universität wien

MASTERARBEIT /MASTER'S THESIS

Titel der Masterarbeit / Title of the Master's Thesis

Stereotype Content Model: Tourism destination image from a marketing perspective

verfasst von / submitted by

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angestrebter akademischer Grad /in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science (MSc)

Wien, 2018 / Vienna, 2018

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt / degree programme code as it appears on the student record sheet:	A 066 915
Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt / degree programme as it appears on the student record sheet:	Masterstudium Betriebswirtschaft / Master Business Administration
Betreut von /Supervisor:	Univ.-Prof. DDr. Adamantios Diamantopoulos
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Acknowledgement

I owe enormous thanks to my supervisor, Professor Adamantios Diamantopoulos, who was supporting the topic of my thesis and accompanied me with his motivation and great recommendations throughout the course of my work. It was my honor to be supervised and educated by him and his Chair of International Marketing.

I would like to take this opportunity to express my greatest gratitude to my co-supervisor Dr. Milena Micevski for her never-ending support and patience throughout the months I was working on my master thesis. I am thankful for her constructive comments, for all the personal consultations and email discussions.

I am likewise grateful for the support of each and every respondent of mine, who devoted their precious time to contribute to the success of this dissertation.

Additionally, I would express all my loving thanks to my family, who never stopped supporting me during my university studies.

Thank you very much!

Abstract

The purpose of the present master thesis is to apply the Stereotype Content Model – frequently used in social psychology and international marketing research – to investigate tourism destination images from the perspective of country stereotypes.

Thereby it is assumed that the warmth and competence stereotype dimensions have a significant influence on the emotional responses of admiration, contempt, pity and envy; conjointly with their significant effect on the behavioral outcomes of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM toward European tourism destinations. Further, the proposed research model explores the emotional dimension's impact on the behavioral intentions and additionally presumes extraversion's moderating role between tourists emotional and behavioral responses.

By undertaking several types of multiple regression analyses, the two fundamental dimensions of perceived warmth and competence stereotypes were found to be significant predictors of the arousal of univalent emotions and the behavioral tendency to visit a tourism destination as well as to talk positively or negatively about it to family, friends and others. The study further confirms that univalent emotions – represented by the feeling of admiration and contempt – are significant indicators of touristic behavior. The ambivalent emotions of pity and envy were not proved to be substantial predictors of the behavioral intentions; nor were they shown to be significantly influenced by the perceived warmth and competence stereotype dimensions. Ultimately, the personality trait extraversion significantly moderated the effect of admiration on visit and positive WOM.

The acquired findings contribute to the international marketing and tourism management literature by expanding the knowledge about how warmth and competence stereotypes, emotions together with extraversion play a role in tourists' decision-making processes and how powerful their influence is on travellers' behavioral intentions. From a managerial perspective, the study underlines destination marketers' opportunity to apply country-specific warmth and competence stereotypes and unique emotions as competitive advantages in their marketing and promotion activities in interest of successfully differentiating the destination from objectively similar others.

Keywords: *tourism destination, destination image, warmth and competence stereotypes, Stereotype Content Model, destination visit, positive WOM, negative WOM, extraversion*

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Abbreviations

APA – American Psychological Association

CI – Country Image

COI – Country of Origin Image

COO – Country of Origin

DI – Destination Image

DMO – Destination Management Organization

e.g. – for example

et al. – and others

EU – European Union

HC – high competence

HHC – highest on competence

HW – high warmth

LC – low competence

LLW – lowest on warmth

LW – low warmth

NATO – North Atlantic Treaty Organization

non-sign. – non-significant

OECD – Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

PCI – Product Country Image

sign. – significant

SCM – Stereotype Content Model

TDI – Tourism Destination Image

UNWTO – United Nations World Tourism Organization

vs – versus

WOM – Word of Mouth

WTTC – World Travel & Tourism Council

1 Introduction

1.1 Foreword of the topic

"Experience, travel – these are an education in themselves" (Euripides). This meaningful thought originating from the ancient Greek times is more relevant in today's world than ever. Annually, millions of people travel all around the globe to the most extraordinary destinations, with the most diverse motivations and for so many different purposes. Simultaneously, travelling is considered to be easier than ever before, due to the unstoppable development in technology, providing infinite opportunities tourists are able to enjoy nowadays, leading to more affordable and time efficient ways of travelling (Faustino, 2017).

Therefore, it is not surprising, that the travel and tourism industry became one of the fastest-growing economic sectors in the world with 1.322 million international tourist arrivals in 2017 (UNWTO, 2018). As being a top global export category, modern tourism can be considered as one of the real players of international business and at the same time one of the major income sources of developing countries (UNWTO, 2017).

Nonetheless, this highly significant growth results in increasing competition among destinations (Pike, 2012). Hand in hand with the modern tourists' high level of expectations, it leads to the recognition of worldwide necessity for destination marketing and management. The establishment of destination management organizations (DMOs) is considered to be one of the first steps in interest of effectively plan, develop, promote and market a tourism destination (Morrison, 2013).

Destination marketers' superior objective is to successfully differentiate the destination in a highly competitive marketplace, with a great variety of destination choices available for travellers (Wang & Pizam, 2011). They are responsible for developing long-term marketing strategies and short-term action plans guiding their activities; gathering information through marketing research in interest of making efficient decisions and to segment the market into tourist groups sharing similar characteristics. They reach their selected target audiences by using online and offline communication and they continuously control and evaluate the effectiveness of their marketing and promotion activities. All these steps serve the purpose of creating a strong brand essential for competitive advantage (Morrison, 2013). A powerful destination brand reduces travellers' costs; minimizes their perceived risk; satisfies their functional and emotional

needs and is an identifier of high quality (Hosany et al., 2007). Such a strong brand supports tourists to distinguish the destination and create a special destination personality and identity promising a memorable experience to travellers (Wang & Pizam, 2011).

Researchers emphasize, that destination identity and image – very often used as synonyms in the literature – are the major critical success factors of destination marketing, since they play a significant role in tourists' decision-making processes when choosing from objectively similar alternatives (Baker & Cameron, 2008).

However, creating a preferable destination image is more challenging than one might suppose, since the information building up this image in travellers' minds originate from a variety of sources and only a few of them are controlled by the DMOs. With the emergence of new media – online communities and social media sites – became an even more reliable source of information to many travellers, than the official website of the destination (Wang & Pizam, 2011). A well-established destination image results in strong emotional bonds between the tourists and the destination, creating trust and loyalty (Hosany et al., 2007). For this reason, destination marketers need to ask themselves the decisive question, whether the destination they would like to communicate is identical to the one existing in travellers' minds.

1.2 Purpose and relevance of the research

Even though, many authors made considerable efforts to clarify the definition of a tourism destination and its image, as a result of high complexity and multidimensionality (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999), despite heated discussions, no consensus was reached over standard definitions (Pike, 2005). In addition, a significant number of different approaches of tourism destinations (e.g. geographic; marketing management – Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011) and images (e.g. cognitive; cognitive-affective – Elliot et al., 2011) are considered by researchers, making it challenging for theory to draw meaningful conclusions. For practice, it is essential to get a deeper understanding on travellers' image formation and decision-making processes, resulting in certain behavioral responses toward tourism destinations. Thereby, DMOs are able to bring tourists' perceived destination images closer to the one they would like to express through their marketing strategies.

The purpose of the present empirical dissertation is to apply the concept of the Stereotype Content Model – frequently used in social psychology and international marketing research – to investigate the multi-dimensional nature of a destination's image. The

Stereotype Content Model is building on the idea that the combination of warmth and competence stereotype dimensions elicit different emotional responses in individuals, influencing their behavioral intensions (Cuddy et al., 2007). The concept's applicability to the present context is manifested in several viewpoints. Recent destination image studies underscore the phenomenon's multidimensionality and its cognitive-affective nature. The cognitive component refers to tourists' beliefs and associations about a particular tourism destination (San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008; Chen & Phou, 2013). In consideration of the foregoing, authors like Bennett (1998); Kotler and Gertner (2004) or Lehtonen (2005) emphasize, that images embody similar concepts than stereotypes, which are known as the oversimplified and generalized set of beliefs about the characteristics of a social group (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). Moreover, empirical evidence was found, that the former cognition significantly influences the affective component, which is considered as the destination's emotional value to tourists. Cognition and affect are further assumed to persuade tourists' decision-making and drive their behavior (San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008; Chen & Phou, 2013). In harmony with the prior idea, Bagozzi et al. (1999) explains, that under the umbrella concept of affect, emotions elicited by cognitions are oftentimes leading to specific actions of consumers.

Building on all the previous, the current research model measures cognitive images by the socially shared characteristics about a country as a tourism destination; whereas the affective component is evaluated by the emotions evoked by the stereotype dimensions.

The research objective is relevant from a marketing and tourism management point of view, since the Stereotype Content Model is in the focus of recent international marketing studies; whereas destination image is a widely researched area in tourism management. In relation to the above notion, the primary research questions of the thesis are formulated as follows:

I. *How do country stereotypes influence the emotional and behavioral responses of tourists toward a tourism destination?*

II. *How do univalent and ambivalent emotions influence tourists' behavioral intentions with regard to a tourism destination?*

Despite the fact, that a fairly large number of studies have already been done on destination image, San Martín & Del Bosque (2008) highlight that more effort is required to explore its multi-dimensional nature as well as how personal factors as psychological

variables affect tourists' decision-making processes. Therefore, the current research model is supplemented by one of the "Big Five" personality traits – extraversion – assuming the importance of individual psychological factors influencing tourists' emotions and behavioral intentions. By adding extraversion as a moderating factor closely related to positive emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1980) and leisure activities like travelling (Barnett, 2006), the study slightly draws from social psychology as well, leading to the third research question:

III. *To what extent does the personality trait extraversion influence tourists when they turn their emotions into actions toward a tourism destination?*

The overall concept is applied to analyze six European countries – Spain; Italy; Austria; Finland; Germany and the United Kingdom. The selection of these countries is based on an empirical research analyzing the warmth and competence stereotype dimensions of European countries done by Cuddy and her colleagues. What is common in these countries is that they are all popular tourism destinations, however they significantly differ in terms of their perceived stereotypes. The data was collected through an online survey among Hungarian respondents.

1.3 Scientific and practical significance of the dissertation

The theoretical significance of this master thesis lies primary in the application of the Stereotype Content Model from a tourism management point of view and in expanding the knowledge about how stereotypes and emotions play a role in tourists' decision-making processes and how powerful their influence is on behavioral responses. As claimed by Chen et al. (2016), investigating the image of a tourism destination from the viewpoint of country stereotypes represents a shortage both in theory and practice. Thus, approaching the research field of tourism destination image from the country stereotype perspective distinguishes the current study from other scientific standpoints analyzing destination image and its linkages to country image (e.g. Nadeau et al., 2008; Elliot & Papadopoulos, 2016). Further, the present research aims to show the moderating role of tourists' personality traits between their emotions and behavioral intentions, by analyzing the "Big Five" personality trait extraversion. This complementary aspect is highly relevant, since as stated by San Martín and Del Bosque (2008), additional research is recommended on how personal psychological factors like personality impact touristic behavior. As individuals in a role of travellers are considered to have a different mindset,

then in everyday situations (Weiermair & Fuchs, 2000), the present study points out, how for example sociable, active or adventurous tourists behave and on which emotions they rely on when choosing or expressing opinion about a tourism destination.

Besides its scientific importance, the practical significance of this study should not be ignored either. The thesis emphasizes the importance of three major concepts – country stereotypes; emotions and the personality trait extraversion when investigating touristic behavior. Considering images' constantly changing nature – in order to represent a competitive advantage in the global marketplace – DMOs need to be aware and regularly monitor its most significant influencing factors (Wang & Pizam, 2011). Nonetheless – as opposed to images – stereotypes change rather slowly and incrementally. As determined by Hilton and von Hippel (1996), maintaining stereotypes might be a smoother process, than changing them. Change is most likely to occur in case of dramatic inconsistency (Rothbart, 1981). Therefore, due to their stability and naturally country-specific nature, well-maintained stereotypes about a country as a tourism destination might be suitable to represent a long-term distinguishing factor in destination marketing. By analyzing travellers' emotions affecting their behavioral responses toward a tourism destination, one superior objective of this thesis is to highlight the importance of promotion campaigns, that address tourists emotionally. Finally, acquiring a deeper understanding how travellers' personality influence their destination choice, makes destination marketers able to use personality traits as an aspect of market segmentation, when specifying the ways of communication toward certain target groups.

1.4 Structure of the dissertation

This preface presenting the background; objective and significance of the research is followed by a literature review in Chapter 2. This section offers a comprehensive and critical overview on the theoretical and empirical studies introducing a tourism destination as a product and the complex nature of its image. Hereafter, a detailed review is provided about the major components of the Stereotype Content Model. The examination of the literature ends with the presentation of the "Big Five" personality traits with focus on the characteristic of extraversion.

Chapter 3 introduces the research objective of the current master thesis by presenting the conceptual research model along with the formulated research questions and hypotheses.

Thereafter, in Chapter 4 readers are provided with information about the research design and method of the empirical study. Additionally, this section also offers a review on the selected measurement instrument, the data collection process in the chosen research country, the key characteristics of the final sample drawn as well as first outcomes resulting from preliminary analyses.

The suitable testing and the detailed analysis of the data collected build up Chapter 5, over and above comprehensively evaluating the results of the empirical research.

The contribution of the research findings to the existing marketing and tourism literature is executed in the Discussion, in Chapter 6, drawing together the first five sections of this study.

The master thesis in concluded in Chapter 7, by discussing its overall significance and formulating theoretical and managerial implications for international marketing and tourism management. It likewise reviews the limitations of the thesis and provides ideas for future research.

Besides, all the sources used and mentioned – including scholarly literature, theoretical and empirical articles as well as internet resources – are listed in alphabetical order under References.

Additional figures and statistical tables, along with the English version of the online questionnaire and the German abstract are placed in the Appendix.

2 Literature review

2.1 Tourism destination

2.1.1 Definition

According to Kotler's definition, *"a product is anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use or consumption that might satisfy a want or need"* (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008, p. 218). It is more than a tangible good. It includes physical objects, services, persons, places, organizations, ideas or the mix of them (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008). This interpretation is highly relevant from a touristic point of view, emphasizing, that not only physical objects, but various services and places are also allowed to be considered as products (Smith, 1994).

In addition to the above thought, it is essential to underline, that due to its high complexity, defining and understanding the nature of a tourism destination product is much more challenging, than that of other consumer products and services (Pike, 2005). In the past, several researchers took the courage to clarify the definition of a tourism destination (Presenza et al., 2005), giving rise to various discussions and debates in literature. Nonetheless, until now, no consensus was reached over a standard definition (Wang & Pizam, 2011).

By analyzing previous conceptual studies more closely, one might identify, that different approaches to tourism destinations are considered by researchers. Some theorists are typically following a geographic orientation, who strive to define the phenomenon from a geographical point of view as countries, regions, locations and places (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011) – such as Leiper, according to whom *"destinations are places toward which people travel and where they choose to stay for a while to experience certain perceived attractions"* (Leiper, 1995, p. 87). A similar explanation was formulated by Pike a few years later, emphasizing that *"destinations are places that attracts visitors for a temporary stay, and range from continents to countries to states and provinces to cities to villages to purpose built resort areas"* (Pike, 2007, p. 11). A recent definition by Morrison follows a rather economic geography approach by explaining that *"a tourism destination is a geographic area that attracts visitors"* (Morrison, 2013, p. 4). Such a geographic area with administrative boundaries ranges from the largest country in the world to the smallest city. At the same time, it is a place where travellers are able to find numerous facilities for overnight accommodation, transportation, hospitality resources,

as well as attractions and events drawing their attentions. Thus, a destination is also a place, where marketing efforts exist, in interest of promoting all these facilities and the overall place to potential and existing tourists (Morrison, 2013).

Besides the geographic orientation, it is crucial to introduce definitions of a tourism destination following a marketing management approach, treating them as a bunch of multifaceted products and services (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011).
One of the most frequently used explanation in this category was formulated by Buhalis as follows: *"Destinations are amalgams of tourism products, offering an integrated experience to consumers"* (Buhalis, 2000, p. 97). A similar definition *"as the amalgam of products and services available in one location, that can draw visitors from beyond its spatial confines"* was developed earlier by Pearce in 1989 (as cited in Murphy et al., 2000, p. 43). It is significant to emphasize, that the former one already implies, that the actual tourism product offered to visitors is the destination experience itself (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011). Other authors, like Hu and Ritchie conceptualized a destination as *"a package of tourism facilities and services, which like any other consumer product or service, is composed of a number of multi-dimensional attributes that together determine its attractiveness to a particular individual in a given choice situation"* (1993, p. 26).

As Saraniemi and Kylänen stress out – in addition to the geographic and marketing management approach – other alternative views on destinations likewise exist. The customer oriented view defines a destination as a combination of services providing rather intangible and psychological benefits to tourists, than tangible ones; whereas a sociocultural approach identifies travellers as not just consumers but at the same time producers of their own tourism experience, highlighting that the tourist is marketed together with the destination (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011).

For the purpose of the present master thesis, a definition following a joint geographical and marketing management approach is used, formulated by the World Tourism Organization describing a destination as *"a physical space with or without administrative and/or analytical boundaries in which a visitor can spend an overnight. It is the cluster (co-location) of products and services, and of activities and experiences along the tourism value chain and a basic unit of analysis of tourism. A destination incorporates various stakeholders and can network to form larger destinations. It is also intangible with its image and identity which may influence its market competitiveness."* (UNWTO, 2016, p. 13). This definition was chosen for diverse reasons. It is a recently updated explanation,

considering on the one hand the geographic nature of a destination, which is important, since the thesis is analyzing European countries as tourism destinations. On the other hand, it is highlighting the significant role of destination image and identity in marketing activities.

2.1.2 The nature of tourism destination product

Apart from providing a comprehensive definition, due to destinations' multi-dimensional nature, some researchers also faced the challenge to identify what basic components build up a tourism destination product. One of the first concepts was formulated by Medlik and Middleton, differentiating between five elements of a tourism product, namely destination attractions, destination facilities, accessibility, images and price (Medlik & Middleton, 1973). In addition, Middleton underlines, that a tourism product can be identified at two different levels – at a specific and a total one. The former is related to a single product offered by one business at the destination; whereas the latter to the overall destination experience considered as a product (Middleton, 1989; as cited in Smith, 1994, p. 584).

Middleton's closing idea – the notion of experience – and the leading question what makes a memorable experience for tourists, inspired Smith in 1994 to compose his own concept of a tourism product (Smith, 1994; Xu, 2010; Benur & Bramwell, 2015). He argues, that regular product development is of great significance and is a major prerequisite in interest of satisfying the ever-changing demand of travellers. The function of a generic tourism product is to facilitate the travel and activity of individuals being away from home (Smith, 1994). The tourism product conceptualized by him was broken down into five elements. The physical plant – including natural resources as well as the condition of the physical environment and tourism infrastructure – is considered as the core of the product; while the other four components – service, hospitality, freedom of choice and involvement – are seen as encapsulating shells around the core (Smith, 1994; Xu, 2010). Services are required to make the physical plant useful for travellers; while hospitality gives the extra hint of attitude and style to services, showing the local communities welcoming spirit toward tourists. The further component of freedom of choice is characterized by the variation of the product; whereas involvement underlines that within tourism, this phenomenon should not be seen as simply a physical participation, but rather a sense of engagement. A final thought that Smith's concept

emphasizes is, that not the combination, but the interaction among these five components results in a tourism product appealing to travellers (Smith, 1994).

A subsequent research done by Xu in 2010 is significantly building on the concept of Smith, nevertheless with one small difference. Xu's study likewise revealed that the physical plant having a tangible nature is located at the center of the tourism product, however the four intangible components are seen as competing elements of the periphery around the core. His findings show that the physical plant fulfills tourists' minimal tangible needs, while the other components are playing a supporting role in producing experiences (Xu, 2010).

Ultimately, in the following, a rather recent concept of a tourism product is introduced, formulated by Murphy et al. (2000). Their interpretation considers, that the destinations' environment together with the service infrastructure are leading to the experience of travellers. Within this study, the destination's macro-environment is roughly equivalent in nature with Smith's and Xu's physical plant, built up by six components: natural environment (e.g. landscapes; flora & fauna; weather), social factors (e.g. friendliness of the local community), technological factors (e.g. communication, infrastructure), economic factors (e.g. currency, pricing), cultural factors (e.g. authenticity, history and customs) and political/legal factors (e.g. political stability, governmental restrictions). In addition to the environmental factors, a service infrastructure (e.g. travel, transportation, accommodation) likewise need to be developed in order to create unique tourism experiences (Murphy et al., 2000). Nonetheless, due to some typical characteristics, the nature of services might represent a challenge in product development and destination management. Primary, its intangibility need to be considered, which might increase first-time travellers' uncertainty and perceived risk, firstly since they have no past experience at the destination and secondly because they are actually not able to see the product prior the purchase. A further challenging characteristic is related to its inseparability, since the production and the consumption of the destination product take place simultaneously (Alford, 1998). Naturally, a tourist, who would like to experience a destination, needs to travel to the place of production in order to consume it.

Despite some challenges and unique characteristics, which distinguish a tourism destination product from other consumer products, a destination is still highly marketable; can be regularly developed; diversified and differentiated in interest of catching the attention and satisfy the needs of travellers (Xu, 2010; Benur & Bramwell, 2015).

According to Pike, destinations are the biggest brands in the travel and tourism industry (Pike, 2005). They are the major tools of differentiating a destination from others and at the same time, they represent a promise of value to travellers. They give rise to beliefs and impressions about a particular destination, induce emotions and encourage individual behavior (Kotler & Gertner, 2004).

2.1.3 Tourism destination image in a country image context

2.1.3.1 Definition

As formulated by Barich and Kotler (1991, p. 95) an image is considered as *"the sum of beliefs, attitudes and impressions that a person or a group has of an object. The object may be a company, product, brand, place or person. The impressions may be true or false, real or imagined. Right or wrong, images guide and shape behavior"*. Building on this explanation, in the following, the image of a place, namely a tourism destination is examined in more depth.

Place image is regularly brought together with country image or destination image as related concepts in literature; while the latter two are rarely considered as overlapping areas. Country image and the country of origin are among the most frequently studied fields in international marketing; whereas in recent years tourism scholars and practitioners put the greatest emphasis on research related to the image of a destination (Nadeau et al., 2008). Nevertheless, only a few publications address how these two phenomena could be connected to one another. The simple fact, that both the country of origin (COO) or country of origin image (COI) and the tourism destination image (TDI) focus on the influencing role of place image on consumer behavior assumes a link between them. Empirical research also found, that the image of a particular place significantly affects tourists' destination choice as well as consumers' product choice (Elliot et al., 2011).

Hence, how consumers evaluate and decide over a product is greatly influenced by its country of origin image. As explained by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) in their comprehensive study about the country image construct, one is able to distinguish between three types of definitions related to the COI: two explanations depend on whether, the product (product image – PI) or the country (product country image – PCI) is in the center of attention, while the third category is about the overall image of a country.

Country image is formulated by Kotler et al. (1993, p. 141) as *"the sum of beliefs and impressions people hold about places"*; whereas others, like Verlegh (2001, p. 25) define it as *"a mental network of affective and cognitive associations connected to the country"*. At the same time, PCI is conceptualized as *"consumers' perceptions about the attributes of products made in a certain country; emotions toward the country and resulted perceptions about the social desirability of owning products made in the country"* (Nebenzahl et al., 2003, p. 388). Yet, not only the evaluation of products; also, tourist visits might be affected by the image of a country (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Thus, this statement stresses out, that country image might influence, whether travellers decide for or against visiting a particular country for the purpose of tourism.

Considering – that within the framework of this dissertation – the term destination describes a place visited by tourists and is interpreted as a country (Nadeau et al., 2008; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991); the concepts of country and destination image can be seen as highly interrelated. Destination image research dates back to the 1970s, however, as a result of its subjective and complex nature, yet no consensus was reached over a standard definition (Lopes, 2011). One of the most frequently cited explanations of destination image originates from Crompton (1979, p. 18) and specifies the term as *"the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination"*. Further, Baloglu and McCleary (1990, p. 870) formulate the image of a destination as *"an attitudinal construct consisting of an individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings and global impressions about an object or a destination"*. Similar to the prior description is the one explained by Kim and Richardson (2003, p. 218) considering destination image as the *"totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time"*.

The overview of the oftentimes used definitions of COI, PCI and DI or TDI; makes it possible to identify various contextual relationships between the explanations. Kotler's and his colleagues' description of COI show significant similarity to Crompton's definition of a destination stated above – naturally, since both definitions are based on the overall explanation of an image. Accordingly, the other DI descriptions from Baloglu & McCleary and Kim & Richardson are contextually connected to Nebenzahl's interpretation of PCI, emphasizing the emotional nature of both terms.

2.1.3.2 Destination image components

The country of origin image, as well as the image of a destination are multifaceted concepts (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Lee, 2009), which is shown by the complexity of the foregoing definitions.

By the thorough review of the international marketing literature, one is able to determine, that many studies on the country of origin image construct follow an attitude-based approach. As stated by the American Psychological Association (2018), attitude is *"the learned, relatively stable tendency to respond to people, concepts, and events in an evaluative way."* This explanation is in line with the one formulated by Ajzen and Fishbein (1977, p. 889) considering that *"a person's attitude represents his evaluation of the entity in question"*. The authors further point out, that such attitude is a composition of three elements: cognitive, affective and conative (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

From this point of view, it is essential to mention, that the country of origin image is very often seen as a cognitive cue, which serves as a signal of product quality for the consumer (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). Nevertheless – as a couple of researchers already stress out – COI cannot be considered as a simple cognitive phenomenon, since it has a strong emotional and symbolic meaning to consumers as well, emphasizing COI's affective nature and its influencing role on consumers' product evaluations and brand attitudes (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). The concept predicting that the cognitive and affective images of a country have a significant effect on consumer behavior became known as the attitude theory (Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999). The cognitive aspect includes the beliefs and knowledge; the affective the feelings; whereas the conative the behavioral intention toward a given country and its products (Nadeau et al., 2008). As explained by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009), the attitude theory is suitable to measure country image by understanding what beliefs and emotions consumers have toward a particular country and how these jointly affect their country conations, reflected in their behavioral responses.

After many years of tourism research emphasizing the cognitive structure of destination image – several studies found similarities between the components of country and destination image, which underline that the meaning of a destination cannot be solely related to physical properties (Hosany et al., 2007) – leading to the realization of the cognitive-affective nature of a destination (Chon, 1990; Cai, 2002; Kim & Yoon, 2003; Nadeau et al., 2008; Elliot et al., 2011). As specified by Baloglu and McCleary (1999),

the two primary dimensions, the cognitive and affective components of destination image can be considered as distinct and at the same time as interrelated to each other; while the affective image is highly dependent on the cognitive one.

Cognitive image refers to the beliefs and knowledge a tourist has of the attributes and characteristics of a particular tourism destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008; Ayyildiz & Turna, 2013). According to Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar (2015), the cognitive image of a destination acts as a qualifier. It embodies travellers' opinion about functional and tangible elements, such as natural and man-made attractions (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991); along with psychological and abstract ones, like hospitality and atmosphere (San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008).

The affective component of destination image describes tourists' feelings and emotions raised by a tourism destination (Kim & Richardson, 2003; San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008; Lopes, 2011; Ayyildiz & Turna, 2013). Despites cognitions' role of signaling quality, affects rather act like satisfiers (Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015). This component shows, whether the destination is perceived as interesting or exiting (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008) or satisfying (Chon, 1990) by the travellers.

Ultimately, the third, conative component of a destination – resulting from the interplay of the two primary components of cognition and affect – presents the behavioral element of the theory; including the decision to visit (Chon, 1990) or recommend the destination to others (Nadeau et al., 2008).

2.1.3.3 Destination image formation & measurement

Image formation is understood as the mental construct of chosen impressions from a flood of information. In case of tourism destinations, such information might originate from various sources, containing the general media; the viewpoint of family and friends and the promotional material of DMOs (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Govers et al., 2007). As specified by Gunn (1988), at an early stage, image is predominantly based on rather non-touristic sources, such as the general media and friends' opinion. This, so-called organic image changes due to more touristic information from travel guidebooks or agents, resulting in an induced destination image. Hence, everyone is able to build up an image about a particular destination even if (s)he has never been there (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Lopes, 2011). Certainly, by actually visiting the tourism destination, the secondary source

based image is modified by first-hand information and experiences (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991).

The study done by Andreu et al. (2000) follows a similar approach, stating that the image is formed by the information travellers hold about a tourism destination. The researchers distinguish between a projected image gained through the DMOs' promotion activities; and a perceived image created by WOM information and experiences at the destination through visiting.

Nevertheless, as explained by many authors, not only the diverse information sources as stimulus factors, but also personal ones, represented by sociodemographic and psychological characteristics influence individuals' image formation processes (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008). The former sociodemographic one includes factors such as gender, age, education, place of residence; whereas the latter psychological affects one's motivation, lifestyle, personality and values (Beerli & Martin, 2004).

As mentioned previously, the information and images one holds about a specific country might have a considerable effect on one's decisions as a consumer (Nadeau et al., 2008). This is in line with the idea, that consumers' general perceptions of a place influence their product as well as their destination beliefs and behavior (Elliot et al., 2011). For this reason, the general image of a country can be considered as a broader umbrella concept under which PCI and TDI might interact with one another (Elliot & Papadopoulos, 2016). In interest of analyzing both the product and destination sides of a country image, Elliot et al. (2011) developed a model, measuring the general CI; PCI and TDI concepts simultaneously. Findings show, that cognitive CI has a greater impact on product, than on destination evaluation. Furthermore, results reveal, that individuals' view of a particular country as a producer significantly influence their perceptions of that country as a tourism destination, however conversely, this effect cannot be demonstrated (Elliot et al., 2011).

Similar to the former approach, Nadeau et al. (2008) also created a model – building on the attitude theory – where the cognitive component was represented by the character and competence of the people and the country overall, in addition to the beliefs about the natural and built environment. Besides, the affective element was considered as the overall evaluation of the country as a tourism destination, influencing travellers intentions to visit or to recommend the specific country. The most noteworthy outcome of the study

considers, that the way how countries and their people are perceived by individuals highly impact their evaluations about it as a tourism destination, hence notably affecting the country's tourism industry (Nadeau et al., 2008).

Despite the fact, that a couple of authors made significant efforts in order to link to COI concept known from the international marketing literature with tourism scholars' DI theory, according to Chen et al. (2006), analyzing the image of a tourism destination from the perspective of country stereotypes represents a shortage both in theory and practice. By applying the Stereotype Content Model – extensively presented in the upcoming chapter – the thesis strives to shed light on the cognitive stereotypes, affective emotions and behavioral responses of travellers toward European countries as tourism destination.

2.2 The SCM concept

In harmony with the attitude theory of images, the SCM concept is likewise composed of three determinative components: cognitive stereotypes; affective emotional responses leading to conative behavioral intentions (Cuddy et al., 2007). Moreover, a couple of theorists emphasize, that images and stereotypes embody similar concepts under different names – such as Kotler and Gertner (2004, p. 42) explaining, that *"most country images are stereotypes, extreme simplifications of the reality that are not necessarily accurate. The might be dated, based on exceptions rather than on patterns, on impressions rather than on facts, but nonetheless pervasive."* Correspondingly, Lehtonen (2005) claims, that several studies on CI simply examine countries' auto and hetero stereotypes, which is in line with Alexander and colleagues' assumption, that images are stereotypes in an organized way (Alexander et al., 1999), as well as with Bennett's (1998) idea, that at the time of generalizing images, individuals are creating stereotypes. Further, while CI and PCI are the mental representations of countries and of products; stereotypes are the mental representations of groups of people. Accordingly, research on CI and COI identified the use of COO as a stereotypical information (Askegaard & Ger, 1998). In line with the analysis of Liu and Johnson & Johnson (2005), the presence of COO cues automatically activates country stereotypes, influencing consumer' evaluations subconsciously or consciously even if they do not admit to judge upon COO information (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993). Hence, country stereotyping comprises consumers' perceptions, feelings toward the particular country and the way how consumers prefer to interact with it (Askegaard & Ger, 1998). Perceptions of COO categorize objects – in this context

countries – belonging to a cluster of nations driven by perceptions of warmth and competence, similar to personal and intergroup stereotypes (Chattalas & Takada, 2013).

The concept of the Stereotype Content Model (SCM) formulated by Fiske and her colleagues (2002) incorporates principles of such intergroup bias. The subchapters of the present section are dedicated to comprehensively introduce the major components of the above-mentioned Stereotype Content Model: the cognitive stereotypes along the fundamental dimensions of warmth and competence and the affective emotional responses of admiration, contempt, pity and envy elicited by the combination of warm and competent perceptions. Ultimately, the chapter closes with the presentation of behavioral outcomes induced by the SCM elements.

2.2.1 Stereotypes

Stereotypes – as a significant social phenomenon – are among the most frequently studied topics in social psychology (Bar-Tal, 1997) as well as in international marketing research. The definition generally used in the field of marketing defines a stereotype as an oversimplified and generalized set of beliefs about the characteristics of a social group (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995), that is shared among the population; may or may not accurately represent reality and may be both positive and negative. The latter is in agreement with the idea noted in the study of Cuddy et al. (2009), that some researchers consider stereotypes rather as antipathy toward social groups. Both in connection with the image concept and its negativity, Lehtonen (2005) describes stereotypes as images of a particular social group, which are predominantly negative and oversimplified. He likewise points out that *"stereotypes are part of a person's world view, values and knowledge structure"* (Lehtonen, 2005, p. 76). Further, *"stereotypes are representations of groups, often used to describe, interpret, evaluate, and predict actions of individuals"* (Askegaard & Ger, 1997, p. 1). A more general explanation was formulated by Hilton and von Hippel (1996, p. 240), who state that *"stereotypes are beliefs about the characteristics, attributes, and behaviors of members of certain groups"*. In addition, the authors stress out, that despite the fact, that stereotypes do not always have a negative nature, when focusing on individuals from the outgroup, stereotypes oftentimes have a negative character (Hilton & von Hippel, 1996). Correspondingly, Bar-Tal (1997) understands stereotypes as *"stored beliefs about characteristics of a group of people, stereotypes shed light on intergroup processes. They serve at the same time as an*

antecedent and an outcome for analyzing the nature of intergroup relations" (p. 491), and highlights that individuals' aggregation into various groups might be considered as the basis for stereotyping, since people are dominantly evaluated depending on their classification into social groups. Such groups hold diverse stereotypes about particular outgroups, aside from different perceptions about their ingroup (Bar-Tal, 1997).

As specified by Cuddy and her colleagues (2011), these stereotypes connect in two fundamental dimensions of warmth and competence leading to unique patterns of emotional and behavioral responses toward social groups. Numerous studies done in personality and social psychology found evidence, that the warmth and competence dimensions account for the majority of variance in the judgment of others – 82% according to Wojciszke et al. (1998) – nevertheless over the decades various labels were introduced in interest of describing these two dimensions (Cuddy et al., 2011).

According to Peeters (2002), one is able to distinguish between self - and other-profitable traits to explain perceptional dimensions. The former benefit or harm the individual or ingroup, which is considered as – e.g. being intelligent on the positive and inefficient on the negative side – similar to perceived competence; whilst the latter benefit or harm the outgroup, that might be trustworthy or hostile – in line with the perceived warmth dimension. Thus, generally, both positive and negative perceptions and behavior are considered to be more intense toward others than for the self (Cuddy et al., 2008).

Another distinction, formulated by Wojciszke et al. (1998), used the labels "morality" and "competence" to represent social groups. Considering, that they were measuring the morality scale by characteristics such as helpful, sincere, tolerant and understanding; one is able to identify that morality is perfectly compatible with the more frequently used warmth dimension (Cuddy et al., 2008).

Additional terms were further applied by Rosenberg et al. (1968) perceiving individuals along an intellectual good-bad, corresponding to competence versus incompetence; and a social good-bad dimension, matching with warm versus cold judgements.

Nonetheless – despite the existence of several labels and concepts – numerous in-depth analyses and studies revealed the massive suitability of warmth and competence being the central dimensions of person and intergroup perceptions (Cuddy et al., 2011). These two are evident among others in stereotypes of older people; European nationalities and many subgroups; like women, gay men or Black Americans (Cuddy et al., 2008). More

importantly, due to their evolutionary adaptation, their relevance across cultures is proven as well, by answering two socio-functional questions about other people and groups. The warmth dimension explains how others intend to act toward the perceiver; while the competence one shows whether they are able to carry out their intentions (Cuddy et al., 2011). Hence, the dimension of warmth refers to individuals' and groups' intent as being warm, friendly, good-natured and sincere; whereas perceived competence indicates people's and groups' capability with characteristics of competent, efficient, capable and skillful (Cuddy et al., 2009; Chattalas & Takada, 2013).

Numerous studies confirmed, that the above presented two fundamental dimensions of warmth and competence are likewise entirely applicable to describe national stereotypes if the social group under consideration is a particular country and its citizens (Fiske et al., 2002; Cuddy et al., 2009; Chattalas & Takada, 2013). From a definitional point of view, *"stereotypes of nations are distinctive characteristics attributed to a country and its inhabitants by some group or groups of outsiders"* (Lehtonen, 2005, p. 62). The author further explains, that national stereotypes are shared beliefs about the characteristics of a particular group as well as social expectations, resulting in national stereotypes' descriptive and prescriptive nature (Lehtonen, 2005). Consistent with the previous notion, as mentioned by Chattalas and Takada (2013) the content of such national stereotypes – the warmth and competence perceptions toward a country and its people – significantly affect the way how consumers perceive and evaluate different products. Liu and Johnson & Johnson (2005) further complement this idea, by stating that country or national stereotypes are used to simplify consumers' product choices. In addition, the functional properties of these stereotypes are on the one hand identity construction – since self and other-related stereotypes are crucial factors of the ingroups' collective identity; and on the other hand, uncertainty reduction – as the less an individual knows about a particular country, the more (s)he relies on generalizations in form of national stereotypes (Lehtonen, 2005).

As a further step, the model explaining the two specific dimensions of national stereotypes, warmth – deriving from the country's perceived competitive threat; and competence – predicted by the nations' perceived status is introduced in the following subchapter, which was formulated by Fiske et al. and became known as the Stereotype Content Model (Chattalas et al., 2008).

2.2.2 The Stereotype Content Model

The psychological theory, most commonly associated with social perceptions is called the Stereotype Content Model (Kervyn et al., 2012; Rogers et al., 2013). The original concept was formulated and first tested by Susan Fiske and her colleagues in the United States to analyze how various social groups are perceived (Fiske et al., 2002). In addition, the model was further developed and experimented by several researchers testing group, country (Cuddy et al., 2009) and even brand (Kervyn et al., 2012) perceptions in numerous national and international samples. Thereby, it became the first theoretically grounded and cross-cultural measurement focusing on the content and process of stereotyping (Cuddy et al., 2009). The present subchapter is dedicated to introducing the major components and assumptions of the concept together with the most significant empirical studies, successfully applying the Stereotype Content Model.

The SCM is a simple framework building on the primary idea – which can be considered at the same time as a dimensional assumption (Eckes, 2002; Cuddy et al., 2009) – that the perceptions and impressions of others can be systematically described along two universal and fundamental dimensions, perceived warmth and perceived competence (Fiske et al. 2002; Rogers et al., 2013; Fiske, 2015). These dimensions result from interpersonal and intergroup interactions (Fiske et al., 2002), reflecting how people perceive the social world around themselves (Kervyn et al., 2012). By encountering other individuals, the perceivers are principally interested in two key questions: *"Do they intend to harm me?"* and *"Are they capable of harming me?"* (Cuddy et al., 2009, p. 3). In order to find the answers on others' intent and capability, individuals are able to turn to their warmth and competence perceptions (Fiske et al., 2002; Cuddy et al., 2009). Along the warmth dimension, one is able to identify others' intent to help or harm; while the competence one reflects others' capability to act on their intentions (Eckes, 2002; Fiske, 2015). Therefore, perceived warmth includes positive characteristics such as helpful, friendly, trustworthy in addition to negative ones, like hostile or cold; whereas competence might be identified by positive traits e.g. efficient, intelligent, as well as negative once just like passive or authoritarian (Kervyn et al., 2012; Fiske et al., 2015).

Taking the above-mentioned two dimensions as a basis, many authors suggested and empirically proved, that the content of stereotypes results from the combinations of high versus low warmth and competence perceptions of individuals and groups (Fiske et al., 2002; Alexander et al., 2005; Rogers et al. 2013). As revealed in the study of Fiske and

her colleagues, social groups can be categorized into four different clusters, depending whether they are rated high or low on warmth and competence (Fiske et al., 2002; Kervyn et al., 2012). Findings based on their US sample show, that some groups are seen as high in warmth (HW) and also high in competence (HC) such as Americans, Whites or the middle class, who are considered as part of a particular ingroup or reference group, receiving only positive stereotypes (Fiske et al., 2002; Cuddy et al., 2008; Kervyn et al., 2012; Rogers et al., 2013). On the other hand, there are likewise some groups, which are considered as being low on both the warmth (LW) and the competence (LC) dimensions (Rogers et al., 2013). Since, seen as cold as well as incompetent – e.g. poor and homeless people or drug addicts – they are clustered in a so-called derogated outgroup (Fiske et al., 2002; Cuddy et al., 2008; Kervyn et al., 2012; Rogers et al., 2013).

Besides, these two univalent clusters, empirical results revealed, that most of the social outgroups receive ambivalent stereotypes, which show inconsistency between the warmth and competence dimensions (Lee & Fiske, 2006), considering that these groups are evaluated as high on the one dimension, but low on the other (Cuddy et al., 2009; Rogers et al., 2013). This identification leads to another assumption of the SCM, namely the mixed-stereotypes hypothesis (Eckes, 2002; Cuddy et al., 2009). Envied groups are seen as high in competence (HC) but low in warmth (LW) such as career women, feminists, rich people, Asian American and Jews (Fiske et al., 2002; Lin et al., 2005; Cuddy et al., 2009; Kervyn et al., 2012). By contrast, paternalistic groups are consistently categorized as low in competence (LC) but high in warmth (HW) – as an illustration elderly people, housewives and traditional women along with disabled and retarded people build up this cluster (Fiske et al., 2002; Lin et al., 2005; Cuddy et al., 2009; Kervyn et al. 2012).

The frequent appearance of such ambivalent stereotypes and the categorization into envied and paternalistic groups was similarly typical for further empirical studies analyzing the applicability of the SCM concept across cultures by examining country perceptions (Cuddy et al., 2009; Kervyn et al., 2012). In a large-scale study, Cuddy and her colleagues undertook a research of 20 non-US samples including European, East Asian, Latin American and Israeli nations (Cuddy et al., 2008). In the following, the study done among the EU nations is presented in more detail, since the findings of that research provide the basis for the country selection of the present empirical study.

In interest of testing the Stereotype Content Model's cross-cultural nature, participants combined from seven European countries – Belgium; France; Germany; The

Netherlands; Portugal; Spain and the UK – were invited to express their opinions on how EU residents would rate the then-current 15 EU nations – Austria; Belgium; Denmark; Finland; France; Germany; Greece; Ireland; Italy; Luxembourg; The Netherlands; Portugal; Spain; Sweden and the UK – based on their perceived warmth and competence (Cuddy et al., 2008). The EU sample produced 3 different, but only ambivalent clusters of countries. The first cluster comprised of nations that are perceived significantly lower in competence than in warmth (LC-HW) including Greece; Ireland; Italy; Portugal and Spain. Countries, such as Austria; Belgium; Denmark; Finland; France; Luxembourg; The Netherlands and Sweden built up the second cluster including nations perceived as high in competence but low in warmth (HC-LW). Ultimately, the third, most extreme cluster represented countries which were seen as hyper-competent but significantly less warm (HHC-LLW). This category included Germany and the UK (Cuddy et al. 2008; Cuddy et al., 2009).

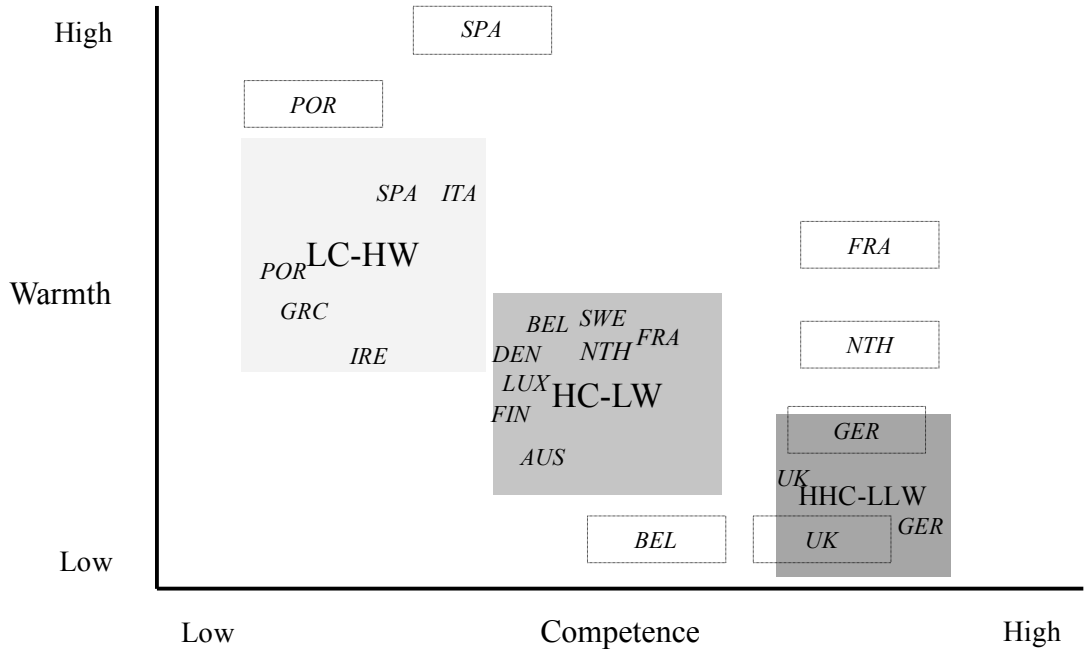

Figure 1 – Warmth and competence country perceptions (Cuddy et al., 2009)

Findings proved that 87%, correspondingly 13 out of the 15 EU countries were perceived as considerably higher on the one dimension and lower on the other. Four nations (Portugal; Greece; Spain and Italy) were considered as more competent than warm; nine countries (Germany; the UK; France; Austria; The Netherlands; Luxembourg; Sweden; Denmark and Finland) were rated as higher in warmth and lower in competence; whilst

only two countries (Belgium and Ireland) were perceived as equally warm and competent (Cuddy et al., 2009). Considering, that six outgroups and one ingroup rated the EU nations – within the framework of the same study – researchers were able to seize the opportunity to compare ingroup and outgroup ratings with each other. When distinguishing between self and other ratings only modest differences were found. Nevertheless, the majority of participants considered their own country as higher in competence, but not higher in warmth, compared to how other nations perceived them. Overall, one is able to state, that European countries are greatly dominated by ambivalent stereotypes; whereas even rating participants' own nations, univalent stereotypes are comprehensively absent (Cuddy et al., 2008). This phenomenon might be explained by the fact, that members of the European Union rated each other, thus the membership in this superordinate organization lead to the absence of complete favoritism (HC-HW) and derogation (LC-LW), (Cuddy et al., 2009).

Further, it is essential to highlight, that this cross-cultural study likewise found support to the previously introduced dimension and mixed-stereotypes assumptions of the SCM concept (Eckes, 2002), since the perceived warmth and competence dimensions differentiated the stereotypes and most of the analyzed countries were proved to be high on one dimension and at the same time low on the other (Cuddy et al., 2009).

Given that, the SCM concept additionally presumes a relationship between stereotypes and social structure (Caprariello et al., 2009), the third social-structural assumption of the Stereotype Content Model states, that the content of stereotypes along with the origins of the warmth and competence dimensions result from the social structural variables of status and competition (Eckes, 2002; Cuddy et al., 2009) – which also got supported by the previously introduced cross-cultural study of EU nations.

Individuals and groups seen as having high status – e.g. rich people – are perceived to be competent; whereas the ones with low status – such as poor people – are considered as lacking competence (Cuddy et al., 2008). In many cases, status is oftentimes linked with power and the possession of resources. Thus, powerful people and groups having the intent as well as the ability to derive resources are judged to be competent, while those being powerless and lacking this ability are seen as incompetent (Fiske et al., 2002; Caprariello et al., 2009). Such competent groups consist of individuals holding prestigious jobs and being economically successful (Lee & Fiske, 2006). In consideration of the foregoing, non-competitive people and groups are judged to be high on the warmth

dimension; while competitive ones are seen to be cold (Cuddy et al., 2008). If a group compete for resources, it is perceived to have negative intentions and is considered as cold or unfriendly; whilst a group's cooperation reflects positive intentions and suggest characteristics like warm and friendly (Caprariello et al., 2009). When the perceivers get convinced that the outgroups do not compete for resources, power or jobs; they consider them as harmless and warm (Lee & Fiske, 2006). Both the empirical study of Fiske et al. (2002) on US social groups and the one done by Cuddy et al. (2009) analyzing EU country perceptions found evidence to the social-structural assumption, since social status positively correlated with competence, whilst competition with lack of warmth.

Eventually, the Stereotype Content Model further proposes the idea, that the four clusters generated by the combination of high versus low warmth and competence perceptions elicit four unique emotional responses toward different groups (Fiske et al., 2002; Caprariello et al., 2009; Cuddy et al., 2009; Kervyn et al., 2012; Fiske, 2015). While the univalent combinations of warmth and competence perceptions result in univalent emotions; the ambivalent stereotypes evoke ambivalent emotions (Caprariello et al., 2009).

As specified by Bagozzi et al. (1999, p. 184), an emotion is *"a mental state of readiness that arises from cognitive appraisals of events or thoughts."* The author further underscores, that emotions oftentimes give rise to specific actions in order to confirm or cope with them. They fall under the umbrella concept of affect, recognized as *"a set of more specific mental processes including emotions, moods and (possibly) attitudes"* (Bagozzi et al., 1999, p. 184). In harmony with the idea of Chen and her colleagues (2014) about country-related affect, individuals' personal experiences in addition to advertising campaigns create affect toward particular countries. Hence, people exposed to certain positive affect lean their judgments upon stereotypes; whilst those facing negative affect are somewhat more cautious. If the affect attached to a country is elicited by warmth and competence associations, the results might incorporate unique affect. As the SCM concept highlights, individuals' warm and competent judgments are basis for the positive and negative affects which are induced by country stereotypes. Therefore, affect related to a particular country can originate from the social judgments of warmth and competence (Chen et al., 2014).

Groups seen as both high in warmth and competence – including societal ingroups and reference groups such as the middle class – elicit admiration and pride (Kervyn et al.,

2012; Fiske, 2015). These emotions originate from upward (high status) assimilative (non-competitive) social comparison (Fiske et al. 2002; Cuddy et al., 2008; Caprariello et al., 2009). Hence, this univalent positive emotion of admiration targets ingroups, reference groups and close allies (Cuddy et al., 2008).

On the other extreme, the low warmth and low competence cluster generates feelings of contempt and disgust toward societally derogated outgroups, such as homeless people (Kervyn et al. 2012; Rogers et al., 2013; Fiske et al., 2015). The emotion of contempt results from downward (low status) contrastive (competitive) comparison (Caprariello et al., 2009). Such univalent antipathy might evoke even emotions like hate and anger. The latter one is commonly directed toward individuals or outgroups, whose negative outcomes – e.g. drug addiction or obesity – are considered as controllable, thus these consequences are perceived as their own fault (Cuddy et al., 2008).

As empirically proved, the majority of individuals, social groups and even countries are perceived to be high on either the warmth or the competence dimension and low on the other, resulting in ambivalent stereotypes. Hence, understanding how ambivalent emotions originate from such stereotypes is of great importance.

Groups that are seen as significantly higher in warmth compared to competence, like traditional women and elderly or disabled people receive paternalistic prejudices (Cuddy et al., 2008) and elicit emotions of pity or sympathy (Kervyn et al., 2012; Fiske et al., 2015). These feelings stem from downward (low status) assimilative (non-competitive) social comparison (Caprariello et al., 2009), encouraging people to help but also as far as possible to avoid contact with such individuals (Rogers et al., 2013). According to Gerdes' study (2011) about ambivalent feelings, despite its positive meaning dated back to the 13th century, pity is lately interpreted as a primarily negative emotion and is understood as feeling sorry for someone, who is blameworthy. Additionally, sympathy is rather assumed as positively feeling with someone and largely described as an empathetic emotion (Gerdes, 2011). Cuddy and her colleagues furthermore follow the idea, that pity is generally directed toward individuals who are not responsible for their unfavorable conditions – e.g. blind people or those having cancer – and are unable to control their negative outcomes, thereby they are worthy of pity and sympathy. On the other hand, if individuals – such as AIDS patients or alcoholics – are considered as responsible for their disadvantageous conditions, it reduces the pity others feel toward them. Thus, one is able to assume, that low competence but high warmth people deserve pity and sympathy, since

despite their best intentions they are not able to control their negative outcomes (Cuddy et al., 2008).

Completely, the fourth and last cluster, containing individuals and groups perceived as significantly lower in warmth than in competence – e.g. rich people and Jews – evoke the ambivalent emotions of envy and jealousy (Kervyn et al., 2012; Fiske et al., 2015). This upward (high status) contrastive (competitive) comparison encourages perceivers to either cooperate with such individuals in interest of benefitting from their resources or to attack them because of their social statuses (Cuddy et al., 2009; Caprariello et al., 2009). The emotion envy compares the self and the other person in a way that the self is at a disadvantage (Cuddy et al., 2008), considering that envied groups or individuals are similar and likely to be associated with (Harris et al., 2008). When feeling envy, people might experience respect and dislike toward the other person at the same time, leading to the fact, that they rarely admit feeling envious (Harris et al., 2008).

While positive stereotypes and beliefs toward a country result in favorable country evaluations (Chen et al., 2014); as determined by Babin et al. in 1998 as well as by White and Yu in 2005, emotions likewise play a critical role in influencing consumer experiences, decision-making processes and behavioral intentions. The significance of emotions in case of the current research topic is even more prominent, considering that leisure activities including travelling tend to be rich in emotions, assuming its notable influence on tourists' behavioral responses (Bigné et al., 2008). Overall, the SCM concept suggests that stereotypes together with the emotions generated by them drive consumers' behavioral intentions (Aaker et al., 2012).

As stated by Kim et al. (2009) in tourism and leisure research, three general ways exist, which measure travellers' behavioral intentions: their intention to visit or revisit a particular tourism destination; to recommend it to others and to be willing to spend money at the destination. From the previous three, Chen and Tsai (2007) emphasize the first two viewpoints and define tourist behavioral intention as *"the visitor's judgment about the likeliness to revisit the same destination or the willingness to recommend the destination to others"* (p. 1116). The present study understands the latter notion of destination recommendation as WOM activity, which is defined as *"all informal communications directed at other consumers about the ownership, usage, or characteristics of particular goods and services and/or their sellers"* (Westbrook, 1987, p. 261). Through the years this commination channel became even more determinative, than traditional advertising.

The valence of WOM is in the vast majority of cases either positive or negative (Vázquez-Casielles et al., 2013). Positive WOM oftentimes embodies complimenting related to pleasant experience; whereas negative WOM is considered as complaining about unpleasant experiences (Ladhari, 2007).

As claimed by Vázquez-Casielles et al. (2013), most studies concentrate on the behavior of positive WOM, whereas the intention to negative WOM is an equally important standpoint. Therefore, the current study analyses the outcome variables of travellers' behavioral intentions toward a particular tourism destination by the intention to (re)visit, positive WOM and negative WOM.

2.3 Personality

As it has already been mentioned in the previous chapters, individuals' image formation processes toward a particular tourism destination might be highly influenced by not only various information sources, but also by personal psychological characteristics (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Moreover, as explained by San Martín and Del Bosque (2008), theoretical research on the effect of psychological factors on destination image is limited in the literature. Taking into account, that people and human relations are considered to be among the major elements of the travel and tourism industry – by analyzing who the participants of this industry are, and understanding their personalities – make it possible to provide a wider range of offers and a better, personalized level of service (Leung & Law, 2010). Accordant with Carver and Scheier's (2008) view, people's personality has an impact on how they interact with others; on their shopping preferences and emotions as well as on their decision-making processes. Shedding light on how travellers perceive and respond to tourism destination products can improve DMOs marketing activities and increase their sales performances (Leung & Law, 2010).

According to Pervin (1989, p. 7), an individual's personality can be explained as *"a set of points falling along several behavioral dimensions, each corresponding to trait, resulting in a unique profile (that is, type), different from that of other individuals"*. Corresponding to a more recent formulation, *"personality is the coherent patterning of affect, behavior, cognition, and desires (goals) over time and space"* (Revelle & Scherer, 2009, p. 1). The latter is substantially in line with the definition of the American Psychological Association, that *"personality refers to individual differences in characteristics patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving"* (APA, 2017), which

interpretation is likewise followed in the current dissertation, nevertheless by taking into consideration the "trait nature" mentioned in the firstly presented definition by Pervin (1989).

This notion is of great importance, since recently, researchers started to put emphasis on personality traits, rather than on humanity types, when measuring personality (Pappas, 2017). As formulated by McCrae and Costa (1990, p. 23), traits are *"dimensions of individual differences in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings and actions"*. They show "what people are like" (p. 790); they are considered to be stable across context and time; their occurrence varies in intensity and frequency and they can be either positive or negative (Roccas et al., 2002). The most widely used conceptual model summarizing five factors in which most personality traits can be grouped became known as the "Big Five" (Gretzel et al., 2004; Milfont & Sibley, 2012), or the Five Factor (FFM) personality trait model (Zhang, 2006), oftentimes referred by the acronym of "OCEAN", containing the elements of Openness to experience; Conscientiousness; Extraversion; Agreeableness and Neuroticism (Ackerman, 2017).

This concept is supported both theoretically and empirically and is the most frequently applied model of personality due to its stability, reliability and robustness (Gretzel et al., 2004). Personality studies done in Western-Europe and Asia underline the "Big Five" concept's cross-cultural nature (Scholte & De Bruyn, 2004) and its applicability on an international level (Ackerman, 2017). It is repeatedly used in diverse research fields including marketing and tourism. Among others, it was successfully employed in consumer behavior studies (Fratu, 2011), highlighting personality's influence on product choices through its effect on product and brand preferences. As determined by Leung and Law (2010), in the vast majority of tourism studies the authors analyzed, the FFM was applied to investigate the personality of the service staff. Despite the fact, that service quality might affect tourists' satisfaction, focusing on the personality of the travellers is more profitable to shed light on their needs (Leung & Law, 2010) and better understand their decisions (Fratu, 2011). For this reason, personality was involved in research related to the choice of tourism destinations and leisure activities (Nickerson & Ellis, 1991), and was oftentimes used as a basis for market segmentation and to find the tourism destination most suitable for the traveller's personality (Gretzel et al., 2004). It assists DMOs to develop new tourism products and services; to design attractive marketing campaigns

appealing to the demand of market segments and to forecast future consumer behavior (Fratu, 2011).

In the upcoming subchapter, the personality trait extraversion – predominantly taken into consideration for the empirical analysis of this thesis – is presented more explicitly.

2.3.1 Extraversion

Extraversion and its opposing characteristic of introversion is the most recognizable personality trait cluster of the "Big Five" (Pappas, 2017). According to Ackerman (2017), whether someone is extraverted or introverted depends on, where (s)he receives energy from and how (s)he interacts with others. Thus, as an illustration, extroverts get energetic; whilst introverts become tired of having a conversation with another individual (Ackerman, 2017). People high on extraversion are outgoing and they like to gain benefits from their social relationships, even if they need to invest their costly time and energy in their connections (Milfont & Sibley, 2012). These individuals prefer to work with others (Zhang, 2006), to influence them and to express their opinions toward them (Myers et al., 2010). Extraversion includes characteristics such as sociable; talkative; friendly; energetic; socially confident etc. (Roccas et al., 2002; Lebowitz, 2016; Ackerman, 2017). As being spontaneous and adventuresome, they tend to try out new things, find themselves in unusual situations and show flexible behavior even in intercultural interactions (Ang et al., 2006). By contrast, introverts enjoy time alone and prefer rather solo or small-group activities (Pappas, 2017). They are most of the time quiet, reserved and the "people of few words" (Ackerman, 2017).

In the tourism context, most of the studies focus on extraversion, because due to its characteristics of sociable, adventurous, interested, active etc., it is proved to be the most important trait in travel and tourism research (Kahle et al., 2005). Many tourism personality studies are likewise associated with extraversion (Nickerson & Ellis, 1991). The strong influence of personality on behavior is also emphasized by Barnett (2006) focusing on individuals' decision-making about their leisure activities to which both going on holiday and travelling belongs. Extraverted were found to spend their leisure time away from home very often with family and friends. Besides, people high on extraversion were shown to be happier in general and more engaged to leisure experiences (Barnett, 2006).

This notion is likewise in line with the findings revealed by Costa and McCrae (1980) in their study about the relationship between personality and happiness. Results demonstrated that the personality trait extraversion – highly related with characteristics such as social interest, activity and sociability – greatly influences individuals toward positive affect (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Similarly, according to Barnett (2006), leisure activities are associated with positive affect, while such positive emotions form the core of extraversion, since extroverts are among others optimistic, talkative, enthusiastic and sociable (Barnett, 2006). Matzler et al. (2006) follows an identical reasoning, highlighting the strong relationship between extraversion and positive emotions as well as the significance of affect as a predictor of consumer behavior. Furthermore, besides affect's impact on behavior, Westjohn and his colleagues (2012) also underscore the importance of personality accounting for a remarkable variance in consumer behavior and its notability for developing the proper ways of communication toward target groups.

The personality trait extraversion was further underlined by Lepp and Gibson (2008), analyzing the influence of "sensation seeking" on travellers' destination choice. This characteristic is highly related primary to extraversion along with openness and to less of neuroticism, since sensation seekers are likely to take risk in interest of experiencing, are emotionally stable and extraverted. The theorists emphasize, that tourists high on sensation seeking travel without having a specific plan, are open to meet new people and cultures and strive for an authentic experience (Lepp & Gibson, 2008). Accordingly, Barnett (2006) points out, that sensation seeking is related to various leisure activities, in particular with those incorporating high risk and travelling.

Conclusively, a recent study by Stürmer et al. (2013) further emphasize the importance of individuals' personality when leaving the environment of the ingroup in interest of travelling and developing cross-cultural relationships. Travelling and getting to know unfamiliar outgroups is highly related with uncertainty and risk. Hence, people specifically high on personality traits like extraversion are much more likely to invest resources in exploring foreign cultures and engage in cross-cultural contacts (Stürmer et al., 2013).

3 Research objective, model & hypotheses

The comprehensive overview of tourism destination image studies arose the research gap of investigating the image of a destination from the viewpoint of stereotypes. This notion has been confirmed by Chen and colleagues in 2016, as both theory and practice is lacking observing tourism destination image from a country stereotype perspective. The subchapters of the current section introduce the research questions of the present master thesis guiding the empirical study, the proposed research model highly building on the concept of the Stereotype Content Model along with the formulated hypotheses investigated in the data analysis in Chapter 5.

3.1 Research objective

The idea of the present master thesis came into life to analyze the oftentimes confusing concept of tourism destination image from a yet unknown angle of marketing and social psychology. Its necessity is underscored by different notions. Despite many attempts – primary due to high complexity – no consensus was reached over standard definitions when talking about a tourism destination and its image (Pike, 2005). At the same time, several different approaches and measurements exist investigating the multi-dimensional nature of tourism destination images (Elliot et al., 2011), making it difficult to draw meaningful conclusions from a theoretical perspective. Furthermore, images constantly changing characteristic presents significant challenges for destination marketing practitioners, since not only sociodemographic and psychological factors, but also information originating from various sources form the images existing in travellers' minds about a particular destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). However, in contrast to images, stereotypes are typical to change rather slowly (Hilton & von Hippel, 1996). Consequently, well-maintained stereotypes about a country as a tourism destination could represent a long-term distinguishing factor in destination marketing.

The purpose of the current empirical research is to successfully apply the concept of the Stereotype Content Model – known from social psychology and international marketing studies – in the research field of tourism management. By doing so, the concept may become a suitable alternative for destination image analysis, reducing the shortage of theory and practice by observing tourism destination image from a country stereotype perspective (Chen et al., 2016).

The research questions, which guide the empirical study are formulated as follows:

I. *How do country stereotypes influence the emotional and behavioral responses of tourists toward a tourism destination?*

II. *How do univalent and ambivalent emotions influence tourists' behavioral intentions with regard to a tourism destination?*

III. *To what extent does the personality trait extraversion influence tourists when they turn their emotions into actions toward a tourism destination?*

3.2 Research model

The present conceptual model is in line with the previously introduced research objective and is following the idea of the Stereotype Content Model, that the combinations of warmth and competence stereotype dimensions elicit four unique emotional responses which are leading to positive and negative behavioral responses of tourists (Aaker et al., 2012). Further, the model is supplemented by the "Big Five" personality trait extraversion, assuming the importance of individual psychological factors in travellers' decision-making processes.

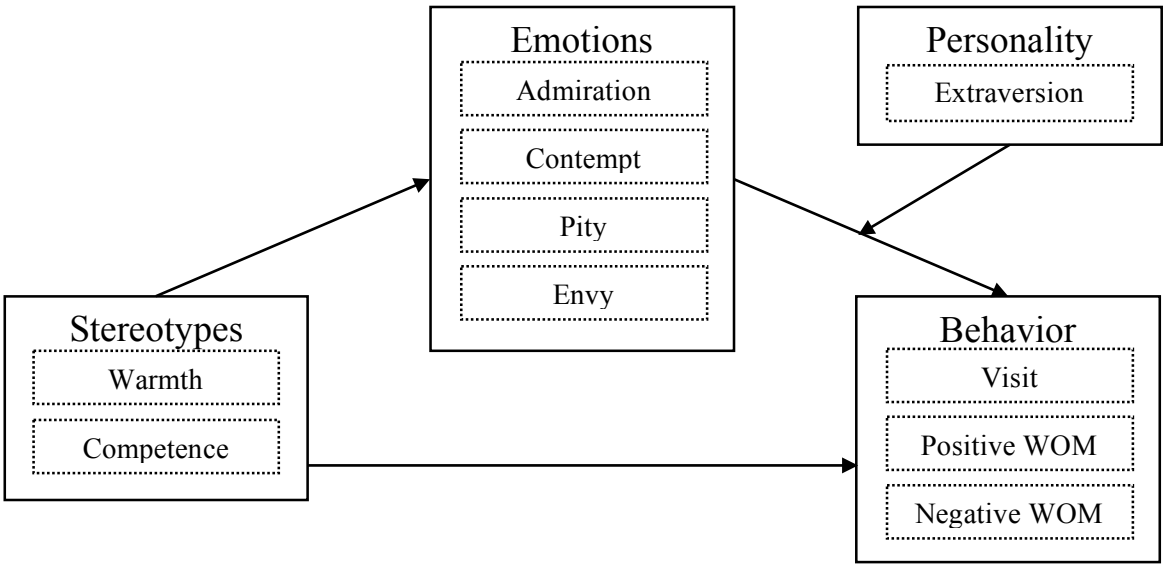

Figure 2 – Overall research model

Cognition is measured by the two fundamental dimensions of socially shared country stereotypes, perceived warmth and perceived competence (Fiske et al., 2002).

Considering destination images' cognitive-affective nature, and the empirical evidence both in image research about cognition influencing affect (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999), as well as in international marketing research about stereotype combinations evoking unique emotions; the affective component of the model is measured by two univalent emotions – admiration and contempt; and by two ambivalent emotions – pity and envy (Fiske et al., 2007; Cuddy et al., 2008).

Further, the conative behavioral responses of travellers toward a tourism destination are evaluated by two positive and one negative behavioral outcomes. Firstly, tourists' behavioral tendency and willingness to (re)visit a particular tourism destination in addition to their likelihood of talking positively about it in a rather narrow circle of family and friends analyze travellers' positive behavioral responses; whilst negative WOM from a broader perspective is referring to the negative behavioral intention.

The dimensions of perceived warmth and competence toward a nation and its people are presumed to have a statistically significant influence on travellers' emotional and behavioral responses. By focusing on the link between stereotypes and emotions, along with the relationship between stereotypes and behavior; the former represents the independent variable of the concept, since it is viewed to explain the main effects in the model and influences the two dependent variables of emotion and behavior.

However, by analyzing emotions' impact on behavior, the former becomes the independent variable, while behavior remains the dependent one. In connection with this link and in light of the fact, that research is lacking analyzing the influence of psychological factors on tourism destination images (San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008), travellers' extraversion acts as the moderator variable in the model between emotions and behavior.

3.3 Hypothesis development

The research objective and the proposed research model, along with previous empirical studies introduced in the literature review lead to the emergence of several hypotheses, which are tested in SPSS Statistics in interest of finding out the compatibility of the current conceptual model in tourism destination research.

3.3.1 Stereotype's influence on emotion

The first section of hypotheses (H_{1a} – H_{1h}) is investigating the relationship between stereotypes and emotions and assumes the statistically significant influence of the warmth and competence stereotypes on the emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy.

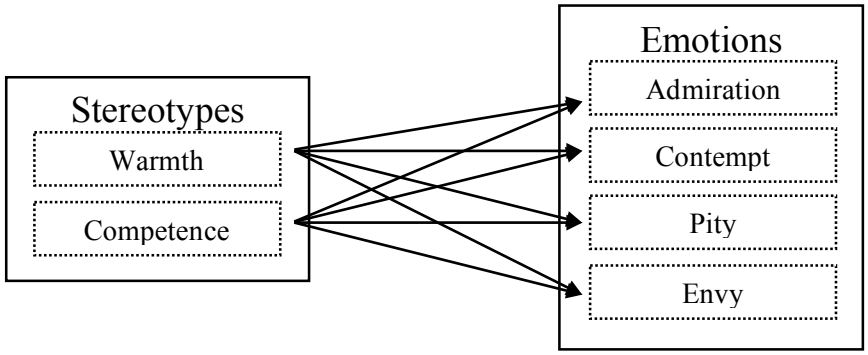

Figure 3 – Research model (1)

The association between stereotypes and emotions can be linked to two previously introduced theoretical approaches. The first idea is a rather general one originating from the field of image theory. After many years of research focusing exclusively on cognitive images, authors started to recognize images' similarly strong emotional meaning to consumers (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). This identification greatly contributed to the emergence of tourism destination image studies highlighting images' cognitive-affective nature (Nadeau et al., 2008; Elliot et al., 2011). As specified by Baloglu and McCleary (1999), the cognitive and affective components of destination image can be treated as distinct and at the same time as interrelated factors. In addition, the researchers further underline that the affective image is highly depending on the cognitive one (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). This notion provides the basis for the overall assumption stating that the stereotype dimensions of warmth and competence have a statistically significant

influence on the two univalent emotions of admiration and contempt and on the two ambivalent emotions of pity and envy.

In interest of specifying the direction and strength of these influences, referring to the Stereotype Content Model, formulated by Fiske and her colleagues in 2002 is of great importance. As it has already been mentioned previously, this concept is building on the idea, that the combinations of warmth and competence stereotype dimensions generate four unique emotional responses in individuals (Fiske et al., 2002) – in the present context toward countries as tourism destinations.

According to the SCM theory, if a destination is perceived as equally high or low in warmth and in competence, such perceptions induce univalent emotions. On the positive side, a destination high in warmth along with high competence elicits the emotion of admiration. On the contrary, if it is seen as low in warmth as well as low in competence it evokes the negative feeling of contempt (Fiske et al., 2002; Cuddy et al., 2008). As explained by Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar (2015), cognitive images act as qualifiers; and they reflect tourists' opinion about functional and tangible elements such as different attractions or the infrastructure (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991) in addition to abstract ones like hospitality or the atmosphere of a place (San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008). Hence, a tourism destination is likely to give rise to the feeling of admiration, because e.g. it is known for its unique atmosphere and welcoming locals – warm – and for its high level of development offering endless possibilities to travellers – competent. In contrast, if the locals are considered to behave reluctantly against tourists – cold – and there are almost no attractions to discover or no accommodations to stay at – incompetent – the destination is expected to induce contempt. Based on prior reasoning it is presumed that both warmth and competence stereotypes have a statistically significant positive effect on the feeling of admiration and a statistically significant negative influence on contempt, leading to the following hypotheses:

H_{1a}: *The higher the warmth stereotype, the greater the feeling of admiration.*
H_{1b}: *The higher the competence stereotype, the greater the feeling of admiration.*

H_{1c}: *The higher the warmth stereotype, the lower the feeling of contempt.*
H_{1d}: *The higher the competence stereotype, the lower the feeling of contempt.*

The Stereotype Content Model further claims, that destinations higher on the one stereotype dimension than on the other generate ambivalent emotions (Fiske et al., 2002).

If the destination is perceived as higher in warmth compared to competence, it brings about the feeling of pity; whilst a destination higher in competence than in warmth induce the emotion of envy (Cuddy et al., 2008; Kervyn et al., 2012). Similar to the examples about univalent emotions above, if a destination has a charming ambiance – warm – but a poor infrastructure – incompetent; it is likely to induce the feeling of pity. However, because lacking hospitality – cold – but providing numerous attractions to travellers – competent – the destination can elicit the feeling of envy. Therefore, it is assumed that the warmth stereotype dimension has a statistically significant positive effect on the emotion of pity and a negative one on envy; whereas competence has a statistically significant negative influence on pity and a positive one on envy.

H_{1e}: *The higher the warmth stereotype, the greater the feeling of pity.*
H_{1f}: *The higher the competence stereotype, the lower the feeling of pity.*

H_{1g}: *The higher the warmth stereotype, the lower the feeling of envy.*
H_{1h}: *The higher the competence stereotype, the greater the feeling of envy.*

3.3.2 Stereotype's influence on behavior

The second group of hypotheses (H_{2a} – H_{2f}) analyzes the link between stereotypes and behavior and assumes warmth and competence stereotypes' statistically significant influence on tourists' behavioral responses of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM.

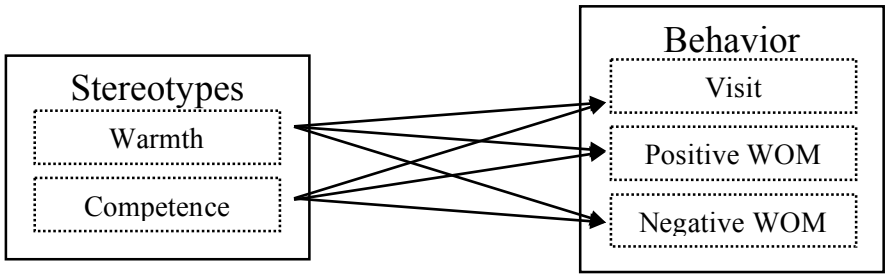

Figure 4 – Research model (2)

In accordance with the image theory, the conative component of destination image, oftentimes presented by the behavioral outcomes of decision to (re)visit (Chon, 1999) or recommend the destination to others (Nadeau et al., 2008) is significantly influenced by cognition. As determined by Phillips and Jang (2007), the more positive (negative)

travellers' perceptions are about a particular tourism destination, the more favorable (unfavorable) their behavioral intentions will be.

Similarly, the SCM concept not only emphasizes stereotypes' remarkable impact on emotions, but stresses out their essential role as drivers of behavior as well (Aaker et al., 2012). If a destination is perceived positively as being high on both the warmth and the competence stereotype dimension, it results in a higher intention to form a positive opinion or visit the destination. As an illustration, if a tourism destination is famous for its welcoming atmosphere – warm – and provides numerous attractions tourists are able to enjoy – competent; it is very likely that first-time travellers as well as loyal tourists will (re)visit the destination and recommend it to others as a potential destination worth visiting. Hence, it is assumed that the warmth and competence stereotypes have a statistically significant positive influence on the behavioral intentions of visit and positive WOM. In connection, the subsequent hypotheses have been set up:

H_{2a}: *The higher the warmth stereotype, the greater the intention to visit.*
H_{2b}: *The higher the competence stereotype, the greater the intention to visit.*

H_{2c}: *The higher the warmth stereotype, the greater the intention to positive WOM.*
H_{2d}: *The higher the competence stereotype, the greater the intention to positive WOM.*

As opposed to the foregoing, negative perceptions toward a particular tourism destination lead to rather unfavorable behavioral outcomes (Phillips & Jang, 2007). If a destination is considered to be low on both the warmth and the competence stereotype dimension and is seen as cold and incompetent, it leads to a higher intention to express a negative opinion about it or even warn others to better avoid the country for the purpose of tourism. For instance, if a destination is known as lacking authenticity – cold – and it offers only a few overnight possibilities to choose from – incompetent; there is a high probability that individuals form a negative opinion which they likewise express to others. Thus, it is expected, that the warmth and competence stereotypes have a statistically significant negative impact on the behavioral outcome of negative WOM, leading to the hypotheses below:

H_{2e}: *The higher the warmth stereotype, the lower the intention to negative WOM.*
H_{2f}: *The higher the competence stereotype, the lower the intention to negative WOM.*

3.3.3 Emotion's influence on behavior

The third bunch of hypotheses (H_{3a} – H_{3l}) examines the relationship between emotions and behavior and presupposes univalent as well as ambivalent emotions statistically significant effect on the behavioral outcomes of visiting a destination and delivering a positive and a negative opinion about it to other individuals.

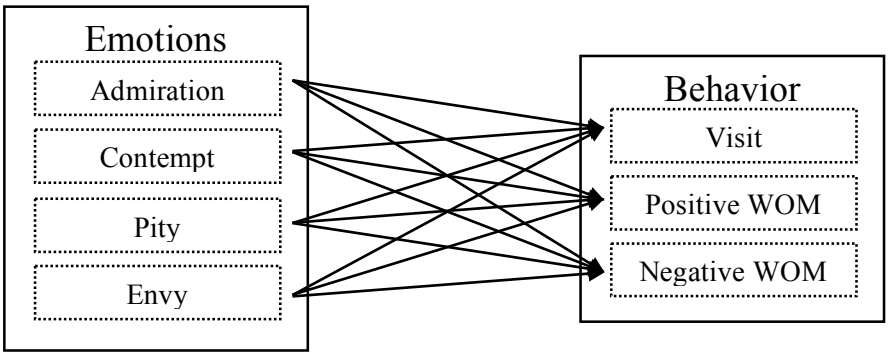

Figure 5 – Research model (3)

Building on images' cognitive-affective nature – besides cognitions' impact – affective images are also assumed to have a significant influence on behavior (Phillips & Jang, 2007). As explained by Bigné et al. (2008), it is preferential to include an emotional component attached to cognition when measuring behavioral intention in interest of a better understanding and a higher predictive power. Moreover, corresponding to Ladhari (2007), emotions tend to notably influence behavioral intentions, incorporating word-of-mouth behavior as well.

The Stereotype Content Model similarly underlines that behavioral responses are induced by emotions (Aaker et al., 2012). In case of the univalent emotions of admiration and contempt, pointing into one specific direction – either positive or negative – the behavioral intentions are quite self-explanatory. Obviously, positive emotions toward a tourism destination emphasize individuals to act favorably by visiting the destination or support others with their positive WOM to likewise discover the destination personally as well as to avoid negative WOM in a discussion about the destination. On the other hand, negative emotions encourage travellers to decide against visiting the particular tourism destination, to avoid expressing any positivity about it and rather communicating a negative opinion about the given destination.

Along these lines, it is expected that the purely positive feeling of admiration has a statistically significant positive effect on the positive behavioral responses of visit and positive WOM, because if a traveller admires a particular country (s)he has the greatest willingness and intention to (re)visit it and tell others how fascinated (s)he becomes when talking about that destination. In addition, admiration is also presumed to have a statistically significant negative effect on negative WOM, since such very positive emotion avoids expressing any kind of negativity. This link leads to the following hypotheses:

H_{3a}: *The higher the feeling of admiration, the greater the intention to visit.*
H_{3b}: *The higher the feeling of admiration, the greater the intention to positive WOM.*
H_{3c}: *The higher the feeling of admiration, the lower the intention to negative WOM.*

Conversely, the entirely negative feeling of contempt is assumed to negatively impact visiting behavior and positive WOM, but positively the intention of negative WOM. This is due to the fact, that such a hostile feeling avoids any favorable behavior toward the destination besides strengthening the unfavorable one of expressing negativity about the destination to others, resulting in the hypotheses below:

H_{3d}: *The higher the feeling of contempt, the lower the intention to visit.*
H_{3e}: *The higher the feeling of contempt, the lower the intention to positive WOM.*
H_{3f}: *The higher the feeling of contempt, the greater the intention to negative WOM.*

Nonetheless, in case of the influence of the SCM's ambivalent emotions of pity and envy, it is much more challenging to presume clear relationships and effects, due to potentially conflicting behavioral responses (Cuddy et al., 2008). Moreover, they can neither be seen as purely positive nor as purely negative emotions.

Pity is considered to result from downward assimilative social comparison, which encourages individuals to help but at the same time to avoid contact with people deserving pity (Fiske et al., 2007; Cuddy et al., 2008). In line with the foregoing, in the context of tourism, the feeling of pity can avoid travellers to personally visit the tourism destination. At the same time, because of the need to help, they do not want to hinder others to experience the destination themselves. Thus, pity motivate individuals to express their positive opinions and keep off their negative ones when talking about the particular destination to others. In consequence, the feeling of pity is hypothesized to have a

statistically significant positive effect on positive WOM and a negative one on visit and negative WOM, giving rise to the following hypotheses:

H_{3g}: *The higher the feeling of pity, the lower the intention to visit.*
H_{3h}: *The higher the feeling of pity, the greater the intention to positive WOM.*
H_{3i}: *The higher the feeling of pity, the lower the intention to negative WOM.*

The final, also ambivalent emotion of envy arises from upward contrastive comparison, which provoke individuals for cooperation as well as attack (Fiske et al., 2007; Cuddy et al., 2008). From the viewpoint of behavioral responses toward tourism destinations, the emotion of envy can support tourists to visit the destination in interest of enjoying all of its offers and benefits personally. Simultaneously, they may communicate negativity about the destination and avoid mentioning positivity in order to talk others off to visit the destination for their advantage over others. Hence, envy is assumed to have a statistically significant positive influence on visit and negative WOM, but a negative impact on positive WOM. According to this relationship the upcoming hypotheses have been developed:

H_{3j}: *The higher the feeling of envy, the greater the intention to visit.*
H_{3k}: *The higher the feeling of envy, the lower the intention to positive WOM.*
H_{3l}: *The higher the feeling of envy, the greater the intention to negative WOM.*

3.3.4 Extraversion's moderation on emotion & behavior

The final section of hypotheses ($H_{4a} – H_{4l}$) explores the moderating role of extraversion on the previously investigated relationship between emotions and behavior. It is expected, that extraversion moderates the link between the four emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy and the behavioral outcomes of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM.

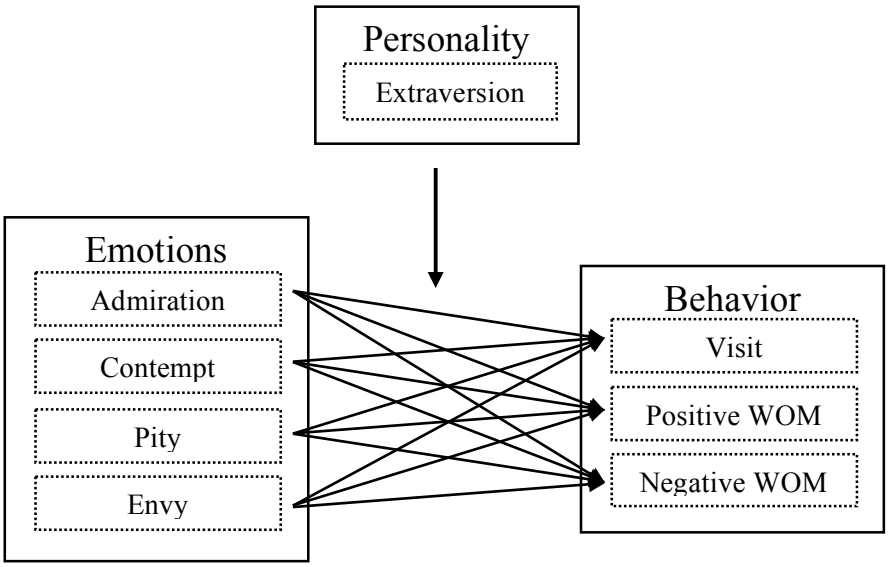

Figure 6 – Research model (4)

The influence of individuals' personality manifests in countless emotional and behavioral areas. How they interact with others, how they express their emotions, how they shop for products and services and how they behave in decision-making situations (Carver & Scheier, 2008). Fratu (2011) likewise emphasizes – apart from other psychological factors – the great significance of personality in consumer behavior.

Besides, it is worth to mention the tendency, that individuals acting as consumers of tourism products and services enter touristic decision-making processes with a different mindset, then when they purchase other high involvement products. Tourists generally tend to behave more receptive with the goal of gaining new experiences (Weiermair & Fuchs, 2000). The previous viewpoint is one of the reasons, why the personality trait extraversion has been chosen to be analyzed in more detail to moderate the relationship between travellers emotional and behavioral responses towards tourism destinations. Extraversion is considered to be the most recognizable personality trait of the "Big Five" (Pappas, 2017), described by characteristics such as outgoing, sociable, active, expressive, energetic, adventuresome and spontaneous, having a high motivation to learn

(Ang et al., 2006). Prior research done by Matzler and colleagues (2006) further found that extraversion is positively related to consumer behavior; whereas Costa and McCrae (1980) revealed strong relationships between extraversion and positive emotions. In addition to the above notions, it is essential to take into consideration the assumptions of the previous subchapter how emotions impact touristic behavior.

In case of the univalent, positive emotion of admiration, a statistically significant positive effect on visit and positive WOM and a negative influence on negative WOM was assumed. Nevertheless, the positive effect of admiring a destination on visiting is assumed to be even stronger when the tourist is extraverted, because as being adventurous, spontaneous and eager to gain new experiences and get to know new cultures, (s)he is yet more motivated to visit the destination. Furthermore, the positive impact of admiration on positive WOM and its negative influence on negative WOM are expected to be stronger if the traveller is characterized by extraversion, since due to sociability and expressiveness, (s)he is more likely to state positive or negative opinions about the destination in a circle of other individuals.

H_{4a}: *Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between admiration and visit.*
H_{4b}: *Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between admiration and positive WOM.*
H_{4c}: *Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between admiration and negative WOM.*

Despite the fact, that according theory, the personality trait of extraversion is considered to be linked to positive emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1980), the current study also investigates whether the moderation of extraversion is able to reduce the impact of negative emotions on behavior. By focusing on the univalent, negative feeling of contempt, its statistically significant negative impact on visit and positive WOM and its statistically significant positive influence on negative WOM was presumed. However, the negative influence of contempt on the intention to visit is expected to be weaker if the tourist is extraverted, because characteristics like spontaneous, adventuresome and highly motivated to learn are able to overwhelm the feeling of contempt. Besides, contempt's negative effect on positive WOM as well as its positive impact on negative WOM is assumed to be stronger if the tourist is extraverted and considered to be very active in expressing his/her opinion, which brings about the upcoming hypotheses:

H_{4d}: *Extraversion negatively moderates the relationship between contempt and visit.*
H_{4e}: *Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between contempt and positive WOM.*
H_{4f}: *Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between contempt and negative WOM.*

Ultimately, it is investigated, how extraversion moderates the influence of the ambivalent emotions of pity and envy on the behavioral responses of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM. Previously, the emotion of pity was assumed to have a statistically significant negative effect on visit and negative WOM and a positive impact on positive WOM. Nonetheless, the intention to avoid visiting a tourism destination because feeling pity is presumed to be weaker if the traveller is extraverted, since such an active and adventuresome personality would support tourists to overcome their emotional ambiguity. Considering the behavioral outcomes of positive and negative WOM, due to extroverts' expressiveness, it is expected that pity's positive impact on positive WOM along with its negative effect on negative WOM will be stronger if the person is characterized by extraversion.

H_{4g}: *Extraversion negatively moderates the relationship between pity and visit.*
H_{4h}: *Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between pity and positive WOM.*
H_{4i}: *Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between pity and negative WOM.*

By focusing on the ambivalent feeling of envy, this emotion was expected to have a statistically significant positive influence on visit and negative WOM and a positive one on positive WOM. Taking into account the moderating role of extraversion, envy's positive impact on visiting a destination is presumed to be weaker, because sociable, cooperative and friendly travellers are more likely to conquer the feeling of envy. Moreover, as already mentioned, because of extroverts' tendency to be social, active and expressive, the negative influence of envy on negative WOM and its positive influence on positive WOM is expected to be stronger, resulting in the development of the hypotheses below:

H_{4j}: *Extraversion negatively moderates the relationship between envy and visit.*
H_{4k}: *Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between envy and positive WOM.*
H_{4l}: *Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between envy and negative WOM.*

4 Design & methods

The present chapter is dedicated to introducing the research design and methodological actions, of which careful reflection and elaboration is inevitable for the realization of a successful empirical research. Beginning with the presentation of the research properties a brief overview is provided about the data used to build up the content of the thesis, about the measurement instrument, the research design as well as the research country. This is followed by the presentation of the data collection process and sample description, including the sampling procedure and the characteristics of the sample drawn. The chapter concludes with the delivery of results from preliminary analyses.

4.1 Research properties

4.1.1 Primary & secondary data

The scholarly literature, theoretical and empirical articles and online documents – which have been processed in the literature review – are offering data from external secondary data sources, such as libraries and the internet (Babin & Zikmund, 2015). Secondary data is understood as *"data that have been previously collected for some purpose other than the one at hand"* (p. 143). As explained by Craig and Douglas (2005), due to their multiple advantages, "secondary data are a key source of information in international marketing research" (p. 63). Considering that they are readily available, acquiring secondary data is faster and less costly to collect and access than gathering primary data (Craig & Douglas, 2005; Babin & Zikmund, 2015). By providing background information, they are useful for identifying specific research objectives, which are worth to be analyzed in more detail throughout a primary research (Craig & Douglas, 2005), as well as for building up the research model (Babin & Zikmund, 2015).

While secondary data provide valuable and occasionally satisfactory information, international marketing research generally includes primary data collection (Craig & Douglas, 2005). *"Primary data are data that are collected for the specific research problem at hand using procedures that fit the research problem best"* (Hox & Boeije, 2005, p. 593). Since, they are gathered to solve a particular research problem, the greatest advantage of primary data over secondary is to perfectly fit and reliably answer the research questions at hand (Babin & Zikmund, 2015).

4.1.2 Measurement instrument

In interest of obtaining primary data, a non-experimental, quantitative survey research was applied in the empirical part of the present master thesis. By undertaking a survey research, using a structured questionnaire, one is able to acquire numerical data on various variables from a large and representative sample, making a statistical analysis possible (Hox & Boeije, 2005). According to Babin and Zikmund (2015), the vast majority of surveys use self-administered questionnaires *"in which the respondent takes the responsibility for reading and answering the questions without having them stated orally by an interviewer"* (p. 187). Among the two options of printed or electronic questionnaires, the latter – in form of an online survey – was applied for the current research (Babin & Zikmund, 2015). An internet survey is *"a self-administered survey administered using a web-based questionnaire"* (Babin & Zikmund, 2015, p. 194). It is considered to be speedy, since gathering responses from a large sample is possible in a few weeks or less (Babin & Zikmund, 2015). Online surveys are similarly cost-efficient, as the researcher is able to eliminate among others costs of printing, postage, data entry and administration (Babin & Zikmund, 2015). Further, web-based questionnaires are also substantially versatile, allowing the use of structured questionnaires of different length or the randomization of questions. They are seen to be less intrusive for the respondents, since the questionnaire is generally available for a longer period of time, the participant is free to decide when to answer the questions. Ultimately, the process is automated, the responses are directly saved and can be regularly monitored (Craig & Douglas, 2005).

4.1.3 Between-subject design

With the purpose of finding answers on how travellers respond to country stereotypes emotionally and behaviorally when considering a particular tourism destination, a between-subject design was applied. The design of the research principally shows, how the respondents are distributed across different conditions. In case of a between-subject or independent-group design, each respondent receives only one treatment (Field, 2013). It involves the formation of different groups – in the present study groups of six, answering questions about the tourism destinations of Spain, Italy, Austria, Finland, Germany and the UK. As specified by Charness et al. (2012), by ensuring the random assignment of respondents to – in the current case – tourism destinations, this type of design enables to compare the behavior of travellers related to a given destination, with

those tourists' behaviors associated with another destination. The key advantages of the between-subject design are among others, that there is no carry-over effect; its simplicity reduce the fatigue of respondents and it is suitable for all manipulations. On the contrary, it might be more time-consuming for the researcher; there might be unequal group sizes and missing respondents and there is a risk of individual differences (Field, 2013).

4.1.4 Research country

After a thorough consideration, Hungary has been chosen to be the examined country of the present master thesis, where the empirical research has been taking place. The major purpose of this choice was making it possible to explore the images of well-developed Western-European countries as tourism destinations from the perspective of a Central-European country developing in a fast-growing pace. Moreover, among the reasons, why this country was analyzed, it is essential to mention, that Hungary was not part of the study done by Cuddy and her colleagues, investigating the warmth and competence perceptions of 15 EU nations – serving as a basis for the destination selection – since it was joining the European Union shortly after that study. Hence, this research further shed light on the perceptions of another European country on a couple of EU nations, that participated in testing the cross-cultural nature of the SCM concept. Eventually, taking into account the authors' connections and relationships in Hungary, in addition to her native language skills in Hungarian, the data collection and analysis have not encountered any barriers.

Hungary is one of the fastest growing economies of Central-Europe. After decades of communist dictatorship, the country became a democratic republic and is a member of various international organizations, such as the OECD, NATO and the European Union, but not the Eurozone. With its population around 9.8 million inhabitants, Hungary is among the rather smaller countries of the EU. After the negative effects of the financial crisis of 2008-2009, in recent years, Hungary was able to increase its international trade and decrease its national debt as well as the unemployment rate (Statista, 2018).

In line with Hungary's economic development and its role in international trade, more and more travellers worldwide became attentive to the touristic attractions of the country, resulting that nowadays, tourism is one of the fastest growing Hungarian industries, having significant direct as well as indirect economic impacts, such as its total contribution to the GDP and employment or visitor exports and investments (WTTO,

2017). Besides, playing an active role in the domestic tourism of the country, the number of Hungarians regularly visiting foreign tourism destinations is likewise constantly increasing, contributing to the rise of international tourist arrivals. A couple of years ago – primary related to the financial situation of the country and its population – Hungarians were most likely travelling to neighboring countries, like Austria, Slovenia and Croatia. Even though these counties are still dominant – taking into account that e.g. Austria is considered to be the number one foreign tourism destination of Hungarians (Österreich Werbung, 2017) – nowadays, especially the younger generation is ready to choose distant tourism destinations as well. As an illustration, when searching for a summer destination by the sea, instead of simply travelling to Croatia, many Hungarians decide to visit countries like Spain, Italy, Greece or even destinations spanning continents (Világgazdaság, 2016). Nonetheless, the fact, that the vast majority of Hungarian journeys are still concentrated in Europe can be also mentioned among the reasons why Hungary was selected to be the present study's country of research.

4.2 Data collection

In interest of gathering data in a relatively fast and cost-efficient way, an internet survey was conducted with the support of the online software of *Qualtrics* (qualtrics.com, 2017). Its package not only provides various options to make the questionnaire more focused and effective, its highly personalizable nature gives the researcher the opportunity to create a questionnaire attractive to the respondents, leading to a more attentive and enjoyable completion. However – considering the between-subject design of the research – the most essential option was proved to be the randomization of question blocks. This made it achievable, that each respondent was only treated by questions related to one single tourism destination out of the six, building up the major part of the questionnaire. Besides, participants answered general introductory questions about how often, for which motivational factors, based on which information sources and with whom they usually travel. In one smaller section, a short personality test was carried out; while ultimately, at the end of the survey, respondents filled out typical demographic questions.

The questionnaire consisted predominantly of closed questions, participants were only provided by an "other" option in some of the introductory and closing general questions. Such fixed-alternative questions are preferred by the respondents, since they are provided by various alternative responses they are able to choose from (Babin & Zikmund, 2015);

and likewise, by the researchers, because the answers are easily coded and tested statistically (Craig & Douglas, 2005).

The questionnaire was available in the official language of the target country, in Hungarian. In order to avoid errors, misunderstandings and increase the quality and reliability of the survey, all the questions and scales were translated from the original English to Hungarian by the author, who is a fluent of the former and a native speaker of the latter, and was back translated by a selected individual fluent in both languages.

The questionnaire was distributed through a hyperlink activated by the researcher on the 2nd February 2018. By clicking on the link, participants directly found themselves reading the introductory words of the survey and by submitting their questionnaires the data gained from the answers were automatically stored for further analysis. In a one month period, the respondents were able to fill out the questionnaire around the clock, which also served their convenience. The data collection was closed at the beginning of March with 323 responses.

4.3 Sample

4.3.1 Sampling procedure

Inferred from the research country of Hungary presented in the previous section, the population of the empirical research was made up by all Hungarian individuals older than 18 years. Using a hyperlink allowed to distribute the online questionnaire quickly and effectively among the contacts of the author. Moreover, by choosing the appropriate sampling method, currently a non-probabilistic snowball sampling increased the chance of having a larger number of suitable individuals participating in the research.

In case of snowball sampling, the potential respondents are selected either randomly or based on some criteria and are asked to forward the questionnaire to further members of the target population (Craig & Douglas, 2005). The distribution of the questionnaire continued until the corresponding sample size of around 300 respondents was reached.

4.3.2 Sample characteristics

In total, 323 respondents participated in the online survey. After running a missing value analysis, 49 cases with some missing values were found, from which in 40 only the introductory questions had been filled out by the respondents, thus the decision was made about the elimination of these cases. In 9 other cases, only the demographic closing questions were left empty, which were replaced by the series mean method, leading to the overall sample size of 283.

Two-third of the final sample, 214 (75.6%) respondents were *female*, while 69 (24.4%) were *male*. 32 (11.3%) participants were *18-24* years old; 111 (39.2%) were *25-34*, accounting for the largest age category; 41 (14.5%) were *35-44*; 46 (16.3%) were *45-54*; 42 (14.8%) were *55-64*; whilst 11 (3.9%) were *above 65* years old. 282 (99.7%) were *Hungarian*, whereas 1 (0.3%) respondent was *Slovakian* in nationality. 110 (38.9%) participants were living in the *capital* city, 155 (54.8%) in other *cities* and 18 (6.3%) in *rural areas* such as smaller towns and villages. 20 (7.1%) graduated from vocational and technical *secondary schools*, 34 (12%) had a *high school* degree, 98 (34.7%) were *Bachelors*, 130 (45.9%) were *Masters* and 1 (0.4%) had a *PhD* as the highest level of education. 29 (10.2%) respondents had a monthly income of *less than 100 thousand HUF* (around 350€), 86 (30.4%) had between *100 and 200 thousand HUF* (350€-650€), 92 (32.5%) had between *200 and 300 thousand HUF* (650€-1000€) and 76 (26.9%) had *more than 300 thousand HUF* (around 1000€). 118 (41.7%) participants were *single (never married)*, 110 (38.9%) were *married*, 18 (6.4%) were *divorced*, 5 (1.8%) were *widowed* and 32 (11.2%) provided another marital status. 3 out of this 32 were *engaged*, 28 were *in a relationship* and 1 was *separated*. Slightly more than the half of the sample, 159 (56.2%) respondents had *no children*, whereas 124 (43.8%) had at least one child. From those *having children*, 57 individuals had only 1 child, 46 had 2 children, 15 had 3 children and 3 had 4 as well as 5 children.

Besides the demographic properties, respondents were likewise answering some questions related to their characteristics as a traveller. 101 (35.7%) participants stated that they are travelling on holiday *less, than once a year*. 88 (31.1%) travel *once a year*, 66 (23.3%) *2 to 3 times a year* and 28 (9.9%) travel *more than 3 times* a year. Related to the question how important various attractional and motivational factors are when choosing a tourism destination, 130 (45.9%) respondents selected *"discovering new climate, landscape and nature"* as *very important* and 100 (35.3%) as *somehow important*. For

176 (62.2%) individuals *"relaxation and a calm atmosphere"* is *very important* when on holiday. *"Experiencing new culture"* as well as the "*local cuisine"* showed to be an essential, however not the most decisive factor in destination decision-making, since 97 (34.3%) respondents chose new culture as *very important* and 112 (39.6%) as *somehow important*. Similar results have been found for the local cuisine, where 84 (29.7%) participants marked this factor as *very important*, whilst 111 (39.2%) as *somehow important.* Data revealed that *"meeting local people"* and *"enjoying leisure and fun activities"* are the least crucial when selecting a tourism destination, considering that 82 (29%) respondents stated, *"meeting local people"* as *somehow important* and 112 (39.6%) as *neither unimportant nor important.* In case of the leisure and fun activities 104 (36.7%) found this factor as *somehow important*, whereas 75 (26.5%) as *neither unimportant nor important.* Related to their travel partners, 6 (2.1%) respondents stated that they usually travel *alone*, 105 (37.1%) *with partner/spouse*, 118 (41.7%) *with family* and 46 (16.3%) *with friends*. 8 (2.8%) participants provided an "other" answer, from which 6 frequently travel in all the previously mentioned ways, 1 individual travels with his daughter and 1 with travel groups. 36 (12.7%) respondents rely most on information found on the *official tourism website* of the destination. 126 (44.5%) are influenced by the *recommendation of family and friends*, whilst 51 (18%) trust in *travel blogs*. Only 16 (5.7%) participants are affected by the information found on *Social Media* and 45 (15.9%) rely on *travel websites* like TripAdvisor. 9 (3.2%) individuals mentioned further information sources among others, documentaries, guidebooks, their own bucket list together with previous experiences and ideas.

4.4 Preliminary analysis

The present empirical study – as underlined by the research model as well as research questions and hypotheses – has the components of the Stereotype Content Model and tourists' behavioral intentions in its very focus, namely warmth and competence country stereotypes; the emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy; and the behavioral responses of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM. With the aim of analyzing the relationships and influencing effects of these variables, multi items scales, frequently used in the field of international marketing research were employed in the questionnaire.

Primary – related to the first cognitive component of stereotypes – respondents were asked to state their opinion about how most people see the inhabitants of the six analyzed

tourism destinations, hence the Spanish, the Italians, the Austrians, the Finns, the Germans and the British. Both warmth and competence stereotypes were measured by 4 items each on a 5-point likert scale ranging from as an illustration *"1 – not capable"* to *"5 – capable"*. Perceived warmth was evaluated by the characteristics of warm, friendly, kind and good-natured; whilst perceived competence by capable, competent, efficient and intelligent.

The affective element of the study, the two univalent emotions of admiration and contempt and the two ambivalent emotions of pity and envy were all measured by 2 items each, on a 5-point likert scale, ranging from *"1 – not at all"* to *"5 – extremely"*. Admiration was evaluated by admiration and pride; contempt by contempt and disgust; pity by pity and sympathy; while envy by envy and jealousy. Respondents then had to decide to what extent they tend to feel these emotions toward the particular tourism destination.

The scale investigating stereotypes and the one exploring emotions were both adapted from the existing and regularly applied scales formulated by Cuddy, A. J., Fiske, S. T., and Glick, P. (2007).

The final, conative element concentrating on three different behavioral responses toward a tourism destination were likewise evaluated by scales including multiple items. The outcome variable of visiting a particular tourism destination was measured by 2 items on a 5-point likert scale ranging from *"1 – strongly disagree"* to *"5 – strongly agree"*. Hence, respondents needed to answer to what extent they agree with the statements of *"It is very likely, that I will (re)visit the tourism destination Spain/Italy/Austria/Finland/Germany/ the UK in the future"* and *"Next time I will go on holiday, I will choose Spain/Italy/Austria/Finland/Germany/ the UK as my tourism destination."* The dependent variable of positive WOM was also measured by 2 items, on a 5-point likert scale, ranging from *"1 – very unlikely"* to *"5 – very likely"*. Participants answered questions about how likely it would be, that they would recommend the particular tourism destination to their friends as well as family and close relatives. Lastly, the third behavior of negative WOM was evaluated by 2 items, on a 5-point likert scale, ranging from *"1 – very unlikely"* to *"5 – very likely"*. Respondents needed to state how likely it would be, that they would talk negatively about or warn others not to visit a particular tourism destination.

The scale for destination visit was adapted from the purchase intention measurement of consumer products regularly applied in international marketing research; the one for positive WOM from the scale used by Brown, T. J., Barry, T. E., Dacin, P. A., & Gunst, R. F. (2005); while the negative WOM measure was adapted from the studies of Wirtz, J., & Mattila, A. S. (2004) and Goyette, I., Ricard, L., Bergeron, J., & Marticotte, F. (2010).

Additionally, as playing a moderating role in the study, the personality of the respondents was likewise analyzed. Despite a very lengthy personality test consisting of numerous items, a short version of the "Big Five" personality test, called "TIPI" was introduced, evaluating all five traits by 2 items each on a 5-point likert scale, ranging from *"1 – Strongly disagree"* to *"5 – Strongly agree"*. Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism were measured by one direct and one reversed statement with which individuals were able to agree or disagree depending on whether – in their own opinion – these traits applied to them or not. For this very brief measure of personality the scale developed by Gosling, S. D., Rentfrow, P. J., & Swann Jr, W. B. (2003) was applied. All the previously introduced scales as well as those employed in the introductory and demographic questions can be found in Appendix A.

4.4.1 Validity & reliability

Even though, all the scales applied were the original or adapted versions of measures developed and regularly used by researchers in the fields of international marketing and social psychology, the preliminary analysis starts by testing the validity and reliability of scales built up by multiple items. As explained by Field (2013), the primary objective of this process is to keep the number of potentially arising measurement errors to the minimum. Validity shows the instrument's ability to measure what it is supposed to measure. Nevertheless, it is of great importance, that its reliability is a prerequisite for its validity. The reliability of an instrument means its consistency across diverse conditions. The most frequently used measurement to test whether a scale is reliable is the calculation of the Cronbach's Alpha, evaluating the variance within and the covariance between items. On a scale from 0 to 1, 0.8 can be considered as its ideal value, however values larger or equal to 0.7 are already acceptable (Field, 2013).

After collapsing all the data gathered in relation to the six analyzed tourism destinations, the reliability of the following multi item scales were examined: destination attitude

(negative vs positive opinion, bad vs good destination, dislike vs like the destination); warmth stereotypes (warm, friendly, kind, good-natured); competence stereotypes (capable, competent, efficient, intelligent); the emotions of admiration (admiration, pride); contempt (contempt, disgust); pity (pity, sympathy); envy (envy, jealousy); behavior intention of visiting ((re)visit, next visit); behavior of positive WOM (recommend to friend, family and close relatives) and behavior of negative WOM (talking negatively, warn others). Moreover, the "Big Five" personality traits were likewise tested: Openness to experience (open to new experiences and complex; conventional and uncreative), Conscientiousness (dependable and self-disciplined; disorganized and careless), Extraversion (extraverted and enthusiastic; reserved and quiet), Agreeableness (critical and quarrelsome; sympathetic and warm), Neuroticism (anxious and easily upset; calm and emotionally stable).

Scale	***Number of items***	***Cronbach's Alpha***	***Mean***
Attitude	3	0.852	3.973
Warmth	4	0.927	3.734
Competence	4	0.806	3.795
Admiration	2	0.659	2.920
Contempt	2	0.852	1.260
Pity	2 (1)	*-0.093*	2.468
Envy	2	0.811	1.574
Visit	2	0.722	2.885
Positive WOM	2	0.958	2.898
Negative WOM	2	0.819	1.290
Openness to experience	2 (1)	*0.438*	4.028
Conscientiousness	2	0.501	4.307
Extraversion	2	0.620	3.638
Agreeableness	2 (1)	*0.198*	2.090
Neuroticism	2	0.626	2.101

Table 1 – Reliability of multi item scales

As shown in the above summary table – despite the emotion of pity – all other scales received a satisfactory reliability value. Even the 0.659 reliability of admiration got accepted, since this element was only measured by 2 items. These results allowed to compute the various items of the variables into one overall variable. As an illustration, since the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.927 was calculated for the warmth scale, the 4 different items of warm, friendly, kind and good-natured were computed into an integrated variable measuring warmth. In case of pity, where the reliability did not reach an acceptable value,

a more detailed analysis was applied in order to find out which item need to be excluded from further examination. Results showed, that the pity scale need to be purified by the item of sympathy. Hence, the two items of pity and sympathy were not computed into an overall variable and the emotion of pity was measured by its own.

Moreover, since evaluated by 2 items, in case of the personality traits, values above 0.5 got accepted; therefore, openness to experience and agreeableness were only measured by their direct statements. The main personality trait extraversion received a satisfactory reliability of 0.620.

4.4.2 Correlation analysis

With the aim of finding out whether there is any relationship and if yes to what extend between the major variables of the research model, a bivariate correlation – testing the correlation between two variables (Field, 2013) – was conducted. Since the variables measuring stereotypes, emotions and behavioral responses are all metric ones, the most frequently used Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated, applicable for testing linear relationships. The value obtained, ranging from -1 to +1, reveals whether a relationship exist between two particular variables or not. As described by Field (2013), the former, negative value shows that if one variable increases the other one decreases by the same corresponding amount; whereas in case of the latter, positive value, if one variable increases the other one increases as well. Further, a value of ±.1 indicates a small effect (= weak relationship), a value of ±.3 a medium effect (= moderate relationship) and a value of ±.5 a large effect (= strong relationship) (Field, 2013).

As displayed in the following table, the majority of results were highly significant, nonetheless the values showed a rather weak or moderate relationship between most of the variables. As an illustration, both warmth and competence stereotypes revealed a positive, moderate relationship with the emotion of admiration. Warmth further showed a positive, moderate relationship with visit and positive WOM and a negative, moderate one with negative WOM; whilst competence only had a positive, weak relationship with visit and positive WOM and a negative, weak relationship with negative WOM. One of the few positive, strong relationships were shown between contempt and negative WOM; admiration and visit as well as admiration and positive WOM.

		Warmth	***Competence***	***Admiration***	***Contempt***	***Pity***	***Envy***	***Visit***	***Positive WOM***	***Negative***
Warmth	Pearson's r	1								
	Sign.	-								
Competence	Pearson's r	.177**	1							
	Sign.	.003	-							
Admiration	Pearson's r	.317**	.266**	1						
	Sign.	.000	.000	-						
Contempt	Pearson's r	-.307**	-.194**	-.049	1					
	Sign.	.000	.001	.414	-					
Pity	Pearson's r	-.070	-.143*	.110	.466**	1				
	Sign.	*.243*	.016	.066	.000	-				
Envy	Pearson's r	-.075	-.016	.132*	.334**	.267**	1			
	Sign.	*.206*	*.782*	.026	.000	.000	-			
Visit	Pearson's r	.312**	.164**	.395**	-.161**	-.026	.059	1		
	Sign.	.000	.006	.000	.006	*.661*	*.325*	-		
Positive WOM	Pearson's r	.377**	.147*	.406**	-.220**	-.043	-.012	.696**	1	
	Sign.	.000	.013	.000	.000	*.472*	*.836*	.000	-	
Negative WOM	Pearson's r	-.302**	-.179**	-.118*	.494**	.232**	.171**	-.146*	-.198**	1
	Sign.	.000	.002	.048	.000	.000	.004	.014	.001	-

Table 2 – Correlation analysis

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5 Presentation & analysis of results

This current chapter offers a comprehensive presentation of the whole data analysis process, by starting with the investigation of assumptions which need to be met before running further statistical analyses, followed by the detailed introduction of tests performed and concluding with the evaluation of results.

5.1 Statistical assumptions

The most critical prerequisite for performing effective data analysis and find reliable results is to test the key assumptions of methods used. In case of linear regression analysis – either running a simple regression with one dependent and one independent variable, or using a multiple regression with one dependent and two or more independent variables – the type of variables and the non-zero variance of the independent variable(s) need to be analyzed first. The former relate that both the independent and dependent variables should be quantitative, thus metric; whereas the dependent variable likewise need to be unbound, indicating its adequate variability. The latter, non-zero variance simply determines that the value of the independent variable(s) should vary (Field, 2013). Assumptions related to variable type and non-zero variance were met, making the variables suitable for further analysis. Moreover, before running a multiple linear regression the multicollinearity, autocorrelation and heteroscedasticity of the variables need to be examined as well (Field, 2013).

5.1.1 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs, when a strong correlation is detected between two or more independent variables. One of the most crucial assumptions of multiple regression is non-multicollinearity, hence there should neither exist a perfect linear relationship nor a too high correlation between the independent variables. The higher the collinearity, the less trustworthy the β- values are; the harder it is to determine the independent variables' individual importance and it also limits the size of R. Fortunately, there are several opportunities to test for multicollinearity. First, the researcher is able to analyze the correlation matrix of the independent variables to check for very high correlations, since a value above 0.7-0.8 is considered to be problematic (Field, 2013). Taking into account, that the correlation coefficient of warmth and competence stereotypes as independent

variables is .177 and those of the emotions admiration, contempt, pity and envy vary between -.049 and .466 – all being smaller than 0.7 – the prerequisite of non-multicollinearity was met. As a second option, in interest of finding out, whether a particular predictor variable has a strong linear relationship with other predictors, the variance inflation factor (VIF) can be calculated, in which case a value above 10 becomes sensitive. Ultimately, one is able to use tolerance statistics, known as the reciprocal of VIF, where values below 0.2 are problematic (Field, 2013). The following table summarizes the predictor variables' tolerance and VIF values, which reinforce the outcome of the correlation coefficient check about non-multicollinearity.

	Tolerance	***VIF***	***Average VIF***
Warmth	.969	1.032	1.032
Competence	.969	1.032	
Admiration	.956	1.046	1.232
Contempt	.720	1.388	
Pity	.756	1.323	
Envy	.856	1.169	

Table 3 – Multicollinearity statistics

5.1.2 Autocorrelation

Autocorrelation exists, if there is a correlation between the residuals of two or more predictor variables. In case of a multiple regression, it is essential that these residuals are uncorrelated, thus no autocorrelation occurs. In the vast majority of cases, the Durbin-Watson-test is applied to check for autocorrelation. Its value ranges from 0 to 4. A value around 2 is acceptable, meaning that the residuals do not correlate. A value below 1 or above 3 is problematic, since a value smaller than 2 shows a positive, whereas a value greater than 2 a negative correlation between the residuals (Field, 2013). As seen from the table below, since all the outcomes are close to 2, this assumption of multiple regression was likewise reached.

Independent variables	*Dependent variable*	*Durbin-Watson*
Warmth, Competence	Admiration	2.006
Warmth, Competence	Contempt	2.168
Warmth, Competence	Pity	2.103
Warmth, Competence	Envy	1.854
Warmth, Competence	Visit	1.917
Warmth, Competence	Positive WOM	2.016
Warmth, Competence	Negative WOM	2.117
Admiration, Contempt, Pity, Envy	Visit	1.969
Admiration, Contempt, Pity, Envy	Positive WOM	2.144
Admiration, Contempt, Pity, Envy	Negative WOM	2.031

Table 4 – Autocorrelation statistics

5.1.3 Heteroscedasticity

This phenomenon dominates, if the variances of residuals show inequality across the levels of independent variables. However, the prerequisite of multiple regression is that these residuals should be at the same variance, indicating homoscedasticity, likewise met in the present empirical study. The most frequent way of testing this assumption is graphically illustrating the standardized residuals (*ZRESID) against the standardized predicted values (*ZPRED). The result becomes problematic if the data points are dispersed like a 'funnel' on the graph (Field, 2013).

5.2 Data analysis and evaluation of the results

In interest of testing whether the formulated hypotheses were proved to be supported, different types of multiple linear regression analyses were performed. Firstly, simple multiple linear regressions were applied to test the effects of warmth and competence stereotypes on the emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy as well as on the behavioral intentions of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM. The same method was applied for investigating the influence of the two univalent and two ambivalent emotions on the three different behavioral responses.

Moderated multiple linear regression analyses were conducted in interest of testing the moderating effect of the personality trait extraversion between the emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy and the corresponding behavioral responses of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM.

Finally, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to test the predictive power of the proposed research model.

5.2.1 Multiple linear regression analysis

Multiple linear regression analyses were run with the purpose of identifying the influential power of two or more predictor variables on one independent variable.

The first multiple regression analysis was conducted to detect how much of the variance in the emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy is explained by the warmth and competence stereotypes. The results of the multiple regressions are summarized as follows:

	Standardized β coefficient	***p-value (1-tailed)***
Admiration		***R^2 = 14.6%***
Warmth	.278	.000
Competence	.217	.000
Contempt		***R^2 = 11.4%***
Warmth	-.281	.000
Competence	-.144	.006
Pity		***R^2 = 2.3%***
Warmth	-.046	*.224*
Competence	-.135	.013
Envy		***R^2 = 0.6%***
Warmth	-.075	*.109*
Competence	-.003	*.479*

Table 5 – Multiple linear regression: Stereotypes – Emotions

Findings show, that 14.6% of the variance in admiration is explained by warmth and competence. Both stereotypes (p_{warmth} = .000; $p_{competence}$ = .000) have a statistically significant, positive impact on admiration, whereas warmth (β_{warmth} = .278) has a stronger influence, than competence ($\beta_{competence}$ = .217). Hence, ***H_{1a}*** and ***H_{1b}*** get supported, since the higher the warmth and the competence stereotype, the greater the feeling of admiration. Besides, if warmth increases with 1 unit, admiration increases by .278; whilst if competence increases with 1 unit, admiration increases by .217.

Further, results reveal that 11.4% of the variance in contempt is explained by the two stereotypes. Both warmth (p_{warmth} = .000) and competence ($p_{competence}$ = .006) have a statistically significant, negative influence of contempt; while warmth (β_{warmth} = -.281) has a stronger effect, than competence ($\beta_{competence}$ = -.144). These results provide support for ***H_{1c}*** and ***H_{1d}***, considering that the higher the warmth and the competence stereotype, the lower the feeling of contempt.

2.3% of the variance in the emotion of pity is explained by the warmth and competence stereotypes. Nonetheless, warmth does not have a statistically significant impact on pity (β_{warmth} = -.046; p_{warmth}= .224) leading to the rejection of ***H_{1e}***. On the other hand, the effect of competence is statistically significant and has a negative direction ($p_{competence}$ = .013) with a β-value of -.135, indicating that if competence increases with 1 unit, pity decreases by .135. Thus, ***H_{1f}*** gets supported, because the higher the competence stereotype, the lower the feeling of pity.

In case of the fourth emotion of envy, no statistically significant effects of the stereotypes (p_{warmth} = .109; $p_{competence}$ = .479) were detected, bringing about the rejection of ***H_{1g}*** and ***H_{1h}***.

The same type of multiple regression was run to discover the effect size of the warmth and competence stereotypes on the behavioral outcomes of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM. The major results are shown in Table 6.

	Standardized β coefficient	***p-value (1-tailed)***
Visit		***R^2 = 11%***
Warmth	.293	.000
Competence	.112	.026
Positive WOM		***R^2 = 14.8%***
Warmth	.362	.000
Competence	.083	*.070*
Negative WOM		***R^2 = 10.8%***
Warmth	-.279	.000
Competence	-.130	.012

Table 6 – Multiple linear regression: Stereotypes – Behavior

Findings demonstrate that 11% of the variance in the behavioral intention of visiting a particular tourism destination is explained by the stereotypes of warmth and competence. Both have a statistically significant, positive influence on visit (p_{warmth} = .000; $p_{competence}$ = .026); nevertheless, the effect of warmth (β_{warmth} = .293) is more than twice as large as that of competence ($\beta_{competence}$ = .112). This demonstrate support for ***H_{2a}*** and ***H_{2b}***, since the higher the warmth and competence stereotype, the greater the intention to visit the destination.

14.8% of the variance in positive WOM is explained by the two stereotypes, however competence ($\beta_{competence}$ = .083; $p_{competence}$ = .070) does not; whereas warmth (β_{warmth} = .362; p_{warmth} = .000) does have a statistically significant, positive effect on positive

WOM. Hence, H_{2c} gets supported, whilst H_{2d} gets rejected. As an illustration, if warmth increases with 1 unit, the intention to positive WOM increases by .362.

In case of negative WOM, 10.8% of this outcome is explained by warmth and competence. They both have a statistically significant, negative influence ($p_{warmth} = .000$; $p_{competence} = .012$) on the behavioral intention of negative WOM. If competence and/or warmth increases with 1 unit, negative WOM decreases by -.130 and/or -.279. This outcome provides support for H_{2e} and H_{2f}, considering that the higher the warmth and competence stereotype, the lower the intention to negative WOM.

The final simple multiple regression analysis was carried out to determine the strength of the effect that the two univalent emotions of admiration and contempt and the two univalent emotions of pity and envy have on the behavioral responses. The standardized β- and p-values are summed up in the following table:

	Standardized β coefficient	***p-value (1-tailed)***
Visit		***R^2 = 18%***
Admiration	.380	.000
Contempt	-.159	.007
Pity	-.011	*.432*
Envy	.065	*.136*
Positive WOM		***R^2 = 20.5%***
Admiration	.395	.000
Contempt	-.206	.001
Pity	.009	*.440*
Envy	.002	*.488*
Negative WOM		***R^2 = 25.4%***
Admiration	-.099	.032
Contempt	.475	.000
Pity	.016	*.392*
Envy	.021	*.352*

Table 7 – Multiple linear regression: Emotions – Behavior

Among the behavioral intentions, 18% of the variance in visit; 20.5% of the variance in positive WOM and 25.4% of the variance in negative WOM is explained by the four emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy. By focusing on visit, the univalent emotion of admiration ($\beta_{admiration} = .380$; $p_{admiration} = .000$) shows a statistically significant, positive impact, providing support for H_{3a}, considering that the higher the feeling of admiration, the greater the intention to visit. The emotion of contempt reveals to have a statistically significant, negative impact ($\beta_{contempt} = -.159$; $p_{contempt} = .007$) on

the outcome variable of visit, supporting ***H3d***. In case of visit, neither pity (β_{pity} = -.011; p_{pity} = .432) nor envy (β_{envy} = .065; p_{envy} = .136) have a statistically significant influence, leading to the rejection of both ***H3g*** and ***H3j***.

In case of the behavioral intention to positive WOM, the feeling of admiration has a statistically significant, positive effect ($\beta_{admiration}$ = .395; $p_{admiration}$ = .000) on positive WOM, leading to the acceptance of ***H3b***; whereas the emotion of contempt shows a statistically significant, negative influence ($\beta_{contempt}$ = -.206; $p_{contempt}$ = .001) on the same outcome variable supporting ***H3e***, since the higher the feeling of contempt, the lower the intention to positive WOM. Similar to the case of visit, when focusing on positive WOM, the two ambivalent emotions of pity (β_{pity} = .009; p_{pity} = .440) and envy (β_{envy} = .002; p_{envy} = .488) do not have a statistically significant influence on the dependent variable, resulting in the rejection of ***H3h*** and ***H3k***.

Ultimately, by concentrating on the behavioral response of negative WOM, both univalent emotions have a statistically significant influence ($p_{admiration}$ = .032; $p_{contempt}$ = .000) on the outcome variable; however, admiration has a negative ($\beta_{admiration}$ = -.099), while contempt a positive impact ($\beta_{contempt}$ = .475). These findings demonstrate support for ***H3c*** and ***H3f***. Just like in case of the two other behavioral responses, the emotions of pity (β_{pity} = .016; p_{pity} = .392) and envy (β_{envy} = .021; p_{envy} = .352) do not reveal any significant effects on negative WOM either, bringing about the rejection of ***H3i*** and ***H3l***.

5.2.2 Moderated multiple linear regression

The aim to apply a moderated multiple linear regression is to investigate whether the moderator variable of extraversion makes an existing influential relationship between the emotions and behavioral intentions stronger or weaker. Prior the analysis, the moderator variable was computed by multiplying the personality trait extraversion with each and every of the four emotions. Thereafter, four different multiple linear regression analyses were conducted.

Firstly, it was investigated whether extraversion moderates the relationship between admiration and the three behavioral responses of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM. Findings in Table 8 reveal, that the variables of admiration, extraversion and the multiplication of the previous two variables explain 18.3% of the variance in visit; 17.4% of the variance in positive WOM and only 2% of the variance in negative WOM. A statistically significant interplay (p_{visit} = .003; $p_{positive\ WOM}$ = .047) can be found between

admiration and extraversion, delivering support for H_{4a} and H_{4b}, since the personality trait extraversion was proved to have a statistically significant, positive moderating effect on the relationship between admiration and the behavioral responses of visiting and talking positively about a particular tourism destination. With a standardized β coefficient of .153 for visit and .092 for positive WOM, one is able to determine, that the statistically significant, positive, moderate influence of admiration on visit as well as positive WOM will be significantly stronger if the traveller is extraverted.

In case of the relation between admiration and negative WOM, extraversion was not proved to have a statistically significant moderating effect ($p_{\text{negative WOM}} = .106$), leading to the rejection of H_{4c}.

	Standardized β coefficient	***p-value (1-tailed)***
Visit		***R^2 = 18.3%***
Admiration	.386	.000
Extraversion	.058	.147
Admiration_Extra	.153	.003
Positive WOM		***R^2 = 17.4%***
Admiration	.401	.000
Extraversion	.032	.282
Admiration_Extra	.092	.047
Negative WOM		***R^2 = 2%***
Admiration	-.112	.031
Extraversion	-.033	.289
Admiration_Extra	-.074	*.106*

Table 8 – Moderated multiple regression: Admiration – Extraversion – Behavior

The same moderated multiple linear regression analysis was run in case of the link between the emotion of contempt and the behavioral intentions of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM. Contempt, extraversion and their multiplication contempt_extra explained 4% of the variance in visit, 5.9% of the variance in positive WOM and 24.7% of the variance in negative WOM. However, in all cases, no significant interplay ($p_{\text{visit}} = .464$; $p_{\text{positive WOM}} = .219$; $p_{\text{negative WOM}} = .406$) was found between contempt and extraversion, resulting in the rejection of H_{4d}; H_{4e} and H_{4f}, since extraversion was not proved to be a significant moderator between contempt and the three behavioral responses of travellers toward a tourism destination.

	Standardized β coefficient	***p-value (1-tailed)***
Visit		***R^2 = 4%***
Contempt	-.161	.004
Extraversion	.117	.024
Contempt_Extra	-.005	*.464*
Positive WOM		***R^2 = 5.9%***
Contempt	-.220	.000
Extraversion	.093	.055
Contempt_Extra	-.045	*.219*
Negative WOM		***R^2 = 24.7%***
Contempt	.494	.000
Extraversion	-.048	.178
Contempt_Extra	.012	*.406*

Table 9 – Moderated multiple regression: Contempt – Extraversion – Behavior

By putting emphasis on the link between pity and visit, pity and positive WOM as well as pity and negative WOM, again no significant interplay was found between pity and extraversion (p_{visit} = .111; $p_{positive\ WOM}$ = .074; $p_{negative\ WOM}$ = .242), hence ***H_{4g}***; ***H_{4h}*** and ***H_{4i}*** get rejected, because extraversion is not seen as a significant moderator between the ambivalent emotion of pity and tourists' behavioral responses.

	Standardized β coefficient	***p-value (1-tailed)***
Visit		***R^2 = 2%***
Pity	-.026	.328
Extraversion	.118	.024
Pity_Extra	-.073	*.111*
Positive WOM		***R^2 = 1.8%***
Pity	-.043	.235
Extraversion	.094	.057
Pity_Extra	-.086	*.074*
Negative WOM		***R^2 = 5.8%***
Pity	.232	.000
Extraversion	-.051	.189
Pity_Extra	-.041	*.242*

Table 10 – Moderated multiple regression: Pity – Extraversion – Behavior

Finally, concentrating on the emotion of envy and its relationship with the behavioral intentions, one is able to identify, that the variables of envy, extraversion and their multiplication envy_extra explain only 1.8% of the variance in visit, 1.7% of the variance in positive WOM and 3.2% of the variance in negative WOM. Considering, that in case of all behavioral intentions no significant interplay (p_{visit} = .434; $p_{positive\ WOM}$ = .069;

$p_{\text{negative WOM}}$ = .359) between envy and extraversion was detected, ***H_{4j}***; ***H_{4k}*** and ***H_{4l}*** likewise receive rejection.

	Standardized β coefficient	***p-value (1-tailed)***
Visit		***R^2 = 1.8%***
Envy	.061	.154
Extraversion	.119	.024
Envy_Extra	-.010	*.434*
Positive WOM		***R^2 = 1.7%***
Envy	-.011	.428
Extraversion	.094	.072
Envy_Extra	-.088	*.069*
Negative WOM		***R^2 = 3.2%***
Envy	.170	.002
Extraversion	-.048	.208
Envy_Extra	-.021	*.359*

Table 11 – Moderated multiple regression: Envy – Extraversion – Behavior

5.2.3 Hierarchical multiple regression

Hierarchical multiple regression is a simple form of a multiple regression analysis, which allows the researcher to enter the predictor variables into the model in order of her choice (Field, 2013). The following method was applied as a concluding analysis in interest of finding out how the warmth and competence stereotypes together with the emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy explain the outcome variables of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM. The results are summarized as follows:

	Standardized β coefficient	***p-value (1-tailed)***
Visit		
Level 1		***R^2 = 11%***
Warmth	.293	.000
Competence	.112	.026
Level 2		***R^2 = 20.7%***
Warmth	.180	.002
Competence	.027	.321
Admiration	.318	.000
Contempt	-.101	.064
Pity	-.016	.398
Envy	.069	.119
Positive WOM		
Level 1		***R^2 = 14.8%***
Warmth	.362	.000
Competence	.083	.070

Level 2		***R^2 = 24.9%***
Warmth	.233	.000
Competence	-.008	.445
Admiration	.327	.000
Contempt	-.136	.018
Pity	-.002	.484
Envy	.008	.444
Negative WOM		
Level 1		***R^2 = 10.8%***
Warmth	-.279	.000
Competence	-.130	.012
Level 2		***R^2 = 27.5%***
Warmth	-.147	.005
Competence	-.058	.143
Admiration	-.039	.246
Contempt	.422	.000
Pity	.016	.392
Envy	.019	.366

Table 12 – Hierarchical multiple regression

By focusing on the behavioral intention of visiting a tourism destination, one is able to identify, that the warmth and competence stereotypes explained 11% of the variance is visit, however, by adding the emotional responses, the predictive power of the model almost doubled (R^2 = 20.7%).

In case of positive WOM, the stereotype dimensions accounted for 14.8% of the variance in the behavioral intention of talking positively about a particular tourism destination; whereas together with the emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy the explained variance in positive WOM increased by 10.1% resulting in an R^2 of 24.9%.

By concentrating on the third behavioral outcome of negative WOM, the most significant increase of the model's predictive power can be observed. While warmth and competence described 10.8% of the variance in negative WOM, by adding emotions to the model, the value of R^2 changed to 27.5%.

Conclusively, one is able to identify, that the proposed conceptual model explains the variance in travellers' positive and negative WOM about a particular tourism destination to a greater extent, then their behavioral intention toward visiting the destination.

5.2.4 Summary

The following conclusive table is dedicated to summarizing the outcomes of the multiple regression analyses along the formulated hypotheses.

Hypothesis	***Finding***
H_{1a}: The higher the warmth stereotype, the greater the feeling of admiration.	**sign.** (β=.278; p=.000)
H_{1b}: The higher the competence stereotype, the greater the feeling of admiration.	**sign.** (β=.217; p=.000)
H_{1c}: The higher the warmth stereotype, the lower the feeling of contempt.	**sign.** (β=-.281; p=.000)
H_{1d}: The higher the competence stereotype, the lower the feeling of contempt.	**sign.** (β=-.144; p=.006)
H_{1e}: The higher the warmth stereotype, the greater the feeling of pity.	**non-sign.**
H_{1f}: The higher the competence stereotype, the lower the feeling of pity.	**sign.** (β=-.135; p=.013)
H_{1g}: The higher the warmth stereotype, the lower the feeling of envy.	***non-sign.***
H_{1h}: The higher the competence stereotype, the greater the feeling of envy.	***non-sign.***
H_{2a}: The higher the warmth stereotype, the greater the intention to visit.	**sign.** (β=.293; p=.000)
H_{2b}: The higher the competence stereotype, the greater the intention to visit.	**sign.** (β=.112; p=.026)
H_{2c}: The higher the warmth stereotype, the greater the intention to positive WOM.	**sign.** (β=.362; p=.000)
H_{2d}: The higher the competence stereotype, the greater the intention to positive WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{2e}: The higher the warmth stereotype, the lower the intention to negative WOM.	**sign.** (β=-.130; p=.000)
H_{2f}: The higher the competence stereotype, the lower the intention to negative WOM.	**sign.** (β=-.279; p=.012)
H_{3a}: The higher the feeling of admiration, the greater the intention to visit.	**sign.** (β=.380; p=.000)
H_{3b}: The higher the feeling of admiration, the greater the intention to positive WOM.	**sign.** (β=.395; p=.000)
H_{3c}: The higher the feeling of admiration, the lower the intention to negative WOM.	**sign.** (β=-.099; p=.032)
H_{3d}: The higher the feeling of contempt, the lower the intention to visit.	**sign.** (β=-.159; p=.007)

H_{3e}: The higher the feeling of contempt, the lower the intention to positive WOM.	**sign.** (β=-.206; p=.001)
H_{3f}: The higher the feeling of contempt, the greater the intention to negative WOM.	**sign.** (β=.475; p=.000)
H_{3g}: The higher the feeling of pity, the lower the intention to visit.	***non-sign.***
H_{3h}: The higher the feeling of pity, the greater the intention to positive WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{3i}: The higher the feeling of pity, the lower the intention to negative WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{3j}: The higher the feeling of envy, the greater the intention to visit.	***non-sign.***
H_{3k}: The higher the feeling of envy, the lower the intention to positive WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{3l}: The higher the feeling of envy, the greater the intention to negative WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{4a}: Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between admiration and visit.	**sign.** (β=.153; p=.003)
H_{4b}: Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between admiration and positive WOM.	**sign.** (β=.092; p=.047)
H_{4c}: Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between admiration and negative WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{4d}: Extraversion negatively moderates the relationship between contempt and visit.	***non-sign.***
H_{4e}: Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between contempt and positive WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{4f}: Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between contempt and negative WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{4g}: Extraversion negatively moderates the relationship between pity and visit.	***non-sign.***
H_{4h}: Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between pity and positive WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{4i}: Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between pity and negative WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{4j}: Extraversion negatively moderates the relationship between envy and visit.	***non-sign.***
H_{4k}: Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between envy and positive WOM.	***non-sign.***
H_{4l}: Extraversion positively moderates the relationship between envy and negative WOM.	***non-sign.***

Table 13 – Summary of the results

6 Discussion

In accordance with the foregoing sections, the present chapter is devoted to put the findings of the empirical research into context with the existing international marketing and tourism management literature. After supporting why, the Stereotype Content Model is considered to be a suitable tool for tourism destination image analysis, the primary results regarding the influence of warmth and competence stereotypes and emotions on touristic behavior are being discussed. Beyond thoroughly reviewing the main effects of the study, a further interpretation is provided about how the personality trait extraversion moderates the link between tourists' emotional and behavioral responses.

As articulated in the literature review, analyzing the image of a tourism destination from the perspective of country stereotypes represent a shortage in theory and practice (Chen et al., 2016). But why is this the case?

The idea emphasizing that images and stereotypes embody similar concepts under different names was introduced already decades ago by researchers like Bennett (1998), determining that at the time of generalizing images, individuals are creating stereotypes; whereas Alexander et al. (1999) claimed that images can be considered as stereotypes in an organized way.

Concentrating on more precise approaches, where the concepts of image and stereotype already apply to a particular country, Kotler and Gertner (2004, p. 42) explained, that *"most country images are stereotypes, extreme simplifications of the reality that are not necessarily accurate"*. Further, the research done by Lehtonen in 2005 emphasized that many country image studies are based on simple country stereotype examinations.

Simultaneously with linking country image to country stereotype on a definitional basis; over the past years, a notable number of studies – Elliot & Papadopoulos, 2016; Elliot et al., 2011; Nadeau et al., 2008; Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015 – addressed the idea to connect the phenomenon of country image, country of origin or product country image with that of tourism destination image. The notion of Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) underscoring that country image not only influence the evaluation of originating products, but at the same time tourist visits might also be affected by the image of the country is an important aspect. It stresses out, that country image might have an impact on whether travellers decide for or against visiting a particular country for the purpose of tourism. In line with the foregoing, authors such as Nadeau and colleagues (2008) or Zeugner-Roth

and Žabkar (2015) to mention a few, invested considerable effort to relate the image of a country and that of a tourism destination from a theoretical and practical point of view. The majority of conceptual models created to measure country of origin image and tourism destination image under a broader country image context were based on the so-called attitude theory (Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999). This explains – building on the cognitive-affective nature of images – that such cognitive and affective images of a country have a significant impact on consumers' behavioral intentions (Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015).

At about the same time, Fiske and her colleagues (2002) developed the theory of the Stereotype Content Model in interest of analyzing social perceptions and their consequences. Considering, that the SCM suggests that stereotypes induce certain emotions and cause behavior (Aaker et al., 2012), this concept can be also perceived as having a cognitive-affective structure. Stereotypes seen as the cognitive beliefs about the country and its people (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999); while emotions as the feelings raised by this knowledge (Kim & Richardson, 2003; San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008). Moreover, besides analyzing social groups, the SCM was successfully employed to investigate stereotypes toward European nationalities (Cuddy et al., 2009). The correlation between images and stereotypes; the linkage by their cognitive-affective nature together with the SCM's application to study European country stereotypes brought about the viewpoint to test the relevance of the Stereotype Content Model in a tourism management research setting. This facilitated to explore the concept's suitability to investigate stereotypes, emotions and behavioral intentions toward European countries as tourism destinations.

The primary notion of the SCM emphasizes warmth and competence stereotypes' influence on consumers emotional and behavioral responses. In interest of testing the stereotypes' effect on the emotional outcomes a simple multiple linear regression analysis was conducted. In regard to theory, warmth and competence stereotypes are considered to be significant predictors of both the univalent emotions of admiration and contempt as well as the ambivalent emotions of pity and envy (Cuddy et al., 2008). Whilst univalent emotions are induced by stereotypes being equally high or low on the warmth and the competence dimensions; ambivalent emotions are generated by stereotypes being higher on the one dimension, than on the other. The univalent positive feeling of admiration is elicited by high warmth and high competence stereotypes; whereas low warmth and low

competence perceptions evoke the univalent negative emotion of contempt (Fiske et al., 2002). Expectation related to stereotypes' statistically significant impact on univalent emotions got supported by studies using the SCM for analyzing social groups, European countries and brands (Cuddy et al., 2009). This connection was confirmed by the current empirical study as well, underscoring that the higher the warmth and competence stereotype, the greater the feeling of admiration. On the contrary, the finding that the higher the warmth and competence stereotype the lower the feeling of contempt was similarly supporting theory and is in line with prior research outcomes. Apart from univalent emotions, ambivalent feelings are likewise assumed to be significantly affected by stereotypical perceptions. High warmth but low competence stereotypes give rise to the ambivalent emotion of pity; whereas low warmth but high competence perceptions elicit the ambivalent feeling of envy (Fiske et al., 2002; Cuddy et al., 2008; Kervyn et al., 2012). While in case of brands, societal groups or countries this association was proved (Cuddy et al., 2009); the present research has not verified theory, consequently future research is required to explain this outcome.

Results with reference to the significant influence of warmth and competence on the univalent emotions of admiration and contempt are further in line with Baloglu and McCleary's (1999) impression, that cognition and affect are interrelated factors; while affect is greatly depending on cognition. Moreover, by focusing on image theory, cognitive images are seen as qualifiers (Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015); reflecting tourists' opinion about functional elements such as attractions or the infrastructure (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991), along with abstract ones like the atmosphere of a place (San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008). Considering, that the current results revealed stereotypes to be significant predictors of univalent emotions pointing into a positive or a negative direction; marketers are able to enhance the warmth and competence dimensions of destinations by adding extra information to already existing stereotypes e.g. exceptional hospitality and flawlessly functioning infrastructure, which will evoke admiration in travellers.

Beyond revealing stereotypes' notable effect on emotions, a further multiple regression analysis was performed to observe their influence on the behavioral outcome variables. As known from image theory, the conative component of destination image, describing tourists' decision to (re)visit (Chon, 1999) or recommend the destination to others (Nadeau et al., 2008) is highly affected by cognitive images. Similarly, according to the

SCM theory, stereotypes are identified as fundamental drivers of behavior (Aaker et al., 2012). With respect to their remarkable influence on behavioral intentions, Phillips and Jang (2007) stresses out, that the more positive (negative) individuals' perceptions and beliefs are, the more favorable (unfavorable) their behavioral intentions will be. Thus, in the present context, the warmer (colder) and more competent (incompetent) the tourism destination is perceived by travellers, the more likely they will visit and express their positive (negative) opinion about the destination to others. The current empirical findings verify the above-mentioned theoretical approaches, since both stereotypes were revealed to be significant predictors of visit and negative WOM; while the behavioral outcome of positive WOM was significantly affected by the warmth but not by the competence stereotype dimension. Weiermair & Fuchs' reasoning (2000), that individuals enter a touristic situation with a unique mindset, in which they are potentially rather inspired by warmth then by competence characteristics and intuitions when recommending a particular tourism destination might serve as an explanation for this exception.

Travellers' emotions of admiration, contempt, pity and envy were not only seen as outcome variables depending on warmth and competence stereotypes, but also as predictors of touristic behavior tested by a subsequent multiple regression analysis. By focusing on this link between tourists emotional and behavioral responses, the findings of the present empirical study identified the univalent emotions of admiration and contempt as significant indicators of the intention to visit the tourism destination and communicate positivity and negativity about it to others. Past research building on images' cognitive-affective nature highlights, that besides cognitions' impact, affective images are also assumed to have a significant influence on behavior (Phillips & Jang, 2007). Furthermore, prior studies applying the Stereotype Content Model similarly emphasize emotions remarkable impact on behavioral responses (Fiske et al., 2002; Aaker et al., 2012). Nevertheless, while the SCM expects both univalent and ambivalent emotions to affect behavior, the present study has not revealed any statistically significant impact of the ambivalent emotions of pity and envy on any of the behavioral intentions, neither favorable nor unfavorable. Consequently, one is able to determine, that clear feelings are much more decisive in the context of tourism destinations, than those characterized by ambiguity. Travellers admiring a particular destination are always ready to visit and recommend the destination; while keeping off any negativity. On the other

hand, when feeling contempt, tourists are hold back from visiting and expressing positivity; and tend to communicate a rather negative opinion about the given destination.

As a twist, and considering that the personality of an individual might influence various emotional and behavioral areas of life (Carver & Scheier, 2008), the personality trait extraversion was embodied in the conceptual model of the present master thesis presuming its moderating effect between tourists' emotional and behavioral responses toward tourism destinations. The choice of extraversion out of the "Big Five" personality traits can be explained by its high recognizability (Pappas, 2017), its frequent connection to leisure activities including travelling (Barnett, 2006), in addition to its positive relation to consumer behavior (Matzler et al., 2006) and to positive emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1980). The findings of the thesis gained through a moderated multiple regression analysis entirely confirm the previous notions, since the personality trait extraversion was found to be a significant moderator between the clearly positive emotion of admiration and the favorable behavioral intentions of visiting a tourism destination together with talking positively about it to others, indicating positive WOM. Thereby, it is empirically proved that the statistically significant positive influence of admiration on the outcome variables of visit and positive WOM is even stronger if the traveller is considered as an extrovert. This is due to the fact, that the characteristics of adventuresome and highly motivated to learn and experience reinforce the admiration felt, which encourages the tourists even more to visit the tourism destination. In addition, further typicalities of extroverts, such as expressive and sociable strengthen travellers' tendency to recommend the destination via positive WOM.

Even though, existing theory has not revealed similar findings so far, the present study also investigated whether the moderation of extraversion is able to reduce the impact of negative emotions and support travellers to overcome potentially ambiguous feelings, before acting for or against a particular tourism destination. In case of the univalent negative emotion of contempt the reason for this assumption was that attributed to their adventurous and sociable personality, tourists would be able to overwhelm the hostile feeling of contempt. Concentrating on the ambivalent emotions of pity and envy, extroverts' expressive and spontaneous character was expected to boost travellers motivation to conquer their emotional ambiguity. Nonetheless, the performed analysis has not provided breakthrough results, since extraversion was not proved to be a significant moderator shifting negative and ambiguous emotions' impact on behavior.

7 Conclusion

Social media sites, friends' recommendations, promotion campaigns, previous experiences, beliefs, feelings, values, motivation, personality and the list of factors influencing to a lesser or greater extent the image of a tourism destination in the minds of travellers is almost endless. The phenomenon of destination image is defined as *"the sum of beliefs, ideas and impression that a person has of a destination"* (Crompton, 1979, p. 18). Due to its complexity, multi-dimensional and continuously changing nature (Wang & Pizam, 2011) as well as versatile existing research approaches (Elliot et al., 2011), it is highly challenging for theory to draw meaningful conclusions and for practice to use successful destination image analysis.

The ultimate goal of applying the Stereotype Content Model in a tourism management context was to approach the tourism destination image concept from a country stereotype perspective. Thereby, major scientific findings have been produced about how stereotypes and emotions play a role in tourists' decision-making processes and how powerful their influence is on behavioral responses. Even more, it was discovered, that due to their stability and naturally country-specific nature, well-maintained stereotypes about a country as a tourism destination might be suitable to represent a long-term distinguishing factor for destination marketing practitioners, operating in the highly competitive marketplace of modern tourism.

The upcoming chapter covers further theoretical and managerial implications apart from dealing with the study's limitations and potential future research directions.

7.1 Scientific & practical significance

7.1.1 Theoretical implications

The findings of the present empirical study – acquired by applying the Stereotype Content Model in the context of tourism – extend and collaborate the research fields of international marketing and tourism management, by shedding light on how and to what extent warmth and competence stereotypes along with univalent and ambivalent emotions influence touristic behavior. Besides, further results were obtained about how travellers' extraversion moderates the effect of the above-mentioned univalent and ambivalent emotions on the behavioral outcomes of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM regarding tourism destinations.

While the SCM concept has been widely used to investigate stereotypical perceptions and emotions giving rise to diverse behavioral responses, such as in the context of societal ingroups, brands and European countries (Cuddy et al., 2008); the present study is a pioneer in its application to analyze tourism destination images.

The Stereotype Content Model suggests that the combination of the two fundamental dimensions of perceived warmth and competence stereotypes induce four specific emotions: admiration, contempt, pity and envy (Fiske et al., 2002; Cuddy et al., 2008). While high warmth and high competence stereotypes evoke the univalent emotion of admiration; low warmth and low competence stereotypes elicit the similarly univalent emotion of contempt (Fiske et al., 2002). The performed analysis confirmed and broaden this understanding, since the warmth and competence stereotype dimensions were found to be significant predictors of the arousal of univalent emotions toward tourism destinations. Hence, these outcomes indicate, that a continuous increase on both the warmth and the competence stereotype dimensions facilitate the emergence of the positive feeling of admiration and prevent the awakening of the negative feeling of contempt. The SCM concept further stresses out, that besides univalent emotions, ambivalent emotions are also generated by the dimensions of warmth and competence perceptions. High warmth and low competence stereotypes induce the ambivalent emotion of pity; whereas low warmth and high competence stereotypes evoke the ambivalent emotion of envy (Fiske et al., 2002; Cuddy et al., 2008). Despite theoretical foundations, in the vast majority of cases, the current research has not shown warmth and competence stereotypes to be significant predictors of the ambivalent emotions of pity and envy.

The study further shows the importance of applying the SCM in interest of investigating the stereotype dimensions' remarkable effect on the behavioral responses of visit, positive WOM and negative WOM. As already stated earlier – besides predicting emotions – warmth and competence stereotypes similarly push consumer behavior (Aaker et al., 2012). Additionally, while positive perceptions induce favorable behavioral intentions; negative beliefs and stereotypes result in unfavorable behavioral outcomes (Phillips & Jang, 2007). Similar to prior research findings, the present empirical study also demonstrated, that warmth and competence stereotypes are significant predictors of travellers' behavior. The higher a tourism destination scored on the warmth and competence dimensions, the higher the intention of tourists was to visit and talk positively

about the destination and the lower their intention to express their negative opinion about the destination to other individuals. Thereby, it seems that increasing the warmth and competence perceptions toward a country as a tourism destination encourage travellers to behave in more favorable ways and discourage them from unfavorable behavioral responses.

Further empirical outcomes considering emotions significant influence on behavior likewise deserve attention. In addition to emotions steadily increasing importance in consumer behavior (Bigné et al., 2008); the Stereotype Content Model similarly underlines that behavioral responses are induced by emotions (Aaker et al., 2012). Based on the present research findings, it can be implied, that the univalent emotions of admiration and contempt can; whilst the ambivalent emotions of pity and envy cannot be seen as significant predictors of touristic behavior. Hence, favorable behavioral outcomes can be achieved by increasing the purely positive feeling of admiration and decreasing the entirely negative feeling of contempt.

Ultimately, employing the personality trait extraversion as moderating the emotional dimensions' predictive power on the behavioral outcomes, the study has a further theoretical contribution in relation to social psychology. In line with previous findings from Costa & McCrae, 1980 and Matzler et al., 2006; extraversion was shown to be positively related to positive emotions and to favorable behavioral responses. The study confirms that, travellers' extraversion strengthens the significant positive effect of the purely positive feeling of admiration on the favorable behavioral outcomes of visit and positive WOM regarding tourism destinations. Consequently, the emotion of admiration felt toward a tourism destination encourages the behavioral intentions of visit and positive WOM even more, if the traveller is extraverted.

7.1.2 Managerial implication

In addition to their theoretical importance, the findings of the present master thesis have significant implications for marketers specialized in the field of destination management.

As it has already been pointed out in the previous chapters, these days tourists are exposed to loads of information originating from many different sources about tourism destinations. Besides, obviously, personal and psychological factors also shape their image formation and decision-making processes. Therefore, it is of decisive importance for destination management organizations to regularly monitor and evaluate how the destination is perceived by potential tourists. Such research activities allow destination marketers to receive a clear and deep understanding about the images existing in first-time as well as returning travellers' minds about the destination. By comparing these images with the ones, the DMOs would officially like to promote create a more comfortable and strategically favorable way of choosing those components of the destination image on which the greatest emphasis should be put in marketing and communication activities. These actions serve the primary purpose of differentiating the destination from objectively similar others, offering comparable attractions and experiences. Considering, that despite of images constantly changing nature (Wang & Pizam, 2011), stereotypes are seen as rather stable in the long run (Hilton & von Hippel, 1996), well-maintained stereotypes about a country as a tourism destination can be suitable to represent a long-term distinguishing factor and competitive advantage in destination marketing. If a destination is equally characterized by warm and competent traits, the particular DMO is very likely to have a thoughtful and well-grounded strategy and successful marketing concept. Nonetheless, the regular monitoring and continuous generation of creative ideas is still essential in order to enrich the destination portfolio to attract loyal and new visitors. For a tourism destination dominated by rather warmth perceptions is advisable to capitalize on this dimension and further stress the warmth of it and to seek to enhance the competence dimension of its cognitive image by focusing on qualitative factors such as infrastructural and service conditions. Adding extra quality to the warmth atmosphere and experience can rise the number of tourist arrivals to the destination. On the contrary, destinations with highest competence characteristics need to emphasize and optimize the warmth perceptions by developing more guest centered services and by showing locals welcoming attitude toward travellers. Ultimately, new or less developed destinations viewed as having shortcomings on the warmth as well as on

the competence stereotype dimensions should proportionately increase their warmth and competence perceptions at the same time, with a slightly greater emphasis on the warmth characteristics. This is advisable, considering that individuals as tourists are more open and forgiving than in other purchase situations. Travellers enter touristic decision-making processes with a unique mindset. In order to gain new experiences, to get to know cultures and see extraordinary attractions they are more willing to turn a blind eye on e.g. service failures or pourer infrastructural quality (Weiermair & Fuchs, 2000), which is linked to competence perceptions.

Emotions growing importance in consumer behavior and affects significant role in tourist experiences at the destination put to the fore the priority of creating official promotion campaigns that address tourists emotionally with scenarios they are able to easily identify themselves. As an example, the destination marketing strategy of Slovenia might be mentioned, with the "***I feel*** S***love***nia" concept combining all areas of tourism with the mix of emotions, sensibility and pleasure (Slovenian Tourist Board, 2017). Hence, in order to increase the number of tourist arrivals at a destination, to encourage travellers to express their positive experiences and opinions about it and to avoid negative WOM, DMOs need to focus on arousing purely positive emotions in tourists, such as the currently analyzed univalent emotion of admiration. Conversely, destination marketers need to prevent the occurrence of negative emotions like contempt, since such feelings are able to significantly weaken the image of a destination and lead to unfavorable touristic behavior.

A further practical suggestion deals with market segmentation and target group selection. At this point, it is fundamental to put special focus on the group of first-time visitors, having no previous experience at the destination, since they are mostly affected by the determinative and influencing power of stereotypes, beliefs and images. Hence, since plenty of information sources are not under the direct supervision of DMOs, it is even more essential to develop an official and comprehensive marketing strategy on point. Additionally, the insights about how different tourist personalities perceive the destination might support marketers to establish a wider portfolio of products appealing to the dissimilar interests of travellers. Since, if tourists return satisfied from the destination, with experiences which even exceed their expectations, they are very likely to return as loyal visitors and through their positive WOM they might further encourage others to visit the destination raising the number of first-time visitors.

7.2 Limitations & future research directions

Even through the findings of this thesis brought about several attractive suggestions and ideas from a theoretical and managerial perspective, it is essential to note its limitations and to provide ideas for future research directions.

First of all, it is worth to consider, that the final sample of the study is characterized by an unequal distribution of gender. Only 24% of the respondents were male, all other participants were female. This might be explained by the potentially higher interest of women in the topic of travelling. According to the Harvard Business Review (2009), women make 92% of the purchase decisions, when it comes to a vacation destination. The gender-related differences were statistically proved by adding gender as a control variable to the model, showing significant differences between men and women in case of the behavioral outcomes of visit and negative WOM.

This notion can be immediately linked to an upcoming research direction addressing the idea, why men and women think and act dissimilarly when it comes to the purchase decision about high involvement tourism products and when giving voice to complaints and negative opinions about particular tourism destinations.

Additional future research might investigate the Stereotype Content Model in a similar tourism related context, however by focusing on other European countries as tourism destinations during the analyses. In addition, it might be on the one hand challenging but at the same time very interesting to concentrate on non-European destinations as well. Under this focus, economic superpowers such as Japan, China and the USA could be among the investigated destinations, considering that factors other than explored here might play an equally important role in determining behavior. The choice of other tourism destinations raises the significance of extending the existing conceptual model with further control and/or moderating variables, which might lead to additional findings worthy of attention. Such variables may include tourists perceived risk, risk aversion and uncertainty if they need to make a decision about their behavioral responses toward tourism destinations with political, social or natural treats. Therewith, travelling to a distant tourism destination likewise bring about the necessity of more time investment and raises monetary costs, considering a long-lasting journey with a lot of expenses. Beyond these factors and the “Big Five” personality traits, expanding the model with control variables or moderators such as tourists’ characteristics of cosmopolitanism or

ethnocentrism might also provide interesting results. While ethnocentric individuals *"reject persons who are culturally dissimilar while blindly accepting those who are culturally like themselves"* (Booth, 1979; Worchel & Cooper, 1979 in Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280); consumer cosmopolitanism shows among others "open-mindedness towards foreign countries and cultures" (Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998 in Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2012, p. 287). In reference to the foregoing, future research might deal with the questions, whether ethnocentrism hinder and cosmopolitanism highly boost individuals to travel abroad in order to discover new countries and to experience new cultures.

Conclusively, as touched upon previously, the present empirical research examined the variation between warmth and competence stereotypes, thus the outcomes of the between-subject design investigating the warmth and competence dimensions of Spain, Italy, Austria, Finland, Germany and the UK were merged together into respondents' overall stereotype perceptions. Nevertheless, analyzing the results destination by destination – distinguishing between LW-HC; HW-LC and equally warm and competent ones – a future study might provide further insights on emotional responses. Thereby, the feeling of pity – elicited by HW-LC stereotypes; and the emotion of envy – induced by LW-HC stereotypes (Fiske et al., 2002), which generation and effect might have been lost due to the overall analysis of the six tourism destinations would also get visible by choosing a certain combination of warmth and competence stereotypes.

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Appendix

Appendix A. – English questionnaire

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1. How often do you go on holiday?

- ☐ Less than once a year
- ☐ Once a year
- ☐ 2-3 times a year
- ☐ 3+

2. How important are the following criteria in your choice of a tourism destination?

	Very unimportant				Very important
Experiencing a new culture and increasing your knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
Local cuisine and new dishes.	1	2	3	4	5
Interesting and friendly local people.	1	2	3	4	5
Discovering new climate, landscape and nature.	1	2	3	4	5
Having some rest, getting pleasure from a calm and relaxing atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5
Enjoying various leisure and fun activities.	1	2	3	4	5

3. With whom do you usually go on holiday?

- ☐ Alone
- ☐ With partner/spouse
- ☐ With family
- ☐ With friends and relatives
- ☐ Other, please specify:_____

4. On which of the following sources do you rely the most when making a decision about your next holiday destination?

- ☐ Official homepage
- ☐ Family & friends
- ☐ Travel blogs
- ☐ Social Media
- ☐ Travel websites (TripAdvisor)
- ☐ Other, please specify:_____

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5. How many times have you been to Spain/Italy/Austria/Finland/Germany/the UK as a tourist?

- No previous visit
- 1-2 times
- 3-4 times
- 4+

6. In your opinion how familiar are you with the tourism destination Spain /Italy/ Austria/ Finland/ Germany/ the UK?

Not at all familiar	1 2 3 4 5	Very familiar

7. What is your overall attitude toward Spain / Italy/ Austria/ Finland/ Germany/ the UK as a tourism destination?

Negative	1 2 3 4 5	Positive
It is a bad tourism destination	1 2 3 4 5	It is a good tourism destination
I don't like this tourism destination	1 2 3 4 5	I like this tourism destination

8. Most people see the Spanish/Italians/Austrians/Finns/Germans/British as:

Not capable	1 2 3 4 5	Capable
Not competent	1 2 3 4 5	Competent
Not efficient	1 2 3 4 5	Efficient
Not intelligent	1 2 3 4 5	Intelligent
Not warm	1 2 3 4 5	Warm
Not friendly	1 2 3 4 5	Friendly
Not kind	1 2 3 4 5	Kind
Not good-natured	1 2 3 4 5	Good-natured

9. To what extend do you tend to feel the following emotions toward Spain / Italy/ Austria/ Finland/ Germany/ the UK as a tourism destination?

	Not at all				Extremely
Pity	1	2	3	4	5
Sympathy	1	2	3	4	5
Contempt	1	2	3	4	5
Disgust	1	2	3	4	5
Admiration	1	2	3	4	5
Pride	1	2	3	4	5
Envy	1	2	3	4	5
Jealousy	1	2	3	4	5

10. To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
It is very likely, that I will (re)visit the tourism destination Spain / Italy/ Austria/ Finland/ Germany/ the UK in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
Next time I will go on holiday, I will choose Spain / Italy/ Austria/ Finland/ Germany/ the UK as my tourism destination.	1	2	3	4	5

11. How likely is it, that…

	Not at all				Extremely
…you would recommend Spain/ Italy/ Austria/ Finland/ Germany/ the UK if your friend would look for a tourism destination?	1	2	3	4	5
…you would recommend Spain/ Italy/ Austria/ Finland/ Germany/ the UK if you would help your family, close relatives to make a decision on their next tourism destination?	1	2	3	4	5
…you would talk negatively about Spain/ Italy/ Austria/ Finland/ Germany/ the UK as a tourism destination?	1	2	3	4	5
… you would warn others not to visit Spain/ Italy/ Austria/ Finland/ Germany/ the UK as a tourist.	1	2	3	4	5

The following statements are related to your personality.

12. I see myself as:

	Strongly disagree				**Strongly agree**
Extraverted, enthusiastic.	1	2	3	4	5
Critical, quarrelsome.	1	2	3	4	5
Dependable, self-disciplined.	1	2	3	4	5
Anxious, easily upset.	1	2	3	4	5
Open to new experiences, complex.	1	2	3	4	5
Reserved, quiet.	1	2	3	4	5
Sympathetic, warm.	1	2	3	4	5
Disorganized, careless.	1	2	3	4	5
Calm, emotionally stable.	1	2	3	4	5
Conventional, uncreative.	1	2	3	4	5

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13. Gender:

- □ Female
- □ Male

14. Age:

- □ 18-24
- □ 25-34
- □ 35-44
- □ 45-54
- □ 55-64
- □ 65+

15. Nationality:

- □ Hungarian
- □ Other, please specify:_____

16. Residence:

- □ Capital
- □ City
- □ Rural area
- □ Other, please specify:_____

17. Education:

- □ Elementary school
- □ Secondary technical school
- □ High school
- □ Bachelor
- □ Master
- □ Other, please specify:_____

18. Monthly income:

- □ Less than 100.000 HUF
- □ 100-200.000 HUF
- □ 200-300.000 HUF
- □ More than 300.000 HUF

19. Marital status:

- □ Single (never married)
- □ Married
- □ Divorced
- □ Widowed
- □ Other, please specify:_____

20. Do you have children?

- □ Yes (please specify how many children you have):_____
- □ No

Appendix B. – SPSS Output

Multiple linear regression

Warmth, Competence: Admiration

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,382[a]	,146	,140	,87064	,146	23,891	2	280	,000	2,006

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Dependent Variable: Admiration

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	36,219	2	18,110	23,891	,000[b]
	Residual	212,242	280	,758		
	Total	248,461	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Admiration

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,575	,356		1,616	,107					
	Warmth	,308	,062	,278	4,959	,000	,317	,284	,274	,969	1,032
	Competence	,314	,081	,217	3,859	,000	,266	,225	,213	,969	1,032

a. Dependent Variable: Admiration

Warmth, Competence: Contempt

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,338[a]	,114	,108	,57814	,114	18,057	2	280	,000	2,168

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Dependent Variable: Contempt

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	12,071	2	6,036	18,057	,000[b]
	Residual	93,590	280	,334		
	Total	105,661	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Contempt

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,537	,236		10,731	,000					
	Warmth	-,203	,041	-,281	-4,917	,000	-,307	-,282	-,277	,969	1,032
	Competence	-,137	,054	-,144	-2,528	,012	-,194	-,149	-,142	,969	1,032

a. Dependent Variable: Contempt

Appendix

Warmth, Competence: Pity

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,150[a]	,023	,016	,868	,023	3,227	2	280	,041	2,103

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Dependent Variable: Pity

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4,859	2	2,429	3,227	,041[b]
	Residual	210,809	280	,753		
	Total	215,668	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Pity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,308	,355		6,503	,000					
	Warmth	-,047	,062	-,046	-,759	,448	-,070	-,045	-,045	,969	1,032
	Competence	-,183	,081	-,135	-2,251	,025	-,143	-,133	-,133	,969	1,032

a. Dependent Variable: Pity

Warmth, Competence: Envy

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,076[a]	,006	-,001	,85621	,006	,803	2	280	,449	1,854

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Dependent Variable: Envy

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1,177	2	,588	,803	,449[b]
	Residual	205,265	280	,733		
	Total	206,442	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Envy

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,873	,350		5,348	,000					
	Warmth	-,076	,061	-,075	-1,236	,217	-,075	-,074	-,074	,969	1,032
	Competence	-,004	,080	-,003	-,053	,958	-,016	-,003	-,003	,969	1,032

a. Dependent Variable: Envy

Appendix

Warmth, Competence: Visit

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,331[a]	,110	,103	1,06390	,110	17,269	2	280	,000	1,917

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Dependent Variable: Visit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	39,092	2	19,546	17,269	,000[b]
	Residual	316,926	280	1,132		
	Total	356,018	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,697	,435		1,601	,111					
	Warmth	,388	,076	,293	5,107	,000	,312	,292	,288	,969	1,032
	Competence	,195	,100	,112	1,956	,051	,164	,116	,110	,969	1,032

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

Warmth, Competence: Positive WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,385[a]	,148	,142	1,12008	,148	24,409	2	280	,000	2,016

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	61,246	2	30,623	24,409	,000[b]
	Residual	351,282	280	1,255		
	Total	412,528	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,379	,458		,828	,408					
	Warmth	,517	,080	,362	6,458	,000	,377	,360	,356	,969	1,032
	Competence	,155	,105	,083	1,479	,140	,147	,088	,082	,969	1,032

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

Appendix

Warmth, Competence: Negative WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,328[a]	,108	,101	,64677	,108	16,867	2	280	,000	2,117

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	14,111	2	7,056	16,867	,000[b]
	Residual	117,129	280	,418		
	Total	131,240	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,649	,265		10,015	,000					
	Warmth	-,225	,046	-,279	-4,861	,000	-,302	-,279	-,274	,969	1,032
	Competence	-,137	,061	-,130	-2,266	,024	-,179	-,134	-,128	,969	1,032

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

Admiration, Contempt, Pity, Envy: Visit

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,424[a]	,180	,168	1,02495	,180	15,225	4	278	,000	1,969

a. Predictors: (Constant), Envy, Admiration, Pity, Contempt

b. Dependent Variable: Visit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	63,975	4	15,994	15,225	,000[b]
	Residual	292,042	278	1,051		
	Total	356,018	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Envy, Admiration, Pity, Contempt

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,813	,245		7,392	,000					
	Admiration	,454	,067	,380	6,834	,000	,395	,379	,371	,956	1,046
	Contempt	-,293	,117	-,159	-2,492	,013	-,161	-,148	-,135	,720	1,388
	Pity	-,014	,080	-,011	-,173	,863	-,026	-,010	-,009	,756	1,323
	Envy	,085	,077	,065	1,101	,272	,059	,066	,060	,856	1,169

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

Appendix

Admiration, Contempt, Pity, Envy: Positive WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,453[a]	,205	,194	1,08611	,205	17,928	4	278	,000	2,144

a. Predictors: (Constant), Envy, Admiration, Pity, Contempt

b. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	84,592	4	21,148	17,928	,000[b]
	Residual	327,936	278	1,180		
	Total	412,528	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Envy, Admiration, Pity, Contempt

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,903	,260		7,321	,000					
	Admiration	,508	,070	,395	7,215	,000	,406	,397	,386	,956	1,046
	Contempt	-,407	,124	-,206	-3,267	,001	-,220	-,192	-,175	,720	1,388
	Pity	,013	,085	,009	,150	,880	-,043	,009	,008	,756	1,323
	Envy	,003	,082	,002	,031	,976	-,012	,002	,002	,856	1,169

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

Admiration, Contempt, Pity, Envy: Negative WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,504[a]	,254	,243	,59356	,254	23,628	4	278	,000	2,031

a. Predictors: (Constant), Envy, Admiration, Pity, Contempt

b. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	33,297	4	8,324	23,628	,000[b]
	Residual	97,943	278	,352		
	Total	131,240	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Envy, Admiration, Pity, Contempt

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,788	,142		5,551	,000					
	Admiration	-,072	,039	-,099	-1,869	,063	-,118	-,111	-,097	,956	1,046
	Contempt	,529	,068	,475	7,776	,000	,494	,423	,403	,720	1,388
	Pity	,013	,046	,016	,274	,784	,232	,016	,014	,756	1,323
	Envy	,017	,045	,021	,382	,703	,171	,023	,020	,856	1,169

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

Appendix

Moderated multiple linear regression

Admiration, Extraversion, Admiration_Extra: Visit

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,427[a]	,183	,174	1,02130	,183	20,775	3	279	,000	1,937

a. Predictors: (Constant), Admiration_Extra, Extraversion, Admiration

b. Dependent Variable: Visit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	65,008	3	21,669	20,775	,000[b]
	Residual	291,009	279	1,043		
	Total	356,018	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Admiration_Extra, Extraversion, Admiration

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,282	,291		4,406	,000					
	Admiration	,462	,066	,386	7,041	,000	,395	,388	,381	,976	1,025
	Extraversion	,070	,067	,058	1,052	,294	,118	,063	,057	,976	1,025
	Admiration_Extra	,219	,077	,153	2,832	,005	,153	,167	,153	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

Admiration, Extraversion, Admiration_Extra: Positive WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,417[a]	,174	,165	1,10506	,174	19,607	3	279	,000	2,069

a. Predictors: (Constant), Admiration_Extra, Extraversion, Admiration

b. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	71,828	3	23,943	19,607	,000[b]
	Residual	340,701	279	1,221		
	Total	412,528	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Admiration_Extra, Extraversion, Admiration

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,237	,315		3,930	,000					
	Admiration	,517	,071	,401	7,279	,000	,406	,399	,396	,976	1,025
	Extraversion	,042	,072	,032	,579	,563	,094	,035	,032	,976	1,025
	Admiration_Extra	,141	,084	,092	1,683	,094	,092	,100	,092	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

Appendix

Admiration, Extraversion, Admiration_Extra: Negative WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,143[a]	,020	,010	,67881	,020	1,939	3	279	,123	2,037

a. Predictors: (Constant), Admiration_Extra, Extraversion, Admiration

b. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2,681	3	,894	1,939	,123[b]
	Residual	128,560	279	,461		
	Total	131,240	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Admiration_Extra, Extraversion, Admiration

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,618	,193		8,369	,000					
	Admiration	-,082	,044	-,112	-1,873	,062	-,118	-,111	-,111	,976	1,025
	Extraversion	-,025	,044	-,033	-,557	,578	-,051	-,033	-,033	,976	1,025
	Admiration_Extra	-,064	,051	-,074	-1,253	,211	-,074	-,075	-,074	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

Contempt, Extraversion, Contempt_Extra: Visit

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,199[a]	,040	,029	1,10696	,040	3,848	3	279	,010	2,038

a. Predictors: (Constant), Contempt_Extra, Extraversion, Contempt

b. Dependent Variable: Visit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	14,144	3	4,715	3,848	,010[b]
	Residual	341,874	279	1,225		
	Total	356,018	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Contempt_Extra, Extraversion, Contempt

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,741	,301		9,117	,000					
	Contempt	-,295	,108	-,161	-2,741	,007	-,161	-,162	-,161	1,000	1,000
	Extraversion	,142	,071	,117	1,991	,047	,118	,118	,117	1,000	1,000
	Contempt_Extra	-,011	,124	-,005	-,091	,928	-,005	-,005	-,005	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

Appendix

Contempt, Extraversion, Contempt_Extra: Positive WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,243[a]	,059	,049	1,17944	,059	5,850	3	279	,001	2,098

a. Predictors: (Constant), Contempt_Extra, Extraversion, Contempt

b. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	24,414	3	8,138	5,850	,001[b]
	Residual	388,114	279	1,391		
	Total	412,528	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Contempt_Extra, Extraversion, Contempt

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3,001	,320		9,370	,000					
	Contempt	-,434	,115	-,220	-3,783	,000	-,220	-,221	-,220	1,000	1,000
	Extraversion	,122	,076	,093	1,603	,110	,094	,096	,093	1,000	1,000
	Contempt_Extra	-,102	,132	-,045	-,777	,438	-,045	-,046	-,045	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

Contempt, Extraversion, Contempt_Extra: Negative WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,497[a]	,247	,239	,59525	,247	30,468	3	279	,000	2,031

a. Predictors: (Constant), Contempt_Extra, Extraversion, Contempt

b. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	32,386	3	10,795	30,468	,000[b]
	Residual	98,855	279	,354		
	Total	131,240	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Contempt_Extra, Extraversion, Contempt

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,725	,162		4,488	,000					
	Contempt	,551	,058	,494	9,507	,000	,494	,495	,494	1,000	1,000
	Extraversion	-,036	,038	-,048	-,927	,355	-,051	-,055	-,048	1,000	1,000
	Contempt_Extra	,016	,067	,012	,239	,812	,012	,014	,012	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

Appendix

Pity, Extraversion, Pity_Extra: Visit

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,141[a]	,020	,009	1,11838	,020	1,879	3	279	,133	2,010

a. Predictors: (Constant), Pity_Extra, Extraversion, Pity

b. Dependent Variable: Visit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7,050	3	2,350	1,879	,133[b]
	Residual	348,967	279	1,251		
	Total	356,018	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Pity_Extra, Extraversion, Pity

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,414	,291		8,281	,000					
	Pity	-,034	,076	-,026	-,446	,656	-,026	-,027	-,026	1,000	1,000
	Extraversion	,143	,072	,118	1,986	,048	,118	,118	,118	1,000	1,000
	Pity_Extra	-,098	,080	-,073	-1,223	,222	-,073	-,073	-,073	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

Pity, Extraversion, Pity_Extra: Positive WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,135[a]	,018	,008	1,20487	,018	1,722	3	279	,163	2,045

a. Predictors: (Constant), Pity_Extra, Extraversion, Pity

b. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7,498	3	2,499	1,722	,163[b]
	Residual	405,031	279	1,452		
	Total	412,528	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Pity_Extra, Extraversion, Pity

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,534	,314		8,070	,000					
	Pity	-,060	,082	-,043	-,726	,469	-,043	-,043	-,043	1,000	1,000
	Extraversion	,123	,078	,094	1,591	,113	,094	,095	,094	1,000	1,000
	Pity_Extra	-,126	,087	-,086	-1,453	,147	-,086	-,087	-,086	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

Appendix

Pity, Extraversion, Pity_Extra: Negative WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,241[a]	,058	,048	,66559	,058	5,750	3	279	,001	2,033

a. Predictors: (Constant), Pity_Extra, Extraversion, Pity

b. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7,641	3	2,547	5,750	,001[b]
	Residual	123,599	279	,443		
	Total	131,240	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Pity_Extra, Extraversion, Pity

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,167	,173		6,726	,000					
	Pity	,181	,045	,232	3,999	,000	,232	,233	,232	1,000	1,000
	Extraversion	-,038	,043	-,051	-,883	,378	-,051	-,053	-,051	1,000	1,000
	Pity_Extra	-,034	,048	-,041	-,702	,483	-,041	-,042	-,041	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

Envy, Extraversion, Envy_Extra: Visit

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,133[a]	,018	,007	1,11963	,018	1,668	3	279	,174	2,009

a. Predictors: (Constant), Envy_Extra, Extraversion, Envy

b. Dependent Variable: Visit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6,273	3	2,091	1,668	,174[b]
	Residual	349,745	279	1,254		
	Total	356,018	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Envy_Extra, Extraversion, Envy

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,235	,299		7,478	,000					
	Envy	,080	,078	,061	1,022	,308	,059	,061	,061	1,000	1,000
	Extraversion	,144	,072	,119	2,000	,047	,118	,119	,119	1,000	1,000
	Envy_Extra	-,013	,080	-,010	-,166	,868	-,010	-,010	-,010	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

Appendix

Envy, Extraversion, Envy_Extra: Positive WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,130[a]	,017	,006	1,20570	,017	1,592	3	279	,192	2,072

a. Predictors: (Constant), Envy_Extra, Extraversion, Envy

b. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6,941	3	2,314	1,592	,192[b]
	Residual	405,587	279	1,454		
	Total	412,528	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Envy_Extra, Extraversion, Envy

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,474	,322		7,684	,000					
	Envy	-,015	,084	-,011	-,182	,856	-,012	-,011	-,011	1,000	1,000
	Extraversion	,123	,078	,094	1,586	,114	,094	,095	,094	1,000	1,000
	Envy_Extra	-,129	,087	-,088	-1,489	,138	-,088	-,089	-,088	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

Envy, Extraversion, Envy_Extra: Negative WOM

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,179[a]	,032	,022	,67478	,032	3,079	3	279	,028	2,074

a. Predictors: (Constant), Envy_Extra, Extraversion, Envy

b. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4,206	3	1,402	3,079	,028[b]
	Residual	127,035	279	,455		
	Total	131,240	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Envy_Extra, Extraversion, Envy

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,205	,180		6,689	,000					
	Envy	,136	,047	,170	2,891	,004	,171	,171	,170	1,000	1,000
	Extraversion	-,035	,043	-,048	-,816	,415	-,051	-,049	-,048	1,000	1,000
	Envy_Extra	-,018	,048	-,021	-,361	,718	-,021	-,022	-,021	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

Appendix

Hierarchical multiple regression

Warmth, Competence, Admiration, Contempt, Pity, Envy: Visit

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,331[a]	,110	,103	1,06390	,110	17,269	2	280	,000	
2	,455[b]	,207	,190	1,01134	,097	8,464	4	276	,000	1,904

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth, Envy, Pity, Admiration, Contempt

c. Dependent Variable: Visit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	39,092	2	19,546	17,269	,000[b]
	Residual	316,926	280	1,132		
	Total	356,018	282			
2	Regression	73,721	6	12,287	12,013	,000[c]
	Residual	282,297	276	1,023		
	Total	356,018	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

c. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth, Envy, Pity, Admiration, Contempt

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,697	,435		1,601	,111					
	Warmth	,388	,076	,293	5,107	,000	,312	,292	,288	,969	1,032
	Competence	,195	,100	,112	1,956	,051	,164	,116	,110	,969	1,032
2	(Constant)	,826	,495		1,669	,096					
	Warmth	,239	,079	,180	3,023	,003	,312	,179	,162	,810	1,234
	Competence	,046	,099	,027	,466	,642	,164	,028	,025	,884	1,132
	Admiration	,381	,071	,318	5,360	,000	,395	,307	,287	,814	1,229
	Contempt	-,185	,121	-,101	-1,529	,128	-,161	-,092	-,082	,659	1,519
	Pity	-,021	,080	-,016	-,259	,796	-,026	-,016	-,014	,745	1,342
	Envy	,090	,076	,069	1,183	,238	,059	,071	,063	,854	1,170

a. Dependent Variable: Visit

Appendix

Warmth, Competence, Admiration, Contempt, Pity, Envy: Positive WOM

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,385[a]	,148	,142	1,12008	,148	24,409	2	280	,000	
2	,499[b]	,249	,233	1,05935	,101	9,256	4	276	,000	2,085

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth, Envy, Pity, Admiration, Contempt

c. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	61,246	2	30,623	24,409	,000[b]
	Residual	351,282	280	1,255		
	Total	412,528	282			
2	Regression	102,795	6	17,133	15,267	,000[c]
	Residual	309,733	276	1,122		
	Total	412,528	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

c. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth, Envy, Pity, Admiration, Contempt

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,379	,458		,828	,408					
	Warmth	,517	,080	,362	6,458	,000	,377	,360	,356	,969	1,032
	Competence	,155	,105	,083	1,479	,140	,147	,088	,082	,969	1,032
2	(Constant)	,805	,519		1,551	,122					
	Warmth	,333	,083	,233	4,027	,000	,377	,236	,210	,810	1,234
	Competence	-,015	,104	-,008	-,140	,889	,147	-,008	-,007	,884	1,132
	Admiration	,421	,075	,327	5,649	,000	,406	,322	,295	,814	1,229
	Contempt	-,268	,127	-,136	-2,111	,036	-,220	-,126	-,110	,659	1,519
	Pity	-,003	,084	-,002	-,041	,967	-,043	-,002	-,002	,745	1,342
	Envy	,011	,080	,008	,141	,888	-,012	,008	,007	,854	1,170

a. Dependent Variable: Positive_WOM

Appendix

Warmth, Competence, Admiration, Contempt, Pity, Envy: Negative WOM

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,328[a]	,108	,101	,64677	,108	16,867	2	280	,000	
2	,525[b]	,275	,259	,58711	,168	15,951	4	276	,000	2,047

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth, Envy, Pity, Admiration, Contempt

c. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	14,111	2	7,056	16,867	,000[b]
	Residual	117,129	280	,418		
	Total	131,240	282			
2	Regression	36,105	6	6,017	17,457	,000[c]
	Residual	95,136	276	,345		
	Total	131,240	282			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth

c. Predictors: (Constant), Competence, Warmth, Envy, Pity, Admiration, Contempt

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,649	,265		10,015	,000					
	Warmth	-,225	,046	-,279	-4,861	,000	-,302	-,279	-,274	,969	1,032
	Competence	-,137	,061	-,130	-2,266	,024	-,179	-,134	-,128	,969	1,032
2	(Constant)	1,414	,287		4,921	,000					
	Warmth	-,119	,046	-,147	-2,586	,010	-,302	-,154	-,133	,810	1,234
	Competence	-,061	,058	-,058	-1,069	,286	-,179	-,064	-,055	,884	1,132
	Admiration	-,028	,041	-,039	-,689	,491	-,118	-,041	-,035	,814	1,229
	Contempt	,470	,070	,422	6,680	,000	,494	,373	,342	,659	1,519
	Pity	,013	,046	,016	,276	,783	,232	,017	,014	,745	1,342
	Envy	,015	,044	,019	,343	,732	,171	,021	,018	,854	1,170

a. Dependent Variable: Negative_WOM

Appendix C. – German abstract

Ziel der vorliegenden Masterarbeit ist es, das in der Sozialpsychologie und in der internationalen Marktforschung häufig verwendete Konzept des Stereotype Content Models anzuwenden um touristische Destination Images aus der Perspektive von Länderstereotypen zu untersuchen.

Dabei wird angenommen, dass die warmen und kompetenten Stereotypen einen signifikanten Einfluss auf die emotionalen Reaktionen haben. Bei den in der Arbeit untersuchten emotionalen Variablen handelt es sich um die Bewunderung, Verachtung, Mitleid und Neid. Ferner wird angenommen, dass die warmen und kompetenten Stereotypen eine signifikante Wirkung auf die Verhaltensergebnisse (Besuch, positiver WOM und negativer WOM) im Zusammenhang mit den europäischen Tourismusdestinationen haben. Darüber hinaus untersucht das vorgeschlagene Forschungsmodell den Einfluss der emotionalen Dimension auf die Verhaltensabsichten und nimmt zusätzlich die moderierende Rolle der Extraversion zwischen emotionalen und verhaltensbezogenen Reaktionen der Touristen an.

Durch die Durchführung mehrerer Arten von multiplen Regressionsanalysen wurden die warmen und kompetenten Stereotypen als signifikante Prädiktoren für die Erregung einseitiger Emotionen und für die touristischen Verhaltensabsichten identifiziert. Des Weiteren bestätigt die Studie, dass einseitige Gefühle, die durch Bewunderung und Verachtung repräsentiert werden, signifikante Indikatoren für das touristische Verhalten sind. Die ambivalenten Emotionen (Mitleid und Neid) erwiesen sich nicht als wesentliche Prädiktoren für die Verhaltensabsichten. Es wurde auch nicht gezeigt, dass sie signifikant von den wahrgenommenen warmen und kompetenten Stereotyp-Dimensionen beeinflusst sind. Letztendlich erwies sich, dass die moderierende Variable Extraversion den positiven Effekt der Bewunderung auf den Besuch und die positive WOM signifikant verstärkt.

Die gewonnenen Erkenntnisse tragen zur internationalen Marketing- und Tourismusmanagementliteratur bei, insbesondere durch die Erweiterung des Wissens über wie warmen und kompetenten Stereotypen, univalente und ambivalente Emotionen sowie die Extraversion eine Rolle bei den Entscheidungsprozessen von Touristen spielen und wie stark ihr Einfluss auf die Verhaltensabsichten der Reisenden ist.

Aus einer Managementperspektive unterstreicht die Studie die Möglichkeiten der Destination-Vermarkter, die länderspezifischen warmen und kompetenten Stereotypen

und die einzigartigen Emotionen als Wettbewerbsvorteile in ihren Marketing- und Promotionsaktivitäten einzusetzen, um die Destination von objektiv ähnlichen Anderen zu unterscheiden.

Stichwörter: *Tourismusdestination, Destination Image, Warme und Kompetenter Stereotyp, Stereotype Content Model, Destinationsbesuch, positiver WOM, negativer WOM, Extraversion*