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Binh Nghiem-Phu
Department of Business Communication Fukushima National College of Technology, Japan,
binhnghiem@gmail.com

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Predicting Tourist Loyalty to a Small Emerging Destination – The Importance of Destination Image

Bình Nghiêm-Phú

In the Southeast Asia region, Vietnam is a developing country and also a developing tourism destination. The number of international tourists to Vietnam has been increasing in recent years. However, the post-trip issues (e.g., not returning, bad word-of-mouth) have become the focal points of many arguments. Based on the existing literature, this study developed and tested a theoretical model to predict international tourists' loyalty to Vietnam from a combination of destination image, tourist motivation, and overall trip satisfaction. The findings revealed that destination image significantly and positively predicted tourists' overall satisfaction with the trip and their loyalty to the country in the future. Tourist motivation had some weak but significant effects on both overall trip satisfaction and destination loyalty when tested separately; however, the effect on overall trip satisfaction could not be observed when controlled by destination image. Implications were discussed for Vietnam and other small emerging destinations.

Keywords: destination image, tourist motivation, trip satisfaction, destination loyalty, emerging destination, Vietnam

Introduction

An emerging tourism destination is a place (e.g., a country) where tourism contributes an annually significant percentage to its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Statista, 2015). The list of the fastest emerging tourism destinations in the period of 2014-2024 includes Angola, Cameroon, Cambodia, Cape Verde, China, Gabon, India, Kuwait, Lebanon, Mongolia, Montenegro, Myanmar, Namibia, Peru, St. Kitts and Nevis, Tanzania, Thailand, Uzbekistan, Vietnam, and Zambia. Among these countries, China and Thailand are big players in terms of international tourist arrivals (approximately 133.82 million and 29.92 million international arrivals in 2015) (World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2017). The others really are small ones. For example, India, Kuwait, and Vietnam welcomed approximately 8.03, 6.94 and 7.94 million international tourists in 2015; Cambodia, Mongolia, Myanmar, and Peru had approximately 4.78, 4.01, 4.68, and 4.36 million international arrivals in the same year; the number of foreign visitors to the remaining countries was less than 2 million (UNWTO, 2017).

While tourism activities in the big destinations have been thoroughly investigated, those in the smaller ones have only been briefly explored (Chaudhary, 2000; Chen & Myagmarsuren, 2010; Husbands, 1994; Jani & Hwang, 2011; Kitney, Stanway, & Ryan, 2016; Stepchenkova & Zhan, 2013; Veasna, Wu, & Huang, 2013; Yu & Goulden, 2006). For example, destination image, tourist motivation, tourist satisfaction, and tourist loyalty have been simultaneously examined in the context of the big destinations (Tang, 2014). Such a composite attempt, however, has not been observed in the setting of the small ones.

Among the four constructs mentioned above, destination image can be considered as the external or pull component of tourist motivation (Crompton, 1979). However, when investigating destination image and tourist motivation together, researchers usually do not properly distinguish the two constructs and their corresponding measures (Pesonen, Komppula, Kronenberg, & Peters, 2011; Tang, 2014). Consequently, the pull component can be measured twice in the same study, which poses a methodological shortcoming. In addition, previous efforts have mainly focused on the cognitive attributes of destination image while largely ignored its affective attributes (Chaudhary, 2000; Jani & Hwang, 2011; Tran, Schneider, & Gartner, 2006; Truong, 2005).

To address the theoretical and methodological gaps as mentioned, this study aims to examine the destination image, tourist motivation, tourist satisfaction, and tourist loyalty issues of the small emerging tourism destinations. In this study, destination image is exclusively treated as a pull or external motivation force, while tourist motivation is restrictively regarded as a push or internal motivation force. Destination image, in particular, is measured on both the cognitive and the affective components.

The context of the study is Vietnam. The conditions of Vietnam are similar to those of many low and lower-middle income countries in Africa and Asia (The World Bank, 2017). In addition, Vietnam also shares many similar characteristics with other small emerging destinations although they are located in different areas around the world (Chaudhary, 2000; Husbands, 1994; Jani & Hwang, 2011; Stepchenkova & Zhan, 2013; Stojanovic, 2012; Tran et al., 2006; Truong, 2005; Truong & King,

Department of Business Communication, Fukushima National College of Technology
* binhnghiem@gmail.com

2009; Yu & Goulden, 2006). Thus, the understanding of the tourism activities in Vietnam is helpful for other developing destinations.

Literature Review

The potential and actual visitation of tourists to tourism destinations is affected by many internal or pushes factors (i.e., tourist motivation). Tourist motivation is "the drive to satisfy needs and wants, both physiological and psychological through the purchase and use of [tourism] products and services" (Jiao, 1992, p.8). Tourist motivation has two components: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is the "behavior conducted for its own sake," and extrinsic motivation is the "behavior under the control of outside reward" (Pearce, 1993, p.121). With a focus on such push factors, Hudson and Miller (2007) examined the ethical aspect of tourism development in Myanmar from a tourist perspective. Hudson and Miller (2007) reported that "utilitarianism" was the only ethical dimension that their respondents were unsure about when visiting this country. With international volunteers of the Marine Conservation Cambodia program, Kitney et al. (2016) found that two of the most important internal motivation factors were understanding and values. In another study, Chien, Yen, and Hoang (2012) investigated tourist motivation to visit beach resorts in Vietnam and found that this construct had a significant effect on tourist behavior. In an extended effort, Thapa (2013) measured visitors' attitudes towards sustainable tourism in projected areas in Zambia. As a result, visitors agreed that the protection of the habitat for plants and animals is more important than the providing of recreation and tourism opportunities, and that the diversity of nature must be valued and protected. In addition, visitors showed that they felt safe when interacting with local residents and that they should respect the local culture and values.

In addition to the internal factors, the external or push factors (e.g., destination image) also have some important impacts on tourist decision. Destination image is considered as the perception that an individual has of a destination. It is structured by the two basic elements of cognitive/perceptual, and emotional/affective. Cognitive image is the beliefs and knowledge about, and affective image is the feelings towards the destination (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). Several researchers have investigated the images of small emerging destinations. For example, international tourists to India highly valued the "rich cultural heritage" and "close to nature" characteristics of the country; yet, they showed concerns about many issues, for example, "unsafe from petty crimes", "cheaters", and "nuisance caused by beggars" (Chaudhary, 2000). With Zanzibar (Tanzania), the most popular images of the island were "beach," "accommodation/hotel", and "price/cheap" (Jani & Hwang, 2011). The most prominent images of Peru featured in tourists' and destination marketing organizations' photos were "nature and landscape", "people", "archeological sites", "way of life", and "traditional clothing" (Stepchenkova & Zhan, 2013). In the case of Australian tourists to Vietnam, the country's positive images include pleasant climate, relaxing beaches, and cheap food and beverages; the negative attributes of the country were the lack of public toilet facilities and pollution in the cities (Truong, 2005). With US travelers, the images of Vietnam could be grouped into four factors, including "world heritage sites," "atmosphere and attractions", "service value", and "quality" (Tran et al., 2006).

Destination attributes are usually employed to measure tourist satisfaction with tourism destinations. Theoretically, satisfaction is considered as a post consumption state which relates to the fulfillment of one's expectations (Schiffman, Kanuk, & Wisenblit, 2010; UNWTO, 1985; Yuksel & Rimmington, 1998). When the performance is better than one's expectations, he/she may be satisfied, and vice versa. As an example, Husbands (1994) found that "viewing wildlife", "scenery", and "experiencing African culture" were the most important benefit factors for a satisfied visit to Zambia of the international tourists. In the Mongolia case, a study conducted by Yu and Goulden (2006) showed that international tourists were very satisfied with the country's "nature" and "nomadic style," but somewhat dissatisfied with the attributes of "nightlife", "sanitation", and "transportation". They also felt that Mongolia was "interesting", "unique", and "adventurous". With the same focus, Stojanovic (2012) investigated tourist satisfaction with Montenegro tourism. The most satisfied attributes of the country included "natural beauty", "the richness of contrast", "national parks", and "preserved nature". The most dissatisfied attributes were "poor infrastructure", "crowd, noise, dirtiness", "low quality of services", and "high prices". With Vietnam as a tourism destination, the top five satisfied dimensions as perceived by Chinese tourists are "beautiful natural scenery", "variety of activities", "quality and variety of restaurant", "prices of food and beverages", and "quality standard of accommodation/resort" (Truong & King, 2009).

In the tourism context, the more satisfied the tourists are, the more loyal they are likely to be to the destinations. Tourist loyalty to a destination usually consists of two major components: attitudinal and behavioral. Attitudinal loyalty is a "psychological expression", while behavioral loyalty is a "behavioral outcome" (Zang et al., 2014, p.216). A combination of attitudinal and behavioral loyalties creates what Zhang et al. (2014, p.216) termed "composite loyalty".

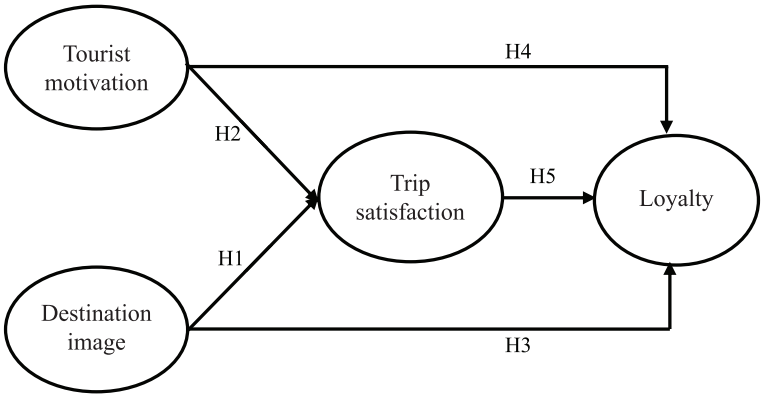

Figure 1. Theoretical model

Method

Research purpose

This study aims to examine the correlations among destination image, tourist motivation, tourist satisfaction, and tourist loyalty in the context of a small emerging tourism destination (i.e., Vietnam). The review of the literature has revealed that destination image serves as the basis for tourists to compare their expectations and the actual experiences and thereupon evaluate their satisfaction (Chi & Qu, 2008; Zhang et al., 2014). In addition, tourist motivation is also considered as a potential antecedent of satisfaction (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Schofield & Thompson, 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Tourist satisfaction, in its turn, is an important generator of tourist loyalty (do Valle, Silva, Mendes, & Guerreiro, 2006; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Lee & Hsu, 2013; Oliver, 1980). Moreover, destination image and tourist motivation together can also have some direct effects on tourist loyalty (Eusébio & Vieira, 2013; Hernandez-Lobato, Solis-Radilla, Moliner-Tena, & Sanchez-Garcia, 2006; Song, Su, & Li, 2013; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Zang et al., 2014).

Veasna et al. (2013) in a study with international tourists to Angkor Wat (Cambodia), found that destination image could have an indirect effect on destination satisfaction through the mediation of destination attachment. In the context of Mongolia, Chen and Myagmarsuren (2010) further observed that tourist satisfaction had a significant correlation with destination loyalty. In the setting of Vietnam, Lai and Nguyen (2013) found that tourists' perception of destination attributes (i.e., destination image) and destination satisfaction significantly predicted their revisit and recommendation intentions. In a recent study in Myanmar, Chen, Htaik, Hiele, and Chen (2017) reported that need gratification (as an internal motivation factor) and perceived risks (as the perception of a particular destination attribute) had some significant and positive impacts on tourist satisfaction, and the three former constructs are the antecedents of tourists' revisit intention.

Based on the findings of previous studies in both big and small emerging tourism destinations, five hypotheses are developed as follows. The combination of these hypotheses forms the theoretical model of this study (Figure 1).

H1: destination image significantly affects trip satisfaction of international tourists to Vietnam

H2: tourist motivation significantly affects trip satisfaction of international tourists to Vietnam

H3: destination image significantly affects international tourists' loyalty to Vietnam

H4: tourist motivation significantly affects international tourists' loyalty to Vietnam

H5: trip satisfaction significantly affects international tourists' loyalty to Vietnam

Research instrument

To gather data to verify the theoretical model, a structured questionnaire was developed and employed. The cognitive image of Vietnam was measured through a pool of attributes which were used in or discovered by previous studies in Vietnam (e.g., Bui & Perez, 2010; Lai & Nguyen, 2013; Tran et al., 2006; Truong, 2005; Truong & King, 2006). The twenty-two cognitive items were evaluated through a five-point scale, ranging from "very unfavorable" to "very favorable". A screening of the literature revealed that the cognitive subscale developed by this study has covered the attributes used to measure tourist perception and evaluation in other emerging contexts, or generated by previous studies to describe the images of those destinations (Chaudhary, 2000; Chen & Myagmarsuren, 2010; Dwivedi, 2009; Husbands, 1994; Jani & Hwang, 2011; Stojanovic, 2012; Veasna et al., 2013; Yu & Goulden, 2006). In addition, the items in the list can reflect the visible and invisible cognition-based attributes of a destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991), which

are different from the emotion-based characteristics of the same destination (Russell & Pratt, 1980). The subscale to measure the affective component of Vietnam's image includes four bipolar items evaluated on a five-point scale (Russell & Pratt, 1980). The two subscales were validated by comparing with the attribute collection compiled by Beerli and Martin (2004). It was found that the two image subscales of this study have their representativeness, which means that they can be used to measure the image of other destinations besides that of Vietnam.

The scale to measure tourist motivation was adapted from Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006). Based on Iso-Ahola's (1982) motivation theory, Snepenger et al. (2006) developed a scale which includes four factors as a combination of two motivation types (i.e., escape and seeking) and two relationship types (i.e., personal and interpersonal); the alphas of the four components ranged from 0.80 to 0.86. In this study, three items were rephrased in order to be consistent with its subject and context (Table 2). A seven-point scale was used, with 1= "strongly disagree" and 7= "strongly agree".

This study also measured the overall satisfaction of international tourists at the time of the survey. Perception of destination attribute and tourist motivation played the basic role for satisfaction evaluation. The question used to measure satisfaction is: "Overall, how are you satisfied with the trip to Vietnam?" A seven-point scale with 1= "extremely dissatisfied" and 7= "extremely satisfied" was adopted. Moreover, two items to capture tourist loyalty are revisit intention and recommendation intention. A seven-point scale, where 7= "strongly agree" and 1= "strongly disagree" was utilized. The respondent profile includes age, sex (male/female), education, occupation, income, country of origin, and previous experiences to Vietnam. The income scale was adjusted from the original one of Lee, Kang, Reisinger, and Kim (2012).

The initial questionnaire was checked by an expert in English language and a group of English users for its correctness. After that, the pretest of the questionnaire was conducted with 102 international tourists in Hanoi (Vietnam) in July-August 2013. It was found that the instrument was understandable and usable.

Data collection

The main survey of this study was conducted over a six-month period (February-July 2014) in the downtown of Hanoi, the capital city of Vietnam. This area was targeted because it has a variety of lodging facilities and a concentration of international tourists. Five hotels took part in the survey on a voluntary basis. To recruit the hotels, the researcher contacted an alumnus of a public university (which he has previously known) who was working in the area. This alumnus was then requested to contact other hotels and ask for their help. Finally, five hotels agreed to provide the sites for the survey and their staff helped to distribute and collect the questionnaires. Prior to the survey, the staff was informed about the purpose and method of the study. After that, they randomly gathered the answers from their guests. The self-administered questionnaire developed earlier was used as the survey instrument. Due to the limited study resources, only the English version of the questionnaire was used. A total of 350 complete responses were employed as the sample of this study.

Sample description

The profile of the respondents is presented in Table 1. Among them, male and female were nearly equal. More than 70% of the sample were in the 20-39 age brackets and graduated from universities or higher education institutes. There were more than 80 groups of occupation reported, with students (22.9%) and teachers (9.1%) as the largest percentages. The biggest group of respondents reported an annual income of less than 6,000 USD (16.0%), followed by those stated an annual income of more than 72,000 USD (10.9%). The majority of the sample (53.0%) came from a European country (e.g., Denmark, England, France, Germany, The Netherlands), followed by those from Australia and New Zealand (18.8%), and America (15.8%). Tourists from Asia only accounted for less than 10% of the sample, including China, Indonesia, Japan, Singapore, and Taiwan, among others.

Data analysis

Exploratory analysis of the data and the multi-item scales

First, the normality of the data was examined in SPSS. It was found that some of the skewness and kurtosis values of the measures exceeded 1.0 (Table 2). Therefore, the data are considered as moderately non-normal (The University of Texas at Austin, n.d.).

Second, the two destination image subscales (cognitive and affective) and the motivation scale were factor analyzed using principle of components analysis (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005). The items which cross-loaded on two or more factors but the gaps between/among the loadings were smaller than 0.20 were removed (Ferguson & Cox, 1993). The corrected item-total correlations between/among the items of a factor (>0.30) were checked to determine whether an item was kept or removed (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, & Barret, 2004). As a result, the solution of four factors of cognitive image was reached

Table 1. Respondents' profile (n= 350)

	n	%		N	%
Age			Education		
< 20	31	8.9	High school or lower	75	21.4
20-29	210	60.0	Undergraduate	137	39.1
30-39	45	12.9	Postgraduate	126	36.0
40-49	25	7.1	Occupation		
50-59	21	6.0	Business-related	10	2.9
60-69	16	4.6	Consultant	5	1.4
> 70	2	.6	Doctor	5	1.4
Sex			Engineer	15	4.3
Male	165	47.1	Manager	25	7.1
Female	176	50.3	Marketer	5	1.4
Annual income			Officer	5	1.4
< 6000 $US	56	16.0	Sales	6	1.6
6000-11,999 USD	31	8.9	Student	80	22.9
12,000-17,999 USD	29	8.3	Teacher	32	9.1
18,000-23,999 USD	24	6.9	Technician	5	1.4
24,000-29,999 USD	23	6.6	Worker	5	1.4
30,000-35,999 USD	27	7.7	Country of origin		
36,000-41,999 USD	19	5.4	Africa	9	2.6
42,000-47,999 USD	20	5.7	Asia	33	9.5
48,000-53,999 USD	17	4.9	Europe	185	53.0
54,000-59,999 USD	14	4.0	North America	48	13.7
60,000-65,999 USD	15	4.3	Oceania	66	18.8
66,000 -71,999 USD	11	3.1	South America	7	2.1
> 72,000 USD	38	10.9			

(determinant= 0.104, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin or KMO= 0.738, significance= 0.000). With the affective image subscale, one factor was generated from the four bipolar attributes (determinant= 0.405, KMO= 0.697, significance= 0.000). In addition, three factors were formed from twelve motivation items (determinant= 0.144, KMO= 0.711, significance= 0.000).

In summary, the exploratory analysis revealed two observations: (1) the data were not normally distributed, and (2) the multi-item scales were not uni-dimensional. Therefore, the application of the covariance-based structural equation modeling technique may face some difficulties with the above mentioned issues (Byrne, 2001; Kline, 1998). An alternative solution, variance-based structural equation modeling (partial least square) is suggested under the constraints of these conditions (Chin & Newsted, 1999; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012).

Theoretically, the model of this study (Figure 1) assumes the relationships among four constructs. The model employs two exogenous latent constructs (destination image, tourist motivation) and one endogenous latent construct (destination loyalty). Thus, this is a focused model (the number of exogenous latent variables at least twice as high as the number of endogenous latent variables) (Hair et al., 2012). Among the two exogenous latent constructs, destination image is structured by five factors (four cognitive, one affective) and tourist motivation is joined by three factors. Among the two endogenous constructs, trip satisfaction is predicted by two predictors and destination loyalty is influenced by three antecedents. Therefore, five is the maximum number of paths in the model. Applying the rule of thumb for minimum sample size (ten times the maximum number of paths), a sample of at least 50 respondents is appropriate (Chin & Newsted, 1999). Based on another criterion, Cohen (1988) suggested a minimum sample size of 80 to obtain a medium effect size of 0.30 and a statistical power of 0.80. The actual sample of this study has 350 responses, which is much larger than the minimum requirement of 50 or 80. Consequently, the variance-based structural equation modeling method can be adopted.

Procedure of confirmatory analysis of the multi-item scales and the theoretical model

This study used SmartPLS as the tool of partial least square structural equation modelling analysis (Hansmann & Ringle, 2004). The analysis involved the confirmation of the structure of latent constructs (outer model), and the verification of the path between constructs (inner model). Specifically, the factors of destination image/ tourist motivation and the construct of destination loyalty

Table 2. Mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of the measures

Item	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Cognitive destination image				
(CI1) Climate	3.54	.865	-.896	.650
(CI2) Beaches	3.88	.744	-.434	.593
(CI3) Natural landscapes/scenery	4.59	.542	-.871	-.334
(CI4) World heritage sites	4.32	.674	-.718	.346
(CI5) Cultural activities	3.87	.790	-.253	-.256
(CI6) History	4.20	.748	-.793	.785
(CI7) Architecture	3.77	.852	-.502	.296
(CI8) Accommodations	3.88	.736	-.285	.103
(CI9) Restaurants	4.05	.781	-.561	.178
(CI10) Transportation	3.30	1.009	-.168	-.553
(CI11) Crafts/souvenirs/gifts	3.40	.829	-.042	-.153
(CI12) Nightlife/entertainment	3.42	.848	-.263	.218
(CI13) Prices	4.25	.814	-1.030	.859
(CI14) Shopping	3.62	.847	-.352	.097
(CI15) Foods	4.32	.818	-1.275	1.808
(CI16) Political stability	3.55	.799	-.015	-.110
(CI17) Safety, security	3.70	.947	-.515	-.175
(CI18) Cleanliness	3.15	.980	-.050	-.689
(CI19) People's friendliness	4.16	.870	-.940	.676
(CI20) Ways of life	3.86	.810	-.548	.351
(CI21) Service quality	4.00	.798	-.545	.129
(CI22) Proximity to other destinations in Southeast Asia	4.08	.796	-.517	.051
Affective destination image				
(AI1) Unpleasant/Pleasant	4.21	.770	-1.089	2.028
(AI2) Sleepy/Arousing	3.96	.784	-.581	.545
(AI3) Distressing/Relaxing	3.56	.958	-.233	-.394
(AI4) Gloomy/Exciting	4.19	.795	-1.050	1.795
Tourist motivation				
(M1) To get away from my normal environment	5.84	1.288	-1.463	2.104
(M2) To have a change in pace from my everyday life	5.83	1.257	-1.552	2.762
(M3) To change my mental state (rephrased)	4.80	1.622	-.626	-.253
(M4) To escape from annoying situations (rephrased)	3.71	1.691	.039	-.878
(M5) To get away from a stressful environment	4.16	1.788	-.171	-.944
(M6) To experience different patterns of interaction (rephrased)	5.92	1.000	-1.021	1.282
(M7) To tell others about my experiences	5.16	1.355	-.775	.560
(M8) To feel good about myself	4.93	1.481	-.675	.102
(M9) To experience new things by myself	6.53	.835	-2.548	9.260
(M10) To be with people of similar interests	4.79	1.594	-.435	-.436
(M11) To bring friends/family closer	4.05	1.809	-.102	-.958
(M12) To meet new people	5.59	1.359	-1.008	.715
Trip satisfaction				
(TS) Overall trip satisfaction	6.19	.755	-1.367	4.376
Destination loyalty				
(RV) Intention to revisit	5.84	1.240	-1.333	1.591
(RC) Intention to recommend	6.39	.852	-1.964	5.767

can be considered as reflective outer models (a model which consists of one latent construct and several indicators), while destination image and tourist motivation can be treated as formative outer models (a model which includes one endogenous latent construct and several exogenous latent factors) (Wong, 2013).

The evaluation of an outer model considered the loadings of the items, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (Assaker, 2014; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2012; Kline, 1998). A total of 5,000 bootstrap samples were estimated to generate the additional data (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011;

Table 3. Confirmatory analysis of outer models

Factor	Item [a]	Loading	*t* [b]	*p* [b]	AVE	CR
Destination image						
Cognitive image 1 (COG1)	COG1	.329	11.246	.000	.502	.800
	CI4	.619	10.913	.000		
	CI5	.717	18.651	.000		
	CI6	.734	20.175	.000		
	CI7	.757	22.254	.000		
Cognitive image 2 (COG2)	COG2	.238	6.761	.000	.643	.843
	CI16	.774	19.576	.000		
	CI17	.842	28.916	.000		
	CI18	.787	24.628	.000		
Cognitive image 3 (COG3)	COG3	.258	11.499	.000	.790	.882
	CI9	.888	55.255	.000		
	CI15	.889	54.525	.000		
Cognitive image 4 (COG4)	COG4	.185	8.574	.000	.683	.812
	CI13	.790	17.351	.000		
	CI14	.862	27.757	.000		
Affective image (AFF)	AFF	.473	15.964	.000	.562	.837
	AI1	.764	26.339	.000		
	AI2	.750	22.186	.000		
	AI3	.699	16.687	.000		
	AI4	.783	26.807	.000		
Tourist motivation						
Motivation 1 (MOV1)	MOV1	.565	10.748	.000	.713	.882
	M3	.787	31.889	.000		
	M4	.892	69.921	.000		
	M5	.852	38.697	.000		
Motivation 2 (MOV2)	MOV2	.511	13.224	.000	.577	.803
	M10	.826	39.952	.000		
	M11	.685	15.084	.000		
	M12	.761	22.196	.000		
Motivation 3 (MOV3)	MOV3	.310	6.003	.000	.687	.813
	M6	.907	32.149	.000		
	M9	.743	8.128	.000		
Loyalty					.800	.889
	RV	.877	41.133	.000		
	RC	.911	75.374	.000		

[a] Descriptions of the items can be found in Table 2.
[b] Results of 5,000 bootstrap samples.

Hair et al., 2012). Moreover, the evaluation of the inner model looked at the coefficients of determinant or R2 (Hair et al., 2012). A significant correlation should have a t value of 1.96 or larger and a p value below 0.05 (Hair et al., 2011).

Although partial least square structural equation modeling is robust, it does not produce the fit indices to evaluate the overall model. Therefore, an additional analysis was conducted in Amos to check the validation of the model. The fit indices considered in this study included $\chi 2/df < 3$, SRMR <0.10, RMSEA <0.08, GFI >0.90, and AGFI >0.85, with $\chi 2$= Chi square, df= degree of freedom, SRMR= Standardized Root Mean squared Residual, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, GFI= Goodness-of-Fit Index, and AGFI= Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit-Index (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller 2003).

Findings

The results of confirmatory analysis of the structure of the multi-item scales are presented in Table 3. Destination loyalty consists of two items with high loadings (0.877-0.911). The AVE (average variance extracted) and CR (composite reliability) of this construct were 0.800 and 0.889 respectively. Consequently, this construct has its convergent validity and reliability (Fornell & Larcker,

Table 4. Cross-loadings of the reflective indicators on their corresponding factors and constructs

Item [a]	COG1	COG2	COG3	COG4	AFF	MOV1	MOV2	MOV3
CI4	.619	.097	.189	.162	.129	-	-	-
CI5	.717	.133	.258	.229	.219	-	-	-
CI6	.734	.112	.195	.246	.229	-	-	-
CI7	.757	.230	.292	.174	.186	-	-	-
CI16	.176	.774	.159	.076	.192	-	-	-
CI17	.159	.842	.163	.165	.305	-	-	-
CI18	.163	.787	.286	.155	.314	-	-	-
CI9	.307	.274	.888	.246	.304	-	-	-
CI15	.284	.184	.889	.298	.350	-	-	-
CI13	.129	.104	.254	.790	.280	-	-	-
CI14	.328	.171	.254	.862	.274	-	-	-
AI1	.214	.303	.289	.270	.764	-	-	-
AI2	.240	.256	.269	.249	.750	-	-	-
AI3	.104	.302	.204	.206	.699	-	-	-
AI4	.247	.180	.332	.269	.783	-	-	-
M3	-	-	-	-	-	.787	.252	.238
M4	-	-	-	-	-	.892	.276	.137
M5	-	-	-	-	-	.852	.261	.091
M10	-	-	-	-	-	.268	.826	.197
M11	-	-	-	-	-	.270	.685	.076
M12	-	-	-	-	-	.176	.761	.288
M6	-	-	-	-	-	.250	.225	.907
M9	-	-	-	-	-	.004	.190	.743

[a] Descriptions of the items can be found in Table 2.
COG1= Cognitive image 1; COG2= Cognitive image 2; COG3= Cognitive image 3; COG4= Cognitive image 4; AFF= Affective image; MOV1= Motivation 1; MOV2= Motivation 2; MOV3= Motivation 3

1981; Hair et al., 2012; Kline, 1998). Discriminant validity was not examined in this case since destination loyalty is a reflective construct with only two indicators.

The three-factor structure of tourist motivation was also confirmed. All the items significantly loaded on their factors (lowest loading= 0.685, highest loading= 0.907). The items of a factor better loaded on their factor than on the other factors of the same construct (Table 4). All the three factors' AVEs exceeded the 0.50 threshold. Consequently, the reflective structure of tourist motivation met both the convergent and the discriminant validity criteria (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2012; Kline, 1998). This construct also met the reliability requirement since all the factors' CRs were larger than 0.80 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

The formative structure of tourist motivation was further examined by looking at the loadings of the three factors on their construct and the correlations among them. The data in Table 3 showed that all the factors significantly loaded on the latent endogenous construct of tourist motivation ($t > 6.0$, $p < 0.001$). These factors significantly correlated to one another; however, the squared values of their correlations did not exceed their AVEs (Table 5). Consequently, the formative structure has its convergent and discriminant validities (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The issue of multicollinearity was not observed since all the VIFs (variance inflation factor) of the three factors (Table 5) did not exceed 5.0 (Hair et al., 2011).

A positive result of the confirmatory analysis was also seen in the case of destination image. All the five factors significantly loaded on the formative structure (Table 3). In addition, they significantly correlated to one another to satisfy the convergent validity criterion (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). The squared value of each pair of factors' correlation did not exceed their corresponding AVEs (Table 4); thus, the formative structure had its discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). These two criteria were also met by the reflective structure of this construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2012; Kline, 1998). Accordingly, all the items loaded better on their corresponding factor and their AVEs ranged from 0.502 to 0.790 (Table 3). Moreover, all the factors' CRs were larger than 0.80 (Table 3), and all of their VIFs were smaller than 0.50 (Table 5). Thus, the reflective structure of destination image also had a good reliability and the multicollinearity issue could be avoided (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2011).

Table 5. Correlations among exogenous latent factors

	COG1	COG2	COG3	COG4	AFF	MOV1	MOV2	MOV3	AVE	VIF
COG1	1	.207	.333	.277	.260	-	-	-	.502	1.202
COG2		1	.256	.166	.348	-	-	-	.643	1.170
COG3			1	.308	.361	-	-	-	.790	1.292
COG4				1	.329	-	-	-	.683	1.213
AFF					1	-	-	-	.562	1.338
MOV1						1	.320	.162	.713	1.123
MOV2							1	.233	.577	1.157
MOV3								1	.687	1.081

All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
COG1= Cognitive image 1; COG2= Cognitive image 2; COG3= Cognitive image 3; COG4= Cognitive image 4; AFF= Affective image; MOV1= Motivation 1; MOV2= Motivation 2; MOV3= Motivation 3

Table 6. Results of testing hypotheses

Path	f^2	Path coefficient (original sample)	Path coefficient (sample mean)	t	p
Destination image → Trip satisfaction	.501	.587	.585	11.234	.000
Tourist motivation → Trip satisfaction	.009	.077	.080	1.703	.089
Destination image → Destination loyalty	.145	.318	.320	6.402	.000
Tourist motivation → Destination loyalty	.026	.109	.111	2.906	.004
Trip satisfaction → Destination loyalty	.340	.480	.476	9.901	.000

The confirmatory analysis also found that 37.8% of the total variance of overall trip satisfaction could be explained by destination image and tourist satisfaction. The contribution mostly came from destination image (f^2= 0.501). In addition, all the three constructs were able to explain 57.8% of the total variance of destination loyalty with the largest influence contributed by overall trip satisfaction (f^2= 0.340). Regarding the hypothesized paths, tourist motivation did not affect overall trip satisfaction (path coefficient= 0.077, t= 1.703, p= 0.089). Its effect on destination loyalty was significant (p= 0.004) but small (path coefficient= 0.109, t= 2.906, p= 0.004). The remaining paths were also significant with larger effect sizes (Table 6). Consequently, all the hypotheses were confirmed except H2.

With regards to the fit of the model, the additional analysis in Amos showed the following satisfied indices: χ^2/df= 2.714 (< 3.0), SRMR= 0.074 (<0.10), RMSEA= 0.074 (<0.08), GFI= 0.901 (>0.90), and AGFI= 0.865 (>0.85). It should be noted that this is the outcomes of two adjustments. First, destination image and tourist motivation were correlated as suggested by the findings of de Guzman et al. (2012), Jeong (2014), Kim and Lee (2002), and Turnbull and Uysal (1995). Second, several exogenous variables of the motivation items were correlated as recommended by the analysis program.

To ascertain the importance of tourist motivation, destination image was removed from the test model. The analysis was rerun, and its outcomes are displayed in Table 7. Without destination image, tourist motivation could significantly predict both overall trip satisfaction (path coefficient= 0.071, t= 4.674, p= 0.000), and destination loyalty (path coefficient= 0.050, t= 4.338, p= 0.000). Tourist motivation could only explain 6.6% of the total variance of overall trip satisfaction, which is a small effect (Cohen, 1988). Consequently, in the simplified model, H2 was accepted. In addition, tourist motivation and overall trip satisfaction could explain 51.7% of the variance of destination loyalty. However, the contribution of overall trip satisfaction dominated that of tourist motivation (f^2= 0.843 and 0.050 respectively).

Discussion

Tourist loyalty is the ultimate goal of most tourism destinations. The outcome of this empirical study revealed that the push effect of the destination (destination image) had a stronger effect on tourist loyalty compared to the pull effect of the individual factors (tourist motivation). This outcome was supported by the findings of many studies in other settings (Eusébio & Vieira, 2013; Hernandez-Lobato et al., 2006; Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou, & Kaplanidou, 2015; Song et al., 2013). Thus, the significance of destination image is reliable. However, this outcome contradicts the findings of several studies in other small emerging destinations. In the Mongolian context, destination image didn't have any significant effects on both tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty, while tourist satisfaction could significantly predict destination loyalty (Chen & Myagmarsuren, 2010). In another study

Table 7. Results of retesting hypotheses

Path	f^2	Path coefficient (original sample)	Path coefficient (sample mean)	t	p
Tourist motivation → Trip satisfaction	.071	.258	.262	4.674	.000
Tourist motivation → Destination loyalty	.050	.161	.164	4.338	.000
Trip satisfaction → Destination loyalty	.843	.660	.657	15.933	.000

in Angkor Wat (Cambodia), the direct effect that destination image had on destination satisfaction was also insignificant (Veasna et al., 2013). However, it should be noted that in the former study (Chen & Myagmarsuren, 2010), destination image was joined by other constructs, for example, destination awareness and perceived quality. In the latter study (Veasna et al., 2013), destination image was under the influence of destination source credibility, and its effect on destination satisfaction was mediated by destination attachment. Consequently, it is probable that the individual effect of destination image was controlled by other variables, which is similar to the case of tourist motivation examined in this study.

Practical implications

Considering the importance of destination image, some managerial implications should be considered in the case of Vietnam. Specifically, the managers of Vietnam tourism need to pay attention to the attributes which received more negative and neutral evaluations (> 20% of evaluations). The negative perceptions not only lead to a low intention to revisit, but also a higher possibility of spreading bad word-of-mouth that may affect other tourists and the reputation of the country as a tourism destination. In addition, the neutral evaluations may be improved towards the more positive end, or become deteriorated to the more negative one through the input and/or correction of information. Among such attributes, dirt/litter poses a big problem for many small emerging destinations (Dwivedi, 2009; Stojanovic, 2012; Yu & Goulden, 2006), including Vietnam. It negatively affects the local residents' quality of life and tourists' perception. Therefore, more actions, especially through education, should be implemented to improve the bad environmental conditions. In addition, the planning and management of modern architecture should be consistent over a long-term period (Hughes, 2011). This can help create a more attractive appearance for both tourist and non-tourist sites and maintain the identity of Vietnam's architecture. Moreover, the communication of cultural activities, traditional architecture, and stability and safety should not ignore the actual tourists because many of them may not be fully aware of these attributes. Furthermore, the favorable image of a place that can provide good prices (85.1% of positive evaluations) should be cultivated to make Vietnam a more attractive destination for shopping activities (Boulter, 2013). Overall, the improvement of the cognitive attributes can increase the positive feelings towards the country as a tourism destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Consequently, this improvement can make tourists feel more aroused and relaxed when visiting Vietnam.

In addition to the above mentioned attributes, other characteristics should also be improved and/or better communicated because they received more than 20% of neutral evaluations although they were not included in the test model. For example, the climate conditions of Vietnam, especially in the North, is not favorable even for local residents (e.g., hot and humid in summer, cold and wet in winter). The managers/marketers of Vietnam tourism, when communicating this attribute of the country, should provide detailed information, including the favorable seasons and/or months in an average year. This helps eliminate tourists' over-expectation, hence, over-disappointment. Vietnam as a member country of the Southeast Asia region and a potential gate to the other member countries is another information that should also be emphasized. Other Vietnam attractions, including beautiful beaches and interesting lifestyle (Thanh Nien News, 2013; Retire in Asia, 2013), should be better communicated. Several common issues among developing countries and/or tourism destinations (e.g., transportation condition, distinguishable souvenirs, attractive nightlife, and entertainment activities) must also be addressed.

To a larger extent, this paper advocates the development of tourism in small emerging destinations (see also Cañizares, Tabales, & García, 2014; Wiig, 2003), especially the projection and management of tourism resources. Accordingly, the development of tourism in such destinations helps improve the conditions of their tourism resources (e.g., facilities, infrastructures), and consequently improve their images. The more positive the attributes are perceived, the higher and stronger tourist satisfaction and future intentions are.

However, the management of tourism resources should be implemented with a great care since tourism has also revealed the ugly images of the destination (Rosen, 2014; Thanh Nien News, 2014; VietNamNet Bridge, 2014). In the case of Vietnam, tourism managers must carefully consider several dual options simultaneously, including development and preservation, short-term gains and long-term benefits, and administrative viewpoints and

public opinions. The effect of a local operation is not only observed within a local scale anymore; that operation can be brought to the international public in an instant with the development of Internet and can hurt the image of an individual tourist site in particular and of the country in general. These lessons of Vietnam tourism, thus, are helpful for other small emerging destinations when they are looking for a proper tourism development model, particularly the projection and management of country images.

Conclusions

Using the context of Vietnam as a small emerging tourism destination and targeting the English-speaking tourists to the country, this study found that country image significantly and positively predicted tourists' overall satisfaction with the trip and their loyalty to the country in the future. Based on these findings, the managerial implications and communication of some important attributes of Vietnam were generated. However, the management and communication of Vietnam's image as a tourism destination is not the sole job of the tourism industry. Instead, it is an incorporated effort of construction management, education, communication, and tourism sectors, among others. The Ministry of Tourism should perform its own functions and its coordinating role properly in order to fully exploit the country's tourism potential. In addition, the findings of this study also generate some implications for other small emerging tourism destinations.

Although this study was able confirm the theoretical model, it could not avoid some limits. First, the sample only represented the English-speaking tourist population. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to other language-speaking groups (e.g., Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Russia). As a suggestion, future studies should target the non-English-speaking tourists to generate more suitable implications for the management and communication of Vietnam's image in these particular markets. Second, this study only addressed a limited number of issues related to a small emerging tourism destination. Consequently, this study urges future efforts to investigate tourism development issues in emerging and underdeveloped destinations in a more thorough manner. Third, there is a considerable lag since the data were collected in 2014. However, this does not reduce the theoretical significance of the study because its findings are strongly supported by prior research. With regards to the practical recommendations, the management of such attributes as architecture, climate, cleanliness, natural/cultural assets, and lifestyle is always the distinct and perpetual issue of developing countries in general and of Vietnam in particular. The improvement and exploitation of those attributes require long-term and thoughtful efforts. The findings of this study, thus, add more pressures on the careful planning and implementation of tourism plans in the context of small emerging tourism destinations.

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