France	31,000	36,000

3.3 Population, sample, sampling procedure and data collection procedure

To carry out this research, 402 tourists in Amsterdam (in the age of 18+) were surveyed by means of a printed structured questionnaire. The sample size of this study seems desirable, as Vaske (2008) mentions that a sample size of 384 or higher increases the representativeness and reliability of a study.

The sample was taken randomly at four different places in Amsterdam, in order to increase the variety of respondents. These places were selected based on TripAdvisor's top recommendations of things to do in Amsterdam (TripAdvisor, 2017). In 2015, TripAdvisor had already 375 million unique monthly visitors (TripAdvisor, 2015), making them a very important player when it comes to influencing people where to go.

At the *Dam Monument*, only little of the 402 questionnaires were handed out. There was less place to sit, and people stayed longer. Therefore, not much people could be asked to fill in the questionnaire. This was the opposite at the *Anne Frank house*. From 12 p.m. onwards, people were waiting in an hours long queue, making them more than willing to fill in the questionnaire. Furthermore, questionnaires were collected in the *Vondelpark* and a lawn nearby the *Van Gogh Museum* (Museumplein). Here people were relaxing, enjoying the sun, and very much willing to fill in the questionnaire. Figure 3 (next page) shows the data collection places on a map of Amsterdam.

Figure 3. Data collection locations on a map of Amsterdam

The questionnaires were collected on the 11th and 14th of August, meaning that they were collected in high season (Sykes, n.d.). On both days the temperature was at least 19 degrees Celsius. There was a summer breeze, but the sun was shining.

3.4 Measurement instrument

As mentioned before, a printed on-site questionnaire formed the primary means of data collection in this quantitative study. A maximum of two pages (one A4) was applied, so that people were able to easily fill it in on the street. The limited amount of space asked for concise measurement instruments. The questionnaire started with questions about travel motivation, followed with the cognitive image, and affective image. The second page consisted of questions about the global image, information sources, personality traits, and personal characteristics. The questionnaire was hard copy handed to participants, which limited the possibility to ask items random. The population of interest were foreigners (tourists) in the age of 18+ and therefore the questionnaire was developed in English. The full questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1.

The rest of this paragraph explains for each variable which item list is used, and why this measurement instrument was chosen.

Motivations

The limited length of the questionnaire requires a concise list of items to measure motivation. This item list needs to be short, but still reliable and valid. Most motivation scales are long and extensive, such as the 69 item list of Pearce (2005). These lists are known to be reliable and valid, but don't meet the first criteria of being short. In contrast, Crompton (1979) used unstructured interviews to identify 9 motivations to go on vacation. Of these motivations seven were push factors (escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, and facilitation of social interaction) and two were identified as pull motivations (novelty and education). The validity of the list of Crompton (1979) seems correct, as it measures tourist motivations. Nevertheless there can be doubted whether it is reliable enough, as only 9 items were asked. In order to increase the reliability of the item list, four items from the research of Božić et al. (2017) were included. These items are more often used in travel motivation research and seems applicable in this study. *To mentally refresh and relax*, *to make new friends*, *to learn new things*, and *to see historical sites* were added to the list of Crompton (1979). This gives in total 13 items, which were all measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from totally disagree (1) to totally agree (5).

Cognitive image

In previous literature, multiple items were used to analyze the cognitive image (e.g. Beerli and Martín, 2004; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). However, there is no universally accepted valid and reliable scale to measure the cognitive image (Beerli and Martín, 2004). In order to come up with a list of cognitive components, Beerli and Martín (2004) merged existing items into a clear table (Table 3, next page). Not all items are useful for each city, but it is a good starting point for doing research.

As said before, the questionnaire used in this research has limited space. Therefore, only certain cognitive items could be used in this study. From each of the 9 dimensions of Beerli and Martín (2004) at least one item was selected. All the green marked items were used in this study.

Note: some of the items were renamed to make it more suitable for this research. Furthermore, the sub points of the dimension *General infrastructure* seemed to be too broad, and therefore a more general item was made: *quality of the infrastructure*. Finally, the item *cultural and historical attractions* was added. This might be interesting for Amsterdam, as it has a lot of historical and cultural attractions.

In total 15 items were asked on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 corresponds to very negative and 5 means very positive. A full list of the items used in this study can be found in Appendix 1, the questionnaire.

Table 3. Dimensions and attributes determining the cognitive image (Beerli and Martín, 2004)

Natural resources	General infrastructure	Tourist infrastructure
Weather o Temperature o Rainfall o Humidity o Hours of sunshine Beaches o Quality of seawater o Sandy or rocky beaches o Length of the beaches o Overcrowding of beaches Richness of the Scenery o Protected nature reserves o Lakes, mountains, deserts etc. Variety and uniqueness of flora and fauna	Development and quality of roads, airports and ports Private and public transport facilities Development of health services Development of telecommunications Development of commercial infrastructures Extent of building development	Hotel and self-catering accommodation o Number of beds o Categories o Quality Restaurants o Number o Categories o Quality Bars, discotheques and clubs Ease of access to destination Excursions at the destination Tourist centers Network of tourist information

Tourist leisure and recreation	Culture, history and art	Political and economic factors
Theme parks Entertainment and sports activities o Golf, fishing, hunting, skiing etc. o Water parks o Zoos o Trekking o Adventure activities o Casinos o Night life o Shopping	Museums, historical buildings, monuments etc. Festival, concerts, etc. Handicraft Gastronomy Folklore Religion Customs and ways of life	Political stability Political tendencies Economic development Safety o Crime rate o Terrorist attacks Prices

Natural environment	Social environment	Atmosphere of the place
Beauty of the scenery Beauty of the cities and towns Cleanliness Overcrowding Air and noise pollution Traffic congestion	Hospitality and friendliness of the local residents Underprivileged and poverty Quality of life Language barriers	Luxurious place Fashionable place Place with fame and reputation Place oriented toward families Exotic place Mystic place Relaxing place Happy, enjoyable place Pleasant/boring place Attractive or interesting place

Affective image

For the affective image it is important to measure emotions with a short but comprehensive list of items. A frequently used way of doing so, is by using the concepts of *valence* and *arousal* (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974; Jacobs et al., 2012).

Previous studies have used the four bipolar scales of Russell (1978) and Russell and Snodgrass (1987) to analyze the affective image. These scales are also based on the concepts of valence (unpleasant-pleasant; distressing-relaxing) and arousal (boring-exciting; sleepy-arousing). It is suggested by Russell (1978) that it is theoretically adequate to only measure two scales: Sleepy-Arousal and Unpleasant-Pleasant, as they already measure 28 emotions (see Appendix 2). Nevertheless, this research uses all four scales to get the most reliable outcome (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). Furthermore, this research includes two extra scales, making it possible to do reliability tests. The two extra scales come from the work of Mehrabian and Russell (1974) and are *annoyed-pleased* and *relaxed-stimulating*.

The six scales were asked on a 5-point Likert scale. The items *unpleasant*, *boring*, *distressing*, *sleepy*, *annoyed*, and *relaxed* corresponded with 1, where 5 meant *pleasant*, *exciting*, *relaxing*, *arousing*, *pleased*, and *stimulating*.

Global image

For the global image, only one question was asked: "What is your overall feeling about Amsterdam". This was measured on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 means *very negative* and 7 *very positive*. Similar studies, such as Beerli and Martìn (2004) and Balogly and McCleary (2012), have used the same scale.

Information sources

As discussed in previous chapter, this study has a specific focus on the information sources *travel blog*, *social media*, *(travel) books*, *travel programs*, *word of mouth, and previous experience*. To measure to what extend people used those information sources, the statements "*I used …*" were given. Respondents answered this question based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *strongly disagree* to 5 *strongly* agree.

Personality traits

The limited length of the questionnaire required a concise list of items to measure personality traits. Nevertheless, it is important that the items are valid, psychometrically acceptable, and practically useful. Therefore, this research made use of the 20-Item Mini-IPIP of Donnellan et al. (2006) (Appendix 3), a short version of the 50-Item International Personality Item Pool of Goldberg (1999). There are four items per Big Five trait, resulting in 20 questions in total, of which some of them were reversed scored items (see

Appendix 3). Each of the questions were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree.*

Personal characteristics

In the last part of the questionnaire respondents were asked to fill in some questions related to *gender*, *age*, *level of education*, *country of origin*, and *previous experience with Amsterdam*. Most questions were closed questions, except of the questions about country of origin and age.

3.5 Procedure for data analyses

The data of this research was tested by means of IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Different statistical test were carried out to test the hypotheses.

First of all, multiple factor analyses and reliability tests were done to minimize the amount of variables. The variables *motivation* and *cognitive image* have a data-driven strategy, and therefore exploratory factor analyses (EFA) are needed to find new components. The variables *affective image* and *personality traits* are theory-based, as they came from Russell (1980) and Russell and Snodgrass (1987) (affective image) and Donnellan et al. (2006) (personality traits). To test if these two variables are reliable, reliability analyses were carried out. The new components found by use of an EFA were also tested on reliability.

Cronbach's alpha (α) is the most common measure of the scale reliability (Field, 2009, p. 674), and measures the internal consistency of the questionnaire. There are many different opinions about what an acceptable value is for α. Although most scientists see .7 as a good cut-off point, this also depends on the situation (Field, 2009, p. 675). If the number of items is low, the Cronbach's alpha is also lower (Cortina, 1993). Furthermore, in psychological research it is more likely to have lower Cronbach's alpha's as there is more diversity in the constructs being measured (Kline, as cited in Field, 2009, p. 675). As the questionnaire was concise, a component consists of little items. Furthermore, this research has some psychological variables. Due to this, it is expected that the Cronbach's alpha's of this research are not very high. Table 4 (next page) gives an overview of the interpretation of Cronbach's alpha in this research. A value of α < .5 is unacceptable and in that case the component will not be used for further research. Although a value between .5 and .6 is poor, it is used for further research.

Table 4. Interpretation Cronbach's alpha in this study

Cronbach's Alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq .9$	Excellent
$.7 \leq \alpha < .9$	Good
$.6 \leq \alpha < .7$	Acceptable
$.5 \leq \alpha < .6$	Poor
$\alpha < .5$	Unacceptable

After the component of the variables were tested upon reliability, the hypotheses were tested. Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 were tested by means of multiple regression analyses. The Adjusted R^2 tells us how much of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable if the model is derived from the population of which the sample was taken (Field, 2009, p. 221). Another important parameter in regression analysis is the standardized Beta (β). This expresses the effect an independent variable has on a dependent variable. The standardized Beta indicates how much the standard deviation of the dependent variable changes, if the independent variable increases or decreases with 1 standard deviation (Field, 2009, p. 239). If the independent variables are significantly related to the dependent variable(s) (Adj. R2: $p < .05$), the hypothesis is supported. If not, the hypothesis is rejected.

Correlational tests were done to answer H4a, H4b, and H4c. If the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) is significant ($p < .05$), this means that the variables are related. The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) lies between -1 and 1, and indicates a negative or positive relation. A value of ± .1 is a small effect, ± .3 represents a medium effect, and ± .5 is a large effect (Field, 2009, p. 173). To test H4d, an independent sample t-test was done. This aims to test if two groups (first time visitors and repeat visitors) differ significantly from each other when it comes to the destination image components.

4. Results

This chapter gives an overview of all the results obtained after doing the necessary analyses. In the first paragraph, paragraph 4.1, an overview is given about the characteristics of the sample size. The Exploratory Factor Analyses and Reliability tests are described in the second paragraph. Paragraph 4.3 gives a descriptive overview of the variables, where in paragraph 4.4 the hypotheses are tested.

4.1 Sample characteristics

In total 402 tourists completed their questionnaire and form the *sample size* of this research (N=402). 45.8% of the respondents was male, the remaining 54.2% female (Table 5). The majority of the respondents were young people, as 69.7% of the respondents were between 18 and 27 years old (Table 6). The oldest respondent completing the questionnaire was 87 years old.

Table 5. Frequency table "gender"

Sex	% Tourists	N
Male	45.8	184
Female	54.2	218
Total	100%	402

Table 6. Frequency table "age"

Age	% Tourists	Cumulative %	N
18 - 22 years	41.8	41.8	168
23 - 27 years	27.9	69.7	112
28 - 32 years	11.9	81.6	48
33 - 37 years	3.7	85.3	15
38 - 42 years	3.0	88.3	12
43 - 47 years	3.7	92.0	15
48 - 52 years	2.0	94.0	8
53 - 57 years	3.5	97.5	14
> 57 years	2.5	100	10
Total	100		402

Of all participants, most people came from the UK (19.9%). Furthermore, people from Italy (14.2%), Germany (8%), USA (8%) and France (6.5%) frequently participated in this research. Although in different order, these countries correspond to the '*top five countries visiting Amsterdam*' found by the CBS (2017). A complete list of *countries of origin* can be found in Appendix 4.

For most participants, a *bachelor* degree was the *highest level of education* (33.1%). *High school* (25.4%) and *college* (21.6%) were also frequently mentioned. Table 7 (next page) shows the distribution of education for each of the age groups. Most of the participants in the age of 18 to 22 finished high school

(44.6%), but if age increases, also the highest level of education increased. An exception here is the age group 48 – 52 years, as *college* was the most frequently mentioned highest level of education. Note that not all of the age groups have the same N, and are therefore not equally divided.

Table 7. Cross table age and level of education (in %)

		18-22 years	23-27 years	28-32 years	33-37 years	38-42 years	43-47 years	48-52 years	53-57 years	> 57 years	**Total %**	**N**
Level of education	No formal education	.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.2	1
	High School	<u>44.6</u>	12.5	6.3	6.7	8.3	26.7	25.0	7.1	10.0	25.4	102
	College	29.2	17.9	12.5	6.7	8.3	0.0	<u>50.0</u>	21.4	<u>30.0</u>	21.6	87
	Bachelor	23.2	<u>43.8</u>	<u>52.1</u>	40.0	33.3	20.0	12.5	<u>28.6</u>	20.0	33.1	133
	Masters	2.4	25.0	27.1	<u>46.7</u>	<u>50.0</u>	<u>46.7</u>	-	<u>28.6</u>	<u>30.0</u>	17.9	72
	Doctoral /PHD	-	.9	2.1	-	-	6.7	12.5	14.3	10.0	1.7	7
Total	Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
	N	168	112	48	15	12	15	8	14	10		402

For 70.4% of the participants it was their *first time in Amsterdam*. The remaining 29.6% visited the Dutch Capital at least once before. Slightly more males (37.5%) than females (22.9%) visited Amsterdam before.

4.2 Analyses of the scales

This paragraph gives an overview of the exploratory factor analyses (EFA) and reliability tests that were done in this research. Section 4.2.1 shows the factor analysis and reliability tests of the cognitive image, followed by a reliability test of the affective image (section 4.2.2). Section 4.2.3 includes an exploratory factor analysis for travel motivation, followed by a reliability test. Finally, the personality traits are tested on their reliability in section 4.2.4.

4.2.1 Cognitive image of Amsterdam

First of all, a principle component analysis (PCA) was conducted on the 15 items of the cognitive image. This was done with orthogonal rotation (Varimax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test verified that the sampling was done adequate for this analysis, KMO = .809 (great, according to Kaiser (as cited in Field, 2009)), as well as the KMO values for individual items (all > .739). Barlett's test of sphericity χ^2 (105) = 869.278, p < .001, indicates that there are highly significant correlations between items. An initial analysis was run to identify the eigenvalues for each of the new components of the cognitive image. Four components were found with a score higher than the criteria of Kaiser (eigenvalues > 1) (1960). Together, those four components explain 48.219% of the total variance. However, Kaiser's criteria holds only when the sample size is greater than 250 and the average communality is equal at or higher than .6. The sample size exceeds the 250 (N=402), but the average communality is .482. Therefore, it is not likely to have four components

explaining the cognitive image. In contrast to the criteria of Kaiser, Stevens (2009, p. 329) suggests that a scree plot provides fairly reliable criterion for factor selection if the sample size is more than 200. The Scree plot of the cognitive image suggested 2 components.

Table 8 shows the Rotated Component Matrix for the cognitive image. The first component consists mostly of items which are related to money. Examples are accommodation, shopping facilities, food, cultural and historical attractions etc.. To cover these items, the first component was named *affordable goods*. The second component consists of items related to the environment (e.g. unpolluted environment, climate, natural attractions) and the convenience of the city (e.g. quality of infrastructure, personal safety). As one word will not cover the full meaning of this component, the second component was named *environment and convenience*. It is important to note that with *affordable goods* and *environment and convenience* the image of affordable goods and the image of environment and convenience is meant.

Table 8. Components of the cognitive image

Item	Rotated Factor Loadings	
	Affordable goods	Environment and Convenience
Quality of infrastructure		.646
Personal Safety		.662
Nightlife and entertainment		.457
Accommodations	.421	
Hospitable, friendly people	.490	
Unusual ways of life and customs		.420
Shopping facilities	.693	
Food (Cuisine)	.729	
Cultural and historical attractions	.516	
Value for money	.560	
Unpolluted environment		.606
Climate		.447
Luxury	.473	
Name and reputation	.431	
Scenery / Natural attractions		.460

After the two components were identified, two reliability tests were carried out to test the reliability (Table 9, next page). The first factor, *affordable goods,* has a fairly high reliability, Cronbach's α = .703. All 'alpha's if item deleted' are lower than the total Cronbach's alpha, and therefore all the items remain included in

component 1. The second component, *environment and convenience*, shows an acceptable reliability α = .633. This remains the same, even if any of the items is deleted.

Both components of the cognitive image have a Cronbach's α > .5, and therefore they are used in further research.

Table 9. Reliability analyses on the components of the cognitive image of Amsterdam

Factor	Items	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha	Alpha if item deleted
Affordable goods	Accommodations	.364	.703	.680
	Hospitable, friendly people	.406		.671
	Shopping Facilities	.442		.663
	Food (Cuisine)	.461		.658
	Cultural and historical attractions	.414		.671
	Value for money	.420		.670
	Luxury	.300		.692
	Name and Reputation	.345		.684
Environment and Convenience	Quality of infrastructure	.416	.633	.581
	Personal Safety	.389		.584
	Nightlife and entertainment	.311		.606
	Unusual ways of life and customs	.252		.625
	Unpolluted environment	.380		.585
	Climate	.380		.585
	Scenery / Natural attractions	.312		.606

4.2.2   Affective image of Amsterdam

The affective image was tested by means of a scale developed by Russell (1978) and Russell and Snodgrass (1987) supplemented by work of Mehrabian and Russell (1974). Six dimensions were asked to determine the concepts *valence* and *arousal*. For each of the two concepts a reliability analysis was done to determine the reliability.

Valence has a relatively poor reliability, as the Cronbach's α = .596 (Table 10, next page). Nevertheless, it is very close to .6, which would have indicated an acceptable reliability. Deleting one of the items does not increase the Cronbach's α of valence.

Arousal has a Cronbach's α of .455 which makes this component unreliable. However, the Cronbach's α can be increased to .543 when the item *relaxed – stimulating* is deleted. Deleting this item makes the reliability poor, but useful in further analyses.

Both components of the affective image are used in further research. Note that *arousal* consists of only two items, where all three items of *valence* remained included.

Table 10. Reliability analyses on the components of the affective image of Amsterdam

Factor	Items	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha	Alpha if item deleted
Valence	Unpleasant – Pleasant	.349	.596	.580
	Distressing – Relaxing	.411		.487
	Annoyed – Pleased	.482		.371
Arousal	Boring – Exciting	.300	.455	.320
	Sleepy – Arousing	.377		.187
	~~Relaxed – Stimulating~~	.177		.543

4.2.3 Travel motivations

Multiple steps were taken in order to identify the components of travel motivation. First of all, a principle component analysis (PCA) was conducted on the 13 items of travel motivation. This was done with orthogonal rotation (Varimax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test verified that the sampling was done adequate for this analysis, KMO = 0.685 (mediocre, according to Kaiser (as cited in Field, 2009), as well as the KMO values for individual items (all > 0.50). Bartlett's test of sphericity χ^2 (78) = 1158.344, p < 0.001, indicates that there are significant correlations between items, which is necessary for PCA. An initial analysis was run to identify the eigenvalues for each of the new components of travel motivation. Five components had eigenvalues higher than the criterion of Kaiser (eigenvalues > 1), together explaining 63.741% of the variance. However, five components for 13 items is not desirable, as it gives components that consist of only 1 or 2 items. Another option to determine the amount of components is by using the Scree plot. This is fairly reliable if the sample size is higher than 200 (Stevens, 2009, p. 329), which is the case in this research.

The Scree plot suggested three components, of which the results can be found in the Rotated Component Matrix (Table 11, next page). The first component consists of items which suggest that people like to learn new things about the city and to see new things. Therefore, the name *explore and learn* was given to the

first component. The second component is related to the social aspect of travel motivations, and was therefore named *social*. The last component of motivation consists of a more broader range of items. Although it is hard to cover the four items with one name, the name *prestige and relaxation* is applicable.

The items *to re-evaluate and discover more about myself*, *to rest physically*, and t*o spend time with friends/family* were excluded from this research, as they had no item-total correlation above .4 (Table 11).

Table 11. Components of travel motivation (N=402)

Item	Rotated Factor Loadings		
	Explore and Learn	Social	Prestige and Relaxation
to escape from the hustle and bustle of everyday life			.602
to re-evaluate and discover more about myself			
to mentally refresh and relax			.669
to rest physically			
because others think it is a good thing to do			.408
to do things which are inconceivable within normal life			.475
to spend time with friends/family			
to meet new people		.887	
to make new friends		.878	
to see new things	.726		
to extend knowledge	.833		
to learn new things	.808		
to see historical sites	.720		

The next step is conducting reliability analyses in order to test the three components on reliability. The results can be found in Table 12 (next page), showing good reliabilities for the factors *explore and learn* (α = .787) and *social* (α = .876). Unfortunately, the third factor *prestige and relaxation* seems to be unreliable (α = .355). Deleting one of the items of the third factor does not influence the Cronbach's alpha positively and therefore this factor is not used in the rest of this study. This means that in the remainder of this report travel motivation consists of two components, namely *explore and learn* and *social*.

Table 12. Reliability analyses on the components of travel motivation

Factor	Items	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha	Alpha if item deleted
Explore and Learn	To see new things	.520	.787	.776
	To extend knowledge	.704		.674
	To learn new things	.683		.687
	To see historical sites	.514		.783
Social	To meet new people	.781	.876	-
	To make new friends	.781		-
~~Prestige and Relaxation~~	To escape from the hustle and bustle of everyday life	.192	.355	.289
	To mentally refresh and relax	.205		.282
	Because others think it is a good thing to do	.146		.349
	To do things which are inconceivable within normal life	.224		.246

4.2.4 Personality traits

The last variable checked on reliability is *personality traits*. The items of *personality traits* are theory-based, and therefore reliability tests are sufficient. The personality trait *extraversion* is perfectly reliable, as α = .718 (Table 13). The personality traits *agreeableness* and *imagination* are acceptable reliable (resp. α = .669 and α = .637), where *conscientiousness* has a relatively poor reliability (α = .555). N*euroticism* has a Cronbach's α of .489, and is therefore unreliable. Nevertheless, if the item *I seldom feel blue/unhappy* was deleted, the Cronbach's Alpha of *neuroticism* increased slightly to α = .511. This still suggests a poor reliability, but it is not unreliable anymore. All five personality traits are used in the remainder of this research.

Table 13. Reliability analyses personality traits

Factor	Items	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha	Alpha if item deleted
Extraversion	I am the life of the party	.468	.718	.677
	I don't talk a lot *	.495		.665
	I talk to a lot of different people at parties	.579		.609
	I keep in the background *	.487		.668
Agreeableness	I sympathize with others' feelings	.480	.669	.591
	I am not interested in other people's problems *	.476		.592
	I feel others' emotions	.387		.642
	I am not really interested in others *	.483		.581

Conscientiousness	I get chores done right away	.325	.555	.496
	I often forget to put things back in their proper place *	.341		.488
	I like order	.321		.497
	I make a mess of things *	.379		.449
Neuroticism	I have frequent mood swings	.295	.489	.408
	I am relaxed most of the time *	.280		.423
	I get upset easily	.392		.311
	~~I seldom feel blue/unhappy~~ *	.180		.511
Imagination	I have a vivid imagination	.345	.637	.615
	I am not interested in abstract ideas *	.466		.531
	I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas *	.431		.558
	I do not have a good imagination *	.427		.561

* reverse scored item

4.3 Descriptive overview of the variables

This paragraph gives an descriptive overview of the variables and the corresponding components used for further research. Table 14 gives an overview of the mean, standard deviation, and the minimum and maximum scores of each component. Most of the questions were asked on a 5-point Likert scale (anchor -2 to +2), only global image was measured on a 7-point Likert scale (anchor -3 to +3). Due to these anchor's 0 corresponds to neutral. A negative score indicates that people did not agree or were negative about an item, where a positive score indicates that people are positive about an item or agree with it.

The two components of the *cognitive image* have a mean higher than .79, meaning that people were quite positive about the elements and attractions of Amsterdam. Furthermore, the components of the *affective image* have means > .95. This indicates that people see Amsterdam as a pleasant, exciting, relaxing, arousing, and pleased city. The global image has an extremely high mean (2.31), indicating that people really liked the city.

The travel motivation component *explore and learn* scores extremely high (mean = 1.42). This means that items related to this component are very important motivators for choosing a city. The travel motivation *social* scored slightly above average (mean= .52), but was therefore also a motivator for choosing the city.

Word-of-mouth is the most frequently used *information source* for getting information about Amsterdam (mean = 1.05). *Travel programs* were the least used (mean = -.40), but also *(travel) books* (mean = -.10) and *previous experiences* (mean = -.11) have a negative score, meaning they were not much used.

The *personality trait agreeableness* has the highest mean (.98) and *neuroticism* has the only negative mean (-.17). This indicates that respondents meet slightly the personality traits extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and imagination, yet not neuroticism.

Table 14. Descriptive overview of the variables (N=402)

Variable	Components	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum
Cognitive image	Affordable goods	.79	.46	-1.25	1.88
	Environment and Convenience	.90	.45	-.43	2.00
Affective image	Valence	1.10	.68	-1.33	2.00
	Arousal	.95	.79	-2.00	2.00
Global Image *		2.31	.71	-2.00	3.00
Travel motivations	Explore and Learn	1.42	.53	-1.25	2.00
	Social	.52	.89	-2.00	2.00
Information Sources	Travel blogs	.06	1.26	-2.00	2.00
	Social media	.43	1.21	-2.00	2.00
	(Travel) books	-.10	1.37	-2.00	2.00
	Travel programs	-.40	1.21	-2.00	2.00
	Word of mouth	1.05	.90	-2.00	2.00
	Previous experience	-.11	1.41	-2.00	2.00
Personality Traits	Extraversion	.30	.75	-2.00	2.00
	Agreeableness	.98	.59	-1.50	2.00
	Conscientiousness	.39	.68	-2.00	2.00
	Neuroticism	-.17	.75	-2.00	2.00
	Imagination	.81	.67	-1.50	2.00

All scores range from -2 to 2
* This item range from -3 to 3

4.4 Assessing the relationships between variables

In this paragraph the hypotheses are supported or rejected. Per hypothesis an overview of the outcomes is given, including the corresponding conclusion. To remind, the Adj. R^2 tells how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables, if the model is derived from the population of which the sample was taken. Besides this, the Standardized Beta (β) indicates the importance of each of the independent components in the model. Furthermore β indicates how much standard deviations the dependent variable will change, if the independent variable changes with 1 standard deviation. The standard deviations of all components are summarized in previous paragraph (Table 14).

The outcomes of the statistical tests are summarized in tables, in which * indicates the significance level:

* significant at a .05 level (2-tailed)

** significant at a .01 level (2-tailed)

*** significant at a .001 level (2-tailed)

4.4.1 H1: The cognitive image is related to the affective image

The first hypothesis aims to analyze if the cognitive image of Amsterdam is related to the affective image of Amsterdam. This was tested by means of multiple regression analyses, of which the results can be found in Table 15.

The Adj. R^2 of *valence* is .21, meaning that the cognitive image accounts for 21% of the variation in *valence* ($p < .001$). This is a substantial relationship according to Vaske (2008, p. 108). The standardized β of *environment and convenience* is bigger than the standardized β of affordable *goods* (resp. β= .38 and β=.14). Therefore, the image of *environment and convenience* is the most important predictor in this model.

The standardized β furthermore indicates that if the image of *environment and convenience* increases with one standard deviation (.45), the image of *valence* increases by .38 standard deviation. The standard deviation of *valence* is .68 and so this constitutes a change of .26 point (.38 x .68). If the image of *affordable goods* increases with one standard deviation (.46), this results in an increase of .10 (.14 x .68) in the image of *valence*.

In addition, the cognitive image accounts for 7% of the variation in *arousal* ($p < .001$). The standardized β of *environment and convenience* is .22 ($p < .01$), where the standardized β of *affordable goods* is not significant (Table 17). This means that if the image of *environment and convenience* of Amsterdam increases with 1 standard deviation (.45), the image of *arousal* increases with .17 (.22 x .79). An increase of the image of *affordable goods* has no effect on the image of *arousal*.

Overall, it can be concluded that the cognitive image predicts both components of the affective image and that the image of *environment and convenience* is the best predictor in this model. <u>Hypothesis 1 is supported</u>.

Table 15. Effect of the cognitive image components on the affective image components

Cognitive image components		Affective image components	
		Valence	Arousal
Affordable goods	Standardized Beta (β)	.14**	.09
	p-value	.005	.100
Environment and Convenience	Standardized Beta (β)	.38***	.22***
	p-value	< .001	< .001
	Adj. R²	.21***	.07***
	p-value	< .001	< .001

4.4.2 H2: The cognitive image is related to the global image

The second hypothesis determines if the cognitive image of Amsterdam is related to the global image of Amsterdam. This was done by means of a multiple regression analysis (Table 16).

The outcome of the regression analysis suggests that the cognitive image accounts for 29% of the variation in the *global image* ($p < .001$). This is a substantial relationship according to Vaske (2008, p. 108).

The standardized β of *affordable goods* (β=.25) and *environment and convenience* (β=.39) are both significant ($p < .001$), and therefore they both predict the *global image*. However, *environment and convenience* has a higher β, which indicates that this component has a higher degree of importance in the model. If the image of *environment and convenience* increases with one standard deviation (.45), the global image will increase with .39 standard deviation (as β=.39). The standard deviation of global image is .71, and so this constitutes a change of .28 point (.39 x .71). In other words, if a person marks the image of *environment and convenience* .45 higher, the *global image* increases with .28. Similar, if a person scores 1 standard deviation higher on the image of *affordable goods* (.46), the mark of *global image* increases with .18 (.25 x .71).

Overall, it can be mentioned that both components of the *cognitive image* influence the *global image* significant. Therefore, <u>H2 is supported</u>.

Table 16. Effect of the cognitive image components on the global image

Cognitive image components		Global image
Affordable goods	Standardized Beta (β)	.25***
	p-value	< .001
Environment and Convenience	Standardized Beta (β)	.39***
	p-value	< .001
	Adj. R²	.29***
	p-value	< .001

4.4.3 H3: The affective image is related to the global image

The third hypothesis states that the *affective image* of Amsterdam is related to the *global image* of Amsterdam. A multiple regression analysis was done to test this hypothesis. The results of the regression analysis can be found in Table 17 (next page).

The components of the *affective image* significantly predict 17% of the variation in the *global image* ($p < .001$). This is a typical relationship according to Vaske (2008, p. 108).

The image of *valence* is more important in this model than the image of *arousal*, as it has a higher β value (β=.34 compared to β=.12). If the image of *valence* increases with one standard deviation (.68), the global image increases with .24 (.34 x .71). On the other hand, if the image of *arousal* increases with one standard deviation (.79), the global image increases with .09 (.12 x .71).

The above mentioned results suggest that hypothesis 3 is accepted. Therefore, it can be mentioned that the components of the affective image of Amsterdam are related to the global image of Amsterdam.

Table 17. Effect of the affective image components on the global image

Affective image components		Global image
Valence	Standardized Beta (β)	.34***
	p-value	< .001
Arousal	Standardized Beta (β)	.12*
	p-value	.035
	Adj. R^2	.17***
	p-value	< .001

The influence of the cognitive image and affective image on the global image

Hypotheses 2 and hypotheses 3 are both accepted, meaning that the cognitive image of Amsterdam and the affective image of Amsterdam significantly relate to the global image of Amsterdam. It is interesting to know which components have the highest degree of importance, as this indicates the aspects on which a marketer should focus. To answer this question, an extra multiple regression analysis was done (Table 18, next page).

The results indicate that the components of the affective image have a comparable degree of importance in the model (*valence:* β=.14 and *arousal:* β=.12). However, comparing the affective image components with the cognitive image components, the components of the cognitive image have a clearly higher degree of importance (*affordable good:* β=.22 and *environment and convenience:* β=.31). This indicates that the global image is mostly predicted by the image of *environment and convenience* and the image of *affordable goods*.

Table 18. Effect of the components of the cognitive image and affective image on the global image

Affective and Cognitive image components		Global image
Affordable goods	Standardized Beta (β)	.22***
	p-value	< .001
Environment and convenience	Standardized Beta (β)	.31***
	p-value	< .001
Valence	Standardized Beta (β)	.14*
	p-value	.01
Arousal	Standardized Beta (β)	.12*
	p-value	.02
	Adj. R²	.33***
	p-value	< .001

4.4.4 H5: Travel motivation is partly related to destination image

Hypothesis 5 suggests that travel motivation is related to destination image. To test this hypothesis, multiple regression analyses were done.

The results (Table 19, next page) suggest a significant relation between *travel motivation* and the two components of the *cognitive image* (p < .001). The components of the *affective image* and the *global image* are not significantly related to *travel motivation* (p > .05).

Travel motivation predicts 3% of the variance in the image of *affordable goods* and 3% of the variance in the image of *environment and convenience*. Those are minimal relationships according to Vaske (2008, p. 108).

The cognitive component *affordable goods* is significantly predicted by the two components of *travel motivation* (*Explore and learn*: β=.19; S*ocial*: β= -.12, p < .05). The β of the travel motivation *explore and learn* is slightly higher, and therefore this motivation has the highest importance in this the model.

Furthermore, the β's emphasize that if the score of travel motivation *explore and learn* increases with one standard deviation (.53), the score on the image of *affordable goods* increases with .19 (β) standard deviation. This results in an increase of .09 (.19 x .46). In simple words, if the motivation *explore and learn* becomes .53 more important, a person rates the image of *affordable goods* .09 higher.

Travel motivation *social* on the other hand has a negative β. This means that if the motivation *social* increases with one standard deviation (.89), the image of *affordable goods* decreases with .12 standard deviation. This constitutes a change of -.06 (-.12 x .46) in the image of *affordable goods*. So, if the motivation *social* increases with .89, a person marks the image of *affordable goods* .06 lower.

The second component of the cognitive image, *environment and convenience*, is only predicted by travel motivation *explore and learn* (β=.17), as the motivation *social* shows no significant result (p > .05). If the value of travel motivation *explore and learn* increases with one standard deviation (.53), the image of *environment and convenience* increases with .17 standard deviation. This results in an .08 (.17 x .45) increase of the image of *environment and convenience* if the travel motivation *explore and learn* increases with .53.

As this hypothesis deals with many dependent and independent variables, it is hard to fully support or reject this hypothesis. Not all the components of destination image are related to travel motivation, and therefore you can suggest to reject this hypothesis. However, the components of the cognitive image do show a significant relation with travel motivations. Therefore, it is desirable to not fully reject this hypothesis, but to partially support it.

Table 19. Effect of travel motivation components on destination image components

Travel motivation components		Destination image components				
		Cognitive image components		Affective image components		Global image
		Affordable goods	Environment and Convenience	Valence	Arousal	
Explore and Learn	Standardized Beta (β)	.19***	.17***	.10	.06	.09
	p-value	< .001	.001	.060	.260	.075
Social	Standardized Beta (β)	-.12*	.04	-.03	< .01	-.03
	p-value	.019	.429	.555	.929	.595
	Adj. R²	.03***	.03***	< .01	< .01	< .01
	p-value	< .001	< .001	.168	.490	.205

4.4.5   H6: Information sources are related to destination image

Hypothesis 6 aims to test if information sources and the destination image of Amsterdam are related to each other. This was done by means of multiple regression analyses, of which the results can be found in Table 20 (next page).

The results suggest a significant relation between *information sources* and almost all components of destination image. No significant relation was found between *information sources* and the image of *arousal* (p > .05). Further, a minimal relation was found between *information sources* and the destination

image components *environment and convenience, valence*, and *global image* ($R^2 < .03$). This means that information sources predict maximal 3% of the variance in those components.

A little stronger, but still minimal, relationship was found between *information sources* and *the image of affordable goods*. 5% of the variance in the *image of affordable goods* was explained by *information sources*. Here, *social media* is the only significant predictor ($\beta=.21$). This means that if *social media* increases with 1 standard deviation (1.21), the *image of affordable goods* increases with .21 standard deviation. The standard deviation of *affordable goods* is .46, and so this constitutes a change of .10 (.21 x .46). In other words, if people use 1.21 more social media as an information source, they rate the image of affordable goods .10 higher.

Another important information source is word-of-mouth. This seems to be a significant predictor for *the image of environment and convenience, the image of valence*, and the *global image* ($p < .05$, $.11\le \beta \le.16$). The results emphasize the importance of the information sources *word-of-mouth* and *social media*.

To conclude, it can be stated that most of the components of destination image relate (to a minimal extent) to information sources. Therefore, hypothesis 6 should be supported. Nevertheless, it is important to remind that the relations are not very strong, and that *the image of arousal* does not at all relate to *information sources*. Furthermore, only *word-of-mouth* and *social media* predict destination image, all other information sources do not significantly predict any of the destination image components.

Table 20. Effect of information sources on destination image components

Information Sources		Destination image components				
		Cognitive image components		Affective image components		Global image
		Affordable goods	Environment and Convenience	Valence	Arousal	
Travel blogs	Standardized Beta (β)	.03	-.04	-.01	-.02	.05
	p-value	.491	.458	.897	.639	.298
Social media	Standardized Beta (β)	.21***	.06	.01	.01	.04
	p-value	< .001	.231	.775	.795	.453
(Travel) books	Standardized Beta (β)	.10*	.01	.03	-.01	-.002
	p-value	.050	.857	.543	.892	.973

Travel programs	Standardized Beta (β)	.02	.07	-.09	.03	.05
	p-value	.715	.213	.088	.541	.307
Word-of-mouth	Standardized Beta (β)	.04	.11*	.16**	.15**	.16**
	p-value	.373	.032	.001	.003	.001
Previous experience	Standardized Beta (β)	.04	.09	-.02	-.01	.06
	p-value	.390	.062	.618	.905	.235
	Adj. R²	**.05***	**.02***	**.02***	**.01**	**.03***
	p-value	**< .001**	**.034**	**.034**	**.111**	**.012**

4.4.6 H7: Personality traits are partly related to destination image

Hypothesis 7 is the first hypothesis that includes *personality traits*, as it determines whether personality traits are related to the destination image of Amsterdam. Multiple regression analyses were done to test this hypothesis (Table 21, next page).

The results of the regression analyses suggest a significant relationship between *personality traits* and the cognitive image components *affordable goods* and *environment and convenience* (respectively Adj. R^2=.02, p < .05 and Adj. R^2=.05, p < .001). The R^2 emphasizes a minimal relationship between the variables (Vaske, 2008, p. 108), as only 2% and 5% of the variance in respectively *the image of affordable goods* and *the image in environment and convenience* is explained by *personality traits*. Furthermore, a significant relation was found between *global image* and *personality traits* (Adj. R^2=.06, p < .001). This again is a minimal relationship (Vaske, 2008, p. 108). The components of the *affective image* do not show any significant relation with *personality traits* (p > .05).

Agreeableness and *imagination* are the only two personality traits that significantly predict the *cognitive image components* and the *global image*. If the score of personality trait *agreeableness* increases with 1 standard deviation (.59), *the image of affordable goods* and the *global image* increase with .17 (both: β=.17) standard deviation. The standard deviation of *the image of affordable goods* and *global image* are respectively .46 and .71 and so this constitutes a change of .08 (.17 x .46) and .12 (.17 x .71).

Personality trait *imagination* significantly predicts *the image of environment and convenience* and the *global image* (resp. β=.18 and β=.13). This means that if a person's level of imagination increases with 1 standard deviation (.67), the *image of environment and convenience* increases with .18 standard deviation and the score of the *global image* with .13 standard deviation. The standard deviations of *the image of*

environment and convenience and the *global image* are respectively .45 and .71, resulting in a change of .08 (.18 x .45) and .09 (.13 x .71).

The other three personality traits do not significantly predict any of the components of destination image, and therefore *extraversion, conscientiousness*, and *neuroticism* do not relate to the destination image of Amsterdam.

To conclude, the *cognitive image components* and *global image* show a minimal relation with *personality traits.* Besides this, there is no relation between *personality traits* and the components of the *affective image*. Of the five personality traits, two significantly predict the *cognitive image components* and *global image*. This requires to only partially accept this hypothesis.

Table 21. Effect of personality traits on destination image components

Personality traits		Destination image				
		Cognitive image		Affective image		Global image
		Affordable goods	Environment and Convenience	Valence	Arousal	
Extraversion	Standardized Beta (β)	.001	.02	-.03	-.03	.03
	p-value	.991	.666	.614	.549	.516
Agreeableness	Standardized Beta (β)	.17**	.09	.10	.06	.17**
	p-value	.002	.077	.056	.246	.001
Conscientiousness	Standardized Beta (β)	.004	-.06	.003	.04	.04
	p-value	.942	.213	.947	.419	.440
Neuroticism	Standardized Beta (β)	-.09	-.03	-.03	.02	-.01
	p-value	.076	.487	.540	.654	.866
Imagination	Standardized Beta (β)	-.01	.18***	.09	.04	.13*
	p-value	.849	.000	.091	.511	.013
	Adj. R²	.02*	.05***	.01	< .01	.06***
	p-value	.011	< .001	.069	.589	< .001

4.4.7 H8: Personality traits are not related to information sources

Hypothesis 8 tests whether or not personality traits influence the way people search for information. This was tested by means of multiple regression analyses.

The results suggest that p*ersonality traits* only relate to the information source *social media* (Adj. R^2= .04, p < .01). There was no relation found between personality traits and any of the other information sources (p > .05).

The personality traits *extraversion* and *agreeableness* are almost as important in predicting *social media* use (respectively β=.14, p < .01 and β=.17, p < .01). If the level of *extraversion* increases with 1 standard deviation (.75), social media use increases with .14 standard deviation. The standard deviation of social media is 1.21, which indicates that social media use increases with .17 (.14 x 1.21) if a person scores .75 point higher on extraversion.

If a person scores 1 standard deviation higher on *agreeableness* (.59), it uses .17 standard deviation more social media. This indicates that if the level of *agreeableness* increases with .59, a person uses .21 (.17 x 1.21) more social media.

As *personality traits* is only related to *social media*, and not to the other 5 information sources, it is most rightly to <u>reject this hypothesis</u>. However, it is important to remember that social media is related to *agreeableness* and *extraversion*.

4.4.8 H9: Personality traits are related to travel motivation

Hypothesis 9 aims to indicate if there is a relation between *personality traits* and *travel motivation*. This was done by means of multiple regression, of which the results can be found in Table 22 (next page).

The results confirm a relationship between *personality traits* and both components of *travel motivation* (p < .01). A minimal relation was found between *personality traits* and the motivation *explore and learn* (Adj. R^2= .04, p < .01) (Vaske, 2008, p. 108). This indicates that 4% of the variance in the motivation *explore and learn* is explained by *personality traits*. The personality trait *agreeableness* seems to be the only significant predictor (β=.15, p < .01). If a person scores 1 one standard deviation higher on the personality trait *agreeableness* (.59), the motivation *explore and learn* will increase with .15 standard deviation. The standard deviation of the motivation *explore and learn* is .53, and so this constitutes a change of .08 (.15 x .53). This means that for a person who scores .59 point higher on the personality trait *agreeableness*, the travel motivation *explore and learn* becomes .08 more important.

The other component of travel motivation, *social*, has a typical relationship with *personality traits* (Adj. R^2= .10, p < .001). *Extraversion* is the only personality trait that significantly predicts the motivation *social*, and is a pretty strong predictor (β =.34, p < .001). If the personality trait *extraversion* increases with 1 standard deviation (.75), the motivation *social* gets more important as it will increase with .34 standard deviation. *Social* has a standard deviation of .89, which leads to a change of .30 (.34 x .89). So, if a person scores .75 higher on the personality trait extraversion, the travel motivation *social* increases with .30.

To conclude, the personality traits *extraversion* and *agreeableness* significantly predict a component of travel motivation. The other three personality traits do not significantly predict any of the travel motivation components. However, overall the travel motivation components are related to personality traits, and therefore hypothesis 9 is supported.

Table 22. Effect of personality traits on travel motivation components

Personality traits		Travel motivation components	
		Explore and Learn	Social
Extraversion	Standardized Beta (β)	-.004	.34***
	p-value	.941	< .001
Agreeableness	Standardized Beta (β)	.15**	-.03
	p-value	.004	.514
Conscientiousness	Standardized Beta (β)	.08	.03
	p-value	.103	.519
Neuroticism	Standardized Beta (β)	-.03	.02
	p-value	.593	.898
Imagination	Standardized Beta (β)	.07	.03
	p-value	.161	.538
	Adj. R^2	.04**	.10***
	p-value	.002	< .001

4.4.9 H4:Personal characteristics are not related to destination image

Hypothesis 4 consists of four sub-hypotheses (H4abcd). Hypothesis 4a aims to test if *age* and the components of destination image are related, where 4b focusses on the relation between le*vel of education* and the components of destination image. In addition, hypothesis 4c determines if there is a relation between *country of origin* and the components of destination image. These sub-hypotheses are tested by means of correlation tests. Hypothesis 4d is tested by means of independent sample t-tests, and investigates if first time visitors and repeat visitors significantly differ in their destination image scores.

<u>Age</u>

The results show a significant relation between *age* and *the image of affordable goods* and *the image of arousal* (p < .05). *The image of affordable goods* has a minimal and positive relation with age, as r= .12 (Vaske, 2008, p. 108). This means that if *age* goes up, the *image of affordable goods* goes up as well. *The image of arousal* has also a minimal relation with age, but this is a negative relation (r= -.16). In this case, if age goes up, the image of arousal goes down.

No relationship was found between age and the other components of destination image (p > .05). Therefore, sub-hypothesis <u>4a is only partial supported</u>.

<u>Level of education</u>

No significant results were found between *level of education* and any of the components of *destination image* (p > .05). Therefore, <u>sub-hypothesis 4b is rejected</u> and it can be stated that *level of education* is not related to the components of destination image.

<u>Country of origin</u>

No significant relations were found between *country of origin* and the components of *destination image* (p > .05). This means that *country of origin* has no influence on the components of destination image, and therefore sub-hypothesis <u>4c is rejected</u>.

<u>First time visitors</u>

The results of the independent sample t-tests show no significant differences between first time visitor and repeat visitor (p > .05). This means that people who have been to Amsterdam before do not rate the city significantly different than people for who it is their first time in Amsterdam. This outcome holds for all the components of destination image, and therefore hypothesis <u>4d is rejected</u>.

4.4.10 Factors influencing components destination image

In the previous sections the nine hypotheses were tested. Per hypothesis the relation between the independent variables and the dependent variables were analyzed, and the strength of the independent variables (β) were given. Those results do not take into consideration the fact that there are more independent variables affecting a dependent variable. Although the before mentioned results are of great importance for this study, additionally multiple regression analyses with all independent variables (the components of travel motivation, personality traits, and information sources) were done. By doing this the importance of all independent variables are measured. The results can be found in Figure 4 (page 45),

showing relations between some of the independent variables and almost all components of destination image. No significant relation was found between the independent variables and arousal.

The *image of affordable goods* is significantly predicted by three independent variables, who explain 9% of the variance in *the image of affordable goods*. Information source *social media* has the highest β (.21), which indicates that this is the most important predictor in the model. The travel motivation *social* has a negative β (-.17). This indicates that if a person attaches more value to the travel motivation *social*, they mark the *image of affordable goods* lower than a person scoring low on the travel motivation *social*. The motivation *explore and learn* is the last independent variable influencing *the image of affordable goods*.

The other cognitive component, *the image of environment and convenience*, is also influenced by three independent variables. They are together responsible for 8% of the variance in *the image of environment and convenience*. The personality trait *imagination* is the best predictor of this model (β=.18), followed by the travel motivation *explore and learn* (β=.14), and the information source *previous experience* (β=.10).

The affective image component *valence* is only predicted by the travel motivation *social* (β=.15). A minimal relation was found between those components, as only 3% of the variance in *the image of valence* is explained by the travel motivation *social*.

Variance in the *global image* is for 7% explained by the independent variables *previous experience, agreeableness,* and *imagination.* Personality trait *agreeableness* is the most important predictor in this model (β=.16), where information source *word-of-mouth* and personality trait *imagination* have a comparable degree of importance in the model (resp. β=.13 and β.12).

The independent variables *travel blogs*, *(travel)books*, *travel programs*, *extraversion*, *conscientiousness*, and *neuroticism* do not significantly predict any of the components of destination image. This indicates the unimportance of those variables in this model.
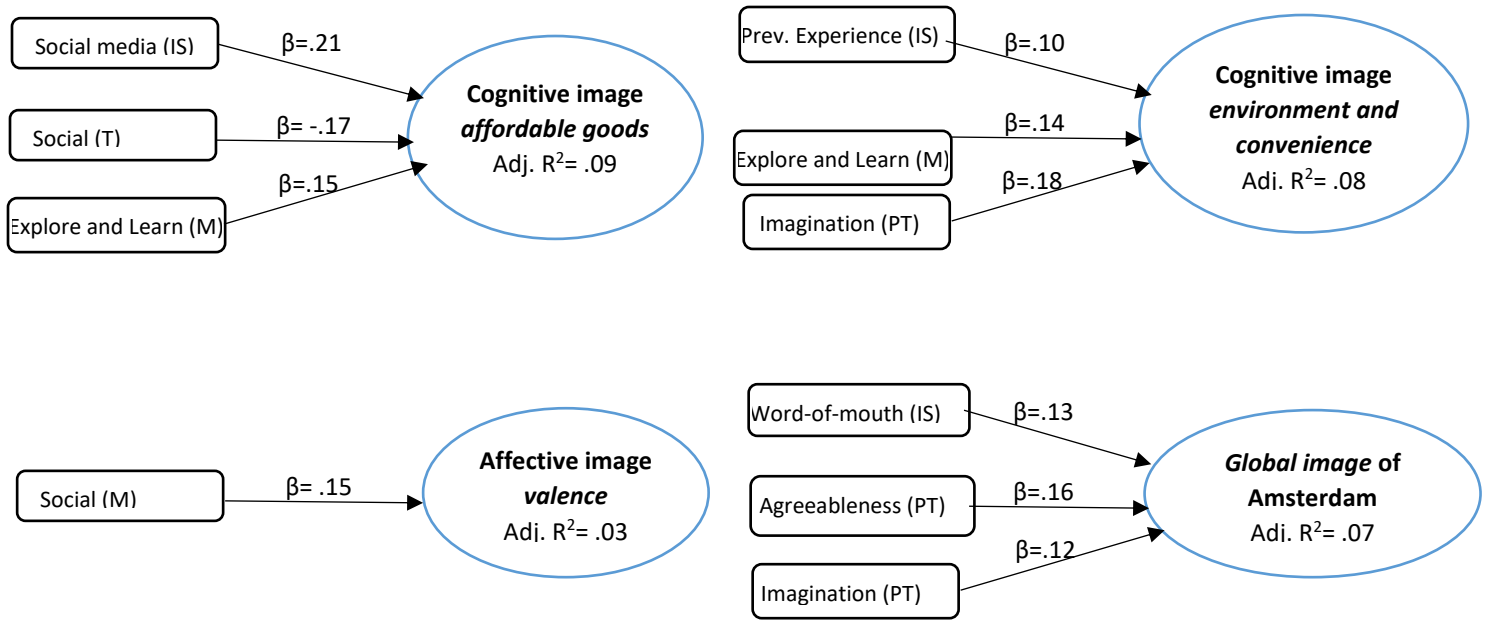
Figure 4. Factors influencing the components of Destination

IS=Information Source | M=Travel motivation | PT=Personality traits

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The importance of destination image has been emphasized by multiple authors (e.g. Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martìn, 2004). Destination image is often seen as a dependent variable, meaning that several factors play a role in the process of forming a destination image (Gartner, 1994; MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997; Smith and MacKay, 2001; Tasci and Gartner, 2007). Hitherto, most studies used the same independent variables (travel motivation, personal characteristics, and information source), and therefore new insights are needed. This knowledge gap formed the basis of this research, as this study was set out to introduce a new variable into the process of destination image formation. A very important and frequently studied topic within psychology and consumer behavior research is personality (Servidio, 2015; Yoo and Gretzel, 2011). So far, within tourism research only very little research was done regarding personality traits. Therefore, this study aimed to identify the relationship between personality traits and (factors influencing) destination image. This was done based upon the following main research question:

"*What is the relationship between personality traits and (factors influencing) destination image?*"

In the first part of this chapter (paragraph 5.1) the main findings of this research are explained and compared with existing literature. In addition, the main research question is answered. The second paragraph critically discusses some of the main findings of this report. Besides this, the practical implications of the results are given in paragraph 5.3, followed with the limitations and suggestions for further research (paragraph 5.4). In the final paragraph (5.5) the overall conclusion of this report is given.

5.1 General discussion and theoretical contributions

To answer the main research question, nine hypotheses were developed and tested. Figure 5 (next page) gives an overview of the hypotheses and the corresponding effect sizes (Adj. R^2). In case the variables are not significantly related to each other, 'p > .05' is mentioned instead of the effect size. This gives the following conclusions concerning the hypotheses:

H1   The components of the *cognitive image* are related to the components of the *affective image*

H2   The components of the *cognitive image* are related to the *global image*

H3   The components of the *affective image* are related to the *global image*

~~H4a~~   *Age* is <u>not</u> related to the components of *destination image*

~~H4b~~   *Level of education* is <u>not</u> related to the components of *destination image*

~~H4c~~   *Country of origin* is <u>not</u> related to the components of *destination image*

~~H4d~~   *Previous experience* is <u>not</u> related to the components of *destination image*

H5   The components of *travel* mo*tivation* are related to the components of the *cognitive image*

H6   *Word-of-mouth* and *social media* are related to most of the components of *destination image*, except *arousal*

H7   A*greeableness* and *imagination* are related to the *global image* and the components of the *cognitive image*

H8   E*xtraversion* and *agreeableness* are related to *social media*

H9   *Extraversion* and *agreeableness* are related to a component of *travel motivation*
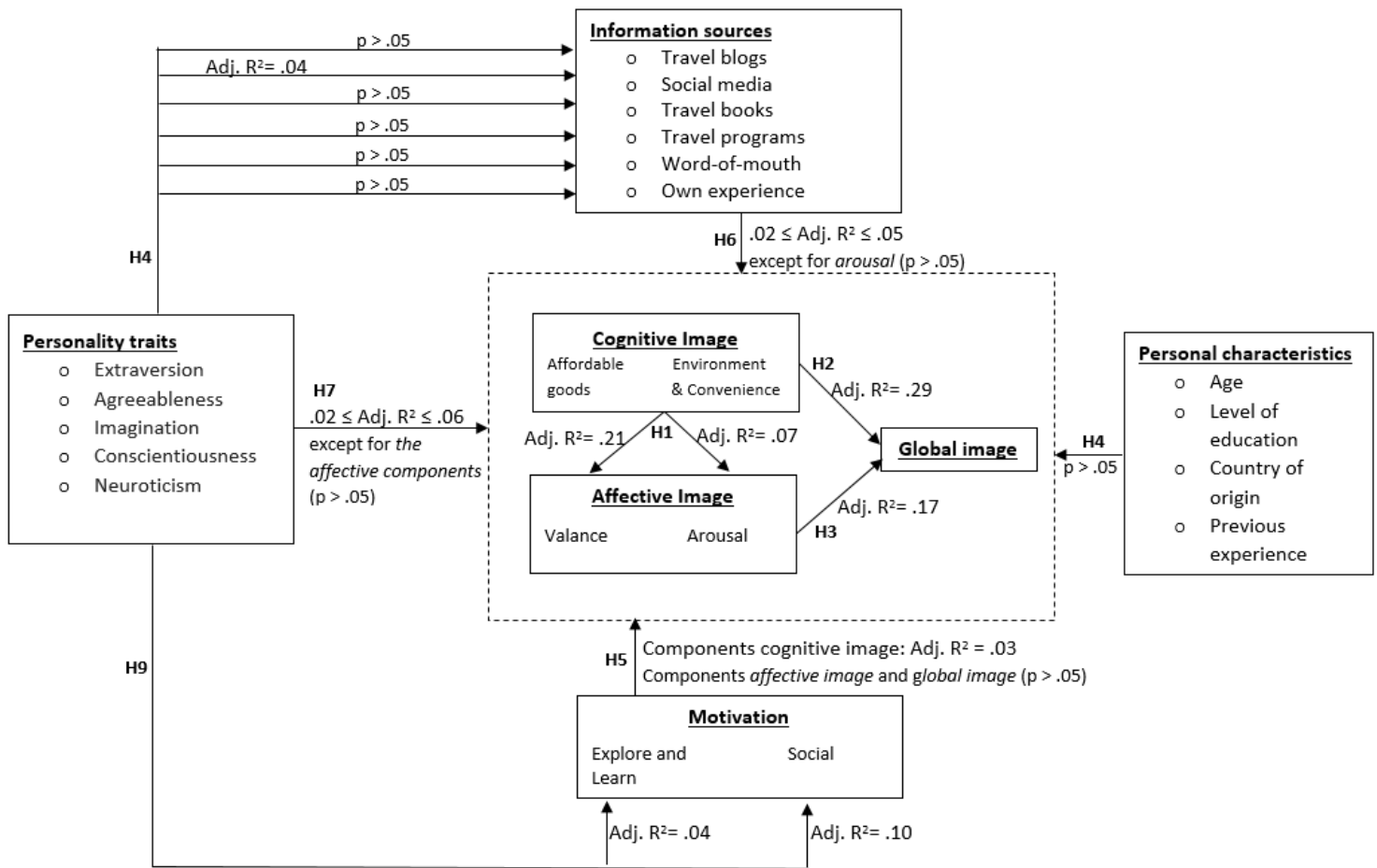
Figure 5. Conceptual framework, including all relations found

The results of this study emphasize that the *cognitive image* is related to the *affective image* and the *global image* (H1 and H2 are supported). The *affective image*, in turn, is also related to the *global image* (H3 is supported). Together, the *affective image* and *cognitive image* explain 33% of the variation in the *global image*, which is a substantial relation according to Vaske (2008, p.108). Although both the affective image and cognitive image are important for predicting the global image, the *cognitive image* is the best predictor in this model. These findings mention the influence of both the physical attributes and the psychological/emotional attributes of Amsterdam when it comes to the global image, but highlight the

importance of the physical attributes of a city. The findings of this report are in line with the results of Lin et al. (2007), who found similar relations and also state the importance of the cognitive image. Similar relations were also concluded by Baloglu and McCleary (1999), however, they mention the importance of the affective image in forming the global image. The results of Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010) partially support the findings of this study, as they found direct relations between the cognitive image and the affective image, and the affective image and the global image. No direct relation was found in their research between the cognitive image and the global image, which indicates the importance of the affective image when it comes to the global image.

The results of this research support existing literature by confirming the relation between the cognitive image and affective image, the affective image and the global image, and the cognitive image and global image. Nonetheless, there are contradictions regarding the importance of the cognitive image and affective image when it comes to predicting the global image. These differences may have been caused due to dissimilarities in methodology. In this research, tourists were asked in the city centre of Amsterdam, and therefore the perceived destination image of Amsterdam was measured. Similar studies used online questionnaires or asked tourists at the airport. In that case it is not the perceived destination image that is measured. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) state that the image of people who are at a city differ from people who are not (yet) at a destination. According to them, especially the image of physical aspects change, which is in this research the cognitive image. Further research is needed to investigate if destination image and perceived destination image are significantly different from each other.

Furthermore, the results of this research reveal that *tourists' motivations* have a significant effect on the *cognitive image*. However, travel motivation does not significantly influence the *affective image* and *global image* (H5 partially supported). The travel motivation *explore and learn* has positive influence on the components of the cognitive image, where the travel motivation *social* negatively influences the cognitive component *image of affordable goods*. The findings of this report are partially in line with the findings of Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike (2010), who state that tourists' motivations are related to the cognitive image and global image, but do not relate to the affective image. Unlike this study, Beerli and Martìn (2004) found a relationship between travel motivation and the affective image.

Within destination image literature, there is no widely accepted scale to measure tourists motivations. This causes, among other things, that researchers used different items to measure travel motivation, and therefore, different travel motivations were identified. Having all those different items, and thus different

travel motivations, makes it difficult to fully compare the findings of this report with other researches. To solve this problem, a widely accepted scale to measure travel motivation is needed.

Information sources relate to almost all the components of destination image (no relation with *arousal*), but those relations are very minimal (H6 is supported). It is worth mentioning that *social media* and *word-of-mouth* are the only information sources that predict (some of the components of) destination image, were all other information sources do not significantly predict destination image. Similar findings were conducted by Xiang and Gretzel (2010), who mentioned the importance of social media on destination image. Additionally, Beerli and Martìn (2004) and Hanlan and Kelly (2005) stated that destination image is predominately formed through organic and autonomous sources. Although no relation was found in this research between destination image and organic information sources, a relation was found between an autonomous information source (word-of-mouth) and destination image.

In this study no significant relations were found between the components of destination image and personal characteristics (*age*, *level of education*, *country of origin*, and *first/repeat visitors*). This suggests that *age*, *level of education*, *country of origin*, and *first vs repeat visit* do not influence the destination image of a tourist. Though, this is not in line with the findings of Baloglu and McCleary (1999), Stern and Krakover (1993), and Beerli and Martìn (2004), who found relations between destination image and personal characteristics. One possible reason for these differences is the sample population of this study. Random sampling was used, which resulted in the fact that 70% of the respondents were between 18 and 27 years old. Furthermore, relatively many Italian and English people participated. This makes the group more homogeneous than the sample population of other studies.

Above mentioned conclusions support and/or extend existing knowledge about (factors influencing) destination image. However, this report differentiated itself by including the variable *personality traits*. Multiple conclusions are drawn regarding this variable.

This research suggests that personality traits relate to the cognitive image and global image (H7 partially supported). The personality traits *agreeableness* and *imagination* predict destination image, where the remaining three personality traits do not significantly predict destination image. People scoring high on imagination are normally very open to experience new and different lifestyles (Foyombo, 2010), and have a wide range of interests (Costa and McCrea, 1992). These characteristics suggest a person to be eager to travel, which not surprisingly leads to a better appreciation of the city.

Furthermore, no relation was found between personality traits and most of the information sources (H8 rejected). An exception here is *social media*, which is significantly predicted by the personality traits *extraversion* and *agreeableness*. This means that if people score high on extraversion and agreeableness, they use more social media to search for information than people scoring low on those traits. People who score high on extraversion and agreeableness are expected to be friendly, social, sympathetic towards others, and have a great interest in others. Although not in the field of destination image research, previous studies on personality traits found relations between extraversion and social media (e.g. Correa et al., 2010).

Finally, a significant relation was found between personality traits and the two components of t*ravel motivation* (H9 is supported). The travel motivation *explore and learn* is significantly predicted by the personality trait *agreeableness*, where the travel motivation *social* is predicted by *extraversion*. People scoring high on *extraversion* are expected to be very comfortable and happy in social situations, and therefore it is not surprising that there is a relation with the motivation social.

Understanding the findings of this research makes it possible to answer the main research question "*What is the relationship between personality traits and (factors influencing) destination image?*".

Based on the results of the hypotheses, a minimal relation was found between personality traits and the components of the *cognitive image*, even as with the *global image*. Furthermore, a significant minimal relation was found between personality traits and *social media*. Besides this, a minimal relation was found between personality traits and the travel motivation *explore and learn*. Finally, a typical relation was found between personality traits and the travel motivation *social*. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that personality traits only very minimally relate to (factors influencing) destination image.

5.2 Discussion

From the above mentioned conclusions and comparisons two things stand out. First of all, very strong relations were found between the components of destination image and secondly, very weak relations were found between personality traits and destination image. This paragraph further explains and discusses these two findings.

5.2.1   Factors influencing the global image

Within tourism studies, the three-component approach of Gartner (1994) is frequently used to identify destination image. Here, it is stated that the cognitive image, affective image and global image are three distinct but interrelated components of destination image.

This research suggests that together the components of the affective image and cognitive image predict 33% of the variance in the global image. Although this is a substantial relationship, 67% of the variance in the global image is not explained by the affective image and cognitive image. This is in contrast to the definition used by many authors, who state that the global image is a combination/evaluation of the cognitive image and affective image (e.g. Tasci et al., 2007; Beerli and Martìn, 2004; Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike, 2010).

Although this research tried to be as complete as possible, there are variables that could have been included in order to predict the global image better. For example, Bigné et al. (2001) and Castro et al. (2007) emphasize the relation between *tourists' satisfaction* and destination image. Furthermore, they mention the importance of *service quality* when it comes to destination image. Service quality is defined as "*comparison between a customer's initial expectations and that customer's perception of the actual result of the service* (Castro et al., 2007, p. 178), and is therefore closely related to satisfaction. This research did not take into account tourists' satisfaction, nor service quality. However, both concepts might have influenced the (global) image of Amsterdam, as tourists were already in Amsterdam and thus know to what extent their experiences met their expectations.

Furthermore, where this study, and almost all other studies on destination image (e.g. Tasci et al., 2007; Beerli and Martìn, 2004; Sancho Esper and Álvarez Rateike, 2010; Gartner, 1994), used three components for destination image, Qu et al. (2011) introduced a fourth component. In their study, the variable *unique image* is included and seen as the third variable influencing the global image (next to the affective image and cognitive image). Furthermore, they emphasize the importance of the unique image, as after the cognitive image it is the most important component for predicting the global image. In this research, the unique image was not taken into account. If this variable was included this might have led to a better prediction of the global image. However, as far as known, the article of Qu et al. (2011) is the only article focusing on this fourth component.

Finally, *personal involvement* is seen as an independent variable influencing the overall image of a city (Prayag and Ryan, 2011), but was not taken into account in this research. There are multiple definitions of personal involvement, though most studies conceptualize involvement in terms of personal relevance (Kyle and Chick, 2002). This means that personal involvement refers to the degree to which a person is devoted to a product, experience, or activity (Gross and Brown, 2008). Regarding destination image, Prayag and Ryan (2011) emphasize the importance of tourists' involvement, as it increases the

appreciation of the city. As the concept of personal involvement is complex, literature about it remains limited in tourism research (Prayag and Ryan, 2011).

The above mentioned concepts might explain (part of) the remaining 67% of the variance in the global image. Further research is needed to identify the impact of '*tourists' satisfaction', 'service quality', 'unique image',* and *'personal involvement'* on the global image. If these variables really affect the global image, the definition of Gartner should be reconsidered.

5.2.2 Minimal relation personality traits and destination image

Until now, not much research was done about the influence of personality traits in tourism research. Especially not regarding destination image. This research was, as far as known, the first study that focused on the relation between personality traits and destination image, and therefore the outcome of this study expands existing knowledge.

From the previous paragraph it became clear that relations were found between personality traits and the components of the cognitive image, even as with the global image. Hence, the relations are very minimal, since only 2-6% of the variance in the cognitive image and global image is explained by personality traits. No relation was found between personality traits and the components of the affective image. These results indicate that destination image is not (much) dependent on personality traits, and so your personality does not affect the image you have of a city. Destination image is strongly related to tourists' behavior (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999), and thus it can be said that personality traits do not affect tourist behavior. This conclusion is surprising, given the importance of personality traits in the field of psychology and consumer behavior research (Servidio, 2015; Yoo and Gretzel, 2011). Within consumer behavior and psychology research it is mentioned that personality traits have influence on, and predict, consumer behavior (Servidio, 2015; Yoo and Gretzel, 2011). Therefore, the outcome of this research suggests that tourists are different from consumers, as personality does play a role in consumer behavior, and not in tourist behavior.

5.3 Practical application of the results

In the introduction it was stated that this report is of great importance for marketers of the city Amsterdam. Based on the results, several practical applications are given.

First of all, the *cognitive image* appears to be the best predictor of *global image*. Therefore, it is possible to say that the highest focus in marketing campaigns should be on the physical attributes of Amsterdam. The cognitive image component *image of environment and convenience* is a better predictor than the

other cognitive component (*image of affordable goods*), meaning that important items are: quality of infrastructure, personal safety, nightlife and entertainment, unusual ways of life and customs, unpolluted environment, climate, and the scenery/natural attractions.

Furthermore, the *cognitive image* of tourists is influenced by their *travel motivation*. The motivation *explore and learn* has a positive influence on the cognitive image, meaning that if people have this travel motivation, they rate the physical aspects of Amsterdam better. On the other hand, the motivation *social* negatively influences the cognitive image. Therefore, it is important that marketers focus on people with the travel motivation *explore and learn*. Marketing campaigns should focus on the historical aspects of Amsterdam, the things that can be learned in the city, and the new things tourists can see in Amsterdam. This research suggests that attracting tourists who are focused on social aspects (meet new people, and make new friends) will lead to a lower rating of the city.

Finally, the results emphasize the importance of *word-of-mouth* and *social media*. Although word-of-mouth is hard to directly influence, a marketing organization could use more social media to promote their city. In their social media campaigns the before mentioned aspects of the city should be shown.

5.4 Limitation and suggestions for further research
This study has several limitations, which are the starting point for further research. First of all, data for this study was collected in Amsterdam, and therefore the results can be generalized to the population of the sample and the tourist destination Amsterdam. Before generalizing the findings of this report to other cities, it is advisable to replicate this study in other cities, so the results can be compared. Another important point of notice is the fact that data was collected in high season. Although this is the best time to collect data (a lot of people in the city), it also influenced the results. In high season cities are overcrowded and especially young people are travelling due to holiday season. For future research it is therefore interesting to analyze if low/high season influences the research outcomes.

Furthermore, there are some limitations concerning the methodology. This research required a concise questionnaire, which limited the amount of items per question. This has among other things contributed to relatively low Cronbach's Alfas in this study, meaning that the underlying factors were not measured very well (Field, 2009). Besides, the concise list of items resulted in little components per variable. In future research, it is expedient to extend the questionnaire, so that more items can be asked to measure a variable. This might increase the internal validity of the study.

Another problem regarding the questionnaire is the way *valence* and *arousal* were asked. Those items were asked on a 5 point scale, where for example 1 meant unpleasant and 5 pleasant. Very often people were confused and did not know what to answer. This affected the results, which on their turn have affected the reliability. Therefore, a better introduction to the items *valence* and *arousal* is necessary to get more reliable outcomes.

Additionally, the items testing travel motivation and the cognitive image were compiled based on multiple literature studies, but were not tested on their usefulness for Amsterdam. Hence, the items used in this research were selected based on the researchers idea of what fits the city, instead of being substantiated with qualitative research. For future research it is suggested to do a qualitative study first, so that the items asked in the questionnaire can be determined.

Finally, except of the first three hypotheses, it should be noted that most of the Adj. R^2's of this research are pretty low. Therefore most of the relations are minimal relations according to Vaske (2008). As some other scientists found higher effect sizes (e.g. Baloglu and McCleary, 1999), the results of this report should be read with caution and further research is suggested to test the importance of the independent variables in this report.

5.5 Overall conclusion
This study aimed to extend existing knowledge about destination image and to expand it by including a new variable. The variable *personality traits* was selected, as it proved to be of great importance in other disciplines (e.g. consumer research and psychology).

The results of this study are pretty similar to existing literature. The global image is predicted by both the cognitive image and affective image, where the cognitive image also influences the affective image. Besides this, relations were found between travel motivation and the cognitive image, but not with other components of the destination image. Furthermore, social media and word-of-mouth predict most of the components of destination image, except arousal, where all other information sources do not significantly influence destination image. Finally, personal characteristics have no significant relation with destination image.

Additionally, the outcome of this research emphasizes the unimportance of personality traits regarding destination image. This indicates that personality does not affect the image of a city, and should therefore not be included in the process of destination image formation. Furthermore, it suggests that personality traits do not affect tourists behavior, which is surprising given the importance of personality traits on

consumer behavior. Therefore, this research states that tourists are different from consumers, as personality does play a role in consumer behavior, and not in tourist behavior.

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Appendix 1 – The questionnaire

Thank you for participating in this research! I am a master student of the Wageningen University, and currently working on my thesis about destination image. This questionnaire will only take a few minutes to fill in, and helps me graduate ☺ All the responses remain strictly confidential and anonymous.

The following statements are about travel motivations. Please indicate to which extent you disagree/agree with the following statements:

"I go on holiday ..

	Totally disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Totally agree
.. to escape from the hustle and bustle of everyday life"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to re-evaluate and discover more about myself"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to mentally refresh and relax"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to rest physically"	O	O	O	O	O
.. because others think it is a good thing to do (prestige)"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to do things which are inconceivable within normal life"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to spend time with friends/family"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to meet new people"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to make new friends"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to see new things (curiosity)"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to extend knowledge"	O	O	O	O	O
.. to learn new things"	O	O	O	O	O

Please select for each of the aspects what your impression is of Amsterdam:

	Very negative	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Very positive
Quality of infrastructure	O	O	O	O	O
Personal safety	O	O	O	O	O
Nightlife and entertainment	O	O	O	O	O
Accommodations	O	O	O	O	O
Hospitable, friendly people	O	O	O	O	O
Unusual ways of life and customs	O	O	O	O	O
Shopping facilities	O	O	O	O	O
Food (Cuisine)	O	O	O	O	O
Cultural and historical attractions	O	O	O	O	O
Value for your money	O	O	O	O	O
Unpolluted environment	O	O	O	O	O
Climate	O	O	O	O	O
Shopping facilities	O	O	O	O	O
Luxury	O	O	O	O	O
Name and reputation	O	O	O	O	O
Scenery / Natural attractions	O	O	O	O	O

What are your general feelings towards Amsterdam? Please give your opinion on a scale of 1 to 5.

Unpleasant	O	O	O	O	O	Pleasant
Boring	O	O	O	O	O	Exciting
Distressing	O	O	O	O	O	Relaxing
Sleepy	O	O	O	O	O	Arousing
Annoyed	O	O	O	O	O	Pleased
Relaxed	O	O	O	O	O	Stimulating

What is your <u>overall feeling</u> about Amsterdam?

Very negative	Negative	Slightly negative	Neutral	Slightly positive	Positive	Very positive
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Below you find a list with different <u>information sources</u>. Please indicate to what extent you used the below mentioned information sources while searching for information about Amsterdam.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I used travel blogs	O	O	O	O	O
I used social media	O	O	O	O	O
I used (travel) books	O	O	O	O	O
I used travel programs	O	O	O	O	O
I used word-of-mouth (friends, relatives)	O	O	O	O	O
I used own previous experience	O	O	O	O	O

The following statements are about your own <u>personality</u>. Please answer for each statement how well it fits you:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I am the life of the party	O	O	O	O	O
I sympathize with others' feelings	O	O	O	O	O
I get chores done right away	O	O	O	O	O
I have frequent mood swings	O	O	O	O	O
I have a vivid imagination	O	O	O	O	O
I don't talk a lot	O	O	O	O	O
I am not interested in other people's problems	O	O	O	O	O
I often forget to put things back in their proper place	O	O	O	O	O
I am relaxed most of the time	O	O	O	O	O
I am not interested in abstract ideas	O	O	O	O	O
I talk to a lot of different people at parties	O	O	O	O	O
I feel others' emotions	O	O	O	O	O
I like order	O	O	O	O	O
I get upset easily	O	O	O	O	O
I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas	O	O	O	O	O
I keep in the background	O	O	O	O	O
I am not really interested in others	O	O	O	O	O
I make a mess of things	O	O	O	O	O
I seldom feel blue/unhappy	O	O	O	O	O
I do not have a good imagination	O	O	O	O	O

Personal characteristics

Wat is your gender?

- O   Male
- O   Female

What is the highest completed education level?

0 No formal education	0 High School	0 College
0 Bachelor	0 Masters	0 Doctoral/PHD

What is your age?

....

Which country are you from?

....

Have you been to Amsterdam before: O   Yes, ... time(s)   O   No, this is my first time
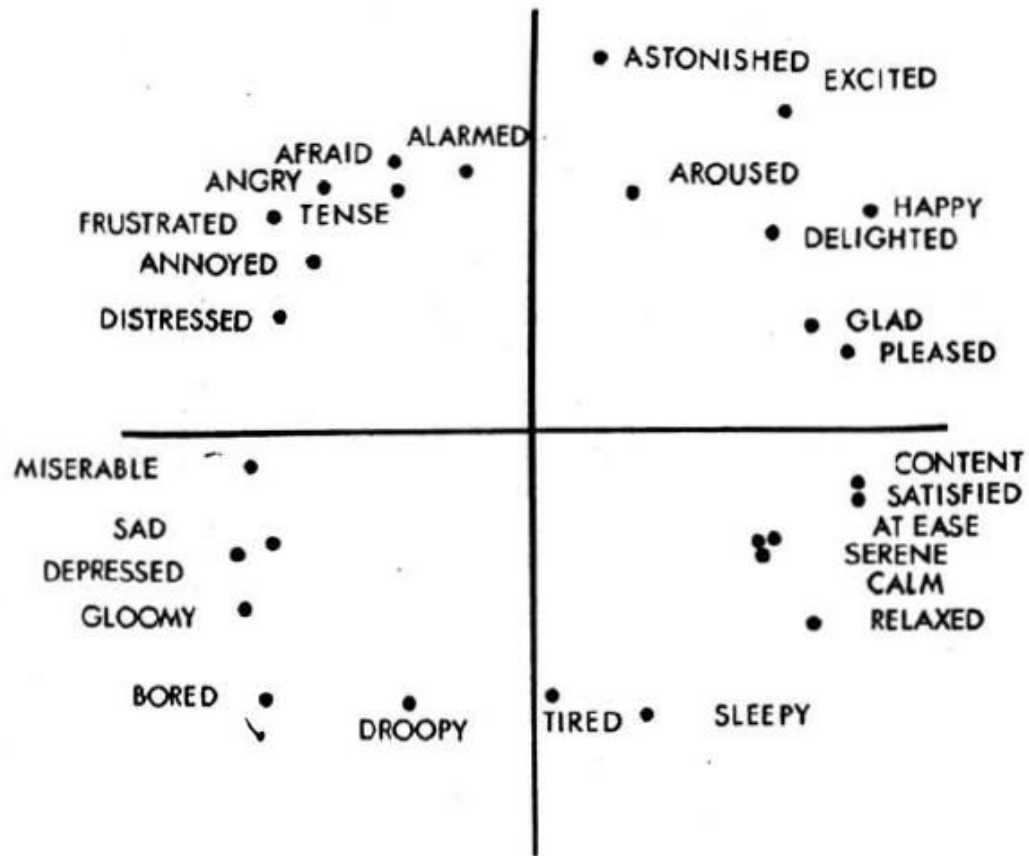
Thank you for your participating!

Figure 4. Unidimensional scaling of 28 affect words on pleasure–displeasure (horizontal axis) and degree of arousal (vertical axis).

Appendix 3 – Measuring Personality traits: 20-Item Mini-IPIP

Items to measure the Big Five Factors of Personality, developed by Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, and Lucas (2006).

20-Item Mini-IPIP

Item	Factor	Text
1	E	Am the life of the party.
2	A	Sympathize with others' feelings
3	C	Get chores done right away.
4	N	Have frequent mood swings.
5	I	Have a vivid imagination.
6	E	Don't talk a lot. (R)
7	A	Am not interested in other people's problems. (R)
8	C	Often forget to put things back in their proper place. (R)
9	N	Am relaxed most of the time. (R)
10	I	Am not interested in abstract ideas. (R)
11	E	Talk to a lot of different people at parties.
12	A	Feel others' emotions.
13	C	Like order.
14	N	Get upset easily.
15	I	Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas. (R)
16	E	Keep in the background. (R)
17	A	Am not really interested in others. (R)
18	C	Make a mess of things. (R)
19	N	Seldom feel blue. (R)
20	I	Do not have a good imagination. (R)

Note. E = Extraversion; A = Agreeableness; C = Conscientiousness; N = Neuroticism; I = Intellect/Imagination; (R) = Reverse Scored Item. Original 50-item IPIP-FFM available at http://ipip.ori.org/newQform50b5.htm.

Appendix 4 – List of *countries of origin* from the sample size

Country of Origin	% Tourists	n_i
UK	19.9	80
Italy	14.2	57
Germany	8.0	32
USA	8.0	32
France	6.5	26
Spain	5.5	22
Argentina	3.0	12
Australia	3.0	12
Ireland	2.7	11
Austria	2.5	10
Brazil	2.5	1110
Canada	2.2	9
Mexico	2.0	8
Belgium	1.7	7
Netherlands	1.7	7
China	1.5	6
Israel	1.2	5
Finland	1	4
South Korea	1	4
Tunisia	1	4
Czech Republic	0.7	3
Georgia	0.7	3
Peru	0.7	3
Singapore	0.7	3
Slovenia	0.7	3
South Africa	0.7	3
Sweden	0.7	3
Switzerland	0.7	3
Colombia	0.5	2
India	0.5	2
Japan	0.5	2
Oman	0.5	2
Russia	0.5	2
Turkey	0.5	2
Uruguay	0.5	2
Bosnia	0.2	1
Dubai	0.2	1
Guatemala	0.2	1
Indonesia	0.2	1
Poland	0.2	1
Uganda	0.2	1
Total	100	402