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Hospitality and Tourism Management

**BAHRAIN'S BIGGER PICTURE:
A CONTEXTUALIZED BRAND
IMAGE FOR TOURISM**

by

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A thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

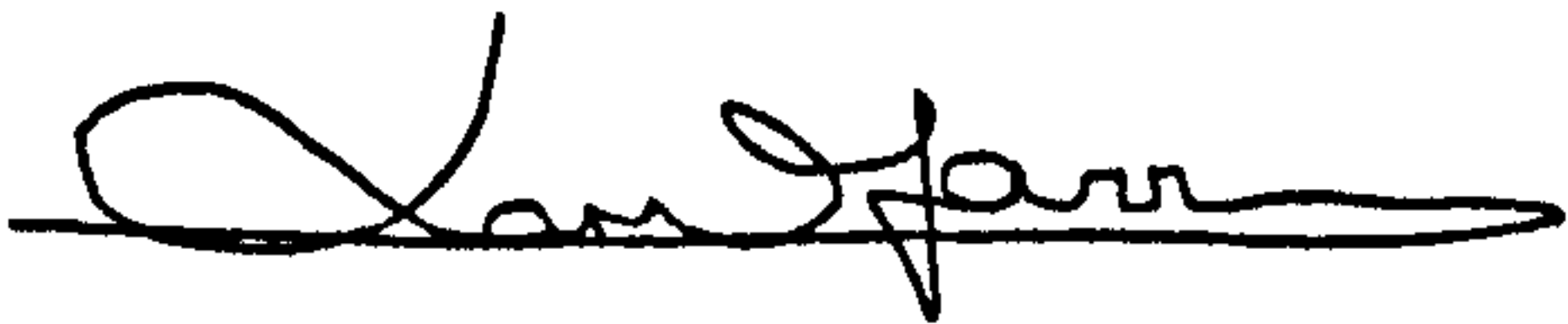
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Lamya J. Al-Arrayed

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Lamya J. Al-Arrayed', written over a horizontal line.

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CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE.....	i
DECLARATIONS.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
CONTENTS.....	iv
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF TABLES	xi
GLOSSARIES:	
Glossary 1 abbreviations: Key organizations / Countries.....	xiii
Glossary 2 abbreviations: Key terms	xiv
ABSTRACT.....	xv
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the research	1
1.2 Research problem and contribution	3
1.3 Justification for the research	4
1.4 Methodology	5
1.5 Thesis outline	6
1.6 Delimitations and Limitations	8
1.7 Conclusion	9
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	10
2.1 Introduction	10
2.2 Tourism Trends	11
2.3 Branding	14
2.3.1 Marketing basics	14
2.3.2 Branding basics.....	15
2.3.2 Branding consumer products.....	20
2.4 Destinations.....	22

2.4.1 Destination marketing.....	29
2.4.2 Destination branding.....	32
2.4.3 Why brand destinations.....	41
2.5 Destination brand image formation and transformation.....	44
2.5.1 Destination brand image formation.....	44
2.5.2 destination brand image transformation: the brand identity	45
2.5.3 The destination integrated marketing communications (IMC)	53
2.6 Summary.....	59

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH FRAMEWORK61

3.1 Introduction	61
3.2 Destination Brand Image measurement	62
3.3 Customer Satisfaction	68
3.4 Holistic Perception	72
3.5 Brand Loyalty	74
3.5.1 Role of Word-of-mouth (WOM)	74
3.5.2 Brand Loyalty indicators	78
3.6 Destination markets	81
3.6.1 Tourists	83
3.6.2 Residents	85
3.6.3 The destination model	90
3.7 The research	93
3.7.1 Literature gaps	95
3.7.2 Research problem and research questions	97
3.8 Research settings	100
3.8.1 Region overview	100
3.8.2 Bahrain as a destination system	103
3.8.3 The destination's goals	105
3.8.4 Bahrain as a place to live: Residents	114
3.8.5 Bahrain as a place to visit: Tourists	116
3.9 Summary	117

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY.....122

4.1 Introduction	122
4.2 Research philosophy issues	124
4.3 Research plan	137
4.4 Preliminary fieldwork	138
4.5 Research instrument	141
4.6 Data collection	147
4.6.1 Sampling: Event tourists	148
4.6.2 Sampling: Residents.....	149
4.7 Data Analysis	154
4.7.1 Demographics	155
4.7.2 Customer Satisfaction	158
4.7.3 Holistic Perception	162

4.7.4 Brand Loyalty	164
4.8 Summary	167

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA ANALYSIS.....169

5.1 Introduction	169
5.2 Demographics	169
5.2.1 Locals	170
5.2.2 Expatriates	170
5.2.3 Tourists	171
5.3 Customer Satisfaction	172
5.3.1 Place satisfaction	173
5.3.1.1 Locals	174
5.3.1.2 Expatriates	176
5.3.1.3 Tourists	178
5.3.1.4 Expatriate positioning (Place)	181
5.3.1.5 Place summary	182
5.3.2 Attractions satisfaction	187
5.3.2.1 Locals	188
5.3.2.2 Expatriates	189
5.3.2.3 Tourists	189
5.3.2.4 Expatriate positioning (Attractions)	191
5.3.2.5 Attractions summary	192
5.3.3 Costs satisfaction	193
5.3.3.1 Locals	194
5.3.3.2 Expatriates	194
5.3.3.3 Tourists	195
5.3.3.4 Expatriate positioning (Attractions)	197
5.3.3.5 Costs summary	198
5.3.4 Event satisfaction	199
5.4 Holistic Perception	201
5.4.1 Locals	202
5.4.2 Expatriates.....	204
5.4.3 Tourists.....	205
5.4.4 Holistic Perception summary.....	206
5.4.5 Expatriate positioning (Holistic Perception).....	209
5.4.6 Experience versus Expectation.....	210
5.5 Brand Loyalty.....	212
5.5.1 Locals	213
5.5.2 Expatriates.....	214
5.5.3 Tourists.....	215
5.5.4 Brand Loyalty overview	215
5.5.5 Expatriate positioning (Brand Loyalty)	216
5.6 Ideal length of stay	217
5.7 Tourism Brand Loyalty	218
5.7.1 Local BLT prediction.....	219
5.7.2 Expatriate BLT prediction	222
5.7.3 Tourist BLT prediction.....	226

5.8 Synthesis	229
CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	235
6.1 Introduction	235
6.2 Revisiting the research questions	238
6.2.1 Conclusions: Expatriate positioning (RQ4)	238
6.2.2 Conclusions: Brand Loyalty prediction (RQ5)	240
6.2.3 Conclusions: Bahrain's image as a place to live (RQ1, 2 & 3)...241	
6.3 Implications for Destination Branding	243
6.3.1 Implications from the findings	243
6.3.2 Implications from the methodology	247
6.4 Implications for Bahrain	248
6.4.1 Strategic implications	248
6.4.2 Tactical implications	251
6.5 Contribution	257
6.6 Problems, Limitations and Suggestions for further research	261
6.7 Research process, in retrospect	263
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	267
APPENDICES.....	301
APPENDIX I: RESEARCH PARADIGMS	302
I.i Comparison of research paradigms	303-304
APPENDIX II: BAHRAIN DATA	305
II.i Travel and tourism projections (2006 to 2016)	306
II.ii Major projects in Bahrain	307
APPENDIX III: QUESTIONNAIRES	308
III.i Local questionnaire	309-312
III.ii Expatriate questionnaire	313-316
III.iii Tourist questionnaire	317-322
APPENDIX IV: SAMPLING FRAMES	323
IV.i Tourist sampling: the events	324
IV.ii Resident sampling: the agents	324

APPENDIX V: SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHICS325

V.i	Sample demographics	326
V.ii	General country of origin (Arab vs. non-Arab)	326
V.iii	Nationality & Country of origin	327
V.iv	Tourist actual length of stay	327
V.v	Expatriate number of years living in Bahrain	328

APPENDIX VI: RESULTS: CUSTOMER SATISFACTION329

VI.i	Sample Place non-response frequency	330
VI.ii	Place valid percentage distribution	331
VI.iii	Attractions valid percentage distribution	332
VI.iv	Costs valid percentages distribution	332
VI.v	Tourist Event valid percentages distribution	333

APPENDIX VII: CUSTOMER SATISFACTION * DEMOGRAPHICS334

VII.i	Local dual-category demographics * satisfaction.....	335
VII.ii	Local multi-category demographics * satisfaction	336
VII.iii	Expatriate dual-category demographics * satisfaction	337
VII.iv	Expatriate multi-category demographics * satisfaction	338
VII.v	Tourist dual-category demographics * satisfaction	339
VII.vi	Tourist multi-category demographics * satisfaction	340
VII.vii	Tourist dual-category demographics * event satisfaction	341
VII.viii	Tourist multi-category demographics * event satisfaction	341

APPENDIX VIII: RESULTS: FACTOR ANALYSIS342

VIII.i	Scree Plots	343-344
VIII.ii	Local factor analysis total variance explained	345
VIII.iii	Expatriate factor analysis total variance explained	346
VIII.iv	Tourist factor analysis total variance explained	347
VIII.v	Tourist Event factor analysis total variance explained	348
VIII.vi	Tourist Expectation factor analysis total variance explained.....	348

APPENDIX IX: RESULTS: HOLISTIC PERCEPTIONS.....349

IX.i	Holistic perception of Bahrain	350
IX.ii	Holistic perceptions of Dubai	351
IX.iii	Experience of first-time Tourists versus previous visitor	352
IX.iv	Tourist Income * “Costs vs. expectation” statistics	352
IX.v	“Bahrain as a destination vs. expectation” distribution	352

APPENDIX X: RESULTS: BRAND LOYALTY STATEMENTS.....353

X.i	Local Gender * Statement 3	354
X.ii	Expatriate Income * Statement 2	354
X.iii	Expatriate Education * Statement 3	354
X.iv	Residents Brand Loyalty Chi results	355
X.v	Expatriate Brand Loyalty significant differences	356

APPENDIX XI: RESULTS: IDEAL LENGTH OF STAY355

XI.i	Ideal length of stay	356
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LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER TWO

Figure 2.1 UNWTO's 2020 world international arrivals forecasts.....	12
Figure 2.2 Goals of the destination system	24
Figure 2.3 Variable relationship: Brand image and Brand identity (first of six).....	46
Figure 2.4 Variable relationship: Brand image and Brand identity (second of six).....	47
Figure 2.5 Destination communications.....	54
Figure 2.6 Variable relationship: Brand image and Brand identity (third of six).....	58

CHAPTER THREE

Figure 3.1 Possible variable relationship (fourth of six).....	73
Figure 3.2 Proposed working model of holistic destination and markets (first of two)...	83
Figure 3.3 Proposed model of holistic destination and markets (second of two).....	92
Figure 3.4 Possible variable relationship (fifth of six).....	94
Figure 3.5 BLT membership flowchart (first of two)	97
Figure 3.6 Map of Bahrain.....	103

CHAPTER FOUR

Figure 4.1 The research process	123
Figure 4.2 Preliminary research process	139
Figure 4.3 Sampling frame (locals and expatriates)	152
Figure 4.4 Research design – data analysis	157

CHAPTER FIVE

Figure 5.1 Customer satisfaction data analysis plan	172
Figure 5.2 Holistic Perception data analysis plan.....	201
Figure 5.3 Brand Loyalty data analysis plan	212
Figure 5.4 BLT membership flowchart (second of two)	218

CHAPTER SIX

Figure 6.1 Variable relationship investigated (sixth of six)	246
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LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER TWO

Table 2.1 Brand related definitions	18-19
Table 2.2 Destination branding definitions	38
Table 2.3 Specializations of a sample of tourism scholars	40
Table 2.4 Brand identity requirements	50
Table 2.5 Destination brand building	52

CHAPTER THREE

Table 3.1 Destination image measurement studies	65-66
Table 3.2 Market-destination relationships	91
Table 3.3 Research questions and sub-questions	98-99
Table 3.4 Employment statistics	107
Table 3.5 Tourism statistics.....	111
Table 3.6 Evolution of tourism bodies.....	113
Table 3.7 Demographic statistics.....	115

CHAPTER FOUR

Table 4.1 Summary of sources and handling of subjectivity	136
Table 4.2 Preliminary research questions	141
Table 4.3 Instrument questions	146

CHAPTER FIVE

Table 5.1 Place mean satisfaction	173
Table 5.2 Local Place significant differences	174
Table 5.3 Expatriate Place significant differences	176
Table 5.4 Tourist Place significant differences	178
Table 5.5 Place factor analysis solutions	180
Table 5.6 Expatriate Place positioning	182
Table 5.7 Attractions mean satisfaction	187
Table 5.8 Local Attractions significant differences	188
Table 5.9 Expatriate Attractions significant differences	189
Table 5.10 Tourist Attractions significant differences	190
Table 5.11 Attractions factor analysis solutions	191

Table 5.12 Expatriate Attractions positioning	192
Table 5.13 Costs mean satisfaction	193
Table 5.14 Expatriate Costs significant differences	195
Table 5.15 Tourist Costs significant differences	196
Table 5.16 Costs factor analysis solutions	197
Table 5.17 Expatriate Costs positioning	198
Table 5.18 Tourist Event mean satisfaction	199
Table 5.19 Tourist Event factor analysis solution	200
Table 5.20 Summary of satisfaction variables	200
Table 5.21 Holistic Perception list	202
Table 5.22 Local Bahrain / Dubai Holistic Perception	203
Table 5.23 Expatriates Bahrain / Dubai Holistic Perception	204
Table 5.24 Tourists Bahrain / Dubai Holistic Perception	206
Table 5.25 Bahrain Holistic Perception common words	207
Table 5.26 Holistic Perception * Respondent.....	208
Table 5.27 Expatriate Holistic Perception significant differences	209
Table 5.28 Tourist Experience versus Expectation	210
Table 5.29 Tourist Expectation Component Matrix (a)	211
Table 5.30 Mean Brand Loyalty responses	213
Table 5.31 Expatriate Income Chi Square results for statement 2	214
Table 5.32 Tourist statement Inter-item Correlation matrix	215
Table 5.33 "Ideal stay" statistics	217
Table 5.34 Local logistic regression solutions	220
Table 5.35 Expatriate logistic regression solutions	224
Table 5.36 Tourist logistic regression solutions	227
Table 5.37 Comparison of BLT prediction scenarios	234

Glossary 1 Abbreviations: Key Organisations / Countries

Acronyms or abbreviations	Explanation
AMA	American Marketing Association
BDB	Bahrain Development Bank
BEDB	Bahrain Economic Development Board
BIHR	Bahrain Institute of Hospitality and Retail
BPMB	Bahrain Marketing and Promotion Board
BCHT	Bahrain's College of Hospitality and Tourism
CBB	Central Bank of Bahrain
DoT	Directorate of Tourism
F-1	Formula One racing
GCC	Gulf Cooperative Council
IATA	International Air Transport Association
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
OSAC	Overseas Security Advisory Council
SCT	Supreme Council for Tourism
TDB	Tourist Development Board
TIAA	Travel Industry Association of America
UNWTO	World Tourism Organization
WOMMA	Word of Mouth Marketing Association
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
Abbreviations	Countries
Bahrain	Kingdom of Bahrain
UAE	United Arab Emirates

Glossary 2 Abbreviations: Key Terms

Abbreviations	Explanation
Blog	Web log
BLT	Brand loyalty to the host destination's tourism product
BTS	Bartlett's test of Sphericity
COO	Country of Origin
DMO	Destination marketing organisation
eWOM	Electronic Word-of-Mouth: all informal communications directed at consumers through internet-based technology, related to the usage or characteristics of particular goods and services or their sellers' (Westbrook 1987, p.261; Litvin <i>et al</i> 2008, p.459)
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FMCGs	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
FTA	Free Trade Agreement
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IMC	Integrated Marketing Communications: a strategic business process used to plan, develop, execute and evaluate coordinated, measurable, persuasive brand communications programs over time' with 'targeted external and internal audiences' to 'generate both short-term financial returns and build long-term brand and shareholder value' (Belch & Belch 2007, p.11)
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure
MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions
MCPCA	Monte Carlo Parallel Analysis
OTMC	Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients
RGA	Repertory Grid Analysis
SMEs	Small and Medium-sized Enterprises
SRO	Spearman's Rank Order
SPSS 14.0	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 14.0
TALC	Tourist Area Life Cycle
VFR	Visiting Friends and Relatives
WOM	Word-of-Mouth: 'the act of consumers providing information to other consumers' (WOMMA 2007)

ABSTRACT

Destination brand image is a major determinant of the economic future of places, and it is a product of their actions. Branding involves the design and construction of a brand identity that attempts to influence the brand image. The brand identity for tourism purposes should be integrated into a holistic branding strategy. Potential tourists are influenced by word-of-mouth, and brand loyal destination employees (residents) and customers (residents and tourists) holding positive images can act as destination brand ambassadors, producing positive word-of-mouth. This thesis used a quantitative methodology to discover the brand image of the Kingdom of Bahrain as a tourist destination by investigating both satisfaction with its attributes and holistic perception. It then investigated the positioning of foreign expatriates by comparing their images of the host destination with those of local residents and event tourists. It also explored whether demographics, attribute satisfaction or holistic perception (brand image components) can contribute to prediction of brand loyalty to the destination's tourism product, defined as recommending that others visit the destination. Bahrain's strengths and weaknesses as a destination were discovered, to provide a basis and a direction for the design of a brand identity. Expatriate responses were found to differ from those of locals and tourists significantly enough to warrant being considered a separate segment. Using logistic regression, satisfaction was found to be the best aid to predicting expatriate brand loyalty, while holistic perception was the best aid to predicting the brand loyalty of locals and event tourists. The results can contribute towards filling the gaps of Bahrain's destination image, the positioning of expatriates and the prediction of brand loyalty.

Keywords: destination branding, destination image, destination brand identity, brand loyalty, word-of-mouth, expatriates, Bahrain

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. 1 Background to the research

The promotion of destinations has long been addressed in tourism studies and it is now more important than ever, with the expected growth of global travel (Section 2.2). Today's world is a different place than it used to be, with increased mobility and improved information technology (Freire 2005). This multiplies the sources of information when choosing a destination and necessitates a reinterpretation of word-of-mouth (WOM) (Section 3.5.1) to one that includes and specifically mentions that transmitted electronically. Therefore, a change of mindset is required from destinations wishing to establish a presence in this world and market themselves for tourism. Tourism destinations often compete on only the images in potential travelers' minds (Baloglu and McCleary 1999b), as the latter choose destinations largely on the basis of these images (Leisen 2001; Lee *et al* 2005; Molina & Esteban 2006). The destination image created in consumers' minds and its positioning, are 'more important to its ultimate success than its actual characteristics' (Morgan & Pritchard 2002, p.12). The things that make a destination successful in attracting tourism may be the same factors that make it attractive to investors (Anholt 2002a; Gilmore 2002a; Gnoth 2002).

Therefore, 'a country's brand image can profoundly shape its economic, cultural and political destiny' (Anholt 2002a, p.44; 2005a, p.142).

Proponents of destination branding believe that the uniqueness of destinations makes them brandable and that branded destinations, like branded traditional products, can appeal to consumers' emotions (Sheth *et al* 1999; Morgan & Pritchard 2002). Acceptance of destination branding theory by academics and destination marketers is growing (Caldwell & Freire 2004), yet there is still confusion about what it really is (Anholt 2005b; Tasci & Kozak 2006) and what it entails.

The destination, as a holistic system, is a collection of elements that together form more than the sum of its parts (Section 2.4), and tourism is inseparable from its other long-term goals. A tourism strategy should be designed within the bigger picture of the destination's overall branding strategy that encompasses all these goals. Unlike product or corporate brands, destinations come with baggage and a history (Kotler & Gertner 2002) and pre-existing images, all of which demand consideration. The destination brand identity, that will attempt to influence the image (Kapferer 2004), has to be constructed within the bigger picture of the destination's goals, and must begin from this image (Section 2.5.2). The first step then, before attempting to construct a brand identity, is to discover the existing destination image.

This thesis aims at discovering the brand image of the Kingdom of Bahrain (Bahrain) as a tourist destination. In its endeavours to do so, it cannot address all the issues relevant to holistically branding a country. Instead, it focuses on the destination's tourism objective, referring to other relevant elements and limiting the discussion to those with either a direct or an indirect impact on tourism. The thesis takes place within the bigger picture, with the holistic approach driving the research design.

1. 2 Research problem and contribution

The main research problem of this thesis is to discover ‘the brand image of Bahrain as a tourist destination’. Informed by the literature (Figure 4.1), this problem will be investigated, to locate the position from which to begin branding and suggest a direction for constructing a brand identity. Of particular interest are the various paradigms of destination branding, and its development and acceptance (Chapter Two). Once the case is made for destination branding, it becomes necessary to understand what constitutes image and how to discover it (Chapter Three). The review of the literature about destination brand image measurement (Section 3.2) resulted in the design of an original instrument that discovers satisfaction with the destination’s attributes (Section 3.3), holistic perception of the destination (Section 3.4) and brand loyalty to its tourism product (Section 3.5.2).

The thesis intends to make several contributions that will be discussed in detail in Section 6.5. First, it will provide information useful in designing Bahrain’s brand identity. Second, it will design an original instrument that can, with minor adjustments, measure the destination image of most destinations. Third, it will build on the concept of familiarity with the destination (Mackay & Fesenmaier 1997; Baloglu & McCleary 1999b; Baloglu 2001; Kim & Richardson 2003; Prentice 2004, 2006) and explore the possibility of an intimacy dimension. Fourth, based on this variable, it will propose a model that categorizes perceptions of the destination as a place to visit, a place to live and work and a place to belong (Figure 3.3). Fifth, it will investigate the position of expatriates, an under-researched market, in destination branding research based on the data. Sixth, it will argue that positive WOM (Section 3.5.1) is more appropriate as a brand loyalty indicator (Section 3.5.2) than the intention to revisit. Seventh, it will explore prediction of loyalty to the destination’s tourism product (BLT) (Section 3.5.2). Thus, the thesis aims to contribute towards the formalization of destination branding literature.

1. 3 Justification for the research

Although research has been conducted on the images of various destinations, no academic holistic destination branding research or image research about Bahrain had been undertaken at the time this research began. Interest in branding has developed more recently (Al-Yousif 2007b; BEDB 2007a, b), and this thesis can provide information, critical analysis and findings that are useful to branding efforts. This gap was addressed by the research problem.

Secondly, during the research design, it became necessary to decide whether to combine expatriate residents with local residents or with tourists or to treat them separately. This issue has not been specifically addressed or investigated in any research beyond mentioning that expatriates are located between the tourist and the immigrant (Haug *et al* 2007). This ambiguity means that expatriates are likely to be ignored or included in other populations. Given the importance of WOM (Silverman 2001; Morgan *et al* 2002; Crick 2003; Morgan *et al* 2003; Litvin *et al* 2008), and the effect of familiarity on destination image among tourists (Mackay & Fesenmaier 1997; Baloglu & McCleary 1999b; Baloglu 2001; Kim & Richardson 2003; Prentice 2004, 2006), it is relevant to discover where exactly this important market fits and how it should be treated in holistic destination branding research.

Thirdly, there is little research about brand loyalty in the context of tourist destinations (Tasci & Kozak 2006), or specifically comparing resident data to discover the best predictors of their brand loyalty to the destination's tourism product. If particular information helps to predict loyalty, discovering this information can indicate the most important issues to address to increase loyalty, and inform the branding process. Being in possession of accommodating data, the opportunity presented itself to explore filling this gap.

Since destination branding is gaining support, it is important that there is clarity about what is involved. For academics and practitioners to benefit from experience and

research, consistency in both language and methodology are essential, otherwise accuracy and transfer of knowledge will be hindered. Contributing to the structure of the field helps to reduce the ambiguity in both interpretation and implementation, and to build theory. As it borrows from the theory of branding traditional products, destination branding may also be able to give something back, because of the visibility of the effects of destination branding on the economies of places.

1.4 Methodology

This research takes a positivist approach (see Appendix I.i), guided by the literature. Because of the nature of the data and the sample sizes, a structured self-administered questionnaire is used to answer the main research questions in Table 3.3. The instrument includes a five-point rating scale to measure satisfaction with the destination's attributes, a list of words to measure holistic satisfaction and categorical brand loyalty statements, and it is piloted and amended before administration (Section 4.5). Satisfaction with destination attributes is measured within themes of place (Section 5.3.1), attractions (Section 5.3.2) and costs (Section 5.3.3), as well as tourist satisfaction with attributes of the event they are attending (Section 5.3.4) and their general perceptions compared to their expectations (Section 5.4.6). Responses from locals, expatriates and event tourists are compared and contrasted in order to discover the brand images of Bahrain and compare its holistic perception with that of Dubai, and to determine the position of expatriates (Sections 5.3.1.4, 5.3.2.4, 5.3.3.4, 5.4.5 and 5.5.5). Because of possible correlations between some attributes in each scale, factor analysis is used to reduce their number. Logistic regression is then performed to explore whether demographic data, satisfaction data or holistic perception data contribute to prediction of brand loyalty in each sample. Results are compared to find the most useful predictors (Section 5.7).

1.5 Thesis Outline

Generally, this thesis loosely follows the structure recommended by Perry (2000). Chapter Two begins with a critical review of destination branding literature and the confusion surrounding this subject. It establishes the need for destination branding, describing the destination as one perspective of a holistic place system (Section 2.4), and explains the need for its marketing to be cohesive and integrated for all its purposes. It applies marketing and branding principles to destinations and ponders whether destinations are brandable. Destination literature is reviewed, including definitions, destination brand image formation and construction of the destination brand identity (Section 2.5.2). Destination image is discussed as a prequel to active branding and the point from which to begin constructing the brand identity and measuring branding progress. As a result of the literature review, a model is developed through the chapter, culminating in Figure 2.6, to illustrate the relationship between destination brand image and destination brand identity.

Chapter Three builds the research framework, discussing the indicators used to measure *destination image* and presenting justification for the definition of *destination brand loyalty* as production of positive WOM and for the choice of respondents (local residents, expatriate residents and event tourists). To this end, the literature reviewed in this chapter focuses on those elements which directly influence the methodology used in this research. A model is proposed to explain the relationship between a destination, its brand and its markets (Section 3.6.3). The chapter identifies gaps in the literature (Section 3.7.1) and produces the research questions (Section 3.7.2), the answers to which will address the research problem and attempt to fill those gaps. Finally, the chapter describes the dynamics of Bahrain's destination system, to assemble an inventory of the players, resources and limitations that are relevant to tourism. The review of these elements will provide insight into the research setting as a place to live (Section 3.8.4) and as a place to visit (Section 3.8.5), and provide a context for the research findings.

Chapter Four begins with a discussion of philosophical issues (Section 4.2), such as the epistemology of the research and a brief discussion of the different methodological approaches. Subjectivity is discussed in general as well as in relation to this research, despite its adoption of a positivist methodology. The discussion of ethics focuses particularly on those relevant to this particular thesis. The chapter presents the research plan (Section 4.3) and the research methods used, beginning from the preliminary research, instrument design and piloting through data collection to the tests used in analyzing each set of data and the reasons for their choice. The chapter details how preliminary research was performed (Section 4.4), how the final instrument was put together (Section 4.5), how primary data were collected from the three samples (Section 4.6), and how the data were analyzed (Section 4.7).

This analysis is presented in Chapter Five. The results fall into three distinct but related themes. Within each theme, results collected from the three samples are presented individually and then compared and contrasted to determine the extent of congruity between the responses, and locate significant differences. The first part (Sections 5.3) focuses on satisfaction with the destination's attributes. The second part addresses how the samples perceive the destination holistically through the words they use to describe it (Section 5.4), using Dubai for comparison, to better understand Bahrain's positioning. The third part analyzes the intended WOM of each sample and its brand loyalty (Section 5.5) before exploring whether any of the respondents' demographic data, attribute satisfaction or holistic perception are useful in the prediction of destination brand loyalty for tourism (Section 5.7). The findings are discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter Six begins by presenting a summary of the research (Section 6.1) and the major findings before revisiting the research questions (Section 6.2), synthesizing the answers from the results of the analysis. The implications of the findings are discussed in terms of both the literature (Section 6.3) and the destination (Section 6.4). The implications to destination branding theory arise out of the findings of this research (Section 6.3.1) as well as the methodology (Section 6.3.2). The results will also indicate whether the model proposed in Figure 3.3 is worthy of further consideration. Moreover, the findings

provide Bahrain with strategic guidelines (Section 6.4.1) as well as specific issues that need to be addressed (Section 6.4.2). This is followed by a brief discussion of the problems, limitations and suggestions for further research (Section 6.6) and a retrospective review of the research process (Section 6.7).

1. 6 Delimitations and Limitations

Delimitations included the populations of this research. The first population, referred to as locals, are nationals who live in Bahrain. The second are expatriates residing in Bahrain. Both are discussed in Section 3.6.2. The third are tourists attending events in Bahrain (Section 3.6.1). Other tourists were excluded from the sample. Being few in number and difficult to access, and for the most part visiting friends and relatives (VFR), their results would not have been either objective or representative of tourists in general (Section 4.6.1). While there are other populations such as potential tourists, potential investors, locals abroad and others, who may have different images of Bahrain, they were not included. Another delimitation is that the research, while identifying important areas to consider, does not provide comprehensive explanations for the results. Finally, there may be other views that did not appear in the results because their proponents did not happen to be included in the sample.

There were also some limitations. The first was representation. Ideally, demographic sample data would have been compared to population data, but the data had to be considered subjectively because of the lack of accurate census data. While the scarcity of detailed data was expected at the outset, its degree and the changes in population were not (Section 5.2), so to some extent, representation had to be judged subjectively. The second was the size of the tourist sample, which did not accommodate logistic regression very well, so while the destination image of tourists was clear, tourist prediction results need further investigation (Section 5.7.3). Thirdly, unlike laboratory experiments, results may be influenced by other factors that are not considered in

research. Fourthly results may change as a result of political and economic changes both within and beyond the influence of the destination. This did not hinder discovery of the answer to the research problem, as the opportunity to explore prediction arose after data-collection had been completed and was not part of the original research design (Figure 4.4). Results from locals and expatriates were not affected either.

Challenges faced during the research included accessing event tourists, which required establishing an inventory of upcoming events and contacting them, a more difficult exercise than anticipated. The logistics of being away from the university and not being in a position to take advantage of many of the facilities and support normally offered by the department to postgraduate students presented another challenge.

1. 7 Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the research problem that drives this research, justified its relevance and briefly presented its contribution and introduced its methodology and its delimitations. By presenting the general subject matter discussed in each chapter, it has provided the framework for the thesis presented in the next five chapters.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2. 1 Introduction

The review in this chapter lays the groundwork for the research framework that will be built in Chapter Three. Together, they will provide roots for the methodology in Chapter Four and the analysis in Chapter Five and provide a context for the findings presented in Chapter Six. Throughout the thesis, the literature will act as reference informing and guiding the research (Hussey & Hussey 1997), which is why it has to be continuously reviewed (Glatthorn 1998) (Figure 4.1).

The chapter will define a destination and discuss why branding might be applied to such an entity. A brief review of branding in general will be followed by a more in-depth critical discussion of the paradigms of the applicability of branding to destinations. The literature review will focus on the main concepts of destination branding for tourism; image and identity and their relationship, and discuss the construction of a destination brand identity. Positioning the destination back into its larger context as a place, the importance of integrated marketing communication (IMC) is underlined. The chapter begins by reviewing expected future tourism trends, in order to make the case for this thesis' interest in destination branding.

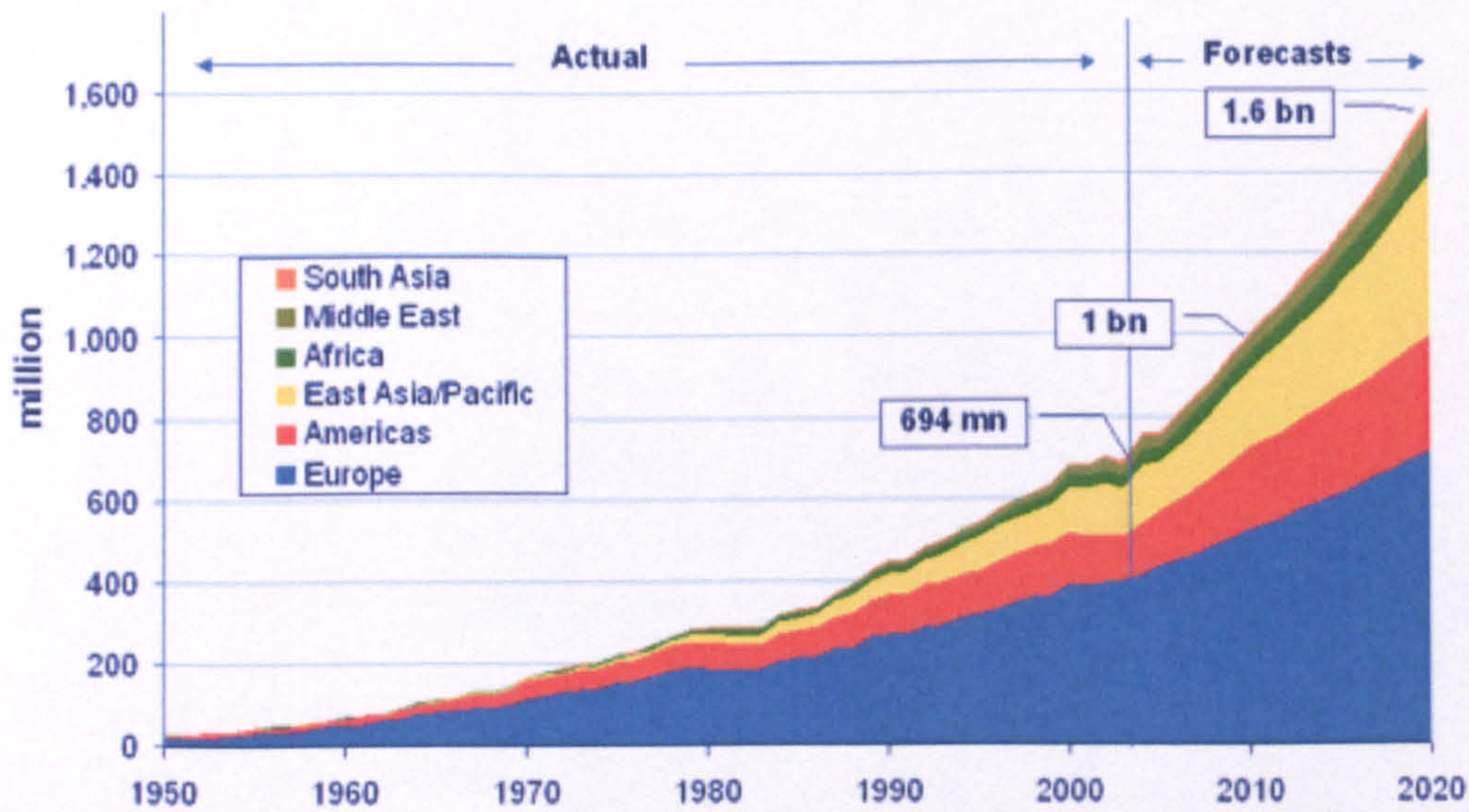
2.2 Tourism Trends

The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) expects worldwide global travel to grow rapidly for at least the next 20 years (Figure 2.1) with tourism long pegged as the world's largest (Middleton & Hawkins 1998) and fastest growing industry and one of the most dynamic components of the service sector (Crouch & Ritchie 1999; Seddighi & Theocharous 2002), providing jobs for 10% of the world's population (WTTC 2007b). The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) reported an increase of 6% in international tourism arrivals in 2007, with nearly 900 million tourists and the fourth consecutive year that arrival growth has exceeded 4% (UNWTO 2007; WTTC 2007b) and 1.5 billion forecast for 2020 (Cabrini 2002b). In the long run, WTTC estimated that the travel and tourism economy that generated 8.3% of global employment and 10.4% of the global gross domestic product (GDP) in 2007 will remain high, with the latter expected to increase to 10.7% in 2017 (WTTC 2007a). International air passenger traffic continues to rise (IATA 2008) and growth of travel and tourism activity is estimated at 4.3% per annum in real terms between 2008 and 2017 (WTTC 2007a), the highest potential for growth of any industry (WTTC 2007b).

IATA (2008) reported that individual countries have been affected, in the very short term, by the rise in both fuel prices and the cost of credit, combined with long term increased competition born out of market liberalization in the North Atlantic, Asia and the Middle East. Repercussions include revised lower 2008 forecasts for countries such as the US, Japan and Europe and higher forecasts in China, the Middle East and South America. Travel to the Mediterranean is expected to rise from 260 million in 1990 to 655 million by 2025 (Beban & Ok 2006). As India's and China's economies continue to gain strength, half of the world's airline travel is forecast to be in Asia by 2010 (Cooper *et al* 2006; Jones 2006). Travel to East Asia and the Pacific is expected to rise from 14.4% of the world market share in 1995 to 25.4% in 2020 (UNWTO 2006a). The Middle East registered an especially high growth of 8% in international passenger arrivals in 2007, and its increase in travel market share is expected to remain the highest

at an average annual rate of 6.7% between 1995 and 2020 (UNWTO 2007). In the big picture, however, its share is still only a measly 4.4% of the global market (UNWTO 2006a).

Figure 2. 1 UNWTO's 2020 world international arrivals forecasts



Source: UNWTO (2006a)

The demand side of tourism has become more sophisticated and more discerning in its expectations (Willmott & Graham 2001) due to economic growth, a larger global population, longer life expectancy, higher education, increased access to information, easier and faster travel, global integration (Cooper *et al* 2006), longer paid leave (Cabrini 2002a) and more choice. The global over-sixties population is expected to exceed that of children younger than 14 by 2040 for the first time in history (Moscardo 2006), and improved medical care and easier lifestyles will probably continue to raise life expectancy and increase both the desire and the capacity for travel (Willmott & Graham 2001). Increases are also predicted in demand for meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions (MICE) tourism (Ladkin 2006), VFR tourism (Pearce & Moscardo 2006), rural tourism (Chen & Kerstetter 1999), exotic tourism (Anholt 2002a), senior tourism (Willmott & Graham 2001; Mackay & Smith 2006; Moscardo 2006), youth and adventure tourism (Muller 2001; Richards & Wilson 2006), second-

home tourism (Muller 2001; Pedro 2006), ecotourism (Mihalic 2006), culture, history and education tourism and sports and events tourism (de Knop 2006), to name a few. Demand is also increasing for shorter holidays several times a year (Cabrini 2002a).

Supply has also risen in number and variety to accommodate expectations (Butler & Hall 2006), as more destinations appreciate the role of tourism in all economic and social spheres (Crouch & Ritchie 1999). As a result, the share of international arrivals of the top 15 destinations (countries) fell from 97% in 1950 to 62% in 2001 (Cabrini 2002b), while other destinations successfully gained a presence in the global travel market. The number of countries receiving over one million tourists annually rose from fewer than 10 to 75 (Cooper *et al* 2006). This makes it more difficult for destination marketers to attract tourists (Jang & Feng 2007), and even traditionally successful destinations must rejuvenate their offerings to maintain tourist interest. Travel and tourism in developed economies is experiencing an average growth of 3% per annum compared to that of 7% in emerging ones (WTTC 2007b), so countries using traditional marketing strategies may have to adapt to new demands in order to maintain their positions. The increasing relative size of the senior population mentioned above will also open doors for destinations catering to the elderly while making it difficult for those with shrinking younger populations like Europe and Japan to compete in an industry that is traditionally heavily dependent on younger cheaper labour (Willmott & Graham 2001). Yet, change, however logical, is not always forthcoming. Despite the growing percentage of females in hospitality (Pizam 2006b), female travellers today are still faced with promotional material targeting males (Pritchard & Morgan 2000) and a shortage of catering to their different requirements (Wilmott & Graham 2001).

Amid these trends, destinations with strong clear positive destination images will be better positioned to succeed (Ahmed 1991), as they differentiate themselves by intangibles like brand values, service and celebrity (Morgan & Pritchard 2001). Especially since the early 1990s, governments are realizing that a destination has to market itself proactively to attract tourism (Papadopoulos 2004), factories, talented

people and demand for its exports (Kotler & Gertner 2002). As a result, branding has become the basis for survival (Morgan & Pritchard 2002).

Destination branding has its roots in the branding of consumer products (Murphy *et al* 2007), so it is useful to review the relevant literature on branding as applied to products in general, before considering its application to destinations.

2.3 Branding

2.3.1 Marketing basics

Marketing is 'the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion and distribution of ideas, goods, services, organizations, and events to create and maintain relationships that will satisfy individual and organizational objectives' (Boone and Kurtz 1999, p.9). A company's objectives may include increasing market share, increasing profitability, expanding or ensuring long term survival, while non-profit organisations may have objectives such as promotion of a cause, a personality or a socially beneficial idea. Marketing seeks to achieve the objectives of both the organisation and its customers by devising a strategy that anticipates customer needs and provides need-satisfying products (Perreault & McCarthy 2003). According to Armstrong and Kotler (2006), this is a three-step process. The first, market segmentation, involves deciding whether to segment the market, dividing it into groups that behave similarly towards the product. This is usually based on demographics, psychographics, geography or behaviour (Stanton *et al* 1991). The second step, target marketing, involves selecting attractive market segments to target, which are measurable, accessible, substantial, differentiable and actionable. The third step is positioning the product in consumers' minds relative to other products, by developing a marketing mix (product, price, distribution and promotion) for specific target markets, clarifying what customers are really buying, what they are willing to exchange for it,

how they will be able to access it and how they will be enticed to make this exchange. The positioning of the product in customers' minds is more important to its success than the product's actual characteristics (Morgan & Pritchard 2002), so the particular combination of these strategy elements can determine marketing success (Kotler & Armstrong 1999). Emphasis on product in the overall strategy means high quality and special features, on price means competitive pricing, on distribution means easy access and on promotion means actively building a strong positive brand image that entices customers, the target of all marketing efforts (Perreault & McCarthy 2003). Over-emphasizing product means that success will last until a better quality product arrives, while overemphasizing price means being vulnerable to similar products sold for less.

In marketing literature, products reaching the end of the maturity stage of their life cycles are likely to stagnate and decline without product modification, market modification or repositioning (Kerin *et al* 2006). A well-managed brand can live long (Armstrong & Kotler 2006), so the marketing mix must be adapted to the life-cycle stage of the generic product (Stanton *et al* 1991). Decisions should be guided by market research from effective marketing information systems (Boone & Kurtz 1999; Kerin *et al* 2006), to 'zero in on the best strategy' rather than choose an arbitrary one (Perreault & McCarthy 2003, p.53).

2.3. 2 Branding basics

Discussions in branding literature, by both academicians and marketers, appear to have two paradigms (Kapferer 2004); one aiming at producing financial measures and the other focusing on customers' relationship with the brand. The first employs promotion-based definitions emphasizing brand promotion and its meaning to marketers, and the second employs perception-based definitions emphasizing how the brand is perceived and its meaning to customers. De Chernatoney (2006, p.28-52) lists the interpretations of a brand first from an input perspective as a logo, a legal instrument, a company, shorthand, a risk reducer, positioning, personality, a cluster of values, vision, adding value and identity, and secondly from an output perspective as image and relationship.

There is inconsistency in many of the definitions. Image, a branding literature staple, is confused with brand (Tasci & Kozak 2006), and has been defined in various ways (Table 2.1), which are promotional or perceptive (Earls 2002). There have been 'almost as many definitions of image as scholars devoted to its conceptualization' (Gallarza 2002, p.59). Frigden's (1987) image only exists in the absence of the product, something the other definitions do not stipulate. Kim and Richardson (2003, p.218) summarize most image literature as describing 'a totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations and feelings accumulated towards a place over time'. The American Marketing Association's (AMA) definition of brand image is the same as that termed brand identity by others, for which the AMA does not have a definition. Brand is used to refer to a myriad of things that include company and trademark and the associations consumers develop around the brand name (Earls 2002). It appears from the review that "brand" most frequently refers to the brand image perceived by customers rather than the brand itself (the trademark) while "branding" refers to marketing the brand personality or identity created by marketers. Keller (2002, p.152) draws a distinction between "brand", as defined by the AMA (Table 2.1) and "Brand" as the creation of 'a certain amount of awareness, reputation and prominence in the marketplace'. Anholt (2005c, p.116-117) explains that the entry of branding into jargon has resulted in three interpretations of brand; the popular, simple and advanced ways. The simple way is equivalent to Keller's 'brand'. The advanced way includes and surpasses Keller's 'Brand' as it covers 'a wide area of corporate strategy, consumer and stakeholder motivation and behaviour, internal and external communications, ethics and purpose'. Anholt's popular way is as a vague and imprecise buzzword for often aggressive marketing activities.

Brand personality definitions were found to refer to three different things; the human characteristics of the brand, the human characteristics of the brand image, or interchangeably with brand identity. Brand identity is another term where there is inconsistency (Jenkins 1999; Konecnik 2004), defined by some as marketers' wishes for how the brand should be perceived (Hunter & Suh 2007), and others as encompassing both marketers' intentions for the brand and the brand image (for example, Manente &

Minghetti 2006). The distinction is very important because the former treats the brand identity as something that is created by marketers while the latter views it as the sum of marketers' creation and customers' perceptions.

Researchers bring with them their own dictionaries and terminologies, and offer their own definitions (Kapferer 2004), as Table 2.1 clearly illustrates. While multi-disciplinary expertise enriches the area, it also introduces inconsistency into even the most basic definitions. An extensive dictionary search found definitions of image in computer graphics, computer science, geometric optics, language, mathematics, medicine, philosophy, physics, poker, religion and science as well as in marketing. The versatility and sometimes even ambiguity of this term in the literature is then hardly surprising. This ambiguity appears endemic to marketing literature. The expression "products and services" is common (for example, de Chernatoney & McDonald 1992, 2003; de Chernatoney & Riley 1999; Kotler & Armstrong 2001; Silverman 2001; Davis 2002; Caldwell & Freire 2004; Gilbert 2005; Nworah 2005; Armstrong & Kotler 2006; Kerin *et al* 2006; Belch & Belch 2007), even though services are themselves products, along with goods, experiences, places, persons and ideas. Choi, Lehto and Morrison (2007) even refer to tourism as an experience "good". The AMA (2007c) draws attention to this, and the resulting lack of a term to apply to the combinations of goods, services or ideas. This underlines the need to clarify the definitions, in order to provide a frame of reference and ensure correct interpretation among both academics and practitioners. This thesis will adopt the distinction made by Kapferer (2004), who explains that image is the receiver's perception while identity is the sender's aim and self-image.

Table 2. 1 Brand-related definitions (two pages)

	Definitions (author)	Notes
Brand (Branding)	'A Brand is creating a certain amount of awareness, reputation and prominence in the marketplace' (Keller 2003)	Promotion-focused
	'Branding is the marketing and management process that gives a product, service, organization or personality a unique identity and image such that it is easily and positively identifiable and distinct from the competition' (Nworah 2005)	
	'A brand is a name, term, sign, symbol, design or some combination that identifies the products of one firm and differentiates them from competitors' offerings' (Boone & Kurtz 1999, p.399; Kotler & Armstrong 2001, p.301; AMA 2007a)	
	'A Brand is a cluster of strategic cultural ideas' (Grant 2006, p.27)	
	If target customers collectively perceive a product to have a unique identity differentiating it from other similar products, with a unique set of benefits they can describe, then it is a brand (Randall 1997).	
	A successful brand is an identifiable product, service, person or place, augmented in such a way that the buyer or user perceives relevant, unique, sustainable added values which match their needs most closely (de Chernatoney & McDonald 2003; de Chernatoney & McDonald 1992 in Gilbert 2005, p.684; Caldwell & Freire 2004)	
	'A brand is a name that influences buyers' (Kapferer 2004, p.11)	
	'The brand distinguishes a product from its unbranded counterpart through the sum total of consumers' perceptions and feelings about the products' attributes and how they perform' (Jevons 2005)	
	'A brand is a product plus values and associations' (Edwards & Day 2007, p.41)	
	'A successful brand is an identifiable product, service, person or place, augmented in such a way that a buyer or user perceives relevant, unique, sustainable added values which match their needs most closely' (de Chernatoney & McDonald 2003 in de Chernatoney 2006, p.13)	
'Branding is the creation of a distortion field in the mind of the consumer, which interferes with his or her sense of value so that he or she is prepared to pay more for a product than its intrinsic worth would suggest' (Anholt 1999, cited in Morgan and Pritchard 2001, p.215)	Perception-focused	
'A brand is a set of consistent promises. It implies trust, consistency and a defined set of expectations' (Davis 2002)		Defines relationship between promoters and perceivers

	Definitions (author)	Notes
Brand personality is...	... 'the psychological nature of a particular brand as intended by its sellers, though persons in the market-place may see the brand otherwise (brand image). The two perspectives compare to the personalities of individual humans: what we intend or desire and what others see or believe' (AMA 2007a)	
Brand identity is...	... 'a combination of many factors, including the name, logo, symbols, design, packaging (i.e. the brand), and performance of a product or service, as well as the image or type of associations that come to mind when consumers think about a brand. It encompasses the entire spectrum of consumers' awareness, knowledge and image of the brand as well as the brand behind it. It is the sum of all points of encounter or contact that consumers have with the brand and it extends beyond the experience or outcome of using it' (Belch & Belch 2007, p.15)	Identity includes consumer brand image, hence both perceptual and promotional
	... sum of beliefs, impressions, ideas and perceptions that people have of objects, behaviours and events (Crompton 1979)	
	... 'a total perception of a product that is formed by processing information from various sources over time' (Assael 1984 in Baloglu & McCleary 1999a)	
	... a mental representation of an object or place which is not physically before the observer (Frigden 1987)	
	... 'a perceptual phenomenon which is formed through consumers' reasoned and emotional interpretation... affected by both stimulus elements of the product and the characteristics of the perceiver' (Dobni & Zinkhan 1990)	
	... 'not only individual traits or qualities but also the total impression an entity makes on the minds of others' ... (Echtner & Ritchie 1991)	
Image is...	.. 'the net result of a person's beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about a place or an object' (Kotler 1994)	
	... 'a concept formed by the consumer's reasoned and emotional interpretation as the consequence of two closely interrelated components: perceptive/ cognitive evaluations referring to the individual's own knowledge and beliefs about the object, and affective appraisals related to an individual's feelings towards the object' (Beerli & Martin 2004a, p.658)	
	... the consumer perception of a product, institution, brand, business, or person that may or may not correspond with "reality" or "actuality." For marketing purposes the "image of what is" may be more important than "what actually is." (AMA 2007b)	
	... 'how customers and others perceive the brand' (Aaker 1996, p.69)	
Brand image is...	... 'the perception of a brand in the minds of persons... what people believe about a brand - their thoughts, feelings, expectations' (AMA 2007a)	

2.3. 3 Branding consumer products

Brands provide consumers with many advantages. Consumers need to distinguish products in today's markets and brands can provide them with signs (Freire 2005), reduce substitutability (Morgan & Pritchard 2002) and add value to the products by making them worth more than the sum of their ingredients. They offer customers a sense of belonging, and their belief in the product will cause them to invest themselves in the brand by purchasing, to defend it against rivals and even to help others to belong (Hanlon 2006). Brands add to consumers' quality of life, helping them to perpetuate their beliefs, to feel easier with others and to act as pressure groups, by blending functional performance-based values with emotional ones (de Chernatoney 2006). When marketing 'changes focus from function, benefit and an assumption of consumer rationality to the sensory, affective, creative and cognitive, brands transcend being merely product identifiers and become experience providers' (Prentice 2004, p. 925-926). Consumers will wish to associate with a brand they view positively, will have a more favourable image of a product, and will be more likely to purchase it if there is higher congruence between it and their own self-image (Litvin & Goh 2000). When they choose brands, they are actually making lifestyle statements, buying into an emotional relationship (Sheth *et al* 1999), communicating and differentiating themselves (Freire 2005). Branding is therefore an attractive scenario for any product where choices exist.

Branding also benefits producers by adding value to products (de Chernatoney 2006). A product that becomes a brand, through active branding or otherwise, will acquire human characteristics and its exchange value will be distorted. Customers will be willing to pay 'brand equity', which is the value of the brand (AMA 2007a). Brand equity is defined as 'the price premium customers are prepared to pay above the commodity value of a product or service' (Gilbert 2005, p.647). It is 'an intangible asset of added value or goodwill that results from the favourable image, impressions of differentiation, and / or the strength of consumer attachment to a company, name, brand

name or trademark' (Belch and Belch, p.60). According to Leitch and Richardson (2003), branding empowers products by giving them both discursive and non-discursive powers. The former, the gains from being perceived as attractive, enable producers to sell products at a premium and maintain their market share among lower priced competition of equal quality, and the latter enable producers to use the supportive infrastructure to pose barrier entries to competition. De Chernatoney (2006) suggests that focus should move from reengineering and restructuring to reinventing markets, and changing behaviour. The brand, therefore, carries an implicit statement about the product's quality and price, while endowing it with the ability to compete beyond the limitations of functionality, performance, efficiency and affordability. Branding is so important that it no longer only belongs to marketing (Kapferer 2004).

Branding involves the construction of a brand identity. This identity provides the framework for brand coherence, and is the source of brand positioning for existing brands (Kapferer 2004). According to de Chernatoney (2006), brand identity construction begins with the brand vision, which utilizes input from visionaries within the company, while the 'brand essence' stage employs the brand pyramid (attributes – benefits – emotional rewards – values – personality traits) to characterize the brand core promise. Aaker (1996, p.69) warns of falling into the traps of staying within the brand image, over-focussing on the brand position, underestimating the importance of internal branding and being over-fixated on product attributes (marketing myopia). He explains that while the core identity is long term, the extended identity provides the detail so that it is easier to understand, and the value proposition states the functional, emotional and self-expressive benefits. Brand values are important to customers because they relate to personality traits that help them decide whether they wish to associate with the brand, to employees because they should align with their own values and to the company because they drive behaviour (de Chernatoney 2006). Constructing the brand identity, therefore, provides the opportunity to create and construct fact-based fiction; a tangibly-rooted intangible holistic projection. Section 2.4 will review destination

literature, in order to consider whether these branding concepts are applicable to such an entity.

2. 4 Destinations

The destination is another concept that does not have a generally accepted definition. Definitions have been described as vague (Murphy *et al* 2000), and fuzzy (Manente and Minghetti 2006). Some destination definitions focus on the place. One such general definition, which does not specify a particular market, is that of a place 'with some form of actual or perceived boundary' (Kotler *et al* 2003, p.718). It has also been defined as a 'specific location of tourism consumption separate from travel routes to and from the tourist's home environment' (Butler & Hall 2006, p.94). This definition focuses on the destination's tourism aspect. Other definitions focus on the product. Murphy *et al* (2000, p.43) define it as 'an amalgam of products and services available in one location that can draw visitors from beyond its spatial confines'. Seaton's (1996b, p.351) definition breaks down the product to include 'every kind of tourism organization' as well as 'the people, the other industries, the landscape, etc. – which may be part of the destination experience, the 'local colour' to the tourist'. Manente and Minghetti (2006, p.230) synthesized many destination definitions and described 'the destination system' as 'a group of actors linked by mutual relationships with specific rules, where the action of each other influences the others so that common objectives must be defined and attained in a co-ordinated way'. Their definition, although detailed, is still vague enough to include as the actors both suppliers and consumers with their different objectives, while at the same time be construed to refer to the various suppliers within the destination. Their mention of all of these parties in the accompanying discussion leaves one to suspect that this particular vagueness is intentional, to produce a more holistic definition. A destination, because of its natural complexity and multi-dimensionality, may be a particularly appropriate entity to which to apply a holistic approach. The latter is a systems worldview that the whole is greater

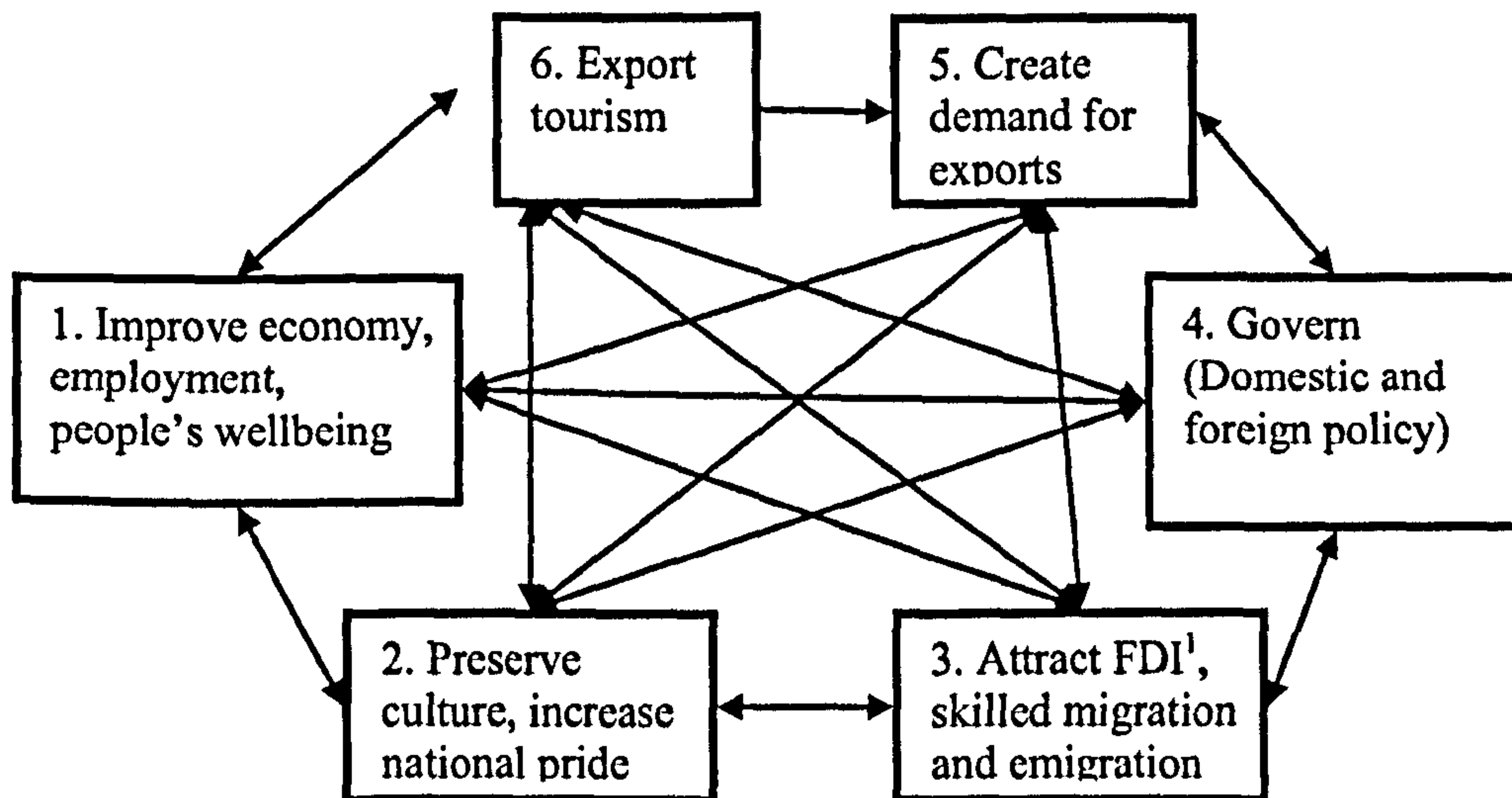
than the sum of its parts (Polasky 2002; Business Dictionary 2007) and that any part should be studied with an eye to the whole and its relation to the other parts (Polasky 2002; WordNet 2006). It is now recognized that marketing places has many facets and the more recent models are more holistic (Gould & Skinner 2007).

The relevance of the interpretation of 'destination' lies in determining the inventory of elements to consider when branding it. This research considers the 'destination' as one perspective of a place that includes a population, an infrastructure, a government and a private sector, as in Anholt's (2004) view of tourism promotion as part of place branding. Such an approach would be mindful of whom else besides tourists the destination may seek to attract, and what else the destination might be besides a tourism product. A place is perceived by tourists, foreign investors, migrants and emigrants as a destination, but is also perceived by others as a place to live, a place to work and a place to belong. Places aim to provide a better more prosperous quality of life, education, health and wellbeing (Beeton 2005), all of which are economically-dependent goals. The place system's infrastructure is used by all of its residents as well and its economic performance will affect their purchasing power and quality of life. The holistic perspective of the place system does not divorce the place from the destination, even while it focuses on tourism. Rather, it recognizes that destination branding for tourism is part of a holistic all-encompassing strategy to achieve the destination's long term goals, and should be mindful of the interrelationship with these other goals (Figure 2.2).

The brand image is a very important criterion in the customer-based brand equity (Section 2.3.3) of a tourism destination (Konecnik 2004). The adaption of brand equity measurement methods to places is being explored (Gartner 2007; Insch & Florek 2007). The Anholt Nation Brands Index (Anholt & Hildreth 2004; Anholt 2007) uses global data in six key areas that match the six destination goals in Figure 2.2; tourism, exports brands, government domestic and foreign policy, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, and citizens. Brand equity can provide direction for managing destination

brand image and measure the progress of active branding. It is appropriate, therefore, to examine some of those goals:

Figure 2. 2 Goals of the destination system



Source: adapted from Anholt's Nation's brand hexagon (Anholt 2002a; Oud 2005)
 FDI= foreign direct investment

1. Improve economic strength, employment and people's wellbeing: As already mentioned above, social goals and the well being and prosperity of citizens are important goals of governments (Crouch & Ritchie 1999; Beeton 2005). The creation of employment opportunities helps to achieve these goals, and tourism is believed to help address the problem (Gursoy & Rutherford 2004). Travel and tourism makes a 'vital contribution to the world's economy as well as to the quality of life of its citizens' by creating sustainable employment, countering climate change and facilitating interactions between people (WTTC 2007b, p.5). Inward investment and a strong economy can also help to provide jobs, improve the quality of education, health and other services which result in raising citizens' standard of living and increasing their sense of wellbeing and pride of place. A population pre-occupied with unemployment, masked unemployment or human rights and freedoms may not support the destination's strategic vision. Rather than attracting skilled foreigners, the shortage of local employment opportunities may

cause highly skilled locals to consider outward migration. Residents are discussed further in Section 3.6.2.

2. Preserve culture, increase national pride: A destination seeks to preserve its language, its history and its culture, which are basic ingredients in its identity and in the character of its nationals. 'How people see themselves, their enjoyment of living in a place and their ability to communicate these depends on education, freedom of expression and confidence in their culture and traditions, all components of the place's intellectual architecture' (Gold 2006, p.225). Culture is a vital promotional gift that enriches a destination's brand image and explains its values (Anholt 2005a). Citizens are more likely to support national strategies that are perceived to contribute positively to their culture, and this support is important (Section 2.4.2). Along with a stronger economy, a common sense of national pride and purpose can be achieved through successful branding (Frost 2004). If people abroad recognize the destination's fashions, its culture, its food or its language in a positive way, these can also be associated with its exports and with the experience of travel to the destination through a unified brand. According to Anholt (2002a, p.49; 2005a, p.147), western tastes have developed an interest in Asian 'older, wiser, more contemplative civilizations', providing at least a window of opportunity for 'ethnic organic exotic' cultures. Tourism can be a way to 'give value to heritage that would otherwise be under threat' (WTTC 2007b), but globalization can dilute the destination's character rendering its competitive advantage non-sustainable. On the other hand, destinations can get stuck in the past or end up marketing 'fakelore' (Skinner 2005). As important destination markets, locals residents are discussed in Section 3.6.2.

3. Attract foreign direct investment (FDI), skilled migration and emigration: A destination will seek to attract inward investment because the economy benefits from the money invested into the country, providing employment (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Anholt 2005a), financing infrastructure development and projects that profit local businesses, improving the quality of life of residents and encouraging inward migration of high calibre expatriate employment. If the environment is conducive to inward migration and employment, foreign companies may set up local offices employing both foreigners and

locals. Investors may visit the destination as tourists before they decide whether or not to invest. Positive personal experience and positive WOM about the destination may encourage potential investors to consider it (Section 3.5.1).

Investors choosing locations for foreign ventures are buyers of the destination product (Papadopoulos 2004). They are attracted to 'dynamic places' with skilled labour, and other companies to do business with (Gold 2006). ArabianBusiness.com (2007) lists some of the factors companies consider. These include whether a place is at peace, is easy to live in, has a good transport system and inexpensive real estate, has established rules of doing business, a non-bureaucratic online business environment and access to a pool of relevantly skilled labour, good growth prospects for individuals, for business and for the city and dominates the region's commerce. Other location considerations include labour laws, training facilities, infrastructure, tax climate, amenities, higher education, energy and communication as well as proximity to markets, confidence in administration and existence of industry clusters (Kotler & Gertner 2002). Safety and a politically stable hospitable environment are also factors (Nworah 2006).

High calibre inward employment is attractive because it provides training to locals in the workplace and spends a substantial portion of its high salaries within the destination, occupying locally-owned housing, purchasing products from the local marketplace and stimulating the economy. They may form nuclei that require further services such as international schools, creating more employment and perpetuating the cycle. They are also particularly valuable as a potential source of visiting friends and relatives (VFR). An expatriate position today is likely to be considered a career opportunity (Barber & Pittaway 2000). Expatriates considering migration may visit a destination as tourists before they decide whether to migrate, and a positive personal experience and positive WOM about the destination may encourage them to choose it. If their experience is positive, expatriate workers may consider remaining at the destination and becoming locals. Factors affecting migration include the quality of children's education (Li & Tse 1998), and whether the destination provides a high quality of life or remunerates enough to override temporary hardship and whether it offers a rich variety of cultural events

(Gold 2006). As important destination markets, the special characteristics of expatriate residents are discussed in Section 3.6.2.

4. Domestic and foreign policy: Economic growth and the implementation of employment and social policies that foster innovation and creativity are domestic policy priorities (Gold 2006), which affect the destination's internal and external images. Despite promotion, image building would be affected by social problems and human rights abuses (Kotler *et al* 2003). A destination will acquire a positive image internally if it is perceived as a good place to work, live and belong, if justice, law and order are maintained and human rights are respected, and if it provides residents with the required infrastructure, services and opportunities to improve their lives. Some of the challenges of uncooperative residents will be discussed in Section 2.4.2, which is why they were considered an important destination market in Section 3.6.2. The destination will have a positive global image if the strategy designed and executed by visionary managers produces a strong economy, protects human rights, respects international law and has strong unique human characteristics. The world's media is likely to react cynically to countries with poor brands and highlight achievements of countries with stronger brands (Anholt 2005b). When McDonalds' and Egyptian company Americana's products were boycotted in reaction to American policies in 2002, they started advertising "100% Egyptian" and "100% Arabic" in the Arab world to dissociate themselves from the U.S. and revive their sales (Shahine 2003). Israel's successful "Hava" campaign was derailed by the breakdown of peace efforts in the region (Morgan & Pritchard 2002).

5. Create demand for exports: Higher demand for exported goods and services raises productivity levels, providing more employment opportunities, increasing the gross national product and improving the standard of living. Small countries using a country-of-origin strategy may enhance their global competitiveness with products that are too small to stand alone (Kleppe *et al* 2002). Anholt (2005a) proposes implementing a holistic destination branding approach that includes exporting branded goods in character with the destination rather than manufacturing cheap unbranded ones to be branded in the first world and then re-exported at much higher prices. Branded exports

can command higher prices (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Anholt 2005a) and are better positioned than unbranded ones competing on price. Their success also affects the destination brand, especially if they are directly associated with it, such as Columbian coffee or Scotch whisky. Country of origin (COO) studies of the marketability of products are well documented and plentiful with wide concurrence about a relationship between the COO image and the perception of that country's product attributes (Gould & Skinner 2007). Exports associated with the destination may also provide a taste to foreigners and locals abroad, a reminder to previous visitors and locals abroad and a sense of pride to residents.

6. Export tourism: The expected increase in competition for tourism has already been discussed in Section 2.2. The tourist's destination experience is the encapsulation of a combination of goods, services and experiences offered by the various providers within its borders. Tourists spend money consuming and increasing demand for these products and stimulating the economy. Governments are attracted to tourism because it alleviates balance of payment problems, stimulates economic growth, contributes to the quality of life of residents (WTTC 2007b), and provides employment opportunities (Getz 1994; Lim 1997; Middleton & Hawkins 1998). In addition to the direct benefits to the tourism and hospitality industry, indirect benefits occur in tourism and hospitality education and through the multiplier effect when tourist expenditures and tourism taxes circulate through the economy (Kotler & Gertner 2002). Tourism is also attractive because it stimulates demand for place-made exports (Kotler *et al* 2003) and causes relatively low pollution. Tourism also stimulates and finances infrastructure development (WTTC 2007b). Tourists are attracted to places that are fun and energetic even if they don't partake in their activities (Gold 2006). The tourist's destination experience affects and is affected by the destination's brand image. Potential investors' views and decisions about a destination's economic prospects are also affected by its image, because what makes a destination successful in attracting tourism may also make it attractive to foreign investment (Anholt 2002a; Gilmore 2002a; Gnoth 2002). Negative perceptions may reduce foreign investment, local business activity and tourism (Trueman *et al* 2004), having a major negative effect on the country's economy. Tourists are, therefore,

important destination markets, to be discussed in Section 3.6.1. In order to satisfy this market, tourist facilities must be provided. The infrastructure necessary to accommodate tourism will be produced and maintained by working residents and used by residents, and will become necessary for maintaining the employment and quality of life of residents as well as attracting tourism. Strategically, exporting tourism also enables marketers to stimulate internal national pride, and to provide first-hand sense to external markets of the destination as a place to live in, to work in, to invest in, to trade with (Crouch & Ritchie 1999) and even to belong to, for those considering investment, migration or emigration.

In addition to the above, other destination objectives include sustaining the environment for future generations. The social, cultural and natural environmental benefits have to be weighed carefully against the social, cultural and economic costs to attain that delicate balance. Residents often perceive the social and physical effects of tourism on their community negatively despite the economic advantages it provides (Crick-Furman & Prentice 2000, p.70). Clearly, the destination is a place for more than tourism, in which exporting tourism is interdependent with its other goals, which is consistent with the holism mentioned earlier in Section 2.4. When marketing the destination for tourism, the destination's marketed identity abroad should not contradict or damage its pursuit of its other international goals (Anholt 2002a). Achieving one objective can improve the chances of the success of the others, and mishandling one could detriment the others. Also clear, is that the destination's markets include its residents.

The application of traditional marketing principles to a destination is discussed next.

2.4. 1 Destination marketing

Like corporate organizations, the destination's goals (Section 2.4) must be attained through a strategy that satisfies customer needs. As discussed in Section 2.3.1, the first step in a marketing strategy is to segment the market. The destination's customers include residents and tourists locally, while potential customers include potential

migrants and immigrants, potential tourists and potential investors abroad. In the previous discussion, local and expatriate residents and tourists were mentioned in particular, the latter including mass tourists, the VFR market and MICE tourists. The second step, targeting, is when the destination must decide which of these market segments to target (Kotler *et al* 2003). If it wants to attract investment, migration or tourism, it will include those markets. If it is interested in tourism, it will select which tourist markets to target according to its capabilities. Destination markets included in this research (residents and tourists) will be discussed in more detail in Section 3.6. The third step, positioning, is when the destination decides who it wants to be. Destination marketers must make product, price, distribution and promotion decisions emphasizing their distinctive personalities based on the emotional components of destination image (Hosany *et al* 2006). Fundamental to destination positioning are reputation (the quality of the offering and added value), relationship building (building relationships with consumers) and personal recommendation (producing positive WOM) (Prentice 2004). Decisions should be guided by the destination's vision for its future and informed by market research (Section 2.3.1). By deciding who it wants to be and how to pursue its goals and by using informed planning and management to move towards this vision, the destination will be actively branding. A sports destination may invest in sports facilities and world-class athletes, organize activities and tournaments, sponsor and host international sports events, champion a sports mentality at home and abroad and encourage inward migration of talented athletes. An educational destination may improve the breadth and quality of its educational spectrum, encourage research and conferences, target the MICE market, provide support services for students, market a research mentality and encourage inward immigration of qualified academics.

In theory, tourism is not exclusive to naturally gifted countries, and any destination could develop and position itself to competitive advantage. In reality, however, destination managers may be unable to develop the necessary infrastructure to attract tourism (Ankomah & Crompton 1990) or to implement particular tourism plans (Baud-Bovy 1982) for economic, socio-cultural or environmental reasons. Butler's (1980)

Tourist Area Life Cycle (TALC), one of the most cited and most important works in tourism research (Andriotis 2006), explains the dynamic character of tourism destinations in a similar way to traditional products. The TALC approach to resorts / destinations sees them progressing from exploration to involvement to development to consolidation and then to decline, stagnation or rejuvenation. With destinations now likely to reach the latter stages more quickly than before, competitive advantages must be created or enhanced, tired images must be shed and adjustments made to the overall development of the destination, armed with the experiences of other destinations (Butler 1980; Ioannides 2006), through targeting niche markets or repositioning. Although the stages are easier recognized with hindsight, destinations can prepare for the impending decline with strategic rebranding initiatives to delay the end or at least control the damage, rather than being caught unawares.

Morgan and Pritchard (2002) concur that destinations go through developmental stages, but they adopt Weinrich (1999)'s approach that a destination's life cycle is more like the S-curve of "fad" products, going through "fashionable – famous – familiar – fatigued" stages. They warn of brand decay if the end is not recognized and acknowledged and if the destination is not refreshed. In this scenario, destinations may become fashionable again (Caldwell & Freire 2004). If a destination is indeed a fashion accessory, then the fickleness and restlessness of trend setters and fashion slaves may be both its demise and its blessing. Unless a destination becomes a classic fashion staple, some time may have to elapse before it can be re-launched as the latest 'must have'. Unlike fashion houses who churn out different styles every season, time is a luxury that destinations can ill-afford.

Whatever approach one takes to destinations, in the end, if destinations are not developed for tourism sustainably, their success in attracting tourism will not last. This underlines the importance of 'strategic decision taking' and 'the adoption of a long term planning horizon' (Cooper 1994, p.341). Whether branding principles are applicable to destinations is considered next.

2.4. 2 Destination branding

There was some scepticism towards the idea of branding destinations in early literature, and there is some justification. Although rooted in the branding of consumer products, branding destinations is more complicated (Tasci & Kozak 2006; Gartner 2007; Pike 2007). It may be possible for a business to centrally manage information and indoctrinate its employees with its chosen brand identity, but it is impossible to reach a consensus amongst a destination's citizens (Nworah 2005), so destinations are much more difficult to brand than consumer products (Gartner *et al* 2007; Pike 2007; de Chernatoney & Riley 1999). The destination consists of physical elements and social factors (Murphy *et al* 2000) and a variety of goods, services and experiences and this multi-dimensionality presents a challenge (Pike 2005, 2007). Even in the branding of service industries, heterogeneity is considered to be an obstacle to traditional quality control measures, because of the uniqueness of each service encounter (de Chernatoney & Riley 1999). Seaton (1996b) argued that only homogenous products that target defined market segments using controllable marketing mix elements can be branded successfully, and that the need to market differently to different target markets rules out the idea of destination branding. The heterogeneity of the product makes it very difficult to control delivery (Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Nworah 2005; Manente & Minghetti 2006; Pike 2007). Many 'branding purists' believe the 'amorphous' nature of destinations makes branding them impossible (Pride 2002, p.110).

Another challenge is presented by the heterogeneity of stakeholders (Pike 2007; Wheeler 2007), who come from different backgrounds with different motivations and agendas, from the public and the private sectors and a lack of collective vision. Often, industry members will compete instead of collaborating (Murphy *et al* 2000), perhaps due to the destination's inherently 'fragmented nature' (Scott *et al* 2001, p.198) and differences in priorities and objectives (Prentice 1993). Communities are usually not of one mind when it comes to attitudes towards tourism itself (Kotler *et al* 2003) and resolving conflicts within the community whose members' economic / environmental priorities differ

presents a further challenge (Prentice 1993). Politics plays a large role in decision making (Morgan *et al* 2002; Pride 2002; Ryan 2002; Caldwell & Freire 2004; Pike 2007), and destination management decisions have to create harmony between these communities (Middleton & Hawkins 1998). Destination branding for tourism is 'believed to be less controllable, more complex, multidimensional, multi-faceted, and far less advanced than that of consumer products' (Tasci & Kozak 2006, p.311).

Other challenges include the pre-existing reputation of the destination (Govers 2007), the different identities of local communities within a destination (Wheeler 2007), politics, short-term thinking, creating differentiation and budget limitations (Morgan and Pritchard 2002a; Pride 2002), effective differentiation among competition, the fine balance to be struck between community consensus and brand theory, and stimulating and maintaining brand loyalty with previous visitors (Pike 2005, 2007). Frost (2004) cites the challenges summarized by Professor Nicolas Papadopoulos of the Sprott School of Business at Carleton University in Ottawa as 'lack of unity of purpose, difficulty in establishing actionable and measurable objectives, lack of authority over inputs and control over outputs, restricted flexibility, and relative lack of marketing know-how'. The lack of control makes it difficult not only marketing the destination but also managing its development coherently (Manente & Minghetti 2006), hence, there have been those who question not only whether places can be branded but even whether marketing principles should apply to places at all (Skinner 2005). The brand's strategic success is of utmost importance, and communication and compromise may be necessary.

There are many cases illustrating the challenges. Although not a branding case, the Chinese government's failure to control consistency in the quality of its tour-guide services, possibly to the detriment of their marketing strategy (Cai & Woods 1993), is still a reminder of the importance of including all concerned parties in a branding strategy. Nigeria failed when crafted branding messages were not first sold to citizens at home and abroad who could then sell the country to others (Nworah 2005). Brand Oregon failed because of inconsistencies and failure to see the connection between lifestyle and business opportunities and resistance to direction (Morgan & Pritchard

2002). Morocco failed because its brand which had been successfully sold internally did not match the brand image of its markets abroad (Morgan & Pritchard 2002), and it gave too much credence to outsiders whose judgements were based on myopic short-term materialistic perspectives (Govers 2007). Dubai is considered the fourth best country brand for conventions and third for business yet is not one of the top 10 brands (Balakrishnan 2008). It appears to be successful, but it may not have built a coherent brand because of the disconnection between its tourism sectors (Govers 2007). Australian Victoria's High Country brand is struggling because of the conflicting nature of the local communities included under the umbrella brand (Wheeler 2007).

Gudjonsson (2005) divided people into Absolutists, Moderates and Royalists according to their position on nation branding. Absolutists believe in it and support it, Moderates believe nations cannot be branded but that branding tools can be used to add value to them, and Royalists believe that the holistic nature of nations precludes change using branding tools. This classification, and in fact the entire article, while it refers to nation branding, focuses on branding nations for the purpose of promoting exports, citing examples of export support, and when evaluated from that perspective, the usefulness of the huge investment necessary does require some pause, but the effect of branding nations on the other destination goals (Section 2.4) should be considered before its value and its wisdom can be judged. The Royalists' position that the government does not own or control citizens as a corporation does its staff, is more a distinction based on inconsistencies in the definition of nation branding between the camps. The Royalists definition mentions 'changing the nation' while branding, although it will most likely affect change, is more about changing perceptions (Gudjonsson 2005, p.283). Moreover, the Moderates are actually non-believers since they also disbelieve that nations can be branded.

If one takes Seaton's (1996b) position at the beginning of this discussion, and assumes that products must be homogeneous and controllable to be brandable, then it would be difficult, although less so, to brand a shopping mall, a makeover experience or goods exported and distributed through remote retailers over whom marketers have little or no

control, yet such products are being branded every day. Branding mass-produced goods may be easier, but every service encounter does not have to be identical. Many goods manufacturers are now moving away from 'homogeneous' mass production using micro-marketing and individual marketing to increase customer satisfaction (Armstrong & Kotler 2006) and brand loyalty. Park and Petrick (2006) found that although self-professed destination branders reported the need for destination branding in order to compete successfully and the belief that it is similar to corporate / umbrella branding, these branders also reported being challenged by the large number of stakeholders and the lack of execution control. The authors concluded that they were uncertain whether these branders were actually branding or image building. This lack of distinction is common in the literature (Konecnik 2004), where some consider branding and positioning to be separate (for example, Manente & Minghetti 2006), while others consider the latter as part of the branding process (for example, Park & Petrick 2006).

Olins (2002, p.246) passionately defended destination branding, citing numerous historical examples of successfully branded destinations and proposing that resistance to the concept may be due to snobbery, ignorance or semantics. Heterogeneity and branding, although not best friends, are not mutually exclusive. Heterogeneity should not preclude branding, as the latter is applicable wherever a consumer has choice, helping to decide among alternatives (Keller 2003). The destination's inherent uniqueness, from its culture and other benefits (Gilmore 2002a), offers the experience of an "other" life as its competitive advantage (Crouch & Ritchie 1999), and exists among other destination alternatives. If the most important function of branding is the creation and communication of a three-dimensional character for a product that is not easily copied or damaged by competitor's efforts (Brassington & Pettitt 2007), then this uniqueness of destinations and their ability to evoke emotional attachments (Morgan & Pritchard 2002), would actually lend them to branding more than any fast moving consumer goods (FMCGs). Destinations are already brands, and destination image is the image of the destination brand.

The examples of failed 'branding cases' are more illustrative of human failure and the importance of internal branding to the success of a branding strategy than they are of the impossibility of branding a destination. The challenges from the destination's heterogeneous nature and lack of control only emphasize the importance of investing in the development of a cohesive image and cohesive destination organization (Scott *et al* 2001). Successful destinations are well-funded, have a shared vision led by enlightened champions, produce clever advertising, monitor and evaluate communications and are open-minded, adaptable and continually evolving but are committed to the brand personality as a long-term strategy (Morgan and Pritchard 2002a). Pride (2002) suggests adding *politics* and *paucity* to the marketing mix (product, price, place and promotion) to allow for complexities of the destination's non-homogenous amorphous nature and the lack of control over the myriad of products included in the overall product. Anholt (2005a) suggests that success managing the control problem can be achieved by establishing a dedicated empowered government body to drive the strategy forwards and provide direction, ensuring consistency of all messages emitted by the destination (Section 2.5.3), and ensuring a single-minded commitment to the national brand from all government committees. He also suggests a loose network of semi-independent groups, planning and executing activities and communications inspired by a commonly held belief in a simple powerful mission.

Destination branding was addressed indirectly in Kotler's "the Marketing of Nations" in 1997 and has only been in the spotlight since the late 1990s (Anon 2007), and literature was sparse (Cai 2002). Although branding literature originated in the 1950s (Pike 2007), the first edition of the first book dedicated to Destination Branding by Morgan, Pritchard and Pride was only published in 2002, acknowledging a fundamental change in destination marketing. The topic has still not received much attention (Tasci and Kozak 2006), though more sceptics are coming to believe that branding can effectively contribute to the economic development of places and as a means of redistribution of global wealth (Anholt 2004). Whether its implications are understood and whether it is appropriate for everyone, most academics and practitioners now agree that like goods

and services, places are brandable (Caldwell & Freire 2004). More recent publications include Baker's "Destination Branding for Small Cities", Anholt's "Brand New Justice" and "Competitive Identity: The New Brand Management for Nations, Cities and Regions" and Dinnie's "Nation Branding: Concepts, Issues, Practice". The topic was previously discussed in special journal issues (for example, *Journal of Brand Management*, September 2002 issue) before the *Journal of Place Branding and Public Diplomacy* began publication in 2004. Previously relegated to breakaway status in international conferences, it has now earned a dedicated forum in the "Destination Branding and Marketing Tourism Regions Conferences" in Macao, China in December 2005 and 2007. Yet, few destinations have developed successful destination brands. Examples include Ireland, India, Australia, New Zealand, Spain (Morgan & Pritchard 2002) and Wales (Skinner 2005). The study of destination image is older, and only recently is it being discussed more formally within destination branding (Hosany *et al* 2006), but it would appear that it cannot really be positioned in any other context, so whether it is explicitly stated or not, destination branding research is older than its birth certificate indicates. It was simply known by another name.

The discrepancy in the terminology of destination branding literature (Table 2.2) mirrors that in branding, discussed in Section 2.3.2. The relationship between brand image, identity and personality is perceived in different ways (Govers 2007). Aaker (1996, p.142) defined the brand personality as 'the set of human characteristics associated with a given brand'. Hosany *et al* (2006, p.639) adapted this definition for tourism, saying that the brand personality which is encompassed in the brand image is 'the set of human characteristics associated to a tourism destination'. This view focuses on the affect component of brand image without specifying whether the association is promotional or perceptual. Aaker (1996, p.68-69) defined 'the brand identity' as 'a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or to maintain', and the brand image as 'how customers and others perceive the brand', without specifying the others, clearly contrasting the aspirational identity to the passive image, but then describing the brand identity as strategic and brand image as tactical.

Table 2. 2 Destination branding definitions

Author	Destination image definitions	Notes
Hunt 1975	The impressions that a person or persons hold about a destination in which they do not reside	Emphasis on absence
Tuan 1975	Something formed in the human mind in absence of physical environment	
Lawson & Baud Bovy 1977	The expression of all objective knowledge, impressions, prejudices, imaginations, and emotional thoughts an individual or group might have of a particular place	Emphasis on place, no mention of absence
Crompton 1979	The sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that people have of a place or destination	
Embacher & Buttle 1989	The ideas or conceptions held individually or collectively of the destination under investigation, comprising of both cognitive and evaluative components	
Echtner & Ritchie 1991	Not only the perception of individual destination attributes, but also the holistic impression made by the destination...	
Holloway 2006	A number of physical attributes along with perceptions allied to the destination which will include tangible attributes such as the hospitality of the locals, the atmosphere generated by being there, the sense of awe, alienation or other emotions generated by the place	Gradual increased detail, image becomes more inclusive and holistic
Author	Destination brand definitions	
Nworah 2005	Country branding is the process whereby a country actively seeks to create a unique and competitive identity for itself, with the aim of positioning the country internally and internationally as a good destination for trade, tourism and investments.	Despite the terminology, this definition focuses on destination as place.
Gold 2006	A Place brand is the place's reputation among those people that the place cares about, such as citizens, potential investors and visitors. Place branding is a form of good government aimed at managing perceptions about a place.	This definition includes domestic policies and is more holistic than others.

Source: Literature review

A second view perceives the identity as separate from the marketing strategy and intrinsic to the destination. Manente and Minghetti (2006) proposed that consumers' perception of the destination is influenced by the destination image, which is derived from both its identity and its marketing strategy. A third view is that of the brand image as an inaccurate mirror reflection of the brand personality or product being (AMA 2007a). The community's own view of itself complicates things further.

There are parallels between the definitions of destination image (Table 2.2) and those of image (Table 2.1). Hunt's (1975) and Tuan's (1975) definitions of destination image are equivalent to Frigden's (1987) image definition, implying that destination image is only held by non-residents, while others do not stipulate this. Embacher and Buttle's (1989) destination image definition shares the holistic approach with Oxenfeldt's image definition. The confusing vocabulary discrepancies have been widely mentioned (for example, Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Anholt 2004; Beerli & Martin 2004b; Hosany 2006; Tasci and Kozak 2006; Govers 2007; Hanna and Rowley 2008). According to Anholt (2006c, p.276), 'nation branding is potentially the "master discipline" of economic development for emerging countries attempting to harmonize policy, people, sport and culture, products, tourism, trade and investment promotion and talent recruitment'. Like Gold's (2006) definition (Table 2.2), this positions nation branding as a governance strategy that includes marketing rather than as a marketing strategy. Hanna and Rowley (2008) found that since 2000, place branding case studies appear more in the business and branding disciplines than in tourism, most using 'destination branding' as the place term.

Decision-makers on the ground may lack the tools to construct successful strategies, misinterpreting theory and not benefiting from the latest academic research. Explanations suggested have included a lack of theory development impeding the establishment of managerial implications (Hosany *et al* 2006), the newness of the field (Anholt 2004), the systematic lack of transfer of knowledge from academic / research institutions to hospitality / tourism firms (Pizam 2006a) and the traditionally multi-

disciplinary nature of tourism (Zhao and Ritchie 2007). Unlike pure sciences where most researchers specialize in one field throughout their academic career, tourism attracts academics who develop an interest in the subject as well as tourism professionals who become interested in academia and research. This may be why an investigation of researchers' academic backgrounds by exploring their homepages and / or university websites discovered a variety of disciplines that did not always include tourism (Table 2.3).

Table 2. 3 Specializations of a sample of tourism scholars

Specialization	Scholars
Anthropology	Jafari, J.; Nash, D. ¹
Business	Baum, T.; Crouch, J.; Pizam, A.; Ritchie, B.; Milman, A.; Ritchie, J.R.B. ¹ ; Weiermair, K.; Woodside, A.
Chemistry	Ritchie, J.R.B. ¹
Economics	Gartner, W.; Hankinson, G.; Kotler, P. ¹ ; Ryan, C. ¹ , Sheldon, P.; Witt, S.
Education	Morrison, A.
Geography	Butler, R.; Cooper, C.; Fesenmaier, D.; Oppermann, M.; Pearce, D.
History	Morgan, N.
Languages	Dinnie, K. ¹ ; Gilmore, F.
Literature.	Seaton, A.V. ¹
Management	Prentice, R.
Marketing	Dinnie, K. ¹ ; Kotler, P. ¹ ; Pike, S. ¹
Psychology	Moscardo, G.; Pearce, P., Ryan, C. ¹
Social Sciences	Seaton, A.V. ¹
Sociology	Cohen, E. ¹ ; Pritchard, A., Nash, D. ¹
Tourism	Baloglu, S.; Cai, L.A., Dann, G.; Echtner, C.; Ryan, C. ¹
Practitioner	Anholt, S.; Baker, B.; Gilmore, F.; Pike, S. ¹ ; Pride, R.
1: multiple disciplines Source: internet research of homepages and / or university websites	

Many prolific academics publishing in top tourism journals come from geography, leisure / recreation, and business / management (Zhao and Ritchie 2007). Further, academic tourism degrees are now offered by various different departments besides tourism and hospitality, and cross-specializations are offered with many other subjects such as anthropology (social and behavioural development), psychology (motivations), urban planning (zoning), economics (leakage, planning), geography, hospitality, management (human resources, strategic planning), marketing (e-marketing, branding).

This may be a factor contributing to the inconsistencies in terminology mentioned earlier. Some of the resulting paradigm differences are integral to tourism, such as whether the lack of tourism theory is symptomatic of a discipline in its infancy (Leiper 1981) or the need to develop a cross-disciplinary knowledge based platform (Smith 1991; Echtner & Jamal 1997), whether tourism should be taught as a discipline drawing from other disciplines (Leiper 1981), from within other disciplines (Echtner & Jamal 1997), or whether it is a discipline at all (Tribe 1997), and what exactly it means (Middleton & Hawkins 1998). The effects of this diversity on research methodology are discussed in Section 4.2.

Drawing from the general consensus of the definitions, this research will use the term "destination brand identity" to refer to the identity proposed and marketed by the destination, which is how the destination brand aspires to be perceived. "Destination branding" will refer to the process of constructing and marketing the proposed brand identity. "Destination brand image" will refer to how the destination brand is perceived.

2.4. 3 Why brand destinations?

It appears that the field of destination branding has become the latest "thing" (Anholt, 2004) for a growing number of politicians, civil servants, destination marketers and researchers alike. As stated in Section 1.1, Freire (2005) proposes two reasons for the change in the position of brands; the first is changes in technology and the second is the difference between post-modern society and previous societies. Unlike their predecessors, people today enjoy the freedom to move both spatially and socially to pursue education or career choices. The combination of the two changes above widens knowledge of existing brands and increases the likelihood that people will seek products previously out of their realm. Branding helps tourists make informed choices about places they consider consuming by differentiating them. Although factors such as price and quality may be considered when evaluating alternatives and making choices, image differentiates tourist destinations from each other and plays an integral part in travellers' decision processes (Mayo 1973; Baloglu & Brinberg 1997; Leisen 2001; Law 2002;

Pike 2002; Konecnik 2004; Lee *et al* 2005; Molina & Esteban 2006; Truong & Foster 2006). A tourist's motivation to visit a destination increases with greater congruence between his image of the destination and each of his real and ideal self-concepts (Beerli *et al* 2007). People will be highly sensitized to brand images and they will be attracted to the destination whose brand they want to be associated with and incorporate into themselves and their lives (Prentice 2006), choosing who they want to be rather than where they want to go (Morgan & Pritchard 2001), seeking meaningful experiences that increase one's cultural capital (Gretzel *et al* 2006), and self expression (Cooper *et al* 2006). The most successful destinations have such strongly defined core personalities, that their mention evokes strong images (Crockett & Wood 2002; Kotler & Gertner 2002), experiences and strong pervasive associations (Morgan & Pritchard 2002). Regardless of the amount of truth in perceptions, images come to mind of Italian fashion and cuisine, Egyptian pyramids and cotton and Japanese efficiency and electronics, even among those who have never visited these places. Branding helps places preserve and enrich local cultures (Beeton 2005; Freire 2005) by continuing to exhibit them for tourists, thereby preserving the distinctive characters of the various destinations.

Some destinations may succeed without major active branding, but if they do not look to the long term and constantly redefine and re-invent themselves, success may be short-lived. Even successful destinations can become unattractive to the elite who move on to the next cool destination when over-familiarity and non-rejuvenation make them no longer "cool", trendy and exclusive (Morgan & Pritchard 2002). If a destination can retain fashion leaders longer and entice them from moving on, customers themselves may actively aid the branding process through brand loyalty.

The attraction of branding is understandable. A destination without a clear vision of its destination brand identity may waste resources attempting to attract all travellers (Kotler *et al* 2003), or be all things to all people. However, like traditional products where 'a brand that doesn't want to stand for anything stands for nothing' (Kapferer 2004, p.102), the result may be that it does not mean much of anything in particular to anyone. Although some of the literature appears to consider brand recognition as an indicator of

'real' destination branding (for example, Tasci & Kozak 2006, p.312), a destination brand image will exist despite destination marketers efforts or lack of. 'Places do not so much create their brands as are held hostage by their brands' (Gold, 2006, p.221). Nation brands are built through actions and behaviours rather than active branding or deliberate marketing (Anholt 2002a, 2006a). Unlike new goods and services, a destination is blessed or burdened with a history and has already been experienced by people and mentioned in media and in literature, its image comes from its 'geography, history, proclamations, art and music, famous citizens and other features' (Kotler & Gertner 2002, p.251), ignorance, hearsay, confusion (Anholt 2006a), stereotyping (Freire 2005), or proximity to other countries with strong brands (Anholt 2004), so the canvas is not blank. A recent example is Turkey's flood of tourists from the Middle East in 2008 as a result of the airing of the Turkish series "Gumuz" dubbed into Arabic and televised (Mohammed 2008b). The worst thing an aspiring community can do is 'not to intervene in their own image creation and ignore the branding concepts' (Freire 2005, p.349-350) because allowing branding to happen without intervention is simply a wasted opportunity, perhaps resulting in being positioned by its competitors to their advantage (Gilmore 2002b) and resulting in an unfavourable brand. Branding, or strategic management of intellectual architecture, aims to change the way communities within and without the place represent it to themselves (Gold 2006). Hanna and Rowley (2008, p.63) summarized the conditions that make place branding necessary; the growing power of international media, falling international travel costs, rising consumer spending power, place parity threats, scarcity of international investors, competition for skilled immigration and growing demand for a diverse cultural diet stimulated by low-cost global communication media. Given the universality of these conditions, it becomes very important to understand how destination brand image is formed and how to transform it.

2.5 Destination brand image formation and transformation

2.5.1 Destination brand image formation

Several frameworks have been suggested by different researchers (Kim & Richardson 2003). Gunn (1972) proposed that tourist images move along a continuum from the organic image resulting from exposure to general information about the destination, to the induced image resulting from exposure to tourist information, and then to the complex image after visiting the destination, and that image is constantly modified becoming more realistic with repeat visitation. In Gunn's seven-stage approach, destination positioning and image-building attempt to change the induced image, because the organic image is less susceptible to destination control. This view has been supported by later studies (Ahmed 1991). Others refer to primary images from internal information and secondary images from external information sources (Phelps 1986). Image was seen as comprising of a cognitive perceptual evaluation and an affect evaluation (Baloglu & Brinberg 1997). The first is the evaluation of the destination's functional attributes, and is influenced by the variety and type of sources of information sought, as well as the tourist's age and educational level. The second is influenced by the tourist's motivations, age and educational level as well as by the first component. The overall holistic image is an interaction of the two components, influenced by both (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a). Gartner (1993) expanded Gunn's model to include eight image formation agents; overt induced I (from advertising), overt induced II (from travel agents), covert induced I (from advertised testimonials), covert induced II (from impartial testimonials), autonomous (from media), unsolicited organic (from unsolicited WOM), solicited organic (from solicited WOM) and organic image (from personal experience). Gartner (1993) also added the third 'conative' dimension to the cognitive and affective components, referring to behaviour after the evaluation.

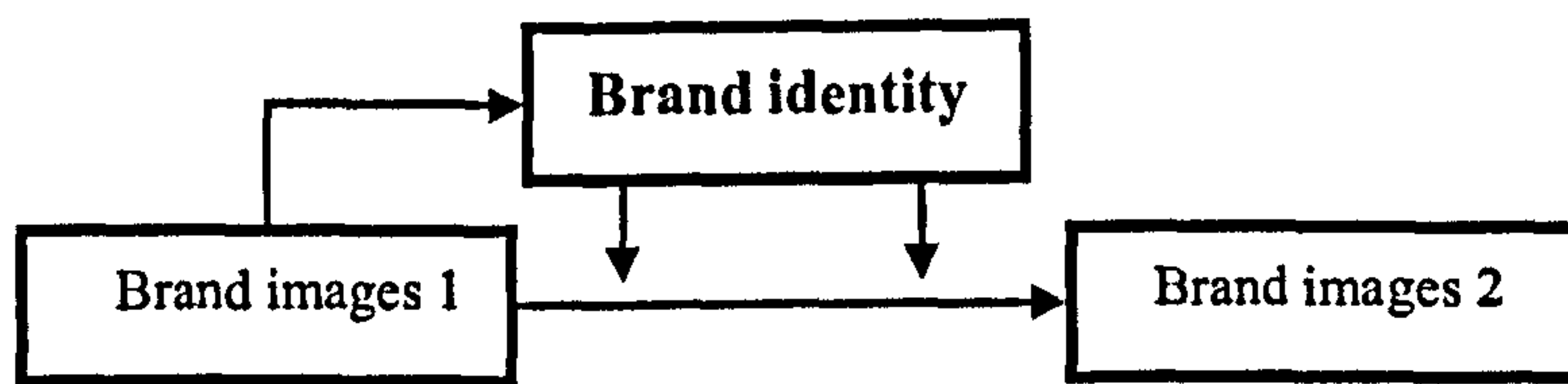
Recent information technology advancements may have some effect on the order of exposure to the sources of information included in Gunn's model, blurring the lines between organic image and induced image. With the free flow of information and the

abundance of satellite television, web logs (blogs), travel channels and online travel communities (Wang & Fesenmaier 2004), it might be difficult to determine at what point the image of a frequent web user becomes induced. Also, young researchers may be exposed to official online tourism marketing information before they are exposed to any non-tourist information or may experience a destination virtually, on television or even on holiday before they have been exposed to other types of information. Govers and Go (2003, p.14) argued that technology changes are such that multi-attribute destination image research is inadequate in predicting consumer destination change, and that an emerging 'information technology-based destination image measurement paradigm' will replace traditional destination image research.

2.5. 2 Destination image transformation: the brand identity

For destinations, a place name will function as a brand, even if not managed under a branding conceptual framework (Freire 2005). Section 2.4.3 established that perceived images of any destination will already exist, and that the constructed destination identity will attempt to influence the brand image, transforming an existing identity (image) rather than creating one from scratch (WTO cited in Cooper *et al* 2005) (Figure 2.3). The architecture for constructing a place brand identity will be 'the blueprint which guides brand building, development and marketing' for all destination brand managers (Morgan & Pritchard 2002, p.33), carried out through holistic strategic governance. The success of destination marketing relies upon the perceived image of the destination (Montgomery & Strick 1995). The existing brand image will serve as the base from which to begin brand architecture and construction, so it is necessary to discover the brand image first (Aaker 1996). This may be interpreted as analogous to a person wishing to change the way others perceive him. After discovering how he is perceived now (his brand image), and deciding who he wishes to be (his brand identity), he can make informed adjustments and acquire behaviours intended to change his image. The brand identity will aim to influence the brand image, but rather than being conjured, it will begin from the present brand images that it is attempting to influence (Figure 2.3).

Figure 2. 3 Variable relationship: Brand image and Brand identity (first of six)



Source: based on the literature review

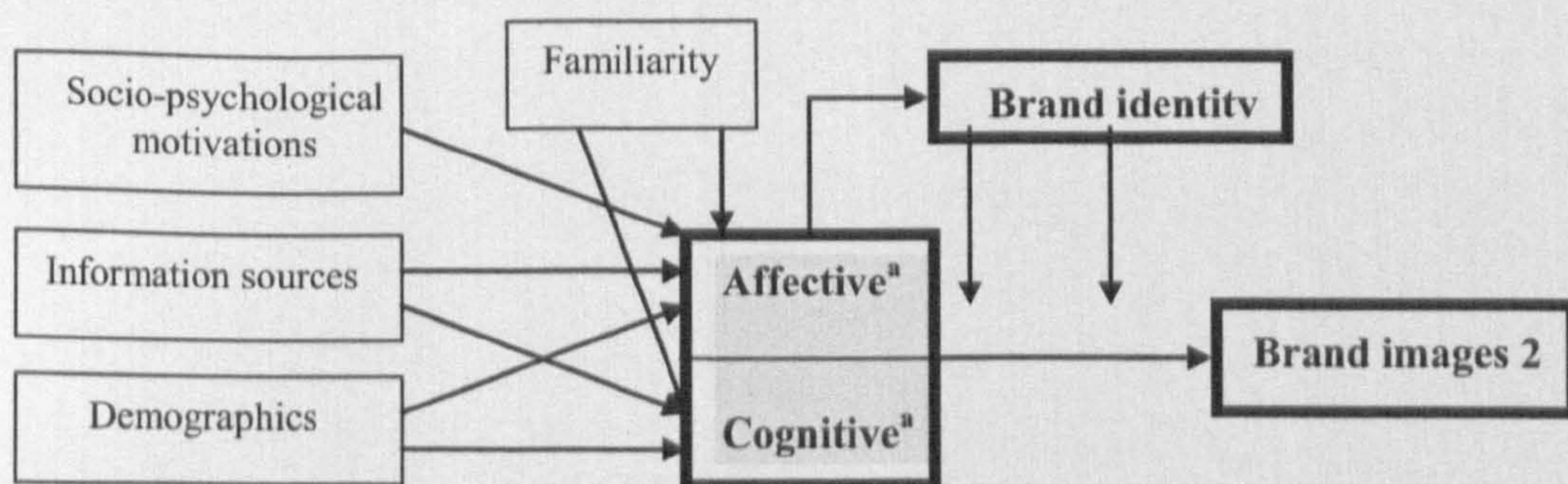
Early in the branding process, it is important to understand the destination's appeal to potential visitors (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Scott *et al* 2001). Since places have no objective reality (Shurmer-Smith & Hannam 1994), the destination may have more than one brand image, and what appeals to one individual may not appeal to another (Leisen 2001). The brand image exists only as a perception by others, including those within the destination, so like other products, destinations may have different brand images in different markets (Caldwell & Freire 2004, Gertner & Kotler 2004). Different market segments may have different perceptions of a place, or they may have different attitudes towards the same perceptions (Gertner & Kotler 2004). Tourism target market segments should be those most likely to generate travellers to the destination, so they are more likely to favour it when making travel decisions (Crompton 1979). Tourism planners often focus on destination developments, ignoring the attributes that attracted tourists in the first place (Kotler *et al* 2003), yet the destination's image and its positioning might even be more important to its ultimate success than its actual characteristics or attractions (Guthrie & Gale 1991; Leisen 2001; Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Morgan *et al* 2002). While consumer research is helpful in understanding the destination image, Edwards and Day (2005, p.16-19) warn of 'crossing the line' by asking consumers for direction, because 'what consumers have at heart is their own short-term interests, not the brand's long-term health'. They are 'incapable' of designing brand strategy, and should not be asked to do so (Kapferer 2004, p.113).

The strategy should not be fiction-based (Gilmore 2002b). There should be 'congruence between advertising and the place' and the latter should 'have some relationship with

what tourists actually experience' (Kotler *et al* 2003, p.738). As well as incorporating the positive aspects of existing images, it should manage negative images. Gertner and Kotler (2004) suggest that negative destination images can be strategically managed in one of three ways; by ignoring them and hoping they disappear, by repositioning them into positives or by actually removing the negatives. This is not always easy as images may not be clearly negative, positive or neutral, having both negative and positive elements simultaneously (Leisen 2001), such as a destination that is highly desirable to a particular market segment that also considers it to be unaffordable.

Many factors may influence image. The cognitive and affective dimensions of image were already mentioned in Section 2.5.1. Baloglu and McCleary (1999b) found that cognitive evaluations were affected by the variety and type of information sources, age and education, while these and socio-psychological tourism motivations influenced affect. Previous visitation and familiarity with the destination may also be factors in destination image (Mackay & Fesenmaier 1997; Kim & Richardson 2003; Prentice 2004, 2006). Comparison with expectations was also mentioned as a factor reinforcing or modifying image (Leisen 2001; Lee *et al* 2005). Figure 2.3 was thus developed into Figure 2.4.

Figure 2. 4 Variable relationship: Brand image and Brand identity (second of six)



Source: based on the information in Figure 2. 3 and in Section 2.5. 1
 a: brand images 1 = affective and cognitive

The destination product should have the long-term ability to rise to the aspirations of the marketed brand identity, therefore the latter should be sustainable. Middleton and Hawkins (1998, p.i) define sustainable tourism as achieving a visitor level and type whose activities 'together with the actions of servicing businesses can continue into the foreseeable future without damaging the quality of the environment on which the activities are based'. However, like many other concepts that mean different things to different people (Sections 2.3.2 and 2.4.2), sustainability in tourism has been interpreted in different ways (Knowles & ElMourhabi 2001); one is sustainability of the various elements involved in tourism, another is sustainability of tourism development and a third is Butler's more holistic base of sustainability which includes coordinated policies, education, planning and commitment. Applying the latter interpretation to destination branding helps to ensure a comprehensive, cohesive, integrated, directed movement towards the destination's strategic goals. Short-term prosperity should not be at long-term cost (Crouch & Ritchie 1999). Tourism projects considered attractive because of their short term potential profit may cause long term detriment to the environment, require a huge investment to repair damages, or conflict with the destination's other objectives. In establishing the strategic vision, destination marketers should consider the physical, economic and social environments because a proposed strategy which is economically infeasible, socially unacceptable or environmentally damaging will be unsustainable. Efforts should focus on identifying sustainable comparative advantages to ensure that tourism adds value to the destination rather than consumes it (Crouch & Ritchie 1999). Butler (2001) emphasizes the importance of managing resources sustainably, the need for long term destination planning and management and limiting growth and development, and suggests that successful tourist destinations may have to cap numbers, diversify or change strategies to ensure the survival of a sustainable base.

A review of the literature found that the proposed identity should have many other features, some of which are listed in Table 2.4. It should be effective and evolving, and its brand core values should be relevant, communicable and meaningful to target markets, consistent and dynamic, salient, unsurpassable and unsurpable. It should also

bring together two elements: the first is the community's brand image and its core values and strategic visions, and the second is the positive aspects in the brand images held by others. It should be built on something that connects uniquely with consumers and seek specialization in areas of possible excellence amid rising consumers' expectations (Willmott & Graham 2001) and its point of differentiation should be deliverable, believable and relevant (Morgan & Pritchard 2002). Customers are more likely to purchase the destination if they empathize with its values. While some of those characteristics are inherent to the brand, others are controlled by the destination's limitations, or by external elements such as the competition or the markets (Table 2.4). Brand positioning and values should stem from 'the fundamental truths about the destination and its culture' (Gilmore 2002a, p.63).

The brand position is the 'the part of the brand identity and value proposition that is to be actively communicated to the target audience and that demonstrates an advantage over competing brands' (Aaker 1996, p.71). It has already been stated that positioning is more important to success than product attributes (Guthrie & Gale 1991; Leisen 2001; Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Morgan *et al* 2002). The inconsistency in the relationship between branding and positioning (Konecnik 2004), has already been discussed in Section 2.4.2. Kapferer (2004, p.99) defines brand positioning as 'emphasising the distinctive characteristics that make it different from its competitors and appealing to the public'. The author goes on to explain that positioning results from four things; the brand promise and consumer benefits, the target market, the occasion for its use and the identity of its competition, and that unpositioned brands leave those questions unanswered. Successful positioning provides the consumer with a reference point, by 'anchoring' it to a category (de Chernatoney 2006, p.38). The identity is the source of brand positioning (Section 2.3.3). Positioning may be particularly relevant in destination image because of its 'relativist' nature, since it is simultaneously subjective, differing from one person to another, and comparative, comparing one destination to another (Gallarza 2002, p.71).

Table 2. 4 Brand identity requirements

Brand requirement	Source	Interpretation	Notes
Saliency	Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Keller 2003	Does it command attention?	Inherent to the brand
Consistency	Pride 2002	Does it make sense?	
Effectiveness	Pike 2005	Can it achieve its intended goals?	
Evolvability	Gartner 2007; Morgan & Pritchard 2002	Is it dynamic? adaptable?	
Realism	Kapferer 2004	Is it achievable?	
Richness	Anholt 2002a, Morgan & Pritchard 2002	Does it have a lot to offer?	
Uniqueness/ Difference	Gilmore 2002a; Hall 2002	Is it different?	Controlled by the destination itself
Deliverability	Crocket & Wood 2002; Morgan & Pritchard 2002	Can the destination offer it?	
Sustainability/ Durability	Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Manente & Minghetti 2006; Kapferer 2004	Can the destination continue to offer this point of difference?	Controlled by market (customers)
Believability/ Credibility	Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Kapferer 2004	Will people believe it?	
Relevance of core values/ Personality	Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Crocket & Wood 2002	Will people care about it?	
Simplicity/ Coherence	Gilmore 2002a; Hall 2002	Will people understand it?	
Connecting uniquely with consumers	Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Govers 2007	Will people consider it special?	
Ownability	Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Gilmore 2002a; Govers 2007	Can residents buy it, live it, sell it? empathize with it? be inspired by it?	
Unsurpassability	Morgan & Pritchard 2002	Can other destinations surpass it?	Controlled by competition
Unsurpassability	Morgan & Pritchard 2002	Can other destinations usurp it?	

The literature review came across many ways to build a destination brand. Table 2.5 compares summaries of four methods by Kotler & Gertner (2002), Gilmore (2002a), Brymer (2005) and Morgan & Pritchard (2002). All four methods begin by conducting research to collect information, although SWOT analysis is only specifically mentioned in two (i.e. Kotler & Gertner and Morgan & Pritchard). Brymer specifically emphasizes discovering internal perceptions, using quantitative and qualitative methods, without specifying nationals. They all go on to develop a holistic brand identity and brand strategy. Gilmore does not include promotion of the brand identity as part of the strategy, while the others (i.e. Kotler & Gertner, Brymer and Morgan & Pritchard) explain the strategy steps in varying amounts of detail, and then create a control method to ensure the brand's consistency and sustainability. Beyond that, Morgan and Pritchard are more strategic while the others (i.e. Kotler & Gertner, Gilmore and Brymer) are more tactical. In addressing sustainability and / or consistency, Kotler and Gertner focus on exports. Brand building steps can be summarized as follows: begin by collecting information, develop the holistic brand identity, design the strategy, decide on more detailed operations, install a control system to ensure consistency of all communications, implement the strategy, and continue to review and control as necessary (Table 2.5).

Markets may interpret the same symbols differently because of the differences in their cultures (Mackay & Fesenmaier 2000). Even if a destination intentionally brands itself differently in different markets, it is important that 'all messages are based on a core set of truths' (Pride 2002, p.113), rather than fiction. The Welsh Tourist Board used a different destination marketing strategy within the domestic U.K. market than for the U.S. and other markets (Pritchard & Morgan 2001). India is portrayed in western markets differently from its own self view (Bandyopadhyay & Morais 2005). Choi *et al* (2007) found projected overall images of Macao to differ in different sub-categories of websites, although in reality some of these were images while others were the destination's promoted brand identity. By attempting to create one brand image in all its markets, Morocco risked losing the German market which was not interested in its new positioning (Morgan & Pritchard 2002).

Table 2. 5 Destination brand building

1. Kotler & Gertner (2002) brand building steps	2. Gilmore (2002a) essential branding steps	3. Brymer (2003) steps for branding a country	4. Morgan & Pritchard (2002) destination brand building steps	Notes
<p>1. Carry out SWOT analysis to determine chief strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.</p>	<p>1. Get clear view of market-place and competitors, to understand market dimensions and competitor strengths.</p>	<p>1. Elicit cooperation and involvement of representatives of government, business, arts, education and media.</p>	<p>1. Establish core value of destination and its brand, through market investigation.</p>	<p>Collect information</p>
<p>2. Choose industries, personalities, landmarks and historical events that can provide basis for strong branding and story telling.</p>	<p>2. Identify one prime target audience and possible secondary ones.</p>	<p>2. Discover destination perceptions internally and abroad by those you want to influence.</p>	<p>2. Based on findings, develop brand identity, holistically, using the benefit pyramid (2002, p.31) and brand architecture.</p>	<p>Develop holistic brand identity and strategy</p>
<p>3. Develop umbrella concept to cover. Be consistent with all separate branding activities or other concepts.</p>	<p>3. Define brand and proposition</p>	<p>3. Consult with opinion leaders and conduct country SWOT analysis.</p>		
<p>4. Allocate sufficient funds to each branding activity that may have large impact.</p>		<p>4. Create strategy using known professional models.</p>		<p>Develop tactics</p>
<p>5. Create export controls to ensure every export is reliable and delivers promised level of performance.</p>		<p>5. Design program to make strategy tangible through improvement programs and campaigns.</p>	<p>3. Launch. Reinforce core values consistently and cohesively in product and marketing communications.</p>	<p>Create consistency control system</p>
		<p>6. Create system to link together different organizations and departments that can be part of brand.</p>	<p>4. Implement brand.</p>	<p>Implement</p>
		<p>7. Let actions count.</p>	<p>5. Monitor, evaluate and review.</p>	

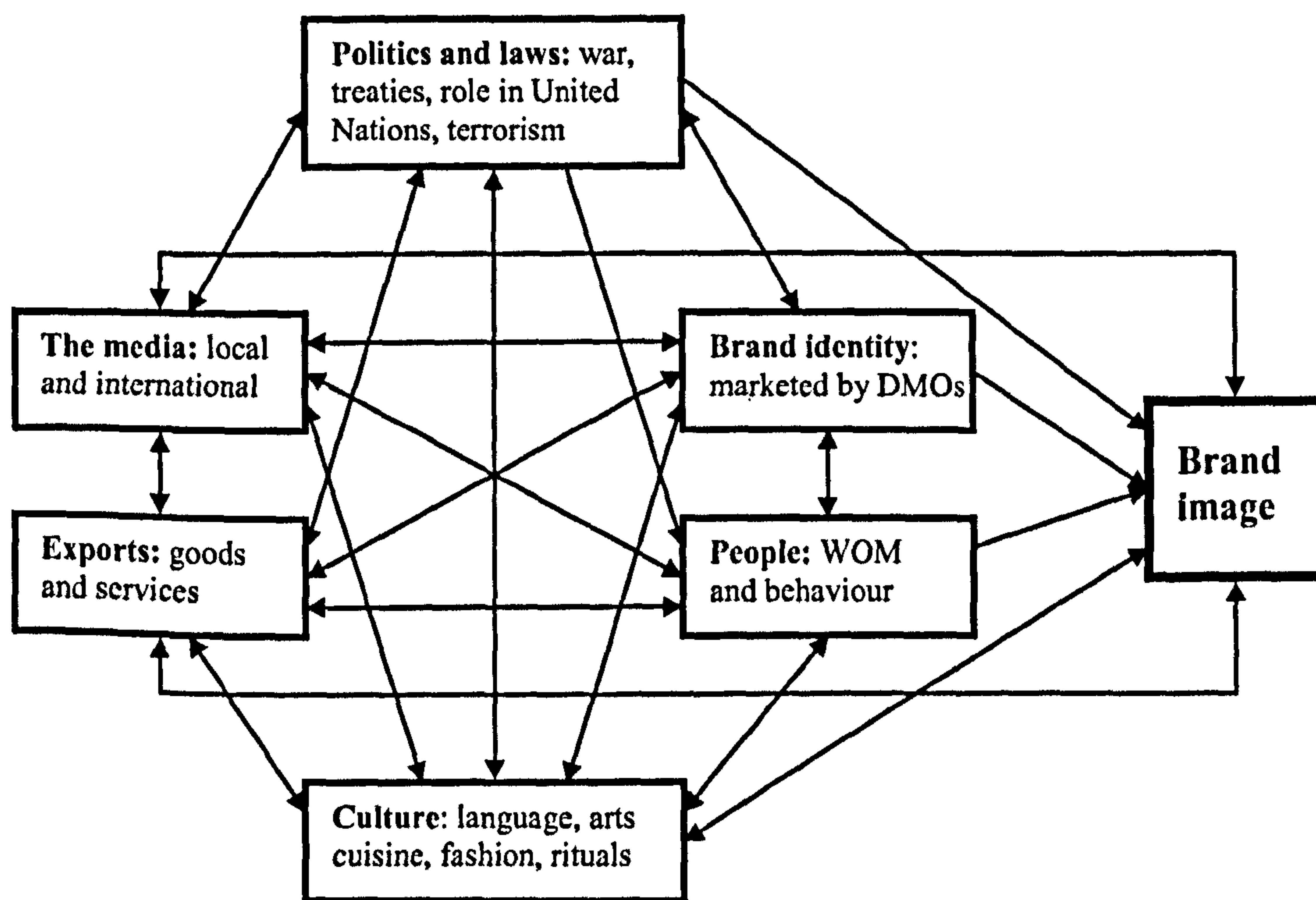
Achieving all this is no easy task in a competitive market where marketing budgets usually fall short of those of large global corporations competing for mindshare of the same consumers (Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Pike 2005). The challenges have already been discussed in Section 2.4.2. It is important to seek cooperation from all sectors of the community, government, business, interest groups, residents and visitors (Beeton 2005). The destination's members have to share the self-view of being part of this system and share the strategic vision (Kotler & Gertner 2002), what they stand to gain from it, their role in the strategy and the importance of this role to its success or failure. A brand's lifespan is a long term proposition (Morgan & Pritchard 2002) and should have the opportunity, time and support to grow strong, so effort should be invested ensuring that the brand identity fulfils the requirements (Table 2.4) and that all communications are consistent. The integration of marketing communications is discussed next.

2.5. 3 The Destination integrated marketing communications (IMC)

The brand building steps presented in the previous section (Section 2.5.2) emphasized the importance of consistency in all communications transmitted by the destination. Yet, it was also argued in Section 2.4.2 that, strategically, the destination is only one perception of a place, tourism is only one of the place's goals as a destination and that marketing for tourism has to be mindful of the destination's other goals, as presented in Section 2.4. 'A brand's message is the outward expression of the brand's inner substance' (Kapferer 2004, p.102), so ensuring consistency of message over media and time is important when branding any product (Aaker 1996). An integrated marketing communication (IMC) system can help to do this. IMC is 'a strategic business process used to plan, develop, execute and evaluate coordinated, measurable, persuasive brand communications programs over time' with 'targeted external and internal audiences' to 'generate both short-term financial returns and build long-term brand and shareholder value' (Belch & Belch 2007, p.11). Creating destination brands by using IMC is one of the strongest ways to create a competitive advantage (Babacan *et al* 2007). The term

“IMC” has been used in the literature to refer to the integration of the promotional messages sent by various elements of the destination’s tourism product intended to attract tourism (for example, Skinner 2005), but the destination will also be communicating messages through its actions. While focusing on marketing for tourism, all messages to promote the destination should be in harmony with communications expressed by others (Anholt 2002a). This may not be a feasible goal to attain, but its existence as a goal will help sustain awareness of the bigger picture and to provide a sense of direction. Messages will also be affected by noise, the term for ‘extraneous factors that can distort or interfere with reception’ (Belch & Belch 2007, p.142). Message sources include those presented in Figure 2.5 and discussed next.

Figure 2. 5 Destination communications



➤ **Foreign and domestic policy:** In addition to the obvious effects of political instability on tourism, the destination’s political stances and laws should not conflict

with the communications it broadcasts for tourism. Communications do not substitute for policy (Anholt 2008). The government should consider the effect of its policies, because disapproval of a government's foreign policy can lead to mistrust and persecution of its people (Anholt 2006b). Foreign relations, legislation, and adherence to international treaties should be considered when making claims to attract tourists, otherwise reality will refute those claims. Risks include not attracting enough tourists and attracting the wrong ones. As mentioned in Section 2.4, investment and labour legislation and facilities may also impact the volume of FDI the destination attracts and the size of local investment it retains.

➤ **The media:** The sophisticated media today provides uncontrolled uncensored opinionated information on anything from politics to travel experiences, and it has a powerful effect on destination image because it is perceived as relatively unbiased in comparison to traditional advertising (Kim & Richardson 2003). The entertainment industry and the media shape people's perceptions of places (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Govers 2007) and can be major factors in tourism promotion because of their power 'to motivate travellers, create new images, alter negative images, strengthen weak images, and create and place icons' (Beeton 2005, p.20). Adulation for celebrities can also result in positive feelings towards the population of a country (Anholt 2006b). Controversial behaviour on British reality TV show "Big Brother 7" became evening news fodder in many Asian countries and exemplified entertainment turning into international news, calling into question British attitudes towards racism (Wilson *et al* 2007). Sometimes the best to hope for is damage control. A country with a weak economy will find it more difficult to attract inward investment or travel and to promote its brands abroad, than others with stronger economies where the urgency is less. It may be difficult to appreciate a country's cuisine and fashion when its citizens are seen battling starvation on the evening news.

Prolonged media exposure of political disaster can have a sustained impact on the perceived tourism image of a destination (Beirman 2002). The perception that Western consumers have of the Arabian Gulf was affected by the events of September 11, 2001,

and the internet had a 'major impact' on this (Govers and Go 2003, p.25). Concerns about security may affect a country's economy (Lawrence 2006), investor sentiment and tourism (ViewsWire 2006). The destination should know how it is being portrayed and perceived, to capitalize on the positives and manage the negatives. The media cannot be managed by sending positive messages that are divorced from action (Anholt 2002b; Johansson 2005), since actions speak louder than words.

➤ **The culture:** As stated in Section 2.5.2, the positioning and values of the brand should not be rooted in fiction (Gilmore 2002a). Culture has been defined in many ways that include 'the way of life of a society' and 'a body of knowledge, the acquisition of which confers a kind of moral distinction upon the initiate' (Seaton 1996a, p.60-61). Popular culture is also suggested to strongly affect image formation (Kim & Richardson 2003). While the destination brand identity is constructed based on reality (Crocket & Wood 2002), as opposed to fiction, experiencing culture can reinforce the brand identity. The brand identity's highlights may include culture highlights which stem from the heart of the culture; the history, language, fashion, cuisine, arts and the manner in which members of society interact. Urbanization and population migration may help to cause societies to 'divorce from their origins', (McIntosh and Prentice 1999, p.590). This leaves a destination with a rich history in the enviable position of being able to select that of its past to emphasize in its brand identity, and that to downplay and discard. Yet, cultural tourism can sometimes be exploited in projecting a national identity that the destination itself is trying to distance itself from (Hall 2002). Such issues need to be sorted out before-hand to ensure that all communications are consistent with the marketed brand identity, to avoid conflicting messages that weaken each other. The past debate about whether tourists are interested in 'authentic' culture or are satisfied with shallow inauthentic ones, later expanded to include those who believe that tourists are not all of one mind, those that argue that the past has conflicting versions anyway, those who believe that some tourists seek staged experiences and those who report an increase in cultural and heritage tourism among generalists (Moscardo 2002). Presumed authenticity depends on the viewer as well as the 'presented interpretation', so heritage

attractions provide an opportunity for cultural tourists to gain insight into the history and culture of a place (McIntosh and Prentice 1999, p.590, 609). The authenticity of some features of culture is generally accepted; tartan and bagpipes are recognized globally for their Scottishness, as are the Spanish siesta and the British cuppa–tea. Culture may also be exploited in the promotion of relatable exports.

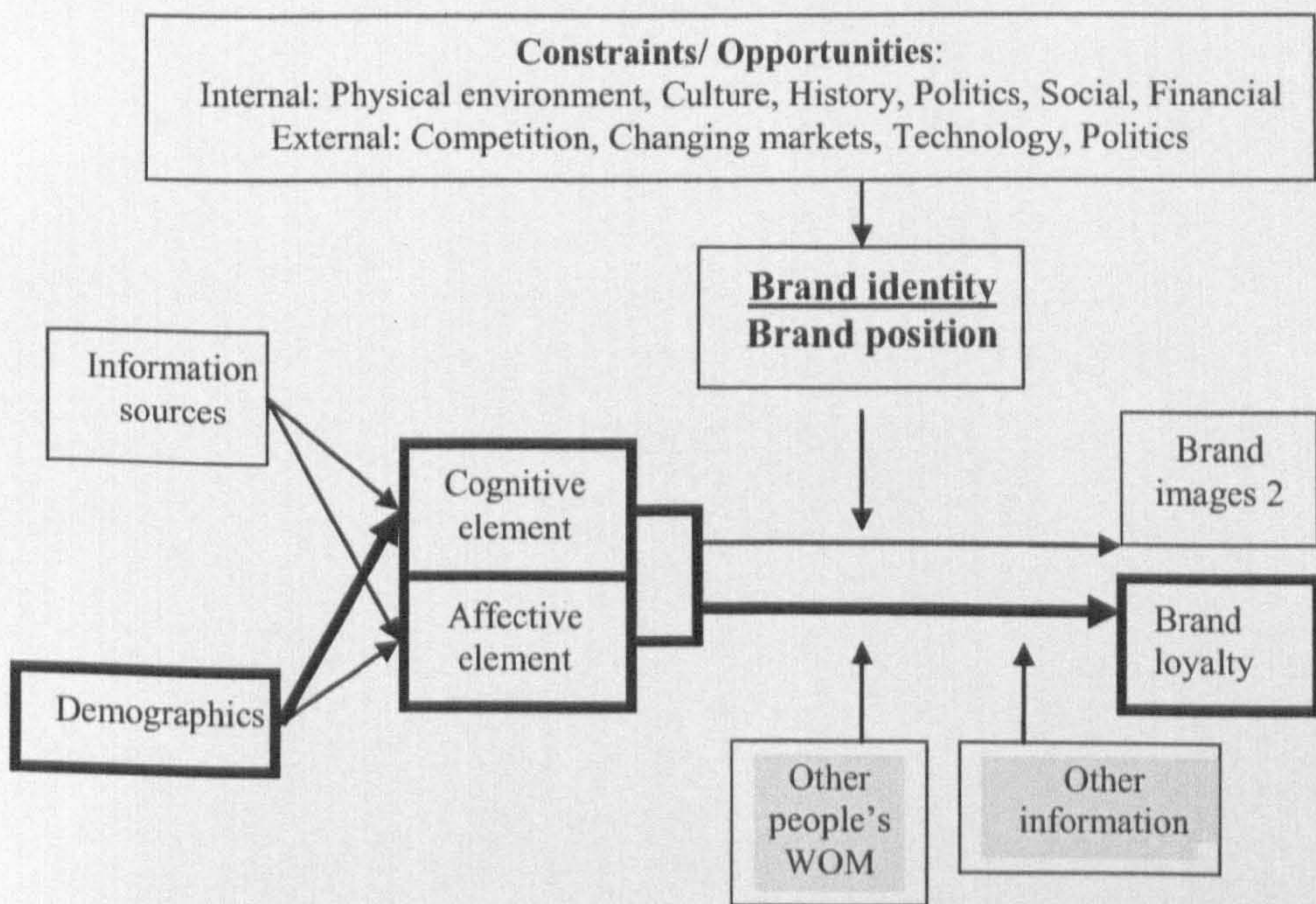
➤ **Exports:** Branded exports can create awareness of unknown destinations and reinforce brand values. Export brands are creatively marketed creative products (Gold 2006). Some product–provenance pairings will make sense, while others will not (Anholt 2002a). Columbian coffee, New Zealand Lamb and Florida oranges are associated with high quality and have become well known brands (Papadopoulos 2004). Christian Dior epitomizes and reinforces French chic and Levi jeans communicate the American casual attitude. Country of origin (COO) has been the subject of extensive research over the last three decades (Kotler & Gertner 2002). Even community cultural artefacts are affected by how they are commodified as mementos (Hunter & Suh 2007). Officially certified authentic goods act as destination brand representatives, with increased exchange value, increasing community revenue and brand recognition. Carefully chosen branded exports add dimensions to the character of the destination brand, both as an element integral to the image, and as a tourist attraction, like Arran Aromatics in the Isle of Arran, Scotland. There is a significant correlation between positive experience of a country and positive feelings about its products, its government, its culture, its people (Anholt 2006b). It is important, therefore, to incorporate appropriate exports into the umbrella brand, and rethink those that have a negative influence on the brand.

➤ **The people:** Although destination marketers market the destination officially, it is residents who will be the hosts on the ground and representatives abroad. Table 2.4 showed that the brand identity needs to be ownable by residents, and must also be believable and coherent, connect uniquely with consumers and have relevant core values. If these conditions are not met, resident attitudes may confuse tourists by their inconsistency, and undermine branding efforts. The resulting WOM produced by those

tourists would also be inconsistent with the brand identity. The potential for recruitment of people as destination brand ambassadors is discussed in Section 3.6.2.

The messages communicated by these sources all have the potential to support or detriment the marketed brand identity, so the model in Figure 2.4 was further developed by including those factors. The amended model in Figure 2.6 is by no means complete and the factors affecting image are not exhaustive. Rather, it is intended as an aid in visualizing the relationship between brand image and brand identity, and to draw attention to some of the factors that are in a position to aid or hinder branding efforts.

Figure 2. 6 Variable relationship: Brand image and Brand identity (third of six)



Note: Cognitive and affective elements together constitute 'destination brand image 1'
shaded squares = noise

Thick lines represent relationships of particular interest in this research (see Figure 3.1)

Source: based on Figure 2.4 and the information in Section 2.5. 2

2. 6 Summary

Given the indications of increased competition for tourism, destinations interested in establishing a presence in the marketplace have to brand themselves (Section 2.2). A comparison of destinations and traditional products highlighted that the former will be branded through their actions and behaviours and the messages transmitted through these actions. Therefore, it is prudent for a destination to actively participate in its own branding through a strategy that empowers and better positions it to achieve all its interrelated long term goals. Exporting tourism is only one of the destination's goals (Section 2.4) and its tourism strategy should be mindful of all of its goals and how they might be affected. Despite initial scepticism towards destination brandability, this idea is gathering support among practitioners and academics.

A review of definitions of the relevant concepts, models and theories of branding and destination branding contributed to developing the conceptual framework for this research. Although there are many branding models, presenting them all was beyond the scope of this research. The thesis focuses on the destination brand image for tourism and many of the models are not relevant to that focus. In discussing the various definitions, it was noted in Section 2.4.2, that notwithstanding the reasons for the inconsistency in the terminology, the meaningful transfer of knowledge is hindered. This is especially true, given the debate about the brandability of destinations and the two destination branding paradigms; as a marketing strategy for tourism or as a strategy for the destination's broader goals. More consistent use of terminology would facilitate communication within the research community and between academia and practice. The consequence of these inconsistencies is that literature must be interpreted in the context in which it is intended, rather than a general context. This chapter established a context, and explained the relationships between brand image and brand identity of a destination, to ensure that the research is interpreted as intended. The destination brand image was defined as customers' perception of the brand and the destination brand identity as the marketed identity which will attempt to influence the image. Progressing through the chapter, a

model was constructed illustrating the relationship between the two (Figure 2.3 – Figure 2.4 – Figure 2.6).

Branding occurs through the architecture and construction of a brand identity that transforms the current brand image into one that helps the destination achieve its goals. The brand identity should be believable, relevant, unsurpassable, unusurpable, salient, communicable, effective, evolving and sustainable (Table 2.4). Despite the challenges discussed in Section 2.4.2, branding efforts can succeed with total commitment from the top, ownership from destination elements and coordination of the holistic effort. Brand architecture and construction are a matter of governance rather than promotion. The identity, therefore, needs to be ownable by the destination's residents. Since this identity aims to influence the brand image, the latter should be the starting point from which to begin branding and from which to measure the success of a pursuant branding strategy. This chapter laid the groundwork for the research framework in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

3. 1 Introduction

Chapter Two argued the case for discovering a destination's brand image before attempting to proactively design and construct a brand identity that intends to transform this image into one that is closer to its long term goals. The framework for this research will now be built on this theoretical foundation. The theoretical framework is a conceptual model that stems from previous research, discussing the theory of the interrelationships between variables identified as integral to the dynamics of the problem (Sekaran 1992, p.63, 73), and it is the foundation for any research. This chapter will begin by reviewing the literature concerning the paradigms of discovering the brand image of a destination as a place to visit, taking a critical look at a range of methodologies employed. It will discuss the relevant dimensions in discovering a destination's brand image and brand loyalty, in order to justify their use in this research. It will then discuss the relevant markets to target in a branding strategy for tourism purposes, from which potential brand ambassadors can be recruited, to create positive WOM and reinforce the brand identity. It will set up the conceptual framework for this empirical research and analyze the research problem into research questions whose answers, when synthesized, will solve the research problem. Finally, it will describe the setting for this research, to provide a context for the methodology and the subsequent

findings. Developing this framework will help to organize, plan and direct the research design, and later to place the results in context. Where the previous chapter focused on literature that provided the theoretical background to the topic of this thesis, this chapter will focus on the literature that directly relates to methodology, and serve as a framework to justify the methodology presented in Chapter Four.

3. 2 Destination Brand Image measurement

Although the subject of destination image is relatively new, it has become a very popular area of research (Pritchard & Morgan 2001; Pike 2002). Although much has been written about it, explicit research on destination image as part of holistic destination (place) branding is still scarce. While this paradigm continues to gather support, the dimensions of destination brand image and the approaches to its measurement continue to evolve, resulting in diversity in methodological approaches in destination image research (Gallarza *et al* 2002). The images of a number of destinations have been investigated, with many researchers and practitioners studying destination image measurement (Konecnik 2004), focusing on one of two aspects (Gallarza *et al* 2002); positioning (Reilly 1990; Echtner & Ritchie 1991) and destination choice (Gunn 1972, Hunt 1975, Oppermann 1996). Destination image studies have been reviewed and commented on in much of the literature itself. Major reviews include those conducted by Chon in 1990, Echtner and Ritchie in 1991, Jenkins in 1999, Gallarza *et al* in 2002, Pike in 2002 and Ramachandran in 2004.

Chon (1990) found the most dominant theme in research until that time to be the effect of image on consumer behaviour and the role of consumers' expectations as a benchmark when evaluating experience and satisfaction levels. Yet, there was a noticeable lack of conceptual framework (Gallarza *et al* 2002). Most early image studies preferred quantitative methodologies, using structured questionnaires (Echtner & Ritchie 1991, Ramachandran & Liu 2002) with attributes not generated by consumers. These

studies focused on the destination's functional attributes, measuring the cognitive element of image. Other non-attribute methods include Repertory Grid Analysis (RGA) and the triad elicitation technique. These are both based on Kelly's 1955 personal construct theory (Coshall 2000), and use either destination names or visual images, grouping tourists' own descriptions into clusters. This enables visualizing their images as defined by their own personal constructs and frame of reference. Users of these methods (for example, Pearce 1982; Embacher & Buttle 1989; Jenkins 1999) believe they may be more informative than structured questionnaires, especially considering the aims of these studies. They may, however, be impractical for large samples or for respondents with time constraints, because they require time and respondent commitment (Jenkins 1999) as well as trained testers and a suitable setting.

Ramachandran (2004) found that, pre-1990s, measurement of particular destination images represented the majority of the literature and also that measurement methodology underwent a turning point as a result of Echtner and Ritchie's introduction of the holistic element in 1991. Studies until then included those comparing the images of destinations (for example, Phelps 1986) and Echtner and Ritchie's dimension made such comparisons easier (Jenkins 1999). Although destination image was seen, like its parent "image" in psychology, to possess a two-dimensional character with both attribute-holistic and functional-psychological dimensions, most early research measuring destination image had used individual attributes, ignoring the holistic nature of destination image (Jenkins 1999). This third common-unique continuum turned the previous two-dimensional model with four quadrants into one with eight octants. In a study that included four destinations, Echtner and Ritchie (1993) combined both structured and unstructured methodologies, including a comprehensive list of attributes and open-ended questions to capture the holistic and unique dimensions. Questionnaires collect data efficiently when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure (Sekaran 1992). On the other hand, focusing on cognitive aspects may provide information that helps to ensure a materially comfortable travel experience but ignores the holistic experience (Gretzel *et al* 2006) and the destination's unique image

characteristics (Tapachai & Waryszak 2000; Govers & Go 2003). This may cause the brand identity to become entrapped in the product-attribute fixation trap (Aaker 1996).

Despite the introduction of the holistic element (Table 3.1), the preference for structured methodologies and multi-attribute models continued (Jenkins 1999; Gallarza 2002; Pike 2002; Govers & Go 2003; Ramachandran 2004). Out of the 142 post-1973 papers reviewed by Pike (2002), about 80% used structured methodologies, while only 44% used qualitative methods anywhere in the research. One of the few destination image studies that are structured yet do not include destination attributes is a 4-year longitudinal study by Um *et al* (2006) that uses single scaled questions about perceived service quality in Hong Kong, overall satisfaction with the destination, perceived attractiveness and perceived value. This approach evaluates the destination holistically but does not allow respondents to rate particular destination aspects higher than others, so does not identify strengths and weaknesses. Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) studied the 'affective' dimension of image structure, using Russell & Pratt's (1980) four adjectives (pleasant-unpleasant, relaxing-distressing, arousing-sleepy, and exciting-gloomy) on a seven-point bipolar scale, and found it useful in understanding destination images and positioning them for tourism. Their dimensions are helpful in positioning destinations but say nothing about the destinations beyond those four descriptions. Limiting destination image to those four components may fail to capture the essence of the brand image, or evaluate its attributes, which is necessary for constructing a brand identity.

Content analysis has recently gained popularity (Choi *et al* 2007); especially in analyzing interviews, the internet, promotional material or travel web logs (blogs) and in discovering image (Table 3.1). Content analysis is a qualitative method that reduces the variety of open responses into manageable meaningful categories (Gillham 2000). While this method can provide a richness of data that other methodologies do not, it does not measure satisfaction with the destination's attributes or identify attributes that require attention, and may fail to identify the destination's competitive advantage. This information was found to be important in the brand building steps discussed in Section 2.5.2 and Table 2.5. Other non-quantitative techniques used include free elicitation.

Table 3. 1 Destination image measurement studies (2 pages)

Earlier research (Pre-nineties)					
Author (Year)	Article	Objective: to measure image of...	Methodology (attributes)	Attribute source	
Hunt 1975	Image as a factor in tourism development	... 4 states	Structured (20)	Tourism experts & author judgment	
Goodrich 1977	The relationship between preferences for and perceptions of vacation destinations: application of a choice model.	... 9 countries/ states	Structured (10)	Brochures & tourism experts	
Crompton 1979	An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon that image.	... 1 country in different markets	Structured (30)	Brochures & market interviews	
Pearce 1982	Perceived changes in holiday destinations.	... 7 countries (pre & post)	Structured (13)	RGA	
Haahiti & Yavas 1983	Tourists' perceptions of Finland and selected European countries as travel destinations	... 1 country out of 12	Structured (10)	Literature review & travel agents focus group	
Crompton & Duray 1985	An investigation of the relative efficacy of four alternative approaches to importance-performance analysis.	... 1 state	Structured (28)	Brochures & market interviews	
Kale & Weir 1986	Marketing third world countries to the western traveller: the case of India.	... 1 country	Structured (26)		
Phelps 1986	Holiday destination image—the problem of assessment.	... island (pre & post)	Structured (32)	Author judgment	
Gartner & Hunt 1987	An analysis of state image change over a 12-year period (1971–1983).	... 1 country (longitudinal)	Structured (11)	Tourism Experts & author judgment	
Richardson & Crompton 1988	Cultural variations in perceptions of vacation attributes.	... 1 country in 2 markets (comparison)	Structured (10)	Tourism Canada Vacation Patterns Survey	
Gartner 1989	Tourism image: Attribute measurement of state tourism products using multidimensional scaling techniques.	... images of 4 states	Structured (15)		

Earlier research (Pre-nineties)

Calantone <i>et al</i> 1989	Multiple multinational tourism positioning using correspondence analysis.	...8 countries (tourists')	Structured (13)
Reilly 1990	Free elicitation of descriptive adjectives for tourism image assessment.	...1 state	Open-ended

Source: Extracted from Ramachandran (2004, p.28 Illustration 2.3) 'Pre-90's research affinity towards structured approach'

Later research

	Studies	Method
General	Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Dann 1996; Reilly 1990; Embacher & Buttle 1989	Open-ended questions
Qualitative techniques	Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Guthrie & Gale 1991; Amor <i>et al</i> 1994; Driscoll <i>et al</i> 1994; King 1994	Focus groups
	Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Amor <i>et al</i> 1994; Bramwell & Rawding 1996; Selby & Morgan 1996	In-depth interviews
Quantitative techniques	Stabler 1988; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Crompton 1979; Echtner & Ritchie 1993; King 1994; Bramwell & Rawding 1996; Mackay & Fesenmaier 1997; Baloglu & McCleary 1999a	Content analysis
	Ahmed 1991, 1996; Baloglu 1997; Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Crompton <i>et al</i> 1992; Driscoll <i>et al</i> 1994; Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Guthrie and Gale 1991; Muller 1995; Oppermann 1996; Schroeder 1996; Walmsley and Young 1998; Witter 1985	Factor analysis or principal component analysis
	Guthrie & Gale 1991; Baloglu and Brinberg 1997	Multidimensional scaling
	Muller 1995	Multivariate grouping methods
	Ahmed 1991, 1996; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Carmichael 1992; Schroeder 1996; Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Baloglu 1997	Dependence analysis
Ahmed 1991; Borchgrevink & Knutson 1997; Chon 1991; Driscoll <i>et al</i> 1994; Fakeye & Crompton 1991; Schroeder 1996	Bivariate methods	

Source: Gallarza et al (2002 ; p.65-66, Figures 2 and 3) and literature review

Comparing the brand images of competitive destinations is useful in recognizing a destination's relative position in consumers' minds and helps in the positioning and construction of a positive brand identity (Hankinson 2004). Around half the 142 papers reviewed by Pike (2002) measured the image of only one destination. Studies that compared images include Goodrich (1977), Calantone *et al* (1989), Gartner 1989, and Hunt (1975) (Table 3.1). Jenkins (1999, p.7) recommended mixing methodologies, employing unstructured techniques to elicit the constructs before using structured techniques to actually collect image data. The statistical methods chosen should be adaptable to the 'complex nature of image' and measure it accurately (Gallarza 2002, p.65). The methodology used in research is not irrelevant as results may be influenced by the research method. Driscoll *et al* (1994) found discrepancies between responses to a questionnaire using two different scaled response attribute formats, and they speculated about whether the different thought processes required in each method might influence results. Different unstructured techniques (word association, picture association and collage) also elicit different images (Prebensen 2007).

To summarize, the evolution of brand image measurement continues. In general, the methods employed are 'quite complicated' with a predominance of multivariate techniques (Gallarza 2002, p.67). Notwithstanding that the primary quality of thesis writing is 'clarity', not 'creativity' (Glatthorn 1998, p.5), the lack of consensus on the best methodology allows new research some freedom to try different approaches, and to tailor attributes to particular destinations. This diversity and inconsistency in results leaves some room to explore new methodologies or triangulate existing and new ones, to capitalize on the strengths of different approaches and discover ones that work. It does appear, however, that both the cognitive and holistic elements of the destination image need to be addressed separately for the purpose of brand identity construction. The review found that most research includes structured questions (Echtner and Ritchie 1991; Jenkins 1999; Pike 2002; Ramachandran and Liu 2002), to measure attribute satisfaction, and many included some non-standard method of discovering the holistic perception of the destination. This research does not stray far from that general format.

Informed by the foregoing, the following sections will discuss the dimensions employed in this research to measure the destination image of Bahrain. It will use qualitative preliminary research to collect the attributes and words (Section 4.4). It will then measure customer satisfaction with specific destination attributes using a structured methodology and discover holistic perception using a bounded list of words.

3.3 Customer Satisfaction

As already discussed in Section 3.2, most research uses structured methodologies to address the cognitive element of image. This is operationalized in questionnaires through the use of scales to measure either service quality or customer satisfaction. Both are antecedents of tourists' loyalty, believed to determine the likelihood of repurchase (Asubonteng *et al* 1996) and understanding them enables managers to develop strategies to increase loyalty (Castro *et al* 2007). While scales can measure satisfaction, their shortcoming is that they do not identify the reasons why an attribute is unsatisfactory (Gillham 2000). Scales are very commonly used to collect data in destination image research (Gallarza *et al* 2002).

The question of whether to measure satisfaction or service quality deserves some consideration. There is a lack of consensus on their conceptualization and they are often confused. Noting that the two were being used interchangeably in the literature, Baker and Crompton (2000, p.787) distinguished them in three ways. They explained that service quality refers to the service attributes provided by the service supplier and is based on customers' perception of the performance itself, while satisfaction is 'the customer's emotional state of mind after exposure to the opportunity' which may also be affected by extraneous circumstances beyond suppliers' control. Secondly, service quality measures the supplier's output while customer satisfaction measures the tourist's outcome, and the positive correlation between the two is not perfect because of the influence of the afore-mentioned extraneous circumstances. Thirdly, customers may

hold perceptions of the quality of a service they have not experienced, while satisfaction is only felt after a personal experience. They believe that even in the marketing field, where service quality had previously been interpreted as the outcome of accumulated repeated experiences, and satisfaction as the outcome of a single transaction, there is a movement towards adopting the tourism conceptualization suggested in this paragraph. These distinctions between service quality and satisfaction make customer satisfaction a more holistic outcome of an actual experience than service quality, and make service quality a determinant of customer satisfaction, along with other attribute-based supplier-controlled properties and other factors beyond suppliers' control. The former may include product characteristics and price (Parasuraman *et al* 1994), value (Soutar 2001) and the latter may include antecedent and temporal factors. When identifying which areas to emphasize in a brand identity and which to address, it is more important to measure customer satisfaction than service quality because the effect of the former on purchase intentions is stronger and more consistent (Baker & Crompton 2000). A tourist who believes the quality of a service to be high may have an overall unsatisfactory experience caused by temporal circumstances such as bad weather or noisy surroundings, and may choose not to repeat the experience or recommend it to others.

Once at the destination, customers (tourists) will compare the reality they encounter with their expectations before the visit, which are based on the images they hold (Pizam *et al* 1978; Moutinho 1987; Chon 1990; Truong & Foster 2006). First hand destination experience will modify tourists' images (Echtner & Ritchie 1991), which in turn will likely determine the type of WOM they will produce and whether they consider the destination in future (Chon 1990; Petrick 2004). WOM is addressed in Section 3.5.1. This approach has generally been accepted (Truong & Foster 2006). Ryan (1999) proposed that the gap between expectations and perceptions itself contributes to both expectations and perceptions, producing a higher order reiterative relationship rather than a linear one, and making customer satisfaction an input variable and a determinant of future purchase.

One of the instruments used to measure service quality is SERVQUAL, the instrument constructed by Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml, published in 1988 and refined in 1991 (Carrillat *et al* 2007). Various adaptations of SERVQUAL have been used in different industries, and HOLSAT is one such variation tailored to satisfaction with destinations (Truong & Foster 2006), measuring pre-travel expectation and post-travel perception longitudinally, using five-point Likert scales, and 22 standard general dimensions for all destinations. One concern about collecting both sets of data after the trip is that it requires a respondent to return mentally to a mindset before the trip. Unlike single-encounter services, travel encompasses many different elements and service providers and is consumed over a long period of time. While tourists can easily estimate their attribute satisfaction in a longitudinal study, it will be more difficult for them to accurately describe two states of mind in one session. This presents a problem, because of the difficulty of locating tourists and getting them to cooperate and respond to a long questionnaire twice during their visit, in order to discover their expectations and their perceptions, especially with large samples. Response would probably be reduced, even with post-visit contact, and a huge sample would be required to obtain enough overall valid responses, because mail surveys have sample bias as well as generally low response rates (Oppenheim 1992; Hussey & Hussey 1997; Baker 2003). It may be necessary to allocate a longer data collection period and / or remuneration to encourage response, but that may not be possible or it may bias responses, which suggests the alternative of one encounter at the end of their visit, as in Truong and Foster (2006). It is impossible to check the seriousness or honesty of answers to questionnaires (Gillham 2000). Even if one assumes both, respondents' willingness to provide the numerical responses does not preclude the questionability of the accuracy of such data. It is understandable to ask for both the expected and perceived service quality if the research intends to use both absolute values, but if the intention is merely to subtract them to find the size of the gap between expected and perceived service quality, then respondents could just as well be asked for perceptions compared to expectations directly. Further, HOLSAT attributes, such as trekking, biking and visiting religious sights may not necessarily be relevant to all respondents or to all destinations.

Ahmed (1991) included 18 attributes and later reduced them to 4; parks, activity, culture and nightlife. Truong and Foster (2006) included 33 attributes that fell under “Attractions”, “Activities”, “Amenities”, “Accommodation” and “Accessibility”. Others categorized attributes as motivating and hygiene (Baker & Crompton 2000; Bigne *et al* 2005). Particular attributes may be irrelevant to a particular destination or to a particular market, and including irrelevant attributes may bias results or produce a lower valid response rates, because respondents may select an answer even if they do not have an opinion (Gillham 2000). Non-response is a methodology issue which will be discussed in Chapters Four and Five, but it is mentioned here because it is a consideration in attribute selection. Although there is a significant relationship between destination attributes and motives (Baloglu & Uysal 1996), not all image attributes influence tourists’ destination choice (Tapachai & Waryszak 2000). The destination needs to identify its special advantages and decide how to entice the visitors it hopes to attract, in order to identify which elements to emphasize in the marketplace (Scott *et al* 2001). Motivators differ from one destination to another (Tapachai & Waryszak 2000), so evaluating attribute satisfaction assists in discovering its strengths. Branding can then help bridge the gaps between these strengths and potential visitors’ perceptions (Morgan *et al* 2002). The choice of attributes varies in research, depending on the destination, the instrument or perhaps even the researcher. Table 3.1 illustrates the variety of sources of attributes in the early literature.

In conclusion, the arguments appear stronger for using customer satisfaction with the destination’s attributes than for using service quality, with attributes tailored to the destination and perhaps re-tailored to markets. This research measured the cognitive element of destination image, by asking for “satisfaction” with individual attributes directly as well as tourists’ “perception compared to expectation” for general attribute categories. The second dimension to be addressed is the destination’s holistic element.

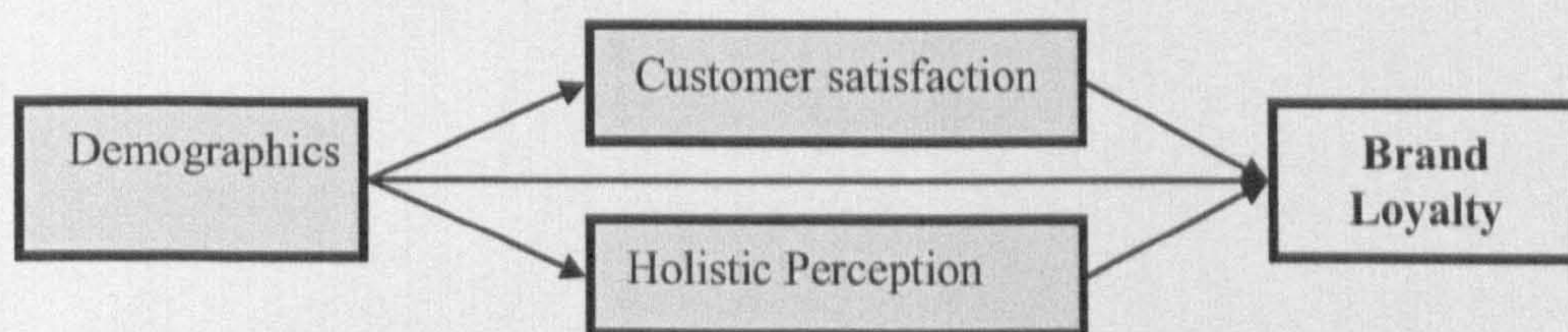
3. 4 Holistic Perception

The holistic destination and the importance of discovering the holistic experience it provides have been discussed in Sections 2.4 and 3.2 respectively. Perceptions may be more important to positioning than attributes (Ahmed 1991). As stated in Section 3.2, the importance of holistic perception surfaced with Echtner and Ritchie (1991), but was still not included in many subsequent studies and it is this dimension where there is less consensus on methodology (Section 3.2). While attitude scales easily lend themselves to measuring the cognitive element of destination image, a selection of words to choose from may be more appropriate for describing the holistic dimension of the destination brand image. Jenkins (1999) proposed that quantitative research follow a preliminary phase of qualitative research that selects the constructs relevant to the research population, in order to gather valid image data. Others (for example, Dann & Phillips 2001) reject this view as limited, perhaps because it is perceived to relegate qualitative research to a role secondary to that of the “superior” quantitative, implying that the latter cannot gather data of comparable quality. Researchers may well be subconsciously, if not consciously, influenced by their personal preferences, academic backgrounds and comfort levels with quantitative versus qualitative methodologies, especially in view of the diversity of their backgrounds as presented in Table 2.3. As discussed in Section 2.4.2, tourism researchers and practitioners come from different backgrounds. These may be more quantitative (for example, Economics), more qualitative (for example, History, Languages) or neutral (for example, Social Sciences, Marketing) and this may have a deciding influence on methodological preferences in research. In such a multi-disciplinary area, it may be less relevant to follow the majority of previous research, and consider that these preferences may have less to do with the topic of research and more to do with the researchers’ backgrounds, ways of processing information and perhaps even comfort levels. In the end, borrowing from other disciplines will provide more perspectives and contribute to the richness of tourism as a discipline, even if it takes longer to build theory.

A totally quantitative approach could be restricting and may not provide the richness of data, while a totally qualitative approach may be too free to accommodate the intended analysis without researcher involvement ensuring that respondents do not stray or refrain from response and may provide insufficient information about some relevant attributes. 'Structured methodologies can be effective for measuring the common and attribute-based components of image, but are not useful for capturing the unique and holistic components' (Echtner & Ritchie 1993, p.5; Tapachai & Waryszak 2000, p.37; Govers & Go 2003, p.26). Accepting that no single method is perfect, this research uses a data-collection method that is neither purely quantitative nor narrative to discover holistic perception of the destination, by offering a list of words compiled in preliminary research, from which respondents can choose five to describe the destination. The weakness of this method is that it offers a closed choice compared to open-ended responses, therefore not allowing as much discovery. The strengths of this method are that it allows respondents some leeway but not enough to get lost, and that it precludes any researcher subjectivity, by accepting all respondents' chosen words. It also enables the researcher to make objective comparisons between respondents and between groups of respondents. Open-ended responses would have been more difficult to analyze (Lavan 1997), and are not practical for large samples (Gillham 2000). The author's own retrospective conclusions about the best approach to take are discussed in Section 6.7.

The usefulness of satisfaction, holistic perception or customer demographics in predicting loyalty to the destination brand will also be explored (Figure 3.1).

Figure 3. 1 Possible variable relationship (fourth of six)



Source: based on the literature review and Figure 2.6
Arrows denote possible relationships

3.5 Brand Loyalty

3.5.1 Role of Word-of-mouth (WOM)

Cognitive evaluations and holistic perceptions have been discussed in detail in Sections 3.2 through 3.4. Discovering them can help to better comprehend whether customers' experience is a positive one and perhaps better predict their intended WOM, because positive WOM will result from satisfaction and from customers' perception of a superior product quality that exceeds their expectations (Woodside & Moore 1987).

The website of the Word of Mouth Marketing Association (WOMMA) defines WOM as 'the act of consumers providing information to other consumers' (WOMMA 2007). It is 'friends or contacts recommending' a product (Grant 2006, p.178), and 'communication about products and services between people who are perceived to be independent of the product or service, in a medium that is perceived to be independent of the company' (Silverman 2001, p.25), independence being the characteristic differentiating it from commercial messages (Litvin *et al* 2008). There are two parties to consider; WOM senders who transmit messages, and WOM recipients (potential customers) who will seek and / or receive the information. Senders produce WOM because it provides them with the opportunity to share their experience and expertise and to discharge positive or negative tension resulting from product experience (Westbrook 1987). It is also a way for consumers to exert powerful influences on each other (Litvin *et al* 2008), with WOM senders often tailoring different positive or negative WOM to the perceived needs or character of acquaintances (East *et al* 2007). WOM senders are the markets discussed in Section 3.6.

WOM recipients may be friends, relatives or people with weaker ties such as acquaintances and strangers (Litvin *et al* 2008), and they engage in WOM for different purposes. Processing and decision-making models suggested in consumer behaviour studies usually include a pre-purchase stage where consumers gather information externally if internal search is insufficient (Boone & Kurtz 1999; Kerin *et al* 2006).

When potential tourists planning trips move from the internal to the external information search stage, they rely on both marketing-dominated and non-marketing-dominated sources of information (Pan & Fesenmaier 2006). They are more likely to use personal experiences, travel agencies and friends or relatives than commercial information as sole sources of information (Fodness & Murray 1999). Factors affecting external search include environmental aspects, situational variables, product characteristics and consumer characteristics such as demographics (Gursoy & McCleary 2004). Along with previous experience, WOM is at least one of the most often-sought information sources, considered the most reliable (Oppermann 2000). WOM is powerful because it is credible and provides receivers with experience delivery by allowing them to sample an expensive product vicariously at no expense (Silverman 2001; Litvin *et al* 2008), especially for services of which customers have little pre-purchase experience (East *et al* 2007). This would be especially relevant for high involvement purchases, of which travel is one. Some information-seekers even derive pleasure from the process without any impending decision, to reduce uncertainty and become opinion leaders who can influence others' opinions (Gursoy & McCleary 2004; Litvin *et al* 2008). The validity of claims by practitioners such as Silverman (2001) that WOM is thousands of times more powerful than conventional marketing is yet to be established, but it appears to be more effective in influencing consumer purchase than advertising or personal selling (Woodside & Moore 1987; Gruen *et al* 2005). Negative (or positive) WOM resulting from negative (or positive) experiences may hugely impact a destination's image (Morgan *et al* 2002; Crick 2003; Morgan *et al* 2003; Petrick 2004), negatively (or positively) affecting the image held by other prospective first-time visitors who seek information (Schroeder 1996) and decreasing (or increasing) the probability of purchase (Litvin *et al* 2008). Ensuring that a tourist's experience is a positive one is therefore very important (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a).

WOM has now expanded beyond face-to-face or informal communication, to include communication through various media. Although the internet was previously considered an alternative to WOM, the two are no longer mutually exclusive (Gretzel *et al* 2006).

The internet is a very powerful WOM medium; it transcends personal WOM verbally expressed by one known person to another to include virtual acquaintances, expanding the circle of friends and acquaintances and the size of the audience (Wang & Fesenmaier 2004). Electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) is 'all informal communications directed at consumers through internet-based technology, related to the usage or characteristics of particular goods and services or their sellers' (Westbrook 1987, p.261; Litvin *et al* 2008, p.459). The Solid State website (2007) describes eWOM as 'a new, spontaneous, co-managed kind of communications network, customer-controlled, egalitarian, utterly ungovernable and very powerful'.

Increasingly, travellers use the internet to seek information about destinations (Gursoy & McCleary 2004; Lin & Huang 2006). It is one of the most effective tools for information search during the shopping process (Gretzel *et al* 2006; Pan & Fesenmaier 2006) and has become the main channel for seeking and disseminating information (Lin & Huang 2006). Research on the Internet as an image formation agent is still young (Choi *et al* 2007) despite its profound effect on the tourism industry (You *et al* 2001). Internet use for travel planning, reservation, booking, and payment has the highest online sales and growth numbers of any industry (Govers and Go 2003). The Travel Industry Association of America (TIAA) in its 2005 annual report "Travellers" Use of the Internet" reported a rapid increase in numbers planning and booking online with 78% of online U.S. travellers (up from 67% in 2004) using the internet for travel or destination information. More recent indications are that around half of U.S. travel is booked online (WTTC 2007b). Cooper *et al* (2006) discriminate between skilled and unskilled technology information searchers, and see this divide increasing, but the ubiquity of information technology (Litvin *et al* 2008), its increasing affordability and its integration into education are likely to reduce the relative size of the global unskilled technology user market. For some of those who are familiar with a destination, it may even be easier to gather information than to recall past experiences (Gursoy & McCleary 2004).

Yet, the internet has its disadvantages. As an information source, in addition to official promotional material, it includes customer commentary and reviews, which is essentially

public WOM, accessible to anyone who conducts a search. E-WOM reviews can provide a sense of the product, add to its consumer image, reduce pre-purchase doubt, mitigate cognitive dissonance and impact perceived value and loyalty intentions (Litvin *et al* 2008). Findings suggest that product information on online fora is more credible, relevant and sympathy-evoking than that of marketers' websites (Gruen *et al* 2005). E-WOM is even more powerful than traditional WOM, with virtual communities, web logs and visually enriched narrative tales about tourism experiences (Gretzel *et al* 2006), providing skilled information-seekers with easily retrievable information. A simple search of destination reviews on websites such as www.expedia.com or www.tripadvisor.com will illustrate how many information seeking potential tourists and potential migrants will not only read reviews but take the trouble to rate their usefulness. One example of the power of eWOM is when Greece recognized the positive influence on its image, capitalizing on the popularity of a Taiwanese engineer's personal website (http://home.kimo.com.tw/yuchang_chen.tw/). The website's display of his holiday photographs entitled "I left my heart in the Aegean Sea" unintentionally promoted Greek tourism (Lin and Huang 2006) when it received one million visitors in the first month, more than 45% of whom expressed an interest in visiting Greece as a result. Another example is Farmer and Atchison (2001)'s infamous power-point presentation "Yours is a very bad hotel" which was viewed by so many, picked up by the press and has since become a case study (UMass 2005; Solid State 2007). The abundance of WOM and the huge number of opinion leaders make it more difficult for DMOs to manage and control destination marketing.

From the destination's point of view, the 'internet-driven media revolution' (Anholt 2002a, p.48) levels the playing field between destinations somewhat. Along with the obvious benefits of facilitating communications and transactions and accommodating more efficient relationships within the destination's micro-environment, it opens doors, especially for smaller competitors (Choi *et al* 2007), provides an opportunity to present a brand with clarity (WTTC 2007b), and may provide competitive advantage to early adopters (Litvin *et al* 2008). Successful management of the web may require a change of

mindset (Section 1.1), as its interactive nature also provides opportunities to market destination image in new ways (Govers and Go 2003). DMOs can support the brand by adding value to the destination through online virtual communities, creating positive WOM and influencing brand loyalty (You *et al* 2001; Litvin *et al* 2008). They can avoid information overload and use simple websites and relevant pictures to accommodate target markets that do not have a lot of internet experience (Frias *et al* 2008). They can also provide 'endearment', defined as '... more than a satisfactory experience... a degree of immersion by the tourist in the systems of meaning inherent in the place' (Cano & Prentice 1998, p.68). If the web is managed wisely and creatively, it is a potentially most powerful and affordable vehicle for fame-building (Anholt 2002a), and harvesting feedback (Litvin *et al* 2008). The effects of the web are such that its opportunities will even 'make the deconstruction of destination image theory unavoidable' (Govers and Go 2003, p.14).

Since WOM is so pervasive and has such an influential role on the future intentions of others towards the destination, it is prudent to discover it and the factors that contribute to it. In the short term, this would enable destination marketers to better manage their marketing mix to improve WOM, and in the long term it would enable them to reach wider audiences, enlarge their customer base and increase brand loyalty and brand equity. It is worthwhile for destinations, therefore, to identify people who will go on to create positive WOM about their perceptions to others both real and virtual, and who can be recruited as brand ambassadors. The following will discuss how they can be recognized.

3.5. 2 Brand Loyalty indicators

In Section 3.5.1, it was mentioned that WOM is an important source of information for potential tourists planning trips. Generally, in consumer behaviour literature, dynamic evaluative criteria help consumers to reduce the choices in their evoked set as they move closer to making the purchase decision (Kerin *et al* 2006), and tourism is no different (Um & Crompton 1990). Shopping for holiday travel is more involved than that for

FMCGs. When shopping for the former, the later decision stages of product trial and evaluation may not result in purchase or repeat purchase, but may still result in positive intentions towards the destination, such as positive WOM, which was suggested as an identifier of brand loyal candidates for recruitment at the end of Section 3.5.1.

Much of the literature mentions brand loyalty without defining it or according it attention. Aaker (1996, p.21) emphasizes that ‘considering loyalty as an asset encourages and justifies loyalty-building programs which then help create and enhance brand equity’. Since brand loyalty increases brand equity, then the former can be considered an indicator measuring the success or failure of a branding strategy, and brand loyalty to the tourism product can measure the success or failure of the branding strategy for tourism. Brand loyalty has been defined as ‘a favourable attitude toward and consistent purchase of a single brand over time’ (Kerin *et al* 2006, p. 130). The first part refers to consumer attitude and the second refers to purchase behaviour. According to Boone and Kurtz (1999), brand loyalty moves along a continuum of stages: brand recognition, brand preference and brand insistence. The latter two refer to purchase behaviour. Although there has been some research on the relationship between image and brand loyalty for consumer products, this is still under-researched with regards to destinations (Xiang 2007). Tasci and Kozak (2006, p.302) concluded that it refers to the ‘ability of a destination to provide visitors with an experience that corresponds to their needs and matches the image that they hold of the destination itself’. This definition appears neither to focus on customer attitude nor behaviour, adopting a promotional viewpoint, similar to that of the promotion-focused branding definitions in Table 2.1.

Between preference for behaviour or attitude or both, there is no consensus yet on what is a true indicator of destination brand loyalty. In the literature, it has been indicated by both repurchase intentions and recommendations (Gruen *et al* 2005). Both “willingness to return” (Murphy *et al* 2000; Bigne *et al* 2001; Kozak 2001; Slater 2002; Petrick 2004; Lee *et al* 2005; Truong & Foster 2006; Um *et al* 2006; Castro *et al* 2007; Jang & Feng 2007) and “willingness to recommend” (Bigne *et al* 2001; Lee *et al* 2005; Truong & Foster 2006; Castro *et al* 2007; Jang & Feng 2007) have been employed widely in

tourism research (Baker & Crompton 2000). The relationships between image and both indicators have been studied (for example, Bigne *et al* 2001; Xiang 2007). Both indicators are affected by overall holistic destination image (Lee *et al* 2005; Xiang 2007). Um *et al* (2006) used the likelihood of returning for pleasure travel in investigating the antecedents of revisit intention. The importance of examining revisit intention rather than actual revisit has also been emphasized in recent research (Petrick 2004; Jang & Feng 2007). Using both indicators, Truong and Foster (2006) found that while 96.8% of their sample would recommend others visit the destination, only 73.9% indicated they would consider returning while 22.9% expressed their wish to see other destinations. These results concurred with Kozak (2001).

Although involvement level in travel purchase decision-making may decrease as more customers take several holidays a year, travel becomes easier and information becomes more widely available, other factors such as the 'need for variety' (Castro *et al* 2007, p.177), the need to balance familiarity with novelty (Kim & Richardson 2003; Jang & Feng 2007), the cost of a holiday and the wide selection of destinations to choose from may discourage some people from revisiting a destination, even if they would recommend it to others. Jang and Feng (2007) found satisfaction to be only partially related to the decision to revisit, only affecting short-term re-visitation, while novelty and other factors affect mid-term and long-term intention to revisit. Satisfied tourists with a low need for variety may be more willing to revisit and recommend a destination than others, while tourists with a high or medium need for new experiences are more likely to provide good reference for a destination than to revisit (Castro *et al* 2007). It may be that non repeat-purchasers actually desire to revisit but do not have the means (Petrick 2004). Satisfied tourists may share their wonderful tourism experiences with others, influencing their decision to visit, without visiting themselves. Willingness to return may also change over time, so actual revisit may not be the best indicator (Jang & Feng 2007). When customers go on to recommend that others visit the destination, their actions may result in increased visitation for the destination, even if they are not themselves the ones visiting. Given the dynamics of consumer behaviour with regards to

destinations discussed above, and the power of WOM discussed in Section 3.5.1, this section proposes that people intending to produce positive WOM should be considered brand loyal to the destination, regardless of their future purchase intentions, and that it would be useful to identify them. While both indicators were included, the definition of brand loyalty was expanded beyond the stringent “repeat purchase” to the wider “positive WOM”, using “willingness to recommend others visit the destination” as the indicator of brand loyalty to the destination’s tourism product. This brand loyalty indicator is particularly attractive because it can be applied to non-tourist markets as well. In fact, it can be applied to any product.

These brand loyal potential ambassadors have to be identified within the destination’s target markets, which are discussed next.

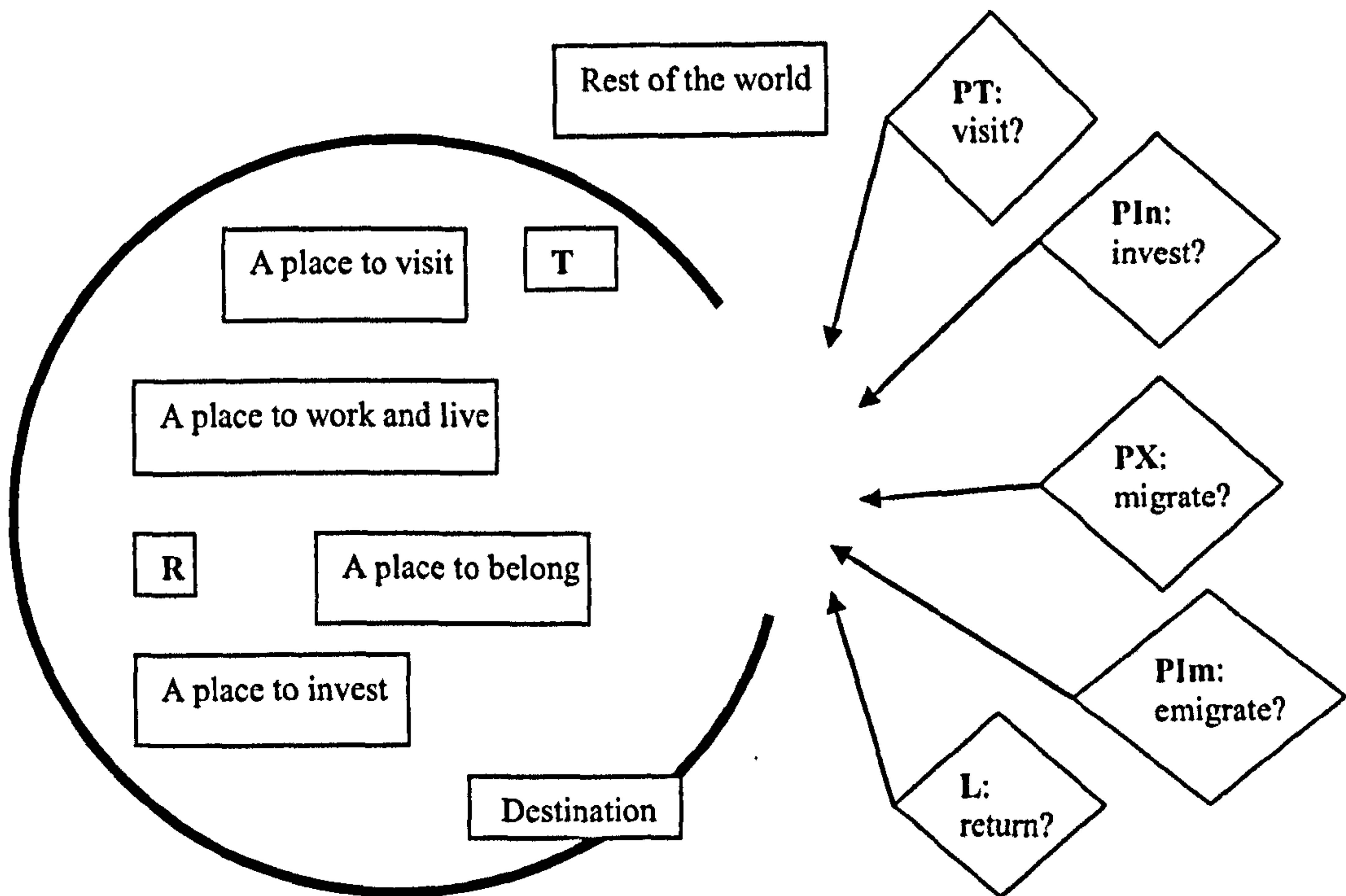
3. 6 Destination markets

The importance of brand values when marketing consumer products, to both customers and employees was discussed in Section 2.3.3. Their importance lies in their role in helping customers decide whether they wish to associate with the brand, and in aligning with employees’ own values (de Chernatoney 2006). It was also mentioned in Section 2.4 that the place system’s tourism product will be produced by residents and used by residents and tourists, and that the holistic perspective considers destination branding for tourism as part of a holistic destination strategy (Figure 2.2). Table 2.4 illustrated the importance of both residents and tourists to the success of the brand identity. Section 2.5.2 stressed the importance of cooperation from all sectors of the community, government, business, interest groups, residents and visitors (Beeton 2005). It also emphasized destination’s members sharing the strategic vision (Kotler & Gertner 2002), and understanding their role and its importance. As hosts on the ground and representatives abroad (Section 2.5.3), their inconsistent attitudes could undermine branding efforts. Tourists may be confused by their inconsistency, and their WOM

would undermine the brand identity. As discussed in Section 2.4, a place is perceived by tourists, investors, migrants and emigrants as a destination, but is also perceived by others as a place to live, a place to work and a place to belong. Therefore, Section 2.4.1 included residents and tourists among the destination's customers locally, and potential migrants, immigrants, tourists and investors as potential customers abroad. This is illustrated by the in-process model presented in Figure 3.2.

Research shows that there are differences between local and tourist destination images and expectations. Jutla (2000) found differences between destination images held by locals and tourists of Simla in India, and Witter (1985) found differences between destination images held by retailers and tourists as well as differences in the latter's expectations from a tourist destination. Tourists' familiarity with the destination has also been mentioned as a factor in destination image (Mackay & Fesenmaier 1997; Baloglu & McCleary 1999b; Baloglu 2001; Kim & Richardson 2003; Prentice 2004, 2006). Building on this idea conceptually, this thesis proposes that the destination's locals would feel the highest level of familiarity, surpassing that of other residents, who will in turn be more familiar than its visitors. Perhaps it can be called "intimacy", if one considers that it involves not only knowledge of the destination but feeling or attachment towards it. Merriam Webster's (2007) online dictionary defines familiarity as 'a state of close relationship: absence of ceremony: close acquaintance with something' and intimacy as 'familiarity: something of a personal or private nature', and the two terms are synonymous. Familiarity will result in a different level of intimacy and perhaps a different way of perceiving the destination. One might well expect the intimacy level of the relationship between the destination's expatriate residents and the place they live and choose to call home for the immediate future at least, to be exceeded by that of locals, which stems from belonging and being permanently connected by indelible bonds.

Figure 3. 2 Proposed working model of holistic destination and markets (first of two)



R = Residents, T = Tourists, L = Locals, PIm = Potential Immigrants, PIn = Potential Investors,
 PX = potential expatriates, PT = Potential tourists
 Based on literature review in Chapters Two and Three

In Sections 3.6.1 and 3.6.2, relevant literature about tourists and residents will be discussed in more detail, to underline the reasons why they were chosen in this research, and to construct a model that illustrates their positions within the destination, to be presented in Section 3.6. 3.

3.6. 1 Tourists

The UNWTO website (2002) states that ‘tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited’. Tourists include VFR, those visiting

the destination to attend events and others vacationing there. The destination's appeal to potential visitors should be understood (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a; Scott *et al* 2001), because they are the destination's customers and because its success hinges upon how much its brand personality interacts with target markets (Morgan & Pritchard 2002). Tourists may use the destination's tourist accommodation, restaurants, taxis or car-rentals, visit its tourist attractions, enjoy its entertainment and explore its corners. They will use the destination's roads, eat its food, purchase goods from its shops and get a sense of its culture during their visit. As they become more familiar with the destination, they may develop a relationship with it and may choose to incorporate it into their lives when they return (Prentice 2006). For example, visitors impressed with their experience in Spain may start to listen to Latin music, serve tapas to their guests, take a salsa class or learn Spanish.

Actual tourists were chosen in this research instead of potentials who may never have visited, because tourism promotion only confirms the intentions of those pre-inclined to visit but does not persuade uncommitted potential vacationers (Morgan & Pritchard 2002). It is accepted that their presence implies not only a pre-inclination, but an actual willingness to visit the destination at least once. However, they would be in a position to evaluate their satisfaction with its various attributes, and their experienced WOM would be credible. It must be mentioned here that in Bahrain, it would have been difficult to access a random sample of vacationing tourists. A random sample of business tourists would be difficult to locate, because they spend their time in meetings, and many of them may drive in from Saudi Arabia or may only visit for the day. The VFR destination experience would differ greatly from that of mainstream tourists. Often staying with their friends and relatives, VFRs are probably taken by their hosts to particular sights, advised what to do and warned what to avoid (Young *et al* 2007). Their experience would be tempered with their feelings towards their hosts, which would affect their objectivity and perhaps increase (or decrease) the likelihood of favourable evaluations of the destination's attributes. Depending on their hosts for at least some of their accommodation, transport or meals, their experience is atypical, and many of them may

not be familiar with tourist facilities. They may also have a larger discretionary budget to spend on other activities and shopping (Young *et al* 2007) distorting their cost expectations and perceptions. Therefore, their responses would not have been representative of other tourists. As a result, VFRs were excluded from this research. It remains to be said, however, that this is an important tourist segment, whose perceptions should be investigated as well, but as a group separate from other tourists. Clearly, it would be difficult for any single piece of research to include all possible market segments, and all possible relevant issues, so for practical reasons, some segments were not included. Event tourists are also not representative of all tourists, perhaps attending events they consider worthwhile despite ambivalence or negative feelings towards the destination. However, one could argue that this actually makes this tourist segment more likely to be neutral and objective than other segments. For these reasons, tourists attending events were chosen as the first respondent group. Yet, an identity cannot be created solely on the basis of the image of event tourists, as it would be as irrelevant as their unfamiliarity with the destination. Other markets must be considered.

3.6. 2 Residents

From an organisational perspective, branding traditional products begins with people: employees and customers. The success of a brand depends on the degree of harmony between management's stated values, staff implementation of those values and customer appreciation of those values (de Chernatoney 2006). Employees cannot be expected 'to make a vision happen if they do not understand and buy into that vision' (Aaker 1996, p.72). They can choose whether to embrace, improve, ignore or reject the new brand identity (Edwards & Day 2005). Customers' impressions of brands are less strongly affected by advertising than by the staff they interact with, who are perceived by customers to embody the brand in their behaviour, voice, beliefs and attitudes (Dann 2002; de Chernatoney 2006). Customers will learn about the brand through their interactions with employees, who are all brand owners and managers and must enhance it and guard it in all their interactions with customers (Davis 2002). Employees are the

most important audience, because they are the face of the organisation, embodying the brand, projecting messages and values and reinforcing the reputation (Haywood 2005). All customer contact should reinforce the marketed image (Slater 2002). In service industries, internal marketing can motivate employees and stimulate them to impress, differentiating the company from its competition and helping to spread positive WOM that reinforces the company's positive image in consumers' minds (de Chernatoney & Riley 1999). Employees need to be understood, targeted, inspired and encouraged (Edwards & Day 2005). Especially in services, internal branding to employees is recommended, to overcome the product's heterogeneous nature and achieve a cohesive organizational culture consistent with the brand (de Chernatoney & Riley 1999).

The same could be adapted for destinations. 'It may be useful to think of some of these smaller [younger] countries almost as larger multinationals' (Gilmore 2002b, p.283). Along with the infrastructure for which satisfaction can be measured, the destination experience also includes numerous interactions with residents, which are integral to the holistic experience. Tourists using services or entering retail facilities encounter residents providing the products as well as shopping, eating in restaurants and walking in the street. Their evaluations of tourism services depend more on the service provided than on the product itself (Vogt & Fesenmaier 1995). The success of the tourism industry is intertwined with the performance, policies and behaviour of energy, technology, telecommunications, agriculture and transportation (Crouch & Ritchie 1999) and these are all planned and executed by residents. Residents at the destination are the ultimate front-line people who must believe in the destination image created (Gilmore 2002a), when they provide its goods, services and atmosphere to tourists and other residents, so they are the destination's employees. Residents may also be tourists in their own destination (Alcaniz *et al* 2005). Residents also use the destination's infrastructure and consume its products; accommodation, transport, utilities, food and beverage, entertainment, cultural activities and shopping, therefore they are also its customers. Moreover, residents can generate tourism through hosting and accompanying the VFR market and influencing its image and its experience before as well as during the visit

(Schroeder 1996; Young *et al* 2007). Residents acting as hosts attract visitors and foster business ties abroad that contribute to the economy (Crouch & Ritchie 1999). Residents, then, are destination employees, customers and potential hosts.

Most research has not taken into account residents not directly involved in tourist services despite their part in the tourism experience. Out of 142 papers reviewed by Pike (2002), only 2 included residents. As discussed in Section 2.4, image should be studied holistically in the context of the holistic place brand for all its goals, and research that uses tourists exclusively ignores the role of residents in tourism. In doing so, it limits destination branding to tourism and ignores the destination system's other goals. Although many tourism studies did study communities (for example, Murphy 1988; Perdue *et al* 1990; Prentice 1993; Getz 1994; Lea *et al* 1994; Pizam *et al* 1994; Williams & Lawson 2001; Young *et al* 2007), their focus was mostly on residents' attitudes towards tourism and community-driven tourism and not on residents' images of their own destination. Resident support of tourism development and promotion is important (Schroeder 1996), and their 'attitudes to tourism can be a significant component of the destination image formation process' (Gallarza *et al* 2002, p.59). They may have images of their own destination that can be compared to tourists' images (Gallarza *et al* 2002, Witter 1985). Schroeder (1996) and Alcaniz (2005) both conducted research on residents' images of their own destinations, but, unlike this research, the latter focused on residents as travelling tourism consumers within their destination.

As discussed in Section 2.5.2, the proposed brand identity should not be fictitiously invented or super-imposed by tourism marketers (Gilmore 2002b; Pike 2005) as a "fait accompli". 'Active stakeholder engagement' during brand planning is very important to its success (Baker 2007, p.24). The importance of the support of the resident population to the destination brand can be found in increasing frequency in contemporary literature (Crouch & Ritchie 1999; Pride 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford 2004; Anholt 2005b; Cooper *et al* 2005; Nworah 2005; Pike 2005; Young *et al* 2007), emphasizing marketing to internal target markets and eliciting their support. Destination brand managers should consider local 'views and sensitivities' (Gilbert 2005, p.683), and ensure the strategic

brand identity incorporates the community brand image and is consistent with its culture and its values (Crouch & Ritchie 1999). Residents must buy into the advantages of tourism as a perpetuator of prosperity. Understanding their concerns enables managers to address, influence and / or manage them through strategic planning. It must be acknowledged that tourism can cause the destination to suffer environmental damage, dilution of community values, increased prices, and rising property values (Crouch & Ritchie 1999). Strategy must therefore address these issues and find ways to minimize, control or even eradicate this damage. Therefore, internal marketing must help ensure residents see past the disadvantages and believe in the long term community and personal benefits of tourism and their important role in its success. Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) suggest that planners, before investing in developing tourism, communicate individually with active community members, environmentalists and those concerned about the economy and address their concerns, constructing the identity from the bottom upwards. If local input is excluded from the design of the proposed destination brand identity, their attitudes when encountering others may not match destination marketers' vision, confusing tourists and undermining this identity, thus hindering the strategy. This was supported in Section 2.5.2, where it was stressed that the organic brand identity should be ownable by residents, so that they would support the message transmitted by destination marketers to the rest of the world. According to Gilmore (2002b, p.284), 'if the image that is chosen for a country fails to represent the people, then how can they believe it themselves? How can it then be believed elsewhere?'

Destination service providers must believe in the destination image created (Gilmore 2002a), and that includes expatriates, along with local residents. Yet, there is a scarcity of destination branding literature about expatriates. An expatriate is defined as 'any individual who works outside their country of birth but does not emigrate to the country where they work' (Barber & Pittaway 2000, p.352). They lack 'the organic ties of kinship, origin, and occupation with the group', and having taken prolonged temporary residence at the destination, are located 'halfway between the traveller and the

immigrant' and may share traits with one or both of them (Haug *et al* 2007, p.204-205). Expatriates also share some commonalities with locals because they both live at the destination, but there are differences between them. First is that many expatriates live in 'bubbles' in their host countries, amidst familiar communities of their own nationalities which may provide a pull factor to other expatriates considering relocation and may afford them the choice not to interact with the local community (Haug *et al* 2007, p.211). Second is the temporary nature of their commitment to the destination unless they take further action to remain. Dissatisfaction with the destination would likely result in their departure, perhaps more than locals. Locals are committed to the destination unless they elect to give up that commitment, while expatriates are not committed to it unless they elect to become so. Third is that expatriates may tend to dissociate themselves from tourists, are aware of their contribution to the host economy and believe they should be treated as nationals (Haug *et al* 2007). Fourth is familiarity level or intimacy. Section 3.6 proposed a difference in the intimacy of the relationships of residents and tourists with the host destination. A difference was also proposed between the intimacy of relationships of local and expatriate residents with the destination. If that is indeed true, there may be a difference in the way expatriates perceive the destination brand image, as will be suggested in the destination model in Section 3.6.3. It would then not be a stretch to consider that the vista might differ depending on the vantage point, informed by their perception of the destination as a place to work, live and visit as opposed to locals' perception of the destination as a place to work, live, visit *and belong*.

The various ways that tourists can feel familiarity of a destination have been studied and they include exposure to literature set in it, having media information about it, tourists' own self-expressed knowledge about it, proximate knowledge of it or previous experience of it (Baloglu 2001; Prentice 2004). As previously stated, hardly any research addresses expatriates in particular, and no research has attempted to predict expatriate brand loyalty to the tourism product. Young *et al* (2007) attempted to understand the behaviours that stimulate VFR by studying VFR hosts in Las Vegas. Pizam (1999)

studied the relationship between tourist experience and attitude change amongst working long-staying tourists, and found that the most intense social relations with Israeli hosts were more likely to lead to higher satisfaction with the experience. Although the latter may not be generalizable beyond the Israeli experience, the conclusions lead one to ponder whether expatriates have different attitudes towards a destination than tourists do and whether they may be a distinct market to be addressed separately.

Expatriates are a very important market because of many reasons. Firstly, attracting talented inward migration was one of the destination's goals outlined in Section 2.4. (Figure 2.2). Secondly, expatriation and international mobility is forecast well into the next millennium with more high-level employees working as expatriates at some point (Richardson & McKenna 2006), representing a growing market. Thirdly, they are particularly able to activate the VFR market through their networks and connections abroad, providing a large base of potentials that can be drawn to the host destination, whereas much of the network of locals is already there. Fourthly, they may be particularly credible sources of WOM, as experts who have "been there and done that". Fifthly, expatriates are 'likely to have substantially different travel preferences than those born in the generating country (Gamage & King 1999, p.313). Sixthly, expatriate attitudes do warrant some investigation and the scarcity of research is surprising, leaving a gap that needs to be addressed. For all of these reasons, it is argued that expatriates are a very important resource that should not be overlooked by the host nation, and this research will attempt to address it (Section 3.7.1).

Based on the above discussion of the literature, a model is proposed next, illustrating the positioning of the markets discussed in Section 3.6 within the holistic destination.

3.6. 3 The destination model

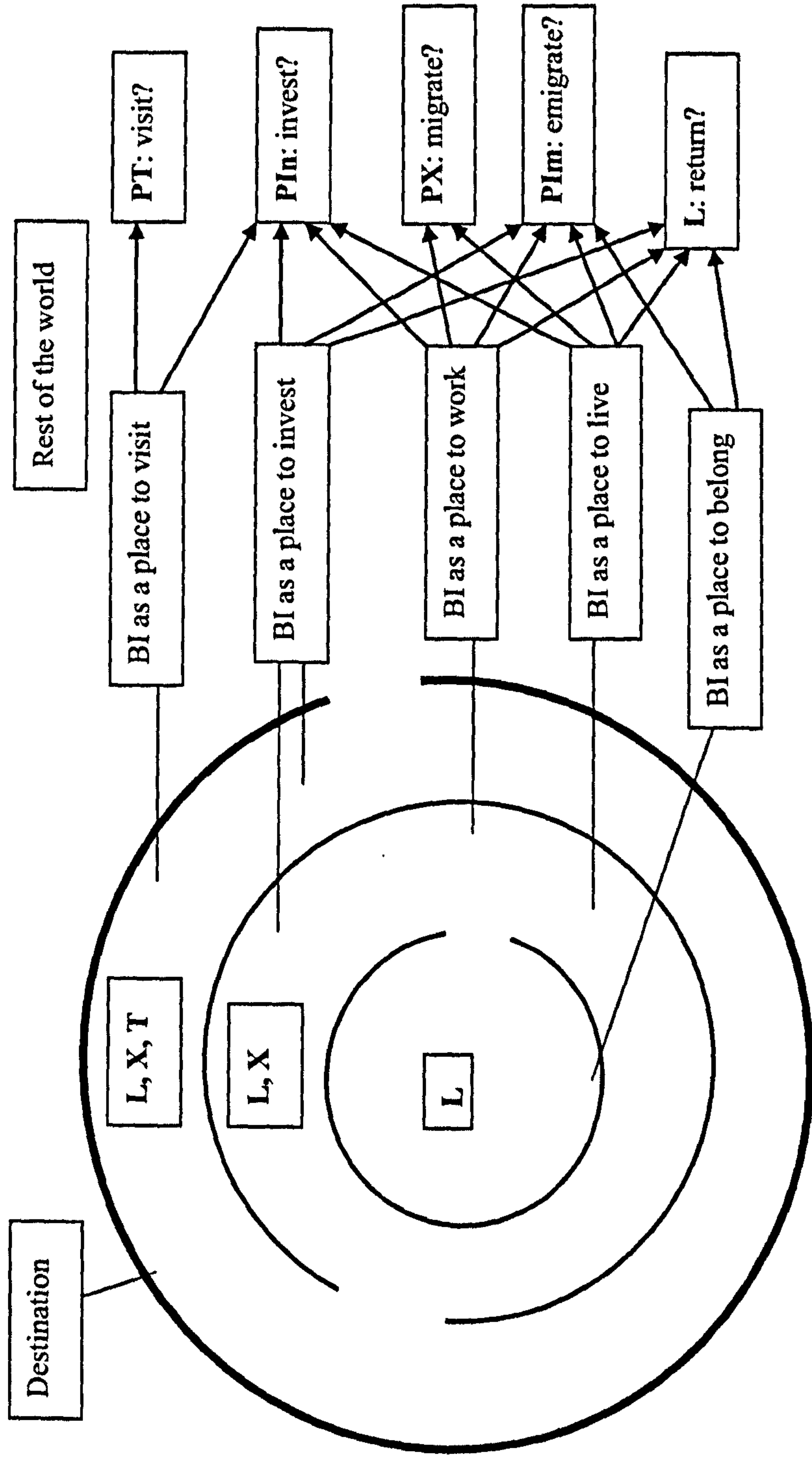
The discussion so far has identified locals, expatriates and tourists as important destination markets to be considered when holistically branding the destination for tourism. Locals and expatriates are destination employees, and they along with tourists

are destination customers. Building further on Figure 3.2, a model is proposed in Figure 3.3, envisioning the destination's intimacy layers where tourists, locals and expatriate residents sit. The least intimate is the fringe (outer) layer, which is the destination as a place to visit, experienced by visitors as well as residents, and includes the airport, malls, parks, shops, restaurants, museums, attractions, cinemas and streets. The middle layer is the destination as a place to live and work and invest. It is more intimate and is experienced by all residents and includes the working and living environment, schools, grocery shops, clubs and healthcare services. Investors are concerned with both outer layers, because in addition to the outer layer, they will be interested in the quality of life the destination would be able to offer potential expatriates who will work for the companies they will set up or who will purchase the properties they will develop. Local residents experience the most intimate part of the destination, the core, which includes family life, national pride, local traditions, political parties and local societies. This is the destination as a place to belong. Tourists may enter the inner layers by making a special effort if they want to get to know the destination more closely, but most would not. Expatriates can enter the core, by getting more involved in local life, but that might be the exception rather than the rule. Accordingly, Table 3.2 shows the relationship of the markets to the destination.

Table 3. 2 Market-destination relationships

Market category	Relationship to Destination	Proposed intimacy level	Proposed vantage point	Proposed view: as a place to...
Tourists	Customers	Least	Fringe (outer)	... visit
Expatriates	Employees and customers	Medium	Middle	...live and work
Locals	Employees and customers	Most	Core (inner)	...live, work and belong

Figure 3.3 Proposed model of holistic destination and markets (second of two)



BI = Brand Image, L = Locals, X = Expatriates, T = Tourists, PIm = Potential Immigrants,

PIn = Potential Investors, PX = potential expatriates, PT = Potential tourists

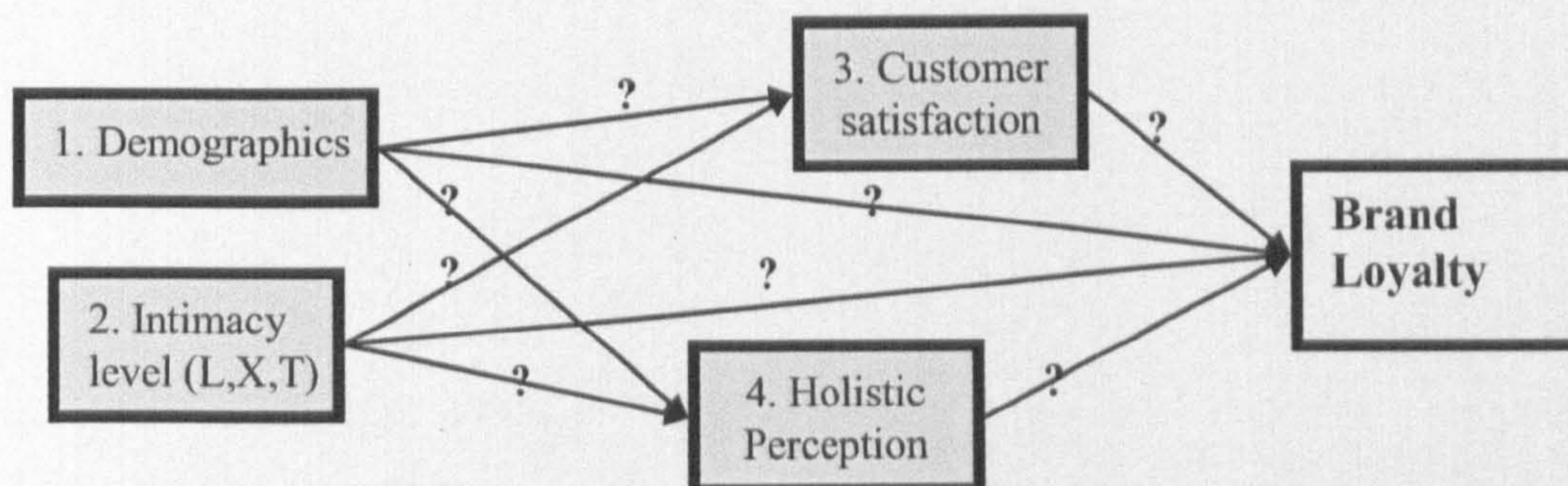
Source: based on Figure 3.2, interpretation of the literature and the analysis in Sections 3.6, 3.6.1 and 3.6.2

As Figure 3.3 proposes, the destination brand images and the WOM these markets produce affects various groups within the destination as well as external groups considering the destination such as potential immigrants, people considering migration to work, potential investors, tourists, or even locals considering whether or not to return home from abroad. Potential tourists may be affected by the destination's image as a place to visit. Potential investors might consider the destination's brand image as a place to visit, invest, work and live. Potential migrants might be interested in the destination as a place to work and to live. Finally, potential immigrants and locals living abroad considering whether or not to return might be affected by the destination as a place to invest, to work, to live and to belong.

3. 7 The research

This research defined the destination as one aspect of a place (Section 2.4), and explained the need for destination branding when competing for tourism (Section 2.2). This branding should be mindful of the destination's other goals (Section 2.4). This involves creating a destination brand identity that will attempt to influence the existing brand image, as illustrated by the construction process in Figure 2.3, Figure 2.4 to its later version in Figure 2.6. The first step is therefore to discover the existing brand images (Section 2.5.2). This is done by measuring customer satisfaction as an indicator of the cognitive element of destination image (Section 3.3), and assessing holistic perception (Section 3.4). In addition, brand loyalty towards the destination's tourism product is measured, indicated by positive WOM (Section 3.5). Demographics have also been suggested by some authors (for example: Baloglu and McCleary 1997) as having an influence on destination image (Section 2.5.1), so they are also included in the following summary of possible relationships (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3. 4 Possible variable relationships (fifth of six)



Note: arrows suggest possible relationships

L = local, X = expatriate, T = event tourist

Source: based on Figure 3.1 and interpretation of the literature

When the holistic context for destination branding was combined with the importance of integrated communications (Section 2.5.3) and the power of WOM and eWOM (Section 3.5.1), the relevant markets proposed themselves; tourists and residents, both locals and expatriate (Section 3.6). The scarcity of literature studying the role of expatriates in destination branding was behind the creation of the model proposed in Figure 3.3. As a result of this dearth of information, and the expatriate characteristics discussed in Section 3.6.2, no assumptions should be made about their categorization without further research. As was discussed in Section 3.6.2, the nature of the relationship between the expatriates and the destination differs from that between locals or tourists with the destination. Therefore, their destination image may differ. This research included only two types of familiarity (Section 3.6). The first is a proximate familiarity of sorts, focusing on the nature of the relationship between the market and the destination. However, it is generalized to include residents and referred to in this thesis as *intimacy level*, and operationalized by the categorization of the three respondent types. The second is the degree of familiarity of an experiential kind within the expatriate and

tourist groups, operationalized by the number of years the former have resided at the destination and by the latter's number of previous visits. The findings of this research may show whether this approach is worthy of further consideration. In doing so, the research aims to make a contribution towards some of the gaps in the literature. These gaps are discussed next.

3.7. 1 Literature gaps

This research began with a review of the literature, focusing on branding (Section 2.3), destination branding (Section 2.4.2), destination image formation and transformation (Sections 2.5.1 and 2.5.2), destination image measurement and its dimensions (Sections 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4) and brand loyalty (Section 3.5). The review resulted in the identification of several gaps. The following is a discussion of these gaps:

➤ **The brand image of the Kingdom of Bahrain as a destination for tourism:** This has not been researched academically. Some tourism-related research has been conducted by the Bahrain Centre for Studies and Research, but a physical search of their library determined that none related to the topic of this research. Although Bahrain has recently acquired an interest in branding (Al-Yousif 2007b, BEDB 2007a, b), and consultants have been hired, tourism has been mentioned but does not appear to be emphasized. The BEDB chief executive stated that they have 'a comprehensive strategy to attract direct investment, promote Bahrain as a preferred business destination and raise the standards of living of the people of Bahrain' (TradeArabia 2007). Therefore, this thesis aims to discover the destination image and identify an informed position from whence it is possible to design and construct a destination brand identity for tourism within the holistic destination's goals (Section 2.4). The destination brand image will be researched from the perspectives of the markets identified in Section 3.6 as locals, expatriates and event tourists, using a holistic place approach that focuses on tourism elements. This will be performed by investigating customer satisfaction (Section 3.3) and holistic perception (Section 3.4), which were the elements of destination image identified in Section 3.2; and by measuring brand loyalty through the indicators justified

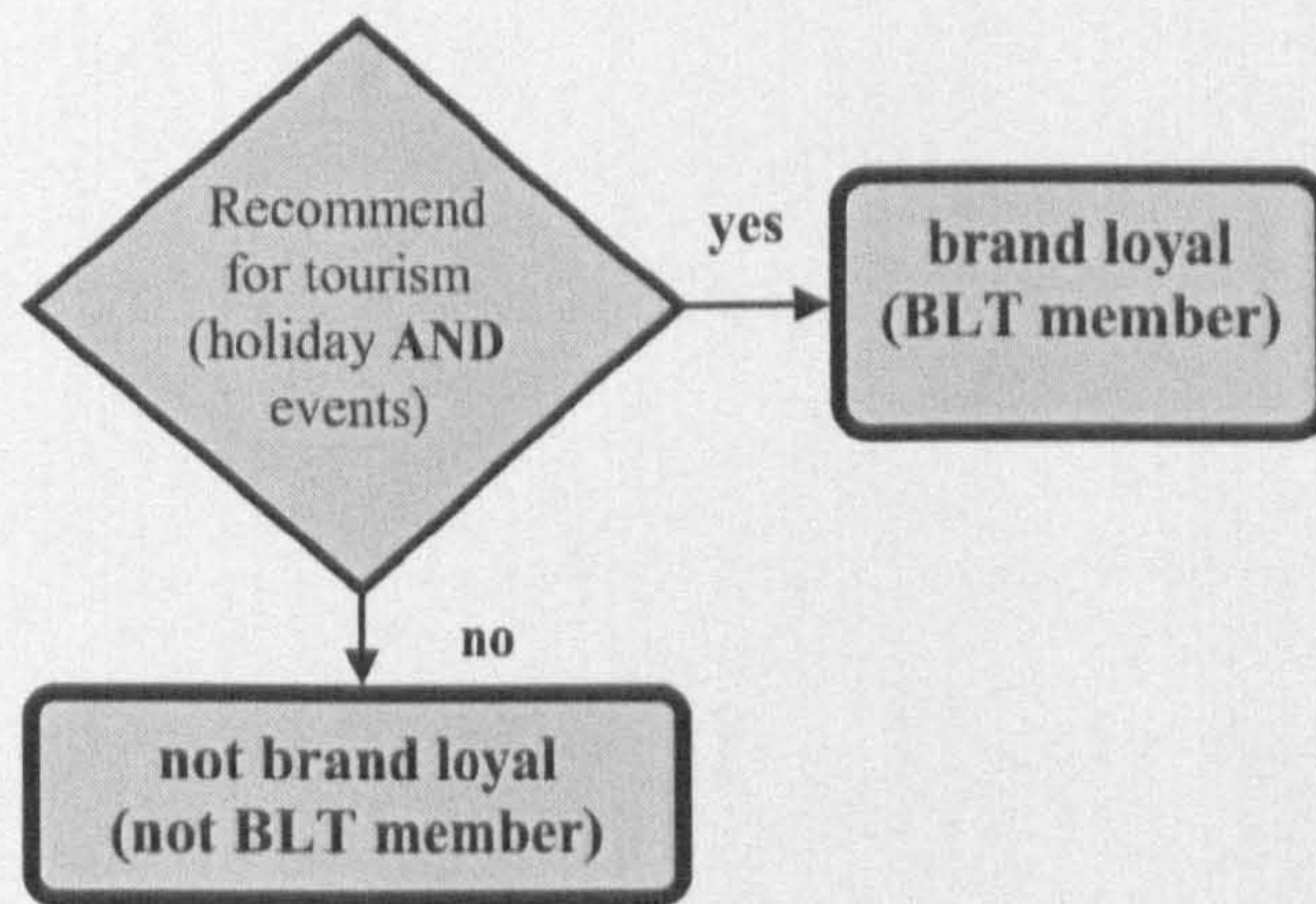
in Section 3.5.2. This research will attempt to address this gap by answering the research question: what is the image of Bahrain as a tourist destination? While doing so, the following gaps will also be explored:

➤ **Classification of Expatriates:** This question arose during the research design, and there was no precedent in the literature specifically addressing the issue or providing guidelines (Section 3.7), despite the importance of this market as discussed in Section 3.6.2. By considering the groups independently and comparing them, the results should indicate how the expatriate market is best treated and contribute towards filling this gap. In this research, samples of residents and tourists are chosen from the general population. By questioning whether to consider local and expatriate residents as one group, the answer was clearly to distinguish them and then to explore the results to determine whether that distinction was necessary. This research will address this gap by answering the research question: how should expatriates be classified?

➤ **Prediction of Brand Loyalty to the Destination Tourism Product:** The importance of brand loyalty to the destination and the role of WOM in destination branding have already been discussed in Sections 3.5 and 3.5.1 respectively. The review noted the scarcity of literature addressing the prediction of brand loyalty (Kozak 2001). Brand loyalty to the destination's tourism product (BLT) is indicated by recommending that others visit the destination. This definition is specific for two reasons. First, it ensures interpretation of this work as intended. Second, it stops the term from changing gradually and taking on a different meaning later on without being noticed (Kane 1997, p.18). Since this research focuses on the tourism objective of the destination system, and in accordance with the conclusions reached at the end of Section 3.5.2, respondents intending to recommend the destination for tourism are considered brand loyal to the destination's tourism product. Respondents intending to recommend the destination for a holiday *and* to attend events are considered BLT members (Figure 3.5). Any or all of attribute satisfaction, holistic perceptions and demographics may be useful in predicting brand loyalty for each of the three markets included in the research. The ability to improve the prediction of brand loyalty can be useful in segmenting markets, identifying the most loyal segments, positioning the product to appeal to its loyal markets and

adapting the product for other markets, and this research will attempt to contribute towards filling this gap by answering the research question for each market: Can knowledge of demographic data, attribute satisfaction or holistic perception contribute to prediction of respondents' destination brand loyalty for tourism?

Figure 3. 5 BLT membership flowchart (first of two)



3.7. 2 Research problem and research questions

As already stated in Chapter One and expanded in Section 3.7, the aim of this thesis is to discover the destination brand image of Bahrain from the perspectives of locals, expatriates and tourists, to serve as a starting point from which to design and construct a brand identity for tourism within the holistic destination's objectives, and to function as a benchmark from which to measure success. 'The objectives of a research should flow logically from a well-defined problem' (Sufian 1998, p.18). The research problem in this research is: *What is the brand image of Bahrain as a tourist destination?* Table 3.3 presents the breakdown analysis of the research problem into research questions which measure satisfaction with individual destination attributes and holistic perception of the destination. Discovering the effectiveness of the existing brand image requires the discovery of whether destination markets are loyal to its brand for tourism, therefore these questions were further broken down into research sub-questions (Table 3.3).

Table 3. 3 Research questions and sub-questions (2 pages)

Gap	Research question	Research sub-question	Operationalized by	Sections	
The brand image of Bahrain as a tourist destination	RQ 1: How satisfactory are individual destination attributes?	RQ1a: How satisfied are locals with individual destination attributes?	Local scaled responses to attributes	5.3.1.1, 5.3.2.1 5.3.3.1	
		RQ1b: How satisfied are expatriates with individual destination attributes?	Expatriate scaled responses to attributes	5.3.1.2, 5.3.2.2 5.3.3.2	
		RQ1c: How satisfied are event tourists with individual destination attributes?	Event tourists' scaled responses to attributes	5.3.1.3, 5.3.2.3, 5.3.3.3, 5.3.4	
	RQ 2: What is the holistic perception of the destination?	RQ 2a: What are local residents' holistic perceptions of destination?	Descriptive words used by locals	5.4.1	
		RQ 2b: What are expatriate residents' holistic perceptions of destination?	Descriptive words used by expatriates	5.4.2	
		RQ 2c: What are event tourists' holistic perceptions of destination?	Descriptive words used by event tourists	5.4.3	
		RQ 2d: How do tourists perceptions compare to expectations?	Scaled responses to (perception-expectation)	5.4.6	
	Measure success of destination brand for tourism	RQ 3: Are destination markets loyal to destination brand for tourism?	RQ 3a: Are local residents loyal to the destination brand for tourism?	Do locals produce positive WOM?	5.5.1
			RQ 3b: Are expatriate residents loyal to the destination brand for tourism?	Do expatriates produce positive WOM?	5.5.2
			RQ 3c: Are event tourists loyal to the destination brand for tourism?	Do event tourists produce positive WOM?	5.5.3
	Classification of expatriates	RQ 4: How should expats be classified?	RQ 4a: Is expatriate satisfaction the same as locals or tourists?	Do responses from 1a, 1b and 1c differ significantly?	5.3.1.4
			RQ 4b: Is expatriate holistic perception the same as locals or tourists?	Do responses from 2a, 2b and 2c differ significantly?	5.4.5
RQ 4c: Is expatriate BLT the same as locals or tourists?			Do responses from 3a, 3b and 3c differ significantly?	5.5.5	

Gap	Research question	Research sub-question	Operationalized by	Sections
Prediction of brand loyalty	RQ 5: Is any of this data useful in predicting BLT (brand loyalty to the tourism product)?	RQ 5a: Are any of these data useful in predicting local BLT? Which is the most useful?	RQ 5a: Are answers to RQs 1a, 2a, or demographics data useful in predicting answers to RQ 3a? Which is best?	5.7.1
		RQ 5b: Are any of these data useful in predicting expatriate BLT? Which is the most useful?	RQ 5b: Are answers to RQs 1b, 2b, or demographic data useful in predicting answers to RQ 3b? Which is best?	5.7.2
		RQ 5c: Are any of these data useful in predicting tourist BLT? Which is the most useful?	RQ 5c: Are answers to RQs 1c, 2c, or demographic data useful in predicting answers to RQ 3c? Which is best?	5.7.3

Since there were no clear expressed guidelines in the literature about the categorization of expatriates (Section 3.7.1), comparing expatriates' responses with those of locals and of event tourists may suggest a classification for expatriates in image research. Finally, exploring the ability of demographics, customer satisfaction and holistic perception to contribute to prediction of the above-mentioned brand loyalty within each sample may, if productive, suggest means of identifying, within each market, brand loyal members who can be recruited as brand ambassadors.

3. 8 Research setting

As Table 3.3 shows, the first research question to be addressed by this research is to find the brand image of the Kingdom of Bahrain as a tourist destination. The following will discuss Bahrain as a destination system with economic goals, then as a place for residents to live and work and finally as a place for tourists to visit (Figure 3.3). The discussion aims to provide insight into the research setting and to help contextualize both the methodology in Chapter Four and the discussion of the results in Chapter Six.

3.8. 1 Region overview

The effect of the media on perceived destination image was discussed in Section 2.5.3. The Middle East has often been in the media for political unrest over the last few years, with incidents in Iraq, Israel, Turkey and the West Bank (Lawrence 2006), Lebanon (Younes & Forster 2005), the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, and more recently concerns about reaction to Iran's nuclear program (ViewsWire 2006). Prior to September 11th 2001, western perception of Middle Eastern countries was coloured by the Israeli-Palestinian conflict and terrorism incidents (Schneider & Somnez 1999), although the region has 'unparalleled cultural and religious wealth, still unpolluted beaches and well known warmth and hospitality of its people' (Wahab 2001, p.163). The first Gulf war in the early nineties, the war in Afghanistan (2001 - present) and the second Gulf war

(2003 - present) are also all associated with the region. Tourism has been affected in many Middle Eastern countries (Beirman 2002). The Gulf wars, in particular, have focused the world's attention on the Gulf region over the last 17 years and may have affected its image in western countries. Middle-Easterners were viewed as backward or threatening by many citizens of other countries (Balakrishnan 2008). Perceptions of the region as troubled may affect the chances of its countries being considered or chosen as a place to visit, invest, live, work or belong (Figure 3.3). Yet, growth in the Middle East remains strong (Johnson 2005; ViewsWire 2006) and fears of terrorism in the Middle East have merely succeeded in reducing the growth rate of tourism arrivals from double to single digits (Younes & Forster 2005). Post-911, the combination of heightened security measures, a perception of racial profiling among many Middle Easterners and the increased difficulty of obtaining visas into some countries, even for university students already studying abroad, resulted in a temporary reluctance to travel to the United States in particular and an increase in regional travel (Rajab 2001). Reluctance of citizens from the Gulf Cooperative Council (GCC) member countries to visit Europe and America caused an increase in inter-Arab tourism (Khalaf *et al* 2005). The fastest average growth in tourism arrivals has happened in Middle East countries that recognised the potential of tourism and invested heavily in infrastructure and their nationals have seen rapid economic growth (WTTC 2007a).

Meanwhile, exceptionally strong receipts from record high oil prices (ViewsWire 2006; Bradford 2008) resulted in an economic boom in the GCC countries (Khalaf *et al* 2005; AlGaseer 2006; Platt 2007), of which Bahrain is one. These countries are investing in planning alternative sources of revenue (Horowitz-Bennett 2007). In an effort to diversify the economy and promote future private sector growth, GCC petrodollars are being invested in real estate, education, tourism, industry, agriculture and attracting FDI (Platt 2007). The potential to attract more FDI into the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region is now many times higher than previous actual inflows (AlGaseer 2006). The combined GCC GDP rose by 18.7% to USD725 billion in 2006, with an external surplus of USD200 billion and more than USD1 trillion of investment projects

planned over the next few years (Platt 2007). Business is so successful that profit increases exceeding 100% have been commonplace (AlGaseer 2006).

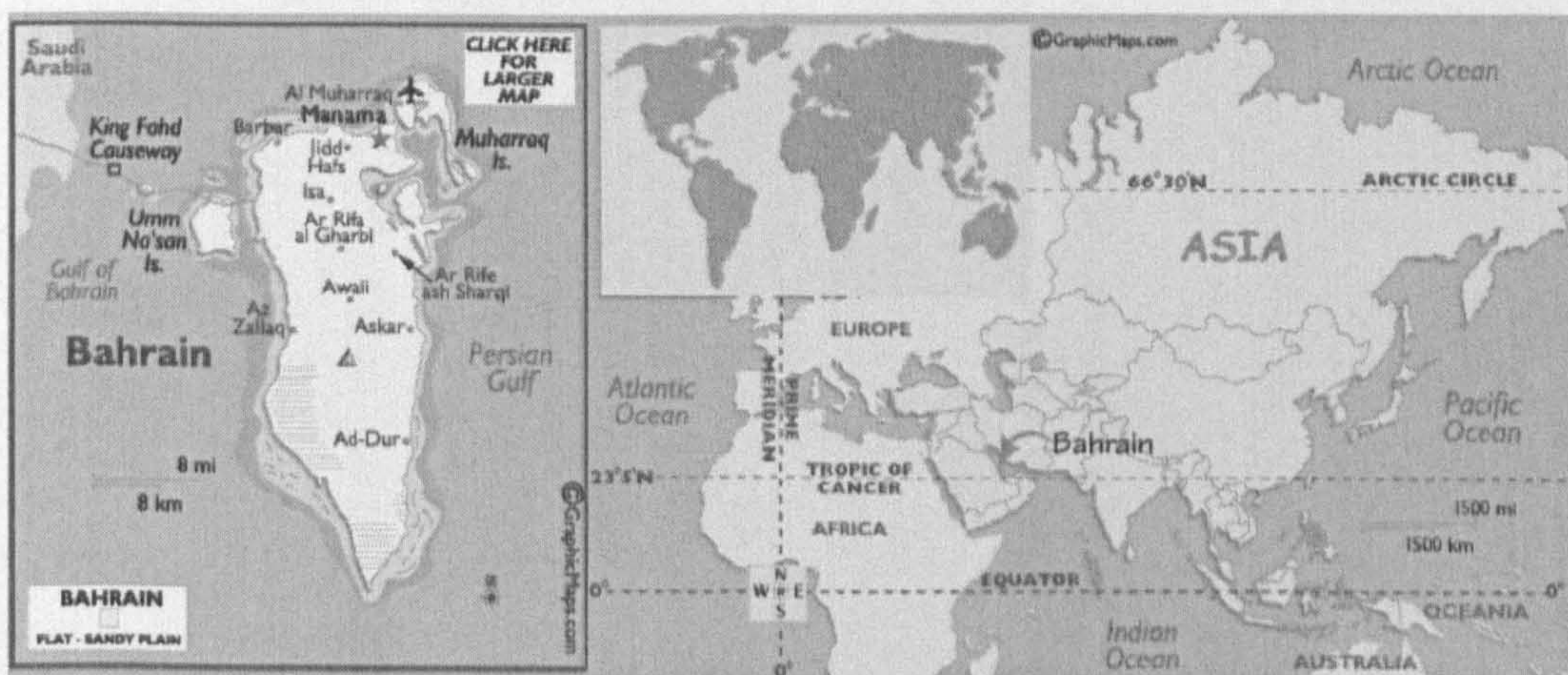
Geography may also be a consideration. Trade and route control usually bring fortunes, and the geographic location of the GCC countries positions them as stopover destinations for global travellers and freight forwarders between South East Asia and Europe (Thomas 2008). All the GCC countries are attempting to turn themselves into worldwide destinations. Bahrain has invested in development as a financial centre. Qatar is investing in becoming a centre for education and sports recreation. Abu Dhabi in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), is investing in becoming a centre for finance, cultural arts and media while Dubai is targeting upscale Europeans looking for vacation homes (Horowitz-Bennett 2007), and positioning itself as an ideal retirement destination (Thomas 2008), and a home of luxury brands (Balakrishnan 2008). Dubai has 'developed an impressive metropolitan presence, but attracts many tourists as a beach resort, although it offers cultural attractions and opportunities for escapism into the desert' (Govers and Go 2003, p.17). GCC airlines are also undergoing huge expansions. Qatar Airways and Gulf Air fly mostly in the Middle East, while Saudi Arabia is focusing on attracting business travellers and religious tourists. Abu-Dhabi's new Etihad Air is fast becoming a global competitor. Emirates Air, functioning as a 'government-owned travel and tourism conglomerate' with businesses at all links of the distribution chain (Anderson 2005), is the expansion leader promoting its international destinations and worrying its competition (Thomas 2008). The latter has helped to establish Brand Dubai as a holiday destination in the European market through sponsorship and addition of new routes. The UAE took advantage of the spotlight to publicize its rapid development (Govers 2007), turning Dubai into a popular destination with a comprehensive tourism infrastructure appealing to diverse markets and investing heavily to expand the capacity of its airports. In 2004, Dubai was drawing more than 4 times its own population in tourists annually and was aiming to triple that by 2010 (ElSawy 2004). Dubai aims to be an international centre, diversifying through investment and construction (ElSawy 2004; Johnson 2005; Khalaf *et al* 2005; Horowitz-

Bennett 2007), producing new cities, new industries and new employment opportunities. According to Horowitz-Bennett (2007), Dubai became home to 25% of the world's construction cranes. Most of these projects are being carried out by expatriate skilled labour. As companies grow in number and size, Dubai's expatriate population has risen by 60-80%, which in turn increases demand for banking and wealth management services, and more expatriates workers (Platt 2007). Saudi Arabia is also investing heavily into its future, allocating USD75 billion, in 2005, to projects like building industrial cities and improving existing infrastructure (Khalaf *et al* 2005). Bahrain is discussed in the remainder of this chapter.

3.8. 2 Bahrain as a destination system

Bahrain is an archipelago of 40 islands, in the Arabian Gulf (Figure 3.6) with a total area of 800 square kilometres and growing through land reclamation. It is linked by a 26-km causeway to Saudi-Arabia, and a second 40 kilometre causeway linking it to Qatar is being constructed.

Figure 3. 6 Map of Bahrain



Source: <http://worldatlas.com/webimage/countrys/asia/bh.htm>

It was inhabited by pre-historic settlers from 10 thousand B.C. (Newarabia 2007) and is now the sight of the largest pre-historic cemetery in the world (Mice 2006a), with

thousands of burial mounds dispersed around the country. It is believed to be the sight of Dilmun's lost civilization from 3000 B.C., described as "paradise" in the Epic of Gilgamesh (CAA 2008). Furthermore, it was mentioned in inscriptions by Sumerians, Babylonians and Assyrians, who along with Aryans, Greeks, Romans, Selucids, Persians and Portuguese all ruled it at various times. Known as a major trade centre between Mesopotamia and India, and later as a focal point for pearl trade, through to the present as a financial centre (Dew 2003), it is no stranger to foreign cultures and languages. A British protectorate until 1971, it became a constitutional hereditary monarchy in 2002, based on Islamic law and English common law.

Bahrain was the first Gulf state to find and exploit oil in 1932 (Dew 2003). Its revenue provides the majority of the government's income and a substantial part of the GDP, but recoverable reserves are predicted to run out before 2020. Despite economic setbacks from worldwide recession and Middle East politics, the financial services sector is Bahrain's largest employer and revenue generator after oil. Its contribution to the GDP has risen steadily from 1.1% in 1970 to 10.1% in 1981 to 21% in 1997 (Dew 2003) to around 27% of the GDP in 2005 (Singh 2006b). The Bahrain Financial Harbour, a USD1.3 billion financial city will house financial businesses and facilities in one location, but it will face serious competition from Dubai's offshore financial harbour. Booming like the rest of the GCC (Section 3.8.1), the country is considered highly attractive to foreign investment, receiving high sovereign credit ratings (Kalyanpur 2007). It is an established global Islamic banking hub (Al-Sadah 2005) and a major regional insurance and reinsurance centre with nearly 400 licensed onshore and offshore conventional and Islamic financial institutions from 28 countries (BEDB 2007b), the largest concentration in the region. Growth in the insurance and retakaful (Islamic reinsurance) business in Bahrain is positive (Platt 2007), but recent Saudi laws insist on reinsurance for Saudi policyholders in their own country, much of which has thus far been provided by Bahrain-based reinsurers (Bradford 2008).

3.8. 3 The destination's goals

As proposed in Section 2.4, the destination system has many interrelated goals. Bahrain stated to the United Nations in 2004 that governments in developing countries

'...are trying to raise their standards of living and provide dignified lives for their people through comprehensive development programmes including building basic infrastructure and education systems, improving healthcare and welfare, reducing unemployment, inflation and budget deficits, modernising industry and agriculture, openness in international markets, globalisation, and liberalising commerce, so as to provide prosperity and higher standards of living' (UN 2004, p.9-10).

Many of the above-mentioned goals are similar to those expressed in Figure 2.2. According to Maames (2006), the country's outlook benefits from diversification, high credit ratings, access to international markets and political liberalisation, and is challenged by geopolitics, oil dependency and keeping reforms on course. Other challenges include the depletion of oil and underground water resources. The following is a brief discussion of those goals in Bahrain.

➤ **Improving the standard of living and quality of life:** Recently relaxed laws allow residents to apply for citizenship after a number of years, and many have taken advantage of these laws, to the chagrin of some Bahrainis. Combined with new property laws allowing non-nationals to buy property in many parts of the country, this has raised real estate property prices (Global Property Guide 2007), making housing less affordable for locals and depleting limited land resources. The rise in Bahrain's total population over one year by 41% to 1.05 million people announced in 2007 (Bowman & Reuters 2008) increases the number of dependants on the economy and is a matter of serious concern to many locals (Glass 2008a). Expatriates are now half of the population. The increased demand for free public services such as healthcare, education, public security, subsidized local housing and newly-introduced unemployment benefits urgently require higher budgets, so future alternative sustainable revenue sources must be found.

➤ **Reducing unemployment:** The combination of the above-mentioned rapid population growth, labour market rigidities and shortage of marketable skills has resulted in unemployment among Bahrainis (IMF 2004; Glass 2008a). The number of jobs required is predicted to double from 2004 to 2014 (BEDB 2004). Despite growth and job creation, most new jobs are being filled by expatriate workers (Oxford Business Group 2004; GDN 2006a; Baby 2008a) (see Table 3.4), while one in eight locals is out of work (Gulf Business 2005). The latter is decreasing, but gradually. Employers cite lack of skills, unprofessionalism, high turnover and higher pay expectation to explain employers' reluctance to hire locals. The combination of dwindling opportunities, the sudden increase of universities from 2 in 2002 to 16 in 2006 (CBB 2008) and drastic fee reductions in the main university have led to a systematic increase in enrolment, which in turn may increase under-employment in the long run (Hussein 2005). In addition to unemployment and underemployment, labour market projections include decreasing wages, low productivity, low rate of localization in the private sector, too many expatriates and strained public resources (Gulf Business 2005; Hussein 2005). Local restlessness and migration are also possible outcomes of long term shortage of job opportunities. The increase in expatriate workers is already happening (Glass 2008a). Bahrain has concluded that rather than producing wealth, government jobs are actually competing for resources with the private sector, therefore it is the latter that should be encouraged to create the required jobs (BEDB 2004). Steps included job placement, vocational training and attempts to raise private sector salaries and introduce minimum wage (IMF 2004). Proposed labour, economic and education reforms aim to improve local skills through education and training to meet market demand, to stimulate private sector job creation, especially in medium and high wage jobs and to eliminate labour market distortions (BEDB 2004).

According to Dito (2006, p.110), the approach to expatriate workers so far has been wrong because of 'a mixture of denial of the real need for them and perceiving their presence as a threat while continuing the dependency on them at the same time'. The dissatisfaction of unemployed locals (Robson 2008) can result in possible negative

WOM, or nurture a less tolerant or accommodating attitude to foreigners, both of which can negatively affect the pursuit of other goals. It can also create a 'social mixture of a highly explosive nature' (Dito 2006, p.111). An ongoing study is investigating 'skills gaps, shortages, requirements and trends across 11 economic sectors' to determine requirements (Glass 2008b). Locals were included in this research (Section 3.6.2).

Table 3. 4 Employment statistics

	2002	2004	2006	2007
Private sector				
Expatriates	138,095	181,585	247,425	273,383
% of private sector	70.5	73.27	79.04	80.36
Public sector				
Expatriates	3,248	3,822	4,052	4,407
% of public sector	9.56	10.17	10.44	11.22
Overall				
Expatriates	141,343	185,407	251,477	277,790
% of total employed	61.5	64.97	71.47	73.20
Ministry of Interior and Bahrain Defence Force figures not included Source: Extracted from information in CBB (2008, p.4)				

➤ **Attracting skilled expatriate labour:** This issue has already been partly addressed above. Although half of residents are expatriates (Glass 2008a), they exceed 60% of the workforce (see Table 3.4). Most expatriate workers are low-paid unskilled workers costing over 9% of the 2005 budget, causing a leakage of around 16% of the GDP (Hussein 2005), and many are illegal East-Asian free-visa workers willing to work for a pittance. In 2008, leakage was estimated at over USD 2.5 billion per annum, with expatriate employment having increased to 80.4% of jobs from 70.8% in 2003 (Baby 2008a). Cheap labourers contribute to the building of the infrastructure, but spend none of their meagre wages in the country. Over-expatriation at the lower end is not unique to Bahrain (Sadi & Henderson 2005) but it is more serious when combined with local unemployment. The need continues to attract expatriates with skills that are lacking

locally and who will spend a large portion of their income inside Bahrain, therefore it is important to discover whether expatriates are recommending the destination to others, as a place to live or to visit (Sections 3.8.4 and 3.8.5). The Financial Times online business magazine 'fdi' rated Manama, Bahrain's capital, the top MENA City of the Future in 2006 with the best healthcare and lowest crime levels (fdi 2006b). It was also among the top 20 international expatriate cities (fdi 2006a). Dubai was the only other MENA city on the list. Expatriates were included in this research in Section 3.6.2.

➤ **Attracting local investment and FDI:** In 1992, the Bahrain Development Bank (BDB) was set up to diversify the economy and create employment opportunities through encouraging local investment and providing assistance to small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) (BDB 2007). A free trade agreement (FTA) was signed with the USA and there are plans for more such agreements. Bahrain has no tax on personal or corporate income, wealth, capital gains, death duty or inheritance (BEDB 2008a, Global Property Guide 2007). Privatization efforts continue, but they are cautious because of fears of increased local unemployment (IMF 2004). The Bahrain Economic Development Board (BEDB), established in 2000, explains on its website its vision 'to be the catalyst for change that will transform Bahrain into a preferred global business destination' and its mission to 'create sustainable growth in GDP, employment and investments that provide opportunities for Bahraini talent to flourish on a global stage' (BEDB 2008c). The BEDB actively encourages both local and foreign direct investment, claiming a change 'from red tape to red carpet' (BEDB 2006a). Bahrain received 2006 awards for Best Human Resources and Best FDI Promotion Strategy (GDN 2006b), both mentioned in Section 2.4 as factors attracting FDI and expatriate talent.

➤ **Increasing exports:** Traditionally, Bahrain was known for building dhow ships, fishing and pearl-diving, now dwindling industries, in addition to ship repair and the production of building materials, furniture, soft drinks, plastics, and some consumer goods (Encyclopaedia Britannica 2008). Planned projects include a steel plant (MacDonald 2008). Aside from the main industrial products such as petroleum and aluminium, potentially brandable consumer products that would not easily be emulated

by others include local fashions, spices, cuisine, perfumes and local sweets. Such ethnically oriented products could be incorporated into a branding strategy. Quality apparel exports, for example, were shipped and branded by American companies, accounting for 62% of Bahrain's exports to the US in 2004 (BCCI 2006). The end of the Multi-fibre Arrangement in 2005 changed global sourcing strategies, moving manufacturing away from Bahrain and other producers to countries that pay lower wages such as India and China (ViewsWire 2006), wiping out the industry and laying off already low-paid workers, many of them locals (BCCI 2006). The skills might be useful in creating branded apparel, which can help to strengthen an ethnic brand image, which in turn can positively affect tourism (Section 2.4).

➤ **Attracting tourism:** Tourism was mentioned in Section 2.4 as a way to strengthen the economy and achieve the goals of destinations. The status of tourism in the region has been discussed in Section 3.8.1. Bahrain's interest in a stronger economy has pointed it towards developing tourism as part of a national reform program (BEDB 2006b), but there is much work to be done.

In 1977, Bahrain was awarded the Most Promising New Destination at the International Travel Exposition but has not developed to its potential. It was a member of the WTO from 1977 to 1984 and rejoined in 2001 (UNWTO 2006b). Bahrain had no real investment in tourism, prior to limited tourism development that began in 1985 with the formation of the Supreme Council for Tourism (SCT). In 1988, the opening of the Bahrain-Saudi causeway increased the number of tourists from 64 thousand to 1.17 million (KPMG 1996), and to 4.3 million in 2000 (Rajab 2001). In 1996, the Directorate of Tourism (DoT) commissioned a study to design a 10-year tourism marketing strategy. Consultants estimated total tourist expenditure at 9.2% of the GDP, supporting 16.7% of all jobs (KPMG 1996), which rose to 11% to the GDP (BPMB 1999). Tourism stakeholders continued to target MICE markets in exhibitions abroad under the DoT umbrella, and produced some event and tour sales, but actual tourists were mostly Saudis, therefore there does not appear to have been a clear holistic strategy, in destination branding terms. After a 2003 demonstration against a popular Lebanese

singer turned violent, event organisers became weary of the risk of bringing "controversial" talent to the country (GDN 2005), but this is changing again. The M.I.C.E. market segment is particularly attractive because its members visit in large numbers providing substantial revenue, benefiting not only venue owners, but also local business, generating goodwill and economic benefit to local trade (Munro 1994). M.I.C.E. facilities are now under-utilized, and more are being added. Large annual international conferences with many "stay" delegates can contribute considerable revenue, but in addition to infrastructure, coordination between the government's tourism bodies, the airlines and business is required to attract large conventions. The tourism infrastructure was weak, and most hospitality managers believed Bahrain would be better positioned for leisure tourism if packaged with its neighbours (Shirawi 2000).

According to Rajab (2001), Bahrain was not significantly affected by the events of September 11th 2001, and a window of opportunity was provided to focus on near markets. Regional travel increased and occupancy rates remained at 75-85% of 5-star hotels, with 74% of tourists arriving by causeway from neighbouring countries. In 2001, locals occupied almost 30% of all hospitality jobs (Rajab 2001), most of them graduates of Bahrain's College of Hospitality and Tourism (BCHT), but this decreased slowly and steadily (see Table 3.5), until BCHT closed. A University of Bahrain BA in Media and Tourism promised students jobs and higher education opportunities (Al-Hamar 2002), but "Tourism" was only really offered as a minor. The strategy for tourism and hospitality education was unclear then, but more recently, the Bahrain Institute of Hospitality and Retail (BIHR) can help to provide qualified entrants into the industry (Mohammed 2008a).

Travel and tourism is expected to continue to rise (see Appendix II.i), with a target for tourism contribution to increase from 10-12% of the GDP to 30% in 10 years (Mice 2006b). The airport was voted second best in the world for marketing and promotion in the 5-10 million passenger category by the Official Airline Guide International (OAG) in 2006. Two huge expansion projects in 2001 and 2007 raised its capacity from 1.7 million arrivals to 45 million passengers (BEDB 2006b). Traffic increased by 25% over

2004 and 2005 (BEDB 2006b) and continues to rise (Table 3.5). In view of these forecasts, tourism project development has been encouraged. Many new hotels are being added, and old ones have undergone massive refurbishments to accommodate expected arrivals. Mega-resorts and mini-cities are being created on both original and reclaimed land and on artificial islands. The total investment is estimated at USD5billion (Mice 2006b). Since the decision to actively develop a tourism industry, a number of high class hyper-projects have materialized (Appendix II.ii). The permanent Formula One (F-1) multi-track, opened in 2004, received highly positive reviews from F-1 organizers and was rated among the world's best, securing a contract until 2013. In 2004, accommodation shortage led some F-1 tourists to stay in Dubai and shuttle daily, leaving Bahrain with the event entrance fees while Dubai received the bulk of their expenditures, but lessons have been learnt. Hugely inflated accommodation prices during the first F-1, limited tourist information centres and tour guide services and out-of-date websites are being addressed. F-1 races attract a different type of tourist than previous visitors, and international media coverage of the event creates destination recognition abroad, but there is still a lack of appreciation among some politicians of the brand equity the F-1 event can create (Roll 2006).

Table 3. 5 Tourism statistics

Hospitality statistics^a						
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	
No. of Hotels	90	90	93	95	117	
No of occupants ('000s)	686.2	695	1131.6	1236.6	1283.3	
Average stay (nights)	2.1	1.9	2	2	1.9	
Labour force	6268	6924	7024	7807	7003	
Percentage of Bahrainis	28.9	28.5	27.0	25.7	25.5	
Non-Bahraini Arrival statistics (in '000s)^b						
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Air	920,300	974.2	1,176.5	1,790.9	1,544.0	1,508.0
Sea	13,500	8.4	6.5	8.4	11.9	50,999
Causeway	3,897.2	3,862	4,484.3	6,551.4	5,732.8	5,819.6
Total	4,830.9	4,844.5	5,667.3	8,350.7	7,288.7	7,378.7
Sources:	a: CBB (2008, p.21)		b: CBB (2008, p.19)			

Other projects include a large hi-tech historically-themed water park opened in 2007, and numerous malls with multiplex cinema screens and indoor adventure playgrounds. The homes of several historical local figures have been renovated in museum style and the Spring of Culture has been introduced. The month-long festival of international cultural events attracts many locals and tourists, and was the subject of major controversy between the cultured and religious MPs in 2007 (Toumi 2007), but it has been adopted as an annual event. Historic attractions include Qal'at al-Bahrain, registered as a United Nations world heritage sight. The fort was created by successive layers of fortified human settlements and catalogues all the civilizations that existed in this part of the world from 2300 B.C. to the 16th century A.D. (UNESCO 2005). Excavations revealed residential, public, commercial, religious and military structures, topped by a Portuguese fort, and the discoveries continue. Entrance to museums and old houses is free of charge, but some sights are unequipped with enough information, gift shops and facilities. Shockingly, an expert claimed that '97% of front office and guest relations staff in Bahrain's hotels have no knowledge of the history and tourism attractions in the country' (Baby 2008b).

Although the country is small, it has diverse and varied habitats, a huge variety of terrestrial and marine creatures and potential for eco-tourism (Al-Sayed 2003). With a climate mostly arid yet humid with little rain, it is home to 290 birds and 254 species of plants (Al-Sayed 2003). The Arabian Oryx and many other animals can be found at Al-Areen Wildlife Park. Efforts are ongoing to include Hawar Islands on the World Heritage Committee's World Heritage List. Its significant ecological and biological processes and terrestrial, coastal and marine ecosystems and communities provide a suitable environment for the dugong, reem gazelle, the largest existing colony of Socotra cormorants, reef herons, sooty falcons, green turtles and the only documented colony of breeding Caspian terns (Al-Madany 2004). These islands are largely deserted and unspoilt, but dredging and land reclamation affect marine life, raising sustainability concerns about destruction of wildlife or marine habitat and loss of date palm plants due to non-enforcement of protection laws (Al-Sayed & Al-Madany 2003).

Since this is a developing destination, the inventory of attractions is growing continuously. The importance of these attractions to tourism, and their changing quality, quantity and diversity make it is useful to discover how satisfactory they are overall, therefore this research includes attributes that specifically addressed their quality, variety, number and cost, without referring to particular sights. Information about the sight and information at the sight are also included because information ‘interprets’ heritage sights by explaining their authenticity and helps visitors ‘understand and appreciate’ sights (Light & Prentice 1994, p.28). The analysis of attractions data is presented in Section 5.3.2. Over the last two decades, various bodies have been responsible for tourism (see Table 3.6).

Table 3. 6 Evolution of tourism bodies

Body	Affiliation	Objective
Supreme Council for Tourism (SCT) 1985	Independent	Tourism development and strategy and coordinate with DoT
Bahrain Promotion and Marketing Board (BPMB) 1993-2001	Ministry of Industry & Commerce	Brand and promote Bahrain as a business destination, attract foreign capital and coordinate marketing (in 2001 responsibilities taken over by BEDB)
Economic Development Board (BEDB) 2001	The Crown Prince	Develop and promote major local tourism projects, market Bahrain for investment and tourism and orchestrate set-up of a new Supreme Council of Tourism or Tourist Development Board
Qualitative Council for Training in Hospitality 2005		Bahrain Institute of Hospitality and Retail: training unemployed locals for hospitality jobs
Directorate of Tourism (DoT), now Directorate of Tourism Affairs continues	Ministry of Information	Oversee tourism marketing, promotion, participate in international exhibitions, enforcing bans, license and regulate tourist accommodation, restaurants, sights, transport services, travel and tourism offices, etc.
Tourism Development Board (TDB) planned	Quasi-government agency affiliated with BEDB	‘Providing tourism investors with right legislative and planning infrastructure by coordinating developments and regulation of the industry in accordance with the comprehensive master plan’ (BEDB 2008d).

The difficulty in coordination and the overlap of roles between the various marketing bodies has been eased with the formation of the BEDB in 2001. The DoT continues to police activities, enforcing new regulations such as a 2006 alcohol ban during the holy month of Ramadan, and the 2007 delicensing of clubs in lower rated hotels. Some hotels

claim that recent regulations are too interfering and affect business (GDN 2005), and pressure from religious MPs may be a factor. The BEDB appears committed to marketing Bahrain for investment and tourism, and being under one umbrella (BEDB 2007b) should make it easier to market a cohesive image. Its efforts appear both serious and holistic. The organization's website explains their intention to make Bahrain 'a high-quality leisure and business tourism destination for the outbound markets of the Middle East, Europe and, possibly, Asia', and that a Tourist Development Board (TDB) will be set up to achieve this vision (BEDB 2008d). With attention directed at marketing the destination for tourism and investment together (Mice 2006b), M.I.C.E. activities are being expanded, and bookings are increasing by about 21% per year (Khonji 2006). Bahrain became the sole owner of Gulf Air in 2007. The national carrier's first brand-supporting activity was to become the official sponsors for English Championship League team Queens Park Rangers (Arabian Business 2008). The airline's communications appear to promote Bahrain consistently with the BEDB's brand tag-line as "business friendly Bahrain". A private airline was launched in 2007 as "Bahrain Air", but its role remains to be seen. However, the importance of evaluating projects as elements of a holistic strategy rather than piecemeal has yet to be appreciated by legislators, let alone the general public.

In accordance with the proposition in Section 3.6.3, and the markets identified in Section 3.6, the destination will be discussed as a place to live and as a place to visit.

3.8. 4 Bahrain as a place to live: Residents

The country has a multi-cultural population of over one million of whom 49.4% is expatriate (see Table 3.7). Locals are 50.5% male, while non-Bahraini residents are 71.4% male. This breakdown has changed drastically from previous years. The population includes 27.3% younger than 14 and 2.5% older than 65 years (CBB 2008). The recent growth in the expatriate population which far exceeds that of the local population (see Table 3.7) has been mentioned to cause local concerns (Section 3.8.3). No details could be found on the nationality breakdown of expatriates. The scarcity of

data, as well as the reported increases which occurred after the data was collected and analyzed make it difficult to ascertain whether research samples are still representative of their populations. This is addressed in Section 4.6.

Table 3. 7 Demographic statistics

		2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Bahraini	Male	210,814	215,848	221,019	226,187	231,493	267,437
	Female	207,126	212,107	217,190	222,304	227,519	262,009
	Total	417,940	427,955	438,209	448,491	459,012	529,446
Annual growth		2.4%	2.4%	2.4%	2.3%	2.3%	15.34%
Non-Bahraini	Male	175,407	180,430	185,598	190,568	195,671	369,586
	Female	78,777	81,033	83,353	85,586	87,878	147,782
	Total	254,184	261,463	268,951	276,154	283,549	517,368
Annual growth		3.1%	2.9%	2.9%	2.7%	2.7%	82.46%
Annual overall growth		2.7%	2.6%	2.6%	2.5%	2.5%	40.97%
Total population		672,124	689,418	707,160	724,645	742,561	1,046,814
Source: CBB (2008, p.3)							

The country boasts both modern and traditional shopping and a growing popular mall culture. Traditional clothes are sold next-door to designer clothes from Paris and Milan. Burger Kings and Starbucks can be found in close proximity to old coffee shops and cafeterias selling products for a fraction of the price and both have their clientele. The architecture is also diverse; mosques proliferate beside modern high-rise buildings. Eating is one of Bahrain's most popular pastimes, with almost 90% of people eating out at least once every 2 weeks (Kietzman 2005b). It is said to be 'the most liberal country in the gulf' (Oxford Business group 2006 cited in BEDB 2008e). The Overseas Security Advisory Council (OSAC 2007) describes life as less restricted socially than in neighbouring countries, and this is corroborated by WOM on expatriate websites such as 'expat.com' and 'justlanded.com' in response to questions about life in Bahrain, about whether it makes sense to accept a position in Saudi Arabia and live in Bahrain and about whether to visit Bahrain. This is consistent with the ideas expressed in Sections 3.5.1 and 3.5.2 and with responses to the question of whether respondents would recommend that others visit the destination (Section 5.5).

The small size of the country makes it easy for families to stay close. It is a country of contrasts, home to supporters of fine arts and freedom, religious zealots and the undecided. Some women call for family laws and other women demonstrate against them and support polygyny. Among the young generation, some are westernized while others believe in gender segregation. Islam is the religion of the country, but minorities of most other religions are accommodated. There is a strong religious presence in the current House of Representatives raising religious issues (Al-Yousif 2005), and the private sector of the historically more liberal country entertains concerns about alienating foreign investors and visitors, with negative effects on their businesses and the economy. Crime is low but petty crime is increasing (OSAC 2007), being increasingly reported, or both. People are generally friendly and unhurried, and enter into conversations with strangers quite easily. Education up to secondary level is provided free and literacy is 89.1% among those aged over 15. English is widely spoken and is the principal language in commerce (BEDB 2008b) and the second language in schools, and some locals are also conversant in Farsi, Hindi or Urdu. This made it unnecessary to use different language versions of the questionnaire, so it was possible to analyze the holistic perception data without introducing researcher bias through translation.

3.8. 5 Bahrain as a place to visit: Tourists

Tourism has already been discussed in detail in Section 3.8.3. The majority of tourists come from the region and Bahrain's above-mentioned relatively free social atmosphere provides a contrast for visitors from Saudi Arabia in particular. Non-segregation allows families more freedom, access to the cinemas which are not available in their own country (MEMRI 2007) and the convenience of shopping without interruption for prayers several times a day, all of which may be factors influencing visitation. Proximity and easy access make Bahrain an ideal getaway for this market and many have purchased accommodation and visit regularly. Bahrain has entered into an agreement with the Dubai Tourism Authority to be included on their cruise itinerary from 2009, and has also been included by a German-based cruise company (Al-Yousif 2008). The

former would include around 100 thousand day tourists per year, the majority from the US followed by Canadians and Europeans. Bahrain expects to provide 'culture and heritage' in contrast to Dubai's shopping (Bahrain Gateway 2008).

As stated in Section 3.8.3, the number of events is also increasing as a result of marketing the destination for tourism and investment together (BEDB 2007b). The F-1 has become popular in the region and the venue was filled to capacity in 2007. Both locals and Gulf weekend and day visitors also flock to the huge annual Jewellery of Arabia exhibition and to concerts by Western and Arabic pop stars. The Bahrain National Museum and Bait el-Qur'an are very high calibre museums housing exhibits depicting life around 6 thousand years ago, Arabic calligraphy, reconstruction of an old marketplace, and religious manuscripts. Pearl Diving was also part of Bahrain's heritage for millennia, and there are pearl-diving and oil museums. The capital Manama is now a combination of ancient and modern side by side. Recreational diving is also possible, with massive oyster beds, and numerous coral and fish species (BCSR 2003). Yet, in informal conversations after completing the administration of the questionnaire, some exhibitors explained that they are too busy with their stalls and have no leisure time. Most exhibitions run for long hours, so participants may leave without really experiencing the destination, and exhibitors' evaluation of the country may be based at least partly on its financial rewards rather than its tourism offering. Conference delegates tend to have more leisure time and their experience may impact on willingness to attend future conferences at the destination, to revisit it as tourists, or to recommend it to others.

3.9 Summary

Chapter Two concluded with the need to discover the destination brand image before designing a brand identity, and to review the literature about measuring destination image. This chapter first noted that there was a diversity of methodologies used in the measurement of destination image and that to date, there is no accepted template to use for measurement, therefore the continuing evolution can accommodate some flexibility

in design. It also noted that the methodology should measure both the cognitive and the holistic elements of destination image (Section 3.2). Most research includes structured questions to measure attribute satisfaction and some non-standard method of discovering the holistic perception of the destination. Consequently, this research will use structured questionnaires, with attributes for the cognitive element.

Next, was the choice of indicators to measure each of the elements of destination image. The discussion in Section 3.3 found that customer satisfaction was the most appropriate indicator for measuring the cognitive element, with attributes tailored to the destination and perhaps re-tailored to respondents. As stated at the end of that section, it was decided to follow this format, using attributes appropriate to the destination collected through preliminary research and fine-tuning them through piloting. Attitude scales would be used for this section of the questionnaire. Tourists would also be asked directly for their perceptions of general attribute categories compared to their expectations, through an attitude scale. When measuring holistic perception, the flexibility mentioned in Section 3.2 was taken advantage of by using an objective data-collection method that is neither wholly quantitative nor qualitative (Section 3.2). A list of words obtained through preliminary research would be offered to respondents from which they can choose five to describe the destination, allowing respondents some freedom, although limited. This will also accommodate comparisons between the different samples. The importance of positive WOM as a brand loyalty indicator was established in Section 3.5, so the questionnaire has to include some question to measure this. The focus of this question would be recommendation rather than repurchase, based on the analysis in Section 3.5.2. Since the focus of the thesis is on tourism, respondents would be asked whether they intend to recommend the destination for a holiday and / or to attend events. This will help to identify respondents who are loyal to the destination's tourism product (BLT). Destination markets relevant to the tourism product were established as tourists as well as local and expatriate residents (Section 3.6). Event tourists were chosen because they were the most appropriate tourist type for this destination (Section 3.6.1).

No academic image research has been conducted in Bahrain, so that was the main gap to address (Section 3.7.1). This research would help to identify a point from which Bahrain can begin constructing a brand identity (Section 3.7.1). Furthermore, the data collected from expatriates would be compared with that of both locals and tourists, to discover how a host destination can best categorize its expatriate residents. Contributing to filling this gap would be useful because it proposes a direction for how to treat expatriates in future image research in other destinations. Given their credibility and their potential for recruitment as brand ambassadors, they are considered an important resource which is worthy of research.

As has been reported in various places so far in this thesis, there are many things that have been suggested as possible factors affecting brand loyalty. Figure 3.4 consolidated these factors, along with their possible relationships extracted from the literature. This thesis will investigate some of those relationships, to determine whether knowledge of any of the variables can contribute to the correct prediction of BLT membership, as defined in Figure 3.5. If prediction can be improved by knowledge of intimacy level, demographic variables, customer satisfaction, holistic perception or tourist 'perceptions-expectations', then this would make a valuable contribution towards segmenting and targeting markets, positioning the product for each target market, identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the product for each market, identifying which factors or attributes relate most strongly to brand loyalty, and whether these relationships are direct or inverse. A relationship between customer satisfaction and brand loyalty could be followed by discovering the most important attributes or groups of attributes, a relationship with holistic perception could be followed by exploring whether particular descriptive words are considered positive or negative by each market. A relationship with demographics could indicate which demographic variables relate most closely to brand loyalty. The findings would therefore be important to both practice and theory. Destination markets were discussed next. As customers and employees, tourists (Section 3.6.1) and both local and expatriate residents (Section 3.6.2) are potential brand ambassadors who can be recruited to produce positive WOM (Section 3.5.1) about the

destination. The interpretation of the literature was synthesized (Section 3.6.3) into a model to illustrate the relationship between the destination and its internal and external markets (Figure 3.3). Different locations in the destination (i.e. inner, middle and outer layers) were suggested, positioning locals, expatriate residents and tourists based on a proposed intimacy level of their relationship with the destination. The findings of this research would determine whether this model is worthy of further consideration.

As the setting for this research, a sense of Bahrain as a destination was presented next (Section 3.8), to explain the relevance of the research, to assist in making methodology decisions, and to help interpret the results in Chapter Six. Bahrain was described as an island, with definable borders, therefore it will be unnecessary to make subjective decisions about the population, as one would in a city or an area within a destination. The size of the country and the population make it feasible to include the whole destination for the research. It was described as a financial services centre with a rich history, and a need to derive a sustainable source of revenue. Its new interest in branding in general and in tourism in particular makes it an ideal context within which to conduct this research. In Section 3.8.3, some of Bahrain's key goals were discussed, and all of these would benefit from a branding strategy. These goals correlate somewhat with those expressed about destinations in general in Section 2.4. The decision has already been made to pursue a branding strategy with the intention to address unemployment and other identified problems and strengthen the economy. The discussion about tourism depicted a so-far unfocused approach that has only recently gained some direction. With the projected growth in Middle East tourism (Section 2.2), these efforts require focus and the brand needs to be seen holistically for all the destination's purposes, as discussed in Chapter Two. Discussion of these goals included arguments justifying why locals, expatriates and event tourists were particularly relevant to Bahrain. Finally, Bahrain was briefly discussed as a place for locals and expatriates to live (Section 3.8.4) and then as a place for tourists to visit (Section 3.8.5).

Chapters One and Two have laid the groundwork and built the conceptual framework for this research. The following chapter will address the methodology of this research in particular.

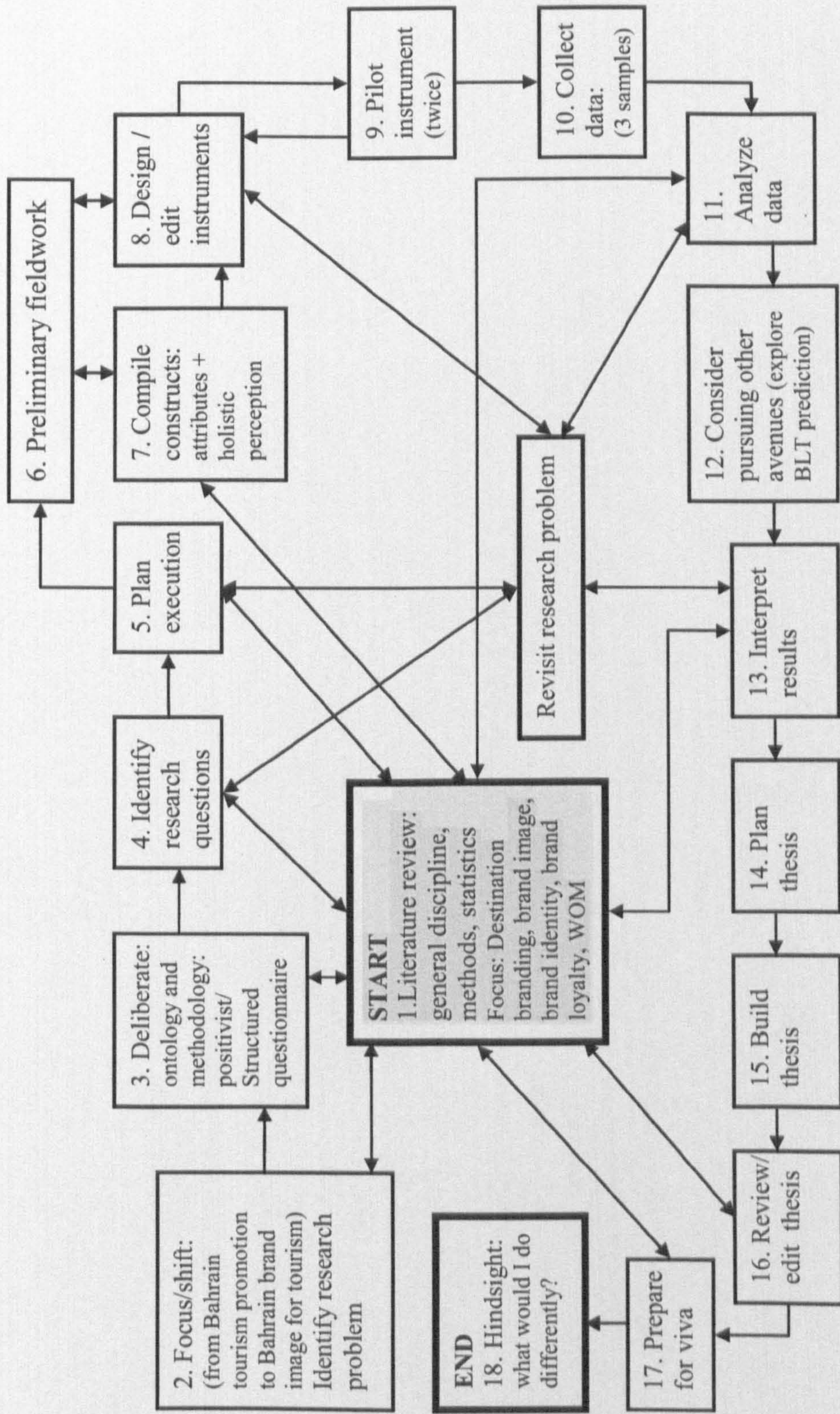
CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4. 1 Introduction

Chapter Three built the framework for this research. Chapter Four describes how, within this framework, this research attempted to find answers to the research questions presented in Table 3.3, and contribute towards filling the gaps outlined in Section 3.7.1. It also explains the blueprint for the analysis in Chapter Five. It begins with a discussion of the philosophy of research, to ensure that this research is conducted appropriately, and to identify possible problematic situations, in order to include control methods that ensure the research remains true to its epistemology. Ethics are considered in relation to research design and methodology in general as well as in relation to situations arising in this particular research and the writing of this thesis. Design decisions were informed by the research aims on the one hand and the literature review and possible analysis methods on the other. Methodological decisions are discussed, as they relate to the research design, to the construction, fine-tuning and piloting of the instrument, to sampling and data collection and to data analysis. It remains to be said that the methodology did not set out in its final form, but evolved to incorporate opportunities that presented themselves during the analysis stage and were deemed worthy of pursuit. The decision to pursue these paths is discussed in Section 4.2. A summary of the research process is presented in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4. 1 The research process



4. 2 Research philosophy issues

This research uses a scientific approach. Social research is considered scientific when its knowledge is collected using scientific methodology rather than 'authoritarian', 'mystical' or 'rationalistic' sources (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996, p.3-4). It is recognized by its 'purpose, rigour, testability, replicability, precision and confidence, generalizability, objectivity, and parsimony' (Sekaran 1992, p.10). Its two major perspectives are quantitative and qualitative, which derive from a positivist or phenomenological epistemology respectively (Glatthorn 1998). Epistemology is 'the study of foundations of knowledge', and it examines the nature of the basic 'unproven and unprovable' assumptions upon which the scientific approach is based, and how they work (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996, p.5). The positivist epistemology may be experimental and may 'emphasize measurement, search for relationships' and use words such as 'variable, control, validity, reliability, hypothesis or statistical significance', while the phenomenological epistemology focuses on 'meaning and understanding' (Glatthorn 1998, p.33-34). To choose an epistemological position and a research design paradigm, it is necessary to understand and compare the nature of each paradigm, its assumptions about the world and reality and the ramifications of its adoption. As illustrated in the comparison of research paradigms (see Appendix I.i), the basis for the positivist paradigm is that 'the social world exists externally, and its properties should be measured through objective methods' (Easterby-Smith *et al* 2004, p.28). Its external reality is 'objective and singular' (Hussey & Hussey 1997, p.48) and independent of the observer, and its epistemology is guided by a realist ontology. Positivists believe 'only observable and measurable phenomena' can be considered knowledge (Hussey & Hussey 1997, p.49). The interpretive paradigm, social constructionism, is based on the ontological assumption that reality is determined by people rather than external or objective factors (Easterby-Smith 2004). Interpretivists believe that research is value-laden and biased and that reality is subjective (Hussey & Hussey 1997, p.48), that researchers become part of the reality they are studying and incorporate their own

subjective values and beliefs into the research. The relativist paradigm is rooted in a belief that reality is relative, depending on the viewpoint of the interpreter.

Beyond the nature of reality and the nature of the social phenomena being studied, both the research problem and the researcher's skills and comfort level with the various methodologies are also factors to be considered (Glatthorn 1998). Researchers in the pure sciences usually come from a pure science background and their research tends to be positivist, while destination branding researchers come from a variety of quantitative and qualitative specializations (see Table 2.3) with different perceptions of reality and different ways of interpreting and measuring this reality. It becomes even more important to define the concepts, to ensure that they are interpreted consistently by others who may have different definitions for them. The diversity of academic backgrounds of prolific researchers in tourism may have been a reason behind the diversity of definitions of the main concepts in destination branding (Table 2.2), as well as the diversity in the methods used to measure, or discover, destination image (Table 3.1). Experimental, quasi-experimental, causal-comparative, correlational, descriptive or evaluation research is primarily quantitative in nature, while case studies, ethnographic and action research tend to be qualitative (Glatthorn 1998). The latter, for example, attempts to understand behaviour and institutions by getting to know people, their values, rituals, symbols, beliefs and emotions (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996, p.281). In other fields without the above-mentioned diversity, the 'quantitative versus qualitative' debate may not arise at all, while in destination branding research, it may be useful to consider approaches lying along the continuum between the extremes of pure quantitative and pure qualitative, or alternating different approaches.

Generally, positivist research is either inductive (probabilistic) or hypothetico-deductive. The first approach, induction, is the logical process of establishing a general proposition on the basis of observation of facts (Zikmund 2000, p.43), and it involves inferring that if A leads to B, and B leads to C then A leads to C. These inferences cannot be expressed as universal laws because they predict expected results based on generalizations from previous similar observations using arithmetic ratios between

phenomena or tendencies, and it is this probabilistic nature that is induction's major shortcoming (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996, p.10). The second approach, deduction, is the logical process of deriving a conclusion from a known premise (Zikmund 2000, p.43), and its use calls for three things: universal generalizations under particular conditions, an event to be explained, and logic (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996). Hypotheses may be introduced and tested to refute them or corroborate them under particular circumstances. Whether a topic is researched deductively or inductively would depend on whether one supports the view that nature is uniform under particular circumstances, or the view that nature changes, in which case conclusions from the present would not necessarily be generalizable to other situations.

Research serves many purposes. The major purpose of descriptive research is to describe characteristics of a population or phenomenon (Zikmund 2000, p.50). Correlational studies identify variables that influence an interesting phenomenon, while causal studies trace cause-effect relationships between phenomena (Sekaran 1992). Correlations found between variables can be 'useful in predicting one variable from another or building a theory about a complex phenomenon' (Glatthorn 1998, p.74), but they do not prove causation (Sekaran 1992), as causal relationships are impossible to prove scientifically (Zikmund 2000, p.51). Prediction is an important component of sufficient scientific knowledge (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996). The probabilistic generalizations can be used to predict whether a phenomenon will occur, based on the existence or otherwise of specific antecedent conditions (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996, p.11). This can be useful in hindsight to provide explanations for past occurrences, and a priori to predict future social behaviour or events. This research intended to measure satisfaction with the destination's various attributes, identify strengths and weaknesses in the destination product, establish a benchmark for future measurement of gains in positive WOM, compare perceptions of different samples and search for correlations. Descriptive statistics will report brand image and brand loyalty findings for each sample, followed by correlation statistics reporting any findings during the investigation of some

of the relationships in Figure 3.4. Any relationships will have the potential of being useful in prediction of brand loyalty, as defined in Section 3.5.2.

As stated above, the positivist approach considers the researcher an un-involved independent observer and attempts to study an objective reality objectively, so objectivity was a major concern. Despite this research using rigorous testing methods and a structured self-administered questionnaire with a rating scale, situations arose where it was necessary to take steps to eliminate or reduce subjectivity. Necessary decisions included which and how much literature to review, research design decisions, and whether to explore particular avenues. These are summarized in Table 4.1 and discussed next. The first problem was ensuring that sufficient literature was reviewed, and that it included literature of major significance. Generally, conducting an extensive literature review at the beginning of objective research increases understanding of the topic (Hart 1998) and familiarity with the language of the discipline and its paradigms, provides a grounding background and a context for the research (Murray 2002; Rudestam & Newton 2001), enables focus on the topic from the general to the specific while maintaining links within the discipline (Murray 2002) and identifies gaps in the literature that might be addressed by the research (Hussey & Hussey 1997). During the early stages, the literature is broadly scanned, but the review later becomes more focused and finally becomes critical (Glatthorn 1998). This helps to avoid adopting opinions expressed in the literature and assuming them to be universally accepted without becoming exposed to other points of view. In this research, the review began with literature discussing tourism, as well as branding literature, before moving on to destination branding literature, and finally literature about what constitutes destination image and how it has been measured. During this phase, the literature itself provided links to other relevant literature to review. This process often involved repeatedly reviewing the same literature, emphasising different aspects, noting the various definitions and comparing the different definitions and the paradigms. Repeated mention of the same publication was sometimes an indication of its significance, but neither its general significance nor its relevance to the particular aims of this particular research

could be assumed. The subjectivity involved in the evaluation of the relevance of a publication was inversely related to the researcher's acquired knowledge and comfort level with the subject matter.

The resulting awareness of what has already been researched (Hart 1998) helps to position theory in the correct knowledge category, to avoid conducting redundant research or presuming truth where it has not been established, both of which are necessary for research to indeed contribute to furthering knowledge. It helps to ensure that the research 'advances understanding through making a new contribution' (Hart 1998, p.21). The review helps to identify landmark literature, and prolific researchers and leaders in the discipline and increases familiarity with their positions. Further, it provides proof of scholarship (Hussey & Hussey 1997). Reviewing landmark literature also helps to reduce misinformation (Baker 2003, p.66). The knowledge gained from the literature review also helps to develop the researcher's 'own professional knowledge' (Glatthorn 1998, p.67). The written 'literature review' is 'the thesis writer's version of the literature, their selection and arrangement of their summaries and critiques' (Murray 2002, p.101). Aside from the possibility that interpretation of the same literature may differ from one to another, exposure to a wide range of interpretations opens the reader's mind to other perspectives and provides further material to deliberate on and consider. The literature review should also include methodological publications, in order to make more informed methodological choices. This is useful in providing information about past research as well as information about the possible avenues to follow in the impending research.

Although 'sufficient' literature needs to be reviewed, the point at which sufficiency is reached is itself subjective. Practically, the literature is reviewed not merely to provide a record or a bibliography (Hart, 1998), but also to inform every step of the research process (Figure 4.1), by helping to identify the key elements to include in the research and justify their choice. It will select relevant known relationships between them to be assumed and possible relationships between them to be investigated. It will tie everything together (Punch 2000), and it will demonstrate possession of the competency

skills required in reporting research (Hart 1998), critically (Hussey & Hussey 1997; Glatthorn 1998; Rudestam & Newton 2001; Murray 2002). In this thesis, the review which began with tourism marketing literature resulted in emphasizing the importance of destination branding, therefore it paid particular attention to reviewing destination branding literature. As destination branding was interpreted as the transformation of the existing brand image to another through the development and implementation of a designed brand identity, the focus then shifted to literature that discussed the formation, transformation and finally the measurement of destination image. The latter was followed with the elements of destination image, and the literature about these elements was reviewed. The continuous review resulted in increased knowledge of the topic, heightened confidence in using the terminology, an increased need to re-read the literature critically from a more informed position, a deeper understanding of the same publications in light of the gains in fluency in the language of the field, a better ability to objectively judge the relevance of a particular piece of literature to the proposed research, a clearer vision of the possible paths to consider following and a gradually increasing ability to visualize the thesis as a complete piece of work. The occurrence of all of these developments was so gradual as to be hardly noticeable, unless revisiting literature after some time. This researcher was sometimes surprised by the shift in perspective from that in notes written during a previous review of the same article.

Although it is possible to continue reviewing literature indefinitely, at some point the researcher has to stop and decide that sufficiency has been reached. This author considered that sufficiency was reached when reviewing more literature no longer added more to consider that was related to the specific topic of research. Baker (2003, p.73) refers to this as 'the point of diminishing marginal returns'. Moreover, if one was to keep reading, the thesis would never get written. It has to be said, however, that especially when the topic is so interesting, the decision that sufficient literature has been read is not an easy one to make. Developing a fascination for the subject made it even more difficult to determine that this point had been reached, and the review continued even while editing the thesis, right up to the time of final submission. Despite reports

from colleagues of reaching saturation with the subject matter towards the end of the PhD process, the afore-mentioned fascination stopped this from happening.

Ethics are also an important consideration in research. 'Ethical questions are philosophical questions' (Zikmund 2000, p.71), and there are many. The need for a clear code of ethics is a matter of dispute. As with most regulations, the decrease in ambiguity that accompanies rules comes at a price of rigidity, which may be resented by strong proponents of academic freedom. Ethics in business research may be more ambiguous than in physical sciences such as medicine, yet many ethical situations may arise. Some of these are presented by Hussey and Hussey (1997). First is the personal investment into the results of the research that result from a researcher's personal involvement with respondents, and the possible dilemmas that may arise from the research findings. Rudestam and Newton (2001, p.270) recommend an imaginary role-reversal with participants to 'think through the potential impacts of research procedures'. Second is the disclosure of sensitive or even criminal information by respondents who have been promised anonymity at the outset of the research. The above were not concerns in this research. Third is the bias that may surface as a result of respondents' knowledge of the purpose of the research, which should be disclosed at the outset. This arose when some of the event tourists began to express their problems with the event, perceiving the researcher to be a representative of the organizing body, despite the explanatory message at the beginning of the questionnaire. The message represented the research as being conducted by a faculty member of the University of Bahrain's Department of Management and Marketing, which was not untrue, rather than research for a PhD. It was felt that respondents would be more likely to take seriously research conducted by a faculty member than by a PhD student, and more likely to answer the questions objectively. Clark et al (1998, p.43) report the agreement of many social researchers on the need to be 'less than fully truthful' about one's intentions sometimes, and recommend being economical with the truth, if necessary, rather than telling untruths. Fourth is the bias that may occur as a result of respondents' perceptions, rightly or otherwise, of the researcher's authority, and the need to ensure their dignity is

maintained. Fifth is the temptation to falsify results in order to achieve academic or publication success. This situation is perhaps a prevalent one which a researcher is likely to face whenever data collection or analysis fail, or results are not considered worthy of presentation by the researcher. During this research, the researcher was in the position of considering whether to report the low response rates achieved in the first data-collection attempt from tourists attending the Formula-one. It would have been unethical to withhold this information, even though it was a highly unproductive exercise. If the research had been studying Formula-one visitors and had achieved such an overall response rate, the results would have been questionable because of possible differences between respondents and non-respondents (Baker 2003). Another instance was the attempt to predict the brand loyalty of tourist respondents. The exercise did not produce very useful results, but not reporting those would have been unethical. The entire research endeavour was approached with the mindset that results must be presented honestly and completely, even if and when they are inconclusive, because that in itself would identify areas that require further attention, and would be useful in designing further research that avoids the pitfalls experienced in previous research by oneself and others. Since PhD research aims to contribute towards building theory, and the PhD research process is intended to illustrate that the candidate is able to conduct research independently, it is perhaps even more important to learn how not to conduct research, while learning how to do it, and reporting non-results provides lessons towards this goal. Conducting research is, after all, both an art that has to be designed innovatively in order to discover new things, and a science that should adhere to a strict framework that ensures its validity and ability to withstand criticism. Finally, a PhD candidate has to demonstrate the ability to interpret literature critically, and that includes ones own work in process and in retrospect. Critical evaluation of one's own work may be an indication of having shed the insecure need to prove one's worthiness through perfecting one's image and having matured into being more honest and realistic about the limitations of one's own work.

Glatthorn (1998, p.8) mentions the importance of acknowledging all contributors or collaborators and of reporting the results 'honestly and objectively'. Although these appear obvious, they may actually be very difficult to adhere to. Conscious acknowledgment of all contributions ensures that plagiarism is avoided, but this author found that two things were happening; the first is that the continuous open-minded reading of literature resulted in the reader developing attitudes and opinions towards certain issues, especially after being exposed to opposing arguments, weighing them and finding some more persuasive than others. Also, as mentioned above, a result of the continuous review was the development of an understanding of the subject. Since this understanding is a gradual process, often connecting pieces of information that have been stored unconsciously, without expectation of their consequent relevance to the thesis, it is not always a straightforward task to acknowledge the contributions of others to this understanding. Hence, although one's words are not borrowed from the literature, the result of exposure to this literature can strongly affect the development of one's attitudes or influence the way the thesis is presented. This researcher felt that such influence deserved acknowledgement, but it is only possible to acknowledge influence if one is aware of it. Where influence was felt, such literature was intentionally referenced in order to accord the appropriate level of appreciation. Repeated review of the same literature was also helpful, as a reminder of the sources of ideas that had not appeared important enough to note in earlier reviews. The dilemma of according due credit was faced with literature that influenced the final presentation of the thesis but was not directly cited or referenced. The solution was to directly state that the thesis organization was loosely based on the recommendations in that publication, thereby providing the occasion for reference and acknowledgement. Although Glatthorn (1998, p.11) recommends noting when 'an idea comes into awareness' to avoid unintentional plagiarism, the problem of gradually adopting stances and attitudes as a result of delving more deeply in the literature is more difficult to recognise. It can also become difficult to recognize which references were the influencing ones. In addition, the researcher may come across statements in the literature that agree or disagree with one's own written statements, and although they may have been read after the fact, this researcher believed

in their usefulness as references, to support arguments or to acknowledge the existence of contrasting positions. Finally, it must be mentioned that one consequence of reading huge amounts of literature is that some of the lines between one's own thoughts and those of others can become somewhat blurred.

Ethical considerations also include reporting responses without interference and conserving respondents' anonymity (Kane 1984, p.212). Rudestam and Newton (2001, p.265) state that the 'two main ethical issues' are ensuring that participants' needs for fully-informed consent and their needs to emerge 'unharmful' are satisfied. They recommend balancing costs and risks with knowledge, avoiding adopting a 'cavalier' attitude that is insensitive to participants, and being aware of the risks before they occur. In addition to the above, Brunt (1997, p.7-9) adds the need for sensitivity to gender, race, sexual orientation and disability. Most of these considerations were not relevant in this research, but anonymity was achieved by not keeping a record of respondents' identities and identifying questionnaires by number only. Since this was not a longitudinal study, there was no need to keep records of participants' contact details.

Zikmund (2000, p.72) categorizes research rights and responsibilities into those of the respondents, the sponsor and the researcher. Respondents have the right to privacy and to be informed and the obligation to be truthful. Sponsors have the obligation to encourage the truth in research objectively. The researcher has the obligations of not misrepresenting other activities as research, of maintaining high levels of accuracy through objectivity and scientific investigation, of reporting truthfully statistical accuracy and significance and irregularities or variations experienced during the exercise, of protecting the confidentiality and privacy of respondents and sponsors and of not disseminating false conclusions. Notwithstanding that the examiners may be the only ones to ever be interested enough to read a thesis, it is important that discussion of possible findings focuses on the issues and discusses them critically and objectively, and not as personal criticism of any persons included in the study.

There were also decisions related to the research methodology design, which included the methods of data collection and analysis. The discussion at the beginning of this section argued that the choice of ontology is probably affected by researchers' backgrounds. It was also stated that the realist ontology assumes an external measurable reality, and uses a positivist epistemology to measure it. Although a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies may produce more complete information, the objectives of this particular research could be achieved by using a mostly positivist approach, using elements that were collected qualitatively. The choice of which attributes to include in the data collection instrument was a problem that was handled by noting the attributes used in the literature, collecting information from experts and a sample of residents during preliminary research and piloting (Section 4.4). A large random sample would have the benefit of providing a diverse collection of points of view. The accumulation of these subjective views together would result in a more objective list of attributes. The language of the instrument was another issue. Problems can arise from translation despite using measures to ensure its accuracy. Different cultures may interpret the same concept differently (Oppenheim 1992). To reduce the problem, this research employed commonly understood English language words that were not ambiguous or subject to interpretation, according to the literature (for example, Sekaran 1992; Brunt 1997). Words that were not understood by respondents were altered or removed during piloting, as recommended by Kane (1985, p.62). Baker (2003, p.200) emphasized writing to respondents, rather than to the researcher's 'peer group'. Using the same questions in the same language for all three samples also made it possible to conduct comparisons between responses without the need for major subjective deliberations to determine whether responses were comparable. Research planning (Section 4.3) and piloting (Section 4.4) are critical in reducing subjectivity by expecting particular scenarios and making contingency decisions about how to handle these situations should they arise. Open-ended responses provide richer information, but may introduce more subjectivity. Although it is possible to decide at the outset the key words to look for in these responses and the words that will be considered synonymous, this is still more subjective than using close-ended responses.

Objectivity is also important in data analysis. Interpretation of results should be 'based on facts resulting from the actual data', and not on 'subjective or emotional values' (Sekaran 1992, p.13). If using factor analysis (Section 4.7.2), for example, various possible solutions may include different combinations of variables, have different numbers of components and explain different variance percentages. According to Pallant (2005, p.175), the number of factors to accept is 'up to the researcher' and involves balancing 'the need to find a simple solution with as few factors as possible and the need to explain as much of the variance in the original data as possible'. Prior decisions determining the best criteria for selecting the factors can reduce subjectivity during the actual analysis. Explaining the decision process also ensures that readers can understand the analysis and determine whether they agree with the chosen solution. With regards to this research, this is discussed in Section 4.7.2, and the factor analysis process is explained whenever it is performed, in various places in Sections 5.3 and 5.4.6 and presented, along with Scree Plots (see Appendix VIII). A second example is significance levels. While some of the literature is very strict, others mention results with levels higher than 0.05. Pre-determined significance levels for each test can help to remove ambiguity (Table 4.1). Significance levels are discussed further in Sections 4.7.2 through 4.7.4. A third grey area was logistic regression. As will be discussed in Section 4.7.4, there was no agreement about the number of variables a model could accommodate, and there were no clear guidelines indicating a categorical choice of the best solution. The author followed the recommendations in literature written by persons perceived to be expert in the technique, rather than that in literature written by persons who had used the technique in their analysis.

Table 4. 1 Summary of sources and handling of subjectivity

	Possible source of subjectivity	Explanation	Elimination or reduction
1	Choice of literature to review	Different literature may be reviewed by different researchers. Research will be coloured by its authors' perspectives, misinterpretation may be perpetuated (Baker 2003, p.66).	All literature cannot be reviewed, but extensive review exposes a wide range of perspectives. Reviewing landmark pieces.
2	Language	Terms may be interpreted differently by different cultures (Oppenheim 1992, p.184)	Using commonly understood language. Simple words.
3	Items / attributes included in the instrument	These may differ from one researcher to another. Their order may also influence results (Oppenheim 1992).	Literature review, piloting and expert involvement, reviewing instruments used in other research. Accumulation of a collection of subjective views will produce a less subjective more complete instrument.
4	Research design decisions	There is some subjectivity in the decision to pursue a particular ontology, and particular analysis.	Literature review, detailed prior planning and piloting.
5	Factor analysis, if it is used	The choice of solution to accept follows many considerations; number of components, level of variation explained, number of cases included.	Possibilities will probably increase with the number of attributes, but pre-determined criteria reduce subjectivity (Section 4.7.2)
6	Confidence levels to consider significant	Generally, research uses 95% (Field 2005), and 99% confidence levels. Although levels do vary, some research even mentions results with low significance (sig = 0.05) indicating a high probability that results are due to chance.	Pre-analysis decision: 99% confidence required within samples, and 95% confidence required between samples (Section 4.7.2), to help ensure that differences found are not due to chance, and results are not arbitrary or subjective.
7	Avenues to explore	As findings begin to take shape, possible avenues for exploration will present themselves, and a balance must be struck between adhering to original design and timetable, and pursuing ideas that may result in important contributions to knowledge.	(-) Pursuit may be time-consuming. Ideas can be addressed in further research, (+) Delay may result in data obsolescence or require collecting new data, Temptation may be difficult to resist. Opportunity cost should be considered.

Another subjective area is the possible avenues to explore (see Figures 4.1 and 4.4). Opportunities may arise to pursue certain exploratory paths, and while such decisions may be subjective, they could have no bearing on the results of the original research. Phillips and Pugh (1987, p.68-69) advise ignoring such temptations until 'after [ones] doctorate' in order to complete the work in the planned time frame. Hart (1998, p.185) recommends asking oneself about 'the advantages of following this unexpected opportunity' and thinking about its contribution to one's 'understanding of the topic' when making the decision of whether or not to pursue a particular path. This thesis explored brand loyalty, even though it was not part of the original research design, upon consideration of the research context and the potential contribution to knowledge, because the opportunity was determined to be worthwhile, notwithstanding the extra effort and the time costs. This is discussed further in Section 6.6.

4.3 Research plan

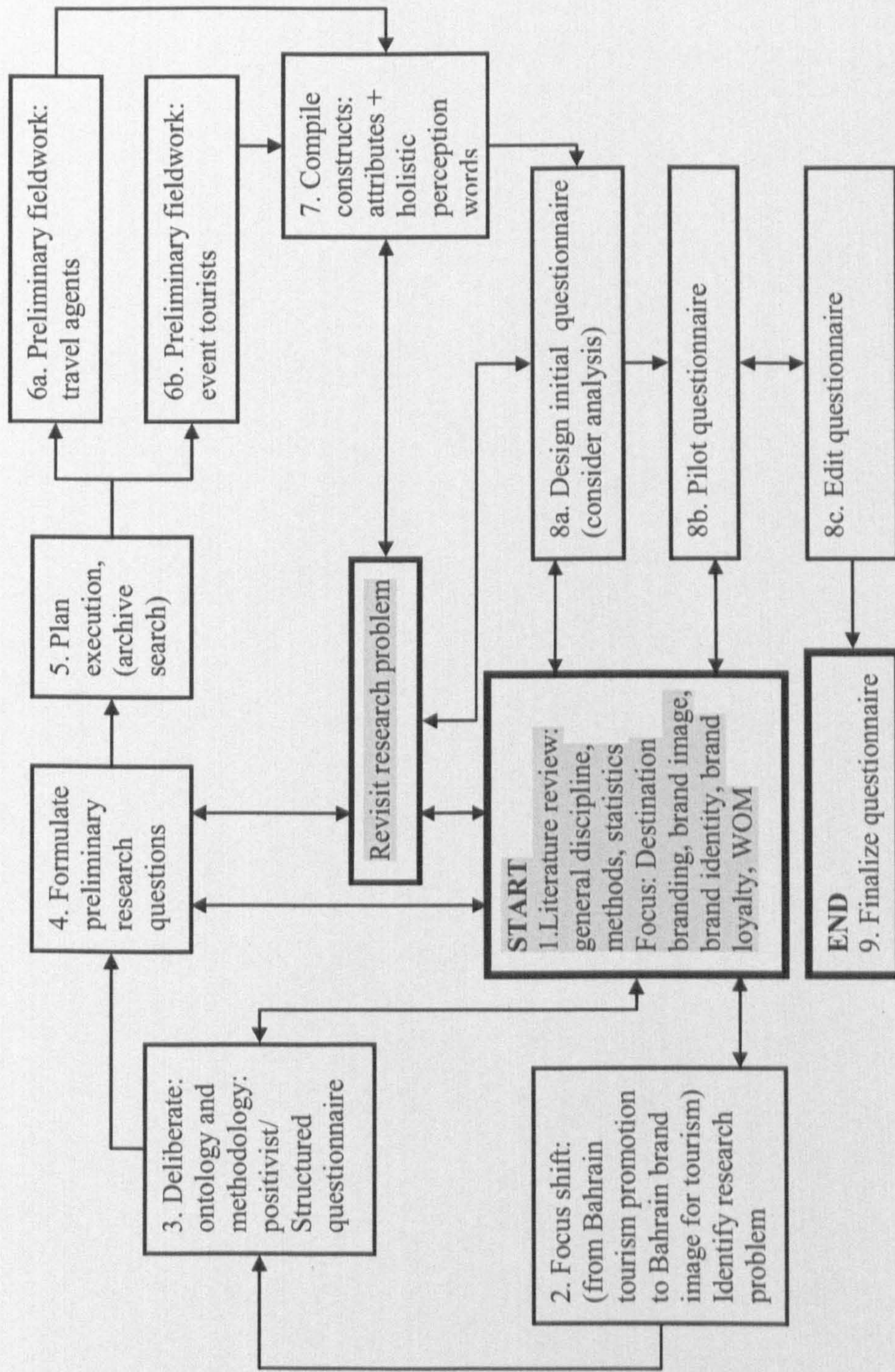
The research process is illustrated in Figure 4.1. Initially, the problem was approached as a promotion one, driven by an assumption that Bahrain could apply traditional promotion principles to its tourism product. A thorough review of branding and destination branding literature helped to understand that a nation is branded through its behaviour (Section 2.4.3), and that the marketing strategy for attracting tourism needs to be studied in the context of the holistic destination. But PhD research has to be focused, and the topic should be narrow enough to be 'intensively studied within a given time' (Glatthorn 1998, p.20), making an original contribution (Murray 2002), rather than solving all the destination's problems. Therefore, the research problem of 'discovering the destination brand image for tourism' imposed itself as a result of literature review, rather than being chosen by the author. Based on the literature, this problem was then translated into the main research questions in Table 3.3. The importance of active branding and of the role of WOM (Section 3.5.1) identified the markets relevant to this research (Section 3.6). To address the gaps in Section 3.7.1, the classification of

expatriates and the usefulness of the data in predicting BLT were also explored. For the former, sample data were compared and contrasted using correlation statistics to locate significant differences between respondent samples. For the latter, some of the relationships in Figure 3.4 were explored to determine their usefulness in improving BLT prediction. No hypotheses were offered, because hypotheses are not compulsory, especially when there are no expectations of the outcome (Rudestam & Newton 2001). The research intended to discover any truly *significant* differences between the samples, rather than to refute hypotheses that expatriates have the same destination image as locals or tourists, for which identifying any significant difference would have sufficed. For the results of this research to be generalizable, the external validity of its design has to be ascertained, which requires sample 'representativeness' (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996, p.113). This is addressed in Sections 4.6.1 and 4.6.2.

4.4 Preliminary fieldwork

Following the decision to use a questionnaire, a list of destination attributes for which satisfaction could be measured had to be selected. A judgement sample may be used to produce such a list in preliminary investigation (Oppenheim 1992), so a sample of the five largest travel agents was contacted (Figure 4.2) and asked the questions in Table 4.2. A list of upcoming international events was compiled for piloting and data collection, to ensure a variety of nationalities. Information included the nature of the event, the location, dates and times, expected numbers and nationalities of attending delegates and identities of local organizers. Newspapers and government publications can be useful for information search (Kane 1997), but attempts to collect information from MICE organizers, major listed event venues and event coordination bodies at the Ministries of Labour and Social Affairs, Industry and Commerce were all met with reluctance and secrecy and were time-consuming and unproductive.

Figure 4. 2 Preliminary research process



Manual search (Figure 4.2) of printed archives and current issues of major local newspapers (the Gulf Daily News, Al-Ayam, Akhbar Al-Khaleej and Al-Wasat) produced the final list of events. The process of compiling the list was tedious because events are often announced years in advance while online archives went back less than 30 days. The information was used to schedule and plan preliminary fieldwork, piloting and data collection sessions. Upcoming events were selected based on convenience because of their infrequent occurrence and organizers were approached for access permission. One 3-day conference and one 3-day exhibition were chosen for the preliminary questionnaire. The conference organizers refused, citing 'security' of high-profile delegates who were ministers in the GCC countries, so an alternative conference was chosen. Although feedback from this conference would have been interesting, the destination experience of this type of delegation may be atypical, and it is likely that the delegates' opinions would not have been representative of a random sample of event tourists.

Pearce (1982) recommended systematically seeking responses from all subjects at the same time, so 30 foreign tourists were approached on the third afternoon of these two events, 26 of whom agreed to fill out the questionnaire. They were told it would be collected after approximately 30 minutes, left alone to complete it and visited one hour later. Those requesting still more time were revisited after a further 30 minutes. One respondent requested keeping the questionnaire overnight but did not keep his promise so it was decided to ensure questionnaires are collected from event tourists on the same day during the actual fieldwork. The valid response rate was 83.33% (25 out of 30) of those approached, 96.15% (25 out of 26) of those agreeing to take part. They were asked the questions in Table 4.2. Attributes in responses from those tourists and from travel agents formed the questionnaire's "raw" list of attributes to be edited during piloting (Section 4.4). Descriptions from both groups constituted a list of 34 holistic perception "adjectives" to describe the destination (see Table 5.21).

Table 4. 2 Preliminary research questions

Sample	Questions
Major travel agents	1) <i>What attributes, in your experience, are important to tourists when choosing a destination for a holiday or to attend an event.^a</i> 2) <i>Describe the following four destinations using five words each: London, Cairo, Dubai and Bahrain.^{bc}</i>
Tourists	1) <i>What attributes do you consider to be important in a holiday destination?^a</i> 2) <i>What attributes do you consider to be important when you visit a destination to attend an event?^a</i> 3) <i>Please describe each of Bahrain and Dubai using five adjectives of your choice^{bc} (Please answer this question even if you have never been to Dubai).</i>
Note:	a = Customer satisfaction attributes list b = Holistic perception list c = The other destinations were chosen to provide a variety of descriptions.

4. 5 Research instrument

In order to ensure that the measure, in this case the instrument, is fit for purpose, it should be both valid and reliable. Validity is ‘the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening’ (Hussey and Hussey 1997, p.57) and includes content validity, construct validity and criterion-related validity (Sekaran 1992). The first ensures the instrument is good enough to tap into the concept, the second ensures the instrument’s consistency with relevant theory and the third ensures the instrument differentiates individuals on an obvious criterion as expected (Sekaran 1992, p.171). Content validity includes belief that the instrument is appropriate, and whether ‘the content adequately represents the property being measured’ (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996, p.166) which can be achieved through literature review and consulting experts. Care was also taken developing the instrument to include all possible relevant information. Construct validity requires the use of relevant constructs that ‘tie to the concepts and theoretical assumptions’ employed (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996, p.168), which can be achieved by using an instrument whose validity has already been ascertained in previous research or by an intensive review of the literature. Original questionnaires, whose validity has not already been proven in previous research, should

be tested and piloted vigorously to ensure the relevance of the constructs. The instrument employed in this research was constructed specifically to answer the research questions, with constructs obtained from experts (travel agents), from preliminary research and from the literature, and was piloted twice before it emerged in its final form. Criterion-related validity can be achieved if the instrument discriminates between individuals who are currently known to be different through some other measure or data, or between individuals expected to be different in the future (Sekaran 1992). Reliability is the instrument's consistency in measuring what it is supposed to (Sekaran 1992), and it is achieved if results are replicated upon repetitive application of the instrument under the same conditions (Hussey & Hussey 1997; Sufian 1998). Clearly, the questionnaire cannot be tested on the same respondents a second time, but a large enough sample can help to overcome this. Groups of questions may also be tested for reliability together (see Section 4.7.2), such as using Cronbach's alpha to indicate whether a collection of attributes 'hang together as a set' and may reasonably be studied together (Sekaran 1992, p.174).

This research employed a self-administered written questionnaire to ensure 'a high response rate, accurate sampling and a minimum of interviewer bias, while permitting interviewer assessments, providing necessary explanations (but not the interpretation of questions), and giving the benefit of a degree of personal contact' (Oppenheim 1992, p.103). To answer the research questions in Table 3.3, the questionnaire included four parts: attitude scales to measure customer satisfaction as stated at the end of Section 3.3, a list of words to measure holistic perception as stated at the end of Section 3.4, categorical questions to discover brand loyalty as stated at the end of Section 3.5.2, and demographic questions describing respondents.

The first, the attitude rating scales employed to address customer satisfaction, are similar to Likert scales. Maddox (1985) recommended the use of a Likert-type scale in tourism impact research due to its superior convergent and discriminate validity. A Likert scale (named after Rensis Likert) is an attitude measure 'ranging from very positive to very negative', designed to allow respondents to indicate the strength of their agreement or

disagreement with 'carefully constructed statements' related to 'an attitudinal object' (Zikmund 2000, p.291). The first section of the questionnaire consisted of a seven-point itemized rating scale measuring respondents' satisfaction with destination and event attributes compiled from the preliminary questionnaire. Rating scales, such as Likert scales, allow respondents to go beyond categorical responses and be 'more discriminating' and are simple to complete and to analyze (Hussey & Hussey 1997, p.171). They are also popular in business research because of their adaptability and 'flexibility in anchoring scales' for particular purposes 'while tapping a concept' (Sekaran 1992, p.169). Rating scales quantify opinions (Hussey & Hussey 1997), therefore they are appropriate for measuring satisfaction. The second part was done by asking respondents to "*describe each of Bahrain and Dubai using five words from the following list*", to provide information about holistic perception of the destination and aid in the positioning process. Dubai was chosen because of its proximity to Bahrain, its similar climate and its apparent success as an emerging celebrity tourist destination, although its success as a brand is questionable (Govers 2007). The descriptions compiled from the preliminary research were mixed together and arranged in alphabetical order. Respondents would either "choose" or "not choose" a particular word. Using the same list of words (Table 5.21) for the two destinations would allow comparisons and contrasts between them. The third part addressed brand loyalty using a binary scale (1 = yes, 0 = no), which can be used for attitudes (Ko & Stewart 2002). Respondents were asked to agree or disagree with four statements. Alternatives "Yes" and "No" were offered in order to force respondents to choose between the two options and deny them an ambiguous alternative. The objective was to find out whether each tourist intended to recommend others attend events at the destination, to recommend others visit the destination for a holiday, to attend events at the destination, and to return for a holiday. The fourth part was concerned with respondent demographics. Based on the literature, demographic information included gender, age, education, income, employment and marital status (Baloglu & McCleary 1999a). The tourists were expected to be diverse, therefore their countries of origin and nationalities were also included. Relative to the nature of the visit, respondents were asked about whether they were financing their own

trip, the length of the visit and number of previous visits, the latter a measure of familiarity with the destination. Various researchers have different reasoning for placing such questions at the beginning or the end (Sekaran 1992), but Oppenheim (1992) presented strong arguments for placing personal questions near the end of the questionnaire, so all personal questions were placed at the end.

As has been mentioned in various places in this thesis, the questionnaire had to be piloted, especially being an original instrument. A pilot study is a small-scale exploratory research technique that samples without rigorous standards (Zikmund 2000), that is performed repeatedly to test and amend the instrument and data collection method before actual execution. Although it is expensive and time consuming, it should not be avoided (Oppenheim 1992). A long questionnaire may increase respondent refusal rate and the order of questions may affect respondent's answers (Sufian 1998), so the wording and order of the questions and the length of the questionnaire were tested in pilot studies conducted at two different events, choosing tourists in the same manner as in the preliminary questionnaire. During the first pilot, respondents were asked at the beginning and the end of the questionnaire, to note the start and completion times respectively, and to write how many minutes is a reasonable time to complete a questionnaire of this type. The majority of respondents verbally complained that the instrument was too long (six A4 sheets) and took too long to complete. The average recommended time was 10 minutes. Some respondents also commented that they were unable to answer questions about activities and tourist sights because they had not actually visited any, despite having been at the destination at least 4 days. Many respondents also complained that the seven-point satisfaction scale had too many options and was difficult to answer, recommending fewer alternatives. Respondents were observed filling out the questionnaire from a distance and were seen hovering between -2 and -3 and between 2 and 3 in many questions, clearly experiencing difficulty deciding and in many cases skipping questions or losing interest, while those who completed the questionnaire were taking too long. Difficulty in using such a scale was also reported by McIntosh and Prentice (1999). A five-point rating scale was therefore

used in the final questionnaire. According to Sekaran (1992, p.168), this should not reduce the quality of the data, as ‘a five-point scale is just as good as any’ and ‘an increase to 7 or 9 points does not improve reliability’.

In a second pilot, two versions of the questionnaire with the same questions arranged differently were distributed to a sample of 20 tourists at a third conference, using the same procedure followed previously. This time, they were not asked about completion time, in case the negative responses were aroused by the question. All questionnaires were retrieved, but only 6 were fully completed, and 7 people verbally complained about the length of the instrument, despite it being shorter than the previous one. Several respondents assumed the questionnaire originated from event organizers despite being printed on University of Bahrain letterhead, and mentioned technical problems they had experienced with their stalls. General changes inspired by the feedback included the following:

- The arrangement of attributes was changed, grouping them into distinct themes and making the questionnaire more presentable and user-friendly.
- The layout was changed.
- A smaller font was used, to make the questionnaire appear shorter.
- A short formal introduction on “University of Bahrain” letterhead was added on a separate sheet at the beginning of the questionnaire, generally explaining the purpose of the research and eliciting cooperation. Such a letter improves response rates (Zikmund 2000; de Vaus 2002).
- The instrument was adapted for local and expatriate residents.

The final version of the questionnaire (see Appendices III.i, III.ii and III.iii), included a combination of multi-attribute five-point rating scale questions to measure customer satisfaction, a list question to measure respondents’ holistic perceptions of the destination and its positioning in their minds, binary scale questions to determine brand loyalty and structured demographic questions. Tourists were asked how “the Event”, “the People”, “Costs”, “Activities”, “Sights”, and “Bahrain as a destination” compared

to their expectations using a five-point itemized rating scale. Table 4.3 presents a summary of the questions. The instrument was adapted for residents, by removing event-related questions and expectation questions and replacing brand loyalty statements referring to visitation with a statement about living in Bahrain. Tourists were asked about previous visitation and the length of their stay, while expatriates were asked how long they had been living in Bahrain. The importance of familiarity was established in Section 3.6, and was the basis for the “intimacy” in the model proposed in Figure 3.3 (see Figure 3.4). These were followed by demographic questions. The residents’ instrument was adjusted by labelling the questionnaire as L or X for Locals or Expatriates respectively.

Table 4. 3 Instrument questions

Question		Sample	Type	Response
Customer satisfaction	Place	LXT	5-point scale	-2 = highly unsatisfactory, -1 = somewhat unsatisfactory, 0 = neither unsatisfactory nor satisfactory, 1 = somewhat satisfactory, 2 = highly satisfactory
	Attractions	LXT		
	Costs	LXT		
	Event	T		
Holistic Perception	Experience vs. Expectation	T	5-point scale	-2= much worse than expected, -1= somewhat worse than expected, 0= the same as expected, 1= somewhat better than expected, 2 = much better than expected
	Descriptions of Bahrain and Dubai	LXT	Categorical	Binary scale Chosen = 1 , Not chosen = 0
WOM intentions	Recommend	LXT	Categorical	Binary scale Yes = 1 , No = 0
	Return	T		
	Great to live	LX		
	Ideal stay	LXT		
Familiarity		X		Number of years living in Bahrain
		T		Number of previous visits
Demographics		LXT	Categorical	Age, income, education, marital status, country of origin
(1) L = Locals, X = Expatriates, T = Tourists				

4. 6 Data collection

The purpose of research is to draw conclusions and make generalizations about the population under study, from a sample. Generalizability concerns whether findings can be assumed about cases or situations beyond those in the sample (Hussey & Hussey 1997), not only in the population from which the sample is drawn, but also in other similar populations. External validity ensures the conditions and constraints under which the findings of the research are generalizable. This research was sample based, like most social research (de Vaus 2002), because it was neither feasible nor necessary to poll the entire population in order to draw conclusions. A sample should be 'a smaller (but hopefully representative) collection of units from a population used to determine truths about that population (e.g. How a given population behaves in certain conditions)' (Field 2005, p.743). Sampling 'cuts costs, reduces labour requirements, gathers vital information quickly', is 'sufficiently accurate' if properly selected and 'may be more accurate than a census' where non-sampling errors are more likely (Zikmund 2000, p.340-341). Problems of error do not disappear in larger samples, unless they are chosen in an unbiased manner (Brunt 1997, p.73). In order for generalization to be statistically valid, the sample must fulfil certain conditions. It should be drawn, using probability sampling, from a clearly defined wider population that it represents (de Vaus 2002). A probability sample is one drawn without bias, so that particular population elements are not over-represented or under-represented (Sufian 1998). Sampling bias can result if respondents possess different characteristics from the population (Hussey & Hussey 1997). Therefore, respondents had to be chosen in more than one location. In this research, findings are destination specific, so can only be generalized to the three specific populations from which the samples were drawn, that is Bahrain locals, expatriate residents and tourists attending events, although they can propose relationships and differences between the samples that should be investigated in other destinations and confirmed or refuted. The methodology used in brand loyalty prediction can also be investigated in other destinations. Generalization of the findings through

replication and corroboration in other destinations would contribute to theory in a broader way (Section 6.5).

Since data-collection from the tourist sample would take longer than from the resident samples, the former were approached first in order to finish collecting the data at roughly the same time from everyone. The following explains the sampling methods for each of the three samples.

4.6. 1 Sampling: Event tourists

Section 4.6 underlined the importance of having a well-defined population, and that a representative sample should be drawn using probabilistic methods. The tourist population was defined as “Tourists visiting the destination to attend events”. Because of the relatively large number of tourists visiting Bahrain to attend the F-1 race, the original idea was to include some in a stratified sample. Due to time constraints, data collection from this group would be conducted first. One month before the Formula One racing event took place in Bahrain in April 2005, contact was made with eight hotels of varying types and price levels, all but one of which agreed to assist by distributing copies of the questionnaire to their guests. Requests to permit students to distribute the questionnaire to guests in the lobby were flatly rejected. Since response rates could not be predicted, 1000 numbered copies were put in official University of Bahrain envelopes along with cover letters and placed in each room / apartment by the hotels’ housekeeping teams, who would collect the completed questionnaires after completion. One hotel owner also added a second cover letter himself. Although a lot of planning and organization went into this exercise, the result was a shockingly low response of 28 filled questionnaires, only 20 of which were valid. Despite the managers’ expressed cooperation, it is impossible to say to what extent promises were actually fulfilled. The result was especially disappointing in view of the amount of time, effort and expense invested. This researcher’s initial suspicion that one may have to venture outside of one’s comfort level and instincts and surrender some control of the data-collection process, was soon replaced with a conviction that maintaining tight controls of the entire process and

Careful selection of data collection agents were necessary. Even where support and cooperation from responsible people in high positions in the organisation were forthcoming, the support and cooperation of lower level employees was not guaranteed. The use of students in data collection, if it had been possible, would have introduced some leverage as a result of a perceived authority, although it might not always be ideal. The use of students in data collection is discussed further in 4.6.2.

In addition to the above, questionnaires were distributed at nine events over a 4-month period (see Appendix IV.i), to avoid sample bias resulting from distribution (Section 4.6). At these events, attendees were approached and asked "Where do you live?" If they did not reside at the destination and were willing, they were handed a questionnaire and given 30 minutes to fill it. A total of 156 usable questionnaires were collected. Although the majority of event attendees were destination residents, their feedback was not requested because they were not representative of the resident population.

4.6. 2 Sampling: Residents

The literature was reviewed to establish how samples were chosen in previous research, resident samples in particular, and the summary presented by Pike (2002) was very informative. Many destination image studies drew their samples from university students (Section 3.2) (for example, Crompton 1979; Morello 1983; Dillon *et al* 1986; Kale & Weir 1986; Woodside & Lyonski 1989; Echtner & Ritchie 1991, 1993; Gronhaug & Heide 1992; Waitt 1996; Baloglu & Brinberg 1997; Chen & Kerstetter 1999; Mackay & Fesenmaier 2000; Tapachai & Waryszak 2000; Andsager & Drzewiecka 2002; Kim & Richardson 2003, Caldwell & Freire 2004). Yet, students are demographically, psychographically, geographically, socially and economically not representative of either residents or tourists, and their holidays cannot be assumed to be typical of holiday-makers in general. While the captive audience of students is convenient and easily accessible and might be useful in preliminary research or in piloting a data-gathering instrument, it is difficult to see how generalizations can be made from such a sample, because of the sample bias mentioned in Section 4.6. Oppenheim (1992, p.62)

advised strongly against using them in research which is not particularly aimed at students, because of 'the differences in educational and social background, literacy, social values and average age' between students and the general population. Moreover, students are probably not potential tourists intending to travel at the time of data collection and may hold different images once they have considered whether or not to include a destination in their evoked set. Perceptions can change between the generic phase (of deciding whether or not to go on vacation) and the second phase (of deciding where to go). As a result of active information gathering, some destinations will move from awareness to the evoked set (Um & Crompton 1990; Manente & Minghetti 2006), and destination image is integral to this process (Baloglu & Brinberg 1997; Castro *et al* 2007; Choi *et al* 2007). The findings from students intending to travel such as in Um and Crompton's (1990) research or specifically exploring student images, such as in Waitt (1996), could be generalized to the student population, but unless research establishes that there are no significant differences between students and the wider population, the former cannot reasonably be considered representative of the latter. In any case, their sample of 100, including 40 students, would not have accommodated conclusive comparative results between students and other respondents.

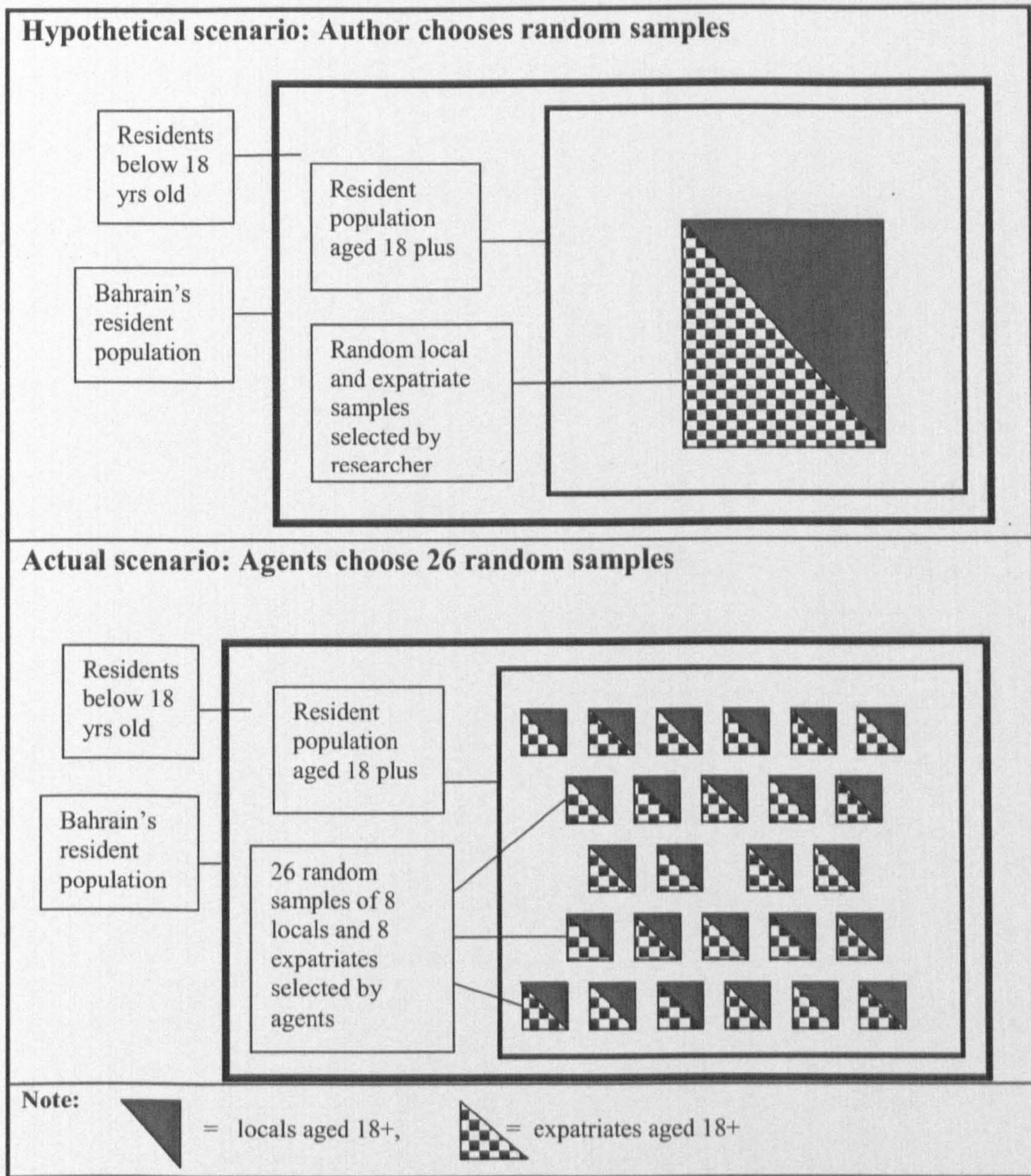
Out of 142 papers reviewed by Pike (2002), about 10% used students, 42% targeted visitors at the destinations, 39% included visitors abroad, some of whom may have had previous experience of the destination, 14% used travel / trade experts, and only Witter (1985) and Jutla (2000) included local residents. The important role of residents, as destination employees and customers as well as potential brand ambassadors, has already been established in Sections 3.6 and 3.6.2, which is why they were included in the proposed model in Figure 3.3. The resident population (Section 3.6.2) was defined as "residents aged 18 or over" to ensure that respondents could reasonably be expected to complete the questionnaire seriously. Reliability and validity depend on the specification of the sampling frame from which the units will be selected (Baker 2003). Compiling a complete sampling frame, the list of elements from which a sample may be drawn, may not always be feasible (Zikmund 2000), and the nature of the resident populations

presented a dilemma. Given problems such as outdatedness and incompleteness, 'a researcher has to compromise with the best of frames available to select his sample from' (Sufian 1998, p.42). Choosing people randomly from a telephone list was not considered despite the prevalence of mobile telephones (CBB 2008), because of the difficulty of confirming respondents' age and their population membership, as people may not be forthcoming on the telephone and may be inconvenienced by the interruption. Further, the nature of the questions which require some reflection, the possibility of introducing interviewer bias, and the need to collect data in a similar way to the sample of event tourists were all reasons to opt for distribution of a self-administered questionnaire. The next decision was how and where to distribute the instrument in order to achieve reasonable representation. Choosing one location to collect the data would surely exclude parts of the population. Data collection in one mall might bias the sample towards a particular income level associated with products sold in that mall. Data collection in an exhibition, such as the Book Fair, would have excluded respondents not interested in reading. Because of the climate, there is no centrally located place such as a high street or city centre in which to access a random representative sample. Distribution in more than one location would, therefore, be more appropriate, to avoid sample bias resulting from distribution (Section 4.6).

While students are often employed to collect data, this was not considered for two reasons; concerns about overrepresentation of students in the sample and concerns about difficulties gaining access or collecting data, based on the author's own experience during preliminary research. Distributors were chosen as reliable university graduates of a variety of nationalities, who live in different locations and / or work in different locations / positions in different types of organizations (see Appendix IV.ii). This made it possible to access a more diverse sample that would not otherwise have been accessible, by putting one degree of separation (Wikipedia 2008) between the researcher and respondents. Next, 26 such persons were contacted (see Figure 4.3) and asked if they were willing to act as agents, distributing and collecting questionnaires to a random sample of people they came across over a period of one week. One apologized because

of travel plans, so a replacement was found. The agents were instructed to first ask respondents whether they live in Bahrain and whether they are Bahraini, to ensure they were handed the appropriate questionnaire. Each agent was given only 16 questionnaires, 8 for locals and 8 for expatriates, in order to encourage agent cooperation and to improve the rate of returned responses and get a diverse cross-section. Agents were asked to keep a record of where they distributed the questionnaires, to ensure the diversity of locations. The agents were contacted after one week to enquire whether the assignment had been completed, in which case the questionnaires were picked up. Out of 416 questionnaires, 407 were completed; 205 locals and 202 expatriates. This response rate of 96.90% was considered very high. In the end, the agents records showed that the questionnaires were randomly distributed in two schools (to staff and parents), two university campuses (staff and students), two offices (staff and customers), two malls (shop salespeople, shoppers and coffee shop customers), an airline company (staff and customers), a book fair (vendors and customers), a ministry, a food court (customers), a public hospital (patients), a telecommunications company (customers), an insurance company (customers), two banks (customers), the restaurant / coffee shop of a large sports / social club (customers), a hotel (pool and customers in different restaurants), a mobile telephone shop (customers), a library (customers), a large centrally located internet café (customers), a factory employing thousands (staff) and a large nursery (teachers and parents). These venues were also spread over a very large area of the country. In short, the resulting sample was a diverse cross section of the country which, as Figure 4.3 illustrates, would not have been accessed without employing the agents. The unrushed nature of the locations where people were randomly approached meant that respondents were willing to cooperate, some reportedly eager for the opportunity to express their opinions. Thus, the diversity, and hopefully representativeness, of both resident samples was ensured.

Figure 4. 3 Sampling frame (locals and expatriates)



The data collected from all three samples were coded and entered into an Excel data sheet in preparation for analysis. Coding is a method of representing data so that it is more manageable and is easier to analyze statistically (de Vaus 2002) and can answer the research questions (Zikmund 2000). Samples were broken into demographic subgroups, to determine whether they were representative. Sample bias has already been

mentioned as a concern in Section 4.6.1 and several times earlier in this section. It exists when sample results deviate consistently from the population from which it is drawn (Zikmund 2000) and can only be established by comparing the characteristics of the sample with those of the population from which it is drawn (de Vaus 2002, p.153). Where possible, sample demographic data were compared to available population figures to establish representation. Where population data were not available, sample data were judged subjectively to determine whether they appeared reasonable. While recognising that this was unscientific, it was not possible to be more precise, and it was hoped that the careful selection of agents and their random selection of respondents would compensate for this so that the samples would indeed be representative of their respective populations.

4.7 Data Analysis

The data were transferred into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 14.0 (SPSS) for analysis and the variables were named. SPSS is suitable to 'process, summarize and analyze' data (Hussey & Hussey 1997, p.174), and it was chosen because it has many advantages. It is the most widely-used software package (Rudestam & Newton 2001; de Vaus 2002), for preparing and executing computerized data analysis, 'designed especially for the analysis of social science data and contains most of the routines social scientists employ', whose advantages include the ability 'to recode variables, to deal with missing values, to sample, weight and select cases and to compute new variables and effect permanent and temporary transformations' (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996, p.503). It is user-friendly and easily available at many universities to faculty and postgraduate students, and there are many books that provide instructions in how to use it (for example, Field 2005; Pallant 2005). It has 'extraordinary flexibility' and can handle 'thousands of cases and hundreds of variables' (Rudestam & Newton 2001, p.244). It is also very easy to transfer data into the SPSS spreadsheet from an Excel spreadsheet (Pallant 2005). New SPSS versions are released

regularly with few changes (Field 2005), which can be a disadvantage because files made with later versions cannot be opened with earlier versions.

The analysis of data related to the variables in each dimension is discussed next. After identifying differences between the samples, responses from expatriates are compared to those of both local residents and tourists attending events. Statistically significant differences between them would support treating them distinctly, while the absence of such differences between expatriates and either locals or tourists would support the argument for merging them with that group. The steps are illustrated in Figure 4.4.

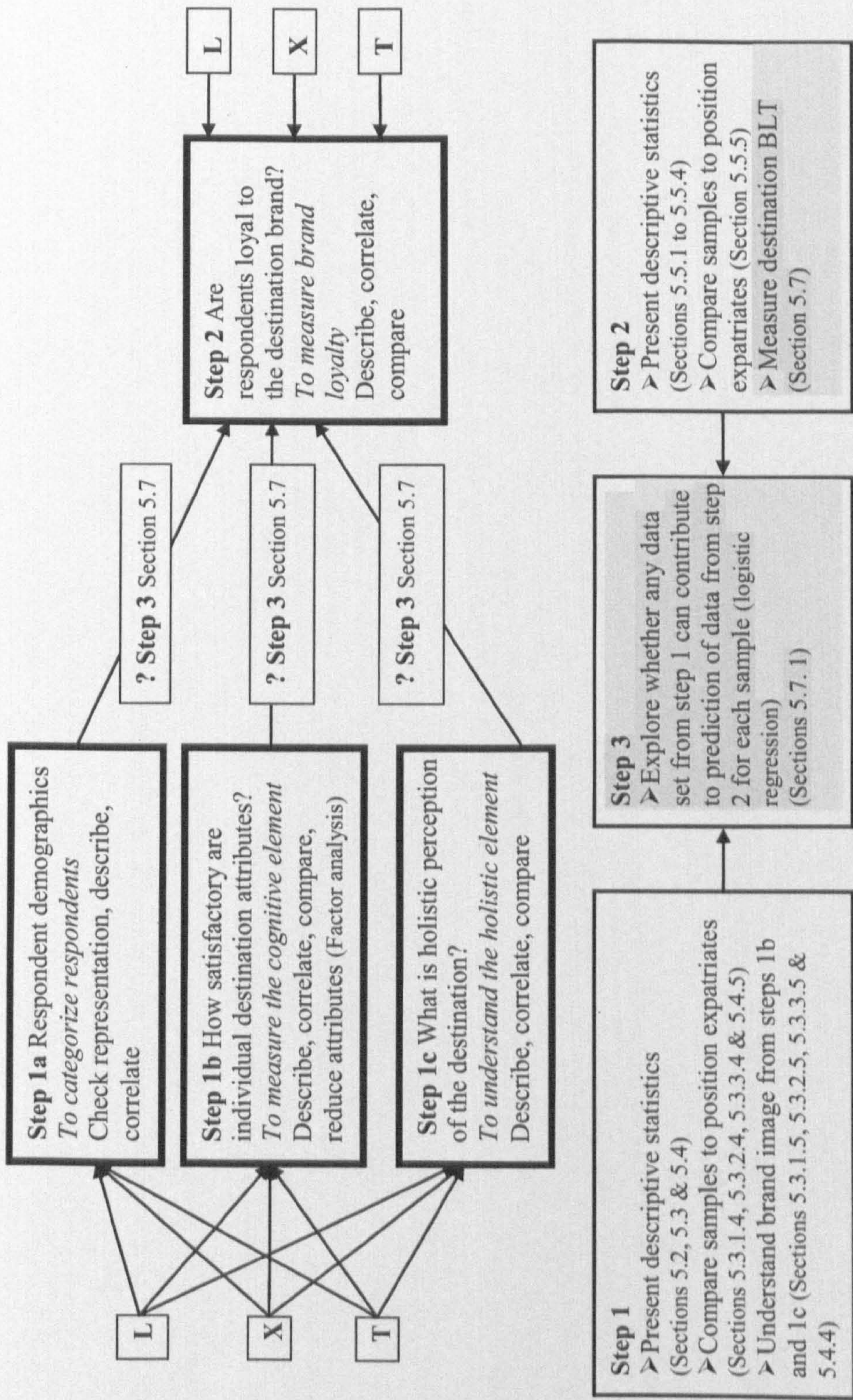
4.7. 1 Demographics

This part of the analysis is represented by step 1a in Figure 4.4. Gathering demographic data was important for several reasons: the first was to assist in establishing the representativeness of the sample. The second was to compare responses from the various demographic subgroups in order to find out if there were any significant differences between those groups that would indicate that aspects of the destination are more satisfactory or perceived better by one group than another. This would help to identify the destination's strengths and weaknesses for particular market segments. Thirdly, demographic characteristics were suggested in the literature as possibly having an influence on destination image (Figure 3.3). Fourthly, this research intended to investigate whether knowledge of any of those demographic characteristics would be useful in predicting brand loyalty to the destination's tourism product. Demographic information is presented in Sections 5.2 through 5.2.3, and in Appendix V.

As stated in Section 4.5, demographic information included gender, age, education, income, employment and marital status. People may deliberately give false answers 'to appear intelligent, to conceal personal information, to avoid embarrassment' among other reasons (Zikmund 2000, p.171-172). Since the income question is personal, and also may be difficult for some people to answer precisely, respondents were asked to choose an income category rather than risk false response or non-response in an open-

ended question, which would have eliminated the opportunity to search for correlations between income and other responses. In addition to the above information, tourists' questionnaires included country of origin and nationality, source of finance of the visit, length of visit and number of previous visits, while expatriates' questionnaires included country of origin and nationality and the number of years expatriates had been living in Bahrain. The wide variety of nationalities of both expatriates and tourists may be a useful demographic for BLT prediction, but the number of destinations was high, with a large percentage from the region. Therefore, the results from those of Arab origin were compared with others' to discover whether this is a relevant factor affecting expatriate or tourist perceptions. The effects of familiarity were also tested by comparing results from event tourists visiting for the first time and those who had visited before, and also by investigating whether there was any correlation between the dependent variables and number of years living at the destination. Demographic data were retained to include in the logistic regression model in Section 5.7.

Figure 4. 4 Research design- data analysis



Note: Shaded areas are not part of the original research design
L = local, X = expatriate, T = event tourist

4.7. 2 Customer Satisfaction

This part of the analysis is represented by step 1b in Figure 4.4 A summary of each sample's satisfaction levels with destination attributes is presented. The attributes were divided into groups based on their underlying themes of place (Section 5.3.1), attractions (Section 5.3.2), costs (Section 5.3.3) and the event tourists are attending (Section 5.3.4). A summary of the results is presented in Appendix VI. Satisfaction was correlated with demographic data to locate any significant differences between demographic categories within each sample that could be identified with 99% confidence. Within each theme, the frequencies for satisfaction with each attribute were calculated, and then they were arranged in descending order (Tables 5.1, 5.7, 5.13 and 5.19). The most satisfactory areas from each sample were identified and compared. In order to decide the best tests to use for each set of data, it was important to first determine whether to use parametric or non-parametric tests, which required knowledge of whether the data was normally distributed. Although attribute satisfaction was measured using a rating scale, which is technically not continuous and therefore not normal, the distributions were still tested for normality. If any of their distributions had presented a normal appearance, an argument would have been made for the use of parametric statistics. Nonparametric methods are those 'which are valid no matter what the distribution of the observations may be' (Kotz *et al* 2006, p.3294), and they are one of the appropriate ways to handle data that is known to be non-normal (de Vaus 2002).

Since satisfaction levels were not normally distributed, the "Mann-Whitney U" test was used to locate differences between satisfaction levels of categorical demographic variables with only two categories, (for example: Gender, Employment (unemployed / working), Age (below 40 / 40 or older) and Country of origin (Arab / non-Arab)). The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric alternative to the t-test for two independent samples which 'allows for testing group differences when populations are not normally distributed or when it cannot be assumed that the samples are from populations that are equal in variability' (Zikmund 2000, p.501). This test is appropriate because it assumes that the samples are random, that the observations are

independent and that one variable has two categories (the bi-categorical demographic) while the other is 'at least ordinal' (the satisfaction level) (Conover 1980, p.216; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996, p.494). Where the demographic variable contained more than two categories (for example: Income and Education level), the Kruskal-Wallis test for k-independent samples was used. This is a non-parametric test 'based on ranks to determine where c ($c > 2$) populations are identical and may be considered a c -sample extension of the Wilcoxon Mann-Whitney test for equality of location' (Kotz *et al* 2006, p.3897). This test is an appropriate statistical technique to compare three or more groups or populations when the data are ordinal and can be considered a non-parametric equivalent to analysis of variance (Zikmund 2000). This test assumes a categorical independent variable with three or more categories (the multi-categorical demographic). In addition to the assumptions in Mann-Whitney U, it also assumes that 'either the population distributions of the functions are identical or else some of the populations tend to yield larger values than the other populations do' (Conover 1980, p. 230). If categories were almost empty, the number of categories is reduced by collapsing them before selecting the appropriate test of the two. Spearman's Rank Order (SRO) was also used to investigate whether correlations exist between expatriate satisfaction and the number of years living in Bahrain or between the tourist satisfaction and the number of previous visits to determine whether familiarity is a factor affecting satisfaction. Spearman's Rank Order correlation coefficient is used to measure the strength of the relationship between two continuous non-normal variables, without parametric assumptions, and it is performed on the data after converting it to ranked scores (Field 2005). The results are summarized in Appendix VII.

The three samples were then compared to determine whether there were statistically significant differences between them to support treating them as three distinct groups. If no differences are found between two samples, this would support combining those two samples together. When deciding on expatriate positioning, differences were identified cautiously, using stringent confidence thresholds. Statistically significant differences would suggest that expatriates should be considered separately from those with whom they differ. Finding a *large* number of

significant differences would heavily support this position. When considering results, the criterion of 95% or 99% significance, indicating a 5% or 1% likelihood that it occurred by chance, is usually accepted to indicate a significant finding (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). When comparing expatriate results with those of the other two samples, 95% was used as a cut-off point. However, within each sample, so many correlations with demographics were investigated (number of attributes x number of demographic variables x (number of demographic categories-1)) that it was likely that significance would be found in many relationships by chance, so 99% was preferred. The level of significance is the probability of committing a Type I error, 'the probability of rejecting a true hypothesis', which is inversely related to a Type II error, that of 'accepting a false hypothesis' (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996, p.486). Using a 1% rather than a 5% level of significance as a threshold decreases the likelihood of making a Type I error (Field 2005). A significance less than 0.01 will be considered an indication that the difference between the various categories of the demographic variable is statistically significant at the 1% level, meaning 99% confidence that the relationship appearing in the sample data was not attributable to sample error. A significance value larger than 0.01 is interpreted to mean that differences between the categories may be attributable to sample error. Using 1% significance, therefore, increases the likelihood that differences which *were* identified are genuine and not due to sampling error.

Following the descriptive statistics, factor analysis was performed on the attributes within each theme for each sample using SPSS 14.0. Factor analysis is a 'branch of multi-variate analysis that is concerned with the internal relationships of a set of variables, when these relationships can be taken to be linear or approximately so' and may be exploratory or confirmatory (Kotz *et al* 2006, p.2204). It is designed to identify sets of variables that discover possible underlying phenomena in a set of variables (Oppenheim 1992; de Vaus 2002), and summarize the information contained in a large number of variables into a fewer dimensions or factors (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996; Zikmund 2000). It was used in almost 29% of studies reviewed in Pike (2002). In this research, factor analysis is performed for two reasons. The first is to determine the reasonableness of considering attributes

together. De Vaus (2002) recommends that one should consider whether variables appear appropriate together, because a solution may emerge that makes no sense. The second is to investigate the possibility of reducing the number of attributes, in preparation for exploring prediction. Reliability is an indication of how well the scale consistently reflects the construct that it measures (Section 4.5) and a minimum Cronbach's alpha value of 0.7 is required (Field 2005; Pallant 2005). Each scale is tested for reliability and the effect of deleting each attribute on the value of Cronbach's alpha is examined to decide whether or not that attribute should be retained. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) represents the ratio of squared correlation between variables to the squared partial correlation between variables, taking on a value between 0 and 1. A KMO value less than 0.5 indicates that factor analysis would not be appropriate, while a value of 0.90 or more strongly supports factor analysis (de Vaus 2002). Bartlett's test of Sphericity (BTS) measures resemblance of the correlation matrix to the identity matrix, which, if high, indicates that there are clusters to be found, supporting factor analysis and vice versa (Field 2005). Where the number of cases included in the scale was low, like the tourist sample's attraction scale, deletion was considered for attributes with a relatively few valid responses to increase the overall number of cases included.

When performing factor analysis, Pallant (2005) recommends noting the following; the number of components found through PCA with eigenvalues larger than 1.0, the number of components which exceed equivalent ones on a randomly generated list produced by Monte Carlo Parallel Analysis (MCPCA), and the number of components indicated by a sharp angle in a Scree Plot. A Scree plot is a graph that helps establish the number of factors to retain by showing the importance of each factor in factor analysis, where the point of inflexion indicates extraction (Field 2005). Several solutions were explored, noting the percentage of variance each time. The components were rotated to assist in identifying and interpreting the underlying dimensions (Oppenheim 1992), using either Varimax or Oblimin with Kaiser normalization. Varimax is a method of orthogonal rotation that attempts the dispersion of factor analysis with factors by producing more interpretable clusters of factors (Kotz 2006). Oblimin is a method of oblique rotation which allows factors to be correlated (Field 2005). If correlations between any two components exceeded

0.3, Oblimin was preferred, otherwise the results were generally similar (Pallant 2005). After rotation, the factor loadings of the attributes on the components were checked. Factor loading represents 'the correlation between an item and a factor' (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 2005, p.471). If particular attributes would continue not to load (with factor loadings less than 0.3) or continue to cross-load (with factor loadings on more than one component without significantly favouring one over another) despite varying the number of components, those attributes was considered for deletion (Pallant 2005). After deletion, the process would be repeated. Scree Plots and total variation explained are presented in Appendix VIII.

The situation when there is more than one solution was discussed as a possible source of subjectivity in Section 4.2. As stated then, those solutions may have different numbers of components and explain different amounts of percentage of variance. The discussion also concluded that, as far as possible, the preferred solution would be a simple one which explained a reasonable amount of variance, and that explanation of the process would be presented. Generally, the solution was chosen based on the absolute values of the factor loadings and the variance explained by the components. The percentage of explained variance reflects the extent to which each factor is explained by the loadings of the various items (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 2005). Due to the length of the process and having to repeat it for 11 scales (Place x 3 + Attractions x 3 + Costs x 3 + Expectations x 1 + Events x 1), the process is explained but only the final solution is produced. Finally, the resulting components for each "theme*sample" combination are presented along with any deleted variables. The components were named based on their underlying themes or highest-loading attributes (Pallant 2005) and retained for re-introduction in Section 5.7, as variables in a logistic regression model (Figure 4.4).

4.7. 3 Holistic Perception

The next topic to address is respondents' holistic perceptions of the destination and the words they would use to describe it to others (Section 5.4). This part of the analysis is represented by step 1c in Figure 4.4. The words used by each sample to describe their holistic perception of each of Bahrain and Dubai were listed, tallied

and arranged in descending order using Microsoft Office Excel 2003. This was performed for each sample separately. Excel was chosen because it performs this type of analysis very easily and using it did not require learning any new skills. Despite providing only five spaces and clearly asking for exactly five words, some responses included fewer or more than five words. Four scenarios were considered; to limit the analysis to those responses with exactly five words, to choose five words from responses with more than five using some pre-determined criteria, to choose the first five words, or to accept all the offered responses. Limiting the analysis to those responses with exactly five words would have eliminated some of the responses, resulting in a loss of data and wasting the opportunity to learn more. Choosing which five words to accept from those who wrote more than five would have introduced researcher subjectivity, and possible bias. Choosing the first five words out of more than five would have implied an assumption that the first five words were somehow more important than the others or that respondents had consciously ordered their words from strongest to weakest, which is baseless since respondents had not been instructed to do so beforehand, and may very well have written them in their order of appearance in the list. Such instruction would have resulted in a more mentally arduous task from respondents' point of view and a higher likelihood of non-response to that question. For all of the above reasons, all the words that were written were accepted. For each of the two destinations, for each of the three samples, the frequency of occurrence of each word is calculated and converted to percentages (because of the unequal number of valid responses in each sample), rounded up and compared. The expected number of random occurrences for any word was calculated and used as a threshold.

The results from the three samples were then compared to determine whether expatriates' perceptions were similar to either of the two other samples. Chi-square was calculated for each word separately to determine whether there were significant differences between the samples' usage of that word. Chi-square test for independence is a non-parametric test that is suitable for exploring relationships between two categorical variables, by comparing the frequency of occurrence of each category of one variable in the categories of the other. The test is used 'in problems where two nominal variables are cross-classified in a bivariate table' (Frankfort-

Nachmias and Nachmias 1996, p.496). It assumes that each entity contributes to only one cell in the matrix and that expected frequencies in every cell exceed 5 (Field 2005). For words where significant differences were found between the three samples, the process was repeated for each two samples to determine exactly where the differences lie. In 2x2 contingency tables (for example, two samples and a second dichotomous categorical variable), this test tends to make a Type I error by producing significance values that are too small, so Yates Correction for Continuity is checked, to compensate for any possible overestimation (Pallant 2005). Asymptotic significance (two-sided) must be less than 0.05 to indicate a statistically significant difference (Pallant 2005). As with attribute satisfaction in Section 5.3, results were only considered statistically significant if significance did not exceed 0.01. The results from the three samples were placed adjacent to each other (see Appendices IX.i and IX.ii) to show the strength of the images and contrast them.

Next, Tourists' perceptions of various general aspects of their experience compared to their expectations were presented. These were treated the same way as the satisfaction attributes statistically, using Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis, although they referred to more holistic aspects of the destination. Chi square was also calculated for each variable to see if there was any effect from familiarity among expatriates or tourists, indicated by statistically significant differences (Section 4.7.1). If no difference was found, then our sample could be said not to exhibit differences large enough that they couldn't be attributed to sample error. The results were retained to include in the logistic regression model in Section 5.7.

4.7. 4 Brand Loyalty

This part of the analysis is represented by step 2 in Figure 4.4, and with each sample's brand loyalty towards the destination, operationalized by intentions and expressed in Section 3.5.2. The frequencies of affirmative responses are presented for each of the brand loyalty statements. Within each sample, correlations between the responses to the statements were calculated using Pearson Chi square to establish whether the categorical variables were independent (Section 4.7.3). The Chi square test for independence is also performed for each statement comparing responses from

the samples wherever possible. Since the test compares responses from two samples (expatriates versus locals or expatriates versus tourists) to one statement with only two possible categories (Yes / No), it is necessary to note Yates Correction for Continuity (Section 4.7.3). The same test also searches for statistically significant differences between the demographic categories of each sample. Significant differences are presented in Appendix X. “Ideal length of stay” recommended by the respondents is presented next. The distribution of this continuous variable for each sample is presented in Appendix XI.i.

In Section 5.7, respondents expressing brand loyalty to the tourism product (BLT) are identified and assigned a value of 1 while others are assigned a value of 0 (Figure 5.4). BLT is indicated by the intention to recommend others visit the destination for a holiday and to attend events. Based on arguments presented in Section 3.5.2, future intention to revisit is not a necessary prerequisite for tourists’ destination brand loyalty, and that willingness to recommend the destination to others would suffice. For residents, this focuses particularly on their loyalty in the tourism context, ignoring whether or not they would produce positive WOM about living at the destination, a matter which may be of more interest to destination marketers for other purposes such as attracting FDI or highly skilled inward migration. Prediction of BLT membership was explored using the available data. Logistic Binomial Regression was used to discover whether the variables set aside earlier were useful in BLT prediction. Logistic regression is ‘a statistical method for analysis of the relationship between an observed proportion or rate and a set of explanatory variables’ (Kotz *et al* 2006, p.4379). It is used ‘when the dependent variable is a nominal dichotomous variable’ (Sufian 1998, p.261). Logistic regression accommodates two or more independent variables at the same time, interval or dichotomous, is ambivalent about the measurement level of the dependent variable and does not assume normality or linearity (de Vaus 2002). Therefore, logistic regression is ideal for concurrently exploring the ability of a variety of different types of variables to contribute to prediction of a categorical dependent variable such as membership (BLT / Non-BLT), and to measure that contribution. It accepts demographic variables, holistic perception words (chosen / not chosen) and satisfaction variables and components. Logistic regression assumes that variables are

independent, indicated by a low inter-correlation, that there is a strong correlation with the dependent variable, and that sample size accommodates the number of independent variables (Pallant 2005). Therefore, before they were entered into a model together, the independent variables were tested to ensure there was not a high collinearity between them and that there was some correlation with the dependent variable.

The above-mentioned assumption about the number of independent variables accommodated by logistic regression was vague, so a search of the literature ensued. Various texts say different things about the ideal number of predictors in logistic regression. Many sources do not mention any restrictions on the number of independent variables or cases at all. Pallant (2005) warns against having too many variables without being specific. DeVaus (2002) recommends at least 50 cases per predictor. Garson (2006) recommends the lesser of 10 cases per predictor or the smallest number of cases in any category of a dichotomous or categorical variable. Hosmer and Lemeshow (2000, p.347) recommend that a model contain no more than 1 less than $\text{INT}(\min(n_1, n_0) / 10)$ parameters i.e. including the constant), where n_1 and n_0 are the number of members and non-members of the group whose membership is to be predicted. Thus, a sample of 156 tourists with 56 members and 100 non-members should have no more than 4 variable parameters ($\text{INT}(56/10 - 1) = 4$) in a logistic regression model, while the same sample with 80 members and 76 non-members could accommodate 6 variable parameters ($\text{INT}(76/10 - 1) = 6$). They also advise that when the distribution of covariates is weighted heavily to one value, the minimum observed frequency should perhaps be limited to 10, which means that any holistic perception word that was chosen or not chosen by fewer than 10 respondents should be considered for removal.

For each sample, logistic regression models were attempted using first demographic variables from Section 5.2, then customer satisfaction components identified in factor analysis and extra satisfaction variables from Sections 5.3.1 through 5.3.4, and thirdly holistic perception words from Section 5.4, to measure their contribution to correct prediction of BLT membership. A 10th attempt was made with tourists, using the “experience versus expectation” component (Section 5.4.6). The Wald statistic is

'usually used to ascertain whether a variable is a significant predictor of the outcome', indicated by a significance below 0.05 (Field 2005, p.224). According to Pallant (2005), significance levels less than 0.05 for the Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients and significance levels larger than 0.05 for the Hosmer and Lemeshow test establish the model's goodness of fit, while the Cox and Snell R Square and the Nagelkerke R Square gave the range of variation in the dependent variable that is explained by the model. These figures were therefore noted every time a model was attempted. A comparison of the percentage of correct prediction of membership with and without the independent variables yielded each model's contribution to prediction. If the difference was negligible, the model was dismissed as not useful. Some of the models could not have accommodated a large number of independent variables together, so the factor analysis components were useful in reducing their number. In the case of the holistic perception models, the number of variables was simply too high, even when the ones with very low response were moved from the list of 34, as per the guidelines above. Therefore, an exploratory approach was used, introducing variables in batches and eliminating those which did not contribute to prediction. Through trial and error, the surviving variables were finally reduced to a small number. Because this process was lengthy and repetitive, it is not reported in its full detail. The procedure was especially long with the tourist sample because of its smaller size, so even fewer variables could be introduced in each step of the trial and error process (Section 5.7.3). The analysis concluded by stating which type of variable (demographics / attribute satisfaction / perception / experience vs. expectation) was the most useful in predicting BLT for each sample. This process can also be applied to individual brand loyalty statements, to explore prediction of responses to individual statements or combinations of statements, and the effect of each variable on the response, but that was beyond the scope of this research, and its focus on exploring a possible methodology for identifying potential loyals who can be activated to support the *tourism* product in particular.

4. 8 Summary

This chapter explained the research plan, with references to the literature wherever possible. The research was designed to answer the questions in Table 3.3 and make a contribution to filling the gaps in Section 3.7.1. It began with the positivist research philosophy, explaining its implications, its assumptions about reality and the world and how potential subjectivity might be addressed (Table 4.1) through piloting, detailed pre-planning of the research design and a thorough literature review that informs the entire process, ties it together and ensures that an original contribution is made. Figure 4.1 illustrated the research process. Preliminary fieldwork (Section 4.4) was conducted to compile the constructs for the instrument, using a judgement sample and convenience samples and to schedule data collection sessions. The questionnaire was designed and fine-tuned using piloting (Section 4.5) before distribution to samples of event tourists and residents, the latter by using agents (Figure 4.3) to access a more representative sample. Figure 4.4 summarized the data analysis. The data was analyzed using SPSS 14.0. The chapter explained how demographics, customer satisfaction, holistic perception and brand loyalty data would be presented in Chapter Five using descriptive statistics. Comparisons would be carried out between expatriates and both locals and tourists, to provide information to answer RQ4 (Section 3.7.2) regarding the expatriate positioning in destination image research. The steps of the analysis are explained, defining the statistical tests, their assumptions, application and limitations, to ensure their applicability and appropriate use. These included tests for correlation and independence, factor analysis and logistic regression.

This chapter presented the template for the analysis in Chapter Five, the results of which will then be synthesized and interpreted in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

As already outlined in Chapter Four, this chapter will present the data analysis. It will begin by presenting respondents' demographic profiles (Section 5.2.1), before it moves on to destination attribute satisfaction (Section 5.3), holistic perception (Section 5.4) and brand loyalty (Section 5.5). At the end of each section, sample results will be compared to determine expatriate positioning. Finally, prediction of BLT will be explored (Section 5.7).

5.2 Demographics

Demographics mentioned briefly in Section 4.5 included gender, age category, education category, income category, employment, marital status and country of origin. In addition, tourists were asked their nationality, the length of their visit and number of previous visits, and expatriates' questionnaires included nationality and the number of years living in Bahrain (Section 4.7.2). In Section 4.7.1, it was mentioned that demographic data would be used to establish sample representation, to identify perception differences between market segments and to explore its usefulness predicting BLT. Ideally, at this stage, sample demographic profiles would be investigated with a view to determine whether they are reasonably representative of their respective populations. Demographic data was expected to be scarce, but in

the beginning data was incomplete and conflicting and as events later unfolded, it became clear that there was no dependable population data to confidently compare sample data with (Al A'ali 2008a, b), so samples had to be judged subjectively. The methods used to sample tourists (Section 4.6.1) and residents (Section 4.6.2) were unbiased, and sample sizes were large enough to reasonably represent the populations. The demographics of each sample are discussed next.

5.2. 1 Locals

There were 205 respondents in this sample, 103 (50.2%) males and 102 (49.8 %) females, which was ideal. The age distribution was 63.4%, 34.1% and 2.4% in the age groups 20-39, 40-59 and 60 plus respectively. There were only 5 respondents aged 60 or over, therefore the latter two categories were collapsed into “aged 40 or older”. 41% of the sample was married. 22.9% had no more than a high school education, 58.5% held a university degree and 18.5% held a postgraduate degree. The largest concentration of the sample was in the lowest income class. 20.49% of the sample was unemployed which, although higher than the various unemployment figures (Section 3.8.3), is to be expected because the sample included university students who, although not technically unemployed, are mostly not employed. Occupation responses included references to industry such as “banker”, to a position such as “manager” and to a specialization such as “chemist” and “statistician”. This did not pose a problem, since the wide range of responses indicated sample diversity, which was the purpose of the question. Bahrain was stated as the country of origin by the majority of the sample, which is reasonable, as until very recently there had not been any mentionable inward migration. With only 10 of non-Arab origin, this was not used as a demographic. As more foreigners are naturalized, this variable will become more relevant. Local demographic data are presented in Appendix V.

5.2. 2 Expatriates

This sample of 202 respondents was 51% male and 49% female. 41.6% were aged 20-39, 55.4% aged 40-59 and 3.0% aged 60 or over. Their mean age was higher than that of locals, which was not surprising because ‘an expatriate position is more likely

to be regarded as a career opportunity than an opportunity for a career' (Essex 1997 cited in Barber and Pittaway 2000, p.352). For similar reasons to locals, the two elder categories were combined into "aged 40 or older". In terms of education, 52.5% were university graduates, 27.2% possessed a postgraduate education and 79.7% were married. There were three respondents who said they were expatriate but wrote "Bahraini" as their nationality. When questioned, one explained that he was newly naturalized, and two females were married to Bahraini men and did not speak Arabic. All three "felt" expatriate, unsure whether they would stay, therefore choosing the expatriate questionnaire at distribution. Since they defined themselves as expatriate, they were retained in this sample. Only 11.9% of the sample was of Arab nationality, slightly fewer than those from Arabic countries of origin. The sample provided a diverse collection of 31 different countries of origin and 29 different nationalities. The most frequently cited nationalities were British (35.6%) and Indian (21.3%), and countries of origin were the United Kingdom (34.7%) and India (21.3%), which was consistent with available population data. The mean 'number of years living in Bahrain rounded off to the nearest year' was 9.38 years (standard deviation = 8.36) and the mode was 2 years. Approximately 3/4 of the sample had lived in Bahrain for over 2 years and 50% had lived there over 6 years. Detailed expatriate sample demographics are presented in Appendix V.

5.2.3 Tourists

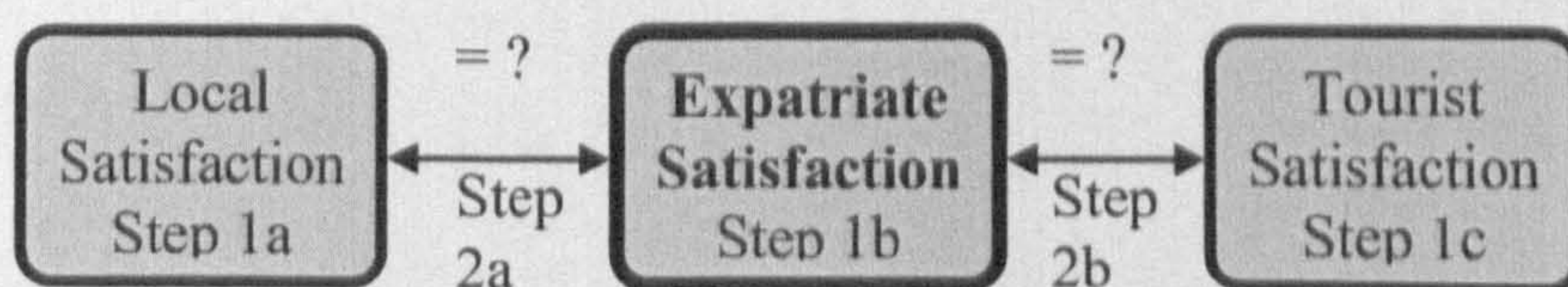
There were 156 respondents in this sample, 83.3% of whom were male and 16.7% were female. Although this was heavily skewed, it was clear at the events that tourists attending events in Bahrain are mostly male, and attempting to redress the balance would have entailed purposefully seeking out females and ignoring males, resulting in a non-representative non-random sample. Age-wise, 48.7% of the sample was 20-39, and 43.6% were aged 40-59. Of the 155 valid responses, 36.8% were postgraduates, 55.5% were university graduates and only 7.7% had a high school education or less. This was not surprising since many of the tourists were conference attendees likely to possess a university qualification. Perhaps for the same reason, the mode income level of this sample was higher than that of the other two samples. Tourists came from 41 different countries of origin and had 29 nationalities,

approximately one third of Arab origin. In hindsight, it might have been useful to ask for the countries where the tourists resided rather than their nationalities, in order to locate source markets. 64% of respondents were sponsored by others and 51.3% had previously visited Bahrain, which included 21.2% on their second visit, 14.7% on their third or fourth visit and 15.4% who had already visited at least 4 times. Their mean stay was 6.12 days (standard deviation = 4.166) and the mode was 7 days. Tourist sample demographic data are presented in Appendix V.

5.3 Customer Satisfaction

The analysis presented in the following pages relates to the cognitive element of the groups' destination brand image, specifically addressing the first research question: *How satisfactory are individual destination attributes?* The analysis methodology has already been discussed in Section 4.7.2, and Figure 5.1 illustrates the part of Table 3.3 that is addressed in these sections. Attributes are discussed in their respective categories of Place, Attractions and Costs and the Event tourists are attending, to enable better understanding of satisfaction with each category, and in keeping with the way they were presented in the questionnaires. A positive side-effect was that low response to one category did not preclude analysis of other categories. After presenting the data and any significant relationships to demographics, the attributes are reduced through factor analysis, in preparation for Section 5.7 (see Figure 4.4).

Figure 5. 1 Customer satisfaction data analysis plan



5.3. 1 Place satisfaction

First to be considered were Place attributes. Table 5.1 shows Place results for all three samples in descending order.

Table 5. 1 Place mean satisfaction

Mean Satisfaction	LOCALS	EXPATRIATES	TOURISTS
1.61			Safety (1)
1.58			Friendliness (1)
1.48			Communication (1)
1.45		Friendliness (2)	
1.42		F & B (1)	
1.39			Cleanliness (1)
1.33	Friendliness (3)		
1.29	Communication (2)		F & B (2)
1.27			Accommodation (1)
1.15		Communication (3)	
1.1	F & B (3)		
1.05		Shopping (1)	
0.99		Accommodation (2)	
0.94			Nightlife (1)
0.89			Entertainment (1) + Shopping (2)
0.81			Climate (1)
0.8	Shopping (3)		
0.66			Sightseeing (1)
0.65			Transport (1)
0.59			Cultural Activities (1)
0.57	Accommodation (3)	Nightlife (2)	
0.44		Climate (2)	
0.37		Entertainment (2)	
0.36		Safety (2)	
0.35	Safety (3)		
0.32			Beaches (1)
0.29	Cleanliness (2)		
0.23		Beaches (2)	
0.17		Cleanliness (3)	
0.12		Cultural Activities (2)	
0.1	Nightlife (3)		
-0.1	Cultural activities (3)		
-0.16	Climate (3)		
-0.26	Entertainment (3)		
-0.31		Transport (2) + Sightseeing (2)	
-0.47	Beaches (3)		
-0.53	Sightseeing (3)		
-0.9	Transport (3)		

Note: Numbers between brackets indicate group order: (1) = highest, (2) = middle, (3) = lowest

A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.796 over the combined three samples and values of 0.774, 0.754 and 0.834 for the individual local, expatriate and tourist samples respectively indicated reliability as a scale, meaning that it was reasonable to treat these attributes together. The results from the individual samples are discussed next.

5.3.1. 1 Locals

Respondents perceived 8 of the 14 attributes positively, while the remaining attributes scored overall negative mean ratings (Table 5.1). Locals were most satisfied with people-related attributes, but they were equally divided about cultural activities (Appendix VI.ii). The attribute with the most unsatisfied locals was sightseeing, followed by beaches and transportation. Hardly any locals were highly satisfied with entertainment, the climate or sightseeing. At the other extreme, negligibly few locals were unsatisfied with food and beverage or with shopping. Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis identified only 5 and 2 statistically significant differences at the 1% level between demographic segments out of a total possible 56 and 28 respectively (see Appendices VII.i and VII.ii and Table 5.2).

Table 5. 2 Local Place significant differences

Demographic	Sub-groups	Attribute	N	Mean	S. dev.	Mode
Gender	Females	Friendliness	102	1.55	0.875	2
	Males		103	1.12	1.149	.2
Employment	Un-employed	Cultural activities	42	0.45	1.041	1
	Employed		163	-0.13	1.166	1
Age	Below 40	Climate	130	-0.36	1.114	-1
	40 plus		75	0.20	1.090	1
	Below 40	F & B	130	0.98	1.007	1
	40 plus		75	1.32	0.888	2
	Below 40	Accommodation	130	0.40	1.104	1
	40 plus		75	0.87	0.991	1
Education	High school or less	Cultural activities	47	0.53	1.039	1
	University graduate		120	-0.14	1.140	-1
	Postgraduate		38	-0.26	1.201	1
Income p.a.	USD 0-19,999	Cultural activities	73	0.40	1.102	1
	USD 20K-39,999		66	-0.18	1.108	-1 and 1
	USD 40K-59,999		38	-0.21	1.189	-1
	USD 60K-79,999		11	-0.27	1.104	-1
	USD 80K or more		17	-0.47	1.231	-1 and 1

Local females were more satisfied with friendliness than males, unemployed locals were more satisfied with cultural activities than working locals and those aged 40 or older were more satisfied with climate, food and beverage and accommodation than younger locals. Education and income were also inversely related to satisfaction with cultural activities. With only 7 differences statistically significant at the 1% level, local responses were considered generally consistent across the sample.

Factor analysis was then attempted to reduce the 14 Place attributes (Section 4.7.2). Neither "Climate" nor "Beaches" had high correlations (above 0.30) with any of the other items in the scale. Deleting either from the scale would have slightly increased the value of Cronbach's Alpha to 0.777. All the attributes were retained, keeping this information in mind. The items had a low total of 16 inter-item correlations above 0.3 out of a possible 91. The KMO of 0.739 and a BTS significance of 0.000 supported factor analysis (DeVaus 2002; Pallant 2005). The initial five-component solution explained a total of 63.106% of the variance. MCPCA for 14 variables and 205 cases offered two eigenvalues lower than those obtained from PCA, indicating a two-component solution. Catell's Scree test concurred, with a sharp break after the second component. Since the correlation between the two components exceeded 0.3, they were rotated using Oblimin with Kaiser normalization. The result was seven and five attributes clearly loading on the first and second component respectively, "Food and Beverage" cross-loading on both components and "Climate" not loading on either. After some trial and error, the two problematic attributes were dropped and the steps were repeated. Cronbach's alpha value of 0.753 again indicated reliability. Out of 61 possible correlations, 14 exceeded 0.3. The only attribute not correlating highly with any other was "Beaches", also the only variable whose deletion would improve Cronbach's value to 0.758. The resulting solution had five components with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0. MCPCA's randomly generated data matrix for 12 variables and 205 cases offered two components whose eigenvalues were exceeded by those in the solution. Catell's Scree Plot again indicated a two-component solution with a sharp break after the second component (see Appendix VIII.i). This two-component solution had a KMO value of 0.705 and a BTS significance of 0.000. The two components explained 27.695% and 14.905% of the variance respectively (see Appendix VIII.ii). Since correlation between the two components was low

(0.276), the solution was rotated using Varimax with Kaiser normalization resulting in a clean solution with each of the 12 attributes clearly loading on either of the two components. The components appeared to have underlying themes of *activities* and *comfort* (Table 5.5), so they were called “LPACT” (Local Place Activities) and “LPCOM” (Local Place Comfort). The final summary of local Place attributes was LPACT, LPCOM, “Climate” and “Food and Beverage”. These four items were retained to be re-introduced in a logistic regression model (Section 5.7.1).

5.3.1. 2 Expatriates

Bahrain was rated positively on most attributes. Only 2 attributes had negative mean and mode responses (see Appendix VI.ii). The Mann Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests identified only 7 statistically significant differences not attributable to sample error at the 1% level out of 70 and 28 possibilities respectively, between the sample's demographic segments (Appendices VII.iii and VII.iv and Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Expatriate Place significant differences

Segment	Categories	Attribute	N	Mean	S. Dev.	Mode
Gender	Females	Cleanliness	99	-0.29	1.327	-1
	Males		103	0.62	0.981	1
	Females	Transportation	99	-0.66	1.239	-2
	Males		102	0.02	1.342	1
Employment	Un-employed	Entertainment	18	-0.39	1.145	-1
	Employed		184	0.45	1.049	1
Age	Below 40	F & B	84	1.24	0.845	1
	40 plus		118	1.54	0.675	2
	Below 40	Accommodation	84	0.77	0.949	1
	40 plus		118	1.14	0.765	1
Origin	Arab	Cleanliness	29	1.1	0.860	1
	Non-Arab		173	0.02	1.236	1
	Arab	Safety	29	1.00	1.134	2
	Non-Arab		173	0.25	1.222	1
Expatriate Place * Number of years						
Expatriate Correlation (Spearman's rho)			Years	Satisfaction		
Number of years in Bahrain	Correlation Coefficient		1.000		.202(**)	
	Sig. (two-tailed)		.		.004	
	N		202		202	
Satisfaction with F & B	Correlation Coefficient		.202(**)		1.000	
	Sig. (two-tailed)		.004		.	
	N		202		202	
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).						

Males were more satisfied with cleanliness and transportation than females, working expatriates were more satisfied with entertainment than the unemployed, expatriates aged 40 or older were more satisfied with accommodation and food and beverage than younger ones, and those of Arab origin were more satisfied with cleanliness and less satisfied with safety than others. Other than these few significant differences, expatriate satisfaction with most of the place attributes appeared generally similar across demographic segments. Relationships between attribute satisfaction and the number of years spent at the destination were explored to discover any differences in satisfaction related to familiarity. The only significant relationship at the 1% level was that with "Food and Beverage" with an SRO value of 0.202 (Table 5.3). The positive value indicated that expatriates' satisfaction was directly related to their stay in Bahrain, but that this relationship was of a low strength. The relationship with "Communication" was only significant at the 5% level and very weak in any case (SRO = 0.053 and two-tailed significance = 0.016). The remaining attributes were not significantly correlated with the number of years living in Bahrain.

Next, factor analysis was attempted to reduce the 14 attributes. Cronbach's alpha value of 0.754 could only be improved to 0.755 by dropping "Accommodation". Only 12 of the 91 correlation coefficients exceeded 0.3, the KMO value was 0.696, and the BTS was statistically significant (Sig = 0.000). "Climate", "Food and Beverage", "Beaches" and "Accommodation" had no correlations above 0.3 with other attributes. The latter in particular, had 0.191 as its highest correlation. This indicated that factor analysis might be appropriate, but some attributes might not hang well on an inclusive scale. When it was performed, "Accommodation" did not load on either of two components, jeopardizing an otherwise clean solution. Having been flagged three times, "Accommodation" was deleted. Cronbach's alpha could not be improved further, so factor analysis was repeated on the remaining 13 attributes over 197 cases. There were 12 inter-item correlations out of a possible 78, a KMO value of 0.698 and a statistically significant (Sig = 0.000) BTS. PCA produced a solution with four components with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, explaining a total of 56.54% of the variance. Catell's Scree test clearly favoured a two-component solution (see Appendix VIII.i). MCPCA also produced only two components whose eigenvalues exceeded corresponding randomly generated

eigenvalues for 13 variables and 197 cases. The two-component solution explained 26.181% and 12.441% of the variance (see Appendix VIII.iii). Upon rotation using either Varimax (component correlation was 0.256) or Oblimin with Kaiser normalization, all the variables loaded. Again, the two components appeared to focus on *things to do* and *comfort* respectively (Table 5.5), so they were named XPACT (Expatriate Place Activities) and XPCOM (Expatriate Place Comfort) (Table 5.20), and retained for re-introduction in Section 5.7.2 along with Accommodation.

5.3.1. 3 Tourists

Unlike the other two samples, tourists rated all 14 place attributes positively (Table 5.1). Excluding “Beaches”, all mode responses were positive with 10 “highly satisfactory”. Mann Whitney-U and Kruskal-Wallis identified only 3 and 1 statistically significant differences at the 1% level, out of a possible 56 and 28 (see Appendix VII.iv and Table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Tourist Place significant differences

Demo-graphic	Segment	Attribute	N	Mean	S. dev.	Mode
Age	Below 40	Accommodation	73	1.01	1.149	2
	40 plus		77	1.51	1.237	2
	Below 40	Transportation	72	0.33	1.343	1
	40 plus		78	0.95	1.237	2
	Below 40	Cultural activities	53	0.30	1.234	0
	40 plus		42	0.95	1.035	1
Tourist Place * Number of previous visits						
Tourist Correlation (Spearman's rho)			Previous visits		Satisfaction	
Nightlife						
Number of previous visits to Bahrain	Correlation Coefficient		1.000		-0.258(**)	
	Sig. (two-tailed)		.		0.007	
	N		156		110	
Satisfaction with Nightlife	Correlation Coefficient		-0.258(**)		1.000	
	Sig. (two-tailed)		0.007		.	
	N		110		156	
Communication						
Number of previous visits to Bahrain	Correlation Coefficient		1.000		-0.207(**)	
	Sig. (two-tailed)		.		0.010	
	N		156		155	
Satisfaction with Communication	Correlation Coefficient		-0.207(**)		1.000	
	Sig. (two-tailed)		0.010		.	
	N		155		156	
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).						

Older tourists were more satisfied with transportation, accommodation and cultural activities and lower earning expatriates were more satisfied with transport. SRO correlation coefficients indicated an inverse relationship significant at the 1% level between previous visitation and satisfaction with nightlife and with communication. An inverse relationship with safety was significant at the 5% level. As familiarity increases, some destination attributes become less satisfactory.

The missing values (see Appendix VI.i) presented a dilemma. For factor analysis, four scenarios were considered; substituting '0' response for the missing values, substituting the mean for the missing values, proceeding with all the attributes or dropping attributes with low response rates. The first option was dismissed because although it would have included all the respondents, values would have falsely converged around the zero, reducing the value of the standard deviation and the standard error and causing any results and conclusions to be misleading (Field 2005). The second option was dismissed for similar concerns of convergence around the mean. The third option would begin with all 14 attributes and only 50 cases, and although this number could have increased upon dropping some attributes, factor analysis was infeasible with so few cases. Components including attributes with low response rates would also severely limit later analysis. The fourth option was chosen, therefore, eliminating all low-response attributes, especially since the high occurrence of missing values in the same attributes included many who may genuinely not know the answer. A larger sample size might have accommodated a higher number of missing values. Removing "Beaches" (82 responses), "Nightlife" (49), "Cultural activities" (61) and "Sightseeing" (48) left a ten-attribute scale with 114 valid cases. This scale was reliable with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.724 (Sig = 0.000). The only possible improvement was deleting "Climate" which would have increased Cronbach's value to 0.730. This information was kept in mind. Overall, 24 correlations out of a possible 45 relationships were above 0.3. A 0.797 KMO value and a significant BTS (Sig = 0.000) supported the use of factor analysis. PCA produced only one component. MCPA also concurred, offering only one eigenvalue whose value exceeded that of the equivalent corresponding randomly generated list. The one-component solution would have explained 40.769% of the variance. All the attributes loaded on this component with the lowest being

“Climate” at a reasonable 0.481. This 10-attribute solution was set aside as a possible serious option.

Table 5.5 Place factor analysis solutions

Sample		Component 1	Component 2	Other variables
LOCALS		1. LPACT	2. LPCOM	3. Climate, and 4. F & B
1	Sightseeing	.701	.021	LPACT: Local Place Activities, LPCOM: Local Place Comfort Extraction Method: PCA. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization Rotation converged in 3 iterations
2	Entertainment	.666	.218	
3	Cultural activities	.656	.067	
4	Nightlife	.652	.153	
5	Shopping	.597	.242	
6	Beaches	.446	-.043	
7	Transportation	.406	.248	
8	Friendliness	-.083	.871	
9	Communication	-.081	.852	
10	Cleanliness	.245	.498	
11	Safety	.212	.493	
12	Accommodation	.286	.475	
EXPATRIATES		1. XPACT	2. XPCOM	3. Accommodation
1	Nightlife	.719	-.034	XPACT: Expatriate Place Activities, XPCOM: Expatriate Place Comfort Extraction Method: PCA. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.
2	Entertainment	.701	.187	
3	Cultural activities	.691	.226	
4	Sightseeing	.588	.330	
5	Shopping	.541	-.017	
6	F & B	.492	-.055	
7	Beaches	.488	.134	
8	Climate	.393	.218	
9	Communication	.017	.718	
10	Friendliness	-.044	.688	
11	Cleanliness	.152	.561	
12	Transportation	.249	.552	
13	Safety	.090	.543	
TOURISTS		1. TPLACE		2. Beaches, 3. Nightlife, 4. Cultural activities, 5. Sightseeing, and 6. Climate
1	Friendliness	.766		TPLACE: Tourist Place Extraction Method: PCA 1 components extracted.
2	Accommodation	.716		
3	Safety	.710		
4	F & B	.687		
5	Cleanliness	.654		
6	Communication	.647		
7	Entertainment	.647		
8	Shopping	.542		
9	Transportation	.509		

In a second scenario, deleting “Climate” produced a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.730 (Sig = 0.000) which could not be further improved. The 22 correlations out of a possible

36 above 0.3, a KMO of 0.787 and BTS significance of 0.000 supported factor analysis. A two-component solution explained 43.248% and 12.837% of the variance respectively. An MCPCA random list and Catell's Scree Plot (see Appendix VIII.i) both indicated a one-component solution. The one-component solution explained 43.248% of the variance, with all the items loading reasonably (Table 5.5). This solution was preferred to the ten-attribute one because of the stronger factor loadings and because it explained more of the variance. The component was named TPLACE (Tourist Place), and retained for logistic regression analysis in Section 5.7.3, along with the deleted variables.

5.3.1. 4 Expatriate positioning (Place)

Expatriate satisfaction was compared to that of both locals and tourists. Table 5.6 illustrates differences significant at the 1% level. From the 14 attributes, statistically significant differences at the 1% and 5% levels were found between satisfaction of the two resident groups with 6 and 2 attributes respectively. Expatriates were significantly (at the 1% level) more satisfied than locals with all 6 attributes. At the 5% level, expatriates were also significantly more satisfied with shopping, and even though they were satisfied with communication, they were significantly less satisfied than locals (Table 5.6). Attributes showing no significant differences, even at the 5% level, were cleanliness, safety, transportation, cultural activities, sightseeing and friendliness. The results indicate that local and expatriate residents evaluate satisfaction with the destination's place attributes quite differently, sufficiently enough to justify treating them separately.

Comparison of satisfaction levels of the two non-local groups found that tourists were statistically significantly more satisfied at the 1% level with 11 of the 14 attributes (Table 5.6). The only 3 attributes with no significant differences were food and beverage, beaches and shopping, indicating that expatriates and event tourists have very different perceptions of the destination's place attributes, and should be treated separately.

Table 5.6 Expatriate Place Positioning

Attribute	Z	Sig. ^c	Sample	N	Mean	S. dev.	Mode
Statistically significant differences between expatriates and locals							
Climate	-5.366	0.000 ^a	L	205	-0.16	1.135	1
			X	202	0.44	1.036	1
Entertainment	-5.409	0.000 ^a	L	205	-0.26	1.146	1
			X	202	0.37	1.082	1
F & B	-3.342	0.001 ^a	L	205	1.10	0.977	1
			X	202	1.42	0.763	2
Accommodation	-3.956	0.000 ^a	L	205	0.57	1.085	1
			X	202	0.99	0.864	1
Beaches	-5.454	0.000 ^a	L	203	-0.47	1.271	-1
			X	200	0.23	1.201	1
Night life	-3.954	0.000 ^a	L	203	0.10	1.177	1
			X	201	0.57	0.942	1
Statistically significant differences between expatriates and tourists							
Climate	-3.815	0.000 ^a	X	202	0.44	1.036	1
			T	154	0.81	1.161	1
Cleanliness	-9.760	0.000 ^a	X	202	0.17	1.248	1
			T	155	1.39	0.894	2
Safety	-10.477	0.000 ^a	X	202	0.36	1.235	1
			T	155	1.61	0.777	2
Entertainment	-4.453	0.000 ^a	X	202	0.37	1.082	1
			T	141	0.89	1.012	1
Transportation	-6.449	0.000 ^a	X	201	-0.31	1.333	-2
			T	150	0.65	1.321	2
Accommodation	-4.304	0.000 ^a	X	202	0.99	0.864	1
			T	150	1.27	1.060	2
Night life	-3.630	0.000 ^a	X	201	0.57	0.942	1
			T	110	0.94	1.094	2
Cultural Activities	-3.206	0.001 ^a	X	202	0.12	1.161	1
			T	95	0.59	1.189	1
Sightseeing	-6.441	0.000 ^a	X	201	-0.31	1.206	1
			T	109	0.66	1.132	1
Friendliness	-2.665	0.008 ^a	X	202	1.45	0.852	2
			T	156	1.58	0.895	2
Communication	-4.832	0.000 ^a	X	201	1.15	0.899	1
			T	155	1.48	0.900	2
a = statistically significant at the 0.01 level, b = statistically significant at the 0.05 level c = Asymptotic significance (two-tailed) L = local, X = expatriate, T = event tourist							

5.3.1.5 Place summary

The following is a summary of the Place attributes results:

1. **Climate:** Tourists were significantly more satisfied with this attribute than expatriates who were in turn significantly more satisfied than locals. There were no differences within the tourist sample (mean = 0.81) of which 72.1% were satisfied

(answered 1 or 2 on the attitude scale) while only 19.5% were unsatisfied (answered -1 or -2 on the scale). This may be because the research did not take part during the 2 hottest months of the year, so tourists were not exposed to the extreme summer temperatures. There were no differences within the expatriate sample (mean = 0.44), of which 65.3% were satisfied while 25.3% were unsatisfied. Among locals, only 41% were satisfied, while 47.3% were unsatisfied. Older locals were significantly more satisfied (mean = 0.20) than those younger than 40 who were unsatisfied (mean = -0.36).

2. Cleanliness: Tourists were significantly more satisfied with this attribute than both resident groups. There were no differences within the tourist sample (mean = 1.39) of which 89.7% were satisfied while only 7.7% were unsatisfied. 58.1% of tourists were highly satisfied. There were no differences within the local sample either (mean = 0.29). 54.1% of locals were satisfied, while 27.8% were unsatisfied. Among expatriates (mean = 0.17), males were satisfied (mean = 0.62) while females were not (mean = -0.29). Expatriates of Arab origin (mean = 1.1) were significantly more satisfied than others (mean = 0.02). 53.5% of expatriates were satisfied while 25.3% were unsatisfied.

3. Safety: Tourists were significantly more satisfied with safety than both resident groups. This was the highest rated attribute by tourists (mean = 1.61) and there were no differences within the tourist sample of which 92.3% were satisfied while only 19.5% were unsatisfied. 72.9% of the tourist sample was highly satisfied. Among expatriates (mean = 0.36), there was a significant difference between those of Arab origin (mean = 1.00) and others (mean = 0.25). 57.4% of expatriates were satisfied while 31.7% were unsatisfied. Among locals, 57.1% were satisfied, while 28.8% were unsatisfied. There were no differences within the local sample (mean = 0.35).

4. Entertainment: Tourists were significantly more satisfied with this attribute than expatriates who were in turn significantly more satisfied than locals. There were no differences within the tourist sample (mean = 0.89) of which 72.1% were satisfied while only 19.5% were unsatisfied. Employed expatriates were significantly more satisfied (mean = 0.45) than unemployed ones (mean = -0.39). 56.5% of expatriates were satisfied while 27.8% were unsatisfied. Expatriate mean satisfaction was 0.37. Locals were unsatisfied with entertainment. Among locals, only 37.6% were

satisfied, while 48.8% were unsatisfied. There were no differences within the local sample (mean = -0.26).

5. Food and beverage: All three groups were satisfied. Expatriates were the most satisfied group, significantly more satisfied than locals but not tourists. Of the expatriate sample, 94.6% were satisfied, while only 4.0% were unsatisfied. This group was very satisfied (mean = 1.42). Older expatriates were significantly more satisfied (mean = 1.54) than those younger than 40 (1.24). There were no differences within the tourist sample (mean = 1.29) of which 86.4% were satisfied while only 7.1% were unsatisfied. Of the local sample, 82% were satisfied while 10.2% were unsatisfied. Older locals were significantly more satisfied (mean = 1.32) than younger locals (mean = 0.98). This attribute was rated fifth highest by tourists, second highest by expatriates and third highest by locals. This is clearly one of Bahrain's strengths.

6. Transport: Tourists were the only satisfied group and they were significantly more satisfied than both resident groups. Older tourists were significantly more satisfied (mean = 0.95) than younger tourists (mean = 0.33). Of the tourist group, 64.7% were satisfied while 21.4% were unsatisfied. Overall tourist mean satisfaction was 0.65. Although this is positive, it is actually tourists' third lowest rated place attribute. The second group was expatriates (mean = -0.31). Female expatriates were significantly more unsatisfied (mean = -0.66) than males who were ambivalent (mean = 0.02). Only 32.4% of expatriates were satisfied, while 48.3% were unsatisfied. Transport tied for the position of least satisfactory attribute for expatriates. There were no differences within the local sample (mean = -0.9), for whom this was the lowest rated attribute. 40.5% were satisfied while 43.9% were unsatisfied. Results indicate that this is the destination's weakest attribute, and needs to be addressed to increase satisfaction of both residents and tourists.

7. Accommodation: Tourists (mean = 1.27) were significantly more satisfied than expatriates (mean = 0.99) who were significantly more satisfied than locals (mean = 0.57). 72.1% of tourists were satisfied while 19.5% were unsatisfied. Older tourists were significantly more satisfied (mean = 1.51) than younger tourists (1.01). Satisfaction was significantly higher among expatriates 40 or older (mean = 1.14) than younger ones (0.77). 80.7% of expatriates were satisfied while only 6.9% were

unsatisfied. Similarly, satisfaction was significantly higher among locals aged 40 or over (mean = 0.87) than those younger (mean = 0.40). 63.4% of locals were satisfied while 20.5% were unsatisfied. In general, accommodation appears more satisfactory to people over 40.

8. **Beaches:** Tourists (mean = 0.32) were the most satisfied out of the three groups, followed by expatriates (mean = 0.23) who were significantly more satisfied than locals (mean = -0.47). Only 39.2% of tourists were satisfied while 20.3% were not, but these results come from only 47.4% of the tourist sample, as the remainder did not respond to this question. Among expatriates, 50.5% were satisfied while 30.5% were not. Among locals, only 27.1% were satisfied while 55.2% were not satisfied. This attribute was rated 5th lowest of the 14 place attributes by expatriates and 3rd lowest by locals. Generally, this is a destination weakness.

9. **Nightlife:** This attribute was rated highest by tourists (mean = 0.94), who were significantly more satisfied than expatriates (mean = 0.57) who in turn were significantly more satisfied than locals (mean = 0.10). Of tourists, 71.8% were satisfied and 11.2% were not. There were no differences within the tourist group. 61.7% of expatriates were satisfied while 16.9% were not. 45.8% of locals were satisfied while 32.5% of locals were not.

10. **Cultural activities:** This attribute was rated highest by tourists (mean = 0.59), who were significantly more satisfied than expatriates (mean = 0.12), who were more satisfied than locals (mean = 0.10). Only 60.9% of the tourist sample responded to this question. Of tourists, 56.8% were satisfied while 16.9% were not. Older tourists were significantly more satisfied (mean = 0.95) than younger ones (mean = 0.30). Among expatriates, 46.5% were satisfied while 34.2% were not. Among locals, 42% were satisfied, while 40% were unsatisfied. Local satisfaction was inversely related with education level. Although those with a high school education or less were satisfied (mean = 0.53), university graduates and postgraduates were not, with mean satisfaction levels of -0.14 and -0.26 respectively. Unemployed locals were also more satisfied (mean = 0.45) than working locals (mean = -0.13). Local satisfaction is consistently inversely related to income level. There is a need for cultural activities that appeal to more educated higher-earning locals.

11. Shopping: This attribute was rated highest by expatriates (mean = 1.05), then by tourists (mean = 0.89). Expatriates were significantly more satisfied than locals (mean = 0.80) at the 5% level. Among expatriates, 81.7% were satisfied while only 6.4% were unsatisfied. 72.7% of tourists were satisfied while only 16.4% were unsatisfied. Among locals, 74.64% were satisfied while only 17.1% were unsatisfied. There are no differences within any of the samples. This attribute is a strength of the destination. Although it is only rated fourth highest by both resident groups and ties for eighth place for tourists, it has very few unsatisfied respondents.

12. Sightseeing: This attribute was rated highest by tourists (mean = 0.66), who were significantly more satisfied than expatriates (mean = -0.31) who in turn were more satisfied than locals (mean = -0.53). Only 69.9% of the tourist sample responded to this question. 64.2% of tourists were satisfied while 14.4% were unsatisfied. However, only 33.8% of expatriates were satisfied while 47.3% were unsatisfied. And among locals, only 24.8% were satisfied while 58.5% were not. There were no significant differences within any of the groups. For residents, this is a weakness.

13. Friendliness: This attribute was rated highest by tourists (mean = 1.58) which was significantly higher than expatriates (mean = 1.45) who were more satisfied than locals (mean = 1.33). Of tourists, 92.9% were satisfied and only 6.4% were unsatisfied. 73.7% of tourists were highly satisfied. Among expatriates, 92.6% were satisfied and 4.5% were unsatisfied. 58.9% of the expatriate sample was highly satisfied. Among locals, 86.34% were satisfied and 5.9% were unsatisfied. 51.2% were highly satisfied. Female locals were significantly more satisfied (mean = 1.55) than male locals (mean = 1.12). This attribute was rated the second most satisfactory attribute by tourists and the highest by both resident groups and it has very low dissatisfaction. This is clearly another destination strength.

14. Communication: This attribute was rated highest by tourists (mean = 1.48) who were more satisfied than locals (1.29). Both samples were significantly more satisfied than expatriates (mean = 1.15), but locals only at the 5% level. 91.7% of tourists were satisfied while 5.8% were unsatisfied. 65.2% of tourists were highly satisfied. Among locals, 86.8% were satisfied while 5.9% were unsatisfied. Among expatriates, 86.6% were satisfied while 6.5% were unsatisfied. The data indicates that this is another strength of the destination, with very low dissatisfaction.

The three samples were most satisfied with “Friendliness” and “Communication” followed by “Food and Beverage”. The least satisfactory attributes were “Transport”, “Beaches”, “Sightseeing” and “Cultural activities”. Overall, tourists were the most satisfied of the three samples, followed by expatriate residents. In general, destination attributes appear to be more satisfactory to respondents over 40.

5.3. 2 Attractions satisfaction

The second scale to be considered was the Attractions scale which consisted of the destination’s attractions attributes. Response rates were 98.5%, 99.5% and 53.2% from the local, expatriate and tourist samples respectively. Cronbach’s alpha values of 0.864, 0.894 and 0.947 for the three samples and 0.913 over all three samples indicated the scale’s reliability. 77 non-responses to the 6-item scale included 73 in the tourist group.

Table 5. 7 Attractions mean satisfaction

Mean	Locals	Expatriates	Tourists
1			Standard of SS (1)
0.79			SS Facilities (1)
0.65			VARIETY OF SS (1), <i>Information at SS (1)</i>
0.63			Information about SS(1)
0.59			Number of SS (1)
-0.09		Standard of SS (2)	
-0.25		Information about SS (2)	
-0.27	Standard of SS (3)		
-0.3		<i>Information at SS(2)</i>	
-0.39		SS Facilities (2)	
	Information about SS(3)		
-0.42	<i>Information at SS (3)</i>		
-0.52		Number of SS (2)	
-0.54	SS Facilities (2)		
-0.58	Number of SS (3)		
-0.64	VARIETY OF SS (3)	VARIETY OF SS (2)	
Note: SS= Sights			
Numbers between brackets indicate group order: (1) = highest, (2) = middle, (3) = lowest			

5.3.2. 1 Locals

Locals were dissatisfied with all Attractions attributes (Table 5.7). The Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests found statistically significant differences at the 1% level (see Appendices VII.i and VII.ii). Working locals were more dissatisfied with “Facilities at sights” than unemployed locals and married locals were more dissatisfied with facilities at sights than single locals (Table 5.8). There were eight differences at the 5% level.

Table 5.8 Local Attractions significant differences

Demographic	Sub-groups	Attribute	N	Mean	S. dev.	Mode
Marital status	Single	Facilities at sights	83	-0.29	1.088	-1 and 1
	Married		120	-0.71	1.056	-1
Employment	Un-employed		41	-0.12	1.077	1
	Employed		162	-0.64	1.067	-1

Factor analysis was performed on the six Attractions attributes. The 15 correlation coefficients all exceeded 0.3, ranging from 0.333 to 0.760, the KMO value was 0.783 and BTS was statistically significant (Sig = 0.000), indicating that the factors hung well together and that factor analysis would be appropriate. PCA produced two components with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0 that explained 59.38% and 18.90% of the variance respectively. Catell’s Scree test indicated that one or two factors may work, with two sharp breaks (see Appendix VIII.i). MCPCA produced two components with eigenvalues exceeding corresponding randomly generated eigenvalues for six variables and 202 cases. Two components were initially retained and rotated with Oblimin with Kaiser normalization (correlation = 0.457). Three attributes loaded clearly on the first component, two attributes loaded clearly on the second and the sixth loaded on both favouring the first. In a one-component solution all the attributes loaded highly (Table 5.11), so it was named LATT (Local Attractions) and retained for further analysis in Section 5.7.1.

5.3.2. 2 Expatriates

Mean satisfaction levels indicated that, like locals, expatriates were not satisfied with any Attractions attributes (Table 5.7). Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests found significant differences, at the 1% level, between demographics' categories (see Appendices VII.iii and VII.iv). Males were significantly more satisfied with four attributes than females (Table 5.9) who were dissatisfied with all four. There were no significant differences associated with familiarity.

Table 5.9 Expatriate Attractions significant differences

Demographic		N	Attribute	Mean	S. dev.	Mode
Gender	Male	103	Standard of sights	0.17	1.039	1
	Female	99		-0.36	1.182	-1
	Male	103	Information about sights	0.00	1.129	1
	Female	99		-0.52	1.224	-1
	Male	103	Information at sights	0.02	1.075	1
	Female	99		-0.63	1.200	-1
	Male	102	Facilities at sights	-0.07	1.101	1
	Female	99		-0.73	1.123	-1

Factor analysis was performed on expatriate data. The resulting 15 correlation coefficients all ranged between 0.432 to 0.828, the KMO value was 0.804, and BTS was statistically significant (Sig = 0.000) and Cronbach's alpha of 0.894 could not be improved by deleting any attributes, so factor analysis was appropriate. Over 201 valid cases, PCA produced only one component whose eigenvalue exceeded 1.0, explaining 65.398% of the variance, and Catell's Scree test also indicated that only one component would be appropriate (see Appendix VIII.i). MCPCA showed two components whose eigenvalues exceeded corresponding randomly generated eigenvalues for six variables and 201 cases. All six attributes loaded heavily on the one component (Table 5.11), so it was considered representative of all expatriate Attractions attributes, named XATT (Expatriate Attractions) and retained for reintroduction in Section 5.7.2.

5.3.2. 3 Tourists

Invalid tourist responses (Section 5.3.2) were not due to any particular attribute, but were actually non-responses to all Attractions attributes, including 60 "I don't

know”. This was interesting when considering that the “Sightseeing” attribute in the previous section received 109 responses. Tourists who did respond were satisfied with all Attractions attributes, especially their standard. The Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests (see Appendices VII.v and VII.vi) identified statistically significant differences. At the 1% level, first-timers were more satisfied with the number of sights than other tourists. The relationship between satisfaction with attractions and previous visitation was explored further using the SRO correlation coefficient. Results indicated an inverse but weak correlation (Table 5.10), significant at the 5% level only, between the number of previous visits (0, 1, 2-3 or 4+) and satisfaction with the number of sights. Generally, satisfaction with this attribute decreased among those with more experience of the destination, but a dip in satisfaction levels appeared among second-time visitors. No differences were found in satisfaction between “sponsored” and “self-paying” event tourists.

Table 5. 10 Tourists Attractions significant differences

Demographic	Categories	Attribute	N	Mean	S. dev.	Mode
Previous experience	First time visitor	Number of sights	37	1.00	1.155	2
	Visited before		51	0.29	1.171	0 and 1
Tourist Attractions * number of visits						
Tourist Correlation (Spearman's rho)			Previous experience	Satisfaction with number of sights		
Number of previous visits to Bahrain	Correlation Coefficient		1.000		-0.256(*)	
	Sig. (two-tailed)		.		0.016	
	N		88		88	
Satisfaction with Number of sights	Correlation Coefficient		-0.256(*)		1.000	
	Sig. (two-tailed)		0.016		.	
	N		88		156	
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).						

The low tourist response rate to this section must be noted. None of the items had fewer than 37.8% missing values, which is consistent with the 30.1% non-responses to the “Sightseeing” item in the Place scale. A few respondents from this group expressed ignorance about tourist attractions and that they didn’t see much during their visit. It is a shame that some organizers apparently did not integrate tours into their programme or designate enough time off for participants to explore on their

own, depriving tourists of the opportunity to experience more of the country, and the destination of the opportunity to impress visitors. Although fewer than 50% of all tourist respondents stayed for longer than 5 days (see Appendix V.iv), more than 38% stayed for at least a week, which should have allowed time for those interested to take in some sights. Considering that more than half of them had already visited Bahrain at least once, this is a very high number. Factor analysis could not be performed because of the low number of responses to this section (Section 4.7.2).

Table 5. 11 Attractions factor analysis solutions

Sample	Place Attributes	Component	
LOCALS		LATT	LATT: Local Attractions Extraction Method: Principal component analysis. 1 component extracted.
1	Information at sights	.822	
2	Facilities at sights	.801	
3	Standard of sights	.800	
4	Information about sights	.780	
5	Variety of sights	.707	
6	Number of sights	.705	
EXPATRIATES		XATT	XATT: Expatriate Attractions Extraction Method: Principal component analysis. 1 component extracted.
1	Information at sights	.859	
2	Information about sights	.818	
3	Standard of sights	.817	
4	Variety of sights	.806	
5	Facilities at sights	.793	
6	Number of sights	.757	
TOURISTS		Factor analysis not possible	

5.3.2. 4 Expatriate positioning (Attractions)

An initial comparison of the three samples using Kruskal-Wallis identified statistically significant differences at the 1% level between satisfaction with every single Attractions attribute. Mann-Whitney U found no statistically significant differences between local and expatriate satisfaction with any of the Attractions attributes, not even at the 5% level. Both resident types evaluate attractions similarly and may, therefore, be combined into one sample. On the other hand, tourists were significantly (at the 1% level) more satisfied than expatriates with every single one of the six attributes (Table 5.7). Hence, expatriates evaluate attractions very

differently from tourists and should not be considered representative of them nor be combined with them when evaluating attractions.

Table 5. 12 Expatriate Attractions positioning

Attribute	Sig. ^c	Sample	Mean	S. dev.	Mode
Standard of sights	0.000 ^a	X	-0.09	1.140	1
		T	1.00	1.095	2
Information about sights	0.000 ^a	X	-0.25	1.201	1
		T	0.63	1.175	1
Information at sights	0.000 ^a	X	-0.30	1.181	1
		T	0.65	1.192	1
Facilities at sights	0.000 ^a	X	-0.39	1.157	-1
		T	0.79	1.011	1
Number of sights	0.000 ^a	X	-0.52	1.116	-1
		T	0.59	1.201	1 & 2
Variety of sights	0.000 ^a	X	-0.60	1.066	-1
		T	0.65	11.85	2

5.3.2. 5 Attractions summary

According to the results (Table 5.12), tourists were significantly more satisfied than expatriates with every single one of the six attributes. Expatriates were more satisfied than locals in five out of the six attributes (Table 5.7) and rated the “variety of sights” equally, but these differences were not significant. Tourists were satisfied with their standard (satisfied = 73.7%, mean = 1.00), facilities (satisfied = 42.7%, mean = 0.79), variety (satisfied = 58.1%, mean = 0.65), information at sights (satisfied = 63.2%, 0.65), information about sights (satisfied = 61.9%, mean = 0.63) and their number (satisfied = 56.8%, 0.59). Satisfaction with the number of sights was higher among first time visitors. There were differences between younger and older tourists at the 5% level, in most attributes. Many tourists stated that they didn’t have time to see anything and only 56.4% of the sample responded to all sight-related attributes.

Despite the difference between tourists and residents, the standard of sights was the highest rated attribute by all three samples. The order of attributes was the same for both residents groups (Table 5.7). Expatriates were more unsatisfied than satisfied with every single attribute, and female expatriates were significantly more

unsatisfied than males with each of the last four attributes. Married locals and employed locals were more unsatisfied with sights facilities than single and unemployed locals respectively. Although sights are rated positively by tourists, residents are not satisfied, and feel that there should be more sights and different ones, there should be better information both about and at the sights, and that facilities need improvement. Someone seeking information might ask for such information, and negative WOM about sights might be very discouraging. This is an issue that requires attention.

5.3. 3 Costs satisfaction

This section of the questionnaire, addressing cost attributes had a 94.8% response rate and a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.827 for the combined samples indicating a very reliable scale. Response rates were 100%, 99% and 82.7% and individual Cronbach's alpha values were 0.809, 0.705 and 0.916 for locals, expatriates and event tourists respectively. Responses are summarized in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Costs mean satisfaction

Mean	Locals	Expatriates	Tourists
1		F&B (1)	
0.57	F&B (2)	Shopping (1)	
0.48		Entertainment (1)	
0.43	Shopping (2)		
0.33		Sightseeing (1)	
0.27			F&B (3)
0.15	Entertainment (2)		
0.13	Sightseeing (2)		
0.1	Transport (1)		
0.09			Entertainment (3)
0.04			Sightseeing (3)
0.03		Transport (2)	
-0.05		Accommodation (1)	Accommodation (1)
-0.07			Shopping (3)
-0.1	Accommodation (3)		
-0.17			Transport (3)

Note: Numbers between brackets indicate group order:
(1) = highest, (2) = middle, (3) = lowest

5.3.3. 1 Locals

Locals rated most costs positively (Table 5.13). The cost with the highest percentage of unsatisfied respondents was accommodation (38%). Shopping was rated positively by 64.4%, and more locals were satisfied than unsatisfied with every cost attribute. There were no statistically significant differences between the various demographic categories (see Appendices VII.i and VII.ii), indicating a consistency in the way locals perceive costs.

Factor analysis was explored. Out of 15 inter-item correlation coefficients, 13 exceeded 0.3, Cronbach's alpha of 0.809 (Sig = 0.000) could not be improved by deleting any of the attributes, a KMO value of 0.820, and a significant BTS (Sig = 0.000) supported factor analysis. PCA produced only one component whose eigenvalue exceeded 1.0, which would explain 51.525% of the variance, and Catell's Scree test also clearly favoured a one-component solution (see Appendix VIII.i). MCPCA concurred, offering only one component whose eigenvalue exceeded corresponding randomly generated eigenvalues for six variables and 205 cases. All six attributes loaded well on one component (Table 5.16), so it was considered a good representative of all local Cost attributes. This new variable was called LCOST (Local Costs) and retained for logistic regression analysis in Section 5.7.1.

5.3.3. 2 Expatriates

At first glance, expatriate results were similar to those from locals (Table 5.13). Here also, more respondents were satisfied than unsatisfied with every cost attribute. The one with the most unsatisfied was accommodation. The most satisfactory cost by far was food and beverage, which 81.7% rated positively. Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests (see Appendices VII.iii and VII.iv) found males significantly (at the 1% level) more satisfied than females with transport cost (Table 5.14). At the 5% level, older expatriates were more satisfied with cost of food and beverage (mean = 1.05) than others (mean = 0.92). Otherwise, expatriates perceived costs quite consistently.

Table 5.14 Expatriate Costs significant differences

Demographic	Categories	Cost	N	Mean	S. dev.	Mode	Median
Gender	Male	Transport	103	0.30	1.128	1	1
	Female		99	-0.24	1.205	1	0

Out of the 15 inter-item correlation coefficients, 7 exceeded 0.3, and the Cronbach's alpha value of 0.705 couldn't be improved by deleting any of the attributes. The KMO value was 0.737, and the BTS was statistically significant (Sig = 0.000), so factor analysis was performed. PCA produced two components whose eigenvalues exceeded 1.0, explaining 40.947% and 17.982% of the variance respectively. Catell's Scree test favoured a one-component solution (see Appendix VIII.i). MCPCA identified one component whose eigenvalue exceeded corresponding randomly generated eigenvalues for six variables and 200 cases. Varimax rotation of the two-component solution resulted in "Entertainment" and "Accommodation" cross-loading, the former more heavily on the first component and the latter less clearly. Since correlation between the components was 0.333, Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalization was also performed. In this solution, "Accommodation cost" cross-loaded the most, favouring the second component. All six costs loaded heavily on the first component while four of them also loaded somewhat on the second. Attempts at a one-component solution were more successful (see Appendix VIII.iii), with the lowest factor loading being 0.567 (Table 5.16), so the latter was preferred. This component was named XCOST (Expatriate Costs) and retained for further analysis in Section 5.7.2.

5.3.3. 3 Tourists

Although tourists gave positive mode responses of "somewhat satisfactory" to all costs except sightseeing, mean satisfaction levels were low overall (Table 5.13). There were almost equal numbers of satisfied and unsatisfied tourists with costs of accommodation, shopping and accommodation. Food and beverage cost was the most satisfactory cost, like the other samples. The Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests identified statistically significant differences at the 1% level (see Appendices VII.vi and VII.vii). As Table 5.15 shows, older tourists were more

satisfied with transport, shopping and entertainment costs. Those of Arab origin were more satisfied with sightseeing costs. Satisfaction with all costs increased with education. In fact, only the highest educated were satisfied. It is also interesting that no significant differences were found between cost satisfaction and event sponsorship, despite both items being monetary. There were also no differences related to familiarity. Age and education were the most significant differentiators.

Table 5.15 Tourist Costs significant differences

Demographic	Categories	Cost attribute	N	Mean	S. dev.	Mode
Age	Below 40	Transport	74	-0.51	1.295	-2
	40 plus		76	0.17	1.204	1
	Below 40	Shopping	72	-0.47	1.175	-1
	40 plus		72	0.33	1.222	1
	Below 40	Entertainment	69	-0.23	1.226	-1
	40 plus		71	0.41	1.154	1
Origin	Arab	Sightseeing	46	0.39	1.063	0 and 1
	Non-Arab		93	-0.15	1.291	0
Education	A	Accommodation	11	-0.45	1.440	-1
	B		84	-0.29	1.218	-1
	C		54	0.39	1.338	1
	A	Transport	12	-1.08	1.311	-2
	B		84	-0.35	1.167	-1
	C		53	0.36	1.287	1
	A	F & B	12	-0.33	1.497	-1
	B		85	-0.13	1.280	-1
	C		55	1.02	0.952	1
	A	Entertainment	12	-0.33	1.303	-1
	B		76	-0.32	1.157	-1 and 0
	C		51	0.76	0.992	1
	A	Shopping	10	-0.70	1.337	-1
	B		82	-0.43	1.155	-1
	C		51	0.65	1.110	1
	A	Sightseeing	10	-0.80	1.135	-1
	B		77	-0.26	1.031	0
	C		52	0.65	1.101	1
A = High school or less B = University graduate C = Post-graduate						

The Cronbach's alpha value of 0.916 over 129 valid responses indicated reliability and could not be improved by any deletions. The resulting 15 correlation coefficients all exceeded 0.3, ranging between 0.488 and 0.772, the KMO value was 0.851, and the BTS was statistically significant (Sig = 0.000), all of which supported factor analysis. PCA produced only one component whose eigenvalue exceeded 1.0, which

would explain 69.371% of the variance and Catell's Scree test also clearly indicated only one component with a sharp break (see Appendix VIII.i). Since the second eigenvalue was only 0.692, it was not necessary to perform MCPA. All six attributes loaded on the one component, with a factor loading low of 0.774 (Table 5.16) so this component which explained 69.37% of the variance was accepted to represent tourist cost satisfaction and the variable was named TCOST (Tourist Costs) and retained for analysis in Section 5.7.3.

Table 5. 16 Costs factor analysis solutions

Sample	Costs Attributes	Component	
LOCALS		LCOST	Extraction Method: Principal component analysis. 1 component extracted. LCOST = Local Costs
1	Shopping	.783	
2	Entertainment	.769	
3	F&B	.764	
4	Accommodation	.714	
5	Sightseeing	.638	
6	Transport	.622	
EXPATRIATES		XCOST	Extraction Method: Principal component analysis. 1 component extracted. XCOST: Expatriate Costs
1	Entertainment	.726	
2	Shopping	.650	
3	Accommodation	.636	
4	F&B	.634	
5	Transport	.616	
6	Sightseeing	.567	
TOURISTS		TCOST	Extraction Method: Principal component analysis. 1 component extracted. TCOST = Event Tourist Costs
1	Entertainment	.892	
2	Food & Beverage	.859	
3	Sightseeing	.853	
4	Shopping	.830	
5	Transport	.783	
6	Accommodation	.774	

5.3.3. 4 Expatriate positioning (Costs)

The Kruskal-Wallis test identified statistically significant differences between the samples at the 1% level in satisfaction with three of the costs attributes. Investigating these attributes further, Mann-Whitney U found that expatriate satisfaction with costs of food and beverage and entertainment was significantly higher than that of

locals, and expatriates were significantly more satisfied than tourists with the above two costs in addition to shopping cost (Table 5.17). Hence, expatriates evaluate costs somewhat differently from tourists. This concurs with findings from the previous sections that expatriate and tourists should be considered separately. The differences between the three samples indicated a different approach to cost, which confirmed the need to study expatriates separately from both the other two groups.

Table 5. 17 Expatriate Costs positioning

Attribute	Z	Sig. ^c	Sample	N	Mean	S. dev.	Mode
Statistically significant differences between expatriates and locals							
Food & Beverage	-3.646	0.000 ^a	L	205	0.57	1.155	1
			X	202	1.00	0.878	1
Entertainment	-3.276	0.001 ^a	L	205	0.15	1.079	1
			X	201	0.48	0.954	1
Statistically significant differences between expatriates and tourists							
Food & Beverage	-5.127	0.000 ^a	X	202	0.57	0.878	1
			T	153	0.27	1.309	1
Entertainment	-3.082	0.002 ^a	X	201	0.48	0.954	1
			T	140	0.09	1.229	1
Shopping	-4.849	0.000 ^a	X	202	0.57	1.021	1
			T	144	-0.07	1.261	1
a = statistically significant at the 0.01 level, c= Asymptotic significance (two-tailed) L= local, X= expatriate, T=event tourist							

5.3.3. 5 Costs summary

The results indicated that satisfaction with costs was generally positive, with food and beverages rated the most satisfactory cost by all three samples (Table 5.13). Amongst tourists, satisfaction levels with all six cost attributes were directly related to education, and satisfaction with costs of transport, shopping and entertainment were all significantly higher among those over 40. Tourist satisfaction with some costs increased with age and education, and satisfaction with sightseeing cost was significantly higher among those of Arab origin. Expatriate satisfaction with costs of food and beverage and of entertainment was significantly higher than that of locals and expatriate satisfaction with shopping, food and beverage and entertainment were all significantly higher than that of tourists. Accommodation and transport were the two least satisfactory costs to residents, the latter also tourists' least satisfactory cost.

5.3. 4 Event satisfaction

Tourists' mode evaluations of all event-related attributes were all positive, although mean satisfaction could be improved (Table 5.18). The results indicate that tourists were satisfied with all six event-related attributes. A comparison of satisfaction levels identifies the weakest aspect of a satisfactory event product as event marketing and promotion, which is followed by information before the event and event attendance cost, although 78.3% of event tourists were satisfied with the overall event experience. Both of the former attributes are generally under the control of event organizers, while the visa process, which is more a destination policy matter than an event matter, was satisfactory to 77.3% of respondents. 73.5% of respondents were satisfied with the organization of the event they were attending, which reflects the ability to hold successful events. The various events where data was collected were organized by different bodies (see Appendix IV.ii), and responses were positive overall, which is encouraging. Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests (see Appendices VII.vii and VII.viii) found that at the 5% level, first-time visitors were less satisfied (mean = 0.34) with "information before the event" than those who had visited Bahrain before (mean = 0.82). No other significant differences were found.

Table 5.18 Tourist Event mean satisfaction

Attribute	Mean	S. dev
Visa process	1.19	1.155
Event organization	0.99	1.160
Overall event experience	0.97	1.088
Information during event	0.92	1.139
Information before event	0.59	1.206
Event attendance cost	0.55	1.229
Event marketing & promotion	0.42	1.184

The seven event items were tested as a scale. Cronbach's alpha value of 0.854 indicated reliability and could not be improved by deleting any attributes. 19 out of 21 possible inter-item correlations exceeded 0.3. Retaining all seven attributes would include 120 valid responses (76.9% of all responses). "Cost of attendance" was the item with the lowest response rate and deleting it would have increased f valid response rates to 81.4% but reduced Cronbach's alpha to 0.838, so all seven items were retained for the time being. The KMO value of 0.846 and statistically

significant BTS (Sig = 0.000) supported using factor analysis. PCA produced only one component whose eigenvalue exceeded 1.0 with a value of 3.746, explaining 53.517% of the variance. Catell's Scree test also clearly indicated only one component with a sharp angle (see Appendix VIII.i). Since the second eigenvalue was only 0.836, it was not necessary to use Parallel Analysis. All seven attributes loaded on that component (Table 5.19), so it was accepted and named TEVENT (Tourists Event) and retained for logistic regression analysis in Section 5.7.1.

Table 5.19 Tourist Event factor analysis solution

Event Attribute	Component	
	TEVENT	
Overall event experience	.813	Extraction Method: Principal component analysis. a 1 components extracted
Event organization	.790	
Information during event	.760	
Information before event	.737	
Event attendance cost	.709	
Event marketing & promotion	.700	
Visa process	.589	

With the exception of tourist evaluations of attractions, the number of attributes has been successfully reduced in every theme by collapsing them into fewer satisfaction variables for each sample (Table 5.20). These variables, together with the deleted variables from each scale, will all reappear in Section 5.7, as independent variables in an exploratory investigation of brand loyalty prediction.

Table 5.20 Summary of satisfaction variables

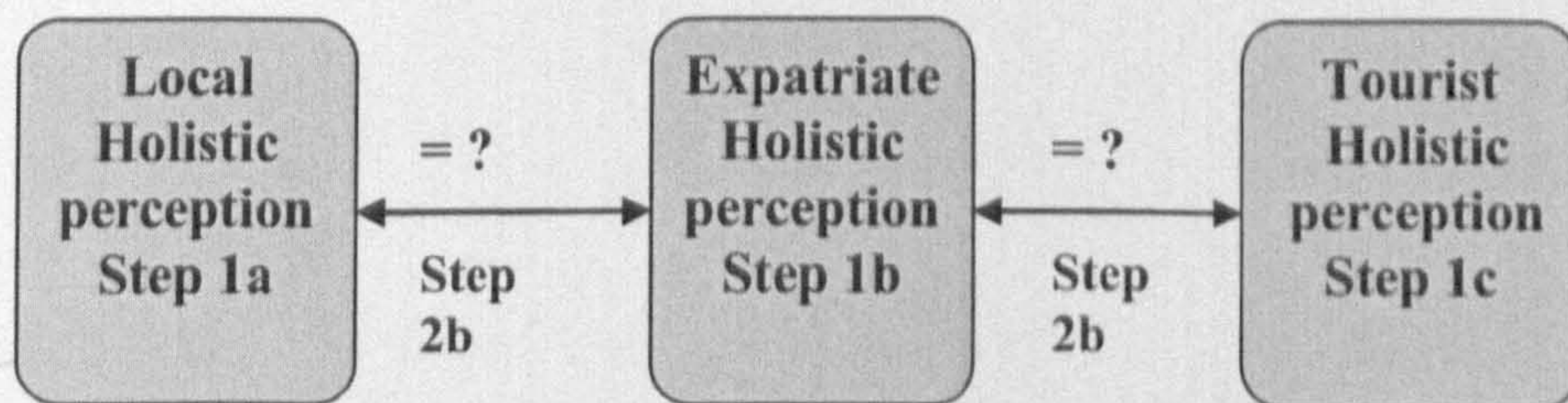
	Locals	Expatriates	Tourists
Place	LPACT, LPCOM, Climate, F & B	XPACT, XPCOM, Accommodation	TPLACE, Climate, Beaches, Nightlife, Cultural activities, Sightseeing
Attractions	LATT	XATT	----
Costs	LCOST	XCOST	TCOST
Event	n/a ^a	n/a	TEVENT
a: not applicable			

The cognitive elements of the destination image have been the nucleus of the discussion so far. This micro focus will now broaden to the macro holistic perceptions of the destination image.

5.4 Holistic Perception

As stated in Section 4.7.3, Sections 5.4.1 through 5.4.4 aim to discover how the destination is holistically perceived, specifically addressing the question RQ2 (Section 3.7): *What is the holistic perception of the destination?* Respondents' perceptions, expressed through the words chosen from a list of 34 "adjectives", will be presented and analyzed to better understand how the destination is perceived by locals, expatriates and event tourists. For each sample, words are compared to those used to describe Dubai, to understand the position the destination occupies in its consumers' minds. As with the previous sections, demographic sub-groups are compared within each sample and the position of expatriates is investigated. Figure 5.2 illustrates the main analysis, which is equivalent to step 1c in Figure 4.4. Tourists' perceptions of general categories compared to expectations are also presented and reduced using factor analysis. All these variables are then set aside for entry into logistic regression prediction models in Section 5.7.

Figure 5.2 Holistic perception data analysis plan



The total number of words (Table 5.21) used to describe Bahrain were 1060, 998 and 670 by locals, expatriates and tourists respectively, which translated into expected frequencies of 31.17, 29.35 and 19.71 for each word respectively, if the choice was random. Words were therefore considered to have been chosen to describe Bahrain if

they were used at least 32, 30 and 20 times by locals, expatriates and tourists. The reasons for including all the words used by respondents have already been discussed in Section 4.7.3. Dubai was described by a total of 1016, 928 and 417 words by locals, expatriates and tourists. Expected frequencies of 29.88, 27.29 and 12.26 meant that a word would be considered “chosen” to describe Dubai if it was used at least 30, 28 and 13 times by locals, expatriates and tourists respectively. For each destination-sample combination, the frequency of each word is calculated and converted to percentages (because of the unequal number of responses), rounded up and compared. Statistically significant differences between demographic segments and between samples are identified. The results are interesting.

Table 5. 21 Holistic Perception list

Beaches	Exciting	Hot	Slow
Boring	Exotic	Modern	Sophisticated
Clean	Expensive	Nightlife	Traditional
Conservative	Family destination	Nothing special	Under-developed
Cosmopolitan	Fast-paced	Peaceful	Unique
Crowded	Financial centre	Religious	Well-planned
Different	Friendly	Restaurants	Westernised
Disorganized	Glamorous	Safe	
Eastern	History	Shopping	

5.4. 1 Locals

The locals’ image of Dubai appears clearer than that of Bahrain, with more informative words being chosen more frequently (Table 5.22). The words used were very different, lying at opposite ends of the spectrum indicating a contrast in the two perceptions.

Dubai is perceived as a well-planned yet crowded destination for shopping, beaches and nightlife, while Bahrain is not. Bahrain is perceived as friendly and having a history but not much to offer besides. It is peaceful, boring and nothing special, while Dubai is none of those. Locals were more likely to describe Bahrain as “hot” despite the proximity and similar climate of the two destinations. Dubai was perceived as a non-historical happening place, with restaurants and activities, in which to do things, and Bahrain as a place to relax and do nothing. Potentially exploitable aspects are its

history and tradition, its restaurants and its status as a financial centre. Bahrain's latter description underlines the potential for expansion of MICE and business tourism. Bahrain was also described as a family destination. Overall, however, local perceptions of Bahrain appear to be negative, especially compared to Dubai.

Table 5. 22 Local Bahrain / Dubai Holistic Perception

Bahrain	%	Dubai
	64	Shopping
Friendly	63	
	46	Beaches
	39	Crowded
Hot	38	
	37	Well-planned
Boring	34	
Peaceful	32	Nightlife
History, Nothing special	30	
Financial centre	29	
	28	Exciting
	27	Modern
	26	Financial centre
Safe	25	
	22	<i>Expensive, Fast-paced</i>
	22	Cosmopolitan, Restaurants
<i>Restaurants, Traditional, Underdeveloped</i>	21	
<i>Family destination, Disorganized</i>	20	
	18	<i>Family destination</i>
<i>Slow, Expensive</i>	16	Hot
Crowded	15	
	14	Westernised
	13	Unique
Beaches	11	Different
Religious, Conservative	10	
Cosmopolitan, Different	8	Glamorous, Safe
Unique	7	
Nightlife, Shopping	6	Peaceful
Westernised	5	
Modern	4	Friendly, Exotic
Eastern	3	Sophisticated, <i>Traditional</i>
Glamorous, Sophisticated, Exciting	2	Nothing special, <i>Disorganized</i>
Well planned	1	Conservative, Religious, <i>Slow, Underdeveloped</i>
Shaded grey: words used less than randomly expected		

5.4. 2 Expatriates

Expatriates viewed Bahrain as very friendly, but beyond that its image is not very clear (Table 5.23). At first glance, the two destinations are perceived very differently; Dubai as a cosmopolitan, shopping and beaches destination that is fast-paced, westernized and crowded, offering excitement, and Bahrain as friendly, hot, peaceful and safe place which does not really offer enough.

Table 5. 23 Expatriates Bahrain / Dubai Holistic Perception

Bahrain	%	Dubai
Friendly	61	
	58	Shopping
	42	Fast-paced
	41	Beaches
	40	Cosmopolitan
Hot	38	
	37	Crowded
Peaceful	35	
	33	Westernised
Safe	30	
Financial centre, Traditional	28	
	27	Modern
Restaurants	25	
	23	Well-planned
<i>Family destination</i>	20	
	19	<i>Expensive</i>
<i>Under-developed, Expensive</i>	18	Nightlife
<i>Slow</i>	17	Exciting
	16	<i>Family destination, Hot</i>
Cosmopolitan	15	Glamorous
Conservative, Different	14	
History, Westernised	13	Financial centre
Religious	12	
Boring, Nothing special, Shopping	11	
Disorganized, Unique	10	Restaurants, Sophisticated
Eastern	8	
Modern, Beaches	7	
Nightlife	6	Safe
Crowded , Exciting	5	Different
Well-planned	4	Unique
	3	Exotic, Friendly
Glamorous, Sophisticated	2	Disorganized, <i>Peaceful</i> , <i>Slow</i>
Exotic	1	Nothing special, Conservative, Eastern, Traditional
Shaded grey: words used less than randomly expected		

Bahrain's expatriate residents were more than twice as likely to describe Bahrain as "Hot", "Restaurants" and a "Financial centre" than Dubai. They were much more likely to describe Dubai as "Cosmopolitan" than Bahrain. As with locals, the words used to describe the two destinations lay almost at the two ends of the spectrum, indicating a contrast in the two perceptions. Importantly, Bahrain was more likely to be viewed as a family destination. Finally, expatriate perception of Bahrain, although not clear, does not appear to be negative. This is discussed further in Section 5.4.4.

5.4.3 Tourists

The tourist sample most frequently described Bahrain as friendly, followed by peaceful, safe, hot, and expensive, and Dubai as a shopping destination (Table 5.24). Bahrain's image was clearer than that of Dubai, and although different words were used to describe the two, indicating a contrast, their perceptions were not as polarized as those of the other two samples. Both were described as cosmopolitan, Dubai slightly more so. Bahrain was described as "Hot" more than Dubai. While Dubai was more likely to be described as a financial centre, Bahrain was more likely to be described as a family destination, which offers some potential that can be developed.

Surprisingly, there were no significant differences in the use of any of the words between experienced visitors and first-time visitors to Bahrain. With 64 first-time visitors and 65 experienced visitors, the similarity of the holistic perceptions of the two tourist categories was visible at a glance, significance often equalling 1.000. The impressions of first-time visitors approximately 3 days into their visit were not very different from ones held by those with previous experience of the destination. If one were to make the leap and generalize, one might conclude that tourists continue to hold the same image of Bahrain after many visits, although this data is actually cross-sectional from independent samples and not from repeated measurements in a longitudinal study of the same sample. The only difference in the image of Dubai between these two tourist groups was their use of the word "Hot". Out of 87 respondents, 32.7% of visitors who had experienced Bahrain before described Dubai as "Hot" while only 5.3% of first-time visitors did so. This result was significant (Sig

= 0.000) and is unexpected considering the proximity of the two destinations. It is not known whether those tourists have any previous experience of Dubai.

Table 5. 24 Tourists Bahrain / Dubai Holistic Perception

Bahrain	%	Dubai
Friendly	64	
	51	Shopping
Peaceful	45	
Safe	42	
Hot	33	
Expensive	32	
	30	Westernised
	29	Well-planned
	26	Modern
	25	Cosmopolitan, Crowded
Cosmopolitan	24	Financial centre
Exotic	23	
	22	Beaches, Exciting
	21	Hot
Traditional	20	Glamorous
Financial centre, Family destination, Different	19	
	18	Expensive, Nightlife
Unique	17	Sophisticated
Nightlife, Shopping	16	
	15	Fast-paced
Modern, Well-planned	14	<i>Family destination</i>
	13	Friendly
	12	Unique
Westernised, Beaches, Exciting	11	
Conservative	10	<i>Peaceful, Restaurants</i>
Restaurants, Under-developed, Eastern	9	<i>Safe</i>
Nothing special	8	<i>Traditional</i>
Slow	7	<i>Exotic</i>
Boring	5	
Fast-paced, Clean	3	
Crowded, Sophisticated, Glamorous	2	Boring, Disorganized, Eastern
Disorganized	1	Nothing special, Under-developed, Conservative
Shaded grey: words used less than randomly expected		

5.4. 4 Holistic Perception summary

Dubai's results were far less diverse than Bahrain's, with little difference in the frequencies of words between the three samples, implying a similar perception held by all three groups. Bahrain's results, however, told another story. The difference in

the three samples' perceptions was statistically significant for most of the words. Only 12 words out of 34 had no statistically significant differences between the three samples (Table 5.25). For those words, results from the three samples were combined. Bahrain is generally perceived by everyone as a friendly, safe, hot, peaceful, traditional financial centre with the potential to develop business tourism and family tourism. Overall, locals appear to perceive Bahrain more negatively and less positively than either expatriates or tourists, if one were to attempt to classify the words into positive and negative categories (Table 5.26).

Table 5. 25 Bahrain Holistic Perception common words

	Word	Overall Valid Percentage
1	Friendly	62.6
2	Hot	36.4
3	Peaceful	36.3
4	Financial centre	26.4
5	Traditional	23.4
6	Family destination	19.6
7	Conservative	11.6
8	Beaches	9.3
9	Eastern	6.4
10	Sophisticated	1.9
11	Glamorous	1.7
12	Fast-paced	1.1
Note: N = 563 respondents (L,X,T)		

Of the three samples, expatriates seem to be the most 'medium' users of most of the adjectives (Table 5.26), except for perceiving it as more religious, slow and restaurants than the others. Tourists, on the other hand, see it as more cosmopolitan, different, eastern, exciting, exotic, expensive, modern, nightlife, peaceful, shopping, unique and well-planned and cleaner and safer than the others. Apart from "Expensive", all of the above could be considered positive adjectives in a tourist destination. Therefore, generally, tourists perceive the destination more positively than locals or expatriates. Tourists also perceive the destination as less crowded, disorganized, nothing special, religious, restaurants, slow and under-developed than locals or expatriates. Apart from "Restaurants", and "Religious", they perceive Bahrain less negatively than the other two samples. "Religious" is a tricky adjective

because it could be seen as positive by some respondents and negatively by others. This will be discussed further in Section 5.7. If the words were classified into “positive”, “negative” and “unknown” and the order of frequencies were reversed for the negative ones, the data would appear as in Table 5.26.

Table 5. 26 Holistic Perception * Respondent

No.	Word	Description	Most positive	Medium	Most negative
1	Beaches	Positive	No significant difference		
2	Boring	Negative	T	X	L
3	Clean	Positive	T		LX
4	Conservative	Unknown	No significant difference		
5	Cosmopolitan	Positive	T	X	L
6	Crowded	Negative	T	X	L
7	Different	Positive	T	X	L
8	Disorganized	Negative	T	X	L
9	Eastern	Positive	T	X	L
10	Exciting	Positive	T	X	L
11	Exotic	Positive	T		LX
12	Expensive	Negative	T	X	L
13	Family destination	Positive	No significant difference		
14	Fast-paced	Unknown			
15	Financial centre	Positive			
16	Friendly	Positive			
17	Glamorous	Positive			
18	Hot	Unknown			
19	History	Positive	L		X
20	Modern	Positive	T	X	L
21	Nightlife	Positive	T		LX
22	Nothing special	Negative	T	X	L
23	Peaceful	Positive	No significant difference		
24	Religious	Unknown	LX is most, T is least		
25	Restaurants	Positive	X	L	T
26	Safe	Positive	T	X	L
27	Shopping	Positive	T	X	L
28	Slow	Unknown	LX is most, T is least		
29	Sophisticated	Positive	No significant difference		
30	Traditional	Unknown			
31	Under-developed	Negative	T	X	L
32	Unique	Positive	T	X	L
33	Well-planned	Positive	T	X	L
34	Westernised	Unknown	L is least, XT is most		
a : L = local, X = expatriate, T = tourist					

Locals, expatriate residents and event tourists perceive the destination differently, and in most cases, the evaluations move along a continuum of sorts from tourist to

expatriate to local, with tourists perceiving the destination most positively. It would appear that, for Bahrain, perceptions move in the same direction as intimacy increases. Those with the most intimate relationship feel least positive towards it and positiveness is inversely related to intimacy. Whether these differences are significant are investigated next.

5.4. 5 Expatriate positioning (Holistic Perceptions)

For each of Bahrain and Dubai, results from all three samples were presented together to enable visual comparison (see Appendices IX.i and IX.ii). Locals and expatriates were compared for statistically significant differences. Out of 21 words with a significant Chi Square (4.7. 3), probability dictates that if 95% is used as a significance threshold, one word is likely to be significant, so only those relationships with 99% confidence are mentioned (Table 5.27). Out of a total of 34 words, one would expect to find 0.34 words with statistically significant differences but differences were found in 6 words. Although this appears low, it is almost 18 times the expected number.

Table 5. 27 Expatriate Holistic Perception significant differences

Word	Pearson Chi square ^a	Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided)	Samples	
			Expatriates	Locals
Locals (N = 205) and Expatriates (N = 202)			Expatriates	Locals
Boring	11.4%	.000	11.4%	34.1%
Crowded	4.5%	.001	4.5%	14.6%
Disorganized	9.5%	.006	9.5%	19.5%
History	13.4%	.000	13.4%	30.2%
Nothing special	10.9%	.000	10.9%	30.2%
Westernized	12.9%	.010	12.9%	5.4%
Expatriates (N = 202) and Tourists (N = 156)			Expatriates	Tourists
Disorganized	8.924	0.003	9.5%	0.8%
Exotic	40.128	0.000	1.0%	22.5%
Expensive	7.695	0.006	17.9%	31.8%
History	17.127	0.000	13.4%	0.0%
Nightlife	7.103	0.008	6.0%	15.5%
Religious	14.888	0.000	11.9%	0.0%
Restaurants	12.118	0.000	25.4%	9.3%
Well-planned	9.438%	0.002	4.0%	14.0%
a = (Yates Correction for Continuity)				

Expatriates and tourists were also compared to locate statistically significant differences between them which could not be attributed to sample error. Only those with significance less than 0.01 are mentioned. One would again expect to find 0.34 words to be statistically significant at that level, but the 8 words found were almost 24 times as many as expected, which is a huge difference. The statistically significant differences between expatriates' perceptions of the destination and those of both locals and tourists indicate that, for holistic perception, expatriates should be considered separately from both locals and event tourists.

5.4. 6 Experience versus expectation

Tourists were asked how certain general aspects of the destination compared to their expectations using a five-point itemized rating scale ranging from -2 to 2. Tourists found most of the items included in this section exceeded their expectations, some more than others (Table 5.28) "Sights" and "Activities" at the destination were better than expected, but it was more expensive than expected. Also, "Bahrain as a destination" exceeded Tourists' expectations. Although mode responses were nonnegative for all the items, the low mean value of "Costs" is a concern. All the tourists found costs worst than expected except for those earning USD40-60 thousand (see Appendix IX.iv). Results are consistent with 31.8% of tourists holistic perception of Bahrain as expensive in Section 5.4.3, and also consistent with tourist dissatisfaction with individual cost attributes in Section 5.3.3.3.

Table 5. 28 Tourist Experience versus Expectations

Destination aspect	N	Median	Mode	Mean ^a	S Dev.
People	153	1	1 and 2	0.85	0.998
Event	151	0	0	0.42	1.104
Sights	136	0	0	0.12	1.011
Activities	139	0	0	0.11	0.983
Costs	146	0	0	-0.29	1.128
Bahrain as a destination	150	1	1	0.57	1.039
a -2= Much worst than I expected, -1= Somewhat worst than expected, 0= Matched my expectations, 1= Somewhat better than I expected, 2= Much better than I expected					

Responses from "first-time visitors" and "visited before" were also compared to determine the effect, if any, of repeat visitation (see Appendix IX.iii). Initial

inspection of the results indicated that first time visitors found the difference between their expectation and their experience greater than that of previous visitors, which is not surprising since previous visitors would have incorporated their previous experience into their expectations and are less likely to be surprised. Upon testing this initial impression using Mann-Whitney U, the non-parametric independent samples T-test, these differences turned out to be statistically insignificant, even at the 5% level, so they could be explained by chance or sample error. Whether differences truly are insignificant or whether non-parametric tests are less sensitive to differences than parametric tests (Pallant 2005) cannot be ascertained. According to the data, familiarity does not appear to change perceptions of event tourists. Again, this is based on comparison of cross-sectional data from two independent groups and not longitudinal data.

Table 5. 29 Tourist Expectation Component Matrix (a)

Expectation items	Component
	TEXPECT
Sights vs. expectation	.879
Activities vs. expectation	.859
Destination vs. expectation	.791
Event vs. expectation	.720
People vs. expectation	.706
Costs vs. expectation	.616
a 1 components extracted. Extraction Method: Principal component analysis	

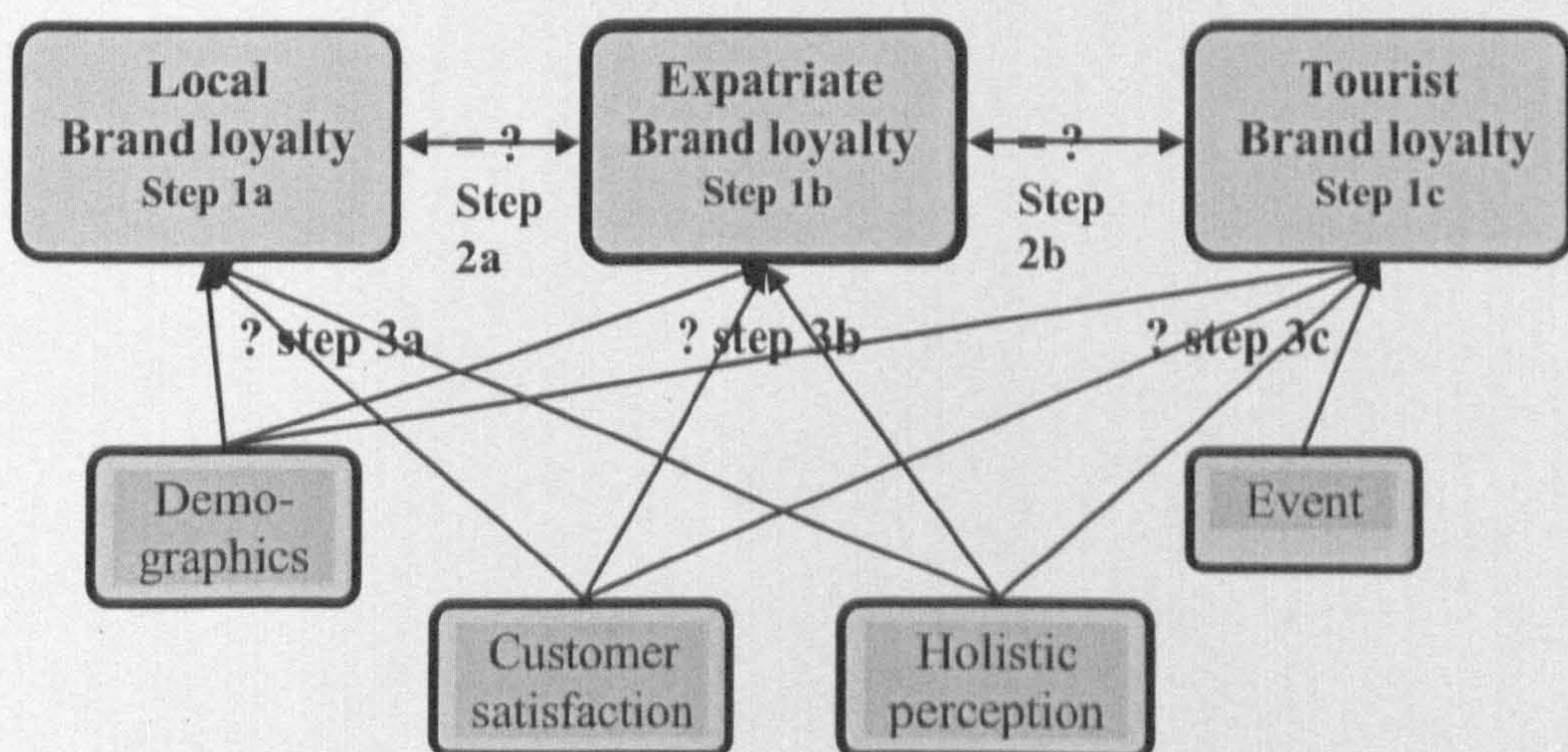
Factor analysis was performed on the expectation items. A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.859 over 126 cases could be improved to 0.864 by deleting "Costs versus expectation", but this is not a significant improvement. All 15 possible correlations between the items exceeded 0.3, and a KMO value of 0.824 with a BTS with significance of 0.000 indicated that factor analysis would be very appropriate. PCA produced a one-component solution with only one eigenvalue exceeding 1.0 at 3.534, which would explain 58.895% of the variance. With the second component having an eigenvalue of 0.743, it was not necessary to generate random eigenvalues for comparison, and Catell's Scree Plot also clearly indicated a one-component solution

with a sharp break (see Appendix VIII.i). The six items all loaded nicely on the one component, with the lowest value being 0.616 (Table 5.29). This solution was accepted, and the component was named TEXPECT (Tourist Expectation) and retained for logistic regression analysis in Section 5.7.3. Brand loyalty to the destination is discussed next.

5.5 Brand Loyalty

Figure 5.3 illustrates the analysis steps in this section, beginning with a discussion of responses to brand loyalty statements, which is represented with steps 1a, 1b and 1c, and corresponds to step 2 in Figure 4.4. The WOM that respondents plan to produce to others will be discussed, providing answers to RQ3a, RQ3b and RQ3c (Table 3.3). As information that might be sought from WOM sources, the variable ideal length of stay for a holiday at the destination is also discussed. Responses from expatriates will be contrasted with those of the other samples to answer RQ4c. Later, the discussion will focus on brand loyalty to the destination's tourism product and explore its prediction. Logistic regression will explore the answers to questions RQ5a, RQ5b, RQ5c.

Figure 5.3 Brand Loyalty data analysis plan



Affirmative or negative responses from the three samples to a list of statements were studied. The response to this section of the instrument from both residents and tourists was 100% and 98.4% respectively. The response is categorical in nature, therefore the mean is taken as equal to the percentage of the sample that responded affirmatively to each question, which makes the results easy to read (Table 5.30).

Table 5. 30 Mean Brand Loyalty responses

Sample	Statement		Mean	S. Dev.
Locals N = 205	1	I would recommend others visit to attend events	.66	.474
	2	I would recommend others visit for a holiday	.59	.494
	3	Bahrain is a great place to live	.71	.456
Expatriates N = 202	1	I would recommend others visit to attend events	.72	.449
	2	I would recommend others visit for a holiday	.66	.474
	3	Bahrain is a great place to live	.78	.414
Tourists N = 152	1	I would recommend others visit to attend events	.86	.353
	2	I would recommend others visit for a holiday	.73	.442
	3	I would attend events myself	.86	.346
	4	I would come for a holiday myself	.66	.476

5.5. 1 Locals

Overall, mean responses from locals to all three statements were positive (Table 5.30), more than half intending to recommend that others visit Bahrain, although more of them were willing to do so for events than for a holiday. Pearson Chi-square found no significant differences at the 1% level or even at the 5% level in responses to Statements 1 and 2 between the various local demographic segments (Gender, Age, Marital status, Employment, Education and Income). Females were significantly more likely to be loyal to Bahrain as a place to live than males. Chi-square and Yates continuity correction were calculated for each of the first two statements with statement 3. Asymptotic two-sided significance fell below the 0.01 threshold for both correlations indicating a statistically significant relationship correlation between feeling positively towards the destination as a place to live and recommending others visit for either purpose (see Appendix X.i).

5.5. 2 Expatriates

Mean expatriate responses were positive (Table 5.30) with more than half of them recommending others visit Bahrain. Like locals, more of them were willing to do so for events than for a holiday. They also felt positively about living in Bahrain, agreeing that it is a “great place to live”. Half of the expatriate sample would produce all three positive statements, which indicates very high potential for brand loyalty. Pearson Chi-square found no significant differences at the 1% level and hardly any at 5% in responses to statements 1 or 2 between expatriate demographic segments (Gender, Age, Marital status, Employment, Education, Income and Origin). At the 5% level, responses from the highest earning expatriates to statement 2 were different (Table 5.31).

Table 5. 31 Expatriate Income Chi Square results for statement 2

Chi-Square Tests	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.466(a)	4	.033
Likelihood Ratio	10.089	4	.039
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.799	1	.051
N of Valid Cases	201		
a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.09.			
Annual net income	No	Yes	Total
% within \$0- \$19,999 p.a.	26.6%	73.4%	100.0%
% within \$20,000-\$39,999 p.a.	37.3%	62.7%	100.0%
% within \$40,000-\$59,999 p.a.	30.8%	69.2%	100.0%
% within \$60,000-\$79,999 p.a.	22.2%	77.8%	100.0%
% within \$80,000 or more p.a.	61.9%	38.1%	100.0%
Total	33.8%	66.2%	100.0%

Correlations between statements 1 and 3 and between statements 2 and 3 were investigated using Chi-square for each pair (see Appendix X.ii). As with locals, expatriates who responded affirmatively to statement 3 were statistically significantly more likely to respond positively to statements 1 and 2, with significance values = 0.000 for both. While 79.7% of expatriates who felt “Bahrain is a great place to live” intended to recommend others visit to attend events, only 45.5% of the remaining expatriates intended to do so. 74.7% of the former intend to recommend others visit

Bahrain for a holiday, but only 36.4% of those with a negative response would do so. Expatriates who believe it is a great place to live are twice as likely to recommend others visit it.

5.5. 3 Tourists

Tourist response rate to this section was an excellent 97.4%. Overall mean responses were very high (Table 5.30), with over 85% of those who responded not only willing to recommend others attend events in Bahrain but also willing to attend other events themselves. The latter is telling in that it reflects a positive event experience. Positive responses to statement 4, although high, were lower than those for statement 3. More tourists would recommend others visit Bahrain for a holiday than those willing to come for a holiday themselves. Perhaps there is not enough on offer to encourage repeat visitation, or having already seen the destination, some event tourists would prefer to visit other places. The latter would not necessarily reflect badly on Bahrain. However, this speculation is about the difference between two positive responses, which indicates that the current product offering does have a high potential for developing repeat custom. Overall, tourists attending events are brand loyal and are likely to produce positive WOM to their friends, especially with regards to visiting to attend events.

Most correlations between responses to the statements were low and of no statistical significance except for a high correlation between returning for a holiday and recommending others visit for a holiday (Table 5.32). Those responding affirmatively to one statement were more likely to respond affirmatively to the other. Only 5.1% of the tourist sample responded negatively to all four statements while 59% responded positively to all 4 statements, which is very encouraging.

Table 5. 32 Tourist statement Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

Statement	2	3	4
1	.388	.486	.295
2		.277	.761
3			.354
The covariance matrix is calculated and used in the analysis			

Pearson Chi-square found no significant differences in responses to any of the four statements between tourist categories of previous destination experience, sponsorship, gender, origin or education. At the 5% level, younger tourists were highly likely to respond positively to statement 1 but older ones were significantly more likely to do (Sig = 0.045). There were also statistically significant differences in responses to statement 3 between tourist income categories (Sig = 0.000). Higher earning tourists were more likely to revisit to attend events in the future than those earning less than USD40 thousand.

5.5. 4 Brand Loyalty overview

All three groups responded positively to the statements in this section of the instrument. Tourists were the most positively inclined and were most likely to produce positive WOM, followed by expatriates and lastly locals. These results (Table 5.30) are consistent with those found in Sections 5.3.1.5, 5.3.2.5 and 5.4.4. While all three samples are likely to recommend others visit Bahrain for a holiday, they are even more likely to recommend others visit to attend events. Overall, it would appear that destination events are successful and the basic infrastructure exists to support this activity, leaving some respondents with the perception that the country is more suitable for events than for holidays. Events provide a solid base to incorporate into a strategy, but the lower brand loyalty response to Bahrain's leisure product is still positive enough to be encouraging.

5.5. 5 Expatriate positioning (Brand Loyalty)

Expatriate responses were compared with those of the other two groups. No statistically significant differences were found between the two resident samples responses to the three statements. Only statements 1 and 2 were comparable for expatriates and tourists. Although both expatriates and event tourists intend to recommend others visit Bahrain to attend events, the latter were significantly more likely to do so.

5. 6 Ideal length of stay

Respondents were asked how long they believed was the ideal length of stay for a holiday in Bahrain. Only one local and one expatriate did not respond while tourist response was 100%. Coincidentally, the highest stated response in each of the three samples was 30 days (see Appendix XI.i). Results were checked for normality, in order to determine what tests would be appropriate for this variable. Skewness greater than 1 and kurtosis much higher than zero indicated non-normality (Table 5.33). Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z test for Normality also confirmed this (significance less than 0.05). Hence, non-parametric statistics were used with this variable. Although the local mean was the lowest, results from the three samples were quite similar, ranging from 7-9 days. The difference between the means of the ideal length of stay recommended by the resident samples was statistically significant to 95% (Table 5.33). There was no statistically significant difference between expatriates and tourists.

Table 5. 33 “Ideal stay” statistics

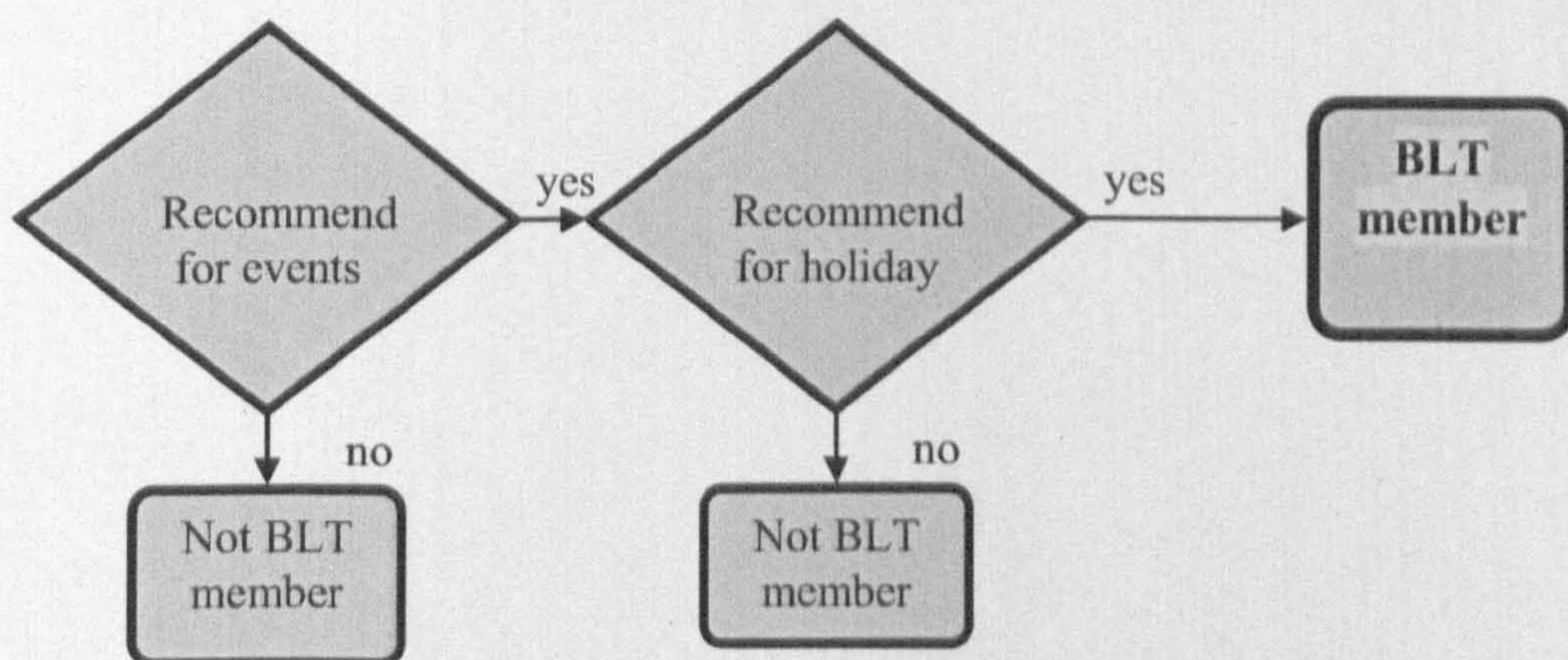
One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test				
		Local	Expatriate	Tourist
N		204	201	156
Normal Parameters (a ,b)	Mean	7.58	8.70	7.65
	S. Dev.	6.088	6.529	5.751
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		3.971	2.868	2.561
Asymp. Sig. (two-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
Skewness	Statistic	2.042	0.1714	2.231
	s. error	0.1703	0.1715	0.1943
Kurtosis	Statistic	4.668	3.198	6.547
	s. error	0.339	0.341	0.386
a Test distribution is Normal.		b Calculated from data.		
Ideal stay expatriate positioning (Mann Whitney U)				
	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Sig. ^c
Local and Expatriate	17861.000	38771.000	-2.265	.024^b
Expatriate and Tourist	14293.500	26539.500	-1.441	.149
b significant at the 5% level		c Asymptotic Significance (two-tailed)		

5.7 Tourism Brand Loyalty

Statements 1 and 2 about intentions to recommend others visit to attend events and for a holiday were the same in all three samples. Responses to these statements have already been presented in Sections 5.5.1, and 5.3.3. Here, the responses to both statements are studied together. As explained in Section 4.7.4, positive responses to both statements were considered an indication of brand loyalty to the destination's tourism product (BLT), while a negative response to either or both of the statements was considered indicative of the opposite (Figure 5.4). BLT membership included 92 locals (44.9% of the local sample), 112 expatriates (55.4%) and 111 tourists (71.2%). Loyal respondents were assigned a value of "1" and the remaining a value of "0".

In this section, Steps 2a and 2b in Figure 4.4 will be performed. Variables set aside earlier in the chapter will be reintroduced; the demographic variables (Sections 5.2.1 through 5.2.3), the components and variables representing satisfaction (Sections 5.3.1 through 5.3.4), holistic perceptions (Sections 5.4.1 through 5.4.3) and the experience-versus-expectation component (Section 5.4.6) are all used in a trial and error exploration to discover their use in predicting BLT membership (Section 5.7).

Figure 5.4 BLT membership flowchart (second of two)



Based on Figure 3.5

5.7. 1 Local BLT prediction

There were 92 BLT members (Section 5.7) and 113 non-members. According to Hosmer and Lemeshow's guidelines for logistic regression discussed earlier (Section 4.7.4), the maximum number of variables that can be entered into a model together is eight.

The first model attempted was one in which the six demographic variables Gender, Age, Marital status, Education, Income level and Employment (employed / unemployed) were entered together as independent variables. There were 205 valid responses (100% of the sample). The first step was to establish non-multi-collinearity. None of the variables had a high correlation with BLT, all less than 0.3, the highest being a very low 0.170 with Age, indicating that a good model may not be achievable. Education was the variable with the lowest correlation (0.001) with BLT. In addition, none of the independent variables correlated highly with each other. Collinearity statistics in the SPSS coefficients table showed no Tolerance values below 0.1 between variables, the lowest being 0.544. and no VIF values exceeding 1.839. Hence, all these variables could be entered into an exploratory logistic regression model together. Dropping most of them from the model had no detrimental effect on prediction. The best solution was that including only Age (Table 5.34). The Hosmer and Lemeshow Test Chi-square of 0.000 with 0 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.000) indicated goodness of fit, but the Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients (OTMC) Chi-square value of 5.705 with 1 degree of freedom (Sig = 0.017) indicated poor goodness of fit. The model would explain between 2.7% and 3.7% of the variability, according to Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square. Using this logistic regression model would increase the likelihood of correct BLT prediction from 55.1% to 59.5%, a very small 8% improvement (i.e. $(59.5\% - 55.1\%) / 55.1\% = 7.98\%$) which does not particularly support the model's usefulness as a predictive tool. The model provided positive and negative predictive values of 56% and 61.54% respectively. Age correlated positively with BLT indicating that older respondents were 1.881 times more likely to be brand loyal to Bahrain's tourism product. According to this analysis, demographics are not a useful aid in prediction of local BLT membership.

Table 5. 34 Local logistic regression solutions

Step 1(a)	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95.0% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
1. Local demographic solution								
Age	.632	.268	5.555	1	.018	1.881	1.112	3.181
Constant	-1.087	.400	7.374	1	.007	.337		
a Variable(s) entered on step 1: page.								
2. Local satisfaction solution								
LPACT	.365	.197	3.422	1	.064	1.441	.979	2.121
LATT	.444	.187	5.635	1	.018	1.559	1.081	2.250
Climate	.182	.143	1.622	1	.203	1.199	.907	1.586
F & B	.388	.187	4.298	1	.038	1.475	1.021	2.129
Constant	-.676	.274	6.103	1	.013	.509		
a Variable(s) entered on step 1: LPACT, LATT, climate, food.								
3. Local Holistic Perception solution								
Beaches	1.215	.603	4.054	1	.044	3.370	1.033	10.999
Boring	-1.971	.383	26.470	1	.000	.139	.066	.295
Disorganized	-1.321	.448	8.697	1	.003	.267	.111	.642
Westernised	1.120	.746	2.252	1	.133	3.064	.710	13.224
Constant	.438	.215	4.165	1	.041	1.550		
a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Beaches, Boring, Disorganized, Westernised.								
Source: SPSS 14.0								

Secondly, the process was repeated using the six variables LPACT, LPCOM, Climate, Food and Beverage (Table 5.5), LATT (Table 5.11), LCOST (Table 5.16) as independent variables. Due to some missing values, this analysis included 200 valid cases. None of the variables had a high correlation with BLT, the highest being LPACT at 0.316 and LATT at 0.300, indicating that a mediocre model might be achievable. “Climate” had the lowest correlation (0.159) with BLT and none of the independent variables correlated highly with each other. Coefficients collinearity statistics showed no Tolerance values below 0.1 between variables, the lowest being LPACT at 0.574 and no VIF values exceeding 1.742., indicating that these variables *could* be entered into a logistic regression model together. After some experimentation, the best solution included LPACT, LATT, “Climate” and “Food and Beverage” (Table 5.34). The OTMC Chi-square value of 34.027 square with 4 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.000) and the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test Chi-square of

12.811 with 8 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.119) both indicated goodness of fit. The model explained between 15.6% and 21.0% of the variability, according to Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square. This logistic regression model would increase the likelihood of correct prediction of BLT membership from 56.0% to 69.0%, a 23.2% improvement (i.e. $(69.0\% - 56.0\%) / 56.0\% = 23.2\%$), which supported its use as a useful predictive tool. The model had positive and negative predictive values of 67.1% and 70.2% respectively. LATT, "Food and Beverage" and LPACT contributed most significantly to the model's predictive ability with Wald significance values of 0.018 and .038 respectively (Table 5.34). The all-positive B values indicated that all the variables were directly related to BLT. Locals who were more satisfied with each of these attributes were more likely to be loyal to the tourism product, but these relationships were not very strong since all Exp (B) values were between 1.0 and 2.0. It is interesting that the variables that contribute most are all those related to things to do, such as the attractions component, the activities component of place attributes and cuisine. Costs items and climate were not related.

Finally, the process was repeated using the holistic perception words that were chosen to describe the destination (Table 5.34). The 34 words were entered in batches because they were too many to enter together, as was stated at the beginning of this section. The analysis included 205 valid cases. Investigating multicollinearity, none of the words correlated highly with BLT, with "Boring" having the highest correlation (-0.402). The variables were tested for collinearity and multicollinearity together, because it was not known which ones would be in the solution. None of the independent variables were highly correlated with each other. The word with the lowest variability not explained by other variables were "Fast-paced" and "Glamorous" with Tolerance values of 0.541 and 0.586 respectively. The highest VIF was 1.849. These statistics indicated that it *might* be possible to find a good model. Ideally, the sample would be large enough to accommodate all the words in the list together and they could be removed if they appeared useless, but that was not possible in this instance. Groups of variables were entered through exploratory trial, error and retrial. Variables appearing to contribute more to prediction were sometimes re-introduced while others were dropped. This continued until seven independent variables remained in the solution. The opportunity cost of deletion was

considered in each step in tandem with Wald significance. In the end, the best solution included the four words “Boring”, “Disorganized”, “Beaches” and “Westernized” with low Wald significance values (Table 5.34). The OTMC Chi-square value of 55.257 with 4 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.000) and the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test Chi-square of 1.579 with 4 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.813) both indicated goodness of fit. The model explained between 23.6% and 31.6% of the variability, according to Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square. This logistic regression model would increase the likelihood of correct BLT prediction from 55.1% to 72.7%, a substantial 31.94% improvement (i.e. $(72.7\% - 55.1\%) / 55.1\% = 31.94\%$), which *would* support the model as a useful predictive tool. It had positive and negative predictive values of 66.1% and 80.6% respectively. The words “Boring” and “Disorganized” were inversely related to BLT, while “Beaches” and “Westernized” were directly related. Locals who described the destination as either of the latter two words were 3 times as likely to be brand loyal to the tourism product as other locals. Those who described Bahrain as boring and disorganized were likely not to be BLT members.

A comparison of the predictive abilities of the three types of independent variables (demographics, satisfaction, and perception) found that information about the use of the four perception words (Boring, Disorganized, Beaches and Westernized) would be the most useful tool in predicting local BLT. This was followed by satisfaction with the destination’s attributes while demographics (Age) were a poor predictor.

5.7. 2 Expatriate BLT prediction

There were 112 BLT members (Section 5.7) and 90 non-members. According to Hosmer and Lemeshow (Section 4.7.4), this limits the number of independent variables that can be entered into a logistic regression model together to 8.

The first expatriate model to be explored was demographics: Gender, Age, Origin, Marital status, Education, Income, Employment and Number of years living in Bahrain. All of these variables were entered into a logistic model together as independent variables with 201 valid cases. None of the independent variables

correlated highly with each other. Coefficient collinearity statistics showed no Tolerance values below 0.1 between variables, the lowest being Income level at 0.801 and no VIF values exceeded 1.248. This indicated that these variables could be entered into a logistic regression model together. None of the variables had a high correlation with BLT either, the highest being Age with a very low 0.153, indicating that a good model might not be achievable. After some exploration, the best expatriate demographic model found included significant contributions from Age and Income with Wald significance levels of 0.018 and 0.032 respectively (Table 5.35). The OTMC Chi-square value of 10.630 with 3 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.014) and the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test Chi-square of 5.272 with 6 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.509) both indicated goodness of fit. This model explained 5.2% to 6.9% of the variability, according to Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square. The model increased the likelihood of correct prediction of BLT from 55.2% to 62.2%, a small 12.7% improvement (i.e. $(62.2\% - 55.2\%) / 55.2\% = 12.7\%$), which only slightly supported its usefulness as a predictive tool. Expatriate demographics (Age, Employment and Income) could only slightly aid in prediction of BLT membership. This model had positive and negative predictive values of 64.2% and 59.0% respectively. Both Age and Employment were directly related to BLT, the latter not significantly. Older expatriates were almost twice as likely to be BLT members as younger ones. Working expatriates were more than twice as likely to be loyal than unemployed ones. The relationship between Income and BLT was inverse, so higher income expatriates were less likely to be BLT members.

Second, the process was repeated using the satisfaction variables XPCOM, XPACT (Table 5.5), XATT (Table 5.11), XCOST (Table 5.16) and Accommodation. The analysis included 197 valid cases. None of the independent variables were highly correlated with each other. Coefficient collinearity statistics showed no Tolerance values below 0.1 between variables, the lowest being XATT at 0.565 and no VIF values exceeded 1.770, so these variables could be entered into a logistic regression model together. Only two of the variables had correlations with BLT higher than 0.3; XPACT at 0.466 and XATT at 0.355, indicating that a model might be achievable. Accommodation had the lowest correlation (0.152) with BLT. The optimal model found included XPACT, XPCOM and Accommodation, although the latter not

significantly (Table 5.35). XPACT was the most significantly related variable with brand loyalty (Sig. = 0.000) followed by XPCOM (Sig. = 0.006). Both variables were directly related, so those scoring higher on XPACT and XPCOM were more likely to be brand loyal. The OTMC Chi-square value of 56.605 with 3 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.000) and the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test Chi-square of 5.126 with 8 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.744) both indicated goodness of fit. This model would explain between 25.0% and 33.4% of the variability, according to Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square. The model had positive and negative predictive values of 76.1% and 72.6% respectively. Using this logistic regression model would increase the likelihood of correct prediction of BLT membership from 55.3% to 74.6%, a 34.9% improvement (i.e. $(74.6\% - 55.3\%) / 55.3\% = 34.9\%$) which definitely supports the model's usefulness as a predictive tool.

Table 5. 35 Expatriate logistic regression solutions

Step 1(a)	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95.0% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
1. Expatriate demographic solution								
Age	.673	.285	5.577	1	.018	1.961	1.121	3.428
Work	.915	.540	2.868	1	.090	2.496	.866	7.197
Income	-.262	.122	4.577	1	.032	.770	.606	.978
Constant	-1.078	.630	2.926	1	.087	.340		
a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Age, Work, Income.								
2. Expatriate satisfaction solution								
XPACT	1.177	.201	34.163	1	.000	3.243	2.186	4.812
XPCOM	.469	.169	7.701	1	.006	1.599	1.148	2.226
Accommodation	.205	.197	1.085	1	.298	1.228	.834	1.808
Constant	.096	.251	.145	1	.703	1.100		
a Variable(s) entered on step 1: XPACT, XPCOM, accommodation standard.								
3. Expatriate Holistic Perception solution								
Disorganized	-1.211	.582	4.333	1	.037	.298	.095	.932
Nothing special	-2.491	.775	10.341	1	.001	.083	.018	.378
Underdeveloped	-1.571	.453	12.007	1	.001	.208	.085	.505
Constant	.789	.180	19.234	1	.000	2.201		
a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Disorganized, Nothing special, Underdeveloped.								
Source: SPSS 14.0								

Finally, the process was repeated using the holistic perception words. This model included 202 valid expatriate cases. None of the words correlated highly with BLT. “Nothing special” and “Under-developed” were the only variables correlating more than 0.3 with BLT with correlations of -0.325 and -0.310 respectively. None of the independent variables highly correlated. The words with the lowest variability not explained by other variables were “Family destination” and “Glamorous” with Tolerance values of 0.622 and 0.631 respectively. The highest VIF was 1.607, so it could be possible to find a good model. The final solution chosen had only three words; “Nothing special”, “Under-developed” and “Disorganized” (Table 5.35). The OTMC Chi-square value of 42.553 square with 3 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.000) and the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test Chi-square of 0.398 with 3 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.941) both indicated goodness of fit. The model explained between 19.1% and 25.5% of the variability, according to Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square, and had positive and negative predictive values of 68.8% and 76.6% respectively. All three words were inversely related to BLT. Using these words produced a model that improved prediction from 55.2% to 71.1%, a respectable 28.8% improvement (i.e. $(71.1\% - 55.2\%) / 55.2\% = 28.8\%$), which indicated its worthiness as a predictive tool.

Religious was one of the words that was considered ambiguous in Section 5.4.4. During the process, “Religious” was found to be negatively related to brand loyalty, significantly so, but the word was not included in the final solution. It did appear during the process, however, that expatriates view this characteristic as a negative one. The information provided by such a model allows marketers to discover whether particular words are positive or negative indicators from the point of view of the group being studied, which is useful insight when choosing which aspects of the destination to emphasize or downplay to each target market.

A comparison of the three models indicated that expatriate satisfaction with Place attributes was the best predictive tool. The predictive ability of the third model might have been higher if more words could have been accommodated together. Results may differ in a larger sample.

5.7. 3 Tourist BLT prediction

There were 111 BLT members (Section 5.7) and 45 non-members. According to Hosmer and Lemeshow (Section 4.7.4), this limits the number of variables that can be entered into a logistic regression model together to 3.

The first attempt to predict tourist BLT used the demographic variables: Gender, Age, Origin, Education, Income, Previous visitation and Event sponsorship. 151 valid cases were included in the initial logistic model. The variables were tested for collinearity and multi-collinearity together. None of the variables correlated highly with BLT, the highest being a very low 0.143 with Education, indicating that a good model might not be achievable. None of the independent variables were highly correlated with each other either. Collinearity statistics showed no Tolerance values below 0.1 between variables, the lowest being Income level at 0.835 and no VIF values exceeding 1.197, indicating that these variables could be entered into a logistic regression model together. No good model was found that would help in prediction. The best model included only Income and Origin, both of which were insignificant. This model (Table 5.36) included 155 cases and explained between 3.9% and 5.6% of the variability, according to Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square. The OTMC Chi-square value of 6.205, 2 degrees of freedom and significance of 0.045 and the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test Chi-square value of 8.422, 6 degrees of freedom and significance of 0.209 both exhibited goodness of fit. Positive predictive ability is 71%. However, correct prediction stayed at 71%, so demographic variables were not considered useful in prediction of event tourists' BLT.

Secondly, the usefulness of satisfaction was investigated. TPLACE, climate, TCOST and TEVENT were introduced into a logistic regression model, along with Beaches, Cultural Activities, Nightlife, Sightseeing and Climate. These variables were too numerous for a logistic model with a sample of this size, but since an exploratory approach was taken, where variables were entered on a trial and error basis, multi-collinearity was investigated in case they ended up in the solution together. Sightseeing (0.353) and Cultural activities (0.331) were the only two variables with

correlations with BLT exceeding 0.3, indicating that a model might not be achievable. Surprisingly, TEVENT (-0.045) had the lowest correlation with BLT, though none of the independent variables correlated highly. Collinearity statistics showed no Tolerance values below 0.1 between variables, the lowest being “Cultural activities” at 0.352 and no VIF values exceeded 2.841. The variables could be entered into a logistic regression model together. Despite many attempts, no good models were found. Satisfaction was not a good aid in prediction of tourist BLT membership, although 114 respondents was the highest number of respondents at any time in this section.

Table 5. 36 Tourist logistic regression solutions

Step 1(a)	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95.0% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
1. Tourist demographic solution								
Origin	.772	.416	3.440	1	.064	2.165	.957	4.896
Income	.232	.132	3.057	1	.080	1.260	.972	1.634
Constant	.023	.428	.003	1	.957	1.023		
a Variable(s) entered on step 1: origin, income.								
2. Tourist Holistic Perception solution								
Nothing special	-2.595	.878	8.736	1	.003	.075	.013	.417
Peaceful	.936	.454	4.245	1	.039	2.551	1.047	6.216
Nightlife	1.340	.810	2.739	1	.098	3.820	.781	18.679
Constant	.655	.275	5.664	1	.017	1.925		
a Variable(s) entered on step 1: Nothing special, Peaceful, Nightlife.								
3. Tourist Expectations solution								
TEXPECT	.621	.217	8.237	1	.004	1.862	1.218	2.846
Constant	1.018	.213	22.864	1	.000	2.768		
a Variable(s) entered on step 1: TEXPECT								
Source: SPSS 14.0.								

The third attempt explored whether holistic perception words could aid in BLT prediction with 129 valid tourist cases. “Nothing special” was the only word that correlated with BLT more than 0.3 with a correlation of -0.337. None of the variables correlated highly with each other. The words with the lowest variability not explained by other variables were “Boring” and “Nothing Special” with Tolerance values of 0.484 and 0.512 respectively. The highest VIF was 2.067. These results

indicated that it might be possible to find a good model. The final solution consisted of three words (Table 5.36), only two of which were significant using 129 valid cases. The OTMC Chi-square value of 21.612 with 3 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.000) and the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test Chi-square of 1.997 with 3 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.573) both indicated goodness of fit. The model explained between 15.4% and 22.2% of the variability, according to Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square. This solution improved predictive ability from 72.1% to 77.5%, a small 7.49% contribution $((77.5\% - 72.1\%) / 72.1\% = 7.49\%)$. "Nightlife" was retained despite being insignificant, because its removal adversely affected the model's performance. Prediction could be improved with a longer list, but the model could not accommodate so many variables, so this solution was considered optimal. The model's positive and negative predictive abilities were 76.7% and 89% respectively. In this solution, tourists were less likely to be loyal if they described the destination as "Nothing special". Those describing it as "Nightlife" and or "Peaceful" were almost 4 and 2.5 times more likely to be loyal than those who did not use these words, respectively.

The final attempt used TEXPECT. The analysis included 126 valid cases. Because there was only one variable, there was no need to test for multi-collinearity. Correlation with BLT was 0.267 which was quite low. When the logistic regression model was attempted (Table 5.36), the OTMC Chi-square value of 9.268 with 1 degree of freedom (Sig = 0.002) and the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test Chi-square of 28.507 with 8 degrees of freedom (Sig = 0.000) both indicated goodness of fit. The model would explain between 7.1% and 10.2% of the variability, according to Cox & Snell R square and Nagelkerke R square. Curiously, the problem was that using this logistic regression model actually decreased the likelihood of correct prediction of brand loyalty from 71.4% to 68.3%, a 4.54% decrease $((71.4\% - 68.3\%) / 68.3\% = 4.54\%)$ which would dispute the usefulness of the model as a predictive tool. The model had positive predictive value of 71.2% compared to 71.4% without it, but it had a negative predictive ability of 25% compared to 0 without it. The variable TEXPECT related directly with BLT with a significance of 0.004.

Comparing results from the four tourist models, the best BLT predictions could be attained from the words used by a tourist to describe the destination. Although the logistic regression model was not very useful in this particular case, it might be more useful with a larger sample that can accommodate more words.

The results from the analysis in this chapter are synthesized next.

5. 8 Synthesis

Inspection of the Place attribute satisfaction levels identified areas rated highly by all three samples (see Appendix VI.ii), with “highly satisfactory” mode ratings. Residents rated friendliness highest and tourists who rated it second highest actually found it more satisfactory than residents. All respondents also gave communication a “highly satisfactory” mode rating, especially tourists who rated it highest of the three. Food and beverage was also rated among the highest by everyone. Cleanliness was an area of dispute; tourists found Bahrain clean, mostly “highly satisfactory”, much more so than residents. Safety, tourists’ highest rated attribute, was also only rated sixth and ninth by locals and expatriates respectively. Areas of concern were beaches, transport and sightseeing. Beaches were rated mostly positively by expatriates, but most negatively by locals, and as the least satisfactory Place attribute by tourists. In general, Place attributes were rated most generously by tourists, followed by expatriate residents and lowest by locals (Table 5.1). As the table illustrated, tourist satisfaction was highest in 12 of the 14 attributes. Expatriates were only dissatisfied with 2 attributes while locals ranked third in 12 of them. Statistically significant differences in Place satisfaction between the three samples indicate that each group should be studied separately in order to understand how the destination is perceived (Section 5.3.1.4). Tourists were the most satisfied group with Attractions (Table 5.7), which is consistent with their responses to the “Sightseeing” attribute in the Place scale, where they had the highest mean rating (Table 5.1). Residents perceive attractions similarly, but differently from event tourists (Section 5.3.1.4). Despite the differences, they all agreed that the best thing about the attractions is their standard, and that there is insufficient variety (Table 5.7). Expatriates were the most satisfied with costs, followed by locals, while tourists were

the most dissatisfied. This order was maintained with all three samples on four of the six costs; food and beverage, shopping, sightseeing and entertainment, and with residents on all of them (Table 5.13). Food and beverage was consistently the most satisfactory cost. Curiously, tourists were the least satisfied, despite being the highest income (see Appendix V.i).

Overall, local satisfaction with destination attributes was lower than that of expatriates and, excluding costs, lower than that of tourists as well. The only attributes locals rated positively were friendliness, communication and food and beverage. The worst rated attribute by locals was transportation (mean = -0.9), although its cost was rated higher (mean = 0.1). Attributes locals rated negatively were cultural activities (mean = -0.10), entertainment (mean = -0.26), climate (mean = -0.16) and beaches (mean = -0.17), all of which the others rated positively. Residents were also unsatisfied with sightseeing (mean = -0.53) and all the Attractions attributes, although expatriate ratings were consistently slightly higher. Accommodation cost (mean = -0.01) was another shared resident negative.

Generally, locals are the least satisfied and the most dissatisfied, while tourists are the most satisfied. The latter had the most positive evaluations of all Place and Attractions attributes except food and beverage and shopping, both of which had mean satisfaction ratings that came second highest after expatriates. The overall picture that emerges, therefore, is one of tourists more satisfied with most of Bahrain's attributes than its own residents. Apart from costs, tourists viewed Bahrain positively. Simply, the results show that tourists find Bahrain very safe, very friendly, clean and easy to communicate in, and they are happy with the food, accommodation and the place overall and think the climate and the sightseeing are good, all of which are positive, but that everything is too expensive and beaches are a problem. By finding out how satisfactory the destination's attributes are to locals, expatriates and event tourists, this chapter has provided the information to answer questions RQ1a, RQ1b and RQ1c (Table 3.3) and therefore to RQ1: *How satisfactory are individual destination attributes?*

From respondents' holistic perceptions, it can be concluded that Bahrain is generally perceived by everyone as a friendly, hot, peaceful, traditional financial centre, in decreasing strength, with potential for business and family tourism (Section 5.4. 4). Expatriates' perception was unclear beyond that, although they mentioned that it was a safe family destination with restaurants (Section 5.4.2). Locals perceive it as having a history but boring and nothing special (Section 5.4.1). Both samples perceive it as contrasting with Dubai, which is more active and fast-paced. Tourists see it as safe, expensive, somewhat cosmopolitan and exotic compared to Dubai, the shopping destination, and they probably do not change their mind with repeat visitation (Section 5.4.3). Residents perceive it as a financial centre more than tourists do, but unlike the latter, they also see it as underdeveloped. With the exception of costs, tourists appear to have the most positive and least negative holistic perception, followed by expatriates (Section 5.4.4). Results from expatriates were significantly different from those of both locals and tourists, indicating a difference in their perceptions (Section 5.4.5).

Overall, most aspects of Bahrain surpassed tourists' expectations, including the destination as a whole, but it was also more expensive than they expected (Section 5.4.6). The group earning between USD40-60 thousand per annum was the only group pleasantly surprised, though only slightly. The destination's strength is its people, consistently with results from Sections 5.3.1.5 and 5.4.4. Surprisingly, these results did not differ among repeat visitors. In Bahrain, it appears that the holistic perception element of the destination brand image is affected more by the intimacy level of the relationship with *people* rather than by familiarity of the relationship with *tourists*. Factor analysis reduced tourist "experience versus expectation" elements to one component "TEXPECT". The implications of these results are discussed further in Chapter Six. These results provide information that answers the questions RQ2a, RQ2b and RQ2c (Table 3.3) and therefore to question RQ2: *What is the holistic perception of the destination?* (Section 3.7.2).

Brand loyalty results indicate that both resident groups are more likely to recommend others attend events than come for a holiday. The majority of each sample intends to recommend visiting the destination for a holiday, and even more of them to

recommend visiting to attend events (Table 5.30). Locals were likely to recommend visiting for a holiday (59%), visiting to attend events (66%) and to agree that Bahrain is a great place to live (71%). 35.6% of all locals are loyal in all ways (Section 5.5.1). Locals were more loyal to Bahrain as a place to live than as a place to visit. Female locals were significantly more likely (79.1%) to be loyal to Bahrain as a place to live than males (62.1%). Very few locals (11.2%) felt no loyalty of any sort. Expatriates were also likely to recommend others visit for a holiday (66%), to attend events (72%) and to agree that Bahrain is a great place to live (78%) (Section 5.5.2). Expatriates were more loyal to Bahrain as place to live than as a place to visit, and the least educated ones were significantly more likely to be loyal to it as a place to live. Expatriates who were loyal to Bahrain as a place to live were more likely to be loyal to it as a place to visit. Unlike other income categories, the highest earners were much less likely than others to be loyal to Bahrain as a place to visit. Half of all expatriates were loyal for both visiting and living. The longer expatriates stay in Bahrain, the more likely that they are loyal. Tourists 40 years or older were more likely than younger ones to recommend others visit to attend events, and high earning tourists were more likely to attend events themselves in the future (Section 5.5.3). 85% of tourists will recommend others visit Bahrain to attend events and would attend events themselves. Tourists earning more than USD40 thousand per annum are more likely to revisit for events than lower earners, and those with a university education are more likely to attend events than those either more or less educated. Only 5.1% of tourists did not feel any loyalty of any sort. Tourists' previous visitation did not have any effect on the results. Destination markets included in the study were found to be loyal to Bahrain's tourism product. Locals and tourists would recommend a stay of 7-8 days, while expatriates would recommend 8-9 days (Section 5.6). This provides answers to questions RQ3a, RQ3b and RQ3c (Table 3.3) and therefore to the third research question, RQ3: *Are destination markets loyal to the destination brand for tourism?* Together, the answers to RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3 provide the information that addresses the main research problem: *The brand image of Bahrain as a tourist destination* (Table 3.3).

The similarities and differences between expatriates' and the other two samples have also been identified. By comparing the answers to RQ1b to those of RQ1a and RQ1c,

conclusions can be reached about how expatriates evaluate the destination's attributes. Expatriates were significantly more satisfied than locals in 8 of the 14 Place attributes (Section 5.3.1.4), and in 2 of the 6 costs (Section 5.3.3.4) included in this research. No statistically significant differences were found between local and expatriate satisfaction with any of the Attractions attributes (Section 5.3.2.4), not even at the 5% level. Despite some similarities between local and expatriate satisfaction attributes, especially regarding attractions, they evaluate most Place attributes and some costs differently from locals. They also evaluate almost all Place attributes differently from event tourists. Tourists were significantly more satisfied than expatriates with 11 of the 14 Place attributes (Section 5.3.1.4), and every single one of the 6 Attractions attributes (Section 5.3.2.4). On the other hand, tourists were significantly more satisfied with three of the six costs included in this research (Section 5.3.3.4). In general, this indicates more difference than similarity in satisfaction with the destination's attributes between the two groups. There were 18 times more significant differences in holistic perception between expatriates and locals than one would randomly expect, and 24 times more significant differences between expatriates and tourists (Section 5.4.5). Tourists were significantly more likely to recommend attending events than either expatriates or locals. All three samples are brand loyal towards Bahrain, but brand loyalty was lowest among locals (Section 5.5.5). This provides information to answer the questions RQ4a, RQ4b and RQ4c (Table 3.3) and therefore to the question RQ 4: *How should expatriates be classified?*

It appears from the results that knowledge of which holistic perception words local and tourist respondents are using to describe Bahrain is the most useful aid in improving prediction of their WOM, while satisfaction with the destination's attributes seems to be the best predictor of expatriate BLT membership (Table 5.37). The tourist conclusion may differ with larger samples. The use of the logistic regression model could be improved with a larger sample, especially with the holistic perception words. Obviously, as the number of words is decreased, so does the number of correct predictions. The data did not allow the luxury of retaining a long list of words, because of the model's assumptions (Section 4.7.4). A longer list could

provide more information and accommodate more positioning comparisons with other destinations.

Table 5. 37 Comparison of BLT prediction scenarios

Possible Predictors		Sample		
		Locals	Expatriates	Tourists
Demographics	Variables	➤ Age	➤ Age ➤ Work ➤ Income	➤ Income ➤ Origin
	Contribution	55.1% to 59.5% (+8%)	55.2% to 62.2% (+12.7%)	Stays at 71% (0%)
Attribute satisfaction	Variables	➤ LPDO ➤ LATT ➤ Climate ➤ F & B	➤ XPACT ➤ XPCOM ➤ Accommodation	None found
	Contribution	56.0% to 69.0% (+23.2%)	55.3% to 74.6% (+34.9%)	
Holistic Perceptions	Variables	➤ Boring ➤ Disorganized ➤ Beaches ➤ Westernized	➤ Nothing special ➤ Underdeveloped ➤ Disorganized	➤ Nothing special ➤ Peaceful ➤ Nightlife
	Contribution	55.1% to 72.7% (+31.94%)	55.2% to 71.1% (+28.8%)	72.1% to 77.5% (+7.49%)
Experience v. Expectations	Variables	n/a	n/a	TEXPECT
	Contribution			71.4% to 68.3% (-4.4%)
Best predictors		Holistic perception	Satisfaction	Holistic perception

This provides answers to questions RQ5a, RQ5b and RQ5c (Table 3.3) and therefore the information to answer RQ5: *Is any of this data useful in predicting BLT (brand loyalty to the tourism product)?* These implications of these results are discussed in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This thesis aimed to discover the destination brand image of Bahrain as a tourist destination. Therefore, it was necessary to review literature addressing destination image, destination branding. The review determined that, in view of predictions of rising tourism travel supply and demand, and increased competition between destinations (Section 2.2), it is prudent for a destination wishing to establish a presence in the global marketplace to actively participate in its own branding (Freire 2005). Bahrain's recently developed interest in destination branding (Al-Yousif 2007b, BEDB 2007a, b) can help focus its efforts within a holistic destination strategy (Section 3.8.3).

Two destination branding paradigms were encountered in the literature; as a marketing strategy for tourism, and as a strategy for the destination's broader goals that include tourism (Anholt 2004; Gould & Skinner 2007). Despite initial scepticism, support has increased for destination branding among both academics and practitioners (Caldwell & Freire 2004), but the accompanying inconsistency in the terminology (Jenkins 1999; Konecnik 2004; Tasci & Kozak 2006) can hinder interpretation and the meaningful transfer of knowledge (Section 2.4.2). This thesis adopted the second paradigm, which expands branding beyond destination promotion and considers it a destination governance issue. It borrowed Kapferer's (2004) interpretations of brand identity as that constructed by the destination and brand image as that perceived by receivers (Section 2.3.2). A destination, unlike traditional product brands, is branded through its behaviours (Anholt 2002a, 2006b). A

destination's brand images are formed as a result of perceptions of individual destination attributes and perceptions of the holistic destination. The WOM individuals produce may be affected by satisfaction with destination attributes, holistic perception of the destination and possibly their demographic characteristics.

According to the literature (Randall 1997; Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Keller 2003; Pike 2005; Gartner 2007; Govers 2007), this brand identity should be believable, consistent, dynamic, relevant, unsurpassable, unusurpable, salient, communicable, effective, evolving, unique, sustainable and create a value match with customers (Section 2.5.2). Overcoming the challenges to destination branding (Section 2.4.2) requires commitment and coordination of the holistic effort and resident ownership of the proposed identity. This, combined with the important role of WOM in influencing the perceptions of others, helped to identify both tourists (Section 3.6.1) and local and expatriate residents (Section 3.6.2) as target markets of a branding strategy that aims to create ambassadors for the brand.

The constructed brand identity aims to influence the existing brand image and produce a more favourable one (Section 2.5.2). Therefore, the current brand image is the starting point from which active branding begins, and has to be discovered. A diversity of methodologies of measuring destination image was encountered in the literature. However, there was a noted preference for structured questions (Jenkins 1999; Pike 2002) to measure the cognitive element of destination image, along with some other method of measuring the holistic element (Echtner & Ritchie 1993; Mackay & Fesenmaier 2000). This informed the design of the self-administered structured instrument that was used in this research.

The review found that no academic research investigated Bahrain's brand image, which provided the main gap to be addressed by the research. Chapter Three provided some background information about Bahrain as a holistic system with goals (Section 3.8.3), as a place to live (Section 3.8.4) and as a place to visit (Section 3.8.5). Its size and its relatively large and diverse expatriate population made it ideal for this research. A research framework was designed guided by a combination of factors: the view of the destination as a holistic system, the role of WOM as a factor

influencing image, the importance of an ownable brand identity, the role of residents as both employees and customers of the destination and the idea of recruiting some of them as brand ambassadors. There were no guidelines in the literature clearly indicating how expatriate residents should be treated in research, resulting in a second gap this research would attempt to address (Section 3.7.1). The literature informed the positivist approach, reducing subjectivity through piloting and planning (Table 4.1). The attributes and holistic perception words were compiled and tailored through preliminary fieldwork and piloting (Section 4.4). Attitude scales measured customer satisfaction with attributes (Section 3.3), while holistic perception was measured through selection from a given list of descriptors (Section 3.4). The thesis argued that the nature of tourism and the power of WOM (Section 3.5.1) made “recommending others visit the destination” a more appropriate brand loyalty indicator than ‘willingness to revisit’ (Section 3.5.2). There was a scarcity of literature comparing predictors of destination brand loyalty, and this presented the third gap.

Primary data was collected from local and expatriate residents and tourists attending events. The data were analyzed (Figure 4.4) using SPSS 14.0. Results were presented using descriptive statistics, and the relationships between demographics on the one hand and customer satisfaction and holistic perception on the other were investigated. The results identified each sample’s evaluation of attributes (Sections 5.3.1 through 5.3.4) and how Bahrain is perceived in relation to its neighbour Dubai (Sections 5.4.1 through 5.4.3). Results indicated that Bahrain generally appeals more to older residents, and older and more educated tourists. Its strengths are its people, its dining and shopping offerings and its successful events (Section 5.8), and its weakest areas are transport, beaches and cultural activities appealing to older locals. Bahrain’s destination image and the strategic and tactical implications are discussed in Section 6.2.3 and 6.4 respectively. Expatriate results were compared with those of the other samples, to discover their positioning, thereby addressing the second gap. The combination of results from Sections 5.3.1.4, 5.3.2.4, 5.3.3.4 and 5.4.5 provides sufficient evidence to warrant treating expatriates as distinct from both locals and tourists. This is discussed further in Section 6.2.1. Finally, logistic regression was used to compare the contributions of demographics, customer satisfaction and

holistic perception (Figure 3.4) to correct prediction of BLT membership (Figure 5.4), addressing the third gap (Section 3.7.1). Results from tourists were inconclusive, but both satisfaction with the destination's attributes and holistic perception were found to contribute to correct prediction of local and expatriate BLT, to varying degrees (Table 5.37). Knowledge of holistic perception was most useful in local BLT prediction, while customer satisfaction was most useful in predicting expatriate BLT. Tourist results were inconclusive and would benefit from further investigation using a larger sample. This is discussed in Section 6.2.2.

The findings are synthesized in the remainder of this chapter, as they relate to each research question (Section 6.2), building up to answer the research problem. Implications resulting from these findings are discussed in relation to Bahrain (Section 6.4) as well as to the literature and to knowledge in general (Section 6.3). A discussion of the contribution (Section 6.5) this thesis makes to the destination specifically and to destination branding theory in general is followed with a discussion of the limitations of this research and suggestions for further research (Section 6.6).

6.2 Revisiting the research questions

The results of this research provided information leading to conclusions about the research questions and sub-questions in Table 3.3 and addressing the gaps discussed in Section 3.7.2. The following is a discussion of these conclusions as they pertain to each research question.

6.2.1 Conclusions: expatriate positioning (RQ4)

The literature review did not provide guidelines regarding the treatment of expatriates when researching the image of a host destination. This research compared data from expatriates with those from both locals and event tourists to determine whether they should be combined with either or treated as a separate category.

Comparisons of expatriates with locals found significant differences at the 1% level in satisfaction with the destination's place attributes (Section 5.3.1.4) in 6 out of 14 attributes and a further 2 at the 5% level. Further, there were significant differences between their satisfaction with costs of food and beverage and of entertainment (Section 5.3.3.5). However, no significant differences were found in evaluating attractions attributes (Section 5.3.2.4). Statistically significant differences at the 1% level were also found between local and expatriate use of 6 of the 34 words used to describe holistic perception of the destination (Section 5.4.5), which far exceeded the number of differences expected due to chance. There were no significant differences in brand loyalty. Based on the above, sufficient difference was found between the two resident samples to justify arguing for treating them separately, but that they may be combined when conducting research that evaluates satisfaction with tourist attractions. The implications of these results are discussed further in Sections 6.3.1 and 6.4.

Between expatriates and tourists, there were statistically significant differences at the 1% level in satisfaction with 11 of the 14 place attributes. There were also significant differences between expatriate and tourist satisfaction with every single one of the six attraction attributes (Section 5.3.2.4) and half of the six cost attributes included in the questionnaire (Section 5.3.3.5). There were also significant differences between the two samples' use of 8 of the 34 words (Section 5.4.5) which is even more difference than that between expatriates and locals. Finally, there was a significant difference between the responses of the two samples to one of the two brand loyalty statements. Overall, it could be said that there is overwhelming evidence against combining expatriates and tourists in one sample, and strongly supporting the argument for treating expatriates separately from tourists.

In conclusion, the combination of these findings indicates that expatriates should be classified as a separate category, and not considered as residents together with locals, or as foreigners together with tourists, which answers the research question RQ4 (Section 3.7.2). The graduated results of the three samples in satisfaction with destination's place attributes (Table 5.1) and holistic perception of the destination (Table 5.26) support the relevance of intimacy level as a possible variable in

destination image, but further research is needed to explore this in other destinations before generalizations can be made beyond Bahrain.

6.2. 2 Conclusions: Brand loyalty prediction (RQ5)

The variable “Brand Loyalty to the Tourism Product” (BLT) was introduced in Section 5.7, and the possibility of predicting BLT membership from demographic data, satisfaction attributes, holistic perception or experience versus satisfaction were later explored. Of all the demographic data considered, age was the most useful aid for prediction of local BLT membership, but its contribution was limited. For expatriates, the combination of age, employment and income was slightly more useful. Satisfaction with the destination’s attributes was useful in predicting BLT membership for both locals and expatriates, especially the latter, but was not useful in predicting tourist BLT membership. Holistic perception words were also considerably useful in predicting BLT membership of both locals and expatriates and somewhat useful in predicting tourist BLT membership. Experience versus expectation was not useful in predicting tourist BLT membership. The results of these efforts were discussed in Section 5.7.

For locals, the best predictor was knowledge of whether they used four descriptors (Boring, Disorganized, Beaches, Westernized), which improved prediction by 31.94%. This was followed by satisfaction with the destination’s place attributes, improving prediction by 23.2% while demographics contributed very little (8%). Locals aged 40 or over were more likely to be BLT members. Specific knowledge of respondents’ age was not available. If it had, the contribution may have been larger. The contribution from knowledge about costs was negligible. For expatriates, the best predictor was satisfaction with the destination’s attributes, which improved prediction by 34.9%. These attributes did not include cost or attractions attributes. WOM was positively related to satisfaction. This was followed by knowledge of whether they used three descriptors (Nothing special, Underdeveloped, Disorganized), which improved prediction by 28.8%. These words were negatively related to BLT membership. Knowledge of whether expatriates were over 40 or younger, whether they were employed and their income level only improved

prediction by 12.7%. Age group and employment were directly related, while income level was inversely related. Surprisingly, neither costs nor attractions were related. For tourists, a slight contribution could be gained by knowledge of whether they used the three descriptors (Nothing special, Peaceful and Nightlife). Tourist prediction was aided only 7.49% by holistic perception words, yet this was still higher than the contribution of demographics, or comparing their experience to expectations, while no model could be found for satisfaction. No worthy model to help predict tourist BLT could be found given the available data, but of all the possibilities, holistic perception words were the best. Tourist logistic regression results are inconclusive due to the smaller sample size.

Whether the relationships between particular variables and BLT membership were direct or inverse may be particular to Bahrain. The research concludes, however, that satisfaction with destination attributes and the words that residents choose to describe the destination from a given list were related to BLT membership. Therefore, knowledge of these variables can contribute to prediction of whether they intend to produce positive WOM, by recommending the destination to others. To a much lesser degree, some demographics such as age, income and employment may also be useful. Holistic perception words may also be useful in predicting WOM of tourists attending events. This does not in any way imply a causal relationship (Kane 1987; Oppenheim 1992), rather a correlation to be further investigated. Findings support the pursuit of exploring BLT prediction, which answers the research question RQ5 (Section 3.7.2). However, results need to be corroborated in other destinations before they can be generalized. This information's usefulness lies in its ability to contribute to identifying potential destination brand ambassadors (Section 3.6).

6.2. 3 Conclusions: Bahrain's brand image as a place to visit (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3)

As already mentioned in Sections 3.7.1 and 6.1, Bahrain is now interested in branding, and it is important that decisions are based on research rather than impression, to avoid costly mistakes. The research problem was to discover the brand image of Bahrain as a tourist destination, and the empirical research investigated this

research problem from three different perspectives. Because of the expatriate positioning findings (Section 6.2.1), the results from the three samples will be presented separately. In addition to discovering the destination image of Bahrain, these results are especially important because of their ability to contribute to correct prediction of brand loyalty to the destination's tourism product (Section 6.2.2).

Locals view Bahrain (Section 5.4.1) as a traditional financial centre with a rich history that is clean, peaceful and safe, has excellent shopping, excellent communication, adequate nightlife and generally satisfactory costs, except for accommodation. Females, especially, perceive it to be extremely friendly. It has unsatisfactory entertainment, beaches and sightseeing, is boring and has nothing special to offer. Younger locals find its climate unsatisfactory, while older locals believe it has adequate climate, excellent dining and very good accommodation. Its cultural activities do not appeal to educated high-earning locals. Transport is a problem. Despite feeling positive towards the destination as a place to live, results indicate that some locals feel Bahrain has the necessary infrastructure to cater to events, but that it does not perhaps have what is required to satisfy holidaymakers' demands. Expatriates perceive Bahrain (Section 5.4.2) as a traditional financial centre and a family destination with a pleasant climate, good beaches, good night life, satisfactory cultural activities, very good communication and excellent shopping. It is peaceful, and extremely friendly, but offers unsatisfactory sightseeing. Arab expatriates, especially, perceive it to be safe. Older expatriates, in particular, believe it offers excellent well-priced restaurants and excellent accommodation. Females are unsatisfied with cleanliness, attractions attributes and cost of transport. Transport is a problem. Tourists attending events perceive Bahrain (Section 5.4.3) as a traditional financial centre, somewhat cosmopolitan and exotic. It has a good climate, satisfactory beaches, excellent shopping and excellent communication and is extremely friendly, very clean and peaceful and very safe. It offers excellent food and beverage, good entertainment and very good nightlife. It is not particularly perceived as a historical destination. Events in Bahrain surpass their expectations. Tourists who have been sightseeing think it is good, especially first-timers, but many have not. Non-Arab tourists find sightseeing expensive. Older tourists, especially, have a perception of very good accommodation, good cultural activities and

satisfactory transport, although the latter is a weak attribute. Younger tourists find it more expensive. Older and more educated tourists are more satisfied with costs and have a more positive destination image.

Bahrain appeals more to people aged over 40. Its strengths are well-priced dining, shopping, friendliness and communication. Its weaknesses are its transport and beaches, the lack of cultural activities catering to more educated higher-earning locals and its sights need to be further developed. The restaurants element of the destination was rated highly as an attribute, although its cost was more satisfactory to residents than tourists. It is also perceived by all three groups as traditional, to varying degrees, but not religious. Of the three samples, tourists have the most positive image, followed by expatriates. While tourists see it as somewhere exotic and cosmopolitan, which is interesting, they appear not to know what to make of it. They do not think of Bahrain as a history destination, despite its rich history, and even though they rated shopping highly as an attribute, they do not view Bahrain as a shopping destination, especially not compared to Dubai. This is not surprising when considering that Dubai has been promoted as a 'shopaholic's paradise' for the last 20 years (Wallis 2005).

6.3 Implications for Destination Branding

6.3.1 Implications from the findings

Destination image was approached as a perception of the holistic destination brand, consistently with the new trend in destination branding literature (Anholt 2002a, 2005a; Gilmore 2002a; Morgan & Pritchard 2002), believing the brand is built through actions rather than active branding. There are implications to this paradigm. At the micro level, a destination's brand image will affect people's decisions to live in a place, invest in it, visit it, recommend it and purchase its products. At the macro-level, its brand image will affect its economic future and its pecking order among nations (Anholt 2005a). As destination branding gains more acceptance and appreciation as a means for places to compete in the global market (Section 2.2) and

achieve their economic and social goals (Section 2.4), as more places relate success in tourism to success in attracting investment (Gilmore 2002a; Gnoth 2002; Anholt 2005a) and migration (Anholt 2005a), it becomes more important to add structure to the field. Initial scepticism towards destination branding is being replaced with inconsistency in its interpretation (Section 2.4.2), so while it is gaining more support, some of this support may be misinformed (Nworah 2005; Park & Petrick 2006). The inconsistency in branding literature terminology noted in Chapters Two and Three can hinder the interpretation of research and the transfer of knowledge which are necessary to build credible theory and to further knowledge in this field. The literature review attempted to address this in a limited way. Through contributing to filling the gaps in Section 3.7.1, this research aims to contribute to destination branding theory. The results of this research have implications to both destination branding theory and destination brand image measurement methodology. To place the implications into context, it is useful to conduct a brief review of the research process.

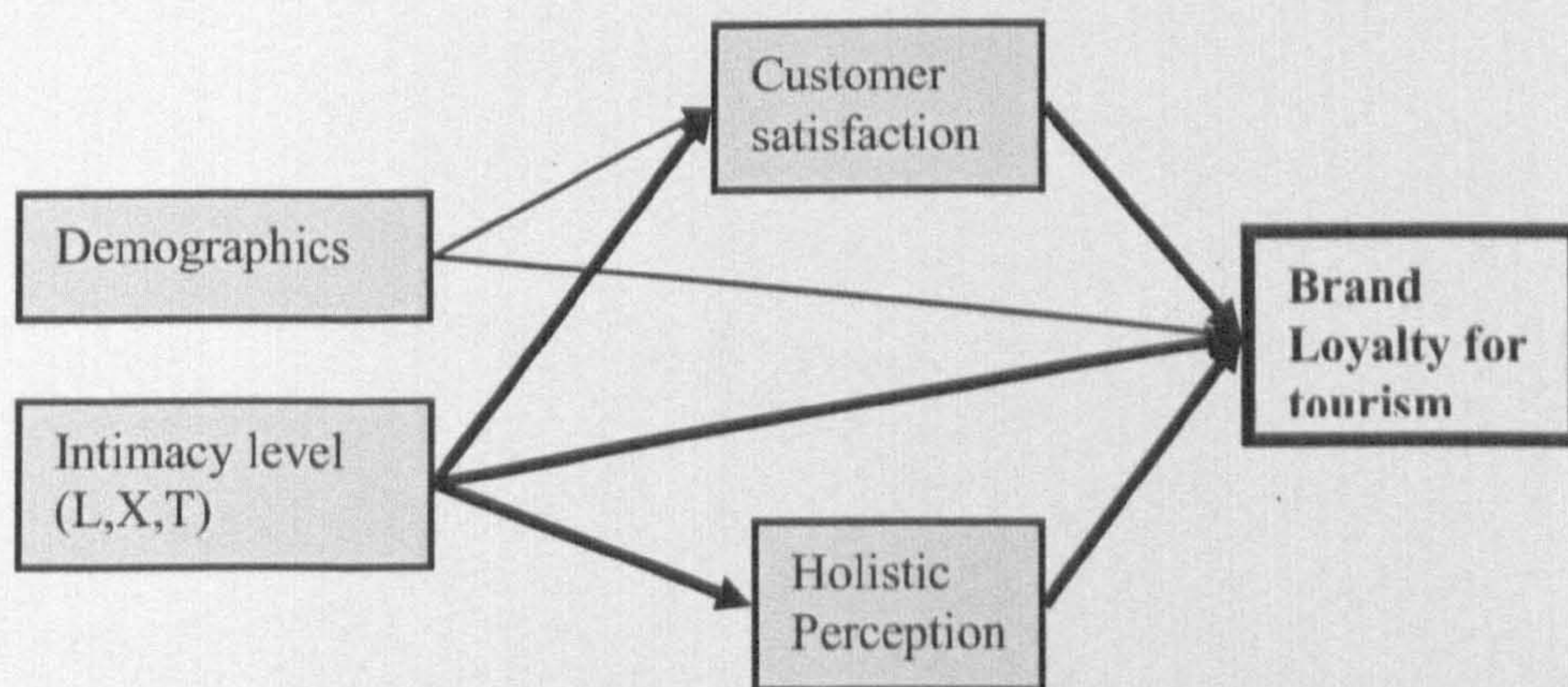
Brand identity construction (Section 2.5.2) and the measurement of destination brand image (Section 3.2) are areas that have seen much innovation, and the literature has borrowed from the experiences of many other disciplines through the rich contributions of interested researchers of various academic and professional backgrounds (Section 2.4.2). The literature was considered in an attempt to contribute in some small way to the formalization of destination branding theory and its relationship with destination image, and to contribute towards reconciling theory and reducing ambiguity. Within the limitations of the data, relationships between variables were investigated. The intention was twofold: to draw conclusions about categorization or concede to continued ambiguity by investigating differences, and to propose relationships worthy of further investigation by exploring prediction. The exercise began by defining the brand image and brand identity of the destination and their relationship to establish the basis for this research. This was followed by constructing the model in Figure 3.4 and proceeding to investigate some of the relationships.

Approaching the destination holistically, as a system of parts, logically emphasizes the role of residents in destination branding for tourism, as destination employees and customers (Table 3.2). Approaching branding as a sustainable strategy means going beyond merely considering how to motivate residents to produce positive WOM. Rather, it means addressing the issues that concern residents in the first place, so that they will of themselves be inclined to produce WOM that supports the destination brand identity. Building on the influence of familiarity with the destination (Mackay & Fesenmaier 1997; Baloglu & McCleary 1999b; Baloglu 2001; Kim & Richardson 2003; Prentice 2004, 2006) the model in Figure 3.3 was proposed, distinguishing between those who view the destination as a place to visit, those who view it as a place to live and work and those who view it as a place to belong. The power of WOM as understood from the literature (Section 3.5.1), and the disparity of images found by this research (Section 6.2.1) indicate that the views of residents, both local and expatriate, should be considered separately. In particular, if the WOM and eWOM produced by expatriates (Section 3.6.2) about the host destination has enough credibility to influence the brand image and the decisions of potential visitors, investors and migrants, as proposed in Figure 3.3, then it would not be prudent for destinations to ignore their potential role. Their potential is apparent in Bahrain, where expatriate image is more positive than that of locals. Treating the expatriate market separately enables discovery of its particular perceptions and catering to its particular needs. If they are not distinguished in reality, their needs may be misunderstood. If they are not distinguished in research, expatriates may be hidden among the resident sample or be mistaken for tourists, skewing results. Whether there are significant differences between these three perceptions in other destinations, and whether any such differences are related to the intimacy of the relationships between the markets and the destination can also be explored. While the findings borne out of this research are specific and are not generalizable beyond Bahrain (Section 4.5), the mere existence of significant contributory relationships in this destination suggest a need to explore and refute or confirm these types of relationships in other destinations. It would also be interesting to include the perception of the destination as a place to invest and compare it with the above perceptions. Generalizing beyond the particular nature of the relationship

between a person and a place, there may be differences between the perceptions of customers and employees of any organization, and also between the perceptions of permanent and temporary employees of any organisation.

Exploration of the relationships highlighted in Figure 3.4 and BLT membership prediction (Figure 3.5) also established that knowledge of some elements can indeed contribute to correct prediction of BLT membership (Section 5.7). Although there is no obvious reason to suppose that Bahrain might be unique in this sense, the results can again only be generalized upon finding corroborating evidence in other destinations. The practical significance of these results is that they direct attention to the most relevant concerns to each market. Correlation with customer satisfaction indicates the areas where improvement will make the most difference and have to be addressed. Correlation with holistic perception indicates the perceptions that are most likely to be associated with loyalty and the descriptions that should or should not be incorporated or emphasized in the brand identity. Correlation with demographics indicates the market segments most likely or least likely to be loyal. Figure 6.1 illustrates the relationships that were investigated in this research.

Figure 6. 1 Variable relationships investigated (sixth out of six)



note: thin arrows denote some relationship found, thick lines denote stronger relationships found

L = local, X = expatriate, T = event tourist

Source: based on Figure 3.4 and interpretation of the research findings

As Figure 6.1 illustrates, BLT was found to relate more strongly to destination attributes satisfaction and holistic perceptions than to demographics. Out of all the demographics investigated, age was related to resident BLT, and income was related to non-local BLT. In previous studies, Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) found age and educational level to be the most commonly arising demographic variables related to destination image among potential tourists who had never visited Turkey. Williams and Lawson (2001), in their research, found no significant differences between resident demographics attitudes towards *tourism* in their community, but attitudes towards tourism are not the same as brand loyalty to a tourism product, and community members against tourism in general may still recommend that others visit. The attitudes of residents towards tourism were beyond the scope of this research. Figure 6.1 also shows that the intimacy level of the relationship between respondents and the destination also relates to BLT. The intimacy variable is operationalized by the nature of the relationship to the destination as a place to visit, a place to live and work or a place to belong, as proposed in Figure 3.3.

6.3. 2 Implications from the methodology

The review of image measurement literature noted several things; the convergence towards a more common methodology as more research is conducted and published in this dynamic field, the preference for quantitative methodologies (Section 3.2), but also the lack of paradigm consensus, which still accommodates some creative licence in research design. If a destination appreciates the supportive role for its branding that can be played by each of its markets, and the recruitability of members of these markets as brand ambassadors, then it is logical to attempt to predict the WOM produced by these markets and identify the elements that contribute to the accuracy of this prediction. The literature review already noted the need for research to address this issue (Section 3.7.2) and this research suggests that this is indeed possible (Section 5.7). Comparisons between brand images of different destinations using this methodology can also provide information useful in positioning. The fact that BLT prediction exploration was fruitful strongly supports the explorative exercise itself. Prediction exploration research in other destinations can help to determine whether the loyalty prediction findings of this research can be generalized

and which variables are the most useful in prediction. There is no apparent reason why this methodology cannot also be applied to consumer products. In addition, using the combination of a limited number of predictors to discover holistic perception and logistic regression to explore prediction, this research was able to go beyond how the destination was perceived, to discover whether particular perceptions are positive or negative (Sections 5.4. 4 and 5.7. 2).

Another finding is that tourists were more willing to recommend that others visit Bahrain than they are to visit themselves (Section 5.7.3), which is consistent with the results of Murphy *et al* (2000) and Truong and Foster (2006). It is worthwhile pausing at the concept of brand loyalty and seriously pondering whether it is justifiable to consider people disloyal (not brand loyal) to the destination's tourism product if their positive WOM does result in increased visitation of others to the destination. Taken further, should a past customer be considered disloyal if he does not repurchase the brand? What if he does not buy the brand but does not buy a competing brand either? The matter of whether repurchase is a true indicator of brand loyalty needs to be debated. Given the above, it was far easier in this research, to justify using "willingness to create positive WOM about the destination by recommending it to others" as an indicator, than "willingness to return".

6. 4 Implications for Bahrain

Bahrain needs to design a holistic brand identity that begins from its brand image (Section 2.5.2). There are both strategic and tactical promotional implications to the findings of this research. These are discussed next.

6.4. 1 Strategic implications

Bahrain has experienced an economic boom (Section 3.8.2), and standing at a crossroads, it is well positioned to invest in creating a strong positive brand image. Politically, it appears that the timing could not be better for this research. Based on the literature review, all destination actions should occur within the brand identity

framework to ensure integrated marketing communications (Section 2.5.3). The infrastructure, media, education system, economy, industry, culture, foreign policy, tourism and services together will produce the holistic destination brand image (Section 2.5.3). Branding should be approached as an economic investment that incorporates all of the above in a holistic pursuit of all the destination's objectives (Anholt 2002a, 2005a; Gilmore 2002a; Gnoth 2002; Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Murphy *et al* 2000). Destination branding for tourism is then a destination issue rather than a tourism one, and a governance issue rather than a promotion one. The branding strategy for tourism should be part of the *destination branding* strategy which in turn should be part of the bigger picture, a holistic *nation branding* strategy to be achieved through visionary management. The destination brand empowers organizations within the destination, by providing them with a common framework within which to design their individual strategies, and a common vision towards which to direct these strategies. Information such as provided by this research is useful in designing the brand identity, managing the brand centrally and minimizing the erosion of the competitive advantages emphasized in the strategy to ensure sustainability (Section 2.5.2).

Bahrain was rated most positively by tourists, followed by expatriates and least by locals. This clearly indicates the starting point from which branding efforts should begin. From a branding point of view, this simplifies the problem, because the dissatisfaction of a well-defined captive audience will be easier to address than that of diverse target audiences abroad. Managing weak and problematic destination elements and improving infrastructure through sustainable local policy solutions that add value to the holistic destination brand will improve the brand images held by residents. Including representation from all parts of society (Section 2.5.2) helps ensure that politicians and destination managers understand the bigger picture, appreciate the stakes and manage their parts with the same mindset (Section 2.4.2), so that policies and statements are consistent with the brand (Section 2.5.3). Local perceptions require some pause. Younger locals, especially, may feel that "the grass is greener...". The mean expatriate income is only slightly and insignificantly (Sig = 0.547) higher than the mean local income (see Appendix V.i), but the former receive additional airfare, accommodation and other benefits, so the actual difference may be

larger than is apparent. Many western expatriates have access to better facilities than they would in their own countries and certainly than most locals do. Expatriates choose to migrate in search of a materially or spiritually higher quality of life than in their countries of origin (Section 3.6.2), so their continued presence itself implies some satisfaction. Having resided in at least one other country (their own), they can appreciate the advantages of living in Bahrain. Meanwhile the less migratory Bahrainis have little experience of prolonged life abroad to compare with, especially now that higher education is widely available in Bahrain (CBB 2008). Locals over 40 may be more appreciative of destination changes over the last 20 years, while younger locals informed about life in other countries vicariously through the media may have rose-tinted images and a negative relative perception of Bahrain. Beyond speculation, results indicate that branding should begin internally, to mobilize the dormant "army" of residents as active brand promoters. Internal branding, beginning with issues that are unsatisfactory to residents will nurture resident support for the branding strategy.

The success of Dubai as a tourist destination (Balakrishnan 2008) should not be disheartening. The 'spatial shift' which occurs to destinations (Butler 2001, p.291), with both development and tourism moving on to other destinations after some time, could be a future opportunity to prepare for, especially when one rightly takes the long-term perspective in destination planning and management. Its proximity also presents an opportunity to entice visitors and migrants for short breaks and create product awareness before launch, as it would be easier to draw them for a few days for an escape holiday experience (Table 5.24) than to draw them out from their original countries, especially given the contrast in their two images (Section 5.5.3). Well-planned tours should be evaluated as a future investment rather than a current revenue source.

The combination of the importance of expatriates (Section 3.6.2) and the difference in perception between them and locals and tourists (Section 6.2.1), makes it necessary to consider their concerns seriously, as will be recommended in Section 6.4.2. Meanwhile, tourism should focus on events (Section 5.3.4) ensuring visitors truly experience the destination, in order to create BLT (Section 5.7) and positive

WOM (Section 3.5.1) that supports destination marketing efforts. Perception of Bahrain by all three groups as traditional, could be a good or a bad thing depending on the perspective, but could be tied in to an ethnic “good old days” experience. It is a multi-faceted modern yet traditional tourist destination of contrasts with a strong ethnic friendly character (Section 5.4.4) that provides a cultural escape experience. Investing in both modernity and traditionalism can be emphasized, contrasting in a non-contradictory way, such as advanced customer service and old fashioned personalized hospitality. Some nationals may be proud of their ‘religious’ country but it is probably a blessing that foreigners do not perceive it that way, given current politics and the possibility that the destination will acquire an image of being too religious and strict. Negative images can put off potential investors and expatriates (Trueman *et al* 2004). While ‘societies divorced from their origins’ may have to create a ‘sense of pride and place’ (McIntosh and Prentice 1999, p.590), other societies that are still heavily connected, perhaps even laden, may have to be selective and discard some of their legacy, to arrive at an identity that helps to achieve goals but is still authentic enough to be ownable. Such an identity may have to embellish the positive, disown or downplay that which hinders its progress and acquire and incorporate new things to complement the old. Gertner and Kotler (2004, p.52) suggested ignoring, repositioning, or adding and communicating ‘positive attitude-building characteristics’ as ways to correct negative images. The problem with picking and choosing from legacy is that there is likely to be some resistance, and reaching the consensus required for successful branding is a formidable, though achievable, task.

6.4. 2 Tactical implications

Inspection of satisfaction with the individual destination attributes (Section 5.3) identified areas that must be addressed, as well as areas rated highly by all three groups which should be exploited in the brand. The long-term perspective (Butler 2001) should be maintained throughout the planning and execution process.

The high ratings of the destination’s “Friendliness” and “Communication” may be due to residents’ language skills (Section 3.8.4) and is encouraging. Because of its

relevance to tourists and potential expatriates and investors, and because effortless communication complements the relaxed and interactive cultural experience, this should perhaps feature heavily in the brand identity. Although this is a potentially useful asset, it has thus far been underexploited. This may be because it is taken for granted and under-marketed by destination marketers or because so many destinations now claim to be friendly (Morgan and Pritchard 2002) that this claim is dismissed by sceptical experienced travellers. While it should feature in the identity, it cannot be the only competitive advantage.

Food and Beverage was rated third highest by all three groups (Section 5.3.1.5). Its cost was also the most satisfactory cost to all the samples (Section 5.3.3.5). Despite a wide selection of restaurants offering all types of different cuisines at all price levels, current promotional material only includes international cuisine and hotel restaurants, ignoring Bahraini cuisine. Results showed that expatriate satisfaction with this attribute was directly related to the number of years living in Bahrain (Section 5.3.1.2). Whether expatriates are acquiring a taste for the locally available food with pro-longed exposure, or learning where to find the food they like is unclear since the questionnaire did not break down the attribute into cuisine types. Encouraging local restaurants and introducing a grading system that dispels concerns about food hygiene, safety and quality could be followed up by incorporating authentic local cuisine into the promoted product mix. Encouraging quality local establishments would enrich the hospitality industry, even if it initially takes some business away from currently well-known restaurants. Increased positive WOM can help stimulate tourism (Section 3.5.1) and expatriate inward migration creating more business for the entire hospitality industry. Where possible, high quality local ingredients should be used, highlighted and associated with the brand. Encouraging alfresco restaurants and health-regulated street vending of local food in heavy pedestrian traffic areas would also provide an opportunity to try unfamiliar Bahraini foods, integrating them into the authentic Bahraini experience and enriching the destination brand. Employing locals in these establishments would aid the authentic experience and would also help create jobs and strengthen the economy (Section 2.4). If businesses continue to create jobs and then import low-paid foreigners to fill them (Oxford Business Group 2004; GDN 2006a, Baby 2008a), long-term damage

will be irreparable. In addition to leakage (Hussein 2005), local dissatisfaction resulting from unemployment can negatively impact their support for the brand. Any stigma that may be attached to the hospitality industry (Section 3.8.3) can be countered by fair wages, career growth opportunities and education about the industry, which will strengthen the friendly and authentic dining element. Ensuring economic stability will strengthen national pride (Section 2.4) and turn locals into better brand ambassadors.

Safety was tourists' highest rated attribute and rated sixth and ninth by locals and expatriates respectively (Section 5.3.1.5). Residents' perceptions of the country as less safe than tourists' should be investigated, to determine whether they are due to a growing population, shortcomings in the police, judicial or penal systems, increased reporting of crime, or other reasons. Even bag-snatching incidents are often reported in the newspaper and court cases are a regular feature on the menus of all the dailies. Safety is probably very important to tourists when choosing a holiday and it may be a feature residents take for granted living in a safe place. Security can be tightened through heavier policing and CCTV cameras in order to reduce crime rates, and the media should not blow petty crime out of proportion, helping to create an inflated perception of danger among residents and harming the brand. Efforts must be spent recruiting the support of the local media, to ensure a balanced more informed approach. Government-controlled media, overhauled under the brand identity umbrella, can be used to reach residents. Competing against satellite and cable TV channels, local channel viewership can be increased by catering to the local market through local interest programming and rallying people around the brand locally.

Tourists are more satisfied with the destination's cleanliness than residents (Section 5.3.1.5), which may be due to the latter's familiarity with areas tourists do not get to see. The educational curriculum and the media should emphasize recycling and environmental protection and respect. Strict regulation and law enforcement can also help keep the country clean and make it more aesthetically pleasing to residents.

Transport is the weakest link, ranking lowest and negatively by both resident samples and third lowest by tourists (Table 5.1). Probable reasons include a weak public

transport system, traffic congestion, bad driving habits and an automobile population of more than 300 thousand growing at 5% annually (Al A'ali 2007), and more during weekends, affecting lives on a daily basis. Public transport is rudimentary and the network is not comprehensive, which eliminates it as a viable transportation alternative and increases dependency on cars. Modern multi-lane highways are replacing roundabouts, but traffic jams and wardens are a common sight. Designated educational and commercial zones experience severe congestion at their rush hours, the latter exacerbated by weekend causeway tourists, therefore zoning and planning can address the issue and ensure a more sensible traffic distribution. Although the highways and overpasses reduce the problem somewhat, they often relocate people, disconnect villages, lose the traditional character and raise property prices making homes even more unaffordable. As residential areas are broken up, the shortage of crossings and walkways and speeding traffic make pedestrian movement difficult, so while the current road system increases the capacity for vehicles, it also increases the need for them. Comprehensive public transport and pedestrian safety would offer increased mobility, provide locals an alternative to driving, encourage causeway tourists to park and ride, decrease congestion and pollution, lessen the need for more roads and reduce the preference for vehicles and may positively impact satisfaction among all three samples. This problem must be addressed before the Bahrain-Qatar causeway brings in more traffic (Cooper 2005). Locals were the most satisfied sample with the cost of transport (Table 5.13). Resident transport costs most likely consist of owning and running a car, while air tourists would probably pay for car hire or taxis. Retrospectively, including a question about tourists' mode of transport during their visit would have been informative. Car hire costs should be compared with those at other destinations to determine whether they are unreasonable. Essentially, this attribute measures different things for residents and for tourists. USD 0.265 per litre may still be high for some locals in a car-dependent country where some people earn meagre salaries but the results from expatriate residents are surprising considering the relatively low petrol prices. Although taxis are not very expensive, they inspire mistrust and uncertainty by not using their meters. "Taxis" are a frequently cited complaint in the local papers. A tourist respondent, an Austrian delegate scouting a Middle East regional location for a consortium of companies

explained that he chose Dubai over Bahrain because he perceived the population in the latter to be untrustworthy based on cheating taxi drivers. This strikes at the heart of the holistic destination brand, where investment decisions are made, based on one aspect of the tourist experience, and potentially significant contributions to the economy are lost. This respondent's WOM will discourage others from visiting or investing, multiplying the damage. Meter laws are not enforced and are flouted by drivers. Despite the new professional taxi companies, old privately owned taxis are still the most commonly available on the roads and often form the first impression of Bahrain.

Beaches are the second weakest link (Section 5.3.1.5), but only because they are not a daily resident necessity. They could make the single largest difference to the tourism product, especially for an escapist holiday. Beaches were rated mostly negatively by locals and were tourists' lowest rated attribute. The shoreline of this "island" is disappearing because of commercial projects, landfill and private ownership and this is difficult to explain. The issue has attracted negative attention from activists and requires urgent address as land lost cannot be regained.

Accommodation cost was rated negatively by all three samples (Table 5.13). Expatriates live mostly in rented property, locals live in rented and owned property, while tourists stay in hotels and furnished apartments. Tourist accommodation prices should be compared to those in other destinations. Increasing value by improving product quality is a possible alternative, rather than simply reducing prices. Although accommodation is quite satisfactory, there is always room for improvement. Offering well-priced all-inclusive tour packages might also camouflage accommodation costs, reducing the high cost perception. Laws introduced in 2007 allow foreigners to purchase property in some parts, which is attractive to investors, long-staying migrants and buyers of holiday homes, and has resulted in the development of many resorts, but it raises property prices beyond the reach of many locals.

Shopping is somewhat satisfactory to residents but not to tourists (Section 5.3.1.5), who tend to shop only in the heavily promoted Souq and malls. The latter are mainly filled with international High Street shops and franchises and have hardly any local

products, their atmosphere similar to the best malls in any western country, including Starbucks and Costa. Selling traditional textiles, spices and gold, the more traditional Souq provides bargaining opportunities and is popular with tourists. The two main souqs are now undergoing major renovation, supposedly in old Bahraini style (Singh 2006a), and a satellite parking system may attract more residents. Other shops and markets are not promoted to tourists, remaining unknown. Including them can provide opportunities to interact with friendly locals, help support micro-businesses, increase local pride and enrich brand identity uniqueness. For tourists, offering a wider shopping selection and coveted opportunities to bargain for "finds" would broaden the product mix, increase the number of places to visit and may increase satisfaction with attractions and with shopping and its costs. Sale of local crafts should also be encouraged outside of hygienic business incubators.

Satisfaction with cultural activities was low among residents and inversely related to local education and income (Section 5.3.1.5). Activities are needed that appeal to residents, especially more educated higher income locals, who may have higher expectations. Frequent local and international cultural events that appeal to this market should be planned and marketed to everyone. The educational curriculum should also promote freedom of choice, and respect for the choices of others, to reduce resistance to non-traditional entertainment. The quality of attractions highly satisfied tourists but not residents, especially locals (Section 5.3.2.5). Given the responses to this section, two things should be considered. The first is to increase and vary the sights on offer and make information more widely available. A case in point is the "Tree of life", which is a very difficult sight to find and a very disappointing one when finally located, with no information and no protection from vandalism and littering (Al-Yousif 2007a). The second thing to consider is to focus on event tourists for the time being, ensuring their satisfaction, instead of attracting others who may produce negative WOM about the shortage of attractions. Attractions should target residents as well as tourists. Sights should be well-maintained and can be used to showcase cultural activities, exhibits and events that encourage repeat visitation. Existing events such as the Spring of Culture Festival are rare and seasonal and do not truly celebrate or interact with their venues. Bahrain is preferred by people over 40 (Section 6.2.3) so it could be developed to cater to both families and mature

individuals after increasing the number of attractions that appeal to this market. Camping is an integral part of Bahraini life and an authentic Bahraini family experience unexploited in promotion. During the 2 week long camping season, the desert fills with thousands of locals. This authentic desert experience could be actively promoted to tourists and expatriates. Offering cultural activities as an attraction can address both attributes together.

On the one hand, results from tourists' "Perception versus Expectations" (Table 5.28) are positive, as tourists' expectations were surpassed. On the other, the marketed image may be setting low expectations and underselling the destination, causing some potentials to forgo it as an alternative. Perhaps there is enough for a visitor to see and do while on a short visit but not enough for residents. Although this would not directly harm the tourist experience, negative WOM from residents complaining that there is not much to do could be harmful, again discouraging potential tourists from visiting the destination at all.

Products that can be locally branded should be identified and incorporated into the destination brand (Section 2.4). Logically, it is best to start with those more easily associated with the destination, its culture and its values. Products such as locally inspired textiles, perfumes, herbs and spices are culturally relevant, help maintain local traditions, encourage vocational skills and help reduce unemployment. Hand-made natural products would fit well with environmentally-friendly global trends. A body can be set up to take such products under its wing, control and certify quality, ensure consistent attractive packaging and market them as Bahraini products under one label because branded products can command higher prices (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Anholt 2005a). This body would have the advantage of economies of scale, access to importers abroad and the capacity to satisfy large orders, negotiate deals on behalf of manufacturers and compete with global brands. Once markets are established, the long-term benefits will outweigh initial costs. Supporting and empowering micro-business would provide employment opportunities and would be perceived positively within the community. Further, it could help achieve internal nation branding goals, enhance rapport between locals and the government, increase export revenues and establish a reputation for these products as a major shopping

attraction for residents and visitors. Most importantly, it would strengthen the destination brand image abroad in a way that is organic, relevant, believable, difficult to usurp, sustainable and ownable (Section 2.5.2).

6.5 Contribution

This thesis may be of interest to those researching destination image measurement, destination branding, expatriate studies, prediction of destination brand loyalty, tourism in Bahrain and branding Bahrain. The objective of this thesis was to locate the position from which to begin branding and a direction for constructing a brand identity. Of particular interest were the various paradigms of destination branding, and its development and acceptance (Chapter Two). Once the case was made for destination branding, it was necessary to understand what constitutes image and how to discover it (Chapter Three). The review of the literature about destination brand image measurement (Section 3.1) resulted in the design of an original instrument that discovers satisfaction with the destination's attributes (Section 3.3), holistic perception of the destination (Section 3.4) and brand loyalty to its tourism product (Section 3.5.2).

The first contribution comes from researching the brand image of a destination which has not previously been researched. The lack of research means that no starting point had yet been identified from which Bahrain can begin designing and constructing a brand identity. The findings of this research provide information about the areas that need to be addressed in order to elicit resident support and produce positive WOM, the strengths and weakness of the tourism product, perception of the holistic destination and the degree of brand loyalty of its users. This information is useful when making decisions about the design, construction and management of Bahrain's brand identity. Informed by this knowledge and the suggestion to begin with internal branding, the identity is much more likely to succeed than one arbitrarily conjured up by destination marketers. This research addresses the first gap (Section 3.7.1) and can be added to destination brand image measurement studies that adopt a holistic

destination branding paradigm. The findings provide a starting position (the brand image), a tool box (customer satisfaction), a map (the literature review) and a set of directions (implications). Essentially, it lays the groundwork on which an informed brand identity can be constructed. This is a practical contribution to Bahrain, as well as advancing theory by investigating the destination image of a place that has not previously been investigated.

While this research clearly has value to Bahrain, it also adds value to the literature. Its second contribution is that it uses an original instrument that can, with very few adaptations if any, be used in other destinations. This research designed, piloted and edited an instrument that discovers the destination image of a place, generally based on the literature review with attributes based on preliminary research, using words to describe holistic perception. Results suggest that this method is effective. As well as in comparing images of different destinations, the questionnaire can be used in longitudinal studies to measure changes in destination image over time and to measure the effectiveness of an active branding strategy,.

Third, the thesis built on familiarity with the destination (Mackay & Fesenmaier 1997; Baloglu & McCleary 1999b; Baloglu 2001; Kim & Richardson 2003; Prentice 2004, 2006), introduced the variable “intimacy” and included three types of respondents whose relationships with the destination have different intimacy levels (Section 3.6.3).

The fourth contribution is the proposed model (Figure 3.3) which was developed based on this proposed intimacy variable, where respondents perceive the destination as a place to visit, as a place to live and work or as a place to belong. Findings suggest that the validity of this variable is worthy of further study.

Fifth is its appreciation of the role of the expatriate market in branding the host destination and investigating their positioning. As a market with the potential to hugely affect the host brand (Section 3.6.2), expatriates are under-researched and their categorization was not addressed in destination branding literature. The thesis provided evidence that the perspectives of expatriate residents are indeed different from those of both local residents and event tourists, which supports categorizing

expatriates separately in destination image research. The findings of this research confirm that this market should not be allowed to get lost among residents or among non-locals as it is worthy of being treated as a distinct market (Section 6.2.1), and in doing so, addressed the second gap.

The sixth contribution is the exploration of prediction of brand loyalty for tourism purposes. No research has compared the usefulness of different types of data in prediction, and this thesis addressed that gap in a more comprehensive way than any other research, by including a long list of demographics (Gender, Age, Employment, Origin, Marital status, Education, Income, Number of previous visits the tourist had made to the destination, Number of years expatriates had spent at the destination), components representing destination attributes and a list of possible holistic perceptions. Although results from tourists were inconclusive, those from residents established the usefulness of both customer satisfaction and holistic perception in prediction. This addressed the third gap (Section 3.7.1).

Finally, the thesis advances theory through its argument that positive WOM may be a more appropriate indicator (Section 3.5. 2) of tourism brand loyalty than repurchase. This may be applicable to other non-tourism products as well. More debate of this issue is necessary to resolve a consistent definition of brand loyalty.

The findings contribute to formalizing destination branding by suggesting structure to some of its elements, which may be helpful in future research. More research investigating relationships is necessary, to help reduce ambiguity and inconsistency, both in theory and in practice. In time, this will produce more consistently written literature, more relevant theory and more enlightened practice.

6. 6 Problems, Limitations and Suggestions for further research

In the process of this research, there were many challenges. Some were particular to the subject matter of this thesis, others related to the process of working towards a PhD thesis part-time from another country and still others related to the research

process. The lack of consistency in the terminology, research paradigms and attitudes towards destination branding were initially confusing and frustrating but made interesting reading. That meant having to go back and re-read literature continuously to acquire a better understanding and determine the most appropriate approach to maximize the value of this research. The fact that this was the researcher's first tourism degree merely contributed to the challenge.

The second problem was the difficulty of collecting data from event tourists because of the relative infrequency of internationally-attended events to which access was possible. The low number of valid responses to some attributes ruled out some tests and produced some inconclusive results, although even the non-responses were telling. The low response rates from the tourist sample to the particular attributes relating to tourist sites was an indication of the high proportion of event tourists that do not get to experience Bahrain's tourist attractions. This research attempted to understand image in order to lay the groundwork for branding Bahrain holistically, so the population of event tourists was appropriate. Their evaluations and perceptions certainly cannot be considered representative of other tourist types without verification. Data can be compared to those collected from other tourists, such as VFR, to determine whether there are any significant differences between them. It would also be interesting to investigate non-visitors. Although they would not be able to evaluate the destination's attributes (Baker & Crompton 2000), their holistic destination perceptions could be compared to responses from actual tourists and provide insight into the effect of actual destination experience on the destination brand image. Approaching respondents at the beginning and end of their trip would have been difficult as it is unrealistic to expect them to fill out two questionnaires. Although residents were happy to take this opportunity to express their views, tourists had to be coerced and charmed into cooperation and would not have taken kindly to a second questionnaire.

There are other factors to consider. Social research is not conducted under controlled laboratory conditions, so there are many uncontrollable factors that may have some effect on results. Factors under the destination's control may include legislation such as entry visas, employment and property. There are also factors beyond the

destination's control. For example, tourists from a particular country may temporarily find costs high because of an unfavourable exchange rate with their own currency. The results of the research may indicate that respondents find the destination expensive without allowing for fluctuating exchange rates. Further, the research provides information about particular destination elements and measures how these elements compare to one another and locates similarities and differences between the different groups. As expected from this type of methodology, however, it does not provide explanations for these results. At this point, it would be useful to conduct qualitative research to provide useful explanations and rich data that cannot be collected through quantitative research.

It would also be useful to compile a longer and more diverse list of holistic perception words. Such a list could serve as a standard from which respondents can more freely choose words to describe any destination, and would accommodate objective comparisons between various destinations. A larger destination with a more diverse image would benefit from having more descriptions to choose from. It is suggested that other destinations are included in the preliminary stages of further research, to elicit a longer more varied list that offers respondents more choice while still allowing non-subjective comparisons.

Occasional comments jotted by respondents were not analyzed because they were not part of the research design. Although these were individual statements, it would have been interesting to pursue them further, but conducting interviews to gain in-depth understanding of these perceptions was beyond the scope of this research. If prediction had actually been part of the initial research design (Figure 4.4), a larger tourist sample would have been planned. Events are seasonal and sample size was sufficiently large to accommodate the initial design. This is a complication that can arise when deviating from the original design, and was discussed at the end of Section 4.2. The alternative was not to explore BLT prediction, but this was an epiphanic opportunity that declared itself and then refused to be silenced, leaving the author with no choice but to follow it to its end despite the limitations or complications. Tourists, in particular, would benefit from further investigation with a larger sample that accommodates a larger number of variables in exploratory logistic

regression (Hosmer & Lemeshow 2000). That does not, however, take away from the value of this research and its contribution to both the destination and to theory.

This research used cross-sectional data. Places are naturally dynamic, politically, economically and socially, so results may not be permanent. Therefore, conducting longitudinal studies is recommended to discover any changes in attitudes and measure these changes. As suggested in Section 6.5, repeating this research after beginning active branding and comparing results can determine whether perceptions of Brand Bahrain have changed and if so, whether the brand image has moved closer to the brand identity. This would measure the success of the destination branding strategy and measure progress. The research can also be duplicated by investigating the brand image of other destinations with expatriate populations, in order to corroborate or contradict the findings of this research and discover whether expatriate positioning results can be generalized. When the same methodology is applied to other destinations, comparing the results with those of other methodologies can also help determine the effectiveness of the approach used in this research. Further research into identifying the best predictors of BLT would be particularly interesting in light of the increasing importance of creating positive WOM, as identifying predictors would be useful in market segmentation and target marketing.

6. 7 Research process, in retrospect

This was an arduous, though extremely enjoyable task, that began with marketing a destination, developed into measuring the base destination image on which to construct a holistic destination brand identity that would produce a successful sustainable destination brand, and matured into prediction of positive WOM. The subject matter was chosen because of a belief that it would be an interesting one to be engulfed in for a few years, and it rose to the occasion. Entering the area with no tourism background but with a completely open mind, every piece of literature was considered respectfully and critically. Although this was a handicap, it provided the

advantage of having no pre-conceptions. According to Baker (2003, p.154), 'in a perfect world, we would approach a new problem with a completely open mind'. Although he was specifically discussing how best to conduct grounded theory, some other research methodologies might benefit from this approach. Sometimes the task felt mammoth-like, not least due to a sense of the importance of building a complete piece of work that is consistent in its approach and digs deep for answers. Working towards this degree by "commuting" during time off, and juggling a job, a home and other responsibilities did not make the experience any easier, but it has been an amazing personal journey, involving the acquisition of many new skills, and a new way of looking at tourism and destinations in general and at Bahrain in particular.

With hindsight, the only changes would be to have tried to get larger samples, especially of the event tourist market. The process was lengthy, because time was spent developing the instrument, piloting it, collecting the data and analyzing it. Each of those was performed meticulously and painstakingly and each was a learning experience by itself. It would have been enlightening to conduct interviews with the body in charge of marketing the destination, but frequent organisational changes (Table 3.6) made this difficult. At this point, it would also be interesting to discover the views of decision makers in government, in parliament and in the private sector, whose decisions affect the destination's image, and to determine the strength of a collective vision and how far such a vision coincides with the destination image found in this study.

It must be said that this learning process evolved and often appeared to take on a life of its own. Whilst under pressure to maintain the initial design of the research, some elements were added because any less would not have done the topic justice. On the other hand, awareness of what constitutes a PhD was always there hovering in the background, performing surgery, chopping off bits and pieces that would grow onto the research, and tying up loose ends. Early in the research, a paradigm shift occurred with the realization that tourism cannot be divorced from the destination's other strategic marketing objectives, i.e. *the bigger picture*, hence the title of this dissertation. Although this shift was gradual, it was still epiphanic. This holistic strategy approach meant implicitly that the destination should develop a brand that

enhances its ability to achieve all its promotional objectives (Section 2.4), of which tourism is one. This was an important theoretical lateral shift towards integrating destination promotion for tourism into a holistic strategy. It meant moving away from interpreting holistic destination marketing as marketing all the destination's elements, or marketing the destination to all of its markets, towards the paradigm of marketing the destination for all of its marketing objectives. The expatriate categorization dilemma surfaced during the research design, fuelled by the researcher's own question while an active participant in both the local and expatriate communities, "is this the same place they are discussing?" The second epiphany occurred with the possibility of exploring brand loyalty prediction, an exciting proposition. At times, resisting the urge to explore every possible avenue to conclusion was difficult, but the positivist approach ensured that the research did not become overwhelming. Staying on course and acquiring a condensed statistics education were valuable bi-products of the exercise.

The researcher's own approach to research also experienced a shift as a result of the exercise, gaining an appreciation of the interpretive approach, and how its findings can provide information that complements the positivist approach. The approaches were discussed in Section 4.2. Unlike the pure sciences, where positivist research may be performed under laboratory conditions, the social sciences require an appreciation of the dynamic emotions and mindsets of human beings as well as the changing environment. Perhaps, an ideal way of performing research might be to alternate both, the interpretive approach providing direction for positivist research, and the latter measuring the phenomena elements identified by the interpretivist approach. The combination of approaches in this way could go beyond triangulation that corroborates findings, acting as a knowledge-building exercise that peels layers as the complementing research paradigms act to discover more information and provide more insight than either one can access alone. This researcher therefore concludes that although this research is mainly positivist, an ideal place to be is to move along the continuum between positivist and interpretivist extremes, using each to discover what it does best, and making the most of the advantages of both. For example, now that transport at the destination has been identified as a problem area, this can be explored further through a qualitative methodology. Although ethics may

preclude some methods such as spying on meetings between taxi drivers to discover if they are indeed reluctant to use meters and the reasons behind this reluctance, and bias might preclude travelling with a taxi-driver all day while he picks up rides, it might be worth considering travelling in different taxis as a passenger and observing and recording the behaviours and responses of different drivers, or interviewing passengers who have just disembarked from taxis in various locations. The combination of the two approaches can result in the ability to evaluate current conditions, compare them to previous conditions to determine change and measure progress, as well as delve into the reasons behind the success and/or failure of particular policies, and whether, how and why particular policies and actions may be aiding or hindering movement towards intended goals. Following this research, the interpretive approach can be used to discover how respondents interpret the promoted brand identity, how they feel towards it, and whether and how they have incorporated it into their lives. The acquisition of new skills required to conduct such research and analyze such data will provide more challenges to conquer, and enable the researcher to arrive at a place that cannot be reached by a single approach.

On a personal level, a new respect for knowledge was born out of appreciating the huge contribution of others, the likely insignificance of any single piece of research regardless of the effort invested, and how much remained that this researcher would never learn. This was a humbling appreciation of another big picture.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I Research paradigms

Appendix I. i Comparison of research paradigms (2 pages)

Phenominological Paradigm	Positivist	Relativist	Social constructionist
Also known as (Hussey & Hussey 1997, p.47)	Quantitative, objectivist, scientific, experimentalist, traditionalist		Qualitative, subjectivist, humanistic, interpretivist, phenomenological
Ontological assumptions (objectivity of world)	Reality is external, objective, independent of the observer	Reality is relative, depends on the viewpoint of the interpreter	Reality is determined by people, not external or objective factors
Phenomenological assumption			People's perceptions and communications should be studied to understand their differences.
Epistemological assumption (validity of knowledge)	Knowledge is only significant if based on observations of this external reality. Any observer should discover same reality through conducting same research		Researchers become part of observation and incorporate their beliefs in research.
Axiological assumption (role of values) (Hussey & Hussey 1997, p.51)	Research is value-free and unbiased		Research is value-laden and unbiased.
Advantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Provides wide coverage of situations ➢ Fast, economical ➢ May have considerable relevance to policy decisions ➢ May be used to support covert goals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Accepts value of multiple perspectives ➢ Generalizable beyond study ➢ Efficient, can outsource 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Can observe change over time, understand meanings, flexible ➢ Can contribute to theory evolution ➢ Natural, flexible
Disadvantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Inflexible, artificial ➢ Ineffective in understanding processes or significance attached to actions ➢ Hard for policy maker to infer what actions to take ➢ Most data not relevant to real decisions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Costly large samples required for credibility ➢ Standardization doesn't accommodate cultural or institutional differences ➢ Hard to reconcile conflicting data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Costly, time-consuming data collection ➢ Difficult analysis, interpretation ➢ Harder to manage ➢ Low credibility, subjective

Phenominological Paradigm	Positivist	Relativist	Social constructionist
Implications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Observer independent of what is being measured, ➢ Subject matter determined by objective criteria, ➢ Social sciences should aim to identify causalities and laws that explain behaviour, ➢ Science proceeds through hypothesizing & deducing how to prove or refute hypotheses, ➢ Facts measured quantitatively, ➢ Problems better understood by reduction into elements, ➢ Populations must be sampled in order to generalize about population's regularities ➢ Comparisons across samples help to identify regularities (Easterby-Smith, 2004:28). ➢ The outcomes of social scientific inquiry look like those of natural scientific inquiry (Baker 2003, p.18). 	<p>A broad sample must be accessed in order to accumulate as many different viewpoints as necessary</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Observer part of observation, ➢ Subject matter driven by human interest, ➢ Social sciences should aim to understand behaviour, ➢ Science proceeds by gathering rich data and making inductions, ➢ Research should incorporate stakeholders' perspectives, ➢ Problems may be looked at holistically, ➢ Theoretical abstraction, ➢ Small number of cases studied.
Criticisms of use in social sciences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Inappropriate for human behaviour, ➢ Nature of social phenomena disable researcher from being impartial unbiased objective external observer as positivism requires. 		
Purposes this research paradigm is suited for	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Measure effect of phenomena ➢ Discover position, identifies necessary corrective actions, takes action and measures subsequent movement. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➢ Uncover hidden realities behind reasons for humans' behaviour ➢ Focus on understanding phenomena and why it is what it is
<p>Source: based on Easterby-Smith <i>et al.</i> (2004, p.42). Baker (2003, p.17-21), Hussey & Hussey (1997, p.47-51) and literature review.</p>			

Appendix II Bahrain data

Appendix II. i Travel and tourism projections (2006 to 2016)

Indicator	1996	2006	Percentage	2016 (projected)	Percentage
Visitor exports	USD870.0 mn	USD 2,831.9 mn	23.3% of total consumption	USD 5,437.5 mn	28.3% of total consumption
Personal T & T (resident spending)		USD871.2 mn	16.9% of total consumption	USD 1,879.8 mn	18.3% of total consumption
Business Travel		USD201.0 mn		USD 429.1 mn	
T & T Capital Investment		USD143.2 mn	5.1% of total investment	USD 327.2 mn	5.9% of total investment
Gov't spend on T & T		USD95.1 mn	3.8% of total gov't spending	USD 179.0 mn	4.0% of total gov't spending
T&T Economy employment	35,700 jobs	84,000 jobs	24.4% of total employment	116,000 jobs	27.8% of total employment
T&T Industry jobs	23,000 jobs	38,000 jobs	11.0% of total employment	55,000 jobs	13.3% of total employment
T&T Industry contribution to GDP		USD1,137.0 mn	8.3% of GDP	USD 2,486.2 mn	10.1% of GDP
T&T Economy contribution		USD2,851.2 mn	20.9% of total	USD5,744.9 mn	23.2%
Expected Total Demand		USD4,142.2 mn	12.2% growth	USD 8,252.6 mn	4.8% p.a. growth
Source: based on W.T.T.C. (2006b)					

Appendix II. ii Major projects in Bahrain

Project	Details
Formula One track	USD150 million world-class F-1 multi-track for motor, bike and drag racing with a capacity of 50,000 spectators
Causeway	USD1.5 billion causeway connecting Bahrain and Qatar.
Water park	A USD50 million 77,000 m ² water park accommodating 4,000, designed around Bahrain's history opened in 2007, next to wildlife park.
UN heritage application	An application to the World Heritage Committee, which if accepted could mean potential marketing of Bahrain and Hawar Islands to those interested in heritage and ecotourism
Financial harbour	A USD1.3 billion financial harbour with futuristic offices, a hotel and conference centre, possible 12,000 capacity opera house, a financial hall, retail, maritime and recreational facilities, built on 202,272 square metres of reclaimed land. potential for MICE
City	USD800 million self-contained city, apartment and hotel accommodation, marina and yacht club, aqua park, golf club and mall community resort developed by the Government jointly with a Saudi investment group scheduled for completion in 2007.
Office complex	The Bahrain World Trade Centre, an office and retail development, the first in the world harnessing wind power for energy.
Resort	Luxury resort featuring several artificial islands, private beaches and yacht facilities located off Hawar Islands, a boat trip away from the mainland.
Resort	USD1 billion private investors' sun and sea self-contained tourism destination, with private and public beaches, 12 five and six star hotels on 2.7 million square metres of reclaimed land, and 3 km causeway link to the mainland.
Resort homes	USD8 million Al-Dar Island resort a boat ride away from the previously undeveloped mainland used by campers and day visitors.
Resort	USD100 million resort, including hotel and under-sea restaurant by the seafront, a mall, restaurants and 5-star accommodation.
Resort	USD26 million 5-star Al-Dana resort, including floating chalets.
Hotels and resort	Two new beach hotels costing USD250 million and a USD4.24 million Palm Beach resort.
Source: based on Mice, 2006b and GDN (2006c)	

Appendix III Questionnaires

Appendix III. i Local questionnaire



For questions ONE and TWO,

-2 = highly unsatisfactory,

-1 = somewhat satisfactory,

0 = neither unsatisfactory nor satisfactory

1 = somewhat satisfactory,

2 = highly satisfactory

Q1 Please **CIRCLE** your evaluation of the various aspects of Bahrain.

ENVIRONMENT						
Climate	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Cleanliness	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Safety	-2	-1	0	1	2	
AMENITIES						
Entertainment	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Food and Drink	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Transport	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Accommodation	-2	-1	0	1	2	
ACTIVITIES						
Beaches	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Night life	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Cultural activities	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Shopping	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Sightseeing	-2	-1	0	1	2	
PEOPLE						
Friendliness	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Communication	-2	-1	0	1	2	
COSTS						
Accommodation cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Transportation cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Food and drink cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Entertainment cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Shopping cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Sightseeing cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	

Q 2 Please **CIRCLE** your evaluation of the various aspects of attractions in Bahrain.

ATTRactions						
Number of sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Variety of sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Standard of sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Information about sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Information at sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Facilities at sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	

Q3 From the following list, please use the **FIVE** descriptions that you think **BEST** describe each of Bahrain and Dubai. (Please answer even if you have never visited Dubai)

beaches, boring, clean, conservative, cosmopolitan, crowded, different, disorganized, eastern, exciting, exotic, expensive, family-destination, fast-paced, financial centre, friendly, glamorous, history, hot, modern, night-life, nothing special, peaceful, religious, restaurants, safe, shopping, slow, sophisticated, traditional, under-developed, unique, well-planned, westernised

Bahrain	Dubai
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

Q4 Please indicate whether or not you agree with each of the following statements:

	Statement	No	Yes	
1	I would recommend that my friends attend events in Bahrain			
2	I would recommend that my friends visit Bahrain for a holiday			
3	I believe Bahrain is a great place to live			

Q5 In your opinion, how many days are ideal for a holiday in Bahrain? _____ days

Please indicate the correct answer in the following questions:

PERSONAL INFORMATION		
Q6 Age: <input type="checkbox"/> 20-39 <input type="checkbox"/> 40-59 <input type="checkbox"/> 60 or over	Q11 Educational level: <input type="checkbox"/> High school or less <input type="checkbox"/> University graduate <input type="checkbox"/> Postgraduate or higher	
Q7 How long have you lived in Bahrain? <input type="checkbox"/> all my life <input type="checkbox"/> other _____ years	Q12 Profession or occupation: _____ _____	
Q8 Country of origin: _____	Q13 Annual net income, in American dollars per year: <input type="checkbox"/> Less than US \$20,000 <input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000- \$39,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 -\$59,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000- \$79,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 or more	
Q9 Gender: <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female		
Q 10 Marital status: <input type="checkbox"/> single <input type="checkbox"/> married without children <input type="checkbox"/> married with children number of children _____		

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete the questionnaire

Appendix III. ii Expatriate questionnaire



For questions ONE and TWO,

- 2 = highly unsatisfactory,
- 1 = somewhat satisfactory,
- 0 = neither unsatisfactory nor satisfactory

- 1 = somewhat satisfactory,
- 2 = highly satisfactory

Q1 Please **CIRCLE** your evaluation of the various aspects of Bahrain.

ENVIRONMENT						
Climate	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Cleanliness	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Safety	-2	-1	0	1	2	
AMENITIES						
Entertainment	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Food and Drink	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Transport	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Accommodation	-2	-1	0	1	2	
ACTIVITIES						
Beaches	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Night life	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Cultural activities	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Shopping	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Sightseeing	-2	-1	0	1	2	
PEOPLE						
Friendliness	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Communication	-2	-1	0	1	2	
COSTS						
Accommodation cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Transportation cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Food and drink cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Entertainment cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Shopping cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Sightseeing cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	

Q 2 Please **CIRCLE** your evaluation of the various aspects of attractions in Bahrain.

ATTRACTIONS						
Number of sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Variety of sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Standard of sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Information about sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Information at sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Facilities at sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	

Q3 From the following list, please use the **FIVE** descriptions that you think **BEST** describe each of Bahrain and Dubai. (Please answer even if you have never visited Dubai)

beaches, boring, clean, conservative, cosmopolitan, crowded, different, disorganized, eastern, exciting, exotic, expensive, family-destination, fast-paced, financial centre, friendly, glamorous, history, hot, modern, night-life, nothing special, peaceful, religious, restaurants, safe, shopping, slow, sophisticated, traditional, under-developed, unique, well-planned, westernised

Bahrain	Dubai
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

Q4 Please indicate whether or not you agree with each of the following statements:

	Statement	No	Yes	
1	I would recommend that my friends attend events in Bahrain			
2	I would recommend that my friends visit Bahrain for a holiday			
3	I believe Bahrain is a great place to live			

Q5 In your opinion, how many days are ideal for a holiday in Bahrain? _____ days

Please indicate the correct answer in the following questions:

PERSONAL INFORMATION		
Q6 Age: <input type="checkbox"/> 20-39 <input type="checkbox"/> 40-59 <input type="checkbox"/> 60 or over	Q 11 Marital status: <input type="checkbox"/> single <input type="checkbox"/> married without children <input type="checkbox"/> married with children number of children _____	
Q7 How long have you lived in Bahrain? _____ years and _____ months	Q12 Educational level: <input type="checkbox"/> High school or less <input type="checkbox"/> University graduate Postgraduate or higher	
Q8 Country of origin: _____	Q13 Profession or occupation: _____	
Q9 Nationality: _____	Q14 Annual net income, in American dollars per year: <input type="checkbox"/> Less than US \$20,000 <input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000- \$39,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 - \$59,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000- \$79,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 or more	
Q10 Gender: <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female		

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete the questionnaire

Appendix III. iii Tourist questionnaire

University of Bahrain



جامعة البحرين

Dear guest,

We are conducting research into the evaluation of Bahrain as a tourist destination.

Your feedback is very important to us, as it will be used to help us understand the strengths and weaknesses of the Bahrain tourism product and how it can be improved. We hope that you will take the time to answer the questionnaire enclosed. Please feel free to add any comments that you wish.

We thank you for your contribution and wish you a very enjoyable stay in Bahrain.

Lamya Al Arrayed

Lecturer in Marketing

College of Business Administration
University of Bahrain



For questions ONE to THREE,

-2 = highly unsatisfactory,

-1 = somewhat satisfactory,

0 = neither unsatisfactory nor satisfactory

1 = somewhat satisfactory,

2 = highly satisfactory

Q 1 Please **CIRCLE** your evaluation of the various aspects of Bahrain.

ENVIRONMENT						
Climate	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Cleanliness	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Safety	-2	-1	0	1	2	
AMENITIES						
Entertainment	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Food and Drink	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Transport	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Accommodation	-2	-1	0	1	2	
ACTIVITIES						
Beaches	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Night life	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Cultural activities	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Shopping	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Sightseeing	-2	-1	0	1	2	
PEOPLE						
Friendliness	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Communication	-2	-1	0	1	2	
COSTS						
Accommodation cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Transportation cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Food and drink cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Entertainment cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Shopping cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Sightseeing cost	-2	-1	0	1	2	

Q 2 Please **CIRCLE** your evaluation of the various aspects of attractions in Bahrain.

ATTRACTIONS						
Number of sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	I don't know
Variety of sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	I don't know
Standard of sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	I don't know
Information about sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	I don't know
Information at sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	I don't know
Facilities at sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	I don't know

Q 3 Please **CIRCLE** your evaluation of the various aspects of the event you are attending.

The EVENT						
Information before the visit	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Information during the visit	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Visa process	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Event organization	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Cost of attendance	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Marketing and promotion	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Overall event experience	-2	-1	0	1	2	

Q 4 Please indicate your overall evaluation of the various aspects of Bahrain, compared to your expectations.

-2 = Far worse than expected,
 -1 = Somewhat worse than expected,
 0 = Matched my expectations

1 = Somewhat better than expected,
 2 = Far better than expected

The DESTINATION						
The event	-2	-1	0	1	2	
The people	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Costs	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Activities	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Sites	-2	-1	0	1	2	
Bahrain as a destination	-2	-1	0	1	2	

Q5 From the following list, please use the FIVE descriptions that you think BEST describe each of Bahrain and Dubai. (Please answer even if you have never visited Dubai)

beaches, boring, clean, conservative, cosmopolitan, crowded, different, disorganized, eastern, exciting, exotic, expensive, family-destination, fast-paced, financial centre, friendly, glamorous, history, hot, modern, night-life, nothing special, peaceful, religious, restaurants, safe, shopping, slow, sophisticated, traditional, under-developed, unique, well-planned, westernised

Bahrain	Dubai
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

Q6 Please indicate whether or not you agree with each of the following statements:

	Statement	No	Yes	
1	I would recommend that my friends attend events in Bahrain			
2	I would recommend that my friends visit Bahrain for a holiday			
3	I believe Bahrain is a great place to live			

Q7 In your opinion, how many days are ideal for a holiday in Bahrain? _____ days

Please indicate the correct answer in the following questions:

PERSONAL INFORMATION		
<p>Q8 How many times have you visited Bahrain before this time?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> None</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Once</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 2-4</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 5 or more</p>	<p>Q14 Age:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 20-39</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 40-59</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> 60 or over</p>	
<p>Q9 Who is sponsoring you at this event?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Myself</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Other _____</p>	<p>Q15 Gender:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Male</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Female</p>	
<p>Q10 Where are you staying during this event?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I am commuting to Bahrain daily</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I am staying at a hotel</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I am renting an apartment</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I am staying with friends or relatives</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> I am only here for today</p>	<p>Q16 Educational level:</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> High school or less</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> University graduate</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Postgraduate or higher</p>	
	<p>Q17 Profession or occupation:</p> <p>_____</p>	
<p>Q11 How long is your current stay in Bahrain?</p> <p>_____ day(s)</p>	<p>Q18 Annual net income, in US dollars per year (after taxes):</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Less than U.S. \$20,000</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000- \$39,999</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 - \$59,999</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000- \$79,999</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 or more</p>	
<p>Q12 Nationality:</p> <p>_____</p>		
<p>Q13 Country of origin:</p> <p>_____</p>		

Date _____ The event you are attending _____

Thank you very much for taking the time to fill in this questionnaire.

Appendix IV Sampling frames

Appendix IV. i Tourist sampling: the events

	Event
1	Oil and Gas conference & exhibition
2	Water conference
3	Arab acroa registration conference, U Bahrain / Regency hotel /
4	Metrology conference & exhibition/ International Exhibition Center
5	HRD in industry conference, Gulf International centre
6	Chronic diseases conference, Ministry of Health/ Diplomat Hotel
7	Health tourism exhibition/ International Exhibition Center
8	Gulf education expo, Reflections/ International Exhibition Center
9	Engineering exhibition/ International Exhibition centre
10	Grand Prix

Appendix IV. ii Resident sampling: the agents

No	Address	Agent occupation	Nationality	Gender
1	Aali	Business teacher in an English school	English	Female
2	Adliya	Hospital receptionist	Indian	Male
3	Arad	IT head of technicians	Indian	Male
4	Burhama	Banker	Bahraini	Female
5	Budaiya	Housewife married to a pilot	South African	Female
6	Buquwa	Insurance sales	Bahraini	Female
7	Busaiba	Fund manager in a ministry	Bahraini	Male
8	Diraz	Businessman (retail)	Bahraini	Male
9	East Rifaa	Arts coordinator in a Bilingual school	Bahraini	Female
10	Hamala	College Dean	Bahraini	Female
11	Jerdab	Microbiologist in a Pharmacy	Bahraini	Female
12	Jerdab	TEFL teacher	Scottish	Female
13	Manama	Entrepreneur (construction)	Bahraini	Male
14	Manama	General manager of a factory	Bahraini	Male
15	Manama	Entrepreneur	Bahraini	Male
16	Muharraq	University student	Bahraini	Female
17	Muqaba	Private university Marketing lecturer	Bahraini	Female
18	Saar	Restaurant manager at Sports Club	Greck	Male
19	Sanad	Investment marketing	Bahraini	Male
20	Sanad	Management consultant	Irish	Male
21	Segayya	Receptionist in a bank	Filipina	Female
22	Sehla	BIS researcher	French	Male
23	Shakhura	Housewife married to businessman	English	Female
24	Toobli	Executive secretary in a bank	Iranian	Female
25	West Rifaa	Consultant for a company	Moroccan	Male
26	Zinj	Marketing manager	Bahraini	Female

Appendix V Sample demographics

Appendix V. i Sample demographics

Sample		Local Percentage	Expatriate Percentage	Tourist percentage
Variable				
Age	aged 20-39	63.4	41.6	48.7
	aged 40-59	34.1	55.4	43.6
	aged 60 or over	2.4	3.0	7.7
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Gender	male	50.2	51.0	83.3
	female	49.8	49.0	16.7
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Education	high school or less	22.9	20.3	7.7
	university graduate	58.5	52.5	55.1
	postgraduate	18.5	27.2	36.5
	Missing	--	--	0.6
	Total	100.0	100.0	99.4
Income	\$0- \$19,999 p.a.	35.6	31.7	20.5
	\$20,000-\$39,999 p.a.	32.2	29.2	21.8
	\$40,000-\$59,999 p.a.	18.5	19.3	23.7
	\$60,000-\$79,999 p.a.	5.4	8.9	14.1
	\$80,000 or more p.a.	8.3	10.4	19.2
	Missing	--	0.5	0.6
	Total	100.0	99.5	99.4

Appendix V. ii General country of origin percentages

	Local	Expatriate	Tourist
Australasia		5.4	
Bahrain	92.2		
East Asia	2.4	29.2	12.2
Eastern Europe		.5	3.8
Gulf other	1.0	5.4	9.0
Latin America			1.3
Mediterranean	1.5	5.9	34.0
North Africa	0.5	3.0	10.9
Africa other	0.5	1.0	1.9
North America		5.0	4.5
South Africa		5.4	.6
Western Europe	2.0	38.1	21.2
Missing		1.0	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Appendix V. iii Nationality & Country of origin (Arab vs. non-Arab)

	Variable		Arab	Other	Valid	Missing	Total
Expatriate	Nationality	Frequency	24	178	202		202
		%	11.9	88.1	100.0		100.0
	Country of origin	Frequency	29	173	202		202
		%	14.4	85.6	100.0		100.0
Tourist	Nationality	Frequency	41	110	151	5	156
		Valid %	27.2	72.8	100.0		
	Country of origin	Frequency	50	105	155	1	156
		Valid %	32.3	67.7	100.0		

Appendix V. iv Tourist actual length of stay

Stay (days)	Percentage	Cumulative	
1	0.641	0.641	Mode = 7 days
2	3.205	3.846	
3	10.9	14.74	
4	16.67	31.41	Mean = 6.17 days
5	17.95	49.36	
6	12.18	61.54	
7	25.64	87.18	Standard deviation = 4.06 days
8	5.128	92.31	
9	0.641	92.95	
10	2.564	95.51	
12	1.282	96.79	
15	0.641	97.44	
25	1.282	98.72	
30	1.282	100	

Appendix V. v Expatriate number of years living in Bahrain

	Frequency	Percent	
Less than 1 year	2	0.01	Mode = 1 year
1	18	0.089	
2	33	0.163	
3	12	0.059	
4	19	0.094	
5	9	0.045	
6	8	0.04	
7	8	0.04	
8	8	0.04	
9	2	0.01	
10	10	0.05	
11	5	0.025	
12	4	0.02	
13	10	0.05	
14	6	0.03	
15	2	0.01	
16	2	0.01	
17	5	0.025	
18	4	0.02	
19	2	0.01	
20	5	0.025	
21	6	0.03	
22	3	0.015	
23	3	0.015	Median = 6 years
24	1	0.005	
25	7	0.035	
26	2	0.01	
27	1	0.005	
28	1	0.005	
29	1	0.005	
30	2	0.01	
34	1	0.005	
37	1	0.005	
Total	202	1	

Appendix VI Results: Customer satisfaction

a : -2 = Highly Unsatisfactory,
-1 = Somewhat Unsatisfactory,
0 = Neither Unsatisfactory nor Satisfactory,
1 = Somewhat Satisfactory,
2 = Highly Satisfactory

Appendix VI. i Sample Place non-response frequency

Attribute	Sample			Total
	Locals (205)	Expatriates (202)	Tourists (156)	
Climate	0	0	2	2
Cleanliness	0	0	1	1
Safety	0	0	1	1
Entertainment	0	0	15	15
F & B	0	0	2	2
Transport	0	0	6	7
Accommodation	0	0	6	6
Beaches	2	2	82	86
Night life	2	1	46	49
Cultural Activities	0	0	61	61
Shopping	0	0	28	28
Sightseeing	0	1	47	48
Friendliness	0	0	0	0
Communication	0	1	1	2

Appendix VI. ii Place valid percentage distribution

Sample	Attribute	Satisfaction						
		-2	-1	0	1	2	Mean	S. dev.
Locals	Friendliness	4.88	2.44	6.34	27.32	59.02	1.33	1.042
	Communication	3.41	2.44	7.32	35.6	51.2	1.29	0.955
	F & B	1.46	8.78	7.81	41.95	40.00	1.10	0.977
	Shopping	2.44	14.63	8.29	49.27	25.37	0.80	1.053
	Accommodation	3.90	16.59	16.1	45.37	18.05	0.57	1.085
	Safety	7.81	20.98	14.15	42.44	14.63	0.35	1.190
	Cleanliness	4.39	23.41	18.05	47.32	6.83	0.29	1.039
	Nightlife	11.82	20.69	21.67	37.44	8.37	0.10	1.177
	Cultural activities	10.24	29.76	18.05	34.63	7.32	-0.01	1.163
	Climate	11.71	35.61	11.71	38.54	2.44	-0.16	1.135
	Entertainment	16.10	32.68	13.66	36.59	0.98	-0.26	1.146
	Beaches	26.11	29.06	17.73	19.70	7.39	-0.47	1.271
	Sightseeing	21.95	36.59	16.59	21.95	2.93	-0.53	1.144
	Transportation	17.07	26.83	15.61	29.27	11.22	-0.9	1.301
Expatriates	Friendliness	2.5	2.0	3.0	33.7	58.9	1.45	0.852
	F & B	0.5	3.5	3.5	39.1	53.5	1.42	0.763
	Communication	2.5	4.0	7.0	49.3	37.3	1.15	0.899
	Shopping	0.5	5.9	11.9	51.5	30.2	1.05	0.839
	Accommodation	1.5	5.4	12.4	54.0	26.7	0.99	0.864
	Nightlife	1.0	15.9	21.4	48.8	12.9	0.57	0.942
	Climate	4.0	21.3	9.4	57.4	7.9	0.44	1.036
	Entertainment	3.5	24.3	15.8	44.6	11.9	0.37	1.082
	Safety	7.4	24.3	10.9	39.6	17.8	0.36	1.235
	Beaches	10.0	20.5	19.0	38.0	12.5	0.23	1.201
	Cleanliness	10.4	27.2	8.9	41.6	11.9	0.17	1.248
	Cultural activities	9.4	24.8	19.3	37.6	8.9	0.12	1.161
	Transportation	25.4	22.9	19.4	22.4	10.0	-0.31	1.333
	Sightseeing	20.9	26.4	18.9	30.3	3.5	-0.31	1.206
Tourists	Safety	1.3	1.9	4.5	19.4	72.9	1.61	0.777
	Friendliness	2.6	3.8	0.6	19.2	73.7	1.58	0.895
	Communication	2.6	3.2	2.6	26.5	65.2	1.48	0.900
	Cleanliness	0.6	7.1	2.6	31.6	58.1	1.39	0.894
	F & B	3.2	3.9	6.5	33.8	52.6	1.29	0.982
	Accommodation	4.7	3.3	8.0	28.7	55.3	1.27	1.060
	Nightlife	3.6	8.2	16.4	34.5	37.3	0.94	1.094
	Entertainment	4.3	2.8	22.7	39.7	30.5	0.89	1.012
	Shopping	4.7	11.7	10.9	35.2	37.5	0.89	1.172
	Climate	3.9	15.6	8.4	40.3	31.8	0.81	1.161
	Sightseeing	4.6	13.8	17.4	39.4	24.8	0.66	1.132
	Transportation	10.7	10.7	14.0	32.0	32.7	0.65	1.321
	Cultural activities	7.4	9.5	26.3	30.5	26.3	0.59	1.189
	Beaches	5.4	14.9	40.5	20.3	18.9	0.32	1.112

Appendix VI. iii Attractions valid percentages distribution

Sample	Attribute	Satisfaction						
		-2	-1	0	1	2	Mean	S. dev
Locals	Standard of sights	15.6	28.3	25.9	27.8	2.4	-0.27	1.103
	Info about sights	18.5	38.0	13.7	26.3	3.4	-0.42	1.163
	Information at sights	18.1	34.8	21.6	21.6	3.9	-0.42	1.131
	Facilities at sights	22.7	31.0	24.6	20.7	1.0	-0.54	1.087
	Number of sights	20.5	42.0	15.6	19.0	2.9	-0.58	1.102
	Variety of sights	22.4	41.5	16.6	16.6	2.9	-0.64	1.092
Expatriates	Standard of sights	12.9	26.7	21.8	34.2	4.5	-0.09	1.140
	Information about sights	18.3	27.2	21.3	27.7	5.4	-0.25	1.201
	Information at sights	19.8	25.2	23.8	27.2	4.0	-0.30	1.181
	Facilities at sights	19.9	31.3	19.9	25.9	3.0	-0.39	1.157
	Number of sights	21.8	35.6	15.8	26.2	0.5	-0.52	1.116
	Variety of sights	20.8	41.6	14.9	22.3	0.5	-0.60	1.066
Tourists	Standard of sights	4.4	5.5	16.5	33.0	40.7	1.00	1.095
	Facilities at sights	3.3	5.4	27.2	37.0	27.2	0.79	1.011
	Variety of sights	6.3	12.6	17.9	35.8	27.4	0.65	1.185
	Information at sights	4.3	15.1	22.6	28.0	30.1	0.65	1.192
	Information about sights	6.2	12.4	19.6	36.1	25.8	0.63	1.175
	Number of sights	5.7	14.8	22.7	28.4	28.4	0.59	1.201

Appendix VI. iv Costs valid percentages distribution

Sample	Attribute	Satisfaction						
		-2	-1	0	1	2	Mean	S dev
Locals	F & B	5.9	16.1	13.7	43.9	20.5	0.57	1.155
	Shopping	7.8	15.6	15.6	47.8	13.2	0.43	1.138
	Entertainment	7.3	23.9	21.5	41.5	5.9	0.15	1.079
	Sightseeing	11.2	18.5	24.9	37.1	8.3	0.13	1.152
	Transport	8.3	24.4	22.0	39.5	5.9	0.10	1.096
	Accommodation	11.2	26.8	20.5	35.1	6.3	-0.10	1.152
Expatriates	F & B	1.5	6.4	10.4	54.5	27.2	1.00	0.878
	Shopping	3.0	16.3	15.8	50.5	14.4	0.57	1.021
	Entertainment	2.0	19.4	14.4	56.7	7.5	0.48	0.954
	Sightseeing	4.5	20.9	24.4	37.8	12.4	0.33	1.078
	Transport	14.4	19.3	21.8	37.6	6.9	0.03	1.194
	Accommodation	14.4	24.3	19.8	35.1	6.4	-0.05	1.196
Tourists	F & B	10.5	24.8	10.5	35.3	19.0	0.27	1.309
	Shopping	16.0	23.6	22.9	26.4	11.1	-0.07	1.261
	Entertainment	12.1	21.4	24.3	29.3	12.9	0.09	1.229
	Sightseeing	10.7	22.1	31.4	24.3	11.4	0.04	1.166
	Transport	18.7	26.7	17.3	27.3	10.0	-0.17	1.292
	Accommodation	15.3	29.3	12.7	30.0	12.7	-0.05	1.312

Appendix VI. v Tourist Event valid percentages distribution

Attribute	Satisfaction						
	-2	-1	0	1	2	Mean	S. dev
Visa process	5.5	4.1	13.1	20.7	56.6	1.19	1.155
Event organization	5.3	7.3	13.9	30.5	43.0	0.99	1.160
Overall event experience	6.1	4.1	11.5	43.2	35.1	0.97	1.088
Information during event	4.8	9.6	11.0	37.7	37.0	0.92	1.139
Information before event	5.4	16.9	18.2	32.4	27.0	0.59	1.206
Event attendance cost	10.8	7.2	20.9	38.1	23.0	0.55	1.229
Event marketing & promotion	6.8	16.2	26.4	29.7	20.9	0.42	1.184

Appendix VII Customer satisfaction * demographics

Appendix VII. i Local dual-category demographics * satisfaction

Scale	Demographic Attribute	Gender		Employment		Age		Marital status	
		Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c
Place	Climate	-1.457	0.145	-0.853	0.394	-3.415	0.001^a	-0.878	0.380
	Cleanliness	-0.840	0.401	-0.575	0.565	-0.184	0.854	-2.049	0.040^b
	Safety	-0.138	0.890	-1.255	0.209	-0.554	0.580	-1.456	0.145
	Entertainment	-0.372	0.710	-0.439	0.661	-1.261	0.207	-0.013	0.990
	F & B	-1.235	0.217	-0.764	0.445	-2.707	0.007^a	-0.059	0.953
	Transportation	-1.751	0.080	-0.148	0.882	-0.637	0.524	-0.939	0.348
	Accommodation	-0.241	0.810	-1.723	0.085	-3.104	0.002^a	-1.797	0.072
	Beaches	-2.499	0.012^b	-0.444	0.657	-1.558	0.119	-0.678	0.498
	Night life	-1.254	0.210	-0.730	0.466	-0.005	0.996	-0.393	0.694
	Cultural Activities	-0.487	0.626	-2.833	0.005^a	-0.173	0.863	-1.267	0.205
	Shopping	-0.216	0.829	-1.662	0.097	-2.012	0.044^b	-0.403	0.687
	Sightseeing	-0.632	0.528	-0.584	0.559	-0.765	0.444	-1.944	0.052
	Friendliness	-3.373	0.001^a	-0.169	0.866	-2.414	0.016^b	-0.923	0.356
	Communication	-1.594	0.111	-1.079	0.281	-1.541	0.123	-1.531	0.126
Attraction	Number of Sights	-0.158	0.874	-2.221	0.026^b	-1.277	0.202	-1.821	0.069
	Variety of Sights	-0.445	0.657	-1.428	0.153	-0.916	0.360	-1.388	0.165
	Standard of Sights	-0.784	0.433	-1.650	0.099	-0.497	0.619	-0.959	0.337
	Information about Sights	-0.061	0.951	-1.287	0.198	-0.126	0.899	-1.085	0.278
	Information at Sights	-0.280	0.779	-1.724	0.085	-1.581	0.114	-2.222	0.026^b
	Facilities at Sights	-0.356	0.722	-2.704	0.007^a	-1.510	1.31	-2.691	0.007^a
Costs	Accommodation	-0.474	0.635	-0.563	0.573	-0.877	0.380	-0.834	0.404
	Transport	-0.275	0.783	-1.576	0.115	-0.999	0.318	-1.678	0.093
	F & B	-1.348	0.178	-0.690	0.490	-0.854	0.393	-0.365	0.715
	Entertainment	-0.910	0.363	-0.767	0.443	-0.821	0.412	-0.247	0.805
	Shopping	-1.823	0.068	-0.064	0.949	-1.933	0.053	-0.330	0.741
	Sightseeing	-0.444	0.657	-0.308	0.758	-1.291	0.197	-0.279	0.780

Test: Mann-Whitney U.

b= statistically significant at the 5% level

a= statistically significant at the 1% level

c = Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)

Appendix VII. ii Local multi-category demographics * satisfaction

	Attribute	Demographic		Education		Income (USD p.a.)	
		Chi-Square	Sig. ^c	Chi-Square	Sig. ^c	Chi-Square	Sig. ^c
Place	1	Climate	0.607	0.738	5.620	0.229	0.229
	2	Cleanliness	1.425	0.490	3.224	0.521	0.521
	3	Safety	3.219	0.200	2.673	0.614	0.614
	4	Entertainment	4.432	0.109	2.055	0.726	0.726
	5	F & B	1.649	0.439	3.235	0.519	0.519
	6	Transportation	0.578	0.749	10.400	0.034^b	0.034^b
	7	Accommodation	3.176	0.204	4.696	0.320	0.320
	8	Beaches	2.162	0.339	4.918	0.296	0.296
	9	Night life	2.184	0.336	2.961	0.564	0.564
	10	Cultural Activities	13.367	0.001^a	14.355	0.006^a	0.006^a
	11	Shopping	2.719	0.257	1.470	0.832	0.832
	12	Sightseeing	1.258	0.533	4.761	0.313	0.313
	13	Friendliness	2.689	0.261	1.307	0.860	0.860
	14	Communication	2.038	0.361	4.214	0.378	0.378
Attractions	1	Number of Sights	7.620	0.022^b	3.425	0.489	0.489
	2	Variety of Sights	5.746	0.057	4.517	0.341	0.341
	3	Standard of Sights	6.675	0.036^b	9.819	0.044^b	0.044^b
	4	Information about Sights	3.066	0.216	9.049	0.060	0.060
	5	Information at Sights	7.559	0.023^b	8.565	0.073	0.073
	6	Facilities at sights	7.738	0.021^b	12.901	0.012^b	0.012^b
Costs	1	Accommodation	3.385	0.184	2.313	0.678	0.678
	2	Transport	4.945	0.084	3.327	0.505	0.505
	3	F & B	5.172	0.075	1.108	0.893	0.893
	4	Entertainment	1.083	0.582	1.539	0.820	0.820
	5	Shopping	0.607	0.738	5.142	0.273	0.273
	6	Sightseeing	1.031	0.597	6.718	0.152	0.152

Test: Kruskal-Wallis

b= statistically significant at the 5% level

a= statistically significant at the 1% level

c = Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)

Appendix VII. iii Expatriate dual-category demographics * satisfaction

Scale	Attribute	Demographic		Gender		Employment		Age		Marital status		Origin	
		Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c
Place	1 Climate	-0.528	0.598	-2.339	0.019^b	-1.353	0.176	-0.745	0.457	-1.553	0.120	-4.470	0.000^a
	2 Cleanliness	-4.972	0.000^a	-1.510	0.131	-1.120	0.263	-0.560	0.575	-3.204	0.001^a	-0.536	0.592
	3 Safety	-1.990	0.047^b	-0.102	0.919	-2.307	0.021^b	-0.651	0.515	-0.963	0.335	-0.265	0.791
	4 Entertainment	-1.139	0.255	-2.886	0.004^a	-2.916	0.004^a	-0.304	0.761	-0.960	0.337	-0.200	0.842
	5 F & B	-1.672	0.095	-1.105	0.269	-0.854	0.393	-0.265	0.791	-0.963	0.335	-0.200	0.842
	6 Transportation	-3.558	0.000^a	-1.965	0.049^b	-2.951	0.003^a	-0.304	0.761	-0.960	0.337	-0.200	0.842
	7 Accommodation	-0.993	0.321	-2.097	0.036^b	-1.827	0.068	-0.560	0.576	-1.708	0.088	-1.535	0.125
	8 Beaches	-0.624	0.532	-0.807	0.420	-1.827	0.068	-0.560	0.576	-1.708	0.088	-1.535	0.125
	9 Night life	-1.149	0.250	-0.807	0.420	-2.499	0.012^b	-1.187	0.235	-0.761	0.447	-0.037	0.970
	10 Cultural Activities	-1.544	0.123	-1.796	0.072	-1.833	0.067	-0.037	0.970	-0.761	0.447	-0.037	0.970
	11 Shopping	-0.749	0.454	-1.117	0.264	-2.281	0.023^b	-1.261	0.207	-0.118	0.906	-0.118	0.906
	12 Sightseeing	-1.529	0.126	-1.528	0.126	-1.723	0.085	-1.057	0.291	-0.797	0.425	-0.797	0.425
	13 Friendliness	-0.710	0.478	-0.223	0.823	-2.018	0.044^b	-0.968	0.333	-1.485	0.138	-1.485	0.138
	14 Communication	-0.999	0.318	-0.595	0.552	-2.073	0.038^b	-1.448	0.148	-1.699	0.089	-1.699	0.089
Attractions	1 Number of Sights	-1.761	0.078	-1.370	0.171	-1.338	0.181	-0.231	0.818	-0.080	0.936	-0.231	0.818
	2 Variety of Sights	-1.925	0.054	-2.478	0.013^b	-1.683	0.092	-0.263	0.793	-0.159	0.874	-0.263	0.793
	3 Standard of Sights	-3.337	0.000^a	-0.752	0.452	-0.482	0.630	-0.826	0.409	-0.882	0.378	-0.826	0.409
	4 Information about Sights	-3.062	0.002^a	-1.773	0.076	-0.336	0.737	-0.399	0.690	-1.736	0.083	-0.399	0.690
	5 Information at Sights	-3.961	0.000^a	-1.229	0.219	-0.298	0.766	-0.262	0.793	-1.568	0.117	-0.262	0.793
	6 Facilities at Sights	-4.086	0.000^a	-1.887	0.059	-0.069	0.945	-0.565	0.572	-1.603	0.109	-0.565	0.572
Costs	1 Accommodation	-1.043	0.297	-0.978	0.328	-0.423	0.673	-1.087	0.277	-0.023	0.982	-1.087	0.277
	2 Transport	-3.093	0.002^a	-0.009	0.993	-1.096	0.273	-1.584	0.113	-0.230	0.982	-1.584	0.113
	3 F & B	-1.395	0.163	-1.755	0.079	-2.068	0.039^b	-1.101	0.271	-1.331	0.183	-1.101	0.271
	4 Entertainment	-1.418	0.156	-0.423	0.672	-1.448	0.148	-0.705	0.481	-1.130	0.259	-0.705	0.481
	5 Shopping	-1.634	0.102	-0.105	0.917	-0.819	0.413	-0.668	0.504	-1.618	0.106	-0.668	0.504
	6 Sightseeing	-0.582	0.561	-0.250	0.803	-0.150	0.881	-0.745	0.456	-1.095	0.273	-0.745	0.456

Test: Mann-Whitney U. **a** = statistically significant at the 1% level, **b** = statistically significant at the 5% level,

c Sig. = Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)

Appendix VII. iv Expatriate multi-category demographics * satisfaction

	Demographic		Education		Income (USD p.a.)	
	Attribute	Chi-Square	Sig. ^c	Chi-Square	Sig. ^c	Chi-Square
Place	1	Climate	1.857	0.395	6.904	0.141
	2	Cleanliness	4.332	0.115	4.664	0.324
	3	Safety	4.875	0.087	7.654	0.642
	4	Entertainment	0.021	0.990	2.516	0.583
	5	F & B	5.552	0.062	2.854	0.715
	6	Transportation	0.576	0.750	2.113	0.211
	7	Accommodation	2.576	0.276	5.850	0.307
	8	Beaches	2.331	0.312	4.810	0.768
	9	Night life	2.012	0.366	1.825	0.768
	10	Cultural Activities	0.006	0.997	8.320	0.081
	11	Shopping	2.802	0.246	9.531	0.049^b
	12	Sightseeing	0.799	0.671	8.448	0.076
	13	Friendliness	2.225	0.329	3.221	0.522
	14	Communication	2.198	0.333	3.306	0.508
Attractions	1	Number of Sights	0.824	0.662	1.109	0.893
	2	Variety of Sights	0.002	0.999	2.910	0.573
	3	Standard of Sights	3.014	0.222	11.103	0.025^b
	4	Information about Sights	2.181	0.336	6.219	0.183
	5	Information at Sights	2.069	0.355	5.525	0.238
	6	Facilities at sights	1.456	0.483	5.375	0.251
Costs	1	Accommodation	0.684	0.710	5.956	0.202
	2	Transport	2.451	0.294	5.042	0.283
	3	F & B	3.535	0.171	3.319	0.506
	4	Entertainment	0.548	0.760	4.117	0.390
	5	Shopping	1.054	0.590	0.842	0.933
	6	Sightseeing	3.007	0.222	1.674	0.795

Test: Kruskal-Wallis **b** = statistically significant at the 5% level **c** = Asymptotic significance (two-tailed) Sig.^c

Appendix VII. v Tourist dual-category demographics * satisfaction

	Attribute	Demographic		Gender		Age		Sponsorship		Origin	
		Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c
Place	Climate	-0.396	0.692	-0.298	0.766	-1.232	0.218	-1.336	0.181		
	Cleanliness	-0.826	0.409	-2.086	0.037^b	-0.408	0.683	-1.574	0.116		
	Safety	-0.492	0.622	-1.082	0.279	-0.346	0.729	-2.311	0.021^b		
	Entertainment	-0.575	0.566	-0.652	0.514	-0.301	0.763	-0.661	0.509		
	F & B	-0.286	0.775	-0.603	0.547	-0.459	0.646	-0.410	0.682		
	Transportation	-0.069	0.945	-3.051	0.002^a	-0.038	0.970	-0.137	0.891		
	Accommodation	-0.796	0.426	-3.149	0.002^a	-0.146	0.884	-0.635	0.525		
	Beaches	-0.345	0.730	-2.113	0.035^b	-0.268	0.798	-1.804	0.071		
	Night life	-1.008	0.313	-1.641	0.101	-0.121	0.914	-1.707	0.088		
	Cultural Activities	-1.163	0.245	-2.714	0.007^a	-0.233	0.816	-1.201	0.230		
	Shopping	-0.759	0.448	-1.846	0.065	-0.108	0.914	-1.795	0.073		
	Sightseeing	-1.186	0.235	-1.660	0.097	-1.678	0.093	-0.762	0.446		
	Friendliness	-0.457	0.647	-1.504	0.133	-1.042	0.298	-2.447	0.014^b		
	Communication	-2.205	0.027^b	-1.599	0.110	-0.166	0.868	-1.757	0.079		
Attractions	Number of Sights	-1.260	0.208	-2.024	0.043^b	-0.758	0.449	-0.184	0.854		
	Variety of Sights	-1.110	0.267	-1.779	0.075	-0.344	0.731	-0.816	0.414		
	Standard of Sights	-0.862	0.388	-2.271	0.023^b	-0.676	0.499	-0.475	0.635		
	Information about Sights	-0.776	0.438	-2.481	0.013^b	-0.047	0.962	-0.616	0.538		
	Information at Sights	-0.232	0.817	-2.093	0.036^b	-0.466	0.641	-0.335	0.737		
	Facilities at Sights	-0.406	0.685	-2.477	0.013^b	-0.556	0.578	-0.465	0.642		
Costs	Accommodation	-1.026	0.305	-0.113	0.910	-1.907	0.057	-0.510	0.610		
	Transport	-0.690	0.490	-3.799	0.000^a	-1.010	0.313	-0.334	0.739		
	F & B	-0.010	0.992	-2.439	0.015^b	-1.955	0.051	-1.346	0.178		
	Entertainment	-0.850	0.395	-3.099	0.002^a	-1.620	0.105	-1.210	0.226		
	Shopping	-2.128	0.033^b	-3.816	0.000^a	-1.407	0.159	-1.382	0.167		
	Sightseeing	-0.664	0.507	-2.310	0.021^b	-0.651	0.515	-2.577	0.010^a		

Test: Mann-Whitney U. **a** : statistically significant at 1% level **b**= statistically significant at 5% level **c**= Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)

Appendix VII. vi Tourist multi-category demographics * satisfaction

	Demographic		Education		Income (USD p.a.)			
	Attribute	Chi-Square	Sig. ^c	Chi-Square	Sig. ^c	Chi-Square	Sig. ^c	
Place	Climate	1.816	0.403	4.100	0.393	4.100	0.393	
	Cleanliness	4.439	0.109	7.742	0.101	7.742	0.101	
	Safety	3.830	0.147	6.053	0.195	6.053	0.195	
	Entertainment	0.704	0.703	3.267	0.514	3.267	0.514	
	F & B	0.200	0.905	1.768	0.778	1.768	0.778	
	Transportation	4.322	0.115	14.140	0.007^a	14.140	0.007^a	
	Accommodation	2.320	0.314	2.069	0.723	2.069	0.723	
	Beaches	3.113	0.211	6.100	0.192	6.100	0.192	
	Night life	2.503	0.286	3.772	0.438	3.772	0.438	
	Cultural Activities	4.086	0.130	4.958	0.292	4.958	0.292	
	Shopping	1.679	0.432	1.674	0.795	1.674	0.795	
	Sightseeing	4.064	0.131	5.412	0.248	5.412	0.248	
	Friendliness	2.700	0.259	1.705	0.790	1.705	0.790	
	Communication	2.699	0.259	7.534	0.110	7.534	0.110	
	Attractions	Number of Sights	1.324	0.516	7.214	0.125	7.214	0.125
		Variety of Sights	2.697	0.260	4.895	0.298	4.895	0.298
Standard of Sights		0.396	0.820	6.314	0.177	6.314	0.177	
Information about Sights		1.105	0.576	6.119	0.190	6.119	0.190	
Information at Sights		3.059	0.217	4.996	0.288	4.996	0.288	
Facilities at Sights		2.596	0.273	7.270	0.122	7.270	0.122	
Costs	Accommodation	9.621	0.008^a	5.626	0.229	5.626	0.229	
	Transport	16.218	0.000^a	10.350	0.035	10.350	0.035	
	F & B	27.559	0.000^a	5.431	0.246	5.431	0.246	
	Entertainment	26.421	0.000^a	10.282	0.036^b	10.282	0.036^b	
	Shopping	26.642	0.000^a	6.065	0.194	6.065	0.194	
	Sightseeing	23.812	0.000^a	4.185	0.382	4.185	0.382	

Test: Mann-Whitney U. **a** : statistically significant at the 1% level
b= statistically significant at the 5% level
c= Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)

Appendix VII. vii Tourist dual-category demographics * event satisfaction

Event	Demographic		Gender		Experience		Age		Sponsorship		Origin		
	Attribute	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c	Z	Sig. ^c
	Information before event	-1.560	0.119	-2.203	0.028^b	-0.113	0.910	-0.343	0.731	-0.662	0.508	-0.662	0.508
	Information during event	-0.506	0.613	-0.288	0.774	-0.905	0.365	-1.280	0.200	-0.848	0.396	-0.848	0.396
	Visa process	-1.009	0.313	-0.224	0.822	-0.986	0.324	-1.307	0.191	-0.784	0.433	-0.784	0.433
	Organization	-0.988	0.323	-0.533	0.594	-1.183	0.237	-1.159	0.247	-0.240	0.811	-0.240	0.811
	Attendance cost	-1.034	0.301	-0.645	0.519	-0.149	0.881	-0.325	0.745	-0.492	0.623	-0.492	0.623
	Marketing & promotion	-0.430	0.667	-0.608	0.544	-0.198	0.843	-0.344	0.730	-0.211	0.833	-0.211	0.833
	Overall event experience	-1.124	0.261	-0.433	0.665	-0.703	0.482	-0.968	0.333	-0.940	0.347	-0.940	0.347

Test: Mann-Whitney U.
a : statistically significant at the 1% level
b= statistically significant at the 5% level
c= Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)

Appendix VII. viii Tourist multi-category demographics * event satisfaction

Event	Demographic		Education		Income (USD p.a.)	
	Attribute	Chi-Square	Sig. ^c	Chi-Square	Sig. ^c	Sig. ^c
	Information before event	0.202	0.904	4.305	0.366	0.366
	Information during event	0.348	0.840	2.109	0.716	0.716
	Visa process	3.891	0.143	13.641	0.009^a	0.009^a
	Organization	0.091	0.956	4.784	0.310	0.310
	Attendance cost	1.219	0.544	3.606	0.462	0.462
	Marketing & promotion	0.357	0.837	2.263	0.687	0.687
	Overall event experience	1.926	0.382	8.012	0.091	0.091

Test: Kruskal-Wallis
a= statistically significant at the 1% level
b= statistically significant at the 5% level
c= asymptotic significance

Appendix VIII Results: Factor analysis

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Source: SPSS 14.0

Appendix VIII. i Scree Plots (2 pages)

Locals	Expatriates	Event tourists
<p>Local Place</p> <p>Scree Plot</p>	<p>Expatriate Place</p> <p>Scree Plot</p>	<p>Tourist Place</p> <p>Scree Plot</p>
<p>Local Cost</p> <p>Scree Plot</p>	<p>Expatriate Costs</p> <p>Scree Plot</p>	<p>Tourist Cost</p> <p>Scree Plot</p>

<p>Locals</p> <p>Local Attractions</p>	<p>Scree Plot</p> <p>Eigenvalue</p> <p>Component Number</p>	<p>Expatriates</p> <p>Expatriate Attractions</p>	<p>Scree Plot</p> <p>respondent type: Expatriate</p> <p>Eigenvalue</p> <p>Component Number</p>	<p>Event tourists</p> <p>Tourist Event</p>	<p>Scree Plot</p> <p>Eigenvalue</p> <p>Component Number</p>	<p>Tourists expectation</p>	<p>Scree Plot</p> <p>Eigenvalue</p> <p>Component Number</p>
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Appendix VIII. ii Local factor analysis total variance explained

	Component	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
Place	1	3.323	27.695	27.695	3.323	27.695	27.695	2.945
	2	1.789	14.905	42.600	1.789	14.905	42.600	2.577
	3	1.093	9.108	51.708				
	4	1.076	8.969	60.678				
	5	1.005	8.378	69.055				
	6	.884	7.363	76.418				
	7	.659	5.488	81.907				
	8	.571	4.757	86.664				
	9	.531	4.428	91.092				
	10	.445	3.707	94.799				
	11	.414	3.449	98.248				
	12	.210	1.752	100.000				
Attractions	1	3.563	59.380	59.380	3.563	59.380	59.380	
	2	1.134	18.900	78.280				
	3	.465	7.745	86.025				
	4	.397	6.615	92.640				
	5	.246	4.100	96.740				
	6	.196	3.260	100.000				
Costs	1	3.092	51.525	51.525	3.092	51.525	51.525	
	2	.843	14.052	65.577				
	3	.743	12.392	77.968				
	4	.496	8.262	86.230				
	5	.435	7.253	93.483				
	6	.391	6.517	100.000				
								a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Appendix VIII. iii Expatriate factor analysis total variance explained

Attributes	Component	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a		
		Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Place	1	3.404	26.181	3.404	26.181	2.853	21.948	21.948
	2	1.617	12.441	1.617	12.441	2.168	16.674	38.622
	3	1.179	9.072					
	4	1.150	8.846					
	5	.955	7.346					
	6	.882	6.783					
	7	.756	5.814					
	8	.704	5.413					
	9	.586	4.507					
	10	.581	4.468					
	11	.491	3.776					
	12	.384	2.950					
	13	.312	2.401					
Attractions	1	3.924	65.398	3.924	65.398			65.398
	2	.889	14.824					
	3	.475	7.921					
	4	.348	5.799					
	5	.198	3.298					
	6	.166	2.759					
Costs	1	2.460	40.994	2.460	40.994	2.460	40.994	40.994
	2	1.082	18.037					
	3	.791	13.185					
	4	.622	10.364					
	5	.551	9.190					
	6	.494	8.230					

a. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix VIII. iv Tourist factor analysis total variance explained

Attributes	Component	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
		Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Place	1	3.892	43.248	3.892	43.248	43.248
	2	1.155	12.837			
	3	.973	10.810			
	4	.838	9.310			
	5	.734	8.157			
	6	.451	5.013			
	7	.427	4.748			
	8	.318	3.531			
	9	.211	2.346			
Attractions	1	3.892	43.248	3.892	43.248	43.248
	2	1.155	12.837			
	3	.973	10.810			
	4	.838	9.310			
	5	.734	8.157			
	6	.451	5.013			
	7	.427	4.748			
	8	.318	3.531			
	9	.211	2.346			
Costs	1	4.162	69.371	4.162	69.371	69.371
	2	.692	11.539			
	3	.377	6.282			
	4	.348	5.792			
	5	.256	4.265			
	6	.165	2.749			
a. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

Appendix VIII. v Tourist Event factor analysis total variance explained

Attributes	Component	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
		Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Event	1	3.746	53.517	3.746	53.517	53.517
	2	.836	11.946			
	3	.812	11.599			
	4	.534	7.622			
	5	.434	6.194			
	6	.326	4.654			
	7	.313	4.469			
				Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

Appendix VIII. vi Tourist Expectation factor analysis total variance explained

Attributes	Component	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
		Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Event	1	3.534	58.895	3.534	58.895	58.895
	2	.743	12.381			
	3	.657	10.950			
	4	.505	8.422			
	5	.399	6.649			
	6	.162	2.703			
				Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

Appendix IX: Results: Holistic Perceptions

Appendix IX. i Holistic Perceptions of Bahrain

%	Locals	Expatriates	Tourists
64			Friendly
63	Friendly		
61		Friendly	
45			Peaceful
42			Safe
38	Hot	Hot	
35		Peaceful	
34	Boring		
33			Hot
32	Peaceful		Expensive
30	Nothing special, History	Safe	
29	Financial centre		
28		Financial centre, Traditional	
25	Safe	Restaurants	
24			Cosmopolitan
23			Exotic
21	Restaurants, Traditional, UNDER-DEVELOPED		
20	Disorganized, family destination	family destination	Traditional
19			Family destination Financial centre, DIFFERENT
18		Expensive, UNDER-DEVELOPED	
17		Slow	Unique
16	Slow, Expensive,		Shopping, Nightlife
15	Crowded	Cosmopolitan	
14		Conservative, DIFFERENT	Modern, Well-planned
13		Westernised, History	
12		Religious	
11	Beaches	Nothing special, Shopping, Boring	Beaches, Exciting, Westernized
10	Religious, Conservative	Disorganized, Unique	Conservative
9			Eastern, Restaurants, UNDER-DEVELOPED
8	Cosmopolitan, DIFFERENT	Eastern	Nothing special
7	Unique	Beaches, Modern	Slow
6	Nightlife, Shopping	Nightlife	
5	Westernised	Crowded, Exciting	Boring
4	Modern	Well-planned	
3	Eastern		Clean, Fast-paced
2	Exciting, Glamorous, Sophisticated	Sophisticated, Glamorous	Glamorous, Sophisticated, crowded
1	Exotic, Fast-paced, Well-planned	Exotic	Disorganized

Appendix IX. ii Holistic Perceptions of Dubai

%	Locals	Expatriates	Tourists
64	Shopping		
58		Shopping	
51			Shopping
46	Beaches		
42		Fast-paced	
41		Beaches	
40		Cosmopolitan	
39	Crowded		
38	Well-planned	Crowded	
33		Westernised	
32	Nightlife		
30			Westernised
29			Well-planned
28	Exciting		
27	Modern	Modern	
26	Financial centre		Modern
25			Cosmopolitan, Crowded
24			Financial centre
23		Well-planned	
22	Cosmopolitan, Expensive, Restaurants Fast-paced		Beaches, Exciting
21			Hot
20			GLAMOROUS
19		Expensive	
18	Family destination	Nightlife	Expensive, Nightlife
17		Exciting	SOPHISTICATED
16	Hot	Hot, Family destination	
15		GLAMOROUS	Fast-paced
14	Westernised		Family destination
13	Unique	Financial centre	DIFFERENT, Friendly
12			Unique
11	DIFFERENT		
10		Restaurants, SOPHISTICATED	Peaceful, Restaurants
9			Safe
8	Safe, GLAMOROUS		Traditional
7			Exotic
6	Peaceful	Safe	
5		DIFFERENT	
4	Exotic, Friendly	Unique	
3	SOPHISTICATED, Traditional	Exotic, Friendly	
2	Disorganized, Nothing special	Disorganized, Peaceful, Slow	Boring, Eastern Disorganized
1	Boring, Conservative, Religious, Slow, Under-developed	Nothing special, Conservative, Eastern, Traditional	Conservative, Nothing special, Under-developed

Appendix IX. iii Experience of first time Tourists versus previous visitors

Item	category	Mean	S dev.	Mode response
People	1st timer	0.97	0.891	Much better than expected
	repeat	0.73	1.083	Somewhat better than expected
Event	1st timer	0.47	1.034	Matched expectations
	repeat	0.37	1.168	
Sights	1st timer	0.17	0.921	
	repeat	0.07	1.094	
Activities	1st timer	0.19	0.925	
	repeat	0.03	1.034	
Costs	1st timer	-0.44	1.099	Somewhat worse than expected
	repeat	-0.16	1.144	Matched expectations
The Destination	1st timer	0.58	0.975	Matched expectations
	repeat	0.55	1.101	Somewhat better than expected

Appendix IX. iv Tourist Income * “Costs vs. expectation” statistics

	Valid	Mean	S. Dev.	Median	Mode	Missing
Income p.a.						
USD 0 – 19,999	32	-0.5	1.047	-1	-1	1
USD 20,000 – 39,999	31	-0.61	1.022	-1	-1	3
USD 40,000 – 59,999	35	0.086	1.222	0	0	2
USD 60,000 – 79,999	21	-0.48	1.209	-1	-1	1
USD 80,000 or more	27	-0.04	1.018	0	0	3

Appendix IX. v “Bahrain as a destination vs. expectation” distribution

	Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
Much worse than expected	6	4	4
Somewhat worse than expected	15	10	14
Matched expectations	46	30.67	44.67
Somewhat better than expected	54	36	80.67
Much better than expected	29	19.33	100
Total	150	100	
Missing	6		
Total	156		

Appendix X: Results: Brand Loyalty statements

Appendix X. i Local Gender * Statement 3

Crosstab	Statement 3		
	No	Yes	Total
% within Female	20.6%	79.4%	100.0%
% within Male	37.9%	62.1%	100.0%
Total	29.3%	70.7%	100.0%

Appendix X. ii Expatriate Income * Statement 2

Crosstab	Statement 2		
	No	Yes	Total
% within \$0- \$19,999 p.a.	26.6%	73.4%	100.0%
% within \$20,000-\$39,999 p.a.	37.3%	62.7%	100.0%
% within \$40,000-\$59,999 p.a.	30.8%	69.2%	100.0%
% within \$60,000-\$79,999 p.a.	22.2%	77.8%	100.0%
% within \$80,000 or more p.a.	61.9%	38.1%	100.0%
Total	33.8%	66.2%	100.0%

Appendix X. iii Expatriate Education * Statement 3

Chi-Square Tests ^c	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.318 ^b	2	.042
Likelihood Ratio	7.585	2	.023
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.885	1	.049
N of Valid Cases	202		

Crosstab	Statement 3		
	No	Yes	Total
% within High School or less	7.3%	92.7%	100.0%
% within University Graduate	25.5%	74.5%	100.0%
% within Postgraduate	25.5%	74.5%	100.0%
Total	21.8%	78.2%	100.0%

a 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.94.
b 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.93.

Appendix X. iv Residents Brand Loyalty Chi Square results

Chi-Square Tests	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Locals					
Statements 1 and 3					
Pearson Chi-Square	12.320 ^b	1	.000		
Yates Continuity Correction ^a	11.206	1	.001		
Likelihood Ratio	11.963	1	.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				.001	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.259	1	.000		
Statements 2 and 3					
Pearson Chi-Square	8.078 ^c	1	.004		
Yates Continuity Correction ^a	7.217	1	.007		
Likelihood Ratio	8.010	1	.005		
Fisher's Exact Test				.005	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.039	1			
a Computed only for a 2x2 table					
b 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20.20.					
c 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 24.88.					
Expatriates					
Statements 1 and 3					
Pearson Chi-Square	20.198 ^b	1	.000		
Yates Continuity Correction ^a	18.523	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	18.625	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	20.098	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	202				
Statements 2 and 3					
Pearson Chi-Square	22.631 ^c	1	.000		
Yates Continuity Correction ^a	20.947	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	21.596	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	22.519	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	202				
a Computed only for a 2x2 table					
b 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12.20.					
c 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.81.					

Appendix X. v Expatriate Brand Loyalty significant differences

Statement (Respondents)	Chi-Square Tests	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
I would recommend that others attend events at the destination (X and T) ^e	Pearson Chi-Square	9.402(a)	1	.002		
	Continuity Correction(c)	8.626	1	.003		
	Likelihood Ratio	9.730	1	.002		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.003	.001
	Linear-by-Linear Association	9.375	1	.002		
	N of Valid Cases	357				
a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 33.87.						
e L = Locals, X = Expatriates, T = Tourists						

Appendix XI: Results: Ideal length of stay

Appendix XI. i Ideal length of stay

Sample Ideal stay	Locals			Expatriate			Tourist		
	Frequency	Percentage		Frequency	Percentage		Frequency	Percentage	
		Valid	Cumulative		Valid	Cumulative		Valid	Cumulative
0	8	3.9	3.9	6	3.0	3.0	6	3.8	3.8
1				2	1.0	4.0			
2	11	5.4	9.3	8	4.0	8.0	7	4.5	8.3
3	28	13.7	23.0	18	9.0	16.9	18	11.5	19.9
4	15	7.4	30.4	14	7.0	23.9	13	8.3	28.2
5	28	13.7	44.1	27	13.4	37.3	19	12.2	40.4
6	5	2.5	46.6	4	2.0	39.3	9	5.8	46.2
7	56	27.5	74.0	41	20.4	59.7	31	19.9	66.0
8	2	1.0	75.0	3	1.5	61.2	5	3.2	69.2
9	3	1.5	76.5	7	3.5	64.7	5	3.2	72.4
10	17	8.3	84.8	27	13.4	78.1	12	7.7	80.1
11				1	.5	78.6	8	5.1	85.3
12	1	.5	85.3	1	.5	79.1	4	2.6	87.8
14	7	3.4	88.7	17	8.5	87.6	9	5.8	93.6
15	7	3.4	92.2	8	4.0	91.5	4	2.6	96.2
18	2	1.0	93.1	2	1.0	92.5			
20	5	2.5	95.6	1	.5	93.0			
21	1	.5	96.1	4	2.0	95.0			
23	1	.5	96.6						
27				1	.5	95.5			
30	7	3.4	100.0	9	4.5	100.0	6	3.8	100.0
Total	204	100.0		201	100.0				
System	1			1					
	205			202					
	202						156	100.0	