Small in Scale, not in Value

- An empirical study on the effect of small-scale events on destination image and tourists' behavioral intentions

Master Thesis

Master of Social Science (MSocSc) in Service Management

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Abstract

Even though a lot of previous empirical studies have explored the effect of mega-events on destination image, a relatively limited number of studies have considered the effect of small-scale events. Therefore, this thesis is going to investigate the value contribution of the small-scale events to the host destination as being part of the travel experience. This research measures the event satisfaction of the attendees after they have attended the event. Furthermore, the relationship of event satisfaction and destination image and its components (destination imagery and destination affect) has been investigated together with the moderating affect of the number of visits. Additionally, the study inspects the relationship between event satisfactions and behavioral intentions, including revisit intention and possibility to recommend the city to others or word-of-mouth (WOM). The results show that the event satisfaction not only has an effect on destination imagery, but also on the revisit intention and WOM. While the moderator has only impact on the relationship between event satisfaction and destination affect. In addition, the study finds that both destination imagery and destination affect have an impact on the revisit intention and WOM.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background

There is no doubt that tourism boosts the local economy thus increasing the competition between destinations in attracting visitors. Since destination image has been proven to drive destination choice and tourists' behavior (Garner, 1994), destination marketers have been trying to create a positive image of the respective place (Ahmed, 1991). The interest in destination image have resulted in vast amount of researches on its formation (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Gartner, 1994; Hunt, 1975), its structure (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Dann, 1996; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Gartner, 1994; Josiassen, Assaf, Woo, & Kock, 2016; Kock, Josiassen & Assaf, 2016); and the factors that affect it (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Crompton, 1979; Gartner & Hunt, 1987).

The numerous researches on destination image show inconsistency in the way destination image has been defined and measured causing difficulties in the comparison of their results (Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007). This inconsistency comes from the complex nature of the destination image construct as well as its development from the researches' findings (Gallarza, Saura, & Garcıa, 2002). In the earliest stages of the literature destination image formation (Crompton, 1979; Hunt, 1975), the construct was measured only through its cognitive component, whereas in more recent years researchers have found strong support that destination image has a multiple nature consisting of and formed by various interrelated factors (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Gartner, 1993; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Gallarza, Saura & Garcia, 2002).

On the other hand, in more recent years a new field of research that of event tourism has earned its appreciation in the scientific circles as it presents the power of planned events in increasing the tourism levels in the host destination as well as shaping its image (Getz & Page, 2016). Therefore, events have been used as a marketing tool in competing with other tourism destinations around the world as well as to correct and change the image of a place (Ahmed, 1991; Smith, 2005). Nevertheless, they help create city's uniqueness that makes tourists want to visit and revisit the place. Planned events are also considered as a bridge between the market and visitors demand, creating high-demand of visitors even during an off-peak period (Connell, Page, & Meyer, 2015).

Furthermore, in the event management literature, special events have been classified by various authors using different typologies (Getz, 2008; Getz & Page, 2014; Muller, 2015; Wagen, 2014), however the different types of events have been vaguely defined with small-scale events lacking a clear definition. Even though few authors (Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007; Li & Vogelsong, 2006) have researched the relationship between small-scale events and destination image, no precise definition has been given.

While most researches are focusing on the contribution of mega-events to the host destination tourism estimates, the small-scale events have been understudied. According to the event portfolio model proposed by Getz (1997), local events comprise the base of the model since they outnumber other types of events in the portfolio as well as they are believed to have a limited value. However, Getz's event portfolio model has been revised in 2016 in a way that planned events are no longer characterized through their value contribution to the host destination.

Hence, with this study we want to find evidence supporting Getz's revised model that small-scale events also bring value to the destination. In addition, this study aims to provide clarification in both 'destination image' and 'special events' constructs as well as to further develop the respective scientific areas by providing insights on the affect of small-scale event satisfaction upon the host destination's image. Furthermore, we hope that the results of this study can help both event managers and destination marketers in better understanding the tourists' behavior and in this way to be able to work together on the creation of more suitable marketing strategy regarding the destination by incorporating small-scale events in the attractions portfolio.

1.2 Research question and research method

There are numerous studies revealing the impact of mega-events upon a destination (Kim & Morrison, 2005; Lee, Kim, Lee, & Kim, 2014; Liu & Gratton, 2010; Ritchie & Smith, 1991). These studies show both the economic impact of mega-events on the host destination such as increase in tourism and new job positions as well as the increase of individuals' awareness of the place.

However, little research has been done on the affect of small-scale events (Getz, 2008; Li & Vogelsong, 2006). Although the main purpose to visit a destination may not be to attend a small-scale event as it is in the case of mega-events, small-scale events are still part of the travel experience (Gunn, 1988) and as such we assume that they have an impact on the destination image. Furthermore, there is a research gap in investigating the relationship between small-scale event satisfaction and destination image as no such research has been found. Most of the researches exploring the affect of small-scale events focus only on the affect of the event satisfaction on individuals' behavioral intentions both towards the

destination and the event (Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2010; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007; Koo, Byon, & Baker III, 2014).

Thus, with this study we want to investigate the small-scale events satisfaction as a factor that affects the destination image as well as its components and further observe its role as a predictor of tourists' behavior and further intentions towards the destination. In that sense the following research question has been formulated:

RQ: What is the affect of small-scale events upon the host destination's image?

In order to answer the research question, a self-administered survey was created and distributed among 216 small-scale event attendees in Copenhagen, capital city of Denmark. Furthermore, as some authors distinguish between the destination images held by locals and tourists (Phelps, 1986), this study focuses on Copenhagen's visitors, hence nonresidents. The survey took 8 – 10 minutes in average to be completed and consisted of six parts measuring the following variables – (1) destination imagery; (2) destination affect; (3) destination image; (4) event satisfaction; (5) behavioral intentions; (6) socio-demographic characteristics.

The quantitative methods have been a preferred research method by most of the destination image researcher (Gallarza, Saura, & Garcıa, 2002; Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007). According to Gallarza et al. (2002), the research focus of scholars using qualitative methods is mostly on place marketing and promotion. However, after Echtner and Ritchie's (1993) publication a change in the used research methods regarding destination image measurement has occurred resulting in the use of mixed methods (Tasci et al., 2007). Thus, even though a survey was chosen as a primary research method for the current study,

twelve semi-structured interviews have been conducted in order to capture the complete destination imagery of Copenhagen as proposed by Echtner and Ritchie (1993, 2003).

1.2 Delimitation

Difference should be made between the visitors' and locals' image of a place (Phelps, 1986). As observed by Schroeder (Schroeder, 1996), the more positive the image of a destination held by residents is, the more likely they are to recommend it to others. The author proposes that residents can act as ambassadors in marketing their place by affecting the organic image held by nonresidents (Schroeder, 1996). Furthermore, Stylidis, Shani and Belhassen (Stylidis, Shani, & Belhassen, 2017) present the residents in the light of stakeholder theory, thus they can be characterized as group of individuals that affect and are affected by the destination.

From event management perspective, some researchers have explored the social impact of events on the local community as well as the residents' perceptions of the event (Valle, Mendes, & Guerreiro, 2012; Pranić, Petrić, & Cetinić, 2012). However, residents' perspective of the events' impact on the destinations' image as well as their representation of the destination are beyond the scope of this Master thesis as they comprise a separate research area.

Another delimitation of the current study is the type of the planned event according to its form and size. Getz and Page (Getz & Page, 2016) have differentiated six types of events according to their form thus meaning their appearance and theme. Their classification consists of – (1) cultural celebrations; (2) business and trade; (3) arts and entertainment; (4) sport and recreation; (5) political and state events and (6) events with private functions. Moreover, according to their size events have been classified as small, large, major, mega

and giga-events (Getz & Page, 2016; Müller, 2015). Hence, the focus of this study according to the event size is on small-scale events and according to the form of the event the attention falls on art exhibitions.

In conclusion, the currents study is comprised of six sections following the chronology of the chosen scientific method. In the next section, a literature review, investigating the evolution of both ‘destination image’ and ‘planned events’ concepts, have been presented followed by the development of hypotheses based on information from previous researches. Further after, a description of the current study’s methodology has been introduced. In the fourth section, the conducted analysis of the data is shown together with the development and reliability of the chosen measurement scales. Finally, a discussion of the current study’s outcomes has been provided as well as its further theoretical and managerial implications.

Chapter 2: Literature review

According to the foundations of our thesis, this part presents the summary of relevant literature to this study and hypothesis development. There are five sections classified as follows: (1) Event typology, (2) Event portfolio, (3) Event satisfaction, (4) Destination image formation, (4) Destination image components, and lastly (5) Hypotheses development based on the literature review hereafter.

2.1 Event typology

This section primarily provides an overview of event definitions and event typologies. The two main event typologies have been reviewed as a main part of this thesis – typology by size and typology by form of the event. The second type is included as an example of previous empirical studies in connection with art exhibitions.

Getz and Page (2016) provide a definition of event as: “event is an occurrence at a given place and time; a special set of circumstances; a noteworthy occurrence (p. 46)”. It should be planned and a specific schedule should be provided in advance. Events can generate similar experiences even in different settings since there are multi-functions and meanings attached to them (Getz and Page, 2016). Due to the multi-dimension of event functions and meaning, the event typologies are complicated and depend on the researchers’ interpretation.

2.1.1 Event typology by scale

Getz, (2008); Getz & Page, (2014); Wagen (2014) divided events by size and function as mega-event, hallmark event and major-event; however, clear definition between these events is still not provided. Muller (2015) uses specific number of visitors to divide the large

scale event into three sizes: giga events, mega-event and major events, whereas Wagen (2014) vaguely adds minor event as the last type. Mega-events have been defined by many researchers, for example Getz (1997) identifies mega-events as the events that generate extraordinarily high levels of tourism, media coverage, and economic impact for the host city. According to Roche (1994) mega-events are short-term events that create a long-term values, i.e., city's image or identity, to the host city through national and international media, however the city creates high costs of investment for the city's infrastructure and event facilities.

Hallmark event is described as a unique major event that increases the awareness, attractiveness and profitability of a destination city (Ritchie 1984, p.2). Roslow, Nicholls & Laskey (1992) provides a further definition of hallmark events' attendees as "they are attended by diverse audiences who have come together to enjoy a specific experience or entertainment. This heightened level of expectation may provide more beneficial expose content than traditional media (Roslow et al., 1992, p. 54)". Thus, hallmark events refer to the event that creates the opportunity to increase the media reach (Roslow et al., 1992). After that, Getz (2005) identifies hallmark event as an event that create a significant traditional, attractive, and competitive advantage to destination city which strongly connects that event with the city such as Mardi Gras and New Orleans city.

Major event is defined as an event that is able to attract a large number of foreigner participants and create a positive impact on economic, social, and cultural, and has an international reputation (media coverage) (Ministry of Business Innovation and Employment of New Zealand, 2010). Another research narrowly defines major events as the events that attract significant number of local attention and participants, as well as generating revenue from that event (Wagen, 2001).

Müller (2015) classifies the specific size of events as giga events, mega-events, and major events. Muller developed a point scoring scheme indicator which is used to classify the event into three interval sizes: Giga event (XXL), Mega-event (XL) and Major event (L). To illustrate, the event that met at least one out of four conditions can be considered as a major event.: (1) Number of visitor attractiveness should be higher than 0.5 million, (2) Value of broadcast rights (mediated reach) should be higher than 0.1 billion, (3) total cost should be higher than USD 1 billion, and (4) capital investment should be higher than USD 1 billion (Müller, 2015).

Moreover, Getz and Page (2016) provide five criteria to classify small and large scale events as listed in the table 1.

Table 1: A question of scale (Getz and Page, 2016, p.64)

	Small events	**Large events**
Form and function	Tend to be single-form events (e.g. a meeting, competition, private function) Less likely to be planned with tourists or media in mind	Tend to combine elements of style, such as sports becoming festivals, meetings adding exhibitions, or community festivals combining multiple events of all kinds (i.e. convergence) More likely to be planned to generate major economic and place-marketing benefits
The event experience	Mostly in the private and corporate spheres of interest The experience might be intensely private or shared with an affinity group	Mostly in the public sphere of interest Crowd dynamics can dominate

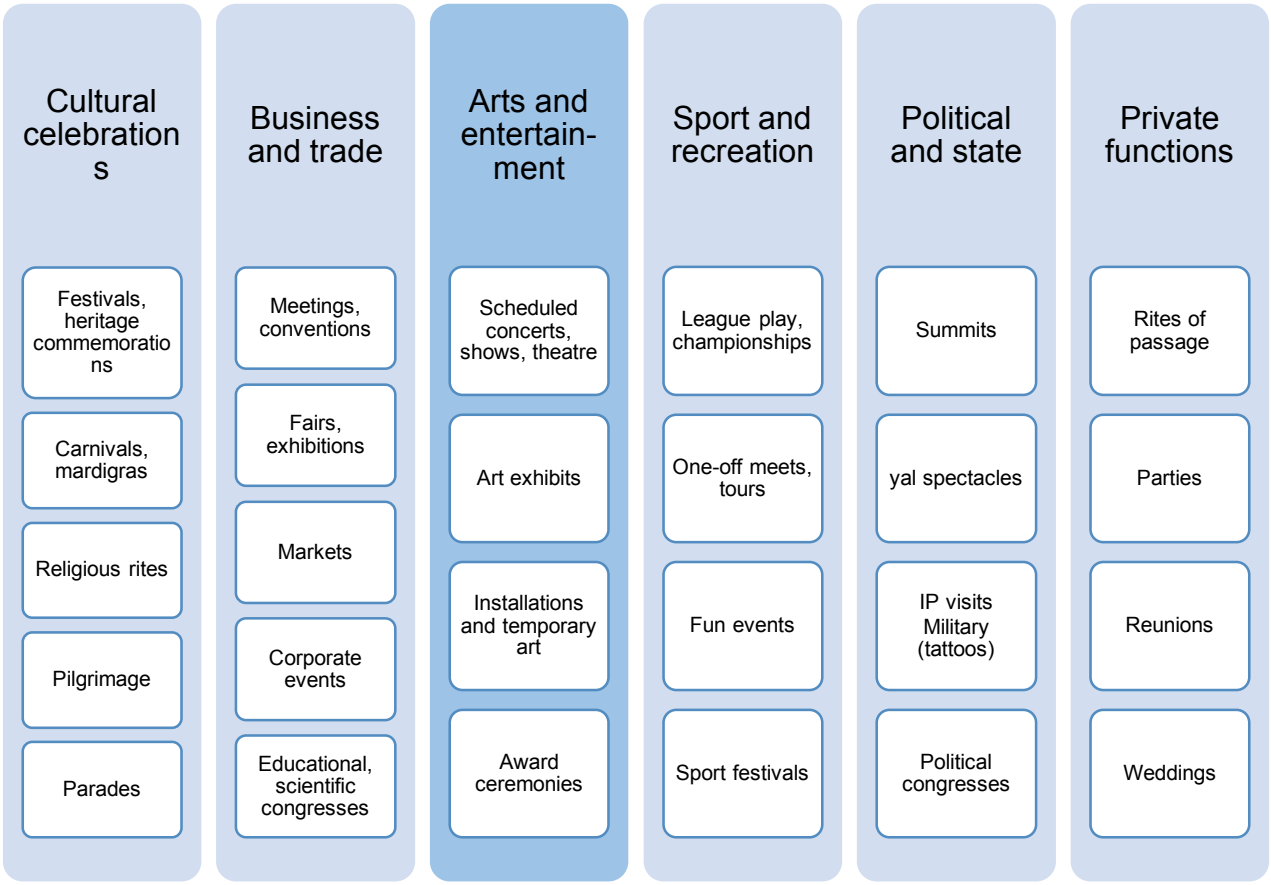
		The event can affect entire communities through media coverage and shared attitudes
Impacts	Collectively they are significant (e.g. weddings, meetings, parties, most sport meets)	Each large event has substantial impacts (e.g. festivals, major sport events, fairs and exhibitions)
Media coverage	Individual, small events seldom attract media attention	The event itself is of interest to the media, or created primarily as a media event
Policy implications	Policies related to venues, and to events in general (e.g. health standards, green operations, permits required)	Policy decisions required for specific events (e.g. decision to bid; infrastructure investments; feasibility studies and impact assessment commissioned)

In addition, Wagen (2001) indicates that most events fall into the minor event category – the events that cannot fit in the definitions of Mega, Hallmark or Major events. Hence, this study widely interprets other events that are not categorized as giga-event, mega-event, major event (or large event) nor hallmark events as a small-scale event.

2.1.2 Event typology by the form of event

Getz & Page (2016) classify planned event within tourism perspective into six types based on their form i.e. what it looks like and how it is programmed for the audience. Figure 1 presents the event typology based on the form of events developed by Getz and Page (2016). A discussion of art events definition and the respective empirical studies have been included as they can provide some basic knowledge about art events which is relevant to this study.

Figure 1: Typology of planned events (based on form of the event) (Getz and Page, 2016, p. 53)



The definition of arts overlaps with those of cultural celebration and entertainment types. Getz and Page (2016) accept that the activities between arts and entertainment are connected with some cultural aspect, but they argue that arts in entertainment and arts in cultural setting have different fundamental objective. Hughes (2000) debates that arts are usually related to “high culture”, while entertainment performance are wider and more public. However, Du Cros & Jolliffe (2014) indicate that the difference between arts and entertainment was merely about the point of view.

According to Getz and Page (2016), arts and entertainment type is divided into four major forms like *performing arts, literature, visual arts* and *touring entertainments*. The performing arts refer to all types of performances; however, some of the events are more deeply linked

to the meaning of culture such as Jazz, Ballet, or Opera shows. These events are viewed as a high cultural event instead of entertainment since they require some knowledge of the culture, the historic or value meaning. Meanwhile, the purpose of performance in arts and entertainment is identified as to passively create a pleasure experience to audience without any interpretation of its meaning (Getz and Page, 2016).

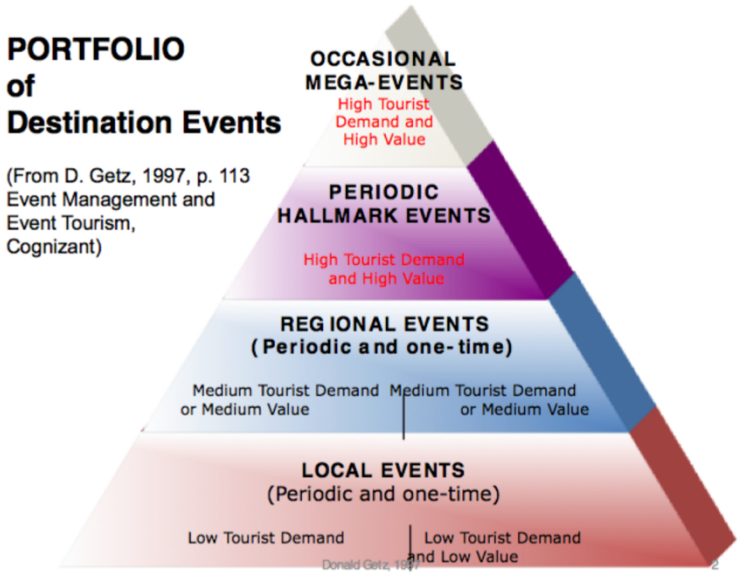
Literature events refer to any programme or festival that involves words such as books exhibitions and poetry festivals. The literature events will be classified in the arts category only if they are related to entertainment or written for an aesthetic appreciation. The meaning of visual arts is not only limited to painting, sculpture, handicraft, but also architecture, arts in media like computer graphic in game or the internet. The events that relate to any of these forms can be considered as arts and entertainment events. The last type refers to the old style of entertainments which requires entertainers that travel and perform in different places such as circus, carnivals and others (Getz and Page, 2016).

There are some researches regarding arts events and tourism which indicate the importance of arts exhibitions. Quinn (2006) found that art exhibitions have both positive and negative impacts on the society as they increase revenue flows, arts activity and improve venue infrastructure, while they negatively affect the local sustainability. Problems are found when the city authorities do not perceive the value of arts festivals more than an economic generator, or image changing tool (Quinn, 2005). Since they [authorities] do not perceive arts festivals as a social value, quality of life nor cultural related, then they cannot receive an optimal returns from such events (Quinn, 2005). Camarero et al. (2012) show the importance of quality and cultural value of the art exhibitions in Spain in connection with brand equity as brand equity has an impact on visitor perception as well as their revisit intention.

2.2 Event portfolio approach

Ziakas (2014) identifies the problem of studying ‘single events’ by narrowing down the understanding of event and its organization that may not create a long-term impact for a destination city. Therefore, Getz (1997) originally developed an event portfolio model focused on tourism goals and benefits. The event portfolio acts like assets (events) management aiming to generate tourism or economic advantage (Getz, 2013). Getz (2013) divides event portfolios by investment perspective into three types. A group of events that have high risk - high return characteristic is called ‘aggressive event portfolio’, while the group of event that has low risk characteristic and are mostly owned by local people have been labeled ‘defensive portfolio’. Lastly, an event portfolio that contains many mixing type of events to attract people throughout a year is called ‘balance portfolio’ (Getz, 2013).

Figure 2: The original 1997 portfolio model from Getz, 1997,p 113 (Getz, 2016, p. 9)



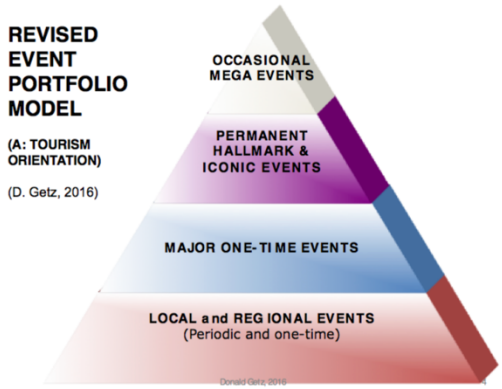
The original model of the event portfolio (figure 2) presents four main categories e.g., occasional mega-events, periodic hallmark events, regional events, and local events based

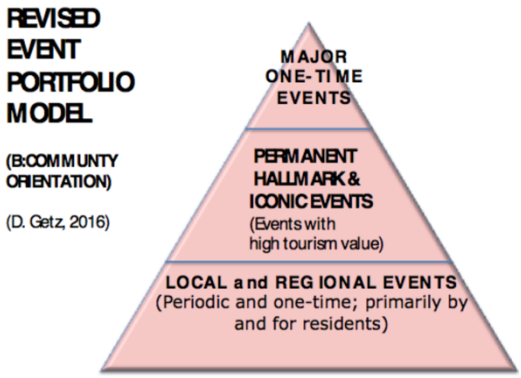
on value evaluations. Event's value was measured in two dimensions: economic benefits (ROI) and value to residents, and it is possible to be evaluated by image enhancement (Getz, 1997). Local events were initially determined as a low tourist demand and low value to the economic and community (Getz, 1997). The small-scale events are considered as low value in the context of the event portfolio since they cannot attract enough tourists to create an industry attention (Getz, 2012, p. 180).

However, when the original model was developed, the modern trend and sustainability concept were not included into the model (Getz, 2016). Getz (2016) has revised the portfolio model to two new models: model A and model B. Model A presents a tourism or economic development approach, while model B reflects a community and event population aspects. The new models are now included the important of community's economics (e.g., increasing jobs and revenue to the society) and community's environment.

Figure 3: Revised event portfolio model: Model A (left) (Getz, 2016, p11)

Figure 4: Revised event portfolio model: Model B (right) (Getz, 2016, p12)





In general, model A has an occasional mega-event located at the top of a pyramid with the highest tourist demand; permanent hallmark event and iconic event are located below of the top. Hallmark events contain intrinsic value which is recognized to be preserved. Both of them create high tourist value and high place marketing value. While in model B, the peak of pyramid is a major one-time event, instead of mega-event. Due to the negative impact that the mega-event might have on the community such as distraction or annoyance; hence Getz preferred to place a major event on the top pyramid for the community approach (Getz, 2016).

In comparison, both model's bases consist of local and regional events which have the largest portion. Local events initially create for local people, while the regional events are able to attract tourists from other cities (Getz, 2016). Local and regional events are determined as events with uncertain impact (Getz & Page, 2014). Some of them are able to be developed by investments, whereas others is better to be closed for tourists depending on the community's objectives (Getz & Page, 2014). Getz (2016) argues that small events have the power to boost vitality and attractiveness to the city; however, they normally do not receive much attention from tourism and economic development organizations.

2.3 Event satisfaction

It is undeniable that the term 'satisfaction' is defined as a post-evaluation after the consumer have purchased or consumed any product or service, however the evaluation process is differently explained by researchers. For example, satisfaction is a personal evaluation made after the consumption by cognitive appraisal (Day, 1984) or an emotional assessment (Westbrook & Reilly, 1983). In accordance with Solomon (2002), stated that consumer's satisfaction is determined by the entire set of feelings that an individual has after the

consumption of the product. To further elaborate on the emotion or feelings aspect, Oliver (1993) explains the difference between attribute satisfaction and affective satisfaction which affect the satisfaction response.

In the context of tourism studies, the satisfaction refers to a goodness of fit between before visiting and after visiting. To illustrates, Chon (1989) stated that the tourist satisfaction is a goodness of fit between the visitor's perception regarding the destination before visiting and the actual outcome of the experiences: what they see, feel, and achieve at the destination. Similar to Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel (1978) who define tourist satisfaction as a positive difference between visitors' experience and their expectation of the destination. In addition, the definition of tourist satisfaction by Chon (1989) and Pizam et. al (1978) are similar to the general idea of consumer's satisfaction provided by Oliver (1989). Consumers create their expectations regarding a product before purchasing, and they compare their actual experiences with their expectations, resulting in satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Oliver 1989).

The event satisfaction is understudied comparing with the tourist's satisfaction. Event satisfaction refers to visitors affective and cognitive perceptions of attending in the event (Sato, Yoshida, Wakayoshi, & Shonk, 2017). In addition, Theodorakis, Alexandris, Tsigilis, & Karvounis (2013) stated that satisfaction of sport event has a positive impact on participants' delight. Consistent with this study, the event visitor's satisfaction is referred to a pleasurable, fulfillment response to the entertainment of a sport competition (Yoshida & James, 2010). The relationship between event satisfactions and behavioral intentions will be further discussed in the final part in this chapter as it is related to the hypotheses development.

2.4 Destination image formation

In the destination image literature there is an agreement that the term “destination image” has been vaguely defined, thus researches on tourism destination image measurement are lacking a precise conceptual framework (Beerlin & Martin, 2004; Gallarza, Saura, & Garcia,2002; Josiassen, Assaf, Woo, & Kock, 2016; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016). In their theoretical research, Gallarza et al. (2002) have systematized a vast amount of previous studies with publishing dates ranging from 1971 to 1999 in order to find similarities between the previously investigated factors affecting the destination image formation process and to propose a conceptual model based on interdisciplinary review of previous literature on destination image formation and marketing theory as well as analysis of the methodologies used by scholars for the measurement of destination image. The result of their research is a model that presents destination image as consisting of four features:

1. *Destination image has a complex nature* – According to Gallarza et al. (2002) “a ‘complex’ concept is one which allows more than one interpretation or whose comprehension lacks a unique meaning (p. 68)”. The authors further indicate that in the literature there are as many definitions for destination image as the amount of researches investigating that concept (Gallarza et al., 2002). This statement was later confirmed by Tasci, Gartner and Cavusgil (Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007) as the authors claim that the difference in the definitions comes from the fact that authors do not put the same weight on each of the destination image components and in most cases the cognitive component prevails above the others.

   In table 2, some definitions of destination image from authors that have largely contributed to the conceptualization of the respective field are presented in a

chronological order. What can be seen from the provided definitions is that with time the ‘destination image’ concept has become more complex and consisting of more components as the field has been enlarged with more researches and findings.

As it can be seen from table 2, there is an agreement that destination image is a ‘sum’ of ‘total’, ‘global’, ‘overall’ impressions of a destination thus leading to conceptualizing destination image as a sum of its parts, therefore destination image is considered to be a holistic or gestalt concept. Furthermore, in their research Josiassen et al. (2016) argue that destination image is a ‘summary schema’ that is used to make an overall evaluation of impressions regarding a destination thus considering destination image as having an evaluative nature, rather than descriptive.

Table 2: Definitions of destination image

Definitions of destination image	Authors:
The sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination	Crompton, p. 18, 1979
It describes not individual traits or qualities, but the total impression an entity makes on the minds of others.	Dichter, p. 75, 1985
Destination images are formed by three distinctly different but hierarchically interrelated components: cognitive, affective and conative.	Gartner, p. 193, 1994
An attitudinal construct consisting of an individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings, and global impression about an object or destination	Baloglu & McClearly, p. 870, 1999
Destination image is defined as not only the perceptions of individual destination attributes but also the holistic impression made by the destination. Destination image consists of functional characteristics, concerning the more tangible aspects of the destination, and	Echtner & Ritchie, p. 43, 2003

psychological characteristics, concerning the more intangible aspects.	
An individual's or a group of individuals' overall evaluative representation of a destination	Josiassen, Assaf, Woo, & Kock, p. 791, 2016

2. *Destination image has a multiple nature* – thus meaning that destination image is a multi-item construct formed by the influence of multiple factors and their interrelation (Gallarza et al., 2002).The multiple nature of destination image is defined by two factors – the nature of destination image, whether it is attribute-based or holistic and its formation process, whether it is static or dynamic (Gallarza et al., 2002). The static approach to destination image formation process studies the relationship between image and tourist behavior such as destination choice and satisfaction, whereas the dynamic approach observes the destination image formation on itself (Gallarza et al., 2002). The attribute-based nature of the destination image presents image as formed by knowledge, feelings and global impression influenced by personal (psychological and social characteristics) and stimulus (information sources, previous experience, etc.) factors (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Gallarza et al. (2002) observe that in the destination image and tourism literature there is a disagreement between the authors whether destination image should be considered as an attribute-based or holistic construct, yet destination image has been perceived as a gestalt concept in most of the previously conducted researches (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gallarza, Saura, & Garcia, 2002; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016). The gestalt concept defines destination image as an overall holistic evaluation of its components thus some authors have used the term ‘overall image’ to refer to the overall perception of the individuals regarding a destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gallarza, Saura, &

Garcia, 2002; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016). Furthermore, there is a disagreement in the literature when it comes to the attributes that destination image is comprised of, since some authors consider only cognitive and affective attributes as part of the destination image structure (Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016), whereas others include both cognitive and affective as well as conative attributes (Dann, 1996; Gartner, 1994). The destination image components and the formation of overall image will be discussed in further details in the following sections of this research.

3. *Destination image has a relativistic nature* – this feature explains how destination image is both subjective, meaning that it changes from person to person and at the same time comparative thus meaning that destination image can be assumed as perceptions of objects as opposed to one another (Gallarza et al., 2002). Investigating the relativistic nature of the destination image has applications to the marketing strategy and strategic positioning of the destinations as it gives insights of the different customers' image perceptions and benefits sought as well as it has applications to the competitive strategies of the destinations as it allows comparison between samples and locations.
4. *Destination image has a dynamic nature* – the last feature observed by Gallarza et al. (2002) explains that image changes depending on time and space. In the studies that the authors have investigated the following relationship can be found - "the greater the distance, the greater the distortion of reality, and the shorter the distance, the greater the meaning of the details. (Gallarza et al., 2002, p. 72)". This relationship has been observed as early as Hunt's research from 1975 on the image of four states in North America (Colorado, Utah, Montana and Wyoming) perceived by

nonresidents (Hunt, 1975). In his research, Hunt (1975) has discovered that “more distant nonresident samples did not discern as extreme differences among the four states as did the nearer markets. (p. 4)”. This statement was further confirmed by Crompton in his research on the influence of geographical location upon the image of Mexico (Crompton, 1979).

2.5 Destination image components

A lot of researches have been conducted to find how destination image is formed (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Gartner, 1994; Hunt, 1975), what it is consisted of (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Dann, 1996; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Gartner, 1994; Josiassen, Assaf, Woo, & Kock, 2016; Kock, Josiassen & Assaf, 2016) and what factors affect it (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Crompton, 1979; Gartner & Hunt, 1987). For the purposes of this paper, however, we are interested only in what destination image is comprised of in order to measure it correctly.

Some authors state that destination image is comprised of cognitive, affective and global/holistic attributes (Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Kock, Josiassen & Assaf, 2016), whereas others include also conative attributes as part of the destination image structure (Dann, 1996; Gartner, 1994). In order to clarify what destination image is consisted of, a literature review in a chronological order for each component will be presented hereafter. Since scholars build their work on the basis of the findings of previously published researches, we believe that the latest findings have greater validity and reliability as they are based on larger pool of tested data.

2.5.1 Overall destination image

In a lot of the earliest studies on destination image, scholars have argued for the overall image of destinations, however, they do not measure it directly in their researches but through its affective and cognitive components (Crompton, 1979; Hunt 1975). In more recent years, the definition of destination image that has been preferred among the scholars, presents the construct as sum of its parts, therefore the 'destination image' has been seen more as a gestalt concept (Gallarza et al., 2002).

However, in her research Lin (Lin, 2004) explains the individuals' perception of physical environments through Gestalt psychology and further argues that according to this approach "the perception of the whole dominates the perception of its parts (p. 165)" thus the perception of the whole does not equal the sum of its parts. The author claims that since there are a lot of stimuli in the physical environment that affect the formation of perception, breaking down the structure to its components will blur the focus of the structure itself (Lin, 2004).

Against this background, several authors have included measurements of the destination image as a separate variable and have investigated the relationship between the destination image construct as a whole (overall image) and its components (Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Beerli & Marin, 2004; Kock, Josiassen & Assaf, 2016). Furthermore, in their research, Josiassen et al. (2016) clarify the used terms in destination image literature as well as argue for the right use of 'destination image' concept, the later being defined as "an individual's or group of individuals' overall evaluative representation of a destination (p. 791)". The authors further propose "that this overall image be labeled 'destination image', and that individuals'

beliefs about the specific characteristics and the tourist's mental responses to these be labeled 'destination imagery' (Josiassen et al., 2016, p. 791)".

2.5.2 The cognitive destination image component

In the literature on destination image formation, there is an agreement that individuals hold mental images or association with a destination and this images play a huge role in the evaluation of the destination as well as in the decision making process when considering different travel destinations (Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Gartner, 1994). As discussed earlier, authors define the cognitive destination image component in a similar way, most often as "the beliefs or knowledge about a destination's attributes (Baloglu & McClearly, 1999, p. 870)".

Noteworthy, in his research on image formation process, Gartner (Gartner, 1994) gives similar definition for 'cognitive image component' as other authors give for 'destination image'. According to Gartner (1994), "the cognitive component may be viewed as the sum of beliefs and attitudes of an object leading to some internally accepted picture of its attributes. (p. 193)". This was further explained by Baloglu and McClearly (1999) as the definitions of destination image focus on and emphasize its cognitive attributes rather than encompassing all its components, in this way disregarding the affective component as well as the total or as labeled by some authors overall image (Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016) thus leading to false measurement of destination image (Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007).

Furthermore, in most recent research, Josiassen et al. (2016) propose those mental images to be labeled 'destination imagery' in order to clarify the difference between the most used definitions of destination image which put higher weight on the cognitive component and in

this way separating the two constructs. Thus the authors defined ‘destination imagery’ as “an individual’s or group of individuals’ diverse cognitive and affective associations relating to a destination (Josiassen et al., 2016, p. 792)”. The inclusion of both cognitive and affective/holistic associations is also supported by Echtner and Ritchie (2003), who state that destination attributes/associations can be both functional (which can be directly observed and measured) and psychological (holistic impressions that cannot be measured, e.g. atmosphere). Kock et al. (2016) further elaborate on the affective associations connected to a destination and make a difference between the affective associations/descriptors and affective responses (the affective destination image component) that individuals hold towards a destination. According to them, “while destination imagery includes affective descriptors, the construct is cognitive in nature (Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016, p. 32)”.

2.5.3 The affective destination image component

According to Gartner (1994), “the affective component of image is related to the motives one has for destination selection. Motives determine what we wish to obtain from the object being considered thus affecting object valuation (p. 196)”. However, Baloglu and McClearly (1999) define the affective component as related to “feelings toward or attachment to it (a destination) (p. 870)”. Furthermore, Kock et al. (2016) use the term ‘destination affect’ when referring to the affective destination image component. The authors define the construct as “an individual’s overall affect attributed to a destination (Kock et al., 2016, p.33)” and further argue that individuals use their feelings attached to a destination in order to evaluate their overall impression of it. Thus the shift in the definitions of the affective image component from related to individuals’ motives to related to individuals’ feelings can be explained as the feelings or affective states drive individuals’ actions, decisions and motives to travel. To

elaborate further on that statement, in their research Baloglu and Brinberg (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997) analyze Gartner's (1994) definition of the affective destination image component by linking it to the value that individuals put to a destination through the benefits or motives they have to visit it. The authors explain this connection by providing the following example – "individuals seeking different motivational experience (knowledge, adventure, prestige, etc.) may feel excited about a destination and they may evaluate it as an exciting place if they perceive that the benefits they seek are present in the destination. (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997, p. 12)". In this way Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) link the feelings of an individual to their motives, in the sense of benefits sought in connection with visiting a destination.

What can be understood from the literature on destination image formation is that the affective component depends on the cognitive evaluations of the destinations attributes and in this way affects the overall image of the place as well as the affective responses influence the individuals' behavior (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Kock, Josiassen & Assaf, 2016). The relationship between the cognitive and affective component as well as the relationship between the affective component and the overall destination image has been investigated by Baloglu and McClearly (1999). The authors have found strong support for their hypotheses thus meaning that the cognitive influence the affective component and the affective component influence the destination image. Whereas the relationship between the affective component and behavioral intentions has been investigated by Kock et al. (2016) and has been proven as true and significant towards behavioral intentions such as willingness to recommend and willingness to revisit, however it was partially confirmed for the behavioral intention – willingness to pay proposed by the authors.

2.5.4 The conative destination image component

As observed by Tasci et al. (2007), the major debate in the literature on destination image is whether the conative component should be included as part of the image construct or not. By summarizing vast amount of literature, Tasci et al. (2007) have found that some researchers include the conative component as part of the destination image construct (Gartner, 1994; Dann, 1996), whereas others are investigating the impact of destination image on some behavioral intentions and do not incorporate it in the destination image definition (Baloglu & McClearly, 1994; Kock, Josiassen & Assaf, 2016). In order to better understand and validly measure the destination image construct, some clarification of how the conative component is defined in the literature is needed.

According to Gartner (1994), “the conative image component is analogous to behavior because it is the action component (p. 196)”. The author further claims that it is directly connected to the cognitive and affective components as it depends on them (Gartner, 1994). Furthermore, basing on Gartner’s work (1994), Dann (1996) in his qualitative study has investigated the conative component with the help of pictorial stimuli. According to the author, the conative component is “the action component which builds on the cognitive and affective stages (Dann, 1996, p. 49)”. He further explains that by using pictorial stimuli, the conative component can be explained by the individuals’ identification with the pictured scenery (Dann, 1996).

On the other hand, Josiassen et al. (2016) present a strong argument against the inclusion of the conative component as part of the destination image construct in this way excluding it from the destination image’s definition. The authors claim that, individuals’ behavioral intentions towards a destination, in that sense before, during and after visitation are

consequences which are affected by the destination image thus including them in the definition and then exploring the effect of the destination image on such behavioral intentions is tautological (Josiassen, Assaf, Woo, & Kock, 2016).

In conclusion, in this paper we are following the conceptualization of destination image presented by Josiassen et al. (2016) and Kock et al. (2016). Thus to clarify the terminology used hereafter, we are going to use the following labels in relation to the destination image construct – 1) The term 'destination imagery' is going to be used when referring to the cognitive destination image component; 2) The term 'destination affect' explains the affective destination image component; 3) When referring to the destination image, we are considering the individuals' overall evaluation of a destination; 4) In this paper, the conative component is not considered as part of the destination image construct but more as the result of it, hence we are referring to it as the individuals' further behavioral intentions towards a destination.

2.6 Hypotheses Development

2.6.1 Event satisfaction and destination image

From the literature on destination image formation, it can be observed that a lot of researches have been conducted to find relationships between different factors that form and affect the destination image (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Crompton, 1979; Gartner, 1994; Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Gunn, 1988). A difference should be made between factors that affect the static structure of destination image formation thus meaning the relationship between destination image and tourists' behavior and factors that affect its dynamic structure – the formation of destination image before the first visitation (Baloglu & McClearly, 1999; Gallarza, Saura, & Garcia, 2002).

Many authors argue that actual visitation of destination further modifies the destination image (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1994; Gunn, 1988; Pearce, 1982; Phelps, 1986). Gartner (1994) labels the image formed through previous experience with a destination – an organic image. According to the author, the organic images have higher credibility as it is formed on the basis of the individuals' personal experience (Gartner, 1994). Furthermore, Phelps (1986) defines the term 'primary image' as the image formed by the experience with a place and further argues that it differs between individuals, e.g. between tourists and locals, even though it is based on the individuals' interaction with the same place.

In more recent years, Beerli and Martin (2004) have investigated the relationship between the intensity of the visit thus meaning "the extent of an individual's interaction with the place (p. 663)" and the perceived destination image. The authors have measured this variable by estimating the number of the visited places by the individual; however, they have not indicated which of them have the most influence on the destination image (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Furthermore, some researchers have investigated the mediating impact of travel experience on the relationship between destination image and behavioral intentions such as intentions to revisit the destination and recommend it to others (Kim, Hallab, & Kim, 2012; Liu, Li, & Kim, 2017), however, little or no research has been conducted to explore which travel experiences boost the destination image attributes and lead to revisitation (Kim, Hallab, & Kim, 2012).

Gunn (1988) classifies tourist attractions and travel activities in two groups based on the amount of time that a visitor needs to observe or go through them – 'touring circuit' and 'long-stay'. The author further includes visitation of museums, festival, cultural events, conferences and other events in his list of attractions and activities and argues for their

power as a ‘pulling’ factor, in the sense that they attract tourist, hence their name –attractions (Gunn, 1988). Chalip and McGuirty also present events as part of the attractions that the destination is offering in order to attract visitors thus the authors further propose that event organizers and destination marketers should work together in order to provide a better service by incorporating events into the destinations’ portfolio of products and services with the help of bundling strategy used in marketing theory (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004).

In their paper, Baker and Crompton (Baker & Crompton, 2000) make a difference between ‘quality of performance/opportunity’ and ‘satisfaction – quality of experience’ in a tourism perspective. The authors argue that the evaluation of the quality of performance is based on the tourists perceptions of the performance of the provider, whereas satisfaction is connected to the emotional state of mind after the interaction with the provider and can be affected by external stimuli that the provider cannot control, e.g. the individual’s mood, weather, etc. (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Baker et al. (2000) further indicate that satisfaction can be obtained only after an interaction with the destination. In that sense, Gunn (1988) also argues for the role of attraction designers to estimate satisfaction in order for the attraction to be successful as a pulling factor.

Against this background, we characterize small-scale events as part of the destinations’ attractions, however no research has been found that investigates the relationship between satisfaction with the destination attractions and destination image thus leading to the assumption that satisfaction with the events as part of the travel experience will affect the destination image. Hence, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

H1: After attending a small-scale event held in a tourism destination, the event satisfaction will positively affect the destination image in the minds of the event attendees

H2: After attending a small-scale event held in a tourism destination, the event satisfaction will positively affect the destination imagery connected to the host destination in the minds of the event attendees

H3: After attending a small-scale event held in a tourism destination, the event satisfaction will positively affect the destination affect connected to the host destination in the minds of the event attendees

2.6.2 Difference of destination image perception between first-time and repeat visitors

Many authors indicate that the number of visits to a destination affects the individuals' image of the place (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). In their research, Fakeye and Crompton (1991) distinguish the destination image between three groups of tourist – prospective, first-time and repeat visitors. The authors have found a significant difference between the destination image perception of the prospective and repeat visitors as well as partial difference between first-time and repeat tourists (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). According to their results, the higher the number of visits, the more complex and detailed the destination image is as the tourists get more acquainted with the place and its attributes (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Furthermore, Akhoondnejad (Akhoondnejad, 2015) have investigated the image perception of first-time visitors of Iran and have also found a difference in Iran's pre-travel and post-travel image in the minds of the visitors.

Echnter and Ritchie (2003) confirm Fakeye and Crompton's (1991) statement that destination image differ between first-time and repeat visitors and indicate that monitoring the number visitations in the research can help developing a more precise and accurate marketing strategy when addressing the different customer segments. However, Beerli and Martin (2004) have found only partial confirmation on their hypothesis concerning the affect of past experience on the destination imagery and affect thus the relationship between number of visits and destination image is still ambiguous and further investigation is needed.

In relation to event attendance, Kaplanidou and Vogt (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007) have found support for their hypothesis referring to the affect of past experience with the destination on the destination image in the minds of sport spectators. Furthermore, Kaplanidou and Gibson (2012) have not found support for their hypothesis regarding the difference of destination image perception between first-, second- and third-time event spectators, however, the authors have found that event satisfaction as a covariate significantly influences the differences in the image perception according to the number of visits as well as the spectator further behavioral intentions towards the host destination with the only exception of intention to visit the host destination for a vacation (Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012).

On the basis of the above mentioned researches, the following hypotheses have been developed:

H4: The number of visits will moderate the relationship between events satisfaction and destination image

H5: The number of visits will moderate the relationship between events satisfaction and destination imagery

H6: The number of visits will moderate the relationship between events satisfaction and destination affect

2.6.3 Destination image and behavioral intentions

Tourism has been proven to have a positive economic impact on destinations thus attracting tourist has been a major goal of the respective authorities. Furthermore, there is a common agreement in the marketing literature that a passive strategy towards retaining consumers has negative effects on the company (Rosenberg & Czepiel, 1984) thus destination marketers should focus on winning the customers' loyalty. Dick and Basu define customer loyalty as "the relationship between relative attitude and repeat patronage (Dick & Basu, 1994, p. 102)". Furthermore, apart from the repeat purchase which in the case of destination loyalty can be seen as revisitation, the authors have proposed word-of mouth as a consequence of customer loyalty (Dick & Basu, 1994). In their research on destination loyalty, Yoon and Uysal have also used two variables to measure the destination loyalty, namely intention to revisit and to recommend it to friends and relatives (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Numerous empirical studies have been conducted regarding the affect of destination image upon individuals' further behavioral intentions (Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Kock, Josiassen & Assaf, 2016; Wang & Hsu, 2010). As stated by Kock et al. (2016), in the attitude theory there is an agreement that "mental states are inextricably linked to behavioral intentions (p. 30)" thus many researchers investigate the affect of 'destination image' in the sense of overall evaluation of the destination and individuals' behavioral intentions. The implications of the results from this relationship can help destination marketers to better understand what drives tourist to come revisit the destination and further increase their economic impact on the place.

The measurement of the affect of destination image on the behavioral intentions shows inconsistency both in the chosen scales for destination image measurement as well as in their outcomes. To illustrate, Chen and Tsai (2007) have used only cognitive attributes to measure the destination image and in that way they have found a direct relationship between the destination image and the behavioral intentions. Furthermore, both Kock et al. (2016) and Bigne et al. (2001) have used a direct measurement for destination image and have also found a direct relationship between the two constructs. Moreover, Kock et al. (2016) have also investigated the relationship between destination affect and individuals willingness to revisit and recommend the destination and have further found a significant support for their hypotheses. However, according to the results of Wang and Hsu's research (2010) destination image which was measured directly does not affect behavior directly but only through satisfaction.

As a result of the inconsistent measuring of destination image and the incompatible results, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

H7: Event attendees' intention to revisit the destination will be positively affected by the destination image.

H8: Event attendees' intention to revisit the destination will be positively affected by the destination imagery.

H9: Event attendees' intention to revisit the destination will be positively affected by the destination affect.

H10: The possibility of recommending the destination to others by the event attendees will be positively affected by the destination image.

H11: The possibility of recommending the destination to others by the event attendees will be positively affected by the destination imagery.

H12: The possibility of recommending the destination to others by the event attendees will be positively affected by the destination affect.

2.6.4 Event satisfaction and behavioral intentions

There are many researches finding a connection between event satisfaction and behavioral intention (Lee and Beeler, 2009; Chi & Qu 2008;Cole & Illum, 2006; Koo, Byon, & Baker III, 2014). Lee and Beeler (2009) identified that visitors who are highly satisfied with the event have higher intention to revisit the city. Cole & Illum (2006) confirmed that the visitor satisfaction can impact re-visitation and the positive word-of-mouth behavior of the festival visitors. Furthermore, Tanford & Jung (2017) showed that the cost/value factor has a significant impact on satisfaction and loyalty, and a strong relationship between satisfaction and loyalty has also been found. According to Novello and Fernandez (2016), loyalty refers to the individuals' intention to visit the city again and willing to recommend to other people (Novello & Fernandez, 2016).

In the literature, there is an inconsistency between the results of mega-events studies. For example, the study of 2010 Holy Year mega-event showed that event perceived authenticity affect the event satisfaction and the authors have further concluded that the event satisfaction plays an important role in mediating the loyalty impact (Novello & Fernandez, 2016). On the contrary, G. Brown et al. (2016) did not find relationship between the event satisfaction and the revisit intentions among London Olympics visitors. Instead, the study indicated the sport involvement and place attachment influence the revisit intention (Brown, Smith, & Assaker, 2016).

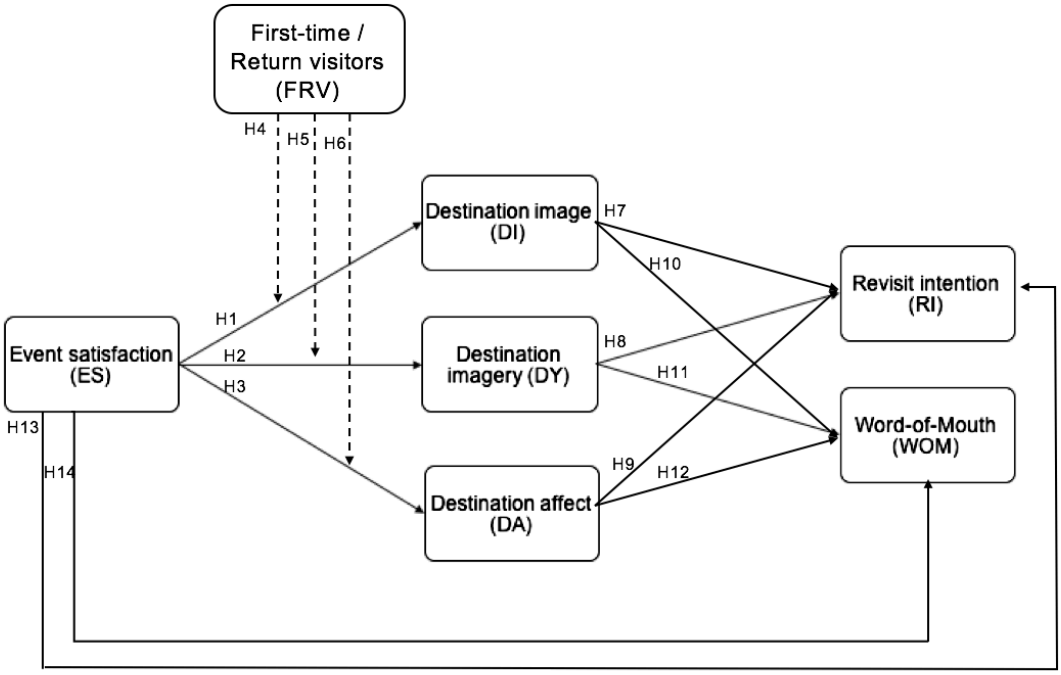
There are empirical evidences of small-scale event studies demonstrating the interrelation between event satisfaction and behavioral intention. To illustrate, Koo, Byon, & Baker III (2014) demonstrated that event image and event satisfaction from participation in small-scale marathon events had a positive connection with behavioral intention. The study showed mediation effects between satisfaction and revisit intention (Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2010). They stated that the event satisfaction is a powerful in predicting the re-participate intention of the active event sport tourist (Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2010). In accordance with the study in RLS museum in Samoa demonstrated that highly satisfied international visitors tend to recommend RLS museum to others (Huo & Miller, 2007). According to these empirical evidences, the following hypotheses have been drawn hereafter:

H13: Event attendees' intention to revisit the destination will be positively affected by their satisfaction with the event.

H14: The possibility of recommending the destination to others by the event attendees will be positively affected by their satisfaction with the event.

According to the above hypotheses, the conclusion is drawn in a conceptual model figure below (figure 5).

Figure 5: Conceptual model



Chapter 3: Empirical study

In this chapter the research methodology of this thesis is going to be explained. The research methodology consists of research design, research philosophy, sampling methods and research strategy. The objective of a research is clearly defined as discovery which Elias (1986) stated as:

"*The aim is to make known something previously unknown to human beings.* It is to advance human knowledge, to make it more certain or better fitting."

Elias, (1986, p 20)

This study is considered as a social science research, which is less certain than scientific research since it involves people and their behavior. This is due to the fact that people can be aware of the research and they intentionally change their behavior (Veal & Burton, 2014). Therefore, the study requires an appropriate *research design* to find out the answer of all research questions and sub-questions. Research design is the most crucial part of the research methodology since it provides a framework that addresses the problem, the data collection, data analysis and answers the research questions (Bryman, 2012: Salkind, 2010).

The related research philosophy, type, purpose and approach of the study are provided in the beginning of this chapter. Research methodology, research strategy and time horizons are explained in the next part. Additionally, the chapter explains the data collection method and sample selection. Lastly, the chapter ends with the conclusion. The overview research design of this study is presented in table 3.

Table 3: The overview of research methodology

Research methodology	Decision
Research philosophy	Pragmatism paradigm
Research type	Basic research
Research purpose	Evaluation and explanatory
Research approach	Abduction (a combination of induction and deduction)
Research method	Mixed method
Research strategy	Survey
Time horizon	Cross-sectional research
Data collection method	Interview and survey
Sampling selection	Multi-stage cluster

3.1 Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016, p. 124). It can be divided into two main types: epistemological and ontological considerations. An epistemology simply refers to the association between the researcher and the subject of the study (Veal & Burton, 2014). Two main positions of epistemology are defined as positivism and interpretivism based on researchers' viewpoints (Bryman, 2012). Positivists clearly borrow a natural science research framework, where the researcher observes the phenomena of the study from the outside. That is, the researchers have objectively gathered the data and observed it based on their own theories and models. However, the research in social science is argued to draw

conclusions from the natural science approach which might not be appropriate for explaining the human mind and behavior. Interpretive approach refers to the researcher trying to interpret inside the minds of subjects and to see the world from their point of view (Veal & Burton, 2014).

“The central point of orientation here [ontology] is the question of whether social entities can and should be considered objective entities that have a reality external to social actors, or whether they can and should be considered social constructions built up from the perceptions and actions of social actors (Bryman, 2012, p. 32)”. That is the way of looking at the world (Veal & Burton, 2014). *Objectivism* and *constructionism* are two positions that are widely used in many researches, which differently present organization and culture (Bryman, 2012). Objectivism is a position that social phenomena and the categories (organization and culture) have an existence and they are independent from actors (people). In other words, people are not able to influence them. While constructionism challenges the social phenomena and categories which are continually organized or accomplished by social actors (Bryman, 2012).

However, the debate between each approach has occurred. Veal and Burton (2014) stated that the arts and events researchers normally combined theory and empirical evidence to draw a conclusion about the phenomena, raising the discussion between each approach. Lee (1989) argued that a subjectivist case study in organization studies has characters that are similar to scientific research, which is considered as a positivism and quantitative. However, when mixed approach is applied in the research field that is called *pragmatism*.

Pragmatism paradigm argues that the valid knowledge should not be merely based on theoretical or logical reason but also on experience or practical knowledge in identifying the

challenging in the reality. In social science perspective, this paradigm refers to research that combines post-positivism and interpretivism paradigm together in one research (Veal & Burton, 2014). Pragmatism is a value-driven process, which starts with a question, and aims to contribute practical solutions for the future. It recognizes that there are many ways to interpret the world and conduct a research. That is, the whole picture is not able to be drawn by one viewpoint (Saunders et al., 2016). In this research, the pragmatism has been chosen due to the study involved both quantitative and qualitative, and this paradigm allows this study to accept any concept that is relevant to the study and the research question.

3.2 Research type

There are two main type of research: *basic research* and *applied research* which are distinguishable from their purpose and context. The basic research is known as fundamental research or pure research, which aims to expand knowledge of business process, find a relationship of process to outcomes, and find significance and value to society. Comparing with the purpose of applied research, it aims to improve the understanding of a business problem, creates a solution for the problem, and finds a practical relevance and value to the organization (Saunders et al., 2016). In research context, the basic research is more flexible due to the fact that researchers decide the topic and objectives by themselves, including a flexible time scale. Whereas the applied research has more specific topic and objective, which is decided by organization and researcher, and the time scales are normally tight.

In spite of the fact that the methodologies used in this thesis have been applied from other researches, the topic and purpose of this study have been decided by the researchers and are different from the prior studies. To illustrate, the previous researches merely studied the impact of destination image on event satisfaction, whereas the focal focus of our thesis is to

study the opposite relationship. In addition, many literatures are focusing on the mega-events, whereas the small-scale events are investigated in this research. Therefore, for the purpose of elaborating the value of small-scale event on the destination image, the basic research is chosen.

3.3 Research purpose

The purpose of research can be divided into three groups as descriptive, explanatory and evaluative research. Descriptive research aims to find out or describe what the problem is. Most of the researches in the arts and events area fall in this category because arts and events are a new field of study, which needs to expand the knowledge. Explanatory research aims to explain how or why things are as they are, and also they are used to predict the result. It can be also used to explain the pattern and trend of that observation. Lastly, the evaluative research provides a judgment on the accomplishment or effectiveness of policies or programmes (Veal & Burton, 2014).

According to the research question: *"What is the affect of small-scale events upon the host destination's image?*", the aim is to find the value of the small-scale event satisfaction of attendees on the Copenhagen city's image. However, the explanatory research has been also involved in the study. To begin with, the evaluative research has been adopted to determine the level of satisfaction of attendees. Then, the explanatory research has been used to study how people (event's attendees) perceived the city image and its components after participating in these events. Lastly, the study evaluates the level of accomplishment and value of the events through the destination image, revisit intention and recommended intention. Thus, the main purpose of this research is to evaluate the value of the small-scale event through the event satisfaction.

3.4 Research approach

The nature of the relationship between theory and research can be determined into two ways: theory helps guide research (deductive approach), or research formulates theory (inductive approach). Deductive theory is considered as the nature of the relationship between theory and social research (Bryman, 2012). The deductive process is explained as the research that is based on previous studies, theories, empirical evidences or the research literature resulting in a hypothesis development (Veal & Burton, 2014), followed by a data collection process (Bryman, 2012). The last step involves induction process, as the findings are required to interpret and generate knowledge back to the theory (Bryman, 2012). The inductive approach refers to the process that starts with a question or observation, and move to analysis and answering stage accordingly (Veal & Burton, 2014). That is the result of the inductive approach is generated from observations.

Charmaz (2005) argues that there is no qualitative research that is purely induction, since the researchers should have an informal data or explanatory model in mind before collecting any data. Therefore, a deduction is always considered as a part of any research. In the same logic, researchers are not able to develop a hypothesis without some initial information, so the study is partly inductive and partly deductive (Veal & Burton, 2014). An *abduction approach* is stated to be an alternative approach, which combines deduction and induction together. The relationship between theory and data is not rigid as deduction and induction move back and forth (Saunders, 2016).

This thesis has moved back and forth between theory and data since the conceptual model of Copenhagen's image is developed through an interview method. After that, the findings from the interviews were used to formulate the final questionnaire. However, the hypotheses

and some questions were developed from previous empirical studies. Therefore, the abduction model is the most appropriate approach for current thesis.

3.5 Research methodology

There are two main methodologies that have been used for long time: quantitative method and qualitative methods. Choosing between quantitative or qualitative research is critical for the research since it will determine the research strategy for collecting a data in order to answer the research question. Therefore, an overview of the differences between both methodologies will be explained in this part.

The dissimilarities between both methods are easy to be distinguished through the data type; quantitative data is mostly related with a numeric data, whereas the qualitative data can be related with many types of data e.g. words, images, video clips and other materials. Even though both methods are related with different technique and data, they are able to explain or to find the answer. To illustrate, the numeric data from quantitative research investigate the relationship between dependent and independent variables by applying statistical and graphical techniques. In this method, the researcher is outside the research or the respondents. The qualitative research focuses on finding the meanings of the participants' words and actions as well as the relationship between them. There are many strategies available collecting the data in order to answer the research question such as ethnography, grounded theory, case study research and others.

However, some researches with business and management purpose are difficult to choose either quantitative or qualitative method. Because of the fact that the business problem may need a statistic data as well as to further interview the participants to find the explanation of the phenomena. So both methods are required to solve that problem. This leads to mixed

method which combines quantitative and qualitative methods. The mixed method can be done in several ways e.g. concurrent mixed method which separately uses quantitative and qualitative method in the research. Whereas other combinations are more complicated as a matter of sequential e.g. sequential exploratory: doing a quantitative before qualitative or the opposite way. The most complex method is a multi-phase design which is a triple (or more) phase research design e.g. qualitative followed by quantitative and ended with qualitative (Saunders et al., 2016).

In order to answer the research questions accurately, the sequential mixed methods have been applied. The first phase began with a qualitative method the results from which were used to develop questionnaire items, and following with a quantitative method to measuring the data and analyze the data. Therefore, the quantitative method plays a dominant role while the qualitative only has a supporting role in this research.

3.6 Research strategy

A research strategy is a plan of action for the research, and enables the researcher to answer the research questions and meet the objectives. There are many strategies e.g. experiment, survey, documentary research, case study, ethnography, narrative inquiry and grounded study (Saunders et al., 2016). However, this thesis aims to study the impact of small-scale event on the destination image through the event attendee's satisfaction. The survey is the main strategy of this thesis which is going to be explained hereafter.

The survey strategy is a common strategy which is popularly used in business and management research, since the survey enables a researcher to collect the data from a reliable size of population in an economical way. Another benefit of survey is the comparability of the data, it is easily to compare, explain and to be understood by people.

The data that is collected from a survey can be analyzed by descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings from the statistical analysis can be used as a representation of the whole population. Furthermore, the researchers are able to use the findings from surveys to answer questions as what, who, where, how much and how many. However, the limitations of this strategy are that the researchers are depending on other factors like response rate which directly affects their time. The number of questions is necessary to be reasoned since it impacts on the ability to do a survey of respondents (Saunders et al., 2016).

The reason why we chose the survey strategy is because this study needs to evaluate the value of the small-scale events which is a large scale study. The survey allows us to use a sampling technique to study only few events instead of all events, and only one group of sampling instead of the whole population. The results of the survey can be used to predict the actions of the whole population. Thus our thesis findings will be able to contribute to the society in order to ensure that the small-scale event has an image enhancement value as the other kinds of events thus small-scale event need to be further sponsored.

3.7 Time horizon

There are two choices to design the research depending on the research questions; a single point of time and a period of time. A single point of time can be referred as *cross-sectional study.* It is used to describe the incident or the relationship between factors. So the survey strategy and mixed methods are usually chosen to work with cross-sectional study, whereas the longitudinal study expands the time to study the change and development of the phenomenon. Its findings can provide a plenty information and data available for the further tests or theories development.

The cross sectional research is selected to this research in order to evaluate the value of three small events in Copenhagen in a certain point of time.

3.8 Data collection

Primary and *secondary data* collections are two different methods that are used to collect data. The primary data is defined as new data which is initially generated by the researcher. It is known as a raw data which is gathered for the specific purpose of answering the research questions (Bryman, 2012). Researchers are able to conduct and collect their own data using many techniques such as survey, observation, interview, focus group and others.

In the meantime, the secondary data refers to a second hand data which is already collected by previous studies. The secondary data is not only referring to the published data, but also the raw data from other studies (Veal & Burton, 2014). There are several sources of secondary data which can be classified into three groups: document based, survey based and multiple sources. The first group, document based includes both text and non-text data such as databases, tweets, memos, radio, image and voice. Survey based data includes all the survey data regardless the publisher such as governments, family, academics and organizations. Lastly, multiple sources include both a single point data and longitudinal data from many sources such as big data sets, journals, books, industry statistics and government publication (Veal & Burton, 2014).

Even though this thesis uses previous studies to develop some hypotheses, the research questions required a primary data in order to answer the problems. Therefore, the primary data is chosen to be a predominator over a secondary data. In this part, the interview and survey techniques are explained since they are chosen for the purposes of this thesis.

The interview is the primary data collection technique for qualitative methodologies. The interview can be done individually (individual depth interview) or in groups (Cooper & Schindler, 2008), from which the in-depth interview is chosen for this study. The reason behind the decision is to gain an insight of the individual regarding the Copenhagen city's image as a tourist destination. There are three different levels of the interview structure. The researcher needs to choose between unstructured interview, a semi-structured interview or a structured interview. An unstructured interview is the most flexible method that has no specific questions template or order. A semi-structured interview is a common way to conduct an interview with a few specific questions designed before hand and it further continues with other questions based on interviewer's decision, whereas a structured interview provides a fully detailed guidance for the interviewer (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

The semi-structured interview is chosen for this study as it provides a set of questions that every interviewee need to answer. Three specific questions are clearly provided to both of the researchers to ensure that all of the questions will be answered by all of the participants. Moreover, the researchers have the opportunity to enhance the insight and the experience of interviewees by implementing other questions. Last but not least, the interview method is the most appropriate for gaining information from small numbers of people within the time frame.

The survey consists of set of questions which are well chosen, structured and precisely asked to the participants. The findings and conclusion of the survey study with a selected sampling can be used to project the large and diverse populations (Cooper & Schindler, 20018). There are three types of survey based on a communication method as *self-administered survey, telephone survey* and *survey via personal interview.* Self-administered survey is a method that the respondents are required to complete the survey by themselves

without the researcher guidance. The survey can be done by paper, online survey, email, fax, etc. The intercept survey at public places is included in this type. While the telephone survey requires a communication between respondents and interviewers (researchers) via telephone call which is rarely used in the present. The last method, a personal interview, is the most flexible option for both interviewer and respondents. The interviewers are able to prescreen the respondents before asking for their participation in a survey. The selected respondents will be asked or interviewed in person by the interviewer (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

In order to collect the data, the self-administered survey; intercept survey is chosen as the surveys needed to be conducted at the events. The researchers were required to ask the respondents whether they live in Copenhagen or not since the research focuses only on people who do not live in Copenhagen. The intercept survey enables the researcher to ask and screen the respondents before they participated in the survey. After that, the respondents were required to do the survey on paper or tablet by themselves. Before conducting the surveys, many researches related to the event satisfaction, destination image and behavioral intention were intensely studied to develop survey questions as well as the findings from interviews which resulted in the survey questions formation regarding the ‘destination Imagery’ section.

3.9 Sample selection

Sampling design is a target population identification process in order to ensure that the selected people, events or records that contain the information can answer the measurement questions. A sample refers to a portion of target population that researcher cautiously selected in order to stand for the whole target population (Cooper & Schindler,

2008). Saunders et al. (2016, p. 275) stated that “the sample selected is related to the population that is highlighted in the research question and objectives”. The population that is focused on in the research question and objectives is known as target population which is a subset of the whole population (Saunders et al., 2016, p. 275)”.

There are two types of sampling techniques: probability or representative sampling and non-probability sampling. In one hand, the probability sampling is normally used in survey research strategies to ensure that the findings from the sample are able to be applied to the population and answer the research questions. This technique bases on the assumption that the sample will be randomly selected from a sampling frame. Probability sample can be divided into five main techniques that researcher can apply for selecting a sample. There are simple random, systematic random, stratified random, cluster and multi-stage techniques.

On the other hand, non-probability does not have a sampling frame which is suitable for the research that needs rich information or a participant’s insight. Non-probability techniques consist of four choices: quota, purposive, volunteer and haphazard (Saunders et al., 2016). The specific techniques which are used in this research will be defined in the following part.

3.9.1 Qualitative study

In order to investigate a destination imagery of Copenhagen’s city, the data related to a destination and the associations that individuals link to Copenhagen are collected. Non-probability sampling; purposive sampling; typical case sampling were used. In total, there were 12 interviewees who participated in the semi-structured interview. Each interview took around 15-20 minutes, and it had three main questions. The interviewees were chosen by the researchers and included people who live in Copenhagen, other city in Denmark and

tourists. Due to the fact that people who lived in Copenhagen will have deeper insights about the city, whereas visitors will have another viewpoint as tourists thus, both international students and tourists are targeted.

3.9.2 Quantitative study

The multi-stage cluster sampling is chosen. The primary sampling units refers to groupings of the units of population (Bryman, 2012). According to our purpose, to find the small-scale event effects on the destination, Copenhagen's image has been examined. Thus the events needed to be organized in the area of Copenhagen city. However, not all events occurred in Copenhagen are considered as a small-scale event, the selection criteria for determining a sampling event is developed in the following part. After generating the event lists, the researchers randomly selected and contacted the event organizers. Consequently, three potential events were chosen in order to conduct our survey – City Struck exhibition, Kampala Street Fashion exhibition and Law Shifters exhibition.

After the cluster sampling, the simple random sample is applied in the second stage. The simple random sample is the most common form of probability sample which every unit in the population has an equal possibility to be included in the study (Bryman, 2012). The simple random sample is used in collecting a data in all three events. The visitors (event's attendees) are randomly intercepted by the researchers after they had attended the event. Nonetheless, in order to ensure that the visitors are our target sampling (e.g. individuals who do not live in Copenhagen, 'non-Copenhagener'), the pre-screen questions were asked together with the survey participation willingness.

As a result, the surveys were conducted at three events. There are 216 completion of self-administered survey: 200 respondents are non-Copenhageners, while 16 of them are Copenhageners.

3.9.3 Selection criteria for determining a small-scale event

In order to collect data for the study, many interesting events held in Copenhagen during 15 February – 31 March 2018 were listed for the data collection process. That means the first criteria is the location, hence Copenhagen. However, there are more limitations that this study needed to concern. Thus three main conditions: events' size, diversity of visitors, and time frame were considered.

1.) The size of event in this study is limited to a small-scale event. According to the literature review above, Getz and Page (2016) provide some criteria between large and small scale in the table 1. However, this thesis does not agree with some points of table 1. For example, an art exhibition is not only targeted to the artistic and people who are related to arts, but also ordinary people who would like to buy some home decoration. Hence, the impact of the event is not limited to one collective group of people. In addition, there might be some events that cannot fit all or neither one criterion for large nor small events based on these conditions. Lastly, the definition of each type is still ambiguous in specifying the number of visitors needed or the measuring of the impact of the event.

   Nevertheless, Getz and Page (2016) also stated that the typologies are complex and they are still open for debates. According to Wagen (2001), most events fall into the minor event category – the events that cannot fit in the definitions of Mega, Hallmark or Major events.

According to Müller (2015), the major event is the smallest type of his events' classification which is measured by a point scoring scheme indicator. The major event is defined as any event that meets at least one of four conditions;

(1) Number of visitor attractiveness is more than 0.5 million;

(2) Value of broadcast rights (mediated reach) is more than 0.1 billion;

(3) Total cost is more than USD 1 billion;

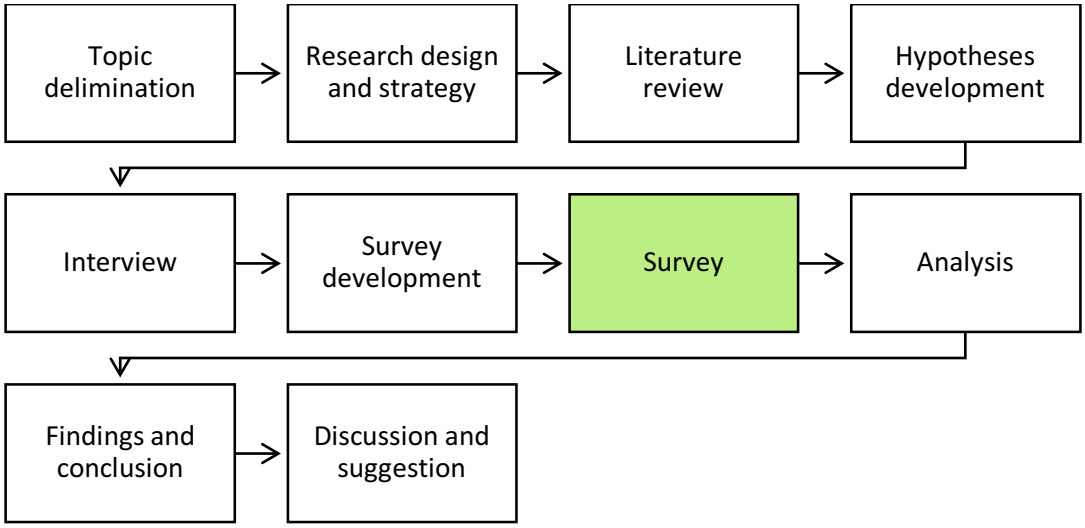
(4) The capital investment is more than USD 1 billion.

Consequently, the small-scale event in this study is referred to the events that do not meet any condition of Muller (2015), nor the definition of large event of Getz and Page (2016). That is, the events that cannot fit into major events, hallmark events, mega-events nor giga events would be considered as a small-scale event in this thesis.

2.) The diversity of attendees was a combination between international visitors, non-Copenhageners and Copenhageners. The event's explanations on its website and Facebook Fanpage e.g. language and content were two identifications that the potential events will attract not only local visitors but non-local visitors, as well.

3.) Time frame for the data collection process was scheduled to finish before the beginning of April 2018. Therefore, the events were held during 15 February - 31 March 2018. The overview research plan is illustrated in figure 6.

Figure 6: The overview of research process



Approximately 30 events were listed such as Copenhagen Art Space, UX Copenhagen, Copenhagen Games, Spring Exhibitions, and others, and 10 of them were randomly selected and contacted. However, not all of the random events were able to be used according to the limitations of time, attendees, and the permission. Finally, three events were suitable for our events' sampling i.e., 'City Struck – photos of living places' – a photo exhibition at Danish Architecture Center (DAC), 'Law Shifter' – an art exhibition at Nikolaj Kunsthal, and 'Kampala Street Fashion' – a photo exhibition at Rundetaarn.

3.9.4 Three chosen small-scale events

1.) 'City Struck' exhibition at DAC

This event is a photography exhibition that mainly presents the interaction between people and the city. The main idea of this event is to explore how architecture and people influence each other.

“Life in the city can be chaotic at times, and people often use architecture in entirely different ways than originally intended – and it is in this confluence that the most interesting photos emerge. …Architects and planners may design the city, but it is the people living there who define and create city life.”

Tanya Lindkvist, Head of Programme for LIFE, DAC, DAC.DK

The exhibition collects various photos from both professional photographers and Instagram users around the world. The decision for non-professional photographs to be used is to present the alternative views of the city as well as its inhabitants. The exhibition is divided into three different themes according to the interaction: (1) meetings – present the meetings between people, building, city or nature; (2) flows – show the city’s flow as people, traffic, and other resources; and (3) boundaries – demonstrate the contrary ideas in the city such as traditional and modern, impoverished and luxurious, and public and private (DAC, 2018).

The City Struck exhibition has run from 13th October 2017 to 29th April 2018. Due to the lack of the information, the number of visitors for this event is based on the estimation of the researchers. The estimated visitors are maximum 19,900, according to the researchers’ experience. The number of visitors was not stable which depended on the weather and the day of the week. During the worst weather conditions, the lowest number of visitors was lower than 20 visitors per day, and on Wednesday (free admission from 17.00 – 21.00) the visitors were up to 100 per day. So the maximum visitors were estimated as – 100 visitors per day multiplied by 199 days equal to 19,900 visitors.

2.) ‘Law Shifters’ exhibition at Nikolaj Kunsthal

‘Law Shifters – by Stine Marie Jacobsen’, at Nikolaj Kunsthal is an art exhibition that showed the interpretation a brutality and law both exclusively and collectively through participatory means by the artist – Stine Marie Jacobsen. The artist creates a ‘Law machine’ to be a representation of a professional lawyer which translate the general conversation into legal language. Several EU laws and cases were decoded and presented in the exhibition through green board such as a sexual and kidnapping case, a retired man and the illegal Syrian refugee case.

The main idea of this event is to encourage young people to reflect and be familiar with laws as well as to change their feelings of fear to ready to face with government and laws.

> *“Law Shifters is to help young people reflect on their ethical position, to develop their sense of law, and to act as a catalyst for the creation of an effective influence on current laws. The artistic accomplishment is to finally communicate new legislative proposals to the public – in contrast to the existing ones. And to generate a shift from fearing the government to facing the Law, which is a movement of transgression.”*
>
> Stine Marine Jacobsen, Artist, Sinemariejacobsen.com

The exhibition was presented in Nikolaj Kunsthal, from 11th January to 1st April 2018, as a celebration for Denmark holding a chairmanship of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe. Since the information about the number of visitors was not provided, the researchers estimate the number of visitors to be around 6,400 – 12,000. The estimation of visitors was around 80 - 150 visitors per day, depending on the weather and the day of the week (free admission on Wednesday) multiply by 80 days equal to 6,400 – 12,000 visitors throughout the event.

3.) ‘Kampala Street Fashion’ exhibition at Rundetaarn

Kampala Street Fashion – 50 women portraits from Uganda’s Capital at Rundetaarn. The photo exhibition is a collaboration between Marie Visti Hansen – Danish designer and Jjumba Martin – Ugandan photographer. They asked the women on the street around the city for the permission to take a photo and many of them agreed and went on to pose and play, in most cases staged on their own. All of the photos were taken during the summer of 2017, and presented in Copenhagen during 3rd March to 8th April 2018.

The exhibition shows the Ugandan women’s strength, talent and style through their clothes ant the city’s view. The women’s fashion in Uganda is various with a combination between old and new, and African and European style. Marie Visti Hansen stated the strength of Ugandan women as:

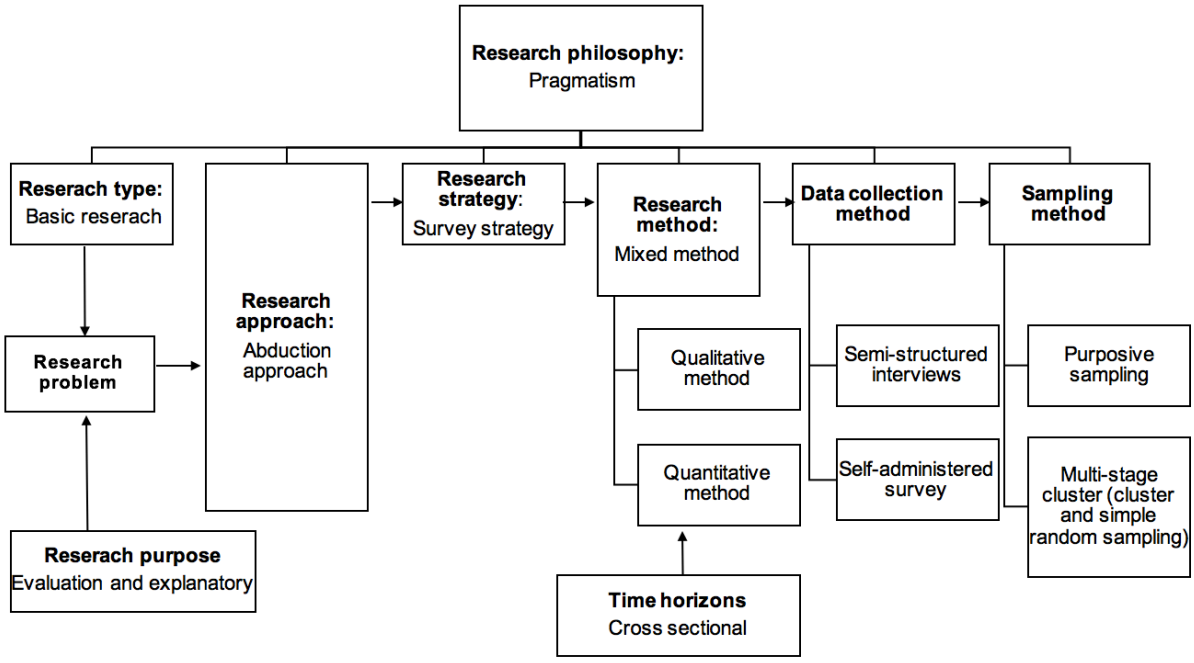
> *"Women's life in Uganda is not easy, the country is one of the world’s poorest and gender discrimination is widespread. Nevertheless, women have marked a presence in urban image and they display an incredible talent, which is also reflected in their attire."*
>
> Translated from Marie Visti Hansen, Designer and project’s curator, Rundetaarn.dk

The number of visitors of this event is estimated to be around 19,800 visitors according to Ditte Marie Lund’s information. Lund explains that in March there were 49,452 visitors at Rundtaarn tower as well as one third of the total visitors visit the exhibition. In addition, the exhibition was opened until the first week of April which comprises around 3,300 visitors. Hence, in total, the estimated Kampala Street Fashion visitors were 19,800.

3.10 Conclusion

The overview of this research's methodological framework is summarized in figure 7.

Figure 7: Methodological framework



To summarize, the chapter began with the philosophy and the research type. A pragmatism paradigm was applied to drive this basic research. After that, the evaluative and explanatory research was chosen to explore a new knowledge regarding the impacts of small-scale events; art exhibitions on the destination image. Then a research approach was discussed and the alternative approach; abduction was chosen since it allows this study to combine qualitative and quantitative methods to answer the research question. The qualitative method was used to develop a survey question, hence a semi-structured interviewed was chosen to gain an insight regarding the Copenhagen city's image and its component. The quantitative method was considered as a main study of this research since the result from

the study is able to explain the large population. Thus, a self-administered survey was conducted over a specific time period with a carefully selected events and respondents.

Chapter 4: Data analysis

For the purpose of this thesis, the analysis is based on the pragmatic approach and the research methodologies as described in the previous chapter. In conclusion, both qualitative and quantitative datasets are analyzed. The qualitative data is based on twelve interviews with international students, and tourists. Their insights provide the study with many components of the Copenhagen's image: the famous attractions, environment, atmosphere, etc. The quantitative data is based on a survey evaluating the tourists' perception regarding the city, their satisfaction after attending the events as well as their behavioral intention. Hence, the regression analysis is chosen to analyze the quantitative data.

The measurements of this study are based on a secondary data, which will be separately discussed in the beginning of this chapter. Then, the interview analysis is presented in order to provide an overview of the Copenhagen city's image. The findings from the interviews were used to develop 21 questions which were used to measure the destination imagery in the survey. After that, the survey analysis is presented as demographic variables, descriptive analysis and regression analysis.

4.1 Measurement scale

To begin with, previous researches related to destination image and its components, event satisfaction and behavioral intentions were intensively reviewed in order to develop the questionnaire scales. In addition, the interview questions were based on previous study which is used to elaborate on the Destination imagery measurement (point 4.1.2). Lastly, the result of internal consistency reliability test by Cronbach's coefficient alpha is presented in the last part of this Measurement scale section.

4.1.1 Destination image – measurement scale development

In the literature on destination image measurement, it can be observed that different scholars measure destination image in various ways confirming the complex and multiple nature of the destination image construct (Gallarza et al., 2002). Furthermore, Tasci et al. (2007) indicate that the measurement of the destination image depends on how scholars conceptualize the construct thus leading to incomparable results as some authors view the destination image as an attribute-based construct and use either cognitive or affective attributes/items or in some case both (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1996; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Hunt, 1975), while others present it as a gestalt concept and measure it directly (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Bigne et al., 2001; Josiassen et al., 2016; Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012; Kock et al., 2016; Wang & Hsu, 2010).

As it can be seen from the reviewed articles, in more recent years, more researches have been following the conceptualization of destination image as a more holistic construct. Furthermore, it was argued in the Literature Review section that when a construct is considered to be a gestalt, the sum of its parts may not equal the whole as there are a lot of unknown stimuli affecting it (Lin, 2004). Having this in mind, a lot of researchers have measured the destination image directly, for example, Bigne et al. (2001) as well as Wang and Hsu (2010) use single-item measurement scale from 1 being highly unfavorable to 5 being highly favorable. Whereas others (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Kaplanidou & Gibson; 2012) are following the single 7-point Likert measuring scale proposed by Baloglu and McCleary (1999) which estimates the destination image from 1 = extremely negative to 7 = extremely positive.

While most of the researchers are incorporating a one-item destination image measurement scale, in order to increase the validity of the scale, Kock et al. (2016) are proposing a multi-item scale which incorporates that of Baloglu and McCleary (1999), as well. Hence, for the purposes of this study, we are following the measurement scale for destination image proposed by Baloglu and McCleary (1999) as well as those of Kock et al. (2016) since we consider the destination image construct to be a gestalt. Therefore, in order to measure the construct, the respondents were asked to choose the number that best represents their opinion as follows using a 7-point Likert scale:

All things considered, taking a holiday in Copenhagen is:

1. *From 1 being very worthwhile to 7 being not worthwhile at all*
2. *From 1 being very favorable to 7 being very unfavorable*
3. *From 1 being very positive to 7 being very negative*
4. *From 1 being very good to 7 being very bad*

4.1.2 Destination imagery – measurement scale development

Most in researches on destination image, the destination imagery measurement scale was mostly developed by using secondary data collected from tourist brochures, tourist agencies and reports and afterwards moderated by asking tourism experts for the relevance of the selected items or pretested on students (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Wang & Hsu, 2010).

Furthermore, some authors have tried to divide the cognitive items into theme groups in order to create a framework for measuring the destination imagery, for example Beerli and Martin (2004) have organized them in nine categories – (1) natural resources; (2) general infrastructure; (3) tourist infrastructure; (4) tourist leisure and recreation; (5) culture, history

and art; (6) political and economic factors; (7) natural environment; (8) social environment; and (9) atmosphere of the place. However, the authors stress that “the selection of the attributes used in designing a scale will depend largely on the attractions of each destination, on its positioning, and on the objectives of the assessment of perceived image (Beerli & Martin, 2004, pp. 659-660)”.

Gallarza et al. (2002) have measured the frequency of the used attributes in previous researches. According to them, the most used items were – (1) residents’ receptiveness; (2) landscape and surroundings; (3) cultural attractions; (4) nightlife and entertainment; (5) sport facilities; and (6) price, value, cost (Gallarza et al., 2002). Furthermore, Echtner and Ritchie (2003) have investigated the methodologies used by other researchers to measure the destination imagery. What can be seen from their analysis is that researchers use 18 items in average as well as that 5- and 7-point Likert scales have been the preferred rating scales, which was later confirmed by Tasci et al. (2007) as well as by Dolnicar and Grün (2013).

Noteworthy, in their research, Echtner and Ritchie (1993) stress the need for using qualitative methods in estimating the destination imagery items in order to capture both the cognitive and holistic/unique aspects of the respective destination image component. According to them, while the structured methods are still effective in measuring the common destination’s attributes, they are unable to capture the more unique and holistic items (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993).

Furthermore, Tasci et al. (2007) observed that after Echtner and Ritchie’s (1993) publication a change has occurred in the preferred methods by the destination image researchers, thus resulting in common acceptance of the proposed by Echtner and Ritchie (1993) mixed method. In more recent years, the use of qualitative methods in order to capture the unique

and holistic attributes of a place was further argued for and/or implemented by Bigné, Sánchez and Sánchez (2001), Dolnicar and Grün (2013) as well as Kock, Josiassen and Assaf (2016).

Against this background, a content analysis of travel brochures and reports on Copenhagen has been administered to capture the common items as well as twelve semi-structured interviews have been conducted in order to capture Copenhagen's unique attributes by adapting the proposed by Echnter and Ritchie (1993) interview questions as follows:

1. *What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of Copenhagen as a vacation destination?* – This question was developed in order to capture the functional – holistic items.
2. *How would you describe the atmosphere or mood that you would expect to experience while visiting Copenhagen?* – This question is covering the psychological – holistic items.
3. *Please list any distinctive or unique tourist attractions that you can think of in Copenhagen.* – By asking respondents to list the unique attractions, we are investigating the unique items of the place.

Since the outcome of the interviews' analysis will be presented later in this chapter, in order not to confuse the reader only the final 21 items regarding Copenhagen's imagery for the questionnaire are displayed hereafter. In order to estimate them, respondents were asked to express their opinion on each one of them by using 7-point Likert scale ranging from 'extremely disagree' to 'extremely agree':

1. *Copenhagen has great variety of tourist attractions*
2. *Copenhagen has great nightlife*

3. *Copenhagen has unique architecture*
4. *Copenhagen is eco-friendly city*
5. *Copenhagen has a big waterfront (i.e. canals, sea and lakes)*
6. *Copenhagen has a lot of parks*
7. *Copenhagen has great mixture of old and modern architecture*
8. *Copenhagen has great traffic infrastructure*
9. *Copenhagen has great bicycling culture*
10. *Copenhagen has good urban planning and landscape*
11. *Copenhagen has mostly good weather*
12. *Copenhagen offers appealing local cuisine*
13. *Copenhagen offers appealing international cuisine*
14. *Copenhagen hosts great variety of events and festivals*
15. *Copenhagen has a liberal and tolerant social environment*
16. *Local people are really polite and helpful*
17. *Copenhagen offers great variety of restaurants, bars and clubs*
18. *Copenhagen is an expensive destination*
19. *It is safe to commute in Copenhagen*
20. *Copenhagen is a clean city*
21. *Copenhagen has relaxed atmosphere*

4.1.3 Destination affect – measurement scale development

While in most of the earliest researches scholars have used only cognitive items to measure the destination image (Crompton, 1979 Hunt 1975), in more recent years, the authors have been finding a significant relationship between the affective state of mind of visitors and their overall impression of the destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Wang & Hsu, 2010). In

both Baloglu and McCleary's (1999) and Wang and Hsu's (2010) studies, the authors have found that the cognitive attributes influence the affective and the affective attributes influence the destination image.

Russell and Pratt (Russell & Pratt, 1980) define affect as "the emotion-inducing quality that persons verbally attribute to that place (p. 311)". In order to investigate what word from the English language people use to describe their feeling towards a physical environment, the authors have factor analyzed 105 broadly used adjectives from which 21 were chosen to from a two-dimensional space consisting of 2 bipolar axes with the adjective pairs unpleasant – pleasant forming one of them and arousing – sleepy the other one (Russell & Pratt, 1980).

The authors further indicate that the rest of the chosen adjectives can be placed in the two-dimensional space to form other bipolar axes expressing the affective representation of physical environments thus the purpose of their study was to validate the use of four bipolar pairs of adjectives as a reliable affective measurement scale (Russell & Pratt, 1980). The other two bipolar pairs of adjectives that the authors used to test their model were distressing – relaxing and exciting – gloomy (Russell & Pratt, 1980). The results of their model test show that, even though the two main pairs (pleasant – unpleasant and arousing – sleepy) are enough to measure the individuals' affective responses, using the other two as well can increase the reliability of the scale (Russell & Pratt, 1980).

Furthermore, Baloglu and Brinberg (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997) have duplicated Russell and Pratt's model in the perspective of tourism destinations and have proven the reliability of the scale in that context. Noteworthy, in their research the authors have used 11 countries as objects of investigation and have found that different countries fall into different quadrants

of the suggest by Russell and Pratt model thus exploring all four bipolar pairs of adjectives can give more insights into the interpretation of the respective destination's image (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997).

On the other hand, Kock et al (2016) argue that some of the adjectives used to measure destination affect in previous researches are ambiguous. The authors further give the following example – "Assuming that 'relaxing' is positive is problematic as it may have a negative connection for some individuals (i.e. 'boring') (Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016, p. 37)". Therefore the authors have moderated the proposed by Baloglu and McCleary (1999) scale by removing the pairs 'arousing – sleepy', 'exciting – gloomy' and 'relaxing – distressing'. Instead, the authors included the following three pairs – 'like – dislike', 'attraction – repulsion' and 'comfortable – uncomfortable' (Kock et al., 2016).

On the basis of the above reviewed researches, we chose to include both scales proposed by Baloglu and McCleary (1999) and that of Kock, Josiassen and Assaf (2016), thus the following bipolar adjectives were used to measure the destination affect using a 7-point Likert scale:

1. *1 equals very sleepy – 7 equals very arousing*
2. *1 equals very unpleasant – 7 Being very pleasant*
3. *1 equals very gloomy – 7 equals very exciting*
4. *1 equals very distressing – 7 equals very relaxing*
5. *1 equals "I dislike it very much" – 7 equals "I like it very much"*
6. *1 equals very repulsive – 7 equals very attractive*
7. *1 equals very uncomfortable – 7 equals very comfortable*

4.1.4 Event satisfaction measurement scale development

Oliver (1980) identified that satisfaction can impact and change the individual's attitude toward a subject. He explained that consumers set their expectation regarding the product before purchasing, and they consequently compare actual experience with their expectation. If the actual experience is higher than their expectation, the customer is satisfied and they are likely to repurchase that product. This can be applied in the tourism field. If the travelers are satisfied with the destination, they are more likely to revisit the city again.

Chon (1989) identified that tourist satisfaction is a comparison between visitors' expectation and their perception after experience with the destination. Hui, Wan, & Ho (2007) found a significant positive relationship between overall satisfaction and the possibility to recommend Singapore to their family and friends, as well as a positive relationship between overall satisfaction and revisit intentions to Singapore. In accordance with Baker & Crompton, (2000); Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, (2001); Lee, Graefe, & Burns, (2004), they have confirmed the relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

A relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intention can be found in event tourism studies as well. According to Brown et al. (2016), the event satisfaction becomes part of the decision making process of the event attendees regarding their revisit intentions connected to the destination in the future. The result from small-scale marathon events demonstrates that the event image and satisfaction are positively linked with behavioral intention as a moderation impact of the event satisfaction is significantly found on the relationship between event image and behavioral intention (Koo et al., 2014). However, Kaplanidou & Vogt (2007) argued that the event satisfaction from mega sport event was not a significant predictor of revisit intention to the host city.

Even though the event satisfaction has been measured by many scholars, the scale development that was used in their studies is still limited. Brown et al. (2016); Koo et al. (2014); Zins (2002) adopt the Oliver's satisfaction scale (1998) to measure event satisfaction. However, the numbers of items are differently used. The study of Zins (2002) comprises of most items (10 items) to capture the respondent's satisfaction, while one of them has failed to measure that. In contrast, two questions were used to evaluate the satisfaction by Koo et al. (2014). Furthermore, the scale used by Alexandris, Zahariadis, Tsorbatzoudis, & Grouios, (2004) was applied to measure the attendees' fulfillment by Brown, Essex, Assaker, & Smith (2017); Brown et al. (2016).

The satisfaction measurement scale in this study was based on three studies that of Zins (2002), who applied the questions from Oliver's scale (1998), Brown et al. (2016), who developed the scale from Alexandris et al. (2004) and Brown et al. (2017) who used both Oliver's scale and Alexandris et al.'s scale. The related items were selected and developed into five statements to capture the entire event satisfaction from the respondents. Thus, they were asked to express their opinion about the following five statements by using 7-point Likert scale ranging from "extremely disagree" to "extremely agree":

1. *This event is exactly what I needed.*
2. *I am glad I decided to attend this event.*
3. *It was a good decision to participate in this event.*
4. *I have truly enjoyed this event.*
5. *I was satisfied with my experience at the event today.*

4.1.5 Behavioral intentions measurement scale development

According to Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996), image is one of the variables that drive profits thus understanding the relationship between destination image and visitors behavioral intentions is vital for destination marketers in order to sustain their competitiveness. Furthermore, behavioral intentions have been seen as signals of customer retention, which in marketing theory has been seen as less expensive strategy in comparison with attracting new customers (Zeithaml et al., 1996).

In marketing researches on customers' behavioral intentions towards organizations, scholars have used word-of-mouth and repurchase scales to measure customer loyalty (Boulding, Kalra, Staelin, & Zeithaml, 1993; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996), while from a tourism perspective, scholars have the adapted the former scales to measure destination loyalty through willingness to revisit and recommend to others (Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

While most researchers (Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Wang & Hsu, 2010; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) use a single-item scale in most of the cases adapted from Boulding's et al. (1993) research, Kock et al. (2016) have used four-item scales to measure each variable, in that sense willingness to revisit and recommend. According to their findings, the four-item scales score high on the reliability and convergent validity test thus for the purposes of this study we follow the behavioral intention measurement scale used by Kock, et al. (2016), as shown hereafter.

In order to measure the intention to revisit the destination, respondents were asked to express their opinion about the following four statements by using 7-point Likert scale ranging from "extremely disagree" to "extremely agree":

1. *I strongly intend to visit Copenhagen in the future*
2. *It is very likely that I would choose Copenhagen as my tourist destination*
3. *I would like to take a holiday in Copenhagen*
4. *I plan to visit Copenhagen as a tourist at some point in the future*

Furthermore, the same procedure was used for the willingness to recommend measurement scale, which included the following four items:

1. *I talk up Copenhagen as a holiday destination*
2. *I bring up Copenhagen in a positive way in conversations about holiday destinations*
3. *I often speak favorably about Copenhagen as a tourist destination*
4. *How likely is that you would recommend visiting Copenhagen to others?*

4.1.6 Reliability test

Table 4: The reliability test results

Reliability Statistics		
Variables	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**N of Items**
Event satisfaction (ES)	.9690	5
Destination image (DI)	.9290	4
Destination affect (DA)	.8500	7
Destination imagery (DY)	.8690	21
Revisit intention (RI)	.9380	4
Possibility to recommend (WOM)	.9420	4

According to Field (2013), reliability analysis measures the consistency of a questionnaire, and it is acquired to be conducted separately for all subscales of the questionnaire. The

evaluation of internal consistency reliability can be measured by Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha which is equivalent to the Kuder-Richardson-20 coefficient as the optimum method of internal consistency degree analysis (Parameswaran et al., 1979). In addition, according to Nunnally (1978), the acceptable reliability coefficient should be equal or higher than 0.80. Field (2013) stated that Cronbach's alpha values around 0.8 are good, 0.70 is considered as an acceptable. The study tests all seven scales by using a Cronbach's coefficient alpha, which is concluded in the table 4.

Thus, this study can conclude that the items used in each scale have relatively high internal consistency, since the alpha coefficient for all variables are higher than 0.80. The highest Cronbach's alpha value is event satisfaction scale (0.9690), while the lowest value is destination affect scale (0.8500).

4.2 Interview analysis

For the purposes of this research, the relative components of destination imagery of Copenhagen city have been explored. Both secondary and primary data were collected in order to generate the items to describe the city's image. Echtner, Charlotte M. and Ritchie (1993, p. 6) stated that "…by using more than one technique the likelihood of producing a complete list of items to describe the concept is increased". Thus, this thesis combines two methods; literature search and interview that means the content validity and the possibility to generate the lists will be higher than based on either one method.

The previous studies regarding the destination image measurement were reviewed. However, there is a limitation in the conducted researches investigating the image of Copenhagen city. Hence, online sources were reviewed to have a better idea of

Copenhagen in a tourists' perspective together with other researches that investigated the destination image in different cities (Kock et al., 2016). Consequently, the primary attributes list has been developed with 32 items.

After that the interviews have been conducted with 12 interviewees using a semi-structured technique. They were all asked three questions; however, further questions were differently explored to gain a better insight of their opinion. As a result, the synonymous expressions were grouped into 14 attributes as illustrated in table 5. The most frequently mentioned items were grouped and matched with the primary lists. Thereby, the lists were translated into 21 destination imagery questions as listed in measurement scale part: 4.1.2 Destination imagery – measurement scale.

Table 5: The interview findings

Attributes	Interview finding items
Tourist attractions	Not so many attractions (3); castle and palace (2); Christiania (2); Opera house (2); Nyhavn (2); a lot of museum; great variety of types of attractions; Lake between Norreport; small department stores; Tivoli
Nightlife	Party (2); disco; diverse nightlife; drunk people; nightlife
Events and activities	A lot of activities (4); event and clubs; great variety of event; outdoor activities; socialize activities
Environment	Eco friendly (2); environmental friendly (2); green city (2); good environment; sustainable city; very safe environment
Natural	Green (3); parks (3); not so many parks (2); closed to nature; deer; forest view Canal (4); big coast line; charismatic canal; sea and beach; water

City's architecture	Historical city (3); old and modern design (3); Unique (3); artistic city (2); beautiful city (2); colorful city (2); blended between modern and Danish architecture; Danish design; fairy tale city; minimalism city; mix between unique and innovation; modern city; unique and modernize architecture; Nordic design; Scandinavian design; unique but not modern
City's landscape	Well organized city (2); developed city (2); corporate of the overall place & environment; great place for disability people, no high building; unique street; beautiful landscape
Public transport infrastructure	Safety (6); Highly developed public transport (2); metro; nice transportation; on time; safety for tourist, family and teenagers
Bicycling culture	Intensive bicycle community (2); bicycles (2); bicycle is better than public transport; biking people; perfect and comfortable biking
Cultural	African and Asian inspired food and fashion; annoying and boring food; café; different culture in food (2); diverse international cuisine (2); good food and restaurants; multicultural; no local cuisine; not tasty local food; varieties of restaurant
Weather	Cold weather (4); bad weather (2); dark; depressing dark and cold atmosphere; horrible weather; grey; nice summer; windy
People	Helpful people (3); Calm life (2); distant people (2); freedom (2); polite people (2); cold; easily to irritate; easy going life; kind; nice; not aggressive; not polite; open-minded people; polite but distant people; tolerant and helpful people
Atmosphere	Relax atmosphere (3); cozy city; depressing atmosphere; enjoy; peaceful city; people is busy; work-life balance people; socialize area Clean; clean street; very clean sea; tidy city
Cost of living	Expensive (3); high cost of living, especially beverage; too expensive

4.3 Survey analysis

The surveys were conducted at three small-scale events – City Struck, Law Shifters and Kampala Street Fashion. Self-administered surveys have been completed by 216 respondents, from which 16 were residents of Copenhagen city. Hence, they will be excluded from the analysis, since they are not part of this thesis's focus. Therefore, 200 respondents were analyzed by our analysis in this section.

The respondents' demographics is presented to describe the characteristics of the tourists who visited the three events, which might be beneficial to the event organizers in better understanding of their target visitors. The regression models were developed to test our 14 hypotheses. Lastly, the survey analysis is done by SPSS program and described in the last part.

4.3.1 Demographic variables

Figure 8: Respondents' gender

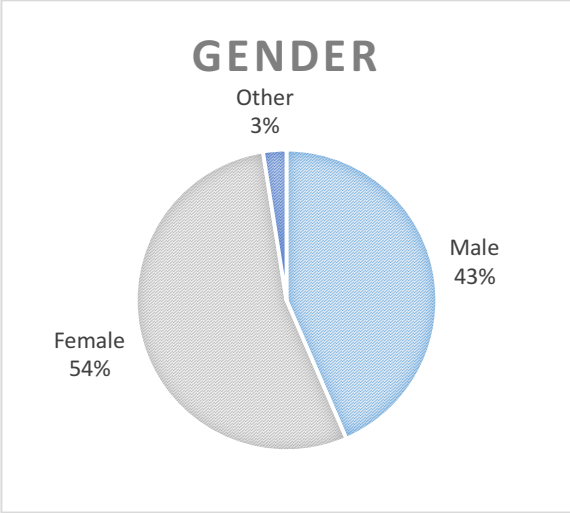
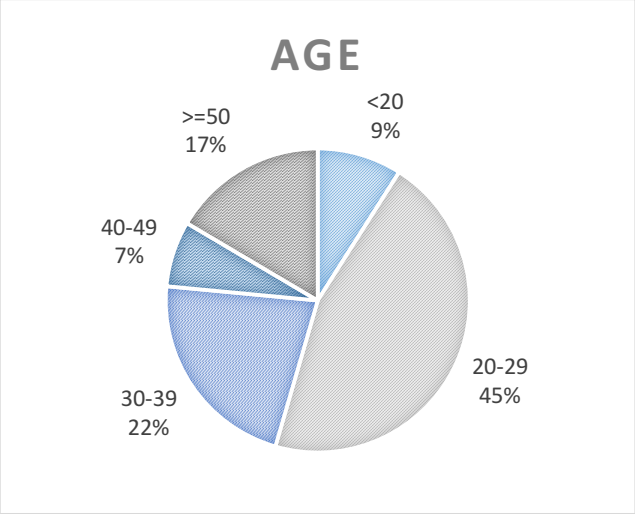


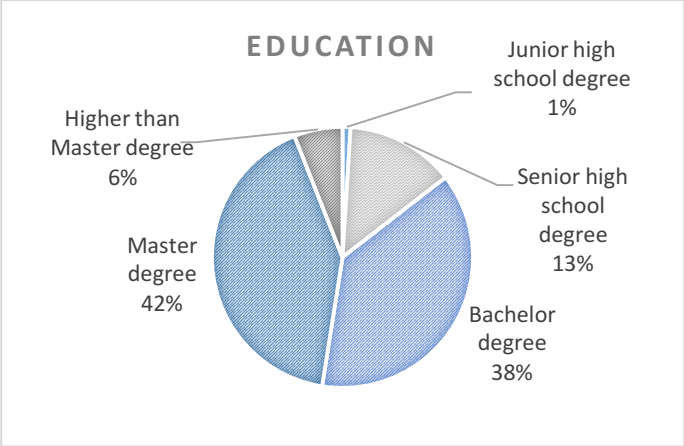
Figure 9: Respondents' age



The respondents in this study are divided by gender as shown in the diagram above. The female respondents outnumber the male respondents as they were 54% female and 43%

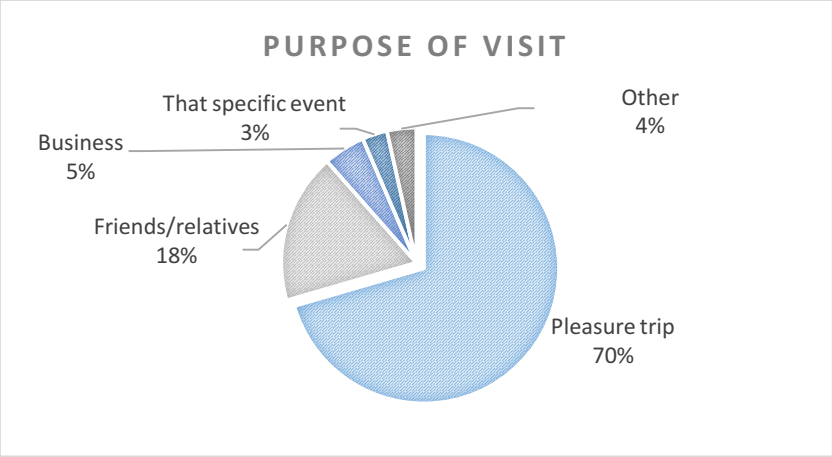
male respondents, whereas the other gender has the least portion with nearly 3%. Looking to the age diagram, the study shows that 45% of respondents are youngsters whose age is between 20 and 29. By contrast, only 7% of respondents are adults aging between 40 and 49, which is lower than the portion of elderly (50 or more) with 16.5% of the total respondents. That is, the authorities and event organizers should consider the youngster group as they are the majority group of visitors, as well as the elderly who has the most purchasing power. The statistics data from Europa.eu reveals that the travelers who are older than 45 years have averagely spent the most from all age groups with over EUR 355 per trip, while the youngster visitors' expenditure is around EUR 288 per trip (Tourism statistics - expenditure - Statistics Explained, 2017).

Figure 10: Respondents' education level



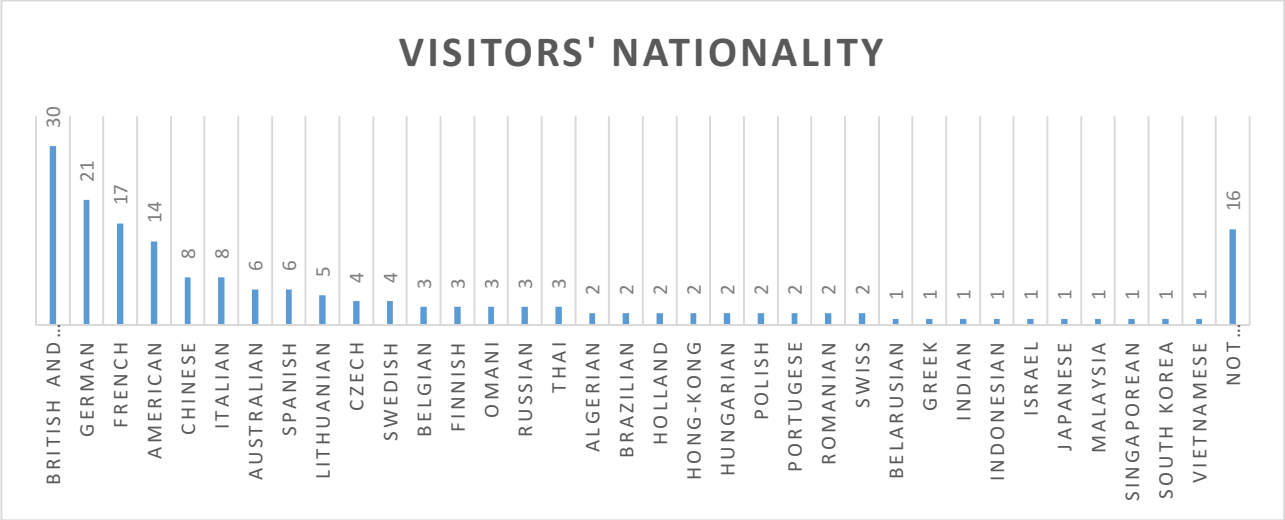
In addition, interestingly, the large majority of the respondents' education level is a higher education: graduate level at 42%, bachelor level at 38%. While under senior high school degree is the smallest population among respondents with only 1%. Since there is no prior statistics published regarding the event visitor's education, this information might be beneficial for the organizers in order to have a better idea of their visitors as well as to be able to create more suitable events that will attract and match with their visitors.

Figure 11: Purpose of visit of respondents



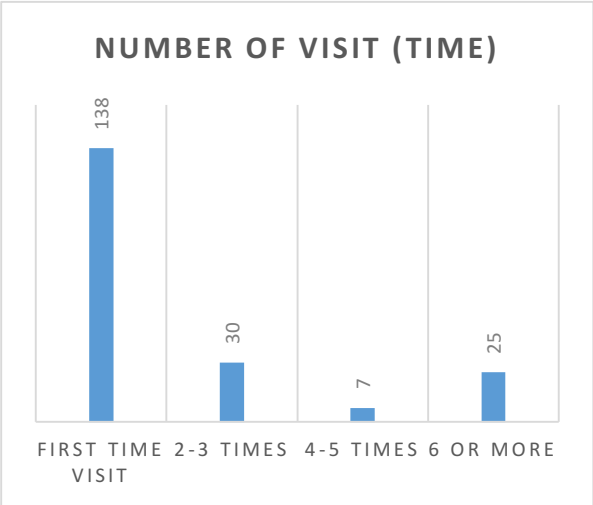
The diagram (figure 11) presents the proportion of visitors divided by purpose of visit, more than 70% of respondents visit Copenhagen city because in relation to leisure tourism. The second purpose of visiting Copenhagen is to visit friends or relatives. This purpose is not limited to Danish tourists, but also other nations since only 5 Danish respondents visited their friends or relative in Copenhagen, that means, there are 30 respondents from other cities who visited Copenhagen because of their family or friends. Comparing with the statistics from Eurostat (2018), it presents the number of nights spent by purpose in 2016 in which personal purpose significantly outnumbered other purposes with more than 95 million nights spent in Denmark, while the other purposes were leisure (58 millions), relations and friends (36 millions) and business purpose (6 millions) (Tourism statistics - expenditure - Statistics Explained, 2017). If the personal purposes were excluded from the data purpose, the trends of other purposes are similar to the study as leisure, relations or friends and business in order.

Figure 12: Respondents' nationality



Looking at the nationality graph in figure 12, in total of 200 respondents, there are 18 Danish who do not live in Copenhagen, and 182 respondents from other countries. The figure shows the other visitors' nationality from which British and Scottish are the dominant visitors during March 2018 with 30 respondents, followed by German (21), French (17) and American (14). Comparing with Statbank.dk (2018), UK, Sweden, Norway, USA, Germany, Italy and France are the nations that have the most nights stay in Copenhagen in January 2018 respectively. Excluding the Nordic countries such as Sweden and Norway, the rest are similar to our respondent's percentage with slightly different order. Eurostat stated that German and French tourists were the most spenders comparing with European tourists. Their expense was almost half of the total tourism expenditure of EU residents with 47% of total spending (Tourism statistics - expenditure - Statistics Explained, 2017).

Figure 13: Number of visit (time(s))



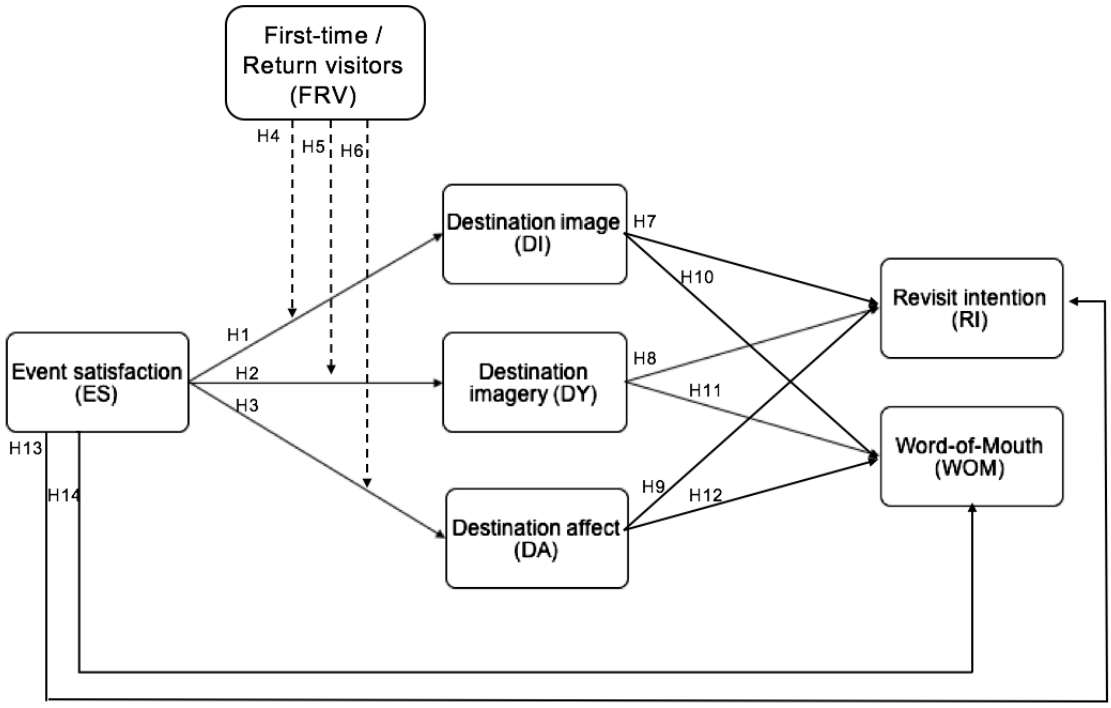
The number of visit is presented in figure 13 which is measured by the question “How often have you visited Copenhagen before this event?”. The results show that the first-time visitors (138) are the majority who has attended the events. The visitors who have been in Copenhagen for 2-3 times and 6 or more times are significantly lower with 30 and 25 respectively. The least proportion is 4-5 times which has only 7 respondents.

4.3.2 Model development

In order to examine the relationship between event satisfaction, destination image, destination imagery, destination affect, revisit intention and recommendation behavior variables, a regression model has been adopted. The regression model is a useful tool to predict values of the dependent variable (DV) from one or more independent variables (IVs). In addition, the result of the analysis can use to predict the larger population which means the outcomes from regression analysis is advanced than the original data (Field, 2013).

This thesis consists of 14 hypotheses tested by 8 regression models. Thus, this part starts with overview of the hypothesis through the following conceptual model in figure 14, following with the equations development.

Figure 14: Conceptual model of this thesis



The first, second and third hypotheses investigate the relationship between event satisfaction (ES) and three different dependent variables: destination image (DI), destination imagery (DY) and destination affect (DA), respectively. The model was conducted separately. Hence, the equation 1, 2, and 3 are developed as below.

$$DI_i = \alpha + \beta_1 ES_i \text{ -------(1)}$$

$$DY_i = \alpha + \beta_1 ES_i \text{ -------(2)}$$

$$DA_i = \alpha + \beta_1 ES_i \text{ -------(3)}$$

where: DY = Destination imagery measured by averaging score from questions 1 - 21

DA = Destination affect measured by averaging score from questions 22 - 28

DI = Destination image measured by averaging score from questions 29 - 32

ES = Event Satisfaction measured by averaging score from questions 33 – 37

The fourth, fifth and sixth hypotheses explore the moderating affect of the number of visits, as first-time visitor and return visitors e.g., 2-3 times, 4-5 times and 6 times or more (FRV), on the relationship between DI, DY, DA as an outcome, while the main predictor is esXfrv. Event satisfaction (ES) and first and repeat visitors (FRV) variables are used to complete the equation as part of the predictor. Therefore, the three equations are formulated as follows:

$$DI_i = \alpha + \beta_1 esXfrv_i + \beta_2 ES_i + \beta_3 FRV_i \text{ -------(4)}$$

$$DY_i = \alpha + \beta_1 esXfrv_i + \beta_2 ES_i + \beta_3 FRV_i \text{ -------(5)}$$

$$DA_i = \alpha + \beta_1 esXfrv_i + \beta_2 ES_i + \beta_3 FRV_i \text{ -------(6)}$$

where: FRV = number of visit (time): first-time or return (repeat) visitors measured by averaging score from question 54

esXfrv = Event satisfaction variable multiplied by First-time or return visitor

To test the seventh, eighth, ninth, and thirteenth hypotheses, the regression model was conducted simultaneously to find the relationship between revisit intention (RI) and four

independent variables: DI, DY, DA and ES, according to the hypothesis. Thus, the model is developed as shown below.

$$RI_i = \alpha + \beta_1 DI_i + \beta_2 DY_i + \beta_3 DA_i + \beta_4 ES_i \text{ -------(7)}$$

where: RI = Revisit intention measured by averaging score from questions 38 - 41

Lastly, to test the tenth, eleventh, twelfth, and fourteenth hypotheses, the regression model was analyzed concurrently. In order to find the relationship between four independent variables: DI, DY, DA and ES and dependent variable: the possibility of recommended the city to others (WOM).

$$WOM_i = \alpha + \beta_1 DI_i + \beta_2 DY_i + \beta_3 DA_i + \beta_4 ES_i \text{ -------(8)}$$

where: WOM = Word-of-mouth or the possibility to recommend the destination city to others measured by averaging score from questions 42-45

4.3.3 Descriptive analysis

The descriptive statistic is employed in order to indicate how strongly attributes represent the destination imagery, which was measured by questions 1 – 21. Table 6 presents minimum and maximum score of the respondents' answers, mean of each question, standard deviation and variance from which this study focuses only on the value of the mean of the destination imagery attributes. Since mean association strength can be used as the indicator of how respondents link an attribute to the destination (Kock et al., 2016).

Table 6: Descriptive analysis result

		Mini-mum	Maxi-mum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Varian-ce
s_1	Copenhagen has great variety of tourist	2	7	5.99	1.03	1.06
s_2	Copenhagen has great nightlife	1	7	4.71	1.18	1.39
s_3	Copenhagen has unique architecture	1	7	6.13	1.07	1.15
s_4	Copenhagen is eco-friendly city	1	7	5.95	1.26	1.58
s_5	Copenhagen has a big waterfront (eg., canals, sea and lakes)	1	7	6.22	1.10	1.22
s_6	Copenhagen has a lot of parks	1	7	5.63	1.12	1.26
s_7	Copenhagen has great mixture of old and modern architecture	1	7	6.06	1.11	1.22
s_8	Copenhagen has great traffic infrastructure	1	7	5.59	1.34	1.79
s_9	Copenhagen has great bicycling culture	1	7	6.64	0.91	0.83
s_10	Copenhagen has good urban planning and landscape	1	7	5.76	1.17	1.36
s_11	Copenhagen has mostly good weather	1	7	3.55	1.41	2.00
s_12	Copenhagen offers appealing local cuisine	1	7	4.89	1.54	2.36
s_13	Copenhagen offers appealing international cuisine	1	7	5.43	1.23	1.50
s_14	Copenhagen hosts great variety of events and festivals	1	7	4.87	1.11	1.22
s_15	Copenhagen has a liberal and tolerant social environment	2	7	5.88	1.06	1.13
s_16	Local people are really polite and helpful	1	7	5.87	1.32	1.75
s_17	Copenhagen offers great variety of restaurants, bars and clubs	1	7	5.84	1.16	1.33
s_18	Copenhagen is an expensive destination	1	7	6.20	1.13	1.28

s_19	It is safe to commute in Copenhagen	1	7	6.14	1.13	1.29
s_20	Copenhagen is a clean city	1	7	5.92	1.19	1.42
s_21	Copenhagen has relaxed atmosphere	1	7	6.12	1.21	1.47

Overall, most of the attributes received a high score. The bicycling culture is the strongest attribute in relation to Copenhagen city from the respondents' perception (Mean = 6.64). Even though the bicycling is not the most synonymous expression of the interview study, there are many interviewees who linked the bicycling society to the city.

Followed by the environment of the city as respondents mostly agree with the statement that Copenhagen has a big waterfront (Mean = 6.22). Similar to the results from the interviews, many of the survey respondents connect the city with canals, beaches and water, while parks were mentioned in both positive and negative way, resulting in a lower mean (Mean = 5.63). Safety in terms of transportation is the most synonymous attribute that is mentioned in the qualitative study. Moreover, this item gets a high score in quantitative study (Mean = 6.14). On the other hand, the weather in Copenhagen received the least score (Mean = 3.55) and it is the only attribute having mean lower than 4.00. The reason is at the time when we collected the data the temperature was between - 8 degree Celsius (lowest) to 7 degree Celsius (highest). This is in line with the qualitative study which found that many interviewees describe the weather of the city in a negative way such as cold, bad and dark.

4.3.4 Data analysis

The regression analyses results from SPSS program are shown in the model summary and coefficient tables. The model summary presents the value of R, R^2 and adjusted R^2. The adjusted R^2 is used to explain the ability of the model to generalize the outcome to the

population (Field, 2013). In the coefficients table, the beta coefficient value (β_i) indicates the relationship between dependent and independent variables. The positive value refers to the positive relationship, whereas the negative value refers to the negative relationship between outcome and predictor. In addition, the beta coefficient value is able to tell the degree of affection that each predictor affects the outcome if the other predictors are held constant (Field, 2013, p. 238). Furthermore, significance level or P-value is used to indicate the statistically significant level of the data (Field, 2013).

1.) Event satisfaction and destination image

Table 7: SPSS outputs: model summary (ES and DI)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.025[a]	.001	-.004	1.49373
a. Predictors: (Constant), ES				

Table 8: SPSS output: coefficients (ES and DA)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.298	.401		13.221	.000
	ES	.027	.076	.025	.350	.727
a. Dependent Variable: DI						

Compared with the other models' summary, the adjusted R^2 of this model has the lowest value, which indicates that ES does not explain the outcome DI. Similar to this findings, the

relationship between ES and DI is not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.027$ and p = .727 > 0.05). Therefore, H1, after attending a small-scale event held in a tourism destination, the event satisfaction will positively affect the destination image in the minds of the event attendees, is rejected.

2.) Event satisfaction and destination imagery

Table 9: SPSS output: model summary (ES and DY)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.224[a]	.050	.045	.61060
a. Predictors: (Constant), ES				

Table 10: SPSS output: coefficients (ES and DY)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.173	.164		31.576	.000
	ES	.101	.031	.224	3.229	.001
a. Dependent Variable: DY						

Overall, the adjusted R^2 of model 2 is relativly low as it equals 0.045. However, according to the findings, the relationship between ES and DY is positive, with statistically significance at 99% (β = 0.101 and p = 0.001 < 0.01). Thus, H2 is confirmed as after attending a small-scale event held in a tourism destination, the event satisfaction will positively affect the destination imagery connected to the host destination in the minds of the event attendees.

3.) Event satisfaction and destination affect

Table 11: SPSS output: model summary (ES and DA)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.074[a]	.005	.000	.74998
a. Predictors: (Constant), ES				

Table 12: SPSS output: coefficients (ES and DA)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.431	.201		26.993	.000
	ES	.040	.038	.074	1.046	.297
a. Dependent Variable: DA						

According to the model summary table, the value of adjusted R^2 is 0.000. In accordance with the adjusted R^2, ES does not have a relationship with DA (β = 0.040, p = 0.297 > 0.05). That means hypothesis 3, after attending a small-scale event held in a tourism destination, the relationship between event satisfaction and destination affect, could not be confirmed.

4.) Familiarity with the city, event satisfaction and destination image

Table 13: SPSS output: model summary (esXfrv, ES, FRV and DI)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.247[a]	.061	.047	1.45532
a. Predictors: (Constant), FRV, ES, esXfrv				

Table 14: SPSS output: coefficients (esXfrv, ES, FRV and DI)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.547	.743		6.124	.000
	esXfrv	-.130	.070	-.549	-1.852	.066
	ES	.264	.140	.246	1.886	.061
	FRV	.386	.385	.267	1.001	.318
a. Dependent Variable: DI						

The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.047 thus meaning that these regressors are not good in explaining the destination image. The result shows the moderating effects of familiarity with the city of visitors (FRV) on the relationship between event satisfaction and destination image is not significant (β = - 0.130, p = 0.066 > 0.05). As a result, hypothesis 4, the number of visits will moderate the relationship between event satisfaction and destination image, is rejected.

5.) Familiarity with the city, event satisfaction and destination imagery

Table 15: SPSS output: model summary (esXfrv, ES, FRV and DY)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.253[a]	.064	.050	.60921
a. Predictors: (Constant), FRV, ES, esXfrv				

Table 16: SPSS output: coefficients (esXfrv, ES, FRV and DY)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.770	.311		15.345	.000
	esXfrv	-.048	.029	-.488	-1.649	.101
	ES	.183	.059	.408	3.131	.002
	FRV	.239	.161	.394	1.480	.141
a. Dependent Variable: DY						

The finding of model 5 is similar to model 4, as the moderating affect of FRV on the relationship between ES and DY is not significant (β = -0.048 and p = 0.101 > 0.05). Thus, hypothesis 5, the number of visits will moderate the relationship between event satisfaction and destination imagery, is not confirmed.

6.) Familiarity with the city, event satisfaction and destination imagery

Table 17: SPSS output: model summary (esXfrv, ES, FRV and DA)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.312[a]	.097	.084	.71809

a. Predictors: (Constant), FRV, ES, esXfrv

Table 18: SPSS output: coefficients (esXfrv, ES, FRV and DA)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.433	.366		12.101	.000
	esXfrv	-.131	.035	-1.097	-3.775	.000
	ES	.267	.069	.496	3.876	.000
	FRV	.575	.190	.791	3.023	.003
a. Dependent Variable: DA						

The proposed model is able to explained 8.4% of DA variation. Furthermore, the result shows a significant, negative effect of FRV on the relationship between ES on DA ($\beta = 0.131$ and p = 0.000 < 0.001). Thus, hypothesis 6 is confirmed as the number of visits moderate the relationship between event satisfaction and destination affect.

7.) Destination image, destination imagery, destination affect, event satisfaction and revisit intention

Table 19: SPSS output: model summary (DY, DA, DI, ES and RI)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.549[a]	.301	.287	1.19497
a. Predictors: (Constant), ES, DIr, DY, DA				

Table 20: SPSS output: coefficients (DY, DA, DI, ES and RI)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.901	.844		-2.252	.025
	DY	.585	.159	.258	3.675	.000
	DA	.437	.140	.231	3.119	.002
	DI	.079	.064	.083	1.240	.217
	ES	.233	.063	.229	3.731	.000
a. Dependent Variable: RI						

Overall, the adjusted R^2 of 0.287 indicates that the model has quite good explanatory power to explain the revisit intention variance. It is found that the direct effect of DI on RI is not statistically significant (β = 0.079, p = 0.217 > 0.05), thus, hypothesis 7, event attendees' intention to revisit the destination will be positively affected by the destination image, is not supported. However, the effect of DY, DA and ES on RI is strongly significant. Destination imagery has a strong effect on revisit intention (β = 0.585, p = 0.000 < 0.001), confirming hypothesis 8 as event attendees' intention to revisit the destination will be positively affected by the destination image.

Similarly, the influence of destination affect on revisit intention, that is found to have a significant positive relationship (β = 0.437 and p = 0.002 < 0.01), supporting hypothesis 9 as event attendees' intention to revisit the destination will be positively affected by the destination affect. Lastly, the positive relationship between event satisfaction and revisit intention is found to be significant (β = 0.233 and p = 0.000 < 0.001), that means hypothesis

13 is confirmed as the event attendees' intention to revisit the destination will be positively affected by their satisfaction with the event.

8.) Destination image, destination imagery, destination affect, event satisfaction and possibility to recommend the destination to others

Table 21: SPSS output: model summary (DY, DA, DI, ES and WOM)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.637[a]	.406	.394	.93609
a. Predictors: (Constant), ES, DIr, DY, DA				

Table 22: SPSS output: coefficients (DY, DA, DI, ES and WOM)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.548	.662		-2.340	.020
	DY	.552	.125	.287	4.430	.000
	DA	.442	.110	.276	4.031	.000
	DIr	.077	.050	.095	1.540	.125
	ES	.239	.049	.277	4.883	.000
a. Dependent Variable: WOM						

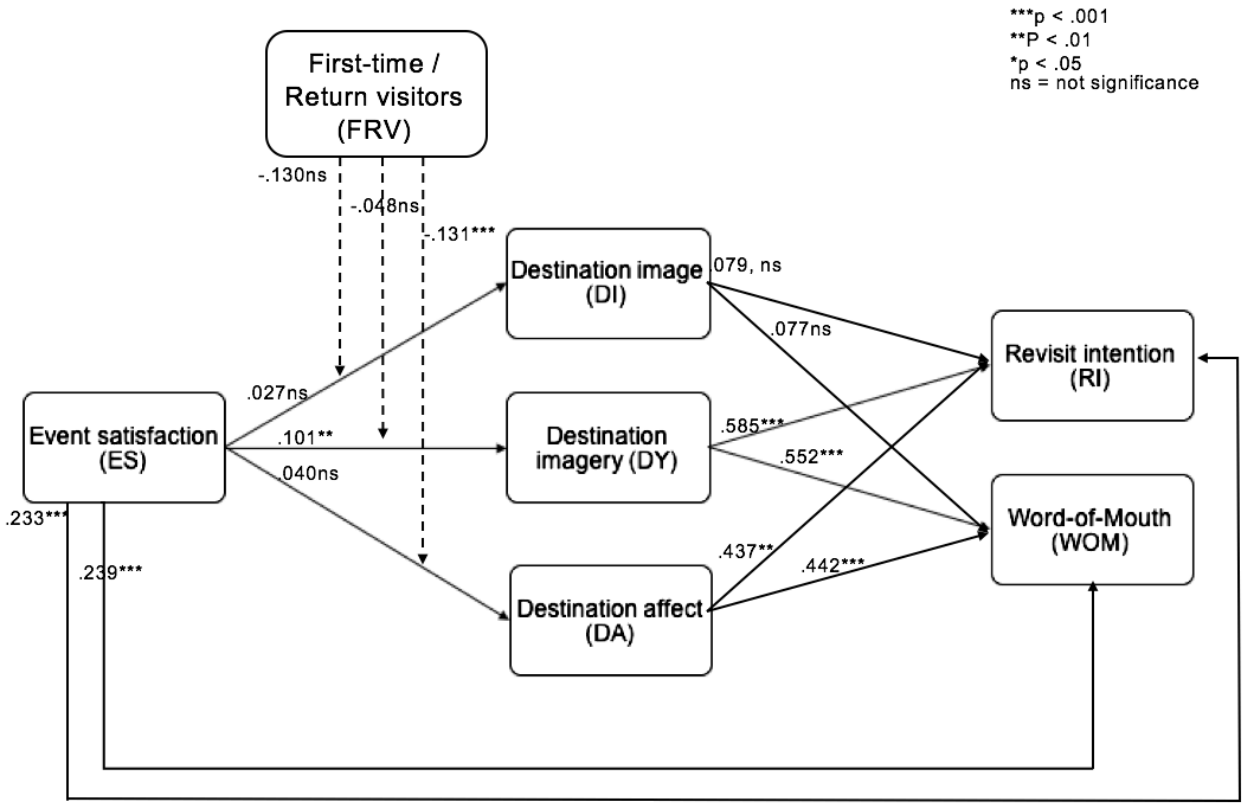
The proposed model has good explanatory power, which explains approximately 39.4% of WOM variation (adjusted R^2 = 0.394). Regarding the findings, the DI is the only one predictor that is found to not have significant influence between the predictor and the outcome (β = 0.077, p = 0.125 > 0.05). Thus, hypothesis 10, the possibility of recommending the

destination to others by the event attendees will be positively affected by the destination image, could not be confirmed.

In contrast, the significant impact of the other predictors: DY, DA and ES on WOM have been found to be significant. A strong positive effect of destination imagery of the possibility to recommend has been found (β = 0.552 and p = 0.000 < 0.001), confirming hypothesis 11, as the possibility of recommending the destination to others by the event attendees will be positively affected by the destination imagery. Similarly, a positive effect of destination affect on the possibility to recommend is significantly confirmed (β = 0.442 and p = 0.000 < 0.001), which means hypothesis 12 is supported, as the possibility of recommending the destination to others by the event attendees will be positively affected by the destination affect. Consequently, the last hypothesis, the possibility of recommending the destination to others by the event attendees will be positively affected by their satisfaction with the event is confirmed (β = 0.239, p = 0.000 < 0.001).

4.4 Conclusion

Figure 15: The structural model



In conclusion, the reliability of the questionnaire is relatively high according to a Cronbach's coefficient alpha as the values of each scale is higher than 0.80. The attribute items used in the destination imagery are highly linked to the individual perception about Copenhagen image according to the consistency between qualitative and quantitative study. Moreover, after testing the hypotheses by applying regression analysis, the results can be concluded as shown in the structural model in figure 15. In total, there are eight hypotheses, which were confirmed by the study (H2, H6, H8, H9, H11, H12, H13 and H14), whereas six hypotheses were rejected (H1, H3, H4, H5, H7 and H10). Further explanation of the findings will be presented in discussion and implication section of the current study.

Chapter 5: Discussion and implications

5.1 The effect of event satisfaction on destination image and its components

According to the conducted analysis, the event satisfaction has a significant effect on the destination imagery, thus confirming Hypothesis 2. This relationship can be explained as small-scale events being part of the on-site experience further increase the individuals' familiarity with the destination's attributes. This result is in line with Beerli and Martin's (2004) findings on the affect of the intensity of travelers' experience on the destination imagery for both first-time and repeat visitors. However, as Beerli and Martin (2004) have not hypothesized the type of visited attractions but only the number, with our finding we further enrich the scientific literature by showing that small-scale event help increasing the familiarity with the destination imagery.

However, the relationships between event satisfaction and destination image as well as event satisfaction and destination affect were not confirmed, thus rejecting Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 3. We assume that the insignificant relationship between the event satisfaction and the destination image has been caused due to a response bias based on the questions' response order. It has been previously confirmed that questions with the same response format may be affected by the order and content of the items that come first in the list of possible answers (Oldendick, 2011; Villar, 2011). To further elaborate on the possible question order response bias in the current case an explanation of the question order of the administered questionnaire is needed.

To begin with, respondents were asked first to express their opinion about the destination affect by stating the number that best represents their state of mind ranging from 1 to 7. Furthermore, seven bi-polar pairs of adjectives were listed with the negative adjectives being positioned first. To illustrate, the following example taken from the questionnaire is provided hereafter (please, see the Appendix for the full questionnaire):

"Please, choose the number that best represents your opinion about Copenhagen from 1-7 as described below:

1 Being very sleepy to 7 Being very arousing"

On the other hand, the following question was in regards to destination image and it was measured by using the same response format with four bi-polar pairs, however in the list of items to positive adjectives were on the first position. To illustrate:

"All things considered, taking a holiday to Copenhagen is:

Please, choose the number that best represents your opinion from 1-7 as listed below:

1 Being very worthwhile to 7 Being not worthwhile at all"

Hence, we assume that the response order might have affected the chosen answers by some of the respondents as they might have been confused with the shift of the direction of the listed options as in the first question regarding the destination affect the direction was from negative to positive, whereas the following question regarding the destination image – from positive to negative, thus resulting in the more negative destination image outcome as well as the insignificant relationship between the event satisfaction and the destination image and further linked to all hypothesized relationships regarding the destination image variable.

Furthermore, the rejection of Hypothesis 3 concerning the effect of event satisfaction on the destination affect might be explained in two ways. On the one hand, it can be explained with the dependency of the individuals' satisfaction on external events (Oliver, 1993). In his research, Oliver (1993) indicates that events from the individuals' everyday life such as loss – financial or emotional. In a tourism perspective, Baker and Crompton (2002) further argue that satisfaction depends on the tourists' current socio-psychological state of mind as well as external factors such as weather which are beyond the provider's reach and in this way preventing the individual of truly experiencing the event and develop affect towards the destination.

On the other hand, the insignificant relationship between event satisfaction and destination affect can be interpreted as the failure of the chosen small-scale events to create strong emotions that can be further associated with the destination. To further elaborate on the emotion aspect of the event satisfaction, in the literature, authors distinguish between attribute satisfaction and affective satisfaction and argue that both affect the satisfaction response (Oliver, 1993).

Furthermore, Coghlan and Pearce (Coghlan & Pearce, 2010) stress the role of emotions as antecedents of customer satisfaction and that satisfaction is evaluated on the bases of the affect created during an on-site experience, thus they have measured the effect of emotions on the real-time satisfaction. According to them, real-time satisfaction measures the individual's current or very recently experienced state (Coghlan & Pearce, 2010). Since, the current study has been conducted right after the events' end, we assume that the lack of emotions from the event might have interfered with the relationship between the event satisfaction and destination affect. However, further research is needed in order to

understand this relationship since the affect of the emotions connected to the events were not hypothesized.

5.2 The moderating effect of familiarity with the destination on the relationship between event satisfaction and destination image and its components

Even though the direct relationship between event satisfaction and destination affect was not confirmed (Hypothesis 3), the analysis show that event satisfaction together with destination familiarity influence the destination affect thus confirming Hypothesis 6. According to this outcome, it can be indicated that the event satisfaction has a different effect on the destination affect based on the number of the individual's visits to the destination. However, the direction of the relationship was not hypothesized thus meaning that further research is needed in order to understand the difference in the destination affect of the first-time and repeated visitors.

Furthermore, both Hypothesis 4 and 5 regarding the moderating effect of destination familiarity on the relationships between event satisfaction and destination image (Hypothesis 4) as well as event satisfaction and destination imagery (Hypothesis 5) did not find strong support. However, as the p-value regarding Hypothesis 4 equals 0.06 thus showing an important trend, it can be assumed that if the question order response bias was prevented, the hypothesis might have been supported (see 5.1).

In regards to Hypothesis 5, the conducted analysis suggests that the moderation effect of the number of visits, in other words the familiarity with the destination on the relationship between event satisfaction and the destination imagery is not statistically significant,

however it stays on the borderline as the p-value equals 0.101. One reason for this outcome can be the sample size as the first-time visitors outnumber the repeat visitors in our data. Furthermore, the adjusted R^2 regarding the number of visits as a moderator show that the data cannot be generalized to the population this indicating a possible error in the sample size. Nevertheless, the moderate relationships still show an important trend thus meaning that the effect of the event satisfaction on the destination image and its components may differ between first-time and repeat visitors which can have its practical implications when creating marketing strategy for the different segments.

5.3 The effect of event satisfaction and destination image on individuals' behavioral intentions

According to the results from the conducted analysis, both destination imagery and destination affect are influencing the individuals' further behavioral intentions towards the destination expressed by willingness to recommend and revisit (Hypothesis 8, 9, 11, 12). The current findings are in line with previous researches as for example that of Kock et. al (2016), who also found a significant relationship between the destination image components and individuals' behavioral intentions. Furthermore, as Chen and Tsai (2007) have used 20 cognitive attributes to measure the destination image, they also have found a significant support for the relationship between destination image and intentions to revisit and recommend.

In regards to the destination image measured as an overall representation of the destination, in the scientific literature, the authors have found strong support for the influence of the destination image on the individuals' post-trip behavior (Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016; Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou, & Kaplanidou, 2015).

However, according to the conducted analysis of the current study, this relationship was not supported by the obtained data, thus rejecting Hypothesis 7 and 10. Similar outcome can be found in the research by Wang and Hsu (2010), who found that overall destination image does not affect the individuals' behavioral intentions, however it affects the later through the individuals' post-trip satisfaction.

To conclude, the destination image and its components have been found to either directly or indirectly affect the individuals' post-trip behavior, thus leading to the assumption that a possible error has occurred in the used measurement of the destination image in the current study. As discussed earlier such an error can be a response bias due to the questions' response order (see 5.1), thus we assume that if the respondents' answers were not biased our findings would have been in line with the results from the previous researches.

Furthermore, from event management perspective, the conducted analysis show positive statistical significance of the effect of event satisfaction on tourists' willingness to revisit and recommend the destination thus leading to the support of Hypothesis 13 and 14. Similar results can be found in Ch. Lee, Y. Lee and B. Lee's research (Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005) in which the tourists' satisfaction after attending a mega-event influences their behavioral intentions. However, with our finding we are contributing to the scientific area as we show that the satisfaction from a small-scale event positively affects the tourists' behavioral intentions towards the host destination as well as we show support for Getz's revised event portfolio model (2016) as small-scale events also bring value to the destination.

5.4 Limitations and further research

As the current study focuses mainly on relationships between variables that have not been studied in depth in prior researches, as for the relationships of the effect of small-scale event

satisfaction on the destination image and its components as well as the moderating effect of the number of visits on the relationship between small-scale event satisfaction and the destination image thus some limitations regarding the chosen research design should be addressed.

First, a major limitation of the current study is the possible occurrence of question order response bias which might have interfered with the obtained data thus showing insignificant statistical support for all hypotheses connected to the destination image. Some authors propose randomization of the response items in order for the question order response bias to be avoided (Oldendick, 2011). However, this strategy does not completely guarantee that the responses will remain unbiased (Oldendick, 2011).

Another strategy that can be used for the avoidance of the question order response bias is for forced-choice full binary questions design to be used either for both destination affect and destination image or just for one of them. This strategy has been taken from Dolnicar and Grün's research (Dolnicar & Grün, 2013), as the authors have tested different question types that have been used in researches for the measurement of destination image in order to present a questionnaire design that can most validly measure the construct. Furthermore, they have found that the forced-choice full binary questions format outperforms other question designs in both scale stability and completion speed (Dolnicar & Grün, 2013).

Second limitation of the current study is the inability for the results from the moderating effect of the number of visits on the relationship between small-scale event satisfaction and destination image and its components to be generalized as the samples of first-time and repeat-visitors are not representative. However, as this relationship has not been investigated in previous researches, the results from the current study show important trend

towards real findings thus further research is needed in order to capture the differences between the visitors.

Lastly, further research is needed in order to better understand the relationship between small-scale event satisfaction and the destination affect, as it was assumed that the events might have failed to create strong feelings which then can be transferred towards the destination. To illustrate, some of the events had more positive and bright settings as that of “Kampala Street Fashion” and “City Struck” exhibitions which were presenting photographs in bright colors leading to more positive atmosphere, whereas the “Law Shifters” exhibition had darker theme aided by both visual and sound tools.

Furthermore, it was argued that satisfaction has both cognitive and affective states (Coghlan & Pearce, 2010; Oliver, 1993), thus further understanding of how emotions created by the theme of the event are linked to the event satisfaction and further transferred to the visitors’ feelings towards the destination is need. However, as emotions were not hypothesized, the results from the current study might be used as a basis for further research on event-destination affect transfer.

5.5 Theoretical and managerial implications

The purpose of the current study was to bring clarity to the definitions of both ‘destination image’ and ‘small-scale events’ constructs by further elaborating on the existing literature as well as to investigate the effect of small-scale events on the destination image. Thus apart from the limitations, the present results still contribute to the respective scientific areas and show that small-scale events affect the destination image in several ways that can be applied in practice by both event and destination marketers.

From theoretical perspective, the destination image construct was reviewed chronologically and it was argued for its gestalt conceptualization. The destination image components were then further discussed and it was argued that the conative component mentioned by some of the scholars (Gartner, 1993; Dann, 1996) is not comprised in the destination image construct, yet it is the result of it (Kock et. al, 2016).

To summarize, in the early years of the destination image concept development authors have seen it more as an attribute-based construct (Hunt 1975, Crompton, 1979), whereas in more recent years, scholars lean towards the understanding of the destination image construct as a gestalt (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Gallarza, Saura, & Garcıa, 2002; Josiassen, Assaf, Woo, & Kock, 2016; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016). It was then further argued that when conceptualized as a gestalt, the sum of the destination image components may differ from the whole (Lin, 2004), thus both the destination image components and the overall destination image have been measured in the current study.

Furthermore, different event typologies according to the event size, event form as well as Getz's (1997, 2016) event portfolio have been presented. It was stressed that no clear definition of small-scale event have been presented in previous researches thus the current study contributes to the scientific area by presenting events in more systematic order as well as it tries to link small-scale event to more specific characteristics based on the conducted literature review.

According to Müller (Müller, 2015), large-scale events fall into three sizes – (1) Giga (XXL); (2) Mega (XL); and (3) Major (L), in regards to their ability to attract visitors, their mediated reach, cost and capital investment. Hence, small-scale events have been described as having fewer visitors, costs, mediated reach and capital investments than the Major events

described by Müller (2015). However, further research is need in order for the exact parameters for small-scale events to be established as the concept can be further narrowed down by dividing small events into sizes – Minor (M), Small (S) Extra Small (XS) as done by Müller (2015) for large-scale events.

From managerial perspective, it has been shown that small-scale events help improve the visitors' imagery of the place as well as that event satisfaction significantly affects their intention to revisit and recommend the host destination. Thus event and destination managers should pay more attention to events and keep the customers satisfied in order to retain the old as well as to gain new visitors since it was argued elsewhere that word-of-mouth is one of the most effective motivators for tourists' visits (Gartner, 1993).

Understanding the destination image is vital for communicating the right message to the customers as well as for the positioning of the destination in their minds (Pike & Ryan, 2004). It further helps to differentiate the destination from the rest of the world and thus present more custom-tailored offerings (Pike & Ryan, 2004). Furthermore, understanding the relationship between destination imagery, affect and behavioral intentions can be used in order for destination marketers to follow the AIDA concept from marketing theory as these relationships present the visitors' awareness of the place attributes as well as they can be used to understand the visitors' interests, desires and further actions regarding the destination (Pike & Ryan, 2004).

Sustaining positive destination image is crucial not only for the destinations' tourism levels but also for attracting new residents and investments. Furthermore, image has been proven to determine the travelers' destination choice (Gartner, 1993; Hunt, 1975). In that sense, events have been used in many occasions to improve or correct a negative image (Ahmed,

1991; Jørgensen, 2015) as well as to create a completely different image (Smith, 2005). However, when following this strategy, destination marketers should consider the image fit between the destination and the event as it may have a twofold outcome (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010).

Furthermore, some authors have argued for the inclusion of events in travel bundles as it is more cost efficient, improves the rates of visitor attraction as well as enhance the destination image (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004; Xu, Wong, & Tan, 2016). In addition, Xu et. al (2016) have indicated that small-scale events can benefit the most from the event bundling strategy as they do not have the capability to attract a lot of attendees. Moreover, this strategy can present the destination as one with festive athmosphere due to the multiple events bundle (Xu et. al, 2016). However, when implementing the event bundling strategy, the destination and event marketers should pay higher attantion for the similarity of the events as otherwise a mismatch might be caused thus leading to attendees' disatisfaction (Xu et. al, 2016).

Chapter 6: Conclusion

The tourism industry has been growing rapidly in recent years due to the more convenient ways to travel thus destinations have started paying higher attention to their marketing strategies in order to attract not only visitors, but also business investments and new residents. The competition between destinations has reached incredibly high levels, therefore in order to sustain their competitiveness destinations should maintain their image and try to differentiate their propositions from the large pool of possible travel and investment choices.

It has been shown in the current study that small-scale events have the ability to drive tourists' behavioral intentions regarding the host destination based on their satisfaction levels thus events can be used in several marketing strategies in order to improve the travel experience as well as to enhance the destination image. As people travel for various reasons (i.e. leisure, business, friends and relatives), in more recent years it has been shown that there is a trend for people to travel just to participate in a specific event, hence the raise of the event tourism field (Getz, 2008).

The economic impact of mega-events as well as their ability to raise the tourists' awareness of the destination is already well-known (Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005; Liu & Gratton, 2010), however with the current study we have shown that small-scale events also bring value to the destination as they are part of the travel experience and the destinations' attractions (Gunn, 1988; Kozak & Baloglu, 2011). Furthermore, events can be used in order for the tourists' to better experience the destination since it has been shown that small-scale events affect the destination imagery. However, this experience should be planned and organized

so that the visitor can be left with fulfilling memories that can be elicited when thinking about the destination.

There has been a shift in the business field from managing services to managing experiences, after the publishment of Pine and Gilmore's book *"The Experience Economy: Work is Theatre & Every Business a Stage"* (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Several authors have successfully applied and argued for the use of the experience economy theory in the tourism industry (Chang, 2018; Loureiro, 2014; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). One of the reasons for that shift is that, nowadays a major travel motive for tourists is to try to escape their daily lives and seek new experiences. Thus destination can be seen as 'an amalgamation of places generating experiences (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011, p. 16)'.

Incorporating the experience economy theory into the visitors' travel experience can help the destination to differentiate itself, however maintaining and monitoring the destination image is equally important as it is one of the factors that motivate tourists to visit it. Therefore, the current study has tried to bring clarity to the 'destination image' concept and its measurement. It has been also observed that small-scale events also bring value for the host destination through the customer's satisfaction, thus it is essential for destination and event marketers to work closer together in order to provide the tourists with the ultimate travel experience.

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Chapter 8: Appendix

8.1 Questionnaire

Dear all,
We are two Master Degree students from Copenhagen Business School. Currently, we are collecting the data for our Master Thesis, titled "How Small Scale-Events Affect the Destination Image". Therefore, we need you, as an event attendee, to help us complete our survey which will take only 5-8 minutes.
The survey is completely anonymous and the collected data will be used for academic purposes only. However, the result of our study might be provided to some public organizations in order to contribute to the society, and this is NOT for commercial purposes.

Thank you for your help and effort!

Best regards,
Chanida Pranom
Galabina Nedelcheva

For each statement below, please state the level of your agreement/disagreement with the following statements about Copenhagen.

	Extremely disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Extremely agree
Copenhagen has great variety of tourist attractions	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has great nightlife	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has unique architecture	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen is eco-friendly city	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has a big waterfront (eg., canals, sea and lakes)	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has a lot of parks	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has great mixture of old and modern architecture	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

For each statement below, please state the level of your agreement/disagreement with the following statements about Copenhagen.

	Extremely disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Extremely agree
Copenhagen has great traffic infrastructure	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has great bicycling culture	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has good urban planning and landscape	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has mostly good weather	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen offers appealing local cuisine	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen offers appealing international cuisine	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Please, state the level of your agreement/disagreement with the following statements about Copenhagen

	Extremely disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Extremely agree
Copenhagen hosts great variety of events and festivals	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has a liberal and tolerant social environment	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Local people are really polite and helpful	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen offers great variety of restaurants, bars and clubs	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen is an expensive destination	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
It is safe to commute in Copenhagen	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen is a clean city	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Copenhagen has relaxed atmosphere	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Please, choose the number that best represents your opinion about Copenhagen from 1-7 as described below:-

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Being very sleepy to 7 Being very arousing	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
1 Being very unpleasant to 7 Being very pleasant	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
1 Being very gloomy to 7 Being very exciting	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
1 Being very distressing to 7 Being very relaxing	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
1 Being "I dislike it very much" to 7 Being "I like it very much"	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
1 Being very repulsive to 7 Being very attractive	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
1 Being very uncomfortable to 7 Being very comfortable	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

All things considered, taking a holiday to Copenhagen is:
Please, choose the number that best represents your opinion from 1-7 as listed below:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Being very worthwhile to 7 Being not worthwhile at all	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
1 Being very favourable to 7 Being very unfavourable	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
1 Being very positive to 7 Being very negative	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
1 Being very good to 7 Being very bad	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

For each statement below, please state the level of your agreement/disagreement with the following statements regarding the event that you attended in Copenhagen City.

	Extremely disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Extremely agree
This event is exactly what I needed.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
I am glad I decided to attend this event.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
It was a good decision to participate in this event.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
I have truly enjoyed this event.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
I was satisfied with my experience at the event today.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

For each statement below, please state the level of your agreement/disagreement with the following statements regarding your intention to revisit Copenhagen.

	Extremely disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Extremely agree
I strongly intend to visit Copenhagen in the future	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
It is very likely that I would choose Copenhagen as my tourist destination	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
I would like to take a holiday in Copenhagen	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
I plan to visit Copenhagen as a tourist at some point in the future	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

For each statement below, please state to what extent do you agree with the following statements:

	Extremely disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Extremely agree
I talk up Copenhagen as a holiday destination	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
I bring up Copenhagen in a positive way in conversations about holiday destinations	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
I often speak favorably about Copenhagen as a tourist destination	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
How likely is that you would recommend visiting Copenhagen to others?	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Please, state your gender:

- ❑ Male
- ❑ Female
- ❑ Other

Please, state your age

- ❑ Younger than 20
- ❑ 20-29
- ❑ 30-39
- ❑ 40-49
- ❑ 50 or more

Please, state your education level

- ❑ Junior high school degree
- ❑ Senior high school degree
- ❑ Bachelor degree
- ❑ Master degree
- ❑ Higher than Master degree

Please, state your purpose of visit

- ❑ Pleasure trip
- ❑ Friends/relatives
- ❑ Business
- ❑ That specific event
- ❑ Other_____

Please, state type of the event that you have attended

- ❑ Arts and Entertainment: Concerts, award ceremonies

- ☐ Business and Academic: meetings, conventions, trade shows, fairs, market, conference, seminars, clinics
- ☐ Sport competition sport or games competition
- ☐ Other_____

Please, state the number of nights spent by you in Copenhagen

- ☐ 0
- ☐ 1-2 nights
- ☐ 3-4 nights
- ☐ 5-6 nights
- ☐ 7 nights or more

How often have you visited Copenhagen before this event?

- ☐ First time visit
- ☐ 2-3 times
- ☐ 4-5 times
- ☐ 6 or more

Please state your nationality

- ☐ Danish
- ☐ Other_____

Please, state your city of residence.

- ☐ Copenhagen
- ☐ Other city_____

Dear participant,

Thank you so much for taking the time to complete our survey!
We wish you best of luck and have a wonderful day :)

Best regards,

Chanida Pranom
Galabina Nedelcheva

8.2 Full SPSS output

8.2.1 ES and DI

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ES[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: DI

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.025[a]	.001	-.004	1.49373

a. Predictors: (Constant), ES

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.273	1	.273	.123	.727[b]
	Residual	441.786	198	2.231		
	Total	442.060	199			

a. Dependent Variable: DI

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.298	.401		13.221	.000
	ES	.027	.076	.025	.350	.727

a. Dependent Variable: DI

8.2.2 ES and DY

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ES[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: DY

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.224[a]	.050	.045	.61060

a. Predictors: (Constant), ES

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.887	1	3.887	10.425	.001[b]
	Residual	73.820	198	.373		
	Total	77.707	199			

a. Dependent Variable: DY

b. Predictors: (Constant), ES

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.173	.164		31.576	.000
	ES	.101	.031	.224	3.229	.001

a. Dependent Variable: DY

8.2.3 ES and DA

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ES[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: DA

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.074[a]	.005	.000	.74998

a. Predictors: (Constant), ES

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.615	1	.615	1.094	.297[b]
	Residual	111.370	198	.562		
	Total	111.985	199			

a. Dependent Variable: DA

b. Predictors: (Constant), ES

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.431	.201		26.993	.000
	ES	.040	.038	.074	1.046	.297

a. Dependent Variable: DA

8.2.4 esXfrv and DI

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	FRV, ES, esXfrv[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: DI

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.247[a]	.061	.047	1.45532

a. Predictors: (Constant), FRV, ES, esXfrv

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	26.943	3	8.981	4.240	.006[b]
	Residual	415.117	196	2.118		
	Total	442.060	199			

a. Dependent Variable: DI

b. Predictors: (Constant), FRV, ES, esXfrv

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.547	.743		6.124	.000

	esXfrv	-.130	.070	-.549	-1.852	.066
	ES	.264	.140	.246	1.886	.061
	FRV	.386	.385	.267	1.001	.318

a. Dependent Variable: DI

8.2.5 esXfrv and DY

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	FRV, ES, esXfrv[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: DY

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.253[a]	.064	.050	.60921

a. Predictors: (Constant), FRV, ES, esXfrv

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.964	3	1.655	4.459	.005[b]
	Residual	72.743	196	.371		
	Total	77.707	199			

a. Dependent Variable: DY

b. Predictors: (Constant), FRV, ES, esXfrv

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		

1	(Constant)	4.770	.311		15.345	.000
	esXfrv	-.048	.029	-.488	-1.649	.101
	ES	.183	.059	.408	3.131	.002
	FRV	.239	.161	.394	1.480	.141

a. Dependent Variable: DY

8.2.6 esXfrv and DA

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	FRV, ES, esXfrv[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: DA

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.312[a]	.097	.084	.71809

a. Predictors: (Constant), FRV, ES, esXfrv

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	10.918	3	3.639	7.057	.000[b]
	Residual	101.068	196	.516		
	Total	111.985	199			

a. Dependent Variable: DA

b. Predictors: (Constant), FRV, ES, esXfrv

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	4.433	.366		12.101	.000
	esXfrv	-.131	.035	-1.097	-3.775	.000
	ES	.267	.069	.496	3.876	.000
	FRV	.575	.190	.791	3.023	.003

a. Dependent Variable: DA

8.2.7 ES, DI, DY, DA and RI

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ES, DI, DY, DA[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: RI

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.549[a]	.301	.287	1.19497

a. Predictors: (Constant), ES, DI, DY, DA

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	120.107	4	30.027	21.028	.000[b]
	Residual	278.453	195	1.428		
	Total	398.560	199			

a. Dependent Variable: RI

b. Predictors: (Constant), ES, DI, DY, DA

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-1.901	.844		-2.252	.025
	DY	.585	.159	.258	3.675	.000
	DA	.437	.140	.231	3.119	.002
	DI	.079	.064	.083	1.240	.217
	ES	.233	.063	.229	3.731	.000

a. Dependent Variable: RI

8.2.8 ES, DI, DY, DA and WOM

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ES, DI, DY, DA[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.637[a]	.406	.394	.93609

a. Predictors: (Constant), ES, DI, DY, DA

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	116.972	4	29.243	33.372	.000[b]
	Residual	170.872	195	.876		
	Total	287.844	199			

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), ES, DI, DY, DA

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-1.548	.662		-2.340	.020
	DY	.552	.125	.287	4.430	.000
	DA	.442	.110	.276	4.031	.000
	DI	.077	.050	.095	1.540	.125
	ES	.239	.049	.277	4.883	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WOM

8.3 Reliability tests

8.3.1 Scale: Relibility_ES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	200	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.969	5

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
s_33	20.62	32.931	.815	.975
s_34	20.29	30.758	.919	.960
s_35	20.20	30.894	.941	.956
s_36	20.24	30.897	.932	.958
s_37	20.18	30.379	.944	.956

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
25.38	48.327	6.952	5

8.3.2 Scale: Relibility_DI

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	200	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.929	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
s_29	7.42	20.124	.744	.942
s_30	7.65	20.220	.871	.895
s_31	7.85	20.323	.883	.891
s_32	7.89	21.208	.855	.901

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
10.27	35.542	5.962	4

8.3.3 Scale: Relibility_DY

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	200	100.0

	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.869	21

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
s_1	113.35	159.919	.431	.865
s_2	114.63	162.635	.273	.870
s_3	113.21	157.828	.492	.863
s_4	113.40	154.260	.524	.861
s_5	113.12	155.342	.569	.860
s_6	113.71	158.026	.458	.864
s_7	113.28	156.424	.526	.862
s_8	113.75	156.731	.408	.866
s_9	112.71	157.827	.594	.861
s_10	113.58	153.702	.593	.859
s_11	115.80	166.274	.108	.878
s_12	114.46	155.897	.363	.869
s_13	113.91	158.344	.401	.866
s_14	114.48	162.241	.310	.868
s_15	113.46	155.084	.604	.859
s_16	113.47	151.577	.579	.859

s_17	113.51	154.472	.571	.860
s_18	113.15	160.577	.360	.867
s_19	113.20	157.427	.474	.863
s_20	113.42	155.652	.509	.862
s_21	113.22	151.278	.652	.857

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
119.34	172.205	13.123	21

8.3.4 Scale: Relibility_DA

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	200	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.850	7

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
s_22	34.54	23.144	.334	.869
s_23	33.51	20.151	.697	.817

s_24	34.15	21.093	.592	.832
s_25	33.93	21.095	.520	.844
s_26	33.41	19.840	.737	.811
s_27	33.56	19.766	.743	.810
s_28	33.56	20.258	.685	.819

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
39.44	27.574	5.251	7

8.3.5 Scale: Relibility_RI

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	200	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.938	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted

s_38	16.33	19.256	.802	.935
s_39	16.60	17.990	.864	.916
s_40	16.55	18.018	.882	.910
s_41	16.48	18.321	.866	.915

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
21.99	32.045	5.661	4

8.3.6 Scale: Relibility_WOM

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	200	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.942	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
s_42	17.37	12.536	.872	.922
s_43	17.05	13.410	.904	.912
s_44	17.21	13.591	.821	.936

s_45	16.93	13.543	.855	.926

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
22.85	23.143	4.811	4