

The Influences of the Secondary Destination Image on Evaluative and Loyalty Factors

Ghimire Anil*

Abstract Previous research regarding the influence of destination image on tourist behaviour, their relationships with an evaluation factor (i.e. perceived value, satisfaction), and loyalty have not been thoroughly investigated with a cognitive-affective approach. Consequently, the aim of the study was to examine the influences of secondary destination images on tourist behaviour from a cognitive-affective perspective. The results show that the evaluative factor is more affected by the affective state of the secondary destination image than the cognitive aspects.

Keywords: Secondary Destination Image, Perceived Value, Satisfaction, Loyalty, Mt. Everest

INTRODUCTION

Tourists pay a lot of attention to the most beautiful tourist attractions, including the Mount Everest landscape, which raises interest in the destination. It not only increases tourist attention in a particular landscape but has also been cited as a key factor in the growth of tourism nationwide since it may improve global awareness (Lee et al., 2005). For instance, only one travel attraction, such as the image of Mount Everest, has become a crucial issue in the marketing study for Nepal's tourism sector.

Most destination management organizations have provided a large volume of information about tourism sources for potential tourists since they believe in a positive impact on their actual behaviour. Tourist behaviour can be divided into three stages from the perspective of the tourist experience: before, during, and post (Prayag, 2008). Tourist experience is an aggregate term, which included decision-making behaviour, onsite behaviour then behavioural intention. The tourist experience is influenced by a variety of elements, including the destination's image (Bigne et al., 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Hu et al., 2009). Furthermore, the destination's reputation also plays a big role in its success (Hunt, 1975). The competition is fierce because the number of destinations is expanding, thus new destinations are putting a

priority on image creation. For this background as well, it is necessary to examine the influence of destination image on tourists' behaviour.

The destination image plays two crucial roles in the tourist behaviour, that is destination-choice behaviour and after-choice behaviour (Bigne et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2005; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Prayag, 2008; Coban, 2012). However, there are many studies on the influence of destination images on destination choice behaviour, but there are few empirical studies on the influence of destination images on after-choice behaviour. It has been generally accepted in previous studies (Bigne et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2005; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Moon et al., 2013; Munhurrin et al., 2015).

The influence of destination image on after-choice behaviour can be divided into many stages, such as onsite experience, evaluation, and loyalty (Bigne et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2005; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Prayag, 2008; Chi & Qu, 2008; Coban, 2012; Moon et al., 2013; Banki et al., 2014; Munhurrin et al., 2015). Furthermore, several authors pointed out that destination images consist of cognitive (attributes) and affective (emotions) components (Echtner & Ritchies, 1993; Banki et al., 2014). Nevertheless, previous research has mainly explored the cognitive dimension while examining the influence of destination image on after-choice behaviour. As well, the influence of each image's cognitive

* Doctor in Marketing and Distribution Science, Postdoctoral fellow: University of Marketing and Distribution Science, (3-1 Gakuen-Nishimachi, Nishi-ku, Kobe 651-2188 Japan). Email: anil.ghimire000@gmail.com; ghimire_85190012@red.umds.ac.jp

and affective state on after-choice behaviour has not been studied in previous research.

Some previous studies (Lee et al., 2005; Banki et al., 2014; Chiu et al., 2016) examined the influence of both cognitive and affective states on after-choice behaviour without considering a variety of images. The destination image can be divided into primary and secondary images (Lopes, 2011). There has been a great body of studies focusing on the only primary destination image which is formed after the tourist travels. However, previous research has not examined the influence of secondary destination image which is formed before the tourist travels. For instance, if a person who enjoys mountains thinks that Everest and its surroundings should be a destination, potential tourists will be enthralled by the mountain's beauty even before they visit the destination. The influence of the exhilaration while traveling can also be appreciated. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the influence of the cognitive and affective state of secondary images on the after-choice behaviour of tourists.

For destination management organizations, it is difficult to accurately predict tourist behaviour because of the inadequate knowledge of how secondary destination image influences after-choice behaviour. Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to examine the influences of secondary destination image on after-choice behaviour through a cognitive-affective aspect. In particular, the role of the destination image on tourist behaviour was explored. This study's results could be beneficial for a new destination management organization.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Theoretical Background

In the tourism literature, travel destinations are constituted of attraction, food, accommodation, transportation, and other components that fulfil the goal of tourist travel (Okada, 2014; Cooper, 2019). Overall attributes of the region decisively influence people's emotions before creating a destination image (Crompton, 1979; Echtner & Ritchies, 1993). As a natural outcome, cognitive and affective components compose the destination image. In other words, the cognitive components are knowledge that potential tourists can learn about characteristics such as attraction, climate, cost, etc. (Echtner & Ritchies, 1993). The affective components are the attitudes or feelings of potential tourists, which are the overall impressions of their qualities (Byon & Zhang, 2010). Thus, the impressions derived from cognitively put people in a positive affective state. Destination images are an innate motivational part of the choice behaviour. It can be defined as a composite of beliefs ideals and impressions that a person

has about the attributes of a destination (Crompton, 1979), a person's subjective perception of destination reality (Chen & Tsai, 2007), concepts and opinions personally collected about the destination (Timur, 2018). Potential tourists have expectations based on that image. Through the destination image, potential tourists create concrete decisions and plan about what they will do at the destination and how they will enjoy their travel. Thus, it is widely accepted that the image of a destination influences tourist behaviour. This is why most destination advertising strategies seek to portray a favourable image.

Two important roles of destination image in influencing travel behaviour. The first is to influence the destination choice decision-making behaviours, then the second is to influence the after-choice behaviours including on-site behaviour, evaluation behaviour, and future intentions. It is acknowledged in the literature that the image of a destination influences tourist behaviour (Bigne et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2005; Chen & Tsai 2007; Prayag, 2008; Coban, 2012). Potential tourists have a wide range of options for vacation destinations, and the image of a destination is a key factor in making that decision. In other words, a destination's image greatly influences tourists, who in turn would drive there (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Karl et al., 2015). A tourist's concrete travel expectations are driven by their initial impressions of the destination. By comparing their experiences to their expectations, tourists evaluate their travels (Oliver, 1997). Hence, the influence of destination image on after-choice behaviour is also crucial.

According to Bigne et al. (2001), the overall image of a destination influences the quality of the experience and satisfaction, which in turn has an influence on loyalty. It has also been noted that the chance of receiving high-quality services, being satisfied, and being loyal to a destination increases with the image of the destination. Nevertheless, Bigne et al. measured destination images using just one item. Then, Lee et al. (2005) research provided an attempt at addressing the limitations of previous studies. Four cognitive dimensions attraction, comfort, value for money, and exotic atmosphere are used in Lee et al. model to measure destination images. The image's influence on the cognitive and affective aspects of the destination experience was then shown. Nevertheless, Lee et al. examined the affective dimension exclusively on aspects of destination experience without considering the affective aspects of the destination image. On the other sides, according to previous research, the destination image is produced by cognitive and affective components. Several previous researchers have examined destination images as well, although without taking the affective aspects into account (Crompton, 1979; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Prayag, 2008; Munhurrin et al., 2015; Akroush et al., 2016). The exceptions are Banki et al. (2014) and Chiu et al. (2016).

It is necessary to consider both cognitive and affective aspects while measuring destination images (Echtner & Ritchies, 1993; Byon & Zhang, 2010; Banki et al., 2014). On the other hand, Beerli and Martin (2004) suggested that using only the cognitive aspect to measure destination images without considering all the destination's attributes leads to inaccurate results. Nonetheless, it may not be possible to measure every part of the cognitive aspects. As a result, both cognitive and affective aspects are needed to measure destination images.

Because of this, Banki et al. (2014) and Chiu et al. (2016) measured destination images by considering affective aspects. Their research, meanwhile, is not without shortcomings. Because researchers have testified to the destination image with a concentration on the tourist travel experiences without considering before the visiting destination. It should be highlighted that tourists must have destination knowledge or information to project a positive image of the destination. Destination images in this sense may be classified into two categories: primary destination images and secondary destination images (Lopes, 2011). The secondary destination image is made up of the conceptual impression gathered from secondary sources prior to the actual visitation at the destination. The primary destination image is generated after the tourist travels to the destination.

In the previous, only the primary destination images have been included when examining the influences of the destination image on after-choice behaviour. It makes sense that a better primary destination image will result in a better experience assessment since the primary destination image is made up of the destination experience evaluation. It is still debatable, nevertheless, whether the tourist's assessment of the experience is influenced by the secondary destination image of a scenario in which the destination is not visited. On the other hand, when examining the influences of destination image on after-choice behaviour, prior research has not made it clear whether it is the primary destination image or the secondary destination image. As a better secondary image of a destination correlates with a better sensation during real visiting, which results in satisfaction, it is believed that the destination experience is influenced by the secondary image of the destination even when a visit is not actually made. For instance, if we make a visit to a place with distinctive features like the Everest region, which is the highest point on Earth, and consume coffee. At that moment, even if we only drank regular coffee, the prior impression of the Everest region would have added to the experience's worth.

Knowing the effects of destination impression on tourist behaviour while visiting will help destination tourism management better understand why creating a positive image and improving their marketing efforts to produce it is essential. Hence, the aim of the study is to determine how

tourists' impression of Everest as the highest mountain in the world affects their experiences while visiting an Everest region. The effects of secondary destination image cognitive and affective aspects on tourist after-choice behaviour are therefore made clear by this study.

Hypothesis Development

Crompton (1979) argued that feelings about the destination are produced by the influence of destination attributes. Potential tourists collect knowledge to concrete plan what will happen at the destination, which produces impressions or feelings and then determine the image of the destination. When a person decides on a destination to visit, there is pleasantly surprised by the impression of the destination's attributes before visiting. For instance, if we choose to go trekking in the area around Mount Everest, we will be excited even before we go there because it is the highest mountain on earth. Moreover, Lee et al. (2005) argued that favourable cognitive dimension of destination images positively influences the affective dimension. Thus, the first hypothesis was established.

H1: The more favourable the cognitive dimension of secondary destination images, the higher the probability that they positively influence the affective dimension.

Potential tourists' expectations are influenced by the destination's image, affecting how specifically they plan their vacation. As a result, the variety of experiences will increase, and the use of various tourism services will be influenced by how tourists perceive the features of the destination. Similar studies on how destination image influences the travel experience at a destination have shown that favourable images are associated with better-perceived value and satisfaction (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Munhurrin et al., 2015). Therefore, the second and third hypotheses would be:

H2: The more favourable the cognitive dimension of secondary destination images, the higher the probability that they positively influence the destination's perceived value.

H3: The more favourable the cognitive dimension of secondary destination images, the higher the probability that they positively influence destination satisfaction.

As aforementioned, Tourists are likely to have a favourable impression of the destination services as a result of the positive impression or mood that appealing destination attributes elicit in them. Moreover, the research by Westbrook and Oliver (1991), Yu and Dean (2001), and White (2010) also ascertained that affective components are significant in satisfaction, and positive affective components have a massive influence on destination satisfaction. Byon and Zhang (2010) identify "enjoyment" as one of the positive affective components of destination images.

In other words, a positive experience with sightseeing will result in a favourable assessment of the quality of the destination service. According to Gardner (1985) and White (2010), customer mood is intimately correlated with customer behaviour, and it influences how customers perceive services and subsequent evaluations after receiving services. For instance, when a person receives a service with a positive attitude, the service's assessment is seen to be positive; on the other hand, when the person feels negative about the service, the service's evaluation is deemed to be poor. Considering the same approach in the tourism industry the following hypotheses can be established.

H4: The more favourable the affective dimension of secondary destination images, the higher the probability that they positively influence the destination's perceived value.

H5: The more favourable the affective dimension of secondary destination images, the higher the probability that they positively influence destination satisfaction.

Researchers have suggested that tourists evaluate their destination travel experience based on the destination's entire perceived worth rather than just one (Chen & Tsai, 2007). The higher the overall perceived value, the higher the overall satisfaction and the higher overall perceived value also has a positive influence on loyalty. As the study notes, perceived value has a direct impact on satisfaction and

loyalty (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Dmitrovic et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2009; Moon et al., 2013; Munuhurrin et al., 2015). The following hypotheses can be demonstrated on the ground of the theoretical foundation mentioned above.

H6: The more favourable the perceived value of the destination, the higher the probability that they positively influence destination satisfaction.

H7: The more favourable the perceived value of the destination, the higher the probability that they positively influence destination loyalty.

Also, it is widely accepted that satisfaction has been recognized as the antecedent of behavioural intention (Zeithaml et al., 1996; Oliver, 1997). A similar strategy is used in the tourism industry, where the relationship between destination image, experience evaluation, and loyalty is that a higher satisfaction in the destination has a positive influence on loyalty (Bigne et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2005; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Munhurrin et al., 2015). Thus, the current study established the following hypothesis:

H8: The more favourable the satisfaction of the destination, the higher the probability that they positively influence destination loyalty.

Based on the theoretical background, Fig. 1 shows the study's conceptual research model.

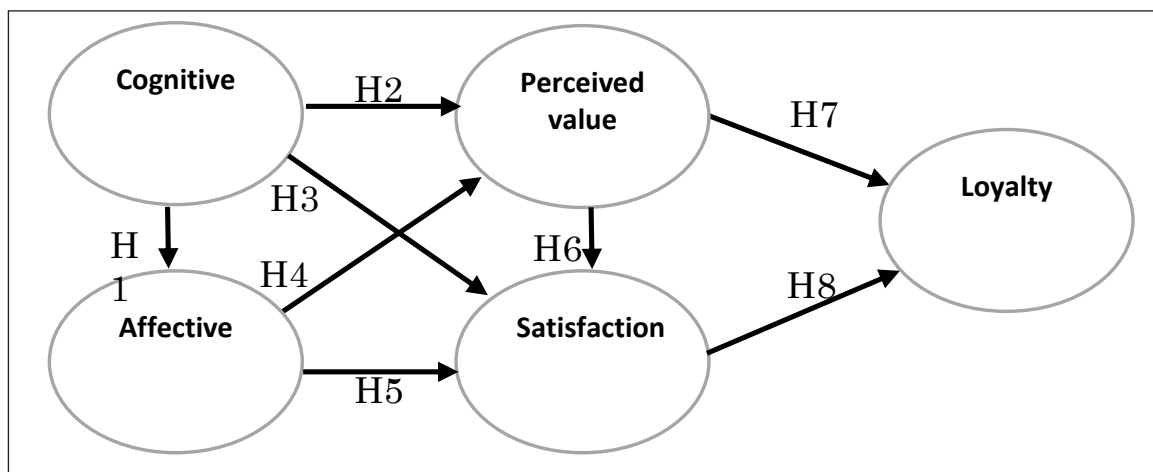


Fig. 1: A Proposed Research Model

Satisfaction and perceived value, as measured by this research, refer to the overall appraisal of the particular destination instead of the overall travel experience. When a place hasn't even been visited once, the secondary destination image is composed of conceptual impressions gathered from secondary sources. It is assumed to have a direct influence on how tourists behave there.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Developing a Scale

The questionnaire's questionis based on a literature review and specific features of the destinations. Beerli and Martin (2004) argued that for a reliable measurement, destination

images must take into account all relevant attributes. To evaluate cognitive variables from the constitution of the destination, cognitive variables are therefore thought to be the most accurate method. A destination is made up of a combination of core, supporting, and supplemental products (Kolb, 2006). Two scales, such as “mountain scenery” and “atmosphere of mountain region” are included as the core product. As a supportive product, there are three scales included such as “accommodation”, “Food” and “Hospitality”. One scale, such as “Weather” is added as a supplementary product. Therefore, a cognitive image scale consisting of six items to assess perceptions of the Everest region.

Several researchers (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Lee et al., 2005; Byon & Zhang, 2010; Banki et al., 2014) have suggested that the affect state has three dimensions (excitement, specialness, and curiosity); However, this study adds one dimension (Lucky) to assess perceptions of destination characteristics. Because visiting places like the highest mountain area in the world makes potential tourists feel lucky. An affective variable scale with four items was included for each dimension, which each had on the scale. Chen and Tsai (2007) and Munhurrin et al. (2015) have suggested that the perceived value with three dimensions including time value, money value, and functional value; however, this study adds one dimension, which is novelty value perception of destination characteristics. Therefore, the measurement of perceived value with four items covers such dimension. Four dimensions of destination satisfaction have been suggested by scholars, including “overall service satisfaction” and “enjoyed” by Lee et al. (2005), Chen and Tsai (2007), Chi and Qu (2008), and Prayag (2008), “choice satisfaction” by Ono (2016), and “Fulfilling expectations”

by Banki et al. (2014). Each dimension included one scale; therefore, satisfaction variables scale consists of four items. The measurement of loyalty four-item (i.e., sharing a positive experience with family or friends, recommending to family or friends, willing to recommend to those who want visit advice, and revisit intention) following Bigne et al. (2001), Lee et al. (2005), Chen and Tsai (2007), Chi and Qu (2008), Prayag (2008), Munhurrin et al. (2015).

Consider the analytical model presented with a total of 22 question items. In addition, respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement on each item to the question. This measure used a 5-point scale, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Sample Design and Data Collection

In October 2021, an online survey was carried out to collect data from visitors who had earlier visited to the Everest area, which is surrounded by the highest mountain in the world. 379 responses were obtained, 127 responses were uncompleted, and the number of valid responses was 252(66.49%). Among valid responses, 44 people were a repeater. If repeat visits are taken into account, the visitor may respond to a question from before their last visit, which would yield a measurement of the primary destination image. As was already noted, a secondary destination image was assessed for this study. As a result, valid responses are seen to be the most accurate technique to assess secondary destination images and just need to take one-time visitors into account. Ultimately, an analysis of the 208 responses. The respondent profile is summarized in Table 1. Respondents were more males 129(62.02%) than females 78(37.5%) and 1 non-response gender (0.48%).

Table 1: Respondent Profile

Gender	Male	Female	Non-answer		
	129	78	1		
Marital Status	Married	Unmarried	Other		
	127	61	20		
Age	Under 20	20-29	30-39	40-49	Above 50
	8	42	75	49	34
Occupation	Student	Officer	Business owner	Other	
	38	54	38	78	

Data Analysis

Since the scale constructs were developed from the existing research, content validity is thus assumed. Take up a specific destination, nevertheless, reliability assessments were calculated. Using Amos 27.0, we conducted a confirmatory

factor analysis (CFA) to examine the validity of the scale items. Furthermore, average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliability (CR) were calculated to comprehensively verify the validity and reliability of the scale. Subsequently, a structural equation model (SEM) test to determine the relationship among the variables.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Result of CFA

Overall scale validity and reliability will be tested using confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992; Graver & Mentzer, 1999). As a result of CFA on five factors with 22 items. One item's loading of less than 0.5 (Destination weather item loading: 0.494) was removed from the scale

(Hair et al., 2006). CFA results after refinement items, GFI, and AGFI did not exceed the threshold ≥ 0.9 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992). Sun (2005) argued that GFI and AGFI value is very sensitive to sample size, therefore not necessary (GFI, AGFI) ≥ 0.9 . Furthermore, Doll et al. (1994) suggested that the threshold values for GFI and AGFI are ≥ 0.8 . As a result, the value of GFI and AGF exceeded the threshold. The result of the CFA on the five factors with 21 items revealed that the proposed model was a good fit for the data. Table 2 reports the results of the goodness of fit index.

Table 2: Result of Goodness of Fit Index

Index	Obtained Value	Recommended Value
CMIN/df	1.723	≤ 3.00 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992)
Degree of freedom	179	-
RMR	0.038	≤ 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992)
RMSEA	0.059	≤ 0.8 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993) ≤ 0.6 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) ≤ 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992)
GFI	0.866	≥ 0.9 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992) ≥ 0.8 (Doll et al., 1994)
AGFI	0.827	≥ 0.9 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992) ≥ 0.8 (Doll et al., 1994)
NFI	0.902	≥ 0.9 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992)
TLI	0.949	≥ 0.9 (Tucker & Lewis, 1973)
CFI	0.956	≥ 0.9 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992)

As reported in Table 2, all indicators exceed threshold values. However, the Average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliability (CR) were therefore computed for the latent factors to used verify the validity and reliability of the scale (Hair et al., 1998), thus, Table 3 reports the results. All

five factors exceeded the threshold value of (≥ 5) and (≥ 7) for both the AVE and CR respectively (Fornel & Larker, 1981). As a result, content validity is assumed, and proceeded to test the hypothetical model.

Table 3: Result of CFA

Factor/Measurement Item	Factor Loading	AVE	CR
Cognitive		0.597	0.880
Natural scenery of the mountain	0.802		
Atmosphere of mountain region	0.830		
Accommodation service	0.714		
Food Service	0.726		
Hospitality	0.786		
Affective		0.675	0.892
Excitement	0.856		
Special	0.861		
Curiosity	0.809		
Lucky	0.756		
Perceived Value		0.617	0.864
Time value	0.892		
Price value	0.767		

Factor/Measurement Item	Factor Loading	AVE	CR
Functional value	0.790		
Novelty value	0.679		
Satisfaction		0.738	0.918
Service Satisfaction	0.909		
Enjoyment	0.821		
Choice satisfaction	0.836		
Fulfil expectation	0.869		
Loyalty		0.632	0.871
Share Experience	0.772		
Recommend to visit	0.892		
Recommend to those who want advice	0.860		
Revisit	0.631		

Hypothetical Test

After the results of the confirmatory factor analysis, Structural equation modelling SEM using AMOS 27 was used to conducted to examine the relationship between each pair of variables as hypothesized. The statistical analysis of the overall model indicates χ^2 is 311.69 with 181 degrees of freedom ($P=0.000$; $\chi^2/df=1.722$; $RMR=0.039$; $RMSEA=0.059$; $CFI=0.956$; $TLI=0.949$; $NFI=0.901$; $GFI=0.866$; $AGFI=0.827$).

All the hypothesized model-fit indices exceeded the respective common acceptance level.

Within the overall model, the estimates of the structural coefficients provide the basis for examining the hypotheses. As shown in Fig. 2, the cognitive variable of the destination image has a significant positive influence on the affective

variable of the destination image and perceived value ($\beta_1=0.332$, $t\text{-value}=4.287$, $P<0.001$); ($\beta_2=0.219$, $t\text{-value}=3.246$, $P=0.001$), respectively}, thus supporting H1 and H2. Nonetheless, it does not have a significant positive influence on satisfaction ($\beta_3=-0.097$, $t\text{-value}=-1.766$ (n.s.)), thus, rejecting H3. Affective variables of destination image, as hypothesized, have a significant positive influence on destination perceived value and satisfaction ($\beta_4=0.594$, $t\text{-value}=7.800$, $P<0.001$), ($\beta_5=0.722$, $t\text{-value}=9.180$, $P<0.001$), respectively}, thus supporting H4 and H5. Destination perceived value, as hypothesized, has a significant positive influence on destination satisfaction and Loyalty ($\beta_6=0.211$, $t\text{-value}=2.811$, $P=0.005$), ($\beta_7=0.464$, $t\text{-value}=5.335$, $P<0.001$), respectively}, thus supporting H6 and H7. Finally, destination satisfaction has a significant positive influence on loyalty ($\beta_8=0.365$, $t\text{-value}=4.497$, $P<0.001$), thus supporting H8.

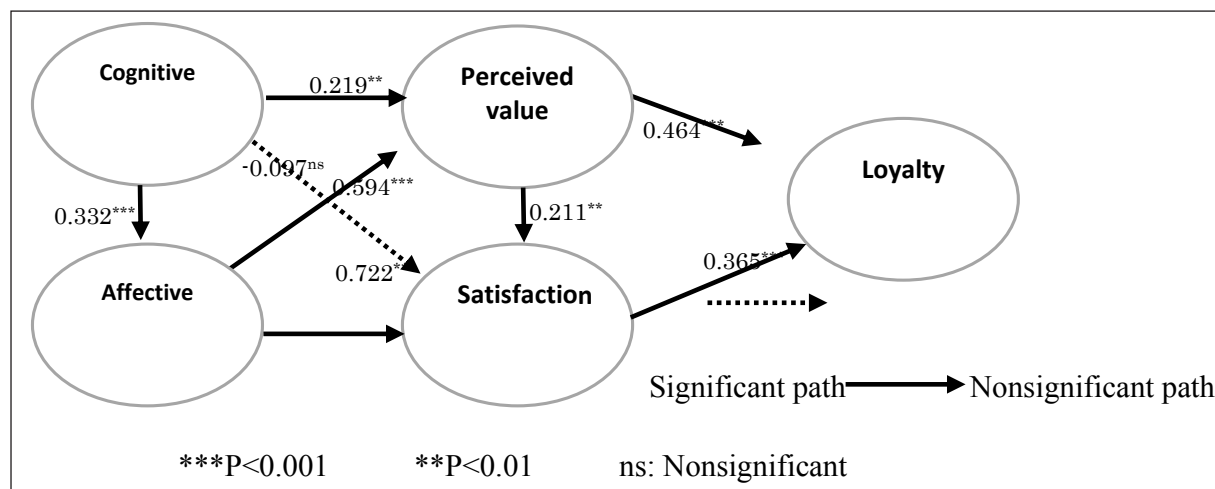


Fig. 2: Estimated Structural Model

CONCLUSION

There is wide agreement among researchers about the influence of the primary destination image on the travel experience of the destination. This study differs from other studies in that it considers the influence of secondary destination images on after-choice behaviour. The study's findings show that the affective state and the perceived value of the destination are both influenced by cognitive components of the secondary destination image. On the other side, there is no influence on destination satisfaction. This result contrasts with those of Lee et al. (2005), Coban (2012), and Banki et al. (2014), who considered primary destination image into account.

The influence of destination image on tourist behaviour changes along with the types of destination images. The following reasons are considered: After the visit, the primary destination image is developed. The primary destination image is composed better and has a higher assessment satisfaction level the better the experience evaluation. But even that secondary image of the destination comes from secondary sources before traveling there, not from a more favourable assessment. This means that destination satisfaction cannot be guaranteed to be directly influenced by secondary destination image.

The finding also suggests that cognitive factors have an influence on perceived value. These are images that were developed with information about the location, and with that information, one may more specifically plan what to do there. Tourists will thus have more to enjoy while traveling there, which raises the destination's perceived value. Also, destination satisfaction is influenced by perceived value. Lastly, it is clear that the cognitive factor indirectly influences satisfaction through perceived value. The results demonstrate that the cognitive factor of the image has a stronger influence on the affective state of the image than the perceived value of the destination. This finding could be connected to the special features of the destination. This is because emotions are determined by the impression of the world's highest mountain. An important result revealed in this study is that the affect states have a relatively stronger influence on experiential appraisals (perceived value, satisfaction) than the cognitive dimension. Whereas earlier research primarily measured cognitive aspects of images to investigate their influences on after-choice behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Prayag, 2008; Munhurrin et al., 2015; Akroush et al., 2016). Therefore, the influence of the affect state of destination on after-choice behaviour has been debatable but frequently neglected in previous research. This study has attempted to fill the gap.

Among the cognitive and affective state of destination image, the cognitive dimension influences the affective

dimension, which in turn influence experiential evaluation at the destination. In addition, an important finding also confirmed that the affective state of the image has a stronger influence on satisfaction than the perceived value. Tourism management can better understand the influence of secondary destination image on tourist behaviour, which helps them realize how crucial it is to boost the destination's image. The study's practical significance also lies in the necessity of developing a destination image that captures the feelings of tourists for new destinations where tourist numbers are expected to rise in the future.

In conclusion, this study shows that the affective factor of the secondary destination image is a direct antecedent of an evaluative factor of the destination experience, which is the theory that this study significantly contributes. Additionally, the findings show that the secondary destination images cognitive factor indirectly increased satisfaction through perceived value or affective factor. The findings of this study offer a good start in the understanding of how secondary destination image affects tourist behaviour, which broadens the understanding of the relevant destination marketing literature.

However, this study has several limitations that need to be acknowledged. First, the results of this study cannot be applied conclusively to other destinations. There is a considerable likelihood that this will have a strong emotional influence on tourist behaviour because the survey for this study was done in a location with the highest mountain in the world. Similar studies need to be extended to other destinations. Secondly, since the survey is conducted in an online format to those who visited Everest region, it is possible that the respondent's secondary destination images may change over time. Consequently, it is crucial to carry out surveys at both stages: during the decision-making process and after visiting the destination.

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