Imagining a city never visited:  
a case study of destination images of London held by Czech non-visitors

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IMAGINING A CITY NEVER VISITED:
A CASE STUDY OF DESTINATION IMAGES OF LONDON
HELD BY CZECH NON-VISITORS

BARBORA CHERIFI

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Abstract

This study aims to contribute to knowledge in the under-researched area of destination images held by non-visitors. In particular, it investigates what the images of London held by the Czech non-visitors are, how these were formed and how country and place of residence influence these images and their formation.

Overall, three hundred responses were collected in this qualitative study conducted in the Czech Republic. Three case study areas with different degrees of urbanization were chosen for the purposes of this exploratory enquiry. A research instrument with open-ended questions was selected as a method. Primary research was conducted with the same instrument in two stages, firstly through local magazines and then through libraries. The collected responses were then translated from Czech into English and analysed through multiple analyses.

It has been found that non-visitors imagine the destination through comparisons. Comparisons of the imagined destination with the culture and environment of the place one resides in are discussed. The findings also show that the first images individual forms of a destination persist over time. This is especially important in the post-communist context of this study. It is also evidenced that the key sources non-visitors use in their formation process are the sources perceived to be highly credible which also tend to be less commercial sources such as school, books and films. The findings also show that archetypal images of a city, capital city, world city and foreign place exist and inform the destination image. These tend to differ according to the place one resides in. Country-related as well as place-related factors that influence destination image are discussed. In regards to the non-visitors’ aspect, it is acknowledged that different types of non-visitors have different image formation processes.

KEY WORDS:
Destination image, destination image formation, influence of place, city image, non-visitor, potential tourist
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1. Introduction

1.1 Aim and research questions

The aim of this research is to investigate Czech images of London held by non-visitors and how these images were formed. In particular, the following research questions will be addressed:

1. What are the images of London held by Czech non-visitors?
2. How were these images formed?
3. How does country of residence influence destination image and its formation?
4. How does place of residence influence destination image and its formation?

1.2 Rationale for this research

Destination image is important in the tourism industry since it directly influences the travel decisions made by an individual regarding where to travel (Goodrich, 1978; Jenkins, 1999; Bigné et al., 2001; Gallarza et al., 2002). Images that potential tourists hold not only influence which destination they choose, but also the subsequent satisfaction with any destination if it is visited (Pikkemaat, 2004; O'Leary and Deegan, 2005), as well as loyalty to a destination (San Martín and Del Bosque, 2008).

Destination image has become a popular realm of tourism research (Pike, 2002). In 2002, Pike undertook a review of 142 studies focused upon this area. Since then numerous other studies have been conducted. However, a lack of literature on the images individuals possess of destinations they have never visited in particular is highlighted by several authors (for example, Beerli and Martín, 2004; Govers et al., 2007a). Focus of this study on non-visitors thus makes this thesis relevant.

Unlike destination image itself, the image formation aspect is under-researched. It is recognized that further research is still needed into destination image formation (Beerli and Martín, 2004). The investigation of image formation is a timely topic. One of the key reasons for this is the intensifying competition in the context of countries, stressing the need for destinations to attain the competitive advantage whilst attracting visitors, businesses as well as residents (Morgan et al., 2011). Understanding destination image formation enables the development of ways as to how the images could be manipulated in an effective manner.
London has been chosen as it is one of the world tourism cities (Maitland and Newman, 2009) and a place with a ‘rich image’ that receives coverage for a wide variety of subjects and events that occur (Avraham, 2000). The current tourism-related debate on capital cities also suggests that further research on capital cities is needed (Ritchie and Maitland, 2007; Maitland and Ritchie, 2010b). The Czech Republic has been chosen for the research because of its post-communist context as it provides an innovative angle on destination imagery. As Williams and Baláž suggest (2001), there has been a neglect of tourism research on the latter parts of the transformation period in post-communist states such as the Czech Republic.

1.3 Methodology
Three hundred respondents participated in this qualitative study conducted in the Czech Republic. In particular, a research instrument with open-ended questions was selected as a method which enabled the generation of qualitative data. A paper version of the questionnaire was deemed suitable. As Dolnicar et al. (2009) state, online questionnaires would only reach a limited number of respondents. A paper version also enables the inclusion of those without a direct experience of the destination that are not normally included in destination image studies.

Three case study areas with different degrees of urbanization in the Czech Republic were chosen. The research was conducted in Prague 8 as a metropolitan case study area, Kolín as a large town case study area and, lastly, in a number of small towns and villages in the Českomoravská Vrchovina area. Figure 1.1 below displays the location of the three case study areas in the Czech Republic. Primary research was conducted using the same research instrument in two stages, first through local magazines and then in libraries in each case study area. The responses were then translated from Czech into English.
Age quota sampling was employed and the joint quotas for the first and second phase were calculated together. Only adults were considered in this research. For every 100 participants in each case study area, 31 were aged between 18-34 years, 34 were aged between 35-54 years and 35 were aged 55 years and over. Two rigorous pilot studies were conducted prior to the actual fieldwork, where pilot study 1 contained feedback from 48 participants.

A pragmatic approach has been adopted as it enabled multiple analyses of data including both, thematic analysis, which was the most important one in this research, as well as complementary content analysis of images and image sources in order to assess their commonality. As suggested by Pansiri (2006), there is a call for mixed methods in tourism and pragmatism facilitates such efforts (Powell, 2001 in Pansiri, 2006).
1.4 Context of this research
In regards to Czech culture, according to Berka et al. (2008), the social and political changes that followed the ‘Velvet Revolution’ which signified the end of the communist era in the Czech Republic in 1989 had a great impact on all aspects of Czech society. This political change influenced the way London was represented to the general public after the revolution, in a stark contrast to the way it was represented in the period before the revolution.

In terms of differences between places with different degrees of urbanisation in the Czech Republic, Anderson (2004) states that, as one of the new accession states of the European Union, there are many differences between those residing in urban and rural areas in the Czech Republic.

1.5 London as a tourist destination
In one way the Czech Republic is the case study at the heart of this research, but in other way the research also focuses on London. This section introduces London as a tourist destination. Firstly, London as a global city destination is analysed, in particular the development of London as a successful tourist destination over the time is reviewed. Then the characteristics of visitors to London as a potential word of mouth source influencing on image are discussed. Lastly, the global destination London in the pre-visit phase is discussed. This section, therefore, analyses the background information on the selected destination that might be influencing participants’ images,

1.5.1 London as a global city destination
London is one of the global capitals. Hall (2000) in Maitland and Ritchie (2007) recognize that this type of capital also has a special super-national role, for example in politics. London is a ‘complex and multi-faceted city’ (Stevenson and Inskip, 2008, p.11). As Holcomb (1993) suggests, London is a place that has been established as a tourism destination for a long time.

The question lies as to why London has become such a well-known tourist destination and why it has developed a strong image whereas other cities have had their image projected to a much lesser extent. There seem to be numerous reasons for this, for
example London has been represented not only as a destination, meaning a place to visit just as a tourist, but also as a place to live, as well as a symbol of power. It is perhaps also the monumentality, as suggested by Smith (2010) that makes such capital city special. Many books have been written about London, both as a destination (place to visit) and as a place (place to live in). For example, Massey (2004, p. 3) describes London as possessing, ‘the cultural multiplicities of its ‘postcolonial global status’.

However, the strong position of London as a tourist destination in particular has long been established as well. According to Gilbert (1999), in the first half of the nineteenth century modern European cities, including London, were presented in guidebooks according to three different elements. First was the connection with other civilizations, second the guides focused upon the modern side of the city and, third, the city was discussed as a site of power and a unifying central place. In the case of London as an imperial city at that time in particular, all of these three elements were included at the same time in the guidebooks. It is, then, its power that is distinctive about London.

Gilbert and Henderson (2002) further mention that the guidebooks on London have greatly shaped the tourist itineraries and consequently the experiences (Gilbert and Henderson, 2002). Over time, the itineraries have changed having been reinterpreted according to what was both necessary and appropriate for the specific era, in particular some attractions that were not seen as necessary or appropriate in a specific era lost their status (Gilbert and Henderson, 2002). As this study investigates experiential images, how people imagine their experience in London, it will be interesting to observe whether such imaginations are also shaped around the traditional itineraries.

London as a tourist destination in current times is summarized by Visit Britain (2011). The overall position of Great Britain as a tourist destination, according to Visit Britain (2011, p. 1), ‘in terms of international tourist arrivals … slipped one place to 7th position, accounting for 3.0% of all international arrivals (unchanged). In terms of the international tourist receipts, the UK retained seventh place again in 2011. The UK now accounts for 3.5% of international tourism receipts (3.3% in 2010)’. This shows that retaining London’s position as a tourist destination is essential. Understanding of its image in the Czech Republic through the primary research of this thesis provides a further rationale for this study.
1.5.2 Characteristics of visitors to London

As visitors are potentially a significant word of mouth source for non-visitors, it is important to examine the characteristics of visitors to London. One of the questions is what type of visitors visits London. London is mainly a leisure holiday destination for tourists, according to the London Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008), which states that all 68% of the United Kingdom’s day visitors were coming to London on a leisure trip, and for those who stayed the figures were similar, 62% of overseas visitors and 52% of the staying British visitors.

At the same time, London is also a ‘visiting friends and relatives’ capital; for overseas visitors the most common form of accommodation is actually staying with a friend which accounts for 23% of visits and staying near relatives accounts for 17%. For British staying visitors, as opposed to overseas visitors, the figures are similar as 32% of visitors stayed with a friend and 23% stayed with relatives (London Visitor Survey Annual Report, 2008). It could be argued that this may have an impact on the images of London in terms of word of mouth, as those who actually do come to London stay with the locals to a great extent. When they return home, they may share authentic experiences about London as a place to live, not only as a place to visit.

It is often argued that London, as a world tourist destination, is visited more than any other place in the United Kingdom. The London Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008, p. 23) confirms that, ‘London has a prominent role as a tourist destination in Britain … Among overseas visitors, a third (33%) said that they had or would visit other regions’. This shows the position of London as a tourist destination in comparison to the rest of the United Kingdom. However, this is not a phenomenon shared merely by overseas visitors. The London Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008, p. 23) further states that, ‘among UK staying visitors to London, just 9% mentioned that they had visited or planned to visit a location outside of the capital on this trip, reflecting London’s primary status as a short-break destination for the majority of UK staying visitors, with little time or intention to visit places other than London’. This clearly shows how central London is as a destination for those who visit the United Kingdom. It will be interesting to observe whether participants of this study mention other locations in their responses as well, even if unprompted. Another characteristic is where tourists stay when they visit London. Tourists in London stay in central locations, as the London
Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008) evidences, which asked overseas visitors where they stay in London. It was found that participants stayed mostly in Central London. It will be interesting to observe which parts of London participants imagine having their accommodation in.

London has many icons. These icons are mostly located in or around Central London. Not only were tourists staying centrally in London, but they also intended to visit places centrally. According to the London Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008), which asked overseas visitors not including those on business trips which boroughs they were planning to visit, the following were reported, ‘Westminster was the most commonly mentioned, and by a large margin from all the others (83%). Other frequently mentioned boroughs were Tower Hamlets, Camden, Lambeth, Southwark and Kensington & Chelsea - all were mentioned by at least 20% of visitors (London Visitor Survey Annual Report, 2008, p. 15). It will be interesting to investigate whether non-visitors’ images will also be orientated so much towards the centre of the city as well.

1.5.3 Destination London in the pre-visit phase

As this thesis focuses only on those without direct experience of visitation, it is essential to review existing sources that discuss the global destination of London in the pre-visit stage, even though taking into consideration those from all over the world, not only the Czechs.

In the pre-visit phase, a number of attributes of London were identified as key motivations to come to London. These are particularly interesting for this study, as motivations are linked with experiential images. According to the London Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008), the motivations to visit London included history and heritage, museums and galleries, parks and gardens, restaurants, pubs and bars as well as theatre, music or arts performances. In a more recent source however, a reference is also made to alternative motivations of tourists to London. According to Visit Britain (2010a, p. 19), ‘in general, consumers want to see the famous landmarks, but there is also a desire to explore new places and get away from the crowds’.

Information sources for those who have decided to visit London were the following. According to the London Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008, p. 30), ‘overall,
knowledge from a previous trip was the most frequently used information source in advance of a visit to London, with 41% of all those interviewed mentioning this. The next most popular sources of pre-trip information were guidebooks/maps (35%), the internet (other than VisitLondon.com) at 34% and advice from friends/relatives (32%). Around 12% of visitors had used the VisitLondon.com site, while 7% had used a travel agent. Among overseas visitors, 45% said that they had used guidebooks/maps before the trip to London, ahead of the internet (other than VisitLondon.com) at 43%. At 37%, advice from friends/relatives was the next most popular source, followed by prior knowledge (25%). It is interesting that most of those surveyed mentioned experience from previous trips as key London (Visitor Survey Annual Report, 2008). However; this influential variable is clearly not relevant to this research, leaving the space to other sources. Also, guidebooks and maps were identified as two most important sources. It will be interesting to compare this with the primary results of this thesis, as in contrast with the London Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008) that focuses on pre-visitors, this thesis focuses on the whole group of non-visitors, even those who do not wish to visit the destination who presumably might not gain their information from maps or guides.

To summarize, in this section, London was introduced as a tourist destination, providing a further rationale for the study of this complex city’s image. In particular, academic sources and reports about London as a world tourist destination were used to discuss its role and key characteristics of its visitors that, in turn, play an important role in word of mouth as an information source that gets to those who have not visited it. Some information on London’s pre-visitors in terms of their characteristics and motivations were also provided.

1.6 Structure of the PhD

A traditional structure has been adopted for this PhD study as it was deemed to be the clearest way to present this research. After the introduction chapter comes the literature review which contains four sections. These sections are broadly structured according to the four research questions set out at the beginning of this chapter. The methodology chapter which follows focuses on capturing, accessing, obtaining and analysing the data needed to answer the research enquiry and justifies the methodological choices made.
The results chapter is structured around the four research questions set at the beginning of this study and the ultimate goal is to answer them in detail. The secondary research is also presented in this chapter; results from the analysis of Eurobarometer (2009) on differences in travel attitudes according to place of residence are discussed and fill in the gap in literature on this topic. In the discussion, key themes are identified, critically analysed and linked with the literature. These themes form the structure of this discussion chapter. Lastly, the conclusions and recommendations chapter is provided. Apart from summary of the results aiming to summarize answers to the research questions, limitations, implications of this research, recommendations for policy and practice, wider significance of this study and most importantly contributions of this thesis to existing knowledge are all discussed in detail.
2. Literature review chapter

2.1 Introduction
This chapter of the thesis reviews the theoretical framework underpinning this study. It is structured around the four research questions stated in the introduction chapter. The first section reviews theory in regards to destination images held by non-visitors. The second section discusses destination image formation and formation of the related concepts. The third section reviews theory underpinning the influence of country of residence on destination images. Lastly, literature in regards to the influence of a specific place of residence on destination images is introduced.

2.2 Destination images held by non-visitors
It is essential to define what the destination image held by non-visitors is and who non-visitors are for the purposes of this study. Later on in this section the focus turns to a review of destination image components and attributes. However; it is important to recognize and discuss not only what the images contain in the form of components and attributes, but their characteristics as well. It also needs to be pointed out that even though a great wealth of information exists on destination image of visitors, these sources on visitors were not included in the literature review as the focus of this study is merely on destination images of non-visitors.

It needs to be re-emphasized that there is a limited literature on images before the visitation (Govers et al., 2007a). This is why a variety of concepts similar to destination image are also reviewed. Literature reviews on destination image in existing studies recognize some links to these concepts. For example, according to Gallarza et al. (2002), other concepts may be applied from across the disciplines of anthropology, sociology, geography, semiotics and marketing as well as psychology. Place image is one of these concepts (Page and Hall, 2003). Destination images are also linked with expectations (Del Bosque and San Martín, 2008). Apart from these, a number of other theoretical concepts previously linked with image were reviewed as well. Some new links were also made – for example with literary image (how people imagine places through a written text). This is in line with Ashworth and Page’s (2011) observation that it is important that future studies in urban tourism take into consideration research from outside of the tourism field of study.
2.2.1 Definition of destination image held by non-visitors

This thesis investigates the images of non-visited destination (Hughes and Allen, 2008). However, there are a number of similar terms that have been used in regards to images of those without direct experience of the destination. Sometimes, the term ‘secondary image’ is used. However, *the secondary image is seen as the image built before the visit to the destination* (Phelps, 1986 in Lopes, 2011, p. 310). This is not entirely the case in this thesis, as even those who are not going to visit the destination are included in the study. The term destination image of non-visited and secondary image thus cannot be used interchangeably because they do not have identical meanings.

In the context of this research, the definition of ‘naïve’ images proposed by Selby (2004) needs to be reviewed as well. This concept was also considered, as he mentioned that these are images created without direct experience of a locality, however, he also wrote that, at the same time, these images are held by the vast majority of people (Selby, 2004). The term ‘naïve image’ will not be used, as it only relates to shared images. In this particular study, the individual images held by non-visitors are investigated as well, not only the shared images. Individual images are not necessarily the same images as those held by the majority. Further consideration of shared and individual images follows in the next paragraphs. For the purposes of this study, the expression ‘destination image of non-visited’ is used, as it encompasses all possible types of non-visitor.

When defining the concept of destination image of non-visited, shared and individual images need to be differentiated. These two concepts are considered by Jenkins (2000), who suggests that destination images exist at a collective level, where many people of one culture may share images. It is also recognized that images are primarily conceived at an individual level. For example, Frías et al. (2008) also points out the primarily individual nature of image. As a result, not all destination images are shared as some are held by just single individuals. To summarize, shared images are thus only those that are held by a number of individuals at the same time. Overall, the argument is that the shared images are based on the individual images. As briefly mentioned previously, in this thesis, both individual as well as shared destination images held by non-visited are investigated. However, one could argue that who the images are shared by needs to be
defined. Clearly, shared images can be shared by any group, in the case of this study these are images shared by the Czechs, images by those residing in the capital city, or images held by those residing in the large town or images held by those residing in rural areas and small towns in the Czech Republic.

In terms of the content of image, a number of definitions of destination image are offered by authors. For example, Crompton (1979, p. 18) defines destination image as ‘the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination’. Elsewhere, Lawson and Baud-Bovy (1977, cited in Jenkins, 1999, p. 2) define destination image as, ‘the expression of all objective knowledge, impressions, prejudice, imaginations, and emotional thoughts an individual or group might have of a particular place’. Writing about place image rather than just destination image, Hall (2002, p. 120) recognizes that ‘a place image of any kind is a simplified, generalized, often stereotypical, impression that people have of any place or area’. More broadly, Donald (1997, p. 1) writes about the mental image that, ‘to imagine is to make present to my mind’s eye what is absent’. These are just some examples of how images are defined. In fact, there seem to be as many definitions as there are studies on destination image. For the purposes of this study, experiential images, as in the study by Govers et al. (2007a), are investigated. This means images that people express whilst imagining that they would visit the destination.

This thesis examines a city destination image of non-visitors as opposed to a country destination image of non-visitors. It has been found that city image is an under-researched area. Pike (2002) found that country images were most popular in destination image studies and most studies examined destination image at the national level (Pike, 2002).

2.2.2 Defining the non-visitor
Non-visitor is a relatively recent term. Non-visitor is someone who has not visited the destination (Hughes and Allen, 2008). Existing destination image studies usually focus on only one of the different sub-groups of non-visitors. The first group consists of potential tourists. These are those who want to visit the destination or those who are likely to visit it (Goodrich, 1978; Young, 1995; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Chen and
Another sub-group of non-visitors that was studied, apart from potential tourists, was the group of pre-visitors. Pre-visitors are those before the visit of the destination. For example, O’Leary and Deegan (2005) address the importance of investigating the images before and after the actual visit to be able to match them to different marketing strategies. Yilmaz et al. (2009) compare the images of arriving and departing tourists of a destination.

There are a very few studies that focus on non-visitors generally. One such rare study was conducted by Hughes and Allen (2008) who investigated the different images held by visitors and non-visitors generally to Central and Eastern Europe. It could be summarized that where studies of destination image have involved participants who have not visited the destination, they have generally involved people who have plans to do so or would like to do so. This study is innovative, as it also examines the views of people who do not plan or even wish to visit the destination.

Surprisingly, a typology of non-visitors in regards to destination image is an under-researched area. Even though a typology of non-visitors has not been found in the existing literature, it is suggested that non-visitors could be categorized according to economic theory. In economic terms non-visitors could be seen as a function of demand. In particular, Paajanen (2003, p. 137) writes about tourism demand in general, that it can be further categorized into effective demand, latent demand, deferred demand, potential demand as well as no demand. The effective demand (also called actual or aggregate demand) is defined by Paajanen (2003, p. 137), as ‘consisting of people who actually take part in tourism activities (that is, the buyers collectively). The size of this group of tourists is the easiest to measure as they, having physically moved to the site of activities, are traceable’. Those with direct experience of the destination have clearly not been included in this study. However, it could be argued that pre-visitors, those who have already decided to visit the destination, are a part of this group as they have already purchased the trip.

Latent demand, ‘also called supressed demand, refers to would-be-buyers. This type consists of the deferred and potential demand’ (Paajanen, 2003, p. 137) can also be
linked to existing studies. Deferred and potential demand is constituted by individuals who were also included in this thesis. In particular, the two above mentioned groups are defined accordingly; deferred demand refers to ‘those who have the will to participate in tourism activities but cannot, as they lack supporting knowledge or access to tourism activities or both’ (Paajanen, 2003, p. 137).

On the other hand, ‘potential demand consists of those who have the will to participate, but lack social and economic circumstances. In other words, they do not have enough money or other resources to accomplish their tourism plans. Their participation would require an improvement in their socioeconomic environment’ (Paajanen, 2003, p. 137). Both groups are investigated in the destination image literature under the term potential tourists, defined as those with an interest in the destination. Paajanen’s (2003, p.137) last definition is of ‘people showing no demand have neither the will nor possibilities to participate in tourism activities’. This group was included in this study as well, which is what makes it distinctive from other studies.

Defining the types of non-visitor is thus not straightforward as no typology of non-visitor has been found in the context of destination image. However, the primary research will show to what extent the wider demand theory can be applied. It is possible that the type of non-visitor is a relevant variable in the context of destination image of non-visitor, as some non-visitor will have greater interest than others in the destination and thus may be expected to have fuller images.

To summarize, this study is unusual since it focuses on all adult individuals who have not visited the destination. It includes not only the potential tourists or pre-visitor, but also those who have no plans or even the will to visit the destination. It is argued that only by understanding the images held by these groups of non-visitor and the formation of their images can help to find and develop ways to improve images held by these groups, providing a further rationale for this study.

2.2.3 Destination image components
Destination images consist of destination image components. It could be argued that components of image are types of image that manifest themselves through various image attributes. Many authors distinguish between designative (cognitive) and
appraisive components of destination images, even though these are often classified using different terminology (Richards and Wilson, 2004). The appraisive component can be further classified into evaluative and affective components (Gartner, 1993 cited in Richards and Wilson, 2004). From a mental imagery point of view, Chalip and Costa (2005) recognize that efforts have been made to import image–related concepts from psychology, where it has long been recognized there that mental image dimensions are cognitive and affective.

Conative elements have also been identified in the literature. These conative elements concern the behavioural intentions and are, in reality, perceived as closeness to the destination (Urbonavicius et al., 2011). Nadeau et al. (2008) consider that cognitive, affective as well as conative phrases have long been known in the product country image concept under different names yet describe the same things, as in the concept of destination image. Until recently, affective images have been neglected to a large extent. Destination images of non-visitors include emotions of individuals. According to Robinson (2012), tourists’ emotions are under-researched. Further, it needs to be recognized that Cartier (2005) writes about the ‘seductiveness of a place’, a concept that can be very closely linked with affective destination images of non-visitors. She makes an important point that the seductiveness of a place varies greatly for different groups.

It could be summarized that the cognitive element encompasses the beliefs about a place and its products, the feelings towards are represented by the affective feature while the behavioural intentions to purchase the products and interest in relationships with the country are seen as the conative aspect. All these different layers of destination image such as knowledge of the destination, evaluations of the images as well as the more emotional elements will be examined in this study. In particular, it will be investigated whether these elements are part of images that individuals have, even if unprompted.

There are also other components of destination image. Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003) suggest that the components of destination image can vary from common features to unique features of destination image in general (Echtner and Brent Ritchie, 2003). Unique as well as common features will be investigated in this research and, as participants will be free to express their images, it will be interesting to observe which components appear in responses of participants.
Additional components can be observed in different studies. In particular, Beerli and Martín (2004) propose a framework they call dimensions of a destination that can later form destination images. This encompasses nine individual components: natural resources, general infrastructure, tourist infrastructure, tourist leisure and recreation, culture, history and art, political and economic factors, natural environment, social environment and the atmosphere of the place (Beerli and Martín, 2004).

From a different angle, Chambard (2004, cited in Prim–Allaz et al., 2008) describes the components of destination image as follows: the organic component, the economic component, the geographic component, and symbolic component. It will be investigated how these components are reflected in images Czech non-visitors have of London.

Sensual imagery means that there are components of destination images that relate to different senses. Visual imagery, auditory imagery, olfactory imagery and gustatory imagery, although not named as such, are used by Govers et al. (2007a) in their study that inspired this thesis. Of interest, according to Ganis et al. (2004), visual imagery and visual perception draw upon most of the same neural imagery networks. This study uses all the sensual components of destination image. This would mean that visual imagery can be as complex as visual perception. Carles et al. (1992) note that even though mental images are usually considered as mainly visual, their research shows that sound is not necessarily less important than the visual component. This is important as studies on sound in destination imaging are an under-researched area, yet this may constitute an important element. It is evidenced that people have gustatory images as well, as Kobayashi et al. (2004) put it; individuals hold gustatory images in the absence of gustatory input. On the nature of mental imagery, Kosslyn et al. (2006) assert that for example, tactile imagery is accompanied by the experience of feeling with the mind’s skin.

Studies on literary imagery also discuss sensual components of images. For example, Ziolkowski (1981, cited in Stambovsky, 1988) suggests that in the theoretical studies of imagery in literature, images can be classified as shown in Table 2.1 below. It is evidenced that images are gained from a literary piece, such as a novel or poem. Even though it seems from the existing studies on destination image that this concept has not
been linked to destination image of non-visitors previously, it is suggested that the concept of literary imagery, as described by Ziolkowski (1981, cited in Stambovsky, 1988) can clearly be applied to destination images of non-visitors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components of images according to literary imagery</th>
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<tr>
<td>Visual image</td>
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<td>Auditory image</td>
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<td>Olfactory image</td>
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<td>Gustatory image</td>
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<td>Tactile image</td>
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<td>Organic image</td>
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<td>Kinaesthetic image</td>
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Table 2.1: Table displaying components of image according to literary imagery
(source: adapted from Ziolkowski, 1981 cited in Stambovsky, 1988)

It is argued that the concept of literary imagery is particularly significant for this thesis, as it is formed over a representation, mostly without a direct experience of the phenomenon. This study aims to incorporate all of these sensual components in the experiential destination images held by non-visitors. Even though the organic and kinaesthetic images have not yet been specifically linked with destination image area of study, such attempts are made in this thesis.

There is a wide range of existing literature in the area of tourism and the sensory. Gretzel and Fesenmaier (2003) for example stress that, as opposed to representations on websites, real holidays are based around a great variety of sensory experiences. For example, Dann and Steen Jacobsen (2003) write that, for a place to be successful in its marketing, it needs to focus on attracting visitors by accentuating more than just visual representations. Gretzel and Fesenmaier (2003) further mention that in terms of the visual, certain colours can be dominant, such as green and blue in their case. Govers et al. (2007b) also mentioned that their participants stated various colours in their research.
It could be argued that whilst visual information is still very significant, addressing other senses, such as the sense of smell in marketing campaigns, is important. In particular, Dann and Steen Jacobsen (2003) suggest that focusing on being aromatically appealing is essential to success of place marketing. Gretzel and Fesenmaier (2003) write that in their research, the following scents were mentioned by tourists: lake breeze, autumn leaves, grass, fresh air, pine trees, antiques and others. For example, Govers et al. (2007b) mention that their participants mentioned smells, in particular smell of spices, smell of heat, fragrances and smell of food. This shows the great variety of scents that may be appealing, although this surely varies according to different destinations / types of destination.

Apart from the sense of smell, other senses are also considered in the existing literature, for example taste. Boniface (2003) writes, ‘food and drink has a way to contribute in a dimension of re-discovery or re-accentuation of the sensory and with connotations of bringing experiences over and of time, and of connection and association’ (p.12). She further mentions that, ‘the holiday allows time and indulgence to pursue the exotic, and in the context of food and drink what is exotic can now be what is most plain and simple...the most strange or different compared with what is in everyday sensible and understandable can represent the enticing feature’ (p.13). Taste, it seems, is essential to holiday experiences. So is sound. For example, Gretzel and Fesenmaier’s (2003) research participants mention sounds such as those of animals, music, water, fire, wind, people, children, horses, money, train, walking amongst others. Overall, it can be summarized that the sensory is key to tourism. Recent sources have been exploring the relationship between tourism and different senses. However; the area of touch and tourism and kinaesthetic images and tourism seem to be under-researched in regards to tourism.

2.2.4 Destination image attributes

As mentioned previously, components of destination image are comprised of more specific attributes. As briefly stated in the section on components of destination image, Echtner and Brent Ritchie (1991, cited in Jenkins, 1999) make a distinction between unique and common attributes. They suggest that common functional attributes are those attributes that can be compared across different destinations, for example climate or accommodation, whilst the unique functional attributes relate to icons or special events. Common psychological attributes can include, for example, the friendliness of
the locals, whereas unique psychological attributes would then encompass feelings associated with some historic events. It is suggested in that a key methodological challenge for this thesis on images of non-visitors then lies in assessing unique images that are shared; as such attributes of the researched destination are not known in advance.


In addition to the above mentioned attributes, other attributes were discussed by a number of other authors as well. For example, Pikkemaat (2004, p. 91) adds the following attributes: ‘local traffic/transport infrastructure’, ‘luxury’, ‘contact with locals’, ‘the service quality’. O’Leary and Deegan (2005, p. 250) then mention in their study on Ireland’s image as a tourism destination in France other attributes such as ‘urbanization’. Urbanization seems to be a new addition as it was not considered in other studies. The main problem with the existing studies is that the identified attributes do not focus on specifically one type of destination, in particular a city destination. It is
clear that not all of the above mentioned examples are applicable to this research which focuses upon the image of a city rather than other types of destination.

A repository of potential attributes of any destination has been developed by Beerli and Martín (2004). As identified in the previous section, Beerli and Martín (2004) identify nine components of image generally, which are made of specific attributes. It is clear that not all of the attributes they mention, such as beaches, quality of seawater, sandy or rocky beaches, length of the beach and overcrowding of the beaches, lakes, mountains and deserts, are relevant to this particular study as it focuses upon city image. The repository of image dimensions has wide implications. Whilst it is an important idea in the field of destination image that an image has pre-given dimensions, once again it must be questioned as to whether such a list is (and even could be) complete as well as how it is applicable to various types of destination. This will be investigated later on within this study in the context of city image. It can be concluded that a list of attributes of global city image, in particular, needs more attention, as it is an under-researched topic.

2.2.5 Nature of destination image of non-visitors

Only few sources have been found that assess the actual nature of destination image. In a number of studies, differences between images without direct experience of the destination and re-evaluated images of places exist (Selby and Morgan, 1996; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). This expands the rationale for researching the characteristics, of images of non-visitors.

Some authors view destination images held by non-visitors as simple. For example it has been recognized that images held by potential visitors, non-visitors and returned visitors differ in that the images held after the visit are more complex, as well as more realistic (Chon, 1990 in Jenkins, 1999). This would imply that images of non-visitors are not very complex. Kotler and Gertner (2002) also recognize that place images are simplifications that do not necessarily have to be accurate. The vagueness of images of non-visitors has also been pointed out. For example, Hughes and Allen (2008) conducted a study on non-visitors and visitors and mention that whilst the knowledge of the researched places held by the non-visitors was vague, they did remember places they had seen or heard of in the media. The vagueness of destination image of non-visitors is
thus emphasized (Hughes and Allen, 2008). However; this view is challenged by other authors, identified in the next paragraph.

As opposed to simplicity and vagueness, on the other hand complexity of destination images or similar concepts is pointed out by other authors. A thoughtful observation is provided by Di Vittorio (2007, p. 31) who states, ‘the image of a destination is, then, a complex image’. The complexity of destination image is pointed out as a key feature of destination images of non-visitors. Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003) also recognize that imagery has been defined by psychologists as a complicated and changing matter, not isolated from other issues in an individual’s mind. If applied to destination images, this also contrasts with most existing definitions of destination images that insist that images without direct experience are simplified. It is suggested that not only that this depends on the type of destination; however also on the fact whether the characteristics are of shared or individual images. This thesis will examine these characteristics of image.

Massey (2006) further recognizes some characteristics of place image which are very rarely stated in the existing literature on destination image, in particular she suggests that geographical imaginations can be contradictory. Massey (2006, p. 48) also comments on the nature of geographical imaginations stating, ‘a lot of our geography is in the mind ... that is to say that we carry around with us mental images, of the world, of the country in which we live, of the street next door ... All of us carry these images; they may sometimes be in conflict’. Thus the conflicting nature of image has been pointed out. It will be researched through this study whether destination images also have the same characteristics as those of this similar concept.

Linked with the contradictory nature identified in the previous paragraph, it is also recognized that destinations can have a number of images at the same time, as Hall (2002) points out. Place image in geography is further described by Massey (2006), who suggests that geographical imaginations are inevitable, meaning that everyone has, to an extent, an image of a place. However, it can be argued that this may apply only in the case of the most famous places.

Another important characteristic, also recognized in the literature, is that images are possibly long-lasting and difficult to change. This can partly be because stereotypes and
prejudices are also part of destination images. Kotler and Gertner (2002) conclude that stereotypes are very difficult to change. As Devine (1989) recognizes, social psychologists have long been interested in the concepts of prejudice and stereotype, both being long-lasting concepts. The world’s leading place branding guru suggests ‘another reason why national or city images can’t be changed too easily is because they are so robust. We all seem to need these comforting stereotypes that enable us to put countries and cities in convenient pigeon-holes, and will only abandon them if they really have no other choice’ (Anholt, 2009, p.6).

It can be summarized that only little has been written in the area of destination image of non-visitors on the actual characteristics of these images. It seems that a great majority of the existing studies seem to use a structured approach, just evaluating the actual image. Even though there are some studies on destination image of non-visitors that have used a qualitative approach, unfortunately they rarely go beyond assessing only the image itself and do not actually assess the nature of destination imagery.

2.2.6 The link between destination image, country image and place image

Places lay within countries. There is then a clear link between a country destination image and a place destination image, with country destination image being the overarching concept. Hunt (1975) specifies that ‘country image’ refers to an image of a country which one is not resident of. Even though it could be expected that these two concepts are overlapping, country image may differ from the image of a destination (Stepchenkova and Morrison, 2008).

Discussion is further raised as to whether these two concepts/images can be separated in the minds of potential travellers (Stepchenkova and Morrison, 2008). It will be observed in this study whether both of these concepts will be mentioned by participants, even though only place (city) destination image of non-visitors will be asked for in the research instrument.

Secondly, there is another concept similar to destination image which is place image. Hughes and Allen (2008) for example make a distinction between place image as a place to live in, and destination image as the image of a place to visit. Nadeau et al. (2008) suggest that place image as well as destination image may overlap at times. They
mention that the two, both place image and destination image, are different in various ways. They evidence that Nepal as a country has a positive destination image but a rather negative place image when aligned with education levels, for example (Nadeau et al., 2008). This suggests that the two types of images can be quite different. It will be investigated in this study whether participants will also refer to place image, meaning London as a place to live in, rather than just to London as a place to visit, even if unprompted.

2.2.7 Summary

Having discussed the various definitions of destination image, for the purposes of this study both individual as well as shared destination images will be investigated. Anyone who has not visited the destination is categorised as a non-visitor for the purposes of this research. It has been found that attributes of city image is an under-researched area. Also, it has been found that other existing concepts from a variety of social sciences that are rarely reviewed in regards to destination image can enrich the destination image area of study, such as the literary image concept.

By critically analysing the existing studies in the area of destination image, it has been observed that surprisingly little attention has been given to the research on the nature of image. This is as a result of the fact that whilst many studies focus on the assessment of the actual destination image through structured methodologies, fewer studies focus on the capturing of image through unstructured methodologies (Pike, 2002). Even though there are studies on destination image of a qualitative nature, unfortunately they rarely comment on the actual characteristics of the image and focus merely on assessing the attributes of the image itself.
2.3 Destination image formation

This section of the literature review discusses theory linked with the second research question. In particular, destination image formation and formation of the related concepts are reviewed. Firstly, existing studies on the process of destination image formation are discussed. As with the first section of this chapter, it is also discussed how similar concepts, which can be linked with destination image, are formed. Important elements of destination image formation are the factors that influence it. These factors are outlined. The role of destination marketing on destination image formation is critically analysed. Consequently the role of representation in the image formation process is recognized.

2.3.1 The process of destination image formation

As it was mentioned previously, destination image formation is one of the least studied areas of destination image (Beerli and Martín, 2004) and further study of destination image and its formation is still needed (Baloglu and McLeary, 1999; Beerli and Martín, 2004; Govers et al., 2007a).

Of great importance to this study is Gunn’s (1972, cited in Jenkins, 1999) assertion that there are different stages of image formation, in particular seven stages. The first stage is so-called accumulation and it is in this stage that an individual accumulates images of a destination throughout the course of his life. Then there is the second stage entitled modification, meaning that before visitation the image is modified and changed through researching. The third stage of the image formation process is the decision (Gunn, 1972, cited in Jenkins, 1999), meaning that the image has stimulated the individual to a decision to travel to the destination. The latter stages, stages four to seven, are only applicable to visitors of the destination, rather than to its non-visitors. Even though this is an essential and useful model of the image formation process, it could be argued that such phases might not be as straight forward, as it is possible that for example the decision could come before the modification phase.
As in the case of destination image, the area of characteristics of the image formation process was also found to be under-researched. Due to the fact that literature on this topic in particular is scarce, more general concepts were reviewed as well. Firstly, it is the notion that image formation takes time. From a sociological perspective, Boulding (1961) suggests that an image is built on all the past experiences of the individual. He states that every time a message reaches a person, his image is likely to be changed by this message, to an extent. Boulding (1961) further sees image creation as a cyclical process, individuals constantly updating their image. The nature of mental image is also presented by Luque-Martinez et al. (2007) who suggest that individuals build an image over time as a result of the stimuli they receive.

In regards to shared image formation, as mentioned previously, it is argued that it can be linked with public opinion formation. For example, Sharma and Sharma (2004) suggest that ‘the process which results in the formation of public opinion is a very complex process as public opinion is not formed in an instant, but is a continuous process’ (p. 188). Anholt (2006) discusses the influence of public opinion within the framework of public diplomacy. When public opinion is embedded over time, it becomes myth. Short (1991, p. 3) emphasizes the use of myths in the image formation process, stating that they take a long time to be formed as, ‘myths are messages passed through ages and over the generations’. All the above mentioned authors thus recognize the length and complexity of the process of formation of images.

It is also recognized that images are created on the basis of wider background information; it is suggested by Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003, p. 39) that, ‘imagery has been defined by psychologists as a distinct way of processing and storing multisensory information in working memory. In essence, imagery processing depends upon more holistic or gestalt methods of representing information. This is often described a mental picturing’. On a similar note, it is further recognized by (Massey, 2006) that people actually use the background information they possess about the world to create their place images.

To what extent destination image formation processes can be generalized is, however, questionable. Friedman (1953), for example, in his text concerning mental imagery, mentions that the process of image formation is highly individual. Literary imagery thus
recognizes the uniqueness of image formation processes that differ for each individual. This is confirmed by Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003) who further comment that mental image formation is influenced by the imagination capacity of the individual. Some people are simply disinterested in a place, affecting their image of it. As Anholt (2011) states, the level of indifference towards destination matters as well: ‘my realistic discussion about the reputations of countries, cities and regions must take another, even more significant factor into account: the level of indifference which most people appear to feel about places other than their own’ (p.29).

It is often thought that images are largely created through visual stimuli. However, evidence to the contrary also exists. For example, in the literary image as image is created through the written word without visual representations. The formation of destination image has not yet been linked with literary imagery, even though it is an essential aspect of images of non-visitors. Friedman (1953) for example suggests that whilst one person may tend to visualize while they are reading, it is also evidenced that another person might focus on reading a text in a more auditory way, whilst another person might focus more on olfactory images and another may not have images at all (Friedman, 1953).

This leads to the question of whether images of non-visitors of different destinations are all formed in the same way. From a marketing point of view, Avraham (2000) suggests that there is a need to distinguish between a place with ´rich image´ and a ´one-dimensional image´, referring to the formation of these images. Places portrayed in the news with a rich image are places that receive coverage for a wide variety of subjects and events that occur within them. These include for example political and social events, thus having a complex influence on the image formation process.

On the other side, places with a one-dimensional image are those that receive coverage only when specific events take place within them, such as crime or disaster. When a place is labelled by the media as being one in which only a certain type of activity occurs, then such place becomes a symbol of such events (Avraham, 2000). It could be argued that the image formation of places with a one-dimensional image will be different to the image formation that will appear in regards to London, a multidimensional city.
2.3.2 Factors that influence destination image formation

There are various factors that shape the process of destination image formation. Image formation factors can be divided into supply and demand factors (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). In particular, the demand factors that influence the formation of a tourist image are considered to be motivations of the individual, psychological characteristics, personal experiences and others. The supply factors are, for example, tourist marketing, education or different types of media (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). This distinction between supply and demand factors is important for this study.

From a different angle, Baloglu and McLeary (1999) propose that psychological as well as sociological factors are important in image formation. As Baloglu and McLeary (1999, p. 870) put it, ‘three major determinants exist ... in the absence of actual visitation or previous experience: tourism motivations, socio-demographics, and various information sources. In this regard, the latter represent stimulus variables whereas motivations and socio-demographics stand for consumer characteristics’. This statement could also be seen in the light of supply and demand factors, as identified at the beginning of the paragraph, however with the first distinction made by Stabler (1988) cited in Jenkins, 1999) being more open to various other factors. Overall; it also needs to be stressed that neither of the above however focus specifically on non-visitors.

Within the demand factors, from a mental image perspective, prejudices and stereotypes play a key role in mental image formation. For example, Devine (1989) writes about the issue of prejudices and stereotypes that are art of destination images of non-visitors. She mentions that as long as the stereotypes exist, the prejudice will follow, meaning that prejudices are built on stereotypes. Devine (1989) then mentions another factor of influence, the personal beliefs of the individual. She also further stresses that even though these might have some overlapping features, stereotypes and personal beliefs are different concepts, as beliefs are ‘propositions that are endorsed and accepted as being true’ (Devine, 1989, p. 5). This means that stereotypical images might exist in the mind of an individual, without making them own belief.
From a public opinion formation perspective which can be applied to shared destination images, Sharma and Sharma (2004) mention that this concept is also influenced by another element, imitation. If people see other individuals holding the same position on some specific problem, they do the same as they think that the opinion must be truthful to an extent if those people hold that opinion. A number of other demand factors that have previously been linked with a country of residence or urbanisation of places are further reviewed in the next section – 2.4 and 2.5.

However, there are also many supply factors influencing destination image. Havel and Jánoška (2008) consider that the image of a country in general is influenced by a number of political, economic, as well as safety factors. They also point out that destinations are affected by seasonal factors and this forms seasonal images (Havel and Jánoška, 2008). From a geographical perspective that can be linked to shared destination image; Massey (2006, p. 49) comments on the factors influencing geographical imaginations by stating that, ‘issues of space, place and politics run deep. There is a long history of the entanglement of the conceptualization of space and place with the framing of political positions’. In terms of the supply factors, section 2.3.3 discusses the role of marketing destinations in image formation. In addition to these supply factors, as in the case of demand factors, other country and place-related factors that have previously been linked to the influence on destination image are further identified and discussed in depth in sections 2.4 and 2.5 of this chapter.

2.3.3 The role of destination marketing in image formation

Following on from the importance bestowed upon destination image, there is clear reasoning as to why destinations attempt to market themselves. Page and Hall (2003) emphasize that whilst the main aim of urban destination marketing is to attract expenditure from tourists, it also seeks to create employment within the tourism industry. Some argue that urban destination marketing can further attract investors. It is also recognized that those who invest in the wrong image of a destination are likely to lose their position (Bramwell and Rawding, 1996; Clarke, 2000). However; this competitiveness, especially amongst the capital cities is not new, as Maitland (2010b), on p. 2 recognizes, ‘national capitals have long displayed the rivalry, search for advantage and distinctiveness and emulation of competitors that now characterizes
almost all cities in a globalized and competitive era’. In fact, it is recognized that, ‘if a country wants to be admired, it has to be relevant, it has to participate usefully, productively and imaginatively in the global ‘conversations’ on the topics that matter to people elsewhere and everywhere; and the list is a long one’ (Anholt, 2011, p.30).

According to Morgan et al. (2011), branding a destination around its reputation is based around six different elements. In particular, these are the tradition of the destination, tolerance, talent, transformability, testimony as well as the tone of the destination. As the authors state on p.12, ‘a place’s tone (its ambience, the attitudes of its people, its heritage and narratives) is inseparable from a destination’s sense of place’. The tradition of the destination is another element to be considered, ‘this should not be a tradition which is merely static and preserved history, but one which is being constantly performed, engaged, renewed, reinterpreted, and augmented by new narratives which respond to and are engaged with making new socio-cultural forms’ (p.12). Another element is the tolerance of the destination. This is explained as ‘openness to difference, to new ideas, thinking, and ways of living’ (Morgan et al., 2011, p.13). They further consider talent, that, ‘supporting indigenous or incoming talented human capital is vital for any creative place seeking to enhance its economic or tourism competitiveness’ (p.14). In regards to transformability, Morgan et al. feel that, ‘a forward-looking destination simultaneously looks to embrace what is best in new practices and ways of living’ (Morgan et al., 2011, p.14). The last element included in the cycle of destination reputation management is testimonies, ‘stories told by tourists, students, residents and businesspeople of a destination’ (Morgan et al., 2011, p.15). It will be interesting to observe whether these elements are explored by participants in this study.

Who is the target of destination marketing varies. As Holcomb (1993) suggests, the key aim of the place marketer is to either induce a new image of the place or replace vague or negative images held by residents, investors as well as visitors. Avraham (2000) also distinguishes between three particular groups of individuals that can be affected by these images: the general public, decision-makers at national level and the residents of the place. Avraham (2000) further stresses the complexity of marketing places, stating that media portrayal holds implications for the positioning of places not only internationally, but also on a national level. However authors seem to agree on the necessity of building a variety of partnerships as well as alliances with different stakeholders - as is recognized for example by Uhrborn (2009).
Marketing of destinations is not as straightforward as marketing products. For example, Mundt (2002) suggests that the brand-relevant characteristics of goods, tourism services and destinations differ and that is why the branding concept can only be partly implemented in the destination marketing concept. Gartner (1996) emphasizes that for example it is not possible to sample a destination before the actual visit, as is the case with products. Mundt (2002) further states that destinations do not have identifiable producers and levels of services cannot be fully determined by the destination management organization as they are largely heterogeneous. The application of general marketing concepts to a destination therefore has limitations.

Evaluating the benefits of specific marketing campaigns of destinations is difficult. For example, King (2011) concludes in regards to a study of a North American leisure marketing campaign by Visit London that other types of information need to be examined in terms of who was actually exposed to the Visit London campaign in North America rather than just the exposure to the website: www.visitlondon.com (King, 2011, p. 38). Evaluating a marketing campaign is thus not easy – because of the above mentioned complexity of influencing views of a potential visitor. Overall, it can be summarized that there is a great wealth of information on marketing of destinations. However, as these do not constitute the primary focus of this study, only limited attention has been given to this issue.

2.3.4 The role of representation in image formation

Linked with the previous theme, representations are essential in the image formation process. Pritchard and Morgan (2001) for example suggest that it is important to understand the ways in which destinations are imaged through a variety of representations as they impact on how the places are perceived.

Place representation is key to place promotion. Place promotion through representations occurs on many different levels. Morgan (2008) suggests that this takes place on websites, in brochures, advertising – but also through tourist trails, travel journalists, as well as cinema commissioning agencies. The representations of a place are not homogenous (Choi et al., 2007). In particular, their study found that representations of
the destination vary largely according to different objectives of those who portray it (Choi et al., 2007).

Representations feed the images visitors produce of a destination; for example the photographs they take. Jenkins (2003) mentions that tourists reproduce the representations they were in contact with in their own photographs. And these then feed back to the brochures again, allowing representations to be reinforced constantly.

Representations can be seen through the lens of semiotics. According to Echtner (1999) communication of meaning can take place in its direct, indirect, intentional as well as unintentional forms. There are thus many elements that play a role in the production of a representation. For example, Fiske (1990, p. 1) explains, ‘signs ... are signifying constructs. Codes are systems into which signs are organized and which determine how signs may be related to each other’. Fiske (1990) then recognizes a message as a construction of signs that, whilst interacting with the receivers, produces meanings and that transmitting and receiving these signs is the main practice of social relationships. It could be argued that the signs and codes in the case of destination image largely depend on the language of the message, meaning the language of the representation.

Representations are the building stones of both organic as well as induced sources (these are both discussed in detail in the next section). In the case of induced images, destination marketers need to be mindful that even though the representations of destinations can be understood, individuals might interpret the messages differently. It is suggested by MacKay and Fesenmayer (1997, p. 560) that their study ‘raises several implications for practice in the area of destination image marketing. First, visuals for destination image marketing selected by organizational officials (e.g. chambers of commerce, convention and visitor bureaus, and park management and staff) who are familiar with the destination are likely to be interpreted differently by potential market audiences who may have no experience with the destination’. Del Bosque and San Martín (2008) suggest that the authenticity of representations is important to the tourism industry as it influences the experience of the tourist at the destination and any consequent changes in the destination image they hold.

Some believe that there is often a conflict between media sources and other messages, recognizing that the projected destination image should be not too distant from the
reality and be believable (Kotler et al. 1993; Ashworth and Goodall, 1995; Selby, 2004). It is thus important to represent the destination in a way that is credible and that can be understood by the target market.

Many of the representations formed are influenced by politics. Within the literature on social and historical images, representations of era have been discussed by academics such as Duncan and Lee (1993). It could be argued that it is not only about how places are represented, but what is being represented as well as, most importantly, what is not being represented. Representation has been previously linked with political identity of a place. For example, Hall (1997) points out that the representation of a place actually reflects its identity. McClinclheycy (2008) emphasized that it is the political forces behind the development of representations and stakeholders’ finances that mainly impact on the way a place promotes itself.

The representation of the identities of a place was commented on by Massey (2004), who emphasized that the representation of identity is often in conflict. This is in line with what Meethan (1996) wrote, that images do not exist only in a singular form as the actual existence of a number of images of the same place is created through political powers. Massey (2006) further detangles the role of power in the formation of place images - she suggests that, ‘we can also examine how such imaginations are produced, whether ... through the nexus of powerful international media conglomerates or the persistent imagery deployed in local conversations’ (Massey, 2006, p. 48). She thus also emphasizes the role of politics in the formation of representation; the geographical approach to image formation is discussed in more detail later on in this chapter.

It is of interest to this study that Iwashita (2006) investigated specific media representations of the United Kingdom for Japanese tourists. Her study suggests that a number of cultural representations were found to be significant to tourists to the United Kingdom. In particular, these were the film Harry Potter and the Philosopher’s Stone, Beatrix Potter’s Peter Rabbit book, and finally the Sherlock Holmes television series.

Representations produced independently of destinations are also important (Smith, 2005). In fact, there are many Czech organic images of London, some of which were produced in London and some in the Czech Republic. Although organic images of
London have been conveyed by a variety of Czech writers, artists, politicians and historians, to date these have not been researched empirically. It will be interesting to investigate which organic images will appear in this study. It can be summarized that the representations of places are essential to the image formation process. Those who create representations, for example artists, have a special ability to facilitate ‘vicarious insideness’ (Relph, 176). In particular, Relph (1976) writes, ‘it is possible to experience places in a secondhand or vicarious way, that is, without actually visiting them, yet for this experience to be one of a deeply felt involvement...The degree to which we are transported and the identity of those places to which we are transported depends presumably both on the artist’s skills of description and on our own imaginative and empathetic inclinations. But possibly vicarious insideness is most pronounced when the depiction of a specific place corresponds with our experiences of familiar places – we know what it is like to be there because we know what it is like to be here’ (Relph, 1976, p.52-53). The above mentioned concept of vicarious insideness is particularly important for this study. Overall, it can be summarized that representations are essential in the image formation process. However, it should be stressed that representations as such are not the key focus of this study which is why they have not been given more attention in this literature review.

2.3.5 Sources of destination images
The type of image sources used by individuals clearly influences their destination images - for example, Frías et al. (2008) conclude that the type of information used by an individual actually influences the nature of the image held. In particular, in their case study it was evidenced that the destination image is worse when tourists use a travel agency and the Internet combined than when they use a travel agency alone before visitation.

A number of image sources are discussed in the literature. Reynolds (1965, cited in Echtner and Brent Ritchie, 2003 p. 38) for example suggests that the formation of a destination image is ‘the development of a mental construct based upon a few impressions chosen from a flood of information. In the case of destination image, this flood of information has many sources, including promotional literature (travel brochures, posters), the opinion of others (family, friends, travel agents) and the general media (newspapers, magazines, television, books, movies). Furthermore, by
Actually visiting the destination, its image will be affected and modified based upon first-hand information and experience’. Robinson (2002) writes that literature can be linked with destination image, however also that the role of literature has been largely neglected.

As discussed in the previous section on literary imagery, Ziolkowski (1981, cited in Stambovsky, 1988) points out that all of these types of imagery can be evoked by a novel or a poem, or other type of written text. More recently, Govers et al. (2007b) identify the following additional sources of images, the Internet, pictures, and imagination. Even though their list includes a number of sources that were not included in previous studies, it is questionable as to whether such a list is exhaustive.

It can be observed that recently, additional image sources have been identified. The fact that Govers et al. (2007b) mention imagination as a source of image is important. Roth (2007) mentions that imagination, as such, is one of the distinctive characteristics of human thinking. The concept of imagination is rarely discussed in regards to destination image formation. Regarding the formation of image of a country, according to Kotler and Gertner (2002) this results from features such as art, music, famous citizens, geography as well as history. Presumably, this can be applied to destination image as well. Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003) summarize that destination image formed prior to visitation is created merely by mediated information sources. Whether all sources are mediated in the case of this study will be subjected to scrutiny through the primary research of this thesis.

Regarding the nature of the sources of image, Govers and Go (2009) suggest that temporal influences, meaning those sources that have influence for only a limited amount of time, also need to be considered in the image formation process. However, the question lies if all sources are not, in a way, temporal.

Gunn (1972, cited in Selby, 2004) defines the concepts of induced and organic images which influence the overall image a person holds of a destination. These are further classified by Gartner (1993). Induced images include commercial sources of information that are conveyed deliberately through marketing, whereas organic images are created mainly based on the advice and experience of family and friends, literature and education, in an unintentional manner. Nowadays, however, such classification of
images is debatable as Smith (2005) suggests that public relations activities today are so sophisticated that the border between induced and autonomous imagery is blurred. It will be investigated whether the list of all the above mentioned sources is complete, through the primary research of this project.

There are many issues with the effectiveness of sources perceived as induced. Previous studies have shown a negligible importance of induced images, to the surprise of destination marketers. However, it needs to be emphasized that these studies were based on post-visit images that entailed experience of the destination (e.g. Beerli and Martín 2004). The results of their primary research showed that the induced sources had a negligible impact on the cognitive first time image, in particular they stated the following, ‘induced sources related to brochures provided by the destination’s public authorities, tour-operators’ brochures, advertising campaigns, and the Internet had no significant influence on the different factors of the cognitive first-time image’ (Beerli and Martín, 2004, p. 676). Even though such findings may relate to sampling strategies adopted, clearly they question the role of destination marketing in itself, at least in its traditional sense.

On the other hand, Beerli and Martín (2004) conclude that organic sources actually determine the image of the destination. Also, they have further suggested that word of mouth was considered the most believable communication channel. They further suggest that, as organic images scored highly in the influence of individuals’ views of the destination, any manipulation of the image actually needs to be consistent with the reality as if it is not, once visiting, the individuals will know and, on return, then diffuse negative word of mouth views about the destination (Beerli and Martín, 2004).

The believability of image sources is raised by Crompton (1979, p. 23) who states that, ‘the volume of information and the superior credibility of this source (news media image) effectively serve to make such stimuli dominant over any stimuli emanating from a tourist agency which frequently is perceived to be a biased advocate’. Of interest, Govers et al. (2007b) also suggest that promotion does not actually seem to have a great influence on the images of travellers, as other sources proved to be much more important. It can be summarized that a number studies confirmed that sources that are perceived as induced by participants are of a negligible importance to images of non-visitors.
2.3.6 Summary

As pointed out previously in regards to destination image itself, it can be summarized that little has been written about the actual process as well as the nature of destination image formation. These were discussed and linked with wider concepts at the beginning of this section. The various factors that influence destination image formation were reviewed and were divided into supply and demand factors. The role of marketing destinations in image formation was critically evaluated. The role of representation in the image formation process was then discussed as well as the sources of image that appeared in existing studies, potentially leaving room for other new sources that have not yet been recognized in the past studies, by conducting this exploratory study. It has been found that existing studies mostly use structured methodologies to test mediated image sources.

This section attempted to broaden the traditionally reviewed theoretical base in regards to destination image formation of non-visitors as it is acknowledged that, as with the previous section on image, a great number of other image-related concepts from other disciplines could be applicable to destination image formation. Some additional concepts are, inevitably, still to be covered by future studies. In addition to merely investigating the image formation as such, this thesis will also investigate how place of residence as well as country of residence influences destination image formation, in particular, which factors, linked with the place and country of residence, influence these images and, more importantly, how they influence them. A detailed discussion of the theory underpinning these following two research questions is contained in sections 2.4 and section 2.5 of this chapter.
2.4 The influence of country of residence on destination images

This section of the literature review discusses theory underpinning the influence of country of residence on destination images and their formation. In particular, it reviews factors that have previously been associated with the country of residence as well as linked to the influence on destination image. Firstly, a brief introductory debate on localization and globalization of social processes takes place. Then the importance of country segmentation in destination imagery is emphasized. Following there is a section on the country of residence as a mix of place-related factors.

This section critically evaluates factors that have been linked with the influence of country of residence on destination images even marginally, or linked to similar concepts from a variety of social sciences. These factors are then reviewed separately in individual sections. Firstly, supply factors that have been previously linked to destination image are discussed; in particular these are politics and history of the country. Then demand factors are reviewed, in particular these are culture as a country-related factor, perceived distance of the imagined destination from the place of residence as well as travel attitudes of the Czechs.

2.4.1 Localisation and globalisation of social processes

The enquiries of this thesis relate to wider debates on localization and globalization of social processes. There are numerous definitions of globalisation. For example, Giddens (1990) states that ‘globalisation can ...be defined as the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa’ (p.64). He then presents four key dimensions of globalisation. In particular, these are the nation-state system, world capitalist economy, world military order and lastly the international division of labour (Giddens, 1990). Despite the recent focus on globalisation, the notion that place still matters in the formation of social processes is embedded in geography. Geographers, in particular Massey (2004) who is an expert on geographical
imaginations, argue that place still significantly influences social processes (Massey, 2004).

The question of whether people hold local shared destination images or global shared destination images is at the top of current, and not exclusively tourism-related, debate. However, this debate is not easy to answer, as Hall (1997) suggests that globalization and localization cannot be separated, as both concepts operate on the same continuum, in line with Massey’s (1994) comments on the nature of the local and the global, ‘the global is in the local in the very process of the formation of the local’ (p.120).

However, it is also important to consider the counterarguments in a greater detail. For example, McNeill (1999) suggests that the current era is characterized by globalization, digital divide and a change in the distribution of information. It is also recognized that the differences between places have become increasingly blurred (McNeill, 1999). McLuhan, author of the ‘Global Village’ concept, writes that the technology has radically changed the lives of humans in that it is increasingly becoming more global (McLuhan, 1962). Also mobility today is more complex than it used to be (McNeill, 1999; Abrahamson, 2004; Hall, 2005). Abrahamson (2004) then emphasizes that such changes are due to modern communications and the internationalization of economic activity. It could be argued that, as a consequence of these changes, the relationship between country and a specific place of residence and destination image formation might be standardising. This thesis aims to examine the ways how do country and place of residence influence destination image and its formation.

An argument exists as to who is truly influenced by globalisation. Giddens (1990) states that, ‘whoever studies cities today, in any part of the world, is aware that what happens in a local neighbourhood is likely to be influenced by factors – such as world money and commodity markets – operating at an indefinite distance away from that neighbourhood itself’ (p.64). Massey (1994) on the other side makes a very important point that not all individuals are equally affected by this globalisation. In fact, she states, ‘different social groups, and different individuals, are placed in very distinct ways in relation to these flows and interconnections...Different social groups have distinct relationships to this anyway differentiated mobility: some people are more in charge of it than others; some initiate flows and movement, others don’t; some are more on the
receiving-end of it than others; some are effectively imprisoned by it’ (p.149). The social differentiation is further mentioned by Cartier (2005) in regards to seductiveness of a place, a concept discussed earlier on in relation to affective destination images. She also emphasizes that it varies for different groups of individuals - and points out that all have different relation to the local as well as global.

Debates about absence, presence and tourism are also relevant to this research. As Giddens (1990) states, ‘in pre-modern societies, space and place largely coincide, since the dimensions of social life are, for most of the population, and in most respects, dominated by ‘presence’ – by localised activities. The advent of modernity increasingly tears away space away from place by fostering relations between ‘absent’ others, locationally distant from any given situation of face – to-face interaction. In conditions of modernity, place becomes phantasmagoric: that is to say, locales are thoroughly penetrated by and shaped in terms of social influences quite distant from them’ (p.18-19). Shields (1992b) also focuses on the concepts of absence and presence whilst recognizing the graduality and individuality of the changes that are reflected in the everyday experiences. These concepts are further discussed by Massey (1994). Massey (1994) criticises these concepts, ‘the strong distinction which Giddens and Jameson make between presence and absence (...) raise more questions about their assumptions of the directness of face-to-face communication than about the impact of distance on interpretation...geography makes a difference...but ‘presence-availability’ does not somehow do away with issues of representation and interpretation.’ (Massey, 1994, p.164). These concepts are relevant to this study, as they help understanding the relationship between a place of residence and individuals. Secondly, they also concern the discussion about global/local aspects of destination image formation process.

2.4.2 Country segmentation and destination images

Country of residence of individuals was considered as a factor in a number of previous destination image studies. It is recognized in the existing literature on destination image that country of residence of non-visitors has an impact on the destination image. For example, Richards and Wilson (2004) identify that multiple images of a place across different countries are possible. However, there are also other studies that consider geographical segmentation on the basis of countries in regards to the image of the examined destination. Prebensen (2007), for example, also mention that her own research shows some variance amongst images held by participants of different
countries. Ryan and Pike (2003) recognize that the image held domestically is different to images held by the international market. Beerli and Martín (2004) also emphasize that the country of origin affects destination images. It is pointed out by Yilmaz et al. (2009) that there is the need to investigate destination image in the tourist generating country rather than in the destination itself, strengthening rationale for this thesis.

Some authors suggest that the tourist’s country of origin provides a key basis for segmenting visitor markets. They write about the importance of such segmentation for a marketing strategy. One of them is, for example, Reid and Stanley (1997). They believe that there is a clear reasoning behind employing such segmentations based on country of origin as it results in appropriately focusing the tourism marketing strategy. In fact, Oppermann (1997) emphasizes that geography is actually the most important variable in market segmentation and tourism marketing approaches. Of interest to this study is also the work by Shanka and Phau (2008) that focuses upon non-visitors to Mauritius, and compares the images held by non-visitors with different backgrounds in terms of their country of origin. Shanka and Phau (2008) conclude similarly that it is important for destination marketers to tailor destination marketing to tourist generating countries, as the images held by potential tourists will differ significantly depending on where they come from, impacting on their levels of expectation if they decide to visit the destination.

It could be summarized that a number of destination image studies have taken into consideration country of residence of non-visitors as a variable. Resulting data has often shown that there is a clear difference between images from different countries. Such studies however rarely went under the surface to investigate the contributing factors as to how an individual’s country of residence actually influences their destination images, and the formation of those images. The need to conduct such an investigation provides a clear rationale for the third research question which this section relates to.

2.4.3 Politics as a country-related factor

Politics is one of the supply factors that impacts on destination image and its formation - Ryan and Pike (2003) for example consider that images of a destination are a result of wider political issues. Politics indirectly influences the provision of information sources within the country; it is also considered that tourist experiences, along with other types of information, influence the image an individual holds of a place, and that is why
images are different in different countries (Prebensen, 2007). The political influences are complex - as Massey (2004, p. 1) puts it, ‘issues of space, place and politics run deep’.

As Anholt (2006) points out, there is a link between destination image and diplomacy. He mentions about public diplomacy that it is ‘clearly a component of nation branding: it is concerned with presenting one aspect of national activity, while nation branding attempts to harmonise policy, people, sport and culture, products, tourism, trade and investment promotion and talent recruitment’ (p.271). He (Anholt, 2006) further mentions on the account of public diplomacy that, ‘it is only when public diplomacy is carried out in coordination with the full complement of national stakeholders as well as the main policy makers, and all are linked through effective brand management to a single, long-term national strategy, that the country has a real chance of affecting its image and making it into a competitive asset’ (p.274).

An obvious link between politics and place image is the restrictions governments place on access to and from certain countries. No visa restrictions currently exist to restrict travel to Britain from the Czech Republic. In terms of passport and visa issues, Czech visitors do not require a visa to visit the United Kingdom (Visit Britain, 2010b).

However, it was not always like that as there were visa restrictions in the recent past. Regarding the opposite direction, Hughes and Allen (2009) suggest that since 2004 there has been an increase in tourism inflows, in particular from the United Kingdom. They further stress that tourists are more spatially dispersed in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe after these countries accessed the European Union.

2.4.4 History as a country-related factor

In regards to image, another element considered by only a few academics as having influence on destination images, is history. The role of history is not often mentioned in destination imagery, but Shields (1992a) recognizes that place images, and the views of them, are produced through history. History is clearly strongly linked to a specific country – for example Kavan and Palouš (2002) suggest that the first republic, an independent Czechoslovakian state which appeared on the map of Europe after the dissolution of the Austrian-Hungarian Empire in 1918, was a well-functioning
economy. However, a series of historic events then occurred and communism took over for a long period of time.

Tourism was long restricted in the Czech Republic and Williams and Baláž (2001) suggest that during socialism, tourism was very much affected by the communist ideology. Outbound tourism was restricted to a great extent, except for some collective international provision in the economic block - during communism; individuals were closely controlled by the state (Williams and Baláž, 2001). In terms of tourism in post-communist states, it has been found that there is a neglect of tourism research after the revolution in Central and Eastern Europe (Williams and Baláž, 2001), providing a further rationale for this study.

Berka et al. (2008) write that the social and political change that followed the ‘Velvet Revolution’ in 1989 had a great impact on all aspects of Czech society. This also includes the system of education which was liberated almost instantly. According to Hughes and Allen (2005), a number of countries in Central as well as Eastern Europe, the Czech Republic being one of them, emerged from one-party governments in the late 1980s and beginning of the 1990s. These countries are not all the same as they have different geographies histories and economies, as well as different cultural developments. Regarding the period after the revolution, Hall (2008) suggests that the transformation of the former communist states was programmed to change these countries into Western democracies. According to Molloy (2008), communism is however still a key feature in Czech society, and one that might take a long time to change. The episodes from history that could have possibly shaped the national, shared image of London by Czech tourists will be investigated in the primary research.

2.4.5 Culture as a country-related factor

The first of the demand-related factors that has been previously linked with destination image as well as related concepts is culture. Fisher (1997), for example, suggests that anthropologists established a link between culture and perception of the world a long time ago. The influence of culture on destination image was also pointed out by San Martín and del Bosque (2008) who emphasize the influence of cultural values on images that individuals have of a tourist destination before visiting it. It is recognized that there is a link between culture of the nation and images of individuals. In the
context of the Czech Republic, the country is interlinked with the Czech culture, as the multicultural levels in this country are low – the overall proportion of foreigners in the Czech Republic is, according to ČSÚ (2006), only 2.5%.

Cultural distance can be seen as differences in elements of culture, as Hall and Hall (1990) acknowledge, various cultures do not have the same values and laws, and even concepts such as time and space differ to a great extent in each culture. Hall (2005) suggests that the understanding of space and time in culture is basic to tourism mobility. Hall (1997) details that culture is about shared meanings and it can be argued that images are formed on the basis of meanings.

A key element of any culture then is also the language; it has been recognized that language is the medium by which individuals actually understand the world (Hall, 1997). Hall (1997) then sees language as central to the meaning of any concepts and emphasizes that it is a part of culture. On a similar note, it has also been recognized that the specific representation through language is then essential to the processes by which meanings are produced (Hall, 1997). As mentioned previously, Fiske (1990) also recognizes that in semiotics a message is a construction of signs that creates meanings. He further writes that the language an individual communicates is then highly important for the recipient. Regarding the knowledge of languages in the Czech Republic, according to Eurobarometer (2006), 24% of Czech residents speak English, 28% of the population speaks German, 20% speak Russian in addition to their mother tongue and 98% speak Czech. It is then argued that even the sources people are, or potentially could be, influenced by differ according to languages they know.

Differences between the Czech and British cultures are a factor irrelevant to destination image in the context of this study. There are differences between British and Czech cultures but there are only a few sources that have empirically investigated these actual differences. Such a study was conducted by Hofstede (2010) who believes that a culture has some key attributes that can be quantified with the use of attitudinal scales. He conducted his primary research on cultural values in a wide range of countries, including the United Kingdom and the Czech Republic. The specific attributes of culture that were investigated were the following: power distance index, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance index and long-term orientation. These terms are
further explained in the following paragraphs and the results of the study are also presented.

Individualism was the first variable of culture that was identified by Hofstede (2010). The results from his study then show that the Czechs are more collectivist than those in the United Kingdom. Hofstede (2010) further suggests that, in individualist societies, everyone is expected to look after themselves whereas in collectivist societies individuals are part of an extended family. This could have implications for shared destination images with regards to with who individuals actually share their travel experiences with.

Another attribute, power distance index, as mentioned by Hofstede (2010), is how much the less powerful members expect the power to be distributed unequally. Hofstede (2010) then states that the Czechs expect power to be distributed more equally than individuals in the United Kingdom. Masculinity is another key cultural attribute, as identified by Hofstede (2010). It refers to the distribution of roles between the genders. There was not that much difference between the two countries in this aspect. Another attribute identified by Hofstede (2010) is long term orientation meaning that cultures which possess this attribute tend to be more inclined towards perseverance. Both cultures scored similarly in this aspect. The last aspect of culture, as identified by Hofstede (2010), was uncertainty avoidance index. Uncertainty avoiding cultures try to minimize the possibility of uncertainty by imposing strict laws as opposed to being more tolerant of opinions different from those they themselves have. In this aspect, there was a large difference between the scores of individuals from the two different countries. The Czech Republic was found to be a much more uncertainty avoiding country, which perhaps may even have an impact on the actual decision to travel to a destination and their insecurities, whereas the United Kingdom was found to be a more tolerant country.

Surprisingly, Hofstede’s (2010) work is not often linked with tourism literature even though cultural differences are a basis for tourism. These attributes of culture and their comparisons might highlight the relativity of the imagined place and question the validity of generalised tourism research. It needs to be stressed that Hofstede’s (2010) scores were gained through a quantitative approach, in particular an attitudinal
questionnaire. A potential downside of the data is that as cultures are evolving, these findings may no longer represent a realistic picture of those cultures.

It could then be argued that, because of cultural reasons, the images by Czechs of the outside world are specific in comparison with other cultures. Englund (2009) for example writes that the Czech perception of the outer world is influenced by many stereotypes because of the long period of isolation behind the Iron Curtain. He (Englund, 2009) further states that the Czechs have a deeply rooted sense of equality in that everyone should have and think the same – and this could possibly be applied to images of places as well.

2.4.6 Perceived distance as a country-related factor

Another demand-related factor that has been previously linked with the influence on destination image is the perceived distance between countries. For example, it has been acknowledged that distance from the destination has an impact on image creation of a destination (Crompton, 1979; Frochot and Leghoerel, 2007). The location of the country determines the distance. However; Hall (2005) stresses that individuals actually imagine within relative spaces that are not consistent with metric properties, that there is a difference between the actual and perceived distance. Hall (2005) suggests that perceived distance is essential in tourism generally. The findings of Dadgostar and Isotalo (1992) show that perceived distance has an impact on travel behaviour. Walmsley and Jenkins (1992) similarly suggest that a great difference exists between a distance measured in objective terms (such as kilometres for example) and the distance perceived by individuals.

Frochot and Leghoerel (2007) further acknowledge that, with increasing distance, the image is less precise and there is often more confusion about it. It has been acknowledged that the further the country’s culture and distance is from another, the less precise the image. Frochot and Leghoerel (2007) also emphasize that the physical distance does not necessarily need to correspond to the cultural distance. For example tourists from Anglo-Saxon countries tend to know more about the countries that are historically and culturally closer to them (countries such as United Kingdom, United States, Australia and New Zealand). As an element of image, perceived distance also depends on the country of residence. As perceived distance is a part of image, it will be
interesting to see whether participants mention it in their responses in the primary research, and in which context as well.

2.4.7 Travel attitudes of the Czechs as a country-related factor

Travel attitudes and experiences of individuals are another demand-related factor that influences destination image (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). The travel attitudes of the Czechs are country-specific, as evidenced by Eurobarometer (2009). For example, when respondents were asked to define the primary information source they used when choosing a holiday destination, word of mouth recommendations were more pronounced in the Czech Republic than in any other European country. Overall, 64% of Czech respondents used word of mouth and 28% of all respondents stated it as the most important source (Eurobarometer, 2009).

The use of the Internet in reference to travel destination was low in the Czech Republic compared to other member states (Eurobarometer, 2009). Personal experience was relevant to 42% of all the European respondents while it was the most important to 29% of Czech respondents (Eurobarometer, 2009). This was perhaps because they do not have much personal experience as a result of the various travel restrictions before 1989 or, possibly due to other types of restrictions such as financial ones.

Travel and tourist agencies played an important role in 13% of European Union cases while it is the most important factor for just 7% of Czechs. It is stated in the report that there is a division between pre- and post-2004 member states in that respondents in states which joined the European Union in 2004 or later were significantly less likely to rely on travel agents to assist in their holiday planning (Eurobarometer, 2009).

Then there are travel-attitudes of the Czechs in regards to the United Kingdom in particular. The Czech market of visitors as those who diffuse images by word of mouth is thus important to destination image, as destination image is influenced by word of mouth (2007a). This section builds on a study by Visit Britain (2010b). Even though it does not focus on London, but on the United Kingdom generally, it is of great interest to this thesis. This study (Visit Britain, 2010b) suggests that the purpose of an actual visit by the Czechs to London was 42% business, 29% holiday and 22% visiting friends and relatives. In terms of what motivates them to visit, 60% of visitors went to museums and
galleries, more than half did shopping, and pubs, castles and parks were also often states (Visit Britain, 2010b).

Even though images of London held by the Czechs have not previously been researched empirically, some studies have been conducted of Czech images of the United Kingdom in general, held by a mix of visitors and non-visitors. In the report by Visit Britain (2010b), the online research carried out on potential visitors in the Czech Republic in 2005 was mentioned which focused on the perceptions of Britain in general. It has been found that, in addition to strong heritage and cultural dimensions, the Czech respondents also perceived Britain to be modern and offering many different experiences. The natural scenic beauty of Britain was pointed out and generally it was stated that the Czechs see Britain as a traditional destination with a lot of character and interesting history and heritage. However; it needs to be pointed out that some attributes such as ‘energetic’ and ‘fun’ were rated rather low.

Visit Britain (2010b) also state that another country image study was conducted, the Anholt-GMI Nation Brands Index (Wave 2, 2007), which was an online quantitative survey of 500 Czech individuals. It consisted of a number of questions that ‘compared 38 countries as Nation Brands’ (Visit Britain, 2010b, p.10). In particular, ‘the UK was ranked by Czechs as the country they would most like to have a close friend from. Czechs would be positive about employing a UK national (rank 5th), but they would not be overwhelmingly confident of getting a warm welcome if they visited the UK (rank 16th)’ (Visit Britain, 2010b, p.10). It will be interesting to find out whether some of these characteristics will be mentioned by participants in this exploratory study in regards to London in particular.

2.4.8 Summary

It can be summarized that country of residence influences image through many different factors. In this section, the factors that have been previously linked, even marginally, to destination image and its formation, as well as to country of residence, were reviewed. In particular, both types, supply as well as demand factors, were reviewed.

As emphasized previously, there is a lack of qualitative research in the destination image area of study that would investigate this topic in depth, thus it will be the aim of
this study to clarify the ways in which a country of residence influences destination image and its formation, in the context of the Czech Republic. It is possible that other factors will be uncovered through the primary research of this thesis. In addition, a number of factors that are associated with place of residence that will be critically analysed in the following section - 2.5, could also possibly be linked with the influence of country of residence – and vice versa.
2.5 The influence of a place of residence on destination images

This section reviews the influence of a specific place of residence on destination images.

It needs to be re-emphasized that this thesis examines images of those living in places with different degrees of urbanization. Urbanisation as a concept is discussed first, as it is one of the key concepts of this study. Then urbanization of place of residence in the specific context of the Czech Republic is reviewed. The factors that have previously been linked to urbanisation as well as the influence on destination image are the key focus of this section. As any theory that would evidence in-depth the influence of place of residence on destination image is also scarce, this section will critically evaluate factors that have influenced, even marginally, not only destination images but other similar concepts as well.

Urbanization, as such, has been previously discussed in regards to destination image studies, but from a different angle. Bigné Alcañiz et al. (2009), for example, suggest that urbanization is one aspect that forms part of the cognitive image of a destination; it is seen as one of the attributes of the imagined destination. It is thus possible that the degree of urbanisation one resides in influences this urbanisation image attribute, but it is yet to be confirmed empirically.

2.5.1 Urbanisation as a concept

Urbanisation is defined by Tisdale (1942, p. 1) as ‘a process of population concentration’. Williams (1973) notes that the contrast between the country and the city has its origins in classical times. He furthers his discussion by suggesting that there is a wide range of settlements between the traditional poles of the country and the city. The UN (2004, cited in Hall, 2006) states that today the world is more urbanized than in the past and the rate of urbanization is still increasing. Currently about 48 per cent of the world’s population live in urban areas, approximately three billion individuals. Throughout history the number of people living in cities has increased from one billion in the 1960s, to two billion in 1985 and three billion in 2002. The projections are set to rise to five billion by 2030. However, it should also be noted that most of the growth is
expected to take place within developing countries rather than in developed countries (UN, 2004 cited in Hall, 2006). It is also interesting that, whilst urbanization is increasing, cities still occupy only one per cent of overall land surface (Grubler, 1994 cited in Hall, 2006).

The rural–urban dichotomy itself is not straightforward in the existing literature. Williams (1973) points out that the idea of ‘a village’ shows a wide variation. For the purposes of this study it is not just the dichotomy between the country and the city that is analysed, as a third element is included as well. In addition to the metropolitan case study area and rural/small town case study area, a large town case study area was added, in line with what is suggested by Hugo (1987, cited in Champion and Hugo, 2005) who discusses the need for the introduction of a third category to the rural-urban dichotomy.

It is always debatable who to include in these particular categories. For example, Madaleno and Gurovich (2004) suggest that commuters should be considered as a special group in research of urban and rural areas.

For the purposes of this study, a categorization by Anderson (2004) is applied. In this thesis, the first case study area includes the metropolitan area composed by city as well as its suburbs. The second case study area is a large town. A distinction is however not being made between villages and small towns and open countryside, they are all incorporated into the third case study area.

2.5.2 Urbanization of place of residence in the context of the Czech Republic

The post-communist context plays a significant role in the selection of the Czech Republic as a case study as rural and urban settings were differentiated to a great extent after the political shift in 1989 (Jasmand and Stiller, 2005). A relatively recent paper by Schucksmith et al. (2009) examines the issues that newly acceded countries experience in terms of their rural and urban differences. An analysis of the European Quality of Life Survey concludes that the 12 richer European Union members demonstrate minimal differences between their rural and urban areas. Further, the differences between urban and rural areas become greater the poorer the country. The poorest countries have the more pronounced urban–rural differences which not only encompass economic differences, but differences in some social aspects as well (Schucksmith et al., 2009).
The urbanisation of the Czech Republic is described in a study by Williams and Baláž (2001) who stress that as early as 1900 many differences were beginning to emerge in the structure between rural and urban populations, in what was going to become the Czech and Slovak Republics. Urbanization in the Czech Republic went through a number of phases and, by the 1950s, 40.7% of Czechs lived within an urban area. Williams and Baláž (2001) further mention that not much had changed by the early 1960s. However, in the second half of the 1960s, urbanization increased to 52.4% in the Czech territory and by the 1980s it was 63.8% (Williams and Baláž, 2001).

Anderson (2004) recognizes that, of the states that joined the European Union in May 2004, to which the Czech Republic belongs, 7% of the population live in the open countryside, 41% in a village or small town, 29% in a medium or large town and 23% in a city or city suburb. The differences between rural and urban areas are specific with a certain level of communication, connection to the outer world and level of mobility. As stated in the previous section, this classification was adopted in this thesis and a difference is not being made between villages and small towns and open countryside as these are all included in the third case study area.

However, it needs to be acknowledged that the choice in regards to selecting places with different degrees of urbanisation is not easy to make. Maříková (2007), an expert on rurality in the Czech Republic, suggests that when researching the rural population it is difficult to address the enquiry as to where the countryside actually begins and ends. She emphasizes that this particular question is not simple as it is an issue related, not only to different disciplines, but to different legislation too.

Maříková (2007) stresses that each of the research disciplines actually follows the concept of the countryside from a different point of view and uses its own definition. Some criteria are specific to the Czech Republic whilst others are used internationally. There is no unified definition, neither in the Czech Republic nor the European Union, researchers refer only to statistical data and it is not clear as to which countryside area they are relating it to. Maříková (2007) further stresses the need for unification. According to ČSÚ (2007), to define the term ‘countryside’ in the Czech Republic is, then, an issue in itself.
2.5.3 Urbanization as a mix of place-related factors

The impact of urbanization can be viewed as impacts of the following factors, as suggested by Champion and Hugo (2004), the following: economy, occupational structure, educational levels and provision, accessibility to services, accessibility to information, demography, ethnicity and migration levels. In Table 2.2 below, some stereotypical differences are evident between the rural and urban populations (Hugo, 1987 cited in Champion and Hugo, 2005).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place-related factors</th>
<th>Urban environment</th>
<th>Rural environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational levels and provision</td>
<td>Higher than national averages in educational levels</td>
<td>Lower than national averages in educational levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility to services</td>
<td>High accessibility to services</td>
<td>Low accessibility to services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility to information</td>
<td>High accessibility to information sources</td>
<td>Low accessibility to information sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>Dominated by tertiary and secondary economy</td>
<td>Mainly primary economy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>Varied ethnicity</td>
<td>More homogenous ethnicity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2: Table displaying some stereotypical place-related factors
(source: adapted from Champion and Hugo, 2004).

Clearly, it needs to be acknowledged that this section and the previous section 2.4 are interlinked. It is argued that, in addition to these factors, some of the factors reviewed in the previous section in regards to the influence of country of residence might be applicable to the influence of a specific place of residence as well.

2.5.4 Education as a place-related factor

Education is one of the stereotypical place-related factors (Champion and Hugo, 2004). It is also an important demand-related factor that impacts on the formation of
destination image (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). Anderson (2004) notes that some of the implications of urbanization in the 2004 European Union accession states are that more residents within urban areas have a university degree compared with their rural counterparts. Maříková (2007) considers that, dating back from the Middle Ages until today, there is an image of the Czech Republic countryside as being seen as a backwards area, where the population is neither educated nor civilized and cultural. Maříková (2007) further considers that the educational structure of rural inhabitants is different to that of the urban population. This particular concept is studied in rural sociology as well as the sociology of villages and towns (Maříková, 2007).

Education can also be linked to the ‘capitalness’ of the place of residence. The current debate on capital cities and ‘capitalness’ suggests, that further research into capital cities is needed (Ritchie and Maitland, 2007). Education, as an element of the cultural capital, is linked to not only a place, but ‘capitalness’ of the place. Bourdieu (1984) suggests that there has, traditionally, been a lower level of cultural capital within the countryside than in the capital city. In terms of the capital city dimension, the degree of urbanization and how it affects the level of cultural capital of a place will also be investigated. Elsewhere, Fisher (1978) suggests that when innovations emerge, there is a gap between metropolitan places and smaller places in how fast they actually adopt these innovations, and this could also be linked with information provision.

Education is also linked with the different use of information sources across the three case study areas. For example, the Eurobarometer (2009) suggests that those with higher levels of education were more inclined to refer to for example online information, with 49% of the most educated respondents preferring online information compared to just 19% of those with lower levels of education (Eurobarometer, 2009).

Education also encompasses the knowledge of foreign language, in this case the English language. As discussed previously, not everyone in the Czech Republic speaks English (Eurobarometer, 2006). This fact has implications for this study as a number of information sources on London are written in English.

2.5.5 Economy as a place-related factor
Economy is one of the demand-related factors influencing destination image (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). It is also one of the place-related factors linked with urbanisation (Champion and Hugo, 2004). Jasmand and Stiller (2005) point out that in the newly accessed states of the European Union the capital cities are the leading economic centres that dominate the economic development of individual countries.

Sýkora (2006) suggests that the most relevant changes in terms of social structure since the revolution in the Czech Republic occurred in Prague in 1989, noting that other cities did not hold such a prominent position. Sýkora (2006) suggests that the capital city of Prague holds a special economic position as it is the only city within the Czech Republic where de-industrialization managed to create enough new jobs in the service industries. He then states that Prague is, in a way, a place of transition from the global economy to the local economy (Sýkora, 2006).

What could also be linked with the level of economy in regards to places with different degrees of urbanisation, Anderson (2004) notes that some of the implications of urbanization in the 2004 European Union accession states are that more residents within urban areas have a computer at home compared with those living in the rural areas. This observation links with the next section 2.5.6.

2.5.6 Accessibility to information as a place-related factor

It is widely acknowledged in the tourism literature that mediated information forms a base of destination images of those without direct experience of the destination (for example Govers et al., 2007a). Accessibility to information could be seen as a supply-related factor which influences image formation (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). It is also one of the place-related factors linked with urbanisation (Champion and Hugo, 2004). There are other studies, however, that suggest accessibility has now been standardized across places. For example Sassen (2000) suggests that this standardisation is linked with globalization as well as intensification of socio-cultural diversity. As Rofe (2003) points, the Internet has changed social networks in a radical manner.

However, some studies show that even though the distribution of sources might be standardizing, use of information differs across places with different degrees of urbanisation. Anderson (2004) notes that some of the implications of urbanization in the 2004 European Union accession states are that residents within urban areas use the
Internet more compared with their rural counterparts. In regards to the use of information in the European Union overall, which the Czech Republic is a part of, Eurobarometer (2009) states that citizens of the European Union living in metropolitan areas are most likely to use online information for travel planning, compared to those in rural areas (Eurobarometer, 2009).

2.5.7 Personal and cultural characteristics as place-related factors

As mentioned in the previous section, there are a number of demand-related factors influencing destination image (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999) that can however also be linked with specific place of residence as well (Champion and Hugo, 2004). Motivations influence destination image (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999) and are another factor that differs according to the place of residence (Champion and Hugo, 2004). The issue lies as to whether the motivations of urban visitors differ to those of rural inhabitants. On this issue, Maat and Vries (2003) conclude that people who live within an area with less green space do compensate by more frequent visits to green space elsewhere. These findings could thus hold implications for the image formation of a destination through the motivation of rural inhabitants as tourists to cities.

Another factor is the difference in various opinions beliefs, some of them impacting on travel attitudes, across places with different degrees of urbanisation. According to Fisher’s (1978) study there is a particular difference in beliefs and opinions, with those in urban areas being less conservative than those in rural regions.

There are a number of differences in demographics across places with different degrees of urbanisation. Demographics can be seen as a part of demand-related factors influencing destination image (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). One of the important place-related factors is ethnicity that differs in rural and urban areas (Champion and Hugo, 2004).

However; there are many other demographic factors that seem to differ as well. For example Anderson (2004) notes that some of the implications of urbanization in the 2004 European Union accession states are that those residing in urban areas have less time for hobbies and leisure compared with their rural counterparts and that fewer residents within urban areas are retired compared with their rural counterparts. Anderson (2004) further states that fewer residents within urban areas are married
compared with their rural counterparts. Anderson (2004) also mentions that, in the Czech Republic in particular, residents within urban areas are having fewer children compared with those in rural areas. In addition, fewer residents within urban areas are in contact with their families compared with their rural counterparts.

2.5.8 Summary

As with the previous section, it can be concluded that existing studies rarely went on to investigate in depth the factors that contribute to how a place of residence actually influences destination images and their formation, which is one of the research questions of this study. In particular, it has been found that the link between degree of urbanization and destination image is under-researched.

Some of the debates that took place in the previous sections of the literature review, especially the more general arguments (in particular in section 2.4), may also be applicable to this section. Perceived distance, for example, might also be evident in different places with different degrees of urbanization; however such a link has not yet been made in the existing theory. This section reviewed place-related factors that were, even if some only marginally, linked to destination image. However, it is an enquiry of this study to uncover how place of residence actually influences destination images and their formation, and possibly discover some new factors as well.
2.6 Summary of this chapter

The first section of this chapter attempted to enrich the area of destination image of non-visitors by reviewing not only theory on destination images of non-visitors, but also sources on similar concepts such as literary image, geographical imaginations, public opinion and others. It has also been found that authors of existing studies write rarely about a city image in particular. Whilst many studies focus on the assessment of the actual destination image through structured methodologies, fewer studies focus on the capturing of image through qualitative approaches. Surprisingly, even these qualitative studies rarely comment on the actual nature of the destination image and focus instead on evaluating the destination images themselves.

The second section reviewed theory in regards to destination image formation, drawing mainly on formation of similar concepts in other disciplines, as existing knowledge on destination image formation in particular seems to be under-researched. It can be summarized that, once again, many articles on destination image formation are limited to information sources used, assessed through structured methodologies. Surprisingly little has been written about the actual nature of destination image formation.

The third section reviewed theory in regards to the influence of country of residence on individuals. Once again, it can be summarized that even though a number of destination image studies took into consideration country of residence as a variable in the research, a great majority of studies did not research in depth the contributing factors as to how a country of residence actually influences destination images and their formation.

The fourth section of this chapter reviewed sources in regards to the influence of place of residence on destination image and its formation and the impact of place on individuals. Even though a number of destination image studies have taken into consideration specific place of residence of non-visitors as a key factor in market segmentation, similarly as with the influence of a country of residence on destination
image, existing literature often did not research the overall factors that contribute to how a place of residence actually influences these destination images.

3. Methodology chapter

3.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the methodological choices made in order to obtain answers to the research questions of this study. It is structured into four key sections: capturing, accessing, obtaining, and analysing images and their sources. ‘Capturing’, in the context of this study, includes the choice of philosophical approach, methodological approach, method chosen, as well as the design of the research instrument. ‘Accessing’ refers to finding potential participants, in particular the sampling strategy chosen for the study. ‘Obtaining’ refers to how responses were actually received. The last key section discusses data analysis methods employed. Figure 3.1 displays choices made in regards to primary research of this project. The research questions of this study that shaped all of the methodological choices made are restated below:
1. What are the images of London held by Czech non-visitors?
2. How were these images formed?
3. How does country of residence influence destination image and its formation?
4. How does place of residence influence destination image and its formation?

Fig. 3.1: Figure displaying key choices made in regards to primary research of this project (source: this project)

3.2 Capturing images and image influences
The first of the four key areas that is addressed in this chapter is capturing images and their influences. As briefly mentioned in the previous section, capturing in the context of this study encompasses the choice of philosophical and methodological approaches, method selected, as well as the design of the research instrument chosen to suit the enquiry, enhanced by the pilot studies conducted.

3.2.1 Issues that had to be addressed in regards to capturing responses
The main issue that needed to be addressed in regards to capturing images was capturing destination images and their influences that are individual as well as shared. One of the issues was to capture shared and at the same time unique images of destination London, as London’s unique image attributes were not known in advance at the time the research instrument was designed. Thus they could not be pre-tested through a quantitative study in order to assess how common they were. Also, the
research instrument needed to be designed to capture individual images as well in all their richness. Finally, and most importantly, the key challenge was that all the above mentioned research questions, of an exploratory nature, needed to be appropriately answered.

3.2.2 Positionality

The philosophical position adopted within this research and how it affects the research methodology and its findings are outlined below. The pragmatic approach was selected for the purposes of this study. It has been recognized that pragmatism is an emerging paradigm in tourism research and more studies using a pragmatic approach need to be conducted (Pansiri, 2006). Jennings (2001, p. 34) defines the term ‘paradigm’ as a ‘set of beliefs’. Pansiri (2005, p. 196) in another article further mentions that, ‘though pragmatism is fairly recent compared to the other philosophical positions, it has positioned itself as a contending paradigm’. Most importantly, he further mentions that pragmatism is in a position to embrace both a qualitative as well as quantitative enquiry. Pansiri (2005, p. 197) then writes about pragmatists that, ‘while they agree with positivists/post-positivists regarding the existence of an external world independent of people’s minds, they put emphasis on choosing explanations that best produce desired outcomes’.

There is a strong justification for the pragmatist approach. The nature of the enquiry in this piece of work and associated issues with it meant that pragmatism was deemed the most suitable approach that would best help to overcome the methodological issues associated with capturing destination images and their influences in this study. In particular, Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2012) state that pragmatism enables mixed methods to be adopted, stating that, ‘research approaches should be mixed in ways that offer the best opportunities for answering research questions’ (p.16). The problem that presented itself in this research was the need to capture and assess both the unique as well as general dimensions of individuals’ image as well as their shared images – to be obtained through multiple analyses of data, from both qualitative as well as quantitative angle. It was deemed that this would not have been possible had a purely quantitative enquiry or a purely qualitative approach been adopted. The pragmatic approach enabled use of both and consequentially facilitated problem solving. Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2012) consider that methodological pluralism, enabled by this approach, often leads to high-quality research.
However; prior to the adoption of the pragmatic approach, many other existing philosophical approaches were considered. Pansiri (2005) mentions that two key paradigms of social sciences are dominant in tourism research, namely the positivist approach and the interpretivist approach. Clearly, positivist as well as interpretivist approaches were taken into consideration in regards to this study. However, in regards to interpretivism, it was concluded that this could not be employed. This is because the necessary generalizations and quantitative content analysis, needed for assessing shared images, were not in accordance with this approach, as it is based on subjectivity (for example Hollinshead, 2004). On the other hand, using merely a positivist approach was not possible as unique attributes of the destination that would have to be tested were not available. Also, the exploratory nature of the research questions meant that a positivist approach could not be adopted. In addition to the above mentioned, the post-positivism, and in particular phenomenographic approach, was seriously considered, in the area of destination adopted for example by Govers et al. (2007a). However it was found that this would not enable the interpretation of data. It was deemed that striving merely for objectivity for the whole project is not possible using large amounts of qualitative data that need a thematic analysis to answer the exploratory enquiry in the form of inductive research questions, as explained by Veal (2006).

Some researchers believe they are insiders whilst others claim to operate outside the research process. Pragmatism is prone to criticism by researchers from both ends of the spectrum, namely interpretivists as well as positivists. There are disputes between interpretivists and positivists but these often ignore the commonalities between these approaches (Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2012). There are two distinct cultures of research, one promoting the rich qualitative data and the other quantitative data (Sieber, 1973, cited in Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2012). The main criticisms of qualitative and quantitative research can be used as criticisms of a pragmatic approach that uses mixed methods. In fact, interpretivists would argue that a mixed method approach is not in line with what they believe in (Guba, 1990 cited in Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2012). Conversely, positivists do not appreciate that there are always subjective elements in their own research. On the other hand, qualitative researchers often seek objectivity and other traits associate with quantitative studies (Onwuegbuzie, 2002, cited in Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2012).
The positionality of the research affected the conduct of the research in this study. In order to undertake both qualitative as well as quantitative analysis of the same dataset, as is enabled by pragmatism, the researcher strove for objectivity (as in post-positivism). Striving for objectivity – even if this was ultimately unobtainable - meant adopting certain procedures. For example, the same written research instrument was used for all participants, so that the participants would not be affected by discussions with the researcher. Additionally, quota sampling was adopted in order to obtain an appropriate representation of the population. Further, large sample sizes of data were collected. In fact, a sample large enough to conduct the quantitative content analysis was required, meaning three hundred useable responses were collected. It was also inherent to the research project that the methods of data collection were the same across all case studies. This applied to both phases of data collection that are discussed later in this chapter. Efforts to remain objective were also adopted during the analysis of data. However, this process was influenced by the researcher’s own background and interpretation. The data analysis included both analysis that aimed for objectivity (content analysis) and that which was inevitably subjective (thematic analysis) The pragmatic approach provided the framework and justification for this multiple analysis.

3.2.3 Qualitative data gained through a research instrument with open-ended questions

In order to answer the research questions, qualitative data needed to be obtained. As a method, a paper-based research instrument with open-ended questions was chosen. This is in contrast with many of the existing studies in the area of destination image. A clear rationale then exists for conducting qualitative research - in regards to literature that considers the measurement of destination image, Pike (2002) concludes that the vast majority of studies used structured methodologies to establish destination image in the past. Echtner and Ritchie (2003) also acknowledge the dominance of quantitative research methods regarding destination image, highlighting a need for further qualitative research within this area.

In regards to capturing of destination image, questionnaires are widely used (see for example Hunt, 1975; Goodrich, 1978; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Dadgostar and Isotalo, 1992; Pikkemaat, 2004; O’Leary and Deegan, 2005; Vaughan, 2007; Shanka and Phau, 2008; Yilmaz et al., 2009).
In regards to the methods in image formation studies, as previously stated, Beerli and Martín (2004) emphasize that destination image formation is one of the least considered areas of destination image. Pike (2002), in his analysis of 142 existing destination image studies, identifies a study on destination image formation by Baloglu and McLeary (1999) that merely employed a regular Likert scale in their investigation. The research tested the destination image formation model before the actual visit. Beerli and Martín (2004) use a 7-point Likert scale questionnaire to investigate destination image formation. Elsewhere, a study by Frías et al. (2008) consider the influence of specific sources of destination image, in particular the Internet and travel agencies, also using structured instruments to collect the data. It can thus be observed that there is a lack of qualitative research in the destination image area of study.

There is a call in literature not only for a qualitative research, but for a mix of structured and unstructured techniques as well. Jenkins (1999) further suggests that future research on destination image should combine both structured and unstructured techniques to be able to capture fully destination images and their influences. Such call is also in line with Pansiri (2005, p. 193) who states that ‘recently there have been calls for … researchers to employ more mixed method approaches’. According to Walle (1997), both, unstructured and structured methodologies may contribute to the same research project in different ways. In this thesis, even though the choice was made to generate qualitative data, mixed methods to analyse the data were used (detailed in the analysis section). Such choice was enabled by the pragmatic approach.

### 3.2.4 Research instrument design

The questions of the research instrument were standardized across the three case study areas. The first and the fourth question of the research instrument were largely inspired by the research undertaken by Govers et al. (2007a), initially copied from their research instrument on experiential images, although a number of amendments were made as a result of the two rigorous pilot studies. These are discussed in the next section on pilot studies. However; not only as a result of the pilot studies, but the first question was also slightly changed in order to enable organic as well as kinaesthetic images to be investigated. These additional concepts were taken from the literary image theory (Ziolkowski, 1981 cited in Stamovsky, 1988).
The second question in the instrument asked respondents whether they think the fact they live in the Czech Republic is influential to their views of London (and if yes, how and if not, why not). This ‘self-reflexivity’ is normally used in psychology (Smith, 1994), as it empowers participants to analyse own psychological constructs and their influences. Also in line with this self-reflexivity approach, the third question asked the respondents to express whether they consider the fact they live in Prague (rather than in a town or a village) as influential to their images of London (and if yes, how and if not, why not). The fourth question was designed to elicit the main sources of their image of London. Finally, the fifth question asked what else participants think influenced their image, also in line with self-reflexivity approach (Smith, 1994). The sixth question elicited demographic information from participants (as open-ended question) as well as their postal address. The age and postal address were a condition of accepting responses from participants. Prior to the questions, an extended introduction was provided in the research instrument, providing details about the research as well as the researcher. This introduction was delivered in the form of an interview with the researcher by the editors. The introduction slightly varied in each of the case study area in that it stressed the existing personal links between the researcher and the chosen area. Appendix A contains translation of all the questions in the research instrument. Even though this contains questions as they appeared in magazine Knihy (pilot study 2), these represent the questions that appeared in the final study as well, as they remained exactly the same for the primary research. Many amendments to the research instrument were done as result of pilot study 1. Some amendments were made to the research instrument as a result of pilot study 2 (excluding the actual questions). These changes are detailed in the next section.

3.2.5 Pilot studies
The research instrument was refined as a result of two rigorous pilot studies that took place before the fieldwork. The first pilot study took place between the 14th November and 24th November in 2009. This pilot study was a snowball sample of 48 Czech individuals over the age of 18 who had never visited London. It took place in order to test the research instrument and to generate comments from participants with a view to improving the research instrument. Firstly, the question on income of participants proved to be sensitive and many were not comfortable at all disclosing their income so
this question had to be dropped. It is acknowledged that research instruments containing questions of a sensitive nature are less likely to be returned (Edwards et al., 2002). As a result of the inclusion of this question in pilot study 1, not only that many declined to participate, but many research instruments without income levels were returned in the end resulting in a lot of responses from pilot study 1 being unusable.

In pilot study 1, the research instrument was initially referred to as a ‘questionnaire’; however this was not clear to participants as it was not a typical questionnaire. One participant referred to the fact that the word questionnaire was used as ‘strange’. The word ‘questionnaire’ suggests the use of quantitative methods, thus to limit confusion; the research instrument was not referred to within its text as such. It also needed to be amended so as to look less like a questionnaire. This involved changing the closed ended questions on demographics into open-ended questions. To avoid the inclusion of any boxes to be ticked, participants were asked to state their age which was later categorized. The same principle was applied to the other demographic questions - employment as well as education.

Some responses received in pilot study 1 were short so, in order to encourage more detailed responses, a number of questions were slightly amended, in particular the following statement was added, ‘Please write absolutely everything that comes to your mind’. Also, participants were asked, ‘Has the fact that you live in the Czech Republic influenced your image? If yes, how? And if not, why not?’, in order to prevent participants answering briefly ‘yes’ or ‘no’. The same was applied to the question on the influence of place of residence.

In pilot study 1, respondents were initially asked to write a story, following an example in Govers et al.’s (2007a) study. However, this proved to be a problem for a number of participants as they were worried that they could not write a ‘story’ or express their image in a ‘story format’. In order to alleviate this problem, the term ‘story’ was removed from the question. Close examination of responses to the third question on how the country of residence influences their image revealed that some participants suggested other influences on their image. These included travelling to other places or what they had learnt in school. Of course, the main sources of information are not the only image sources. To address this issue, another question was added after the main
information sources, ‘What else do you think influenced your image of London and how?’ This question, in the end, helped generate reflective data on destination image formation. This expansion of the research instrument was possible as further capacity to expand the research instrument was identified by one participant stating that the research instrument in pilot study 1 was not time consuming.

Some respondents in pilot study 1 stated that they did not see the purpose of the study itself so questioned why they should respond. In order to address this issue, greater detail as to why their responses were relevant and valuable as well as more details about the project itself were provided at the beginning of the research exercise. The description of the project was given a lot of attention in the research instrument as a result of the implications of pilot study 1.

Pilot study 2 then took place between 11th January and 25th January 2010. In this study, the research instrument was published in a magazine about newly published books, KNIHY. Research participants were readers of the magazine aged 18+ and had not previously visited London. This pilot study was undertaken in order to test the entire amended research instrument as well as the process of publishing the research instrument in a magazine. Even though there were some implications for the choice of incentive as a result of pilot study 2 (discussed in the section on obtaining images), there were no implications of pilot study 2 regarding the necessary change of format of the research instrument and the questions, as they seemed to generate much better quality responses in comparison with the first pilot study. The conducting of two rigorous pilot studies was useful in terms of shaping the final research instrument, as in the end it generated much better quality of responses.

3.2.6 Ethical considerations
A number of ethical issues were taken into consideration in regards to capturing images. Participants were informed that all information provided would only be used for the purpose of this non-commercial research and that all responses would be anonymous in accordance with the ethical considerations. It was deemed that the act of returning the response as well as including one’s postal address demonstrated the participant’s consent to take part in the research. Postal home addresses of all participants were required. As the responses including the demographic section are detailed, thanks to the
open-ended nature of the questions, publishing such responses in full would not be in accordance with ethical guidelines, as the data would be in many cases identifiable. However, a detailed evidence of data is provided in the Results chapter. This study followed the ethical SRA (2003) regulations as well as appropriate ethical conduct as set out by the University of Westminster (University of Westminster, 2004).

3.3 Accessing images and image influences

Accessing images is another area of inevitable methodological choices made in this study. The use of the term ‘accessing’ refers to finding potential participants, in particular the sampling strategy chosen. As Ryan (1995) suggests, the sampling strategy includes a number of elements, namely the definition of the population, the selection of sampling units, the sampling frame, sample size, sample design, operational procedures and the actual sample. To ensure feasibility of the study, it is often necessary to employ a sampling strategy, as it is not possible to question everyone (Jennings, 2001). Sampling as such is thus a result of resource limitations. Altinay and Paraskevas (2008, p. 89) define sampling as a ‘process by which researchers select a representative subset or part of the population that can be studied for their topic so that they will be able to draw conclusions regarding the entire population’. Sampling is then the means by which researchers obtain a part of the studied population.

Even though some researchers do not recognize sampling as relevant in qualitative studies, others see it as crucial. Wilmot (2005) emphasizes that the sampling strategy for qualitative studies is just as important as in quantitative studies, suggesting that only
well-defined sampling strategies may produce solid results. Altinay and Paraskevas (2008) note that in qualitative research the correct sampling method should enhance the depth of understanding, although this does not mean that the subject of sampling is less important than in a quantitative study since it can have a major effect on the quality of the research (Altinay and Paraskevas, 2008).

3.3.1 Issues in regards to accessing images and their influences
There were a number of issues that had to be addressed in regards to accessing destination images. The objectives of accessing images within this research include relevance of the sampling strategy to the research questions, cost-effectiveness as well as ethical conduct. In addition to that, Jennings (2001) considers that there are some issues associated with choosing to sample a population, suggesting difficulties associated with setting the size of the sample, accessibility and availability. The sampling strategies are, therefore, not only dependent upon the nature of the research problem, but also largely upon the existing conditions of the specific study. The research method chosen clearly impacted upon the sampling strategies as well.

A number of sampling frames that are normally used in the destination image area of study were considered. However, as mentioned previously, most existing research was conducted on pre-visitors who were going to the destination and potential visitors who would like to visit the destination. These sampling frames could not be used in this study as in this research all people who had not visited London were considered, regardless their attitude to London. One of the main challenges was also to choose exactly the same sampling frames in all the three case study areas – to enable any type of comparisons and quantifications later on. More issues with the selection of sampling frames are included in the section 3.3.4 on the choice of sampling frame.

3.3.2 Defining the target group
This study focuses upon Czech individuals who have not travelled to London. In the literature review, a definition of non-visitors for the purposes of this study was discussed. To recap, most destination image studies have been conducted on potential visitors and pre-visitors. Kolb (2006) considers that a ‘potential tourist’ is someone who would be most likely to visit the destination. Non-visitors may include anyone who has not visited the destination (see Hughes and Allen, 2008), whilst pre-visitors are those that are going to travel to the destination (see Kim and Morrison, 2005). In the case of
this study, all adult non-visitors were considered as the target group. In particular, the conditions of taking part in the research were that potential participants live in one of the case study areas, fit within the age groups required and had never visited London.

3.3.3 Selection of geographical areas

The selection of sampling units such as geographical area is essential (Ryan, 1995) and needs to be considered. The rationale for selecting London as a case study was that it is a place with a ‘rich’ media image (Avraham, 2000). The Czech Republic was chosen as the research base as it is important for mature destinations such as London to understand emerging markets (Pikkemaat, 2004) the Czech Republic being one of them. The fact that the researcher speaks fluent Czech played a key role in the selection of this country as she was able to translate the responses. The case study areas within the Czech Republic were chosen to help answer the fourth research question. They were chosen on the basis of being representative of a capital city, larger town and small town/rural area, a distinction made by Anderson (2004). As it was mentioned in the literature review, a distinction is not made between small towns, villages and open countryside; they are all incorporated into the third case study area.

In regards to sampling places with different degrees of urbanisation, the rural-urban dichotomy is often used. As briefly mentioned previously, Champion and Hugo (2004) also discuss the need for the introduction of a third category to the rural-urban dichotomy in order to take into consideration middle of the range larger towns. This need has been addressed in this study by selection of three areas with varying degrees of urbanisation for investigation. The location of the selected geographical areas is detailed in the introduction in figure 1.1. Also, the research costs had to be taken into consideration when choosing the specific areas. In the end the costs were minimized by choosing case study areas where the researcher had prior contacts. This at least helped with the accommodation costs, for example.

3.3.4 Sampling frame

It needs to be emphasized that many options in regards to the choice of sampling frames were considered prior to the fieldwork arrangements being finalised. However, there were many issues that shaped the choices made, detailed below. Lindsay (1997) stresses that there is no perfect sampling frame. Also, Lindsay (1997) further suggests that
where the target population does not have a well-defined identity, more general sources of categorisation may be used such as residential address.

With reference to leisure and tourism, Finn et al. (2000) identify potential sampling frames in the United Kingdom to include telephone directories, organizations, clubs, newsletters and the accommodation sector as potentially useful references. A list of visitors to other destinations or attractions may also be used (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Crompton et al., 1992). For potential tourists, tourist boards can also be a useful source to obtain a sampling frame for destination image (Baloglu and McLeary, 1999), as too can electoral district lists (Smith, 2005). For pre-visiters, this could be in the departure or arrival area of an airport (as employed by, for example, Chen and Hsu, 2000 or Frías et al., 2008).

The choice of the sampling frame was problematic not only due to the lack of existing studies that would encompass different non-visitor types, but because of other issues as well. To personally distribute the research instrument to households was deemed not feasible within the Czech Republic; distributing the research instrument in person was affected by the fact that individuals do not have access to post boxes as is the norm in the United Kingdom. In the Czech Republic post boxes are locked inside communal areas of a home and individuals are also suspicious of letting any stranger enter the building for safety reasons. Secondly, there is no official list of residents as there is in the United Kingdom, hence the Yellow Pages would appear the only option of establishing a distribution list. However, due to a low percentage of the population listed in the Yellow Pages, it would not represent a sound approach in the context of the Czech Republic.

The most feasible option was thus to use an existing distribution system. An option was to pay the Czech Post to distribute the research instrument in certain areas; however such a service would have been costly to achieve the 300 responses needed. Other options were considered but it was not possible to conduct research at a doctor’s surgery, for example, due to ethical considerations. Employees and managers working in high street businesses did not have the time to participate in research and they did not allow the researcher to approach their customers. The nature of the research instrument meant that it could not be conducted at a bus stop, nor on the streets as it took quite a
long time to be filled in and required postal address which participants were not happy to give out to anyone on the street.

Regarding the final choice of the sampling frame, in the end, the research instrument was published in the March 2010 issue of three local magazines that go to every household within the selected geographical areas in the three case study areas, in particular in ‘Zpravodaj města Kolína’, distributed to every household in the bigger town case study area Kolín; in the Prague 8 area it was published in magazine ‘Ďáblický zpravodaj’, distributed to all household within a selected area of Prague 8 and lastly it was published in ‘Jarmark’, a magazine that is circulated in selected small villages and small towns in the Českomoravská Vrchovina area. To summarize, the research enquiry was thus published in a monthly magazine which is distributed to every single household within the selected geographical areas lying in the three case study areas. This approach was deemed the most suitable after taking into consideration and ruling out other approaches, as described above. However; unfortunately the first phase where the research instrument was published in magazines generated only a negligible number, a handful of responses, meaning that a second phase had to take place in order to generate the number of responses needed.

The second phase of the primary research was conducted in local libraries within the same case study areas where the research instrument was published in the local magazines. To ensure consistency, the same strategy was adopted within the three case study areas. Again, to suit the comparative nature of this study, the same research instrument (a photocopy of the research instrument published in the local magazine) was used across both phases. The library was suitable for a number of reasons. Foremost, it is aimed at people of all generations and it provides the environment necessary for completing the research exercise. As noise tends to be kept to a minimum in the library, the written form of response was deemed highly appropriate. It is also a place where people tend to have some spare time.

In the libraries, the research instrument was distributed and responses to it collected only in its paper version. As Dolnicar et al. (2009) consider, online enquiry would only reach a limited number of respondents, suggesting that if participants from rural
communities and older age groups are to be included in the study, paper surveys are preferable. As the target population of this research also included older generations as well as those residing in rural areas, the use of an Internet-based survey would not have allowed for a representative sample.

In regards to accessing non-visitors, it has been found that tourism research conducted on non-visitors differs greatly in terms of sampling strategies from research conducted on tourists, as the selection of sampling strategies for non-visitors proved to be rather problematic. It should be stressed that both sampling strategies that were adopted in the first phase (where the research instrument was published in magazines) as well as in the second phase (local libraries), were innovative ways of accessing responses within the area of destination image of non-visitors.

3.3.5 Sample size and age quota sampling
Altinay and Paraskevas (2008) suggest that the size of the sample depends on the degree of precision sought. The intention to obtain representative images shared by a high number of participants was aimed for and achieved in this study. Overall 300 responses were collected from the case study areas in total. One hundred responses were collected in each case study area. The first one hundred participants were from the metropolitan case study area, Prague 8; participants 101 – 200 were from the larger town case study area of Kolín and participants 201-300 were from the third case study of villages and small towns in Českomoravská Vrchovina in the Czech Republic.

Quota sampling has been used in this study, in particular age quota sampling. The joint quotas for the first and second phase were calculated according to the age statistics of the Czech Republic (ČSÚ, 2009). The total number of Czech Republic residents is 10,467,542; those aged below 18 years who account for 1,853,980 of the population were excluded from the research due to ethical considerations. In the end, for every 100 participants in each case study area aged 18 years and over, 31 were aged between 18-34, 34 were aged between 35-54 years and 35 were aged 55 years and over.
3.4 Obtaining images and their influences

The third key area of methodological choices made concerns the obtaining of responses. ‘Obtaining’ refers to how responses are elicited from potential respondents, in particular the way images were actually received by the researcher from the participants. The ways that helped in obtaining responses are discussed – in particular these include the ways of increasing interest in the content of the research, ensuring credibility of the research exercise as well as the choice of incentives to encourage participation.

3.4.1 Issues in regards to obtaining responses

The aim was to obtain 300 responses, 100 from each case study area, on an age quota sampling basis and do so in a cost-effective manner. For the researcher, cost-effectiveness is central, as highlighted by Edwards et al. (2002). The process of obtaining the responses also had to be standardized across the three case study areas – to later on enable complementary quantitative content analysis.

3.4.2 Details of data collection

Data collection took place in three case study areas in the Czech Republic in two phases. Firstly, the research instrument was published in all the three case study areas in
the earlier mentioned magazines in their March issues in March 2010. Regarding the second phase, in the Prague 8 metropolitan case study area, the fieldwork was conducted between 28th April and 6th May, 19th May to 29th May and 3rd June to 15th June, 2010. The research in Kolín, the large town case study area, was conducted from 9th August to 6th September, 2010. In Českomoravská Vrchovina, the responses were collected between 19th July and the 6th September 2010.

Data were collected in two stages, firstly through magazines (only a handful of responses were collected in this way) and then in the second phase through paper-only versions in libraries. The second phase of fieldwork can take place to improve the initial response rate (Dillman et al., 2009). A great majority of the responses were collected by the researcher herself. Due to access and cost issues however, librarians helped to collect responses from those who were members of their libraries on the same basis and using the same incentive as the researcher. Overall, the librarians helped to collect 20 responses in Kolín, and 45 responses in the third case study area in Českomoravská Vrchovina, mainly from the rural branches that were not accessible to the researcher.

It has been found that not all respondents actually have destination images, images thus cannot be obtained from everyone. So not only is there the will of participants to consider which may influence the response rate, but also their personal abilities with some participants stating their reason for non-participation as difficulty in describing what they imagine. Overall, there were many difficulties in getting responses from non-visitors. This could also be a consequence of a lack of interest from respondents, as many are not primarily interested in the subject and a lack of participants’ time, as opposed to for example tourists who seem to have more time generally.

It also needs to be emphasized that the quality and length of responses obtained greatly varied from just a few lines to a number of pages, making it difficult to choose any kind of ‘representative’ response for this thesis.

Obtaining data from individuals is deemed an issue due to the increasing fatigue towards any kind of research exercises generally, as mentioned by an individual during the primary research. This increased fatigue is a key issue as nowadays many market research companies are trying to get data from people and individuals are becoming increasingly more tired with giving up their free time to take part in market research. It
has been recognized in the literature that over-surveying can lead potential respondents to feel fatigued of research in general (Baruch and Holtom, 2008). Even though this research was for a university thesis, not a market research survey in its traditional sense, people saw it as similar to any kind of market research. It has been found that the choice of multiple incentives, appeal as well as credibility of the research, were all essential to obtaining responses, as detailed below.

### 3.4.3 Incentives

To encourage completion of the research instrument a selection of incentives were employed, as suggested by Edwards et al. (2002). In the first phase through the magazines a monetary incentive was offered. Appendix A displays the research instrument including monetary incentives used. The prize draw was applicable only to pilot study 2 in magazine Knihy. As it proved too complicated and costly, it was removed from the research instrument in the three magazines where the enquiry was published for primary research purposes. However; in the second phase in libraries a number of non-monetary incentives were offered instead. Even though participants were given instructions on the magazine page, it was explained, that a selection of incentives, for example a pen or chocolate, were on offer instead. In keeping with Curtin et al.’s (2000) assertion that different respondents require different levels of incentive, the selection of different incentives was adopted and proved highly effective in this study as well.

Incentives can clearly have a dramatic effect on the number of respondents that participate in the research (Nakash et al., 2006). The actual choice of incentive for completing the enquiry is linked to the response rate (Shaw and Davidson, 2000). Edwards et al. (2002) confirm that incentives (both monetary and non-monetary) increase the completion rate of a research instrument. Increasing the response rate is essential to research (Tierney, 2000) and increased efficiency can in the end result in cost savings for the researcher (Kanuk and Berenson, 1975).

### 3.4.4 Ensuring credibility of the research exercise

Whilst some techniques designed to increase the response rate incur extra expense, many are free of charge (Dillman, 2000 in Kaplowitz et al., 2004). Ensuring credibility of research is one of the less costly options. This credibility means that participants trust
the research, they believe in it and, as a result, they take part in the research exercise, or at least it contributes to their decision to take part in it. The response rate is largely influenced by how research is presented to participants, with participation in primary research largely linked to the credibility of the research (Fox et al., 1988). Where credibility is concerned, enquiries originating from universities are normally more likely to be returned than those from commercial organizations (Edwards et al., 2002).

An association with something or someone that is credible is also essential to optimizing the response rate. In this research, an association was made with the local magazine that prospective participants are familiar with and trust. Unfortunately, as mentioned previously, there was only a negligible response rate from the first phase where the research instrument was published in local magazines. This first phase did, however, serve as a solid platform in terms of credibility for the second phase, in which almost all of the responses were generated. It was pointed out by some participants that they were familiar with the research instrument from the magazine, so the research was credible to them, they were familiar with it. In the second phase, relations were developed with the librarians who staffed the libraries used in the case study areas. The role of the librarians proved invaluable. As potential participants trusted them, they were highly credible individuals in the eyes of the potential participants and their approval and recommendation was a positive factor in the efforts to obtain the responses.

3.4.5 Increasing interest in the content

Increasing the interest in the content of the research instrument itself was considered essential. The application of the AIDA model is possible in this case – it that stands for consumer stages, in particular their attention, interest, desire and action (Clemente, 2002). The AIDA model means that firstly the attention of the person needs to be captured, then the interest needs to be ignited, then the desire and action will follow. In particular, interest in the subject matter was the factor deemed most influential to the response rate (Edwards et al., 2002).

In this research, the research instrument was introduced in the form of an interview with the researcher by the editors of the magazine in order to capture the attention of the participants. To increase interest, and in line with the existing conditions, efforts were
made to design the research instrument in a reasonably short and interesting format. This is in line with recommendations in the existing literature that the length of the enquiry is essential in maintaining the interest of potential participants (Edward et al., 2002). How this was carried out in this research is discussed in the research design section. Personal distribution of the research instrument was the key factor in obtaining the great majority of responses for this study in the second phase in libraries. This also minimized the number of unusable responses. As Baruch (1999) suggests, from the responses returned, there will most probably be both useable and unusable ones.

It was found that when participants were left to think and imagine in their own time, hand-writing the responses, this seems to have contributed to the fact that the data collected was highly self-reflective. The personal distribution in libraries was also important, as it is recognized that distributing the research instrument personally can also influence the response rate (Baruch and Holtom, 2008). This was in line with what Dillman et al. (2009) suggest regarding the response rate, that the use of a two-phase fieldwork strategy is an effective means to improve the response rate.

3.5 Analysing images and their influences
The last key area of methodological choices made in this study concerns analysis. The data were translated and then analysed. Qualitative studies based upon destination image have traditionally employed a thematic approach in their analysis (e.g. Vaughan, 2007). Thematic analysis was used also in this study. To assess key images and key image sources, an additional complementary content analysis of data was conducted as well.

3.5.1 Issues in regards to the analysis of destination images
The key issues linked with data analysis are defined by the type of data, the methodological approach, cost-effectiveness and other resource limitations (Jennings, 2001). This study was designed to generate qualitative data in order to answer the exploratory research questions. However, as shared unique images needed to be uncovered in order to reveal all the elements of destination image as well as individual images and their nature, it was deemed that an additional complementary quantitative content analysis of the same qualitative dataset could be a solution to this enquiry. This is in line with the pragmatic approach adopted in this research.
3.5.2 Thematic analysis

The main method of data analysis was inductive thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is normally used with the qualitative approach in destination image area of study. One example is for example a study by Hughes and Allen (2008). Themes were identified that provided answers to the research questions of this study. In particular, the thematic framework analysis was adopted, as described for example by Ritchie and Spencer (1994). This thematic framework includes the following stages (p.178): \textit{familiarization, identifying a thematic framework, indexing, charting, mapping and interpretation.}

Some of the stages, mainly identifying thematic framework stage, were conducted repeatedly in order to ensure rigor of the analysis and the results chapter being largely data-driven.

Reflections of participants on the image and image formation process were also subjected to thematic analysis. This was possible due to highly reflective dataset obtained. In psychology, as suggested by Smith (1994), engaging participants as co-analysts, using their reflexivity in analysing own responses, is normally used in research. This is done by including participants as self-reflexive co-researchers. Participants showed a high degree of reflexivity - this may have been connected to the handwriting task and the self-completion nature of the research instrument. Participants had a lot of time to think and were not required to provide immediate answers, providing their ideas of the characteristics of these concepts, usually assessed merely by the researcher.

The thematic analysis was used to assess the richness of images, their sources as well as influences and was in line with the exploratory nature of this research. However, thematic analysis could not be used to assess shared images and their influences, as just assessing this from the point of view of the researcher was deemed inherently subjective. This problem was to an extent solved by adopting an additional complementary analysis, in particular quantitative content analysis of the same dataset, as discussed in detail in the following paragraphs. This thesis used multiple analyses to gain individual destination images and to an extent even shared images and their sources from the same dataset. Multiple analyses mean that the same data can be
examined from different angles, which proved to be beneficial to the investigation in the case of this thesis. It is not normally conducted in destination image studies.

3.5.3 Complementary content analysis

Only as complementary to the main method of thematic analysis, content analysis was employed. As identified by Finn et al. (2000, p. 134), ‘content analysis is quantitative means of analysing qualitative data...there is no standard definition concerning the nature of content analysis, as variety of approaches can be found in the literature’. A complementary content analysis of destination images and image sources was conducted in order to assess the key shared image attributes and the key shared sources of image. This type of content analysis, counting expressions in the qualitative dataset, was conducted in the area of destination image for example by Govers et al. (2007a). Building on Govers et al.’s (2007a) study, in the case of this thesis, the number of participants who mentioned the expression was however counted instead of counting the number of expressions within the dataset.

In particular, in regards to shared destination images, only responses to the first question of the research instrument were analysed. Firstly, the most common words were identified with the help of software (available at http://www.wordcounter.com/) with the following parameters: small words, such as the, it etc. were excluded, words with same roots were grouped together, the most frequent 200 words were generated. The second step was to identify how many participants wrote the expression rather than how many times it was stated in the dataset. These words were thus individually inserted in the ‘Find’ function in selected dataset in Word 2010, this helped counting how many participants wrote the expression. The expressions that were stated 20 times and less were excluded from the analysis.

The words that were not complete from the quantitative content analysis were identified in the Word document instead. In particular, these were: ‘Tham’ was replaced by ‘Thames’, ‘probab’ was replaced by ‘probably’, ‘definite’ was changed to ‘definitely’, ‘main’ was changed to ‘mainly’, ‘buse’ was replaced by ‘buses’, ‘certainly’ instead of ‘certain’. ‘R’ was deleted, as it stands for respondent. If a negative form of the expression was included, this was counted separately too - for example ‘know’ and ‘not know’. Words with different meanings were differentiated – for example ‘Big’ and ‘Big
Ben’, ‘Tower Bridge’ and ‘Tower’, ‘go’ and ‘good’, ‘live’ and ‘lively’ or ‘very’ and ‘every’. The last step was that the summary of the content analysis was written. In particular, images were sorted into three categories – those mentioned by more than 100 participants, those mentioned by more than 50 participants and those mentioned by more than 20 participants. No synonyms of destination images were grouped together, as the content of this sub-dataset was rich and it was deemed that otherwise the objectivity of the analysis would be endangered.

In regards to the content analysis of image sources, as with the analysis of destination images, it was necessary to identify how many participants wrote the expression rather than how many times it was stated in the dataset. Firstly, as with destination images, the most common words were identified with the help of the above mentioned software from the sub-dataset containing answers to questions 4 and 5. Then it was necessary to identify how many participants wrote the expression rather than how many times it was stated in the dataset. This was again conducted with the find function in Word 2010. In addition to that, because of the concise dataset on destination image sources, it was possible to go a step further - types of source were counted as the source itself (for example, novels were counted as books) and similar expressions for the same source were grouped together (for example TV and television), all the details of which expressions exactly were grouped together are included in the results chapter. Expressions were only counted if in the context of image source. Image sources identified by 3 and more participants were stated as shared for the purposes of this study. Counts of participants rather than overall number of expressions per dataset enabled identification of basic patterns across age groups as well as case study areas with the help of Microsoft Excel.

Conducting content analysis was possible because of the standardized research instrument, standardised data collection as well as because of the large sample size. This multiple analysis was enabled by the pragmatic approach adopted in this thesis. It needs to be recognized that traditionally there has been a clear divide between the treatment of qualitative and quantitative data in tourism, and the social sciences generally. However, a number of existing sources within tourism literature analyse qualitative data in a quantitative way, especially when there are a high number of participants. In the destination image area of study, existing studies have used CATPAC, CATA and
ORDER in their quantitative analysis of qualitative data (Stepchenkova et al., 2009). A specific case of a large-scale qualitative study was that conducted by Govers et al. (2007a), mentioned earlier on in this chapter, where the data were analysed with the help of CATPAC and Text Stat. However, as identified previously, the main problem is that such analysis, however, only counts words within the whole dataset, so it may be that if a participant mentions the same word a number of times, it becomes top of the image or image source table. As a consequence, this method does not allow recognition of patterns in data.

To summarize, even though attempts to quantify qualitative data were made in the past in the field of destination image, this study is distinctive as frequencies were counted, one expression per person, not the number of words in the dataset. It is possible, to a limited extent, to obtain hidden patterns of shared image sources in regards to demographics; in this case, these were age groups. In addition, some key patterns across the three case study areas could be recognized and the key shared images were identified. It is emphasized that quantifying qualitative data is an under-research area.

3.5.4 Translation of data
According to Temple (1997), cross-cultural research is now more common than ever before, especially in the context of Britain and the former communist countries. He further points out that there are however many issues that have to be addressed in a cross-cultural research. One of them is translation of data. In the case of this thesis, data collected had to be translated from the Czech language into English. The translation was conducted by the researcher herself, facilitated by the fact that the researcher speaks fluent Czech. A basic dictionary was kept to ensure consistency of the terms across the dataset.
3.6 Methodology of secondary research

The secondary data obtained were originally collected for the Flash Eurobarometer 258 (Eurobarometer, 2009) study. The fieldwork for the secondary research was conducted from the 14\textsuperscript{th} to the 18\textsuperscript{th} February 2009. Overall, 27,000 randomly selected citizens took part in the research in the 27 European Union member states. Institutes of all European Union countries translated the questionnaire into their respective national languages. These surveys were designed to provide an estimate of the true characteristics of a population at the time. They produced a margin of error of no more or less than 3\% (Eurobarometer, 2009).

According to Eurobarometer (2009), in the Czech Republic, 700 telephone and 300 face-to-face interviews were conducted because of the low fixed-line telephone coverage. For the purposes of this thesis, only the Czech subsample was re-analysed. The demographics from the Czech Republic, as analysed with the help of SPSS, were as
follows: 6.9% came from the metropolitan zone, 63.9% from the urban zone and 29% from the rural zone (see Table 3.1 below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-categorization</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan zone</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other town/urban centre</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>63.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural zone</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK/NA</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: Table displaying frequencies and percentages of the sample of Czech residents in the secondary research (source: based on data from Eurobarometer, 2009)

Data displayed in Table 3.1 are based on self-categorization of participants. Researchers were asking participants if they are residents of a metropolitan zone, other town/urban centre or rural zone and participants had to choose one of them. It can be observed that most participants came from towns and urban centres other than the metropolitan zone.

3.7 Limitations of this study
A number of limitations in regards to capturing images and their influences were identified. As a result of the pilot study 1, the employment and education categories were asked as open-ended questions. Due to the variety of responses it was then almost impossible to categorize these variables into meaningful data, thus they could not be used for comparative purposes. Unfortunately, due to the feedback from pilot study 1 regarding the unwillingness of disclosure of income and the subsequent removal of this question, income groups were not included in the final research instrument. These could thus not be used in the analysis of data.

Some limitations were identified in regards to accessing respondents, the sampling choices made. The main issue in destination imagery is that images and image sources are reflections of sampling strategies. The fact that the research was conducted within a
library setting meant books could have been more often cited as a source of images than they would have been in a different setting. However, the same argument could be employed for studies conducted for example over the Internet. It is suggested that potentially more participants would name the Internet as a main source than in the general population. However, due to the aforementioned practicalities, and to suit the overall purpose of the study, no better option was found in regards to accessing respondents for this project.

There were also some limitations in regards to obtaining images in this study. As a result of resource limitations, the choice of incentives was limited. Another limitation is that over time the researcher became more skilled in obtaining the responses from participants, thereby increasing the response rate towards the end of the study. The researcher was thus not being completely consistent in the way participants were persuaded to take part in the research over time.

Limitations were also identified in regards to the analysis of data. Firstly, translation of the data could be seen as a limitation as it is possible that some misinterpretation occurred. Secondly, it is recognized that any efforts to quantify qualitative data so far are limited, as it is still an under-researched area.

3.8 Summary
To summarize, this chapter discussed the methodological choices associated with capturing, accessing, obtaining and analysing images, their sources and influences in this study. A pragmatic approach was adopted in this study. A self-completion paper-based research instrument with open-ended questions was selected as a method. This instrument generated qualitative data. Two rigorous pilot studies were conducted to test the research instrument as well as the research process.

Overall, three hundred responses written in Czech were obtained from within three case study areas within the Czech Republic. Within each area one hundred responses were obtained on an age quota sampling basis. Primary research was conducted in two stages, firstly through local magazines and secondly through local libraries. The qualitative dataset was then analysed through a thematic analysis and additional complementary
4. Results chapter

4.1 Introduction
This chapter aims to present the evidence from the primary research answering the research questions of this study. A number of themes and subthemes were identified through thematic analysis of the qualitative data obtained. Subsequently, a complementary basic quantitative analysis enabled an insight into frequency of images and image sources.

The structure of this chapter provides detailed answers to, and evidence for, all four of the research questions set out in the introduction. The first section presents findings which answer the first research question (what are the images of London held by Czech non-visitors?). The second section presents findings regarding the second research question (how were these images formed?). The third section presents findings that
relate to the third research question (how does country of residence influence destination image and its formation?). The fourth section then presents evidence linked with the fourth research question (how does place of residence influence destination image and its formation?). The rationale behind ordering the themes within each section is based on what was deemed most relevant to the research questions. Lastly, results from secondary research are presented.

Altogether 300 individuals in the selected three case study areas participated in the research; their demographic details are presented below (Table 4.1). Participants were assigned numbers. The first one hundred are participants from the metropolitan case study area of Prague 8, participants 101 – 200 are from the bigger town case study area of Kolín and participants 201-300 are from the third case study area of villages and small towns in Českomoravská Vrchovina.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sub-category</th>
<th>Case study area – frequencies</th>
<th>Total percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Prague 8</td>
<td>Kolín</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>18-34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35-54</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>55 and over</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>Manual</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-manual</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Retired, not working or maternity leave</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Did not state</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school, A-level, colleges, NVQ</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University degree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not state</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1: Table displaying demographic details of participants (source: primary research of this study)

It can be observed from Table 4.1 above that the age quota was rigorously followed in all three case study areas. This mirrored the Czech statistics on age demographics of the population (ČSÚ, 2009). It should be emphasized that the employment and education details are just approximate as, unfortunately, open-ended questions were asked that could not be coded easily.

4.2 Destination image of London held by Czech non-visitors

This section presents results in regards to the research question on destination images of London. Firstly, detailed evidence of destination images analysed through thematic analysis is presented. Secondly, the most common destination images identified through content analysis are evidenced. Thirdly, conceptualization of destination images is provided, as identified by participants themselves and grouped together by researcher with the help of thematic analysis.

4.2.1 Detailed evidence of destination images

This part of the chapter presents detailed evidence of destination images of London held by Czech non-visitors. Table 4.2 below represents the structure of this section which is divided into three parts, intangible images, tangible images and experiential images. Experiential images are images on the role of individuals whilst imagining themselves
at the non-visited destination. This section does not take into consideration how common images were, but their richness. The commonality of images is presented in the section 4.2.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intangible images</th>
<th>The centrality of cultural London</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Royal and historic links</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Everyday culture of people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cultural place image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imagined atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attraction to London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangible images</td>
<td>Natural environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>London’s historic sights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Everyday life sights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential images</td>
<td>Imagined role as a tourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imagined feelings</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2: Table presenting themes identified in regards to destination images of London (source: primary research of this study)

4.2.1.1 Intangible images

**The centrality of cultural London**

London is seen as an imaginary central point or at least one of the central points of the world. London is imagined as a ‘world centre of business’ (participant 278). London is also deemed as ‘a world centre of fashion’ (participant 278). This city is also visualized as ‘a world centre of culture’ by participant 278. The city was associated with ‘possibility of cultural experiences’ (participant 210).

It is a centre of the music world in particular, as was elaborated on by participant 102 who wrote ‘and definitely a lot of reminders of legendary music groups that came to life here and some of them are still alive.’ Others mentioned musicals, ‘West Ends musicals’, such as participant 1. Participant 209 stated, ‘British pop rather than a continental mix of music’. Events were pictured by some participants - for example
‘exhibitions’ were imagined by participant 264. Theatre was also stressed ‘in the evening other days maybe to theatres, theatre performance’ (participant 67) and ‘entertainment’ was a part of the image of participant 115. London is also associated with ‘celebrities’ (participant 9).

London is visualized as a world centre of sports, as one participant visualized, ‘global sports and global sports events as London is famous for the sports’ (participant 226), others pictured ‘football’ (participant 270). It is imagined that ‘the most visited sport is football’ (participant 226). ‘Arsenal London’ and ‘Chelsea’ were both associated with the city. Participant 222 stated, ‘as a sportsman I want to visit the famous places related to sports, because the English league is famous all around the world’, ‘watch Wimbledon’ was also emphasized. Participants also noted other sports: ‘tennis’ (150), ‘Formula 1 and horse racing’ (participant 270) and ‘cricket’ (participant 138).

London was also identified as a central place to learn in general as the following statements were made, ‘excellent schools, linked with education’ (participant 290), ‘possibility to study’ (participant 187), ‘learn as much as possible’ (participant 126), and ‘universities’ (participant 147). London is also seen as a place to go shopping by a number of participants. Shopping is discussed in different contexts, notably ‘shopping for clothes’ (participant 73) and ‘shopping for young people’ (participant 185). However, it is also seen as an expensive place, in particular ‘expensive’ was mentioned by participant 283.

London is also envisioned as one of the tourist capitals of the world. It is seen as ‘one of the most visited cities in the world’ (participant 226), with ‘a lot of tourists’ (participant 11). Participant 31 wrote that he imagines that ‘everywhere will be only tourists – nothing English.’ Participant 210 stressed, ‘a lot of tourists and it will be difficult to find own way from the beginning’. Participant 213 visualized, ‘crowds of tourists’. Participant 224 revealed that ‘during my walks I would meet a lot of tourists’. In addition to that, it is also seen as a ‘metropolis where the cultures of the whole world mix’ (participant 163).

Centrality of London on a country level was also pointed out, ‘London is also seen as the capital city of the UK’ (participant 226), hence London represents the whole of the United Kingdom, ‘my opinion about London is reflected in my opinion about the whole
of Great Britain, from its history until today’ (participant 2). Other images included England in particular, ‘feeling the soul of England’ (participant 120) and ‘I imagine old England’ (participant 145). This centrality was also reflected in the fact that London is imagined as a metropolis. London is seen as a metropolis which is illustrated by the following quote, ‘London = a huge metropolis’ (participant 242); some had the image of a ‘metropolis’ in general (participant 85). Centrality of London on an international level was also pointed out - it is seen as a centre of democracy. For example, participant 189 envisioned ‘city known as Londinium already from the ancient times. Thousands of years of history of European democracy’.


**Royal and historic links**

The imagined power of the British Empire is also represented by the Royal family in London. Her Majesty The Queen is a living symbol of Royalty in the United Kingdom. ‘Queen’ was imagined by many – for example participant 26. In particular, participant 94 visualized ‘environment of traditional kingdom’. Participant 232 revealed he imagines he will experience a, ‘tour around the Royal London’. Participant 272 mentioned, ‘the Queen, when she will get tired of the ruling. I don’t know, but I would probably not wish to change roles with her’. Participants wrote about the Royal family nowadays; participant 232 shared the view, ‘and peacefully hope that I will see someone from the Royal family, which probably would not happen’. ‘Princess’ was mentioned by some participants, ‘Prince Charles’ was also noted. The changing of the guard was detailed by a number of participants - in particular, participant 171 wrote, ‘changing guards, top-knot on their hats’. Participant 102 envisioned, ‘I would probably try to make them (guards) smile, but I would not succeed’.

Royalty in history was pictured as well. Some wrote about the ‘Royals in history’, in particular participant 68. Participant 300 visualized, ‘Henry VIII’, participant 169 revealed, ‘The Tudors, Queen Elisabeth, Queen Victoria.’ Participant 5 wrote ‘Royal family’; participant 241 stated, ‘kings and famous individuals’; participant 25 noted
‘Mary Stuart, War of the Roses’. Participant 189 disclosed, ‘I would like to see these traces of history from the Roman times, Georgian times, times of Queen Elisabeth, Richards, the dark destiny of Anne Boleyn and the blossoming during the times of Queen Elisabeth – wisdom as well as conquests and blessing to the pirates. This means to see pirates, house of parliament, Nelson – Piccadilly square, but also the reminiscence of the Musketeers – Buckingham Palace.’

In relation to London ‘history’ was mentioned by for example participant 195 who detailed, ‘while visiting London I would be interested in its history, not only contemporary era, mainly the divide between the Protestants and the Catholics with the influence of Spain on England and then mainly the conflicts between Scotland and England and how do residents of London look at this.’ Participant 87 noted, ‘Magna Carta’ while participant 241 visualized, ‘including linked with this the historical periods linked to even the history of the world.’ More recent Royal history was also imagined in the form of ‘Diana’, for example by participant 189.

Also, some depicted the power of the British Empire. Participant 189 wrote, ‘empire that dominates the world until today, even though only with the English language now.’ The historic power of London was repeatedly accentuated. Participant 85 pictured, ‘London accompanies me for a long time now, mainly through reading about acquisition of the new world – America where they were first of the colonists already in the age of Indians, the settling of colonies. This is also connected with the navy’. Participant 208 imagined, ‘It will probably be a weird feeling to be in the middle of the city that was a few centuries ago the centre of a powerful British empire’. It can then be summarized that London as a world city is also imagined as a place with a ‘powerful Royal history’, ‘Royalty’ as well as being a ‘post-colonial city’. It could be argued that these are attributes unique to London as a destination.

**Everyday culture of people**

Participants envisioned ‘everyday life of the Brits’ (participant 115). Participant 105 mentioned that he would like to ‘get to know as many things as possible about the local culture, eventually speak with someone, what they think about us’. Participant 213 noted ‘as with every visit abroad I will be interested in people and their attitude to life’. Participant 119 wrote about the everyday life of the city, ‘getting to know the city life of
people’. ‘Life of people’ was mentioned by some whilst others also referred to the ‘city life of people’ (participant 119), and simply ‘people’ were imagined by others. Participant 2 noted ‘and at the same time observe, how does it work, there are people, cultural habits of the locals’.

Cultural customs were visualized, with participant 186 recognising the ‘culture of the nation’. Some participants were ‘interested in lifestyle’ and to ‘observe local culture’. Participant 186 envisioned, ‘I would want to see the social background of residents, their needs and desires’. However, as participant 192 envisioned it is recognized that, ‘the life will be discovered only after a longer stay and work amongst the locals’.

Participants outlined the appearance of individuals, ‘top-hats’ were identified by participant 68 whilst participant 214 noted, ‘around me there will be Englishmen sitting there in long coats and with hats on and they will be speaking with each other.’ Elsewhere, participant 225 noted, ‘people wearing umbrellas or they rush or they look around’. Participant 245 suggested, ‘on the streets nice and not obtrusive fragrances of perfumes of passing women and men, well-groomed and with decent clothes, polite behaviour’. Locals were imagined as ‘neat and elegant’ (participant 33). Fashion was also stressed, participant 207 imagined, ‘not only that, but also watching how the locals dress and which style of clothing they prefer’. Participant 138 pictured, ‘school uniforms’. Some wrote of images linked with the behaviour of the locals such as, ‘reading newspapers’ (participant 6).

Cultural characteristics of the local people were envisioned and these were very fragmented. As participant 46 visualized, ‘every nation is of its own kind – original’. British humour was also emphasized as participant 214 noted, ‘humour - dry humour’ and ‘English humour that I envy’, as recognised by participant 272. The specific imagined type of humour was described as ‘witty, almost sarcastic’ by participant 33. Another key characteristic that was emphasized was the politeness of people; ‘polite’ was disclosed by participant 220. Participants also wrote ‘respect’ (participant 196), and kindness as participant 220 suggested, ‘very kind, kind’. ‘Friendly’ was also noted (participant 6) whilst other participants suggested ‘smiling’ (participant 258), ‘welcoming’ (participant 281) and ‘not big-headed’ (participant 225). Another attribute of ‘hardworking’ was noted by participant 33.
Other cultural characteristics were also unveiled, that of being constrained by ‘adhesion to traditions’ (participant 47). ‘Anglophiles’ was suggested by participant 47. ‘Proud of their country and currency’ was expressed by participant 33. Others, in contrast with the quotes included in the previous section, disclosed that they imagine Londoners to be reserved and serious as the following was mentioned, ‘not speaking much’ (participant 282) and ‘cold’ was emphasized by a number of others along with ‘conservative’ (participant 281), ‘constrained behaviour’ (participant 47), ‘closed’ (participant 56), ‘stiff’ (participant 68), ‘unapproachable’ (participant 67), ‘not smiling, frowning’ (participant 225). The images of Londoners were also associated with ‘firmness’ (participant 47), ‘self-restraint’ (participant 47), ‘neutral expression’ (participant 33), ‘dismissive look on foreigners’ (participant 132). It was also pointed out that the visualized Londoners, ‘will treat me with no respect’ (participant 34) There were also some other prejudices, for example ‘Englishmen cannot cook’ (participant 49); ‘strangely behaving’ was also noted (participant 24). These are clearly contrasting images and, in many cases, it is different people who hold these contrasting images.

Participants pictured that they will experience local ‘traditions’, as noted by participant 191. ‘Curiosities’ were also envisioned by participant 171. Participant 123 suggested, ‘I will get to know a new culture, new people, local customs, traditions’. Some described traditional policemen, ‘kind bobbies’ (participant 258), ‘policemen with moustache’ (participant 211) and ‘policemen on a horse’ (participant 261). Participant 249 suggested, ‘I will take a picture with a policeman from London’. Participant 173 also noted, ‘English police with the high hats’. A key feature of images was also driving cars on the opposite side of the road and traffic moving in the opposite direction, ‘driving on the wrong side of the street seen as the worst thing’ (participant 208).

Non-visitors also associated their images with the English language. As participant 105 commented, ‘English speaking people’. Participant 107 stated, ‘I study on Saturday and Sunday, I work, I save money for lessons of English. I would like to attend the Meridian College in London, there is a course for 4 weeks, 3 hours a day, it costs 12,000 CZK. For those who know the language, they imagine that it is their chance to be a part of everyday life. For example, participant 70 wrote, ‘if I would understand English, it would be interesting to have conversations about the notions of Englishmen on what is
happening in the world’. Participant 86 mentioned, ‘take part in their talks and discussions’.

Apart from just ‘English’ (participant 256), a specific type of English was described, ‘Cockney English’ (participant 75) and ‘British English’ (participant 310). Participant 31 stated, ‘I will hear the British English, more noble than the American one. Respondent 185 noted, ‘I would be looking forward to conversations in English, because British English is a bit harder for me than the American one’. Many mentioned ‘language barrier’, such as participant 45. Further evidence of the language barrier is included later on in the chapter on the influence of country of residence on image.

A Britain that is cosmopolitan and multicultural was also one of the key images. A number of respondents visualized ‘cosmopolitanism’ (participant 130). Others imagined the following attributes, ‘a lot of cultures, mix of cultures of the whole world’ (participant 160), a ‘mix of nationalities, people from all over the world’ (participant 211), ‘people of different colours’ (participant 64), ‘immigrants’ (participant 75), ‘minorities’ (participant 109), ‘Pakistanis’ (participant 75). ‘Different faces’ was suggested by participant 110, ‘Babylon’ by participant 274 and ‘foreigners’ by participant 132. Elsewhere, participant 225 noted, ‘in reality it would be difficult to recognize who is a Londoner and who is a foreigner, because there are even more of them there’.

Another element of visualized everyday culture was the food. Many participants expressed their views about food. For example, the following was disclosed, ‘new fragrances or dishes that Englishmen have’ (participant 61), whilst participant 245 envisioned, ‘fragrances of unknown types of spices, cheeses’. Participant 207 pictured, ‘my big hobby is cooking and I like to eat some good dishes. That is why I would also be interested in this way of eating’. Participant 67 wrote that he is ‘curious about cuisine’. Participant 272 stated, ‘I would buy something to eat and try to persuade myself that the English food is good, but I do not fancy it right now’. ‘English breakfast, breakfast’ was visualized by participant 238. Some participants described English pudding or pudding whilst a range of other foods and flavours were noted such as ‘hot dog; real hot dog’ (participant 283), ‘fish’ (participant 232), ‘strangely mixed, sweet together with salty?’ (participant 16), ‘vinegar crisps’ (participant 220), ‘baked potatoes with vegetables at
the edge of the city’ (participant 29), ‘cheeseburgers’ (participant 144), ‘pie’ (participant 201), ‘toasts’ (participant 283), ‘hamburger’ (participant 215), ‘orange marmalade’ (participant 294), ‘lamb gigot’ (participant 69), ‘steaks’ (participant 86), ‘oranges and bananas for breakfast’ (participant 91), ‘smell of boiled beef and potatoes’ (participant 281). It can be observed that these images vary greatly.

Cuisine as such was pictured by participants for example, ‘simple, not distinctive cuisine’ (participant 46) and ‘poor cuisine’ (participant 32). ‘Food’ in general was also imagined by many, for example participant 53. Regarding food, one participant, ‘is not expecting much as he is conservative’ (participant 83); another ‘does not like English cuisine’ (participant 68). Participant 96 stated, ‘I have read about the English cuisine (in novels) not very nice words.’ Participant 99 mentioned, ‘the cuisine is represented as bad’. Participant 104 wrote, ‘I know from what I heard that English cuisine practically does not exist’, and participant 125 pictured, ‘the worst cuisine in the world, that is why a lot of international cuisines provide their dishes here.’ Participant 173 wrote, ‘I think that I would eat what I brought with me’. Fish and chips were described by some participants for example, participant 55 stated, ‘I would taste fried fish with chips; I heard it is not exactly great’. Participant 76 declared, ‘English cuisine is horrible’. Participant 282 visualized, ‘I think that the food is probably not that great’.

Tea was envisioned by participants in many variations. Participant 214 wrote, ‘I will taste the ‘Tea at five’. Beer was imagined by a number of participants – for example, participant 85 communicated, ‘the beer for us is too much ‘from an island’ and participant 209 envisioned, ‘beer is drunk (I do not even know if it is produced in London or if all of it is imported)’. Some had strong opinions about beer, for example, ‘horrible beer’ (participant 111). Other beverages were revealed such as ‘Guinness beer’ (participant 106), ‘Gin and Tonic’ (participant 1), ‘whiskey and wine’ (participant 69), ‘coffee’ (participant 117), ‘coffee bar’ (participant 17). Some other images, those where imagined dishes are compared the Czech cuisine, are presented in the section on influence of a country of residence.

**Cultural place image**

The imagined culture of London as a place to live rather than just a place to visit was also pointed out – some participants were thus imagining place image rather than destination image. This theme is closely linked with the theme previously presented on
the everyday life of residents of London where participants visualized what they would see as tourists; however, in this case they evaluated London as a place to live. Participant 150 commented on the contrasting appeal and differences in place and destination images, ‘as for a tourist trip this place is interesting, but I would not want to live there’. London was not only seen as a destination, but also as a place to live and work, for example a ‘city with huge opportunities’ (participant 102).

However, it was associated with a ‘temporary job’ (participant 120), ‘part-time job’ (participant 127) or job of an ‘au pair’ (participant 115). Participant 128 elaborated further, ‘it would be good as a temporary job, I would definitely earn more than at home ... I would get experience, save some money and go back home’. However, it was also pictured that, ‘for foreigners there is only a second-tier job available’ (participant 128) or ‘the majority of people do not have enough money, they live in estates, it is dangerous on the streets’ (participant 133) as well as ‘it is really hard to get a job because of high unemployment’ (participant 128). Participant 132 envisioned, ‘I would not want to live there, not even work there’ and participant 133 detailed in relation to London as a place image, ‘I would not like to live there, it is probably harder than here’.

On the other hand some, such as participant 107, accentuated, ‘a good quality of life for its residents’. ‘Lots of opportunities for work/entertainment’ were communicated by participant 127 who pictured, ‘I am sure that it is a beautiful and huge city where there are lots of opportunities, work or for entertainment. Firstly I would come as a tourist and later I would be searching for a job, part-time job and I would practice everything that I have learned at school’. Participant 97 wrote on a positive note, ‘from what I hear, young children from the age of two go to kindergarten where they slowly prepare themselves to go to school. Also the healthcare is better; doctors and nurses have bigger salaries’.

Politically, London as a place to live is associated with the life in the West in general. This is illustrated in the following quote by participant 3 who stated, ‘usually the Czechs, including me, imagine everything in the West – so this means even London – better’. It is also envisioned as a part of Europe. Participant 53 commented that, ‘we all
live in Europe’ and participant 103 visualized, ‘both countries, Czech Republic and Great Britain are in Europe’.

Not only did participants hold a distinction between place image and destination image, but a difference was also made between destination image and business destination image. Participant 58 envisioned, ‘it also depends on the fact how long I would be there and for which occasion if as a leisure tourist or on business’. Destination image and business destination image however seem to be subordinated to place image, as evidenced in the following response from participant 191, ‘from just going by bus in the city a person cannot get to know much. Only the architecture, shops, swarming of people in the streets. The life will be discovered only after a longer stay and work amongst the locals’.

**Imagined atmosphere**

Another intangible element, this time associated with the environment rather than the culture, is the atmosphere. Participant 84 detailed, ‘during my first visit to London I would try to slowly and as much as possible feel the atmosphere of the city, its style and in a way also its fragrances, everything that our ancestors called the spirit of the time’. The historical atmosphere was stressed by others as well – it was envisioned for example by participant 83, ‘the atmosphere of the city where kings used to live’ as well as by participant 90, ‘breathe on me with its old-world, tranquillity and well-being’. Lastly, participant 206 described the ‘historical atmosphere of past times’.

Participants assigned many different attributes to London generally, to its atmosphere, such as: ‘beautiful city’ (participant 185), ‘a nice city’ (participant 241), ‘cosy place’ (participant 123), ‘wonderful city’ (participant 212). Its modernity was also pointed out - ‘modern city’ (participant 185), ‘developed city’ (participant 107). Its conservativeness was also emphasized - ‘strict place’ (participant 214), ‘big city with a sense for order, be it generally or politically’ (participant 85). ‘thanks to its conservativeness it still has got its face’ (participant 135) ‘old-fashioned city’ (participant 267), ‘historic, old-fashioned city’ (participant 300).

London was pictured as a dark city - as participant 99 depicted, ‘London – dark city’. Participant 209 pictured London ‘with the evening the grey gets lost under the lights of
lamps’. It was also envisioned as ‘obscure city full of enigma’ (participant 300). London is regarded as ‘a gloomy place’ (participant 289); participant 58 also envisioned ‘gloomy streets from the end of the 18th century’. Participants pointed out the imagined uniqueness of London, as participant 56 wrote, ‘London would not be like any other city in the world’. Participant 125 stated, ‘a city one of its kind’. Participant 86 detailed, ‘I heard that it is very specific and for us maybe a little bit weird’. In regards to tourists, participant 11 pictured, ‘a lot of tourists will try to capture the wonderful atmosphere of everyday life of Londoners; would feel the atmosphere of a real luxury’ (participant 272).

**Attraction to London**

Lastly, both attraction and non-attraction to London were pointed out as part of the experiential images of participants. Some participants are clearly not attracted to London, for example participant 52 stated, ‘to be honest, I am not very attracted by London; I do not have any relation to it’. This non-attraction is difficult to explain for some, as can be observed from what participant 35 stated, ‘I don’t know exactly why, but I am not very much attracted by London, I cannot remember how this was created’. Participant 32 visualized only that, ‘London does not attract me’, while participant 88 also wrote, ‘London does not attract me. I would pick another city from European capitals’. Participant 44 linked her level of attraction to the whole country by stating, ‘England does not attract me - historical England yes, today’s no’. Attraction to a destination is, linked to specific sources, for example the English language, as participant 201 puts it, ‘I like the English language and that is probably why I have a positive relation with Great Britain’. It can be observed that if non-visitors like a specific representation of London, they like London too, or attraction can be linked to other sources, as participant 110 outlined, ‘I think that it is very influenced by one series that I like a lot and this is why I also imagine London as an amazing place’.

Attraction and non-attraction both result in conative images which are images where participants state whether they would like to visit the destination. Conative images were included in the responses of participants to indicate whether they wished to visit the destination. Unfortunately, a question on whether they would like to travel to the destination was not asked in the instrument, so all the responses on this theme were unprompted. Some participants pictured that they ‘would like to visit London’, for
example participant 101. Another participant, number 91, stated, ‘however; after all it would be good to see London’. A visit to London is not always seen as a ‘necessity’, as participant 47 mentioned, ‘I do not want to visit London in the near future, but it would definitely be a good experience’. One participant, number 300, expressed uncertainty by stating, ‘I am not sure that I would like London’. There were others who specifically expressed that they would not like to visit London, such as participant 6 who clearly stated, ‘I would not like to visit London’.

4.2.1.2 Tangible images

Natural environment

One of the tangible images is the image of London’s natural environment. Many participants imagined ‘fog’ in London, such participant 6. Some referred to rainy weather, as for example participant 21 who detailed ‘rainy weather that would now cool me down. The smell of rain, fresh air, romance in the form of red buses and telephone boxes where I could hide when it rains’.

London is imagined as a ‘green place’ (participant 249). Parks were also pointed out by a number of participants – for example by participant 290, ‘park seen as oasis, place to relax and silent place’. The parks were associated with specific images, ‘the smell of roses’ (participant 36), ‘blossoms’ (participant 157), ‘a lot of trees, bushes and plants’ (participant 123).

A seasonal image was also identified, as participant 65 pictured, ‘if I could pick a season, I would prefer in blossom spring or autumn.’ In particular, the following parks were imagined, ‘Hyde Park’ (participant 298), ‘Kensington Garden’ (participant 295), ‘Royal Botanical Gardens with over 25 thousand of plant species’ (participant 226).

The river ‘Thames’ was portrayed as another element of the natural environment, for example by participant 46, who wrote ‘I heard that Thames does not smell very nicely.’ Participant 40 pictured the Thames as ‘a long, wide river – straight’. Participants 267 had in mind a specific image of the Thames, ‘river and dark dust-colour water’. Surprisingly, ‘the sea’ was also associated with London by participant 268. A particular type of wind was envisioned, ‘an island wind’ (participant 106). Participants in their images of London also included ‘white cliffs of Dover’ (participant 298).
**London’s historic sights**

A number of participants envisioned historic sights of London. Many wrote just ‘sights’, such as participant 4. Participant 5 visualized, *I think that London is known mainly for its sights linked with history*. Participant 7 detailed, ‘sights vary from Gothic to Victorian buildings’. Participant 142 pictured he imagines he would experience, ‘sights with a guide’. Participant 39 wrote just ‘sightseeing’. Participant 46 also imagined sights in another context, as he wrote *I am attracted by the sights, possibly a visit to a private castle where you could see the interior with a guided tour*. However, the contrary was stated by participant 213, who stated, *I do not wish to see all the tourist and historic sights of the metropolis*. ‘Typical places’ were also identified and mentioned by participant 153. Participant 259 visualized *the most famous places in London*. Participant 218 wrote that, *I will definitely want to see all interesting places for tourists*. Participant 215 revealed *I will visit the most famous sights and typical places*. Participant 241 envisioned *typical architectural styles linked with the famous personalities of the past and present times*.

‘Big Ben’ was amongst the key themes, mentioned for example by participant 4. Participant 12 visualized *Big Ben and the characteristic sound of bells*. Participant 91 envisioned *I would hear the big Ben (we had at home a clock with Big Ben)*. Participant 102 pictured *Big Ben that is named after the fat politician Ben*. Participant 110 unveiled, *for the first time in London I will see first the Big Ben and I will hear as its bells ring the midday*. The sights are however not everyone’s preference – as participant 113 mentioned, ‘sites like Tower or Big Ben do not attract me so I would rather prefer the museum of wax figurines’. ‘Tower Bridge’ was imagined by many, for example participant 20. It was seen as a key attribute of London with specific imaginations linked to it as participant 12 commented, *bridge over Tower Bridge that I will cross by foot during the day as well as at night*. Participant 278 stated, *Tower Bridge – Victorian bridge over Thames*. ‘Buckingham Palace’ was also imagined by many participants, for example participant 26. The Tower of London was also pictured by participants, for example participant 28.

There were also many other tourist sights that were envisioned by participants, ‘Parliament’ was envisioned by participant 299. Participant 40 wrote, *Parliament (on
the river bank, low wide buildings’, ‘Downing Street’ was envisioned (participant 295), ‘Piccadilly Circus (Piccadilly square)’ (participant 292), ‘Trafalgar square, famous square’ (participant 210), ‘Westminster Palace’ (participant 67), ‘Westminster Abbey’ (participant 76), ‘St. Paul’s Cathedral’ (participant 295), ‘cathedral’ (participant 84).

Participant 278 visualized, ‘I hear that the London Eye is interesting – the sightseeing attraction, 135 metres high, it is on the bank of the river Thames and one circle takes 30 minutes’. ‘London Bridge’ was also imagined (participant 260). Participant 260 further visualized, ‘if I could take a picture of Piccadilly Circus or the London Bridge, I would be rather pleased’. ‘Kensington Palace’ was visualized by participant 272. Also, ‘the memorial of Diana’ was pointed out by participant 155. Similarly, ‘palace where Diana lived’ (participant 189) was also mentioned. Participant 52 wrote ‘I would want to walk the path where there was a funeral service for Lady Diana’.

Historic places not at the centre of London were also communicated. For example, ‘Greenwich, observatory, meridian zero’ was imagined by participant 220). Places quite distant were also imagined, for example ‘Windsor Castle’ was mentioned by participant 226.

Participants imagined places associated with literature and history, ‘places that I know from literature and history’ (participant 193). In particular, ‘places where there was supposedly Jack the Ripper’ were envisioned by participant 146 and ‘Pathways of Henry VIII’ were envisioned by participant 68.

Types of sights were communicated, ‘majestic halls’ (participant 29), ‘theatres’ (participant 1), ‘bridges’ (participant 50), ‘mansions’ (participant 267), ‘cemeteries’ (participant 241), ‘palaces’ (participant 241), ‘abbeys’ (participant 241). Participants imagined generally the ‘historic centre’ (participant 209) and ‘historical buildings’ (participant 108). Participant 208 mentioned ‘I will be able to see famous historic buildings’. Participant 245 envisioned ‘I will have a huge experience only through the environment, from huge and beautiful buildings’.

**Everyday life sights**

Transport in general was envisioned. ‘The roads with four streams’ were imagined by participant 237). Parking was also visualized, ‘parking in the city centre is expensive and there are only a few parking spaces’ (participant 133). Some pictured the density of
transport in London as a ‘dense transport network’ (participant 275). ‘Double-deckers’ were imagined by a number of participants, for example participant 5.

Some attached specific messages as well, for example participant 15 pictured, ‘sightseeing tour in the red bus’. Participant 34 wrote, ‘double-deckers’ that I will probably not see in London anymore as I heard’. Participant 113 communicated, ‘it is a pity that the double-deckers are signed off. I would like to see London from the second floor of one of them’. Participant 263 stated, ‘on the streets the bells of the double-deckers can be heard – even though they may have abolished them already’. It is interesting that old Route masters were confused with all double-deckers. Participant 203 imagined ‘big buses with two storeys red or yellow colour’. Participant 224 envisioned, ‘red buses would go everywhere around me so I would jump into one of them and travel like that’. Buses in general were also stressed as participant 51 visualized, ‘go by bus to see something special’. Participant 214 wrote ‘beautiful new buses that are compared with our country like brand new, because they are not damaged’.

‘Underground’ was also visualized by some, for example participant 7. Some individuals had more detailed images of the underground. Participant 11 pictured, ‘other than that I would be very interested in travelling by their underground in order to compare my own experiences with those from Paris’. Participant 72 mentioned ‘I would be straight away interested in the pre-paid cards for the Underground’. Other forms of transport such as ‘taxis’ were also stressed by participant 20. Some more detailed images were also expressed by others such as participant 202 who wrote, ‘yellow taxis’. Boats were also pictured, ‘rolling of boats’ (participant 69), ‘boat’ (participant 83), ‘probably a large amount of cyclists who maybe have their own lines to be able to drive safely and would not have to drive between cars or pedestrians’ (participant 245), ‘horse carriages’ (participant 290). Cars were also envisioned; ‘on roads there will be big luxurious cars of different marks’ (participant 245). Other means of transport that were imagined included the ‘tram’ (participant 236) as well as a ‘modern airport’ (participant 187).

Streets were referred to in different contexts, they were visualized as ‘narrow’ (participant 67), ‘same, street as street’ (participant 242), ‘wide’ (participant 253). The
streets are full of cars' (participant 131); 'the streets are full of people' (participant 131). It was pictured that, 'streets are not customized to cars, but are accessible to those who walk’ (participant 135). It was also envisioned that 'the main streets of entertainment are noisy until midnight’ (participant 209). Some mentioned the fact that the city is 'clean’ (participant 123), 'no cigarettes on pavements’ (participant 214), 'mainly pavements without the dog excrements and papers and chewing gums lying on the streets’ (participant 245).

Overall, London is imagined as having a 'clean environment’ (participant 19). Participants also envisioned 'fences: small metal fences’ (225), 'stone fences’ (participant 267). 'Red boxes’ were also imagined, for example by participant 300. 'Bridges, stone bridges’ were visualized too (participant 148) as well as 'draw bridges’ (participant 291). London is seen as a place with 'large buildings, facilities, skyscrapers’ (participant 16), a place with 'buildings in the former Docklands’ (participant 76).

Some of the participants pictured residential houses - 'older (old) houses’ (participant 275), 'not very high houses’ (participant 67), 'beautiful old houses’ (participant 173), 'houses in the suburbs’ (participant 225), 'some quarter located in the periphery’ (participant 99), and 'buildings from grey or yellow stone’ (participant 263). 'Family houses’ were also pictured. Participant 8 visualized, 'at the end of my visit I would be surprised by London, family houses certainly look different’. Participant 89 wrote 'same houses, same built material, and streets’. 'Brick houses’ were mentioned by participant 245 who also pictured, 'the houses from bricks are not in the Central London I would think, I do not know. I would also like to visit the countryside, where I would see beautiful brick houses’.

In terms of the built environment some imagine the city as a divided place, 'the rich and the poor are mentioned in relation with London: palatial quarters, quarters of the poor and immigrants; it is a city of more faces, poor and rich, noble’ (participant 50). Participant 300 stated, 'historic buildings prevail in there and everything modern is adjusted to fit in with the old so that it would not disturb’. One individual also mentioned 'contemporary evolution – the blocks of flats’ (participant 290). It is
imagined as a modern city by some, ‘modern buildings with offices and shops’ (participant 236).

Some envisioned tourist accommodation. Participant 5 wrote ‘as I have already found out, regarding the accommodation, it isn’t the cheapest one; a part of my image is also cheap hostel of the ‘Bed and Breakfast’ type’. Participant 50 detailed, ‘I will live in a hostel, there will be a lot of tourists’. Participant 86 wrote that ‘overall fatigue would push me to go and rest in a small hotel (traditional – old)’. Participant 133 on the other side revealed that his imaginations included ‘luxury in the accommodation sector’. Participant 224 visualized, ‘if I would be in London I would want to live in one of those cheap hotels where there would be a small cosy room with a nice smell of clean laundry’.

Shops were visualized by a number of participants - the following was detailed in relation to shops, ‘all different types of shops with clothes’ (participant 207), ‘shops with fashionable clothes’ (participant 203), ‘shops with luxurious goods’ (participant 187), ‘markets, flea markets’ (participant 181), ‘windows of shops’ (participant 209) and ‘fragrances from shops’ (participant 210). Some wrote ‘expensive shops, luxurious goods’ (participant 187). ‘Shopping house Harrods’ was envisioned by participant 23. Places to eat and drink were also imagined for example, ‘pubs’ (participant 245), ‘restaurants’ (participant 264), ‘fragrances from restaurants’ (participant 210), ‘famous vegan/vegetarian restaurants’ (participant 213). In particular, ‘the smoking ban in restaurants’ was visualized by participant 125. The night venues were also pictured as ‘bars’ (participant 67) and ‘clubs night life with clubs’ (participant 213). Participant 58 pictured, ‘I would want to see the Cavern club and some other clubs’, others wrote ‘casinos’ (participant 231), ‘discos’ (participant 209). Some mentioned ‘neon’ (participant 187). Some envisioned other types of day venues such as ‘coffee shops’ (participant 203). Global brands were included too such as ‘McDonalds’ (participant 46).

Cultural establishments were also envisioned, ‘concert halls’ (participant 133), ‘theatres’ (participant 200), as well as ‘cinema’ (participant 187). Museums and galleries were often pointed out. Some wrote ‘galleries’ (participant 1); participant 5 visualized, ‘there are lot of museums, I like the fact that the state ones are for free’. In
particular the following galleries and museums were envisioned, ‘National Gallery’ (participant 229), ‘Tate Gallery’ (participant 268), ‘Museums’ (participant 296), ‘British Museum’ (participant 295), ‘Museum of Wax figurines’ (participant 45), ‘Museum of Arts’ (participant 240), ‘RAF Henson – London’ (participant 132). Sports venues were also imagined, ‘Wimbledon’ (participant 295); ‘Stadium Chelsea’ (participant 266).

‘Architecture’ was referred to as well (participant 105). In particular, participants detailed ‘traditional architecture’ (participant 94) and ‘English architecture’ (participant 169). Participant 67 pictured, ‘I imagine that London is one of the oldest places and even the architecture corresponds to this’. Participant 31 visualized ‘in the architecture, there will be something that could be identified as typically English’. Participant 72 commented on a ‘city with a shocking mishmash of architecture regarding my interest in modern architecture, there will probably be a lot to look forward to’. A library was also imagined, ‘new library in the Docklands’ (participant 82).

Other sights were also included in the responses, ‘the river bank of Goldman’ (participant 183), ‘steel gates on the Thames’ (participant 252), ‘Cafe Royal’ (participant 214) as well as ‘old building of Scotland Yard’ (participant 299). More modern sights were also mentioned - for example, ‘London Eye’ (participant 14). Particular areas of London were also visualized - for example, ‘Soho’ was imagined by participant 75.

As a part of the visualized environment, everyday fragrances were also pictured ‘nice smells in the zones only for pedestrians with coffees’ (participant 242). Participant 108 wrote ‘the city smells nice’. Participant 187 visualized ‘a lot of smells’. On the other side, some imagined rather negative smells – for example participant 216 mentioned ‘smell from the damaged nature’ and participant 9 mentioned ‘I will smell the rubbish’. Participant 246 then envisioned, ‘every place has its specific fragrance, for example Holland smells of soil and agriculture, Greece after citrus fruit and olives, I am curious, how the air in London will smell’. Participant 248 envisioned ‘nice smells’.

Other image attributes concerned the image of the city environment in general. London is seen by participant 207, as a place with a ‘dense transport, city noise, turmoil, simply
the typical features of a big city’. It is seen as ‘one of the biggest cities in the world’ (participant 216) and, as participant 226 puts it, ‘I will smell and hear the bustle and confusion of the city. London is one of the biggest cities in the world’. ‘Traffic’ was mentioned by for example participant 1. The ‘beeping sounds of the cars’ (participant 242) and ‘chaos’ (participant 45) were also clear images. London is seen as a ‘big city’ by many, for example participant 282. It is imagined as a place with ‘a lot of people’ by many, for example participant 9. It could be summarized that the features of the big city were assessed by participants. More evidence on city image is presented in another section of this chapter, on the influence of a place of residence.

4.2.1.3 Experiential images

This section presents experiential images which are images linked to role of individuals whilst imagining themselves at the non-visited destination. Even though one could argue that this type of image could be linked with the other sections, these are treated separately. This section includes two themes: imagined role as a tourist and imagined feelings at the destination

**Imagined role as a tourist**

Participants envisioned themselves as tourists in a foreign destination. This is linked with the theme identified in the nature of destination images about the archetypal image of a foreign place. Individuals referred to their behaviour as tourists and what they would do in London once they visit it, and this greatly varied. Participant 84, for example, when asked to imagine his experience in London wrote that he would do ‘everything that I will have the time to do’. Participant 86 pictured a more organized program, ‘including a visit with a guide – it would be nice to go sightseeing by boat’. Participant 71 visualized, ‘I do not want to see everything’. Participant 99 disclosed ‘it would be enough for me to see the centre’. Participant 122 mentioned that his experiential image of London, ‘depends on how many days I would go to London for’. Just walking through the city was emphasized, as participant 214 visualized, ‘I will walk through the centre’. Similarly, this was revealed by participant 35 who communicated, ‘I will walk in the streets and look for the things that I would like’. Participant 117 wrote ‘walk through the city’. Participant 163 disclosed on a similar note, ‘I will just wander around’.
Specific activities that participants would do in the envisioned destination as tourists were also imagined as participant 224 visualized, 'with the map in my hand and with my English without experience I would ask those passing around me for advice to find the right place'. The role of maps was important as participant 144 imagined, 'I will buy a map; I will have to find my way in the environment different to the Czech one'. Participant 187 wrote about his envisioned experience, 'and then I see myself how I am not ready to go to that underground, I cannot speak the language, orientation in this environment'.

Their experiential images were linked to the general image of a foreign place not just with the destination, as participant 284 described, 'but also other types of food and limited possibility to communicate and similar situations that a person experiences when he is a foreign and unknown environment and, in a way, a different culture as well.' Participant 67 envisioned what he would expect the following, 'as a tourist I will visit London in the near future and I will bring experiences that I will remember for years'. Participant 187 wrote that the organized tour is important for him, 'the iron border did its job so I will not be able to travel there alone, maybe only as a tourist with an organised tour'.

**Imagined feelings**

In addition to the participants imagining how they would behave at the imagined destination, imagined feelings at the destination were identified. Many participants thought that their experience would be filled with good feelings, that it will be 'pleasant' (participant 230). Participant 117 detailed, 'I will enjoy my trip and I will be enthusiastic from new things'. Positive feelings were expressed by participant 37 who wrote, 'but with the time if I would go through some streets and know roughly where I am, and feel joy of getting to know new things, reactions of foreign people'. Participant 210 visualised both positive and negative feelings at the same time by stating, 'firstly, we will be scared of the unknown, but I believe that soon we will get used to it and probably even fall in love with London'. The overall newness of the experience also evoked feelings - participant 126 pictured, 'I will experience everything new and probably foreign'. Participant 101 stated the importance of the first visit rather than other visits, 'I will feel curiosity, and everything new attracts me'. Participant 114 wrote 'great experience for me, to be in a different country for the first time'. Participant 119
disclosed, ‘in reality it does not matter if I will be in London or another city I do not know. Every place brings its own surprises. Every experience of new things or new places brings a feeling of enrichment and excitement’. Participant 216 mentioned ‘enthusiasm from an unknown place’. Participant 216 also envisioned the ‘feeling of a big adventure’.

Many other positive imagined feelings were also described, ‘excitement’ was expressed by participant 203. Participant 287 wrote that he would feel ‘well, great and fantastic’ while participant 101 envisioned that he would ‘feel curious’. A liberating feeling was unveiled by participant 144 as he stressed that he would feel ‘free’. A feeling of another world was expressed by participant 200 as he expressed that he would feel ‘as in a fairy tale’. Participants also pictured that they would feel ‘happy’ (participant 212), and ‘amazed’ (participant 178).

Participants used various rather negative descriptors to express how they would feel, such as, ‘lost’ (participant 185), ‘unsure or insecure’ (participant 201), ‘confusion’ (participant 96), ‘stress’ (participant 1), ‘anonymity’ (participant 7), ‘lonely’ (participant 130), ‘scared’ (participant 251), ‘feel as a foreigner’ (participant 29) and feel ‘scared of the unknown’ (participant 210). The image of a metropolis also evoked feelings with for example participant 174 describing it as a ‘metropolis where I would feel lost’ while participant 256 visualized ‘the stress of the metropolis’. The image of loneliness was also pointed out - participant 121 for example mentioned, ‘it depends on the fact who I visit it with. If I will be alone, the main image will be that I will get lost. I will not be able to get used to it’. These findings are discussed in more detail in the section on the influence of place of residence on image. A variety of other feelings was also identified. A feeling of uniqueness was also identified as participant 115 envisioned, ‘live a different life for a while, a unique life’. A feeling of history was identified by participant 246 who visualized ‘imagine what happened in that particular place where I am over the course of long centuries’. Participant 213 described mixed feelings such as, ‘overall stress, in a trance’. The global nature of the city was also identified as a source of emotions- participant 45 envisioned that he would, ‘feel global’.

4.2.2 The most common images of London held by Czech non-visitors
The previous section presented the richness of the images of London held by the Czech non-visitors. However, it is also important to establish what the prevalent images of London held by Czech non-visitors are, as opposed to images held by only one or a few individuals.

This section presents key shared images and ‘shared’ in this section means identified by more than 20 participants at the same time. Surprisingly, there are not that many such images as a great majority of images were mentioned by just one individual out of the 300 participants. The analysis is based on what participants stated only, meaning that synonyms were not grouped together or for example if participants mentioned ‘sights’ for example, ‘Big Ben’ was not included in sights. Full details are included in the methodology chapter.


It can be observed that the most common images of non-visitors are quite generic. Even though it is not always easy to distinguish between unique and generic images; there is a number of clearly unique shared image attributes in the list above - such as for example ‘Big Ben’, ‘Thames’, ‘rain’, ‘fog’, ‘buses’, ‘Royal’, ‘Tower’, ‘Tower Bridge’, ‘double-decker’and ‘Queen’. It is interesting to see that for example fog and double-deckers are so commonly stated images of London.
4.2.3 Reflections by participants on the nature of destination images

The section presents results comprising the reflections of participants on the nature of their own destination image (Table 4.3 below).

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unknowability</th>
<th>Difficult to describe</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Different to experiences</td>
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<td>Not everyone holds these images</td>
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<td>Inaccuracy</td>
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<td>Anxiety</td>
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<td>Nostalgia</td>
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### Table 4.3: Table displaying themes identified in regards to the characteristics of destination image of non-visitors (source: primary research of this study)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Archetypal images</th>
<th>General image of foreign places</th>
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<td>General city image</td>
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<td></td>
<td>World city image</td>
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<td>Plurality</td>
<td>Plurality identified by participants</td>
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<td>Written and visual images</td>
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<td>Sensual images</td>
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<td>Shared and individual images</td>
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<td>Typicality</td>
<td>Typical images</td>
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### Unknowability

This section presents reflections by participants about the unknowability of non-visited places. Some found it difficult to describe the imaginary, as participant 149 stressed, ‘it is difficult to write about an experience that I have not experienced’. It is more difficult than describing an actual experience, as participant 227 detailed, ‘if I want to talk about London either positively or negatively I have to visit the city first’. In addition, some individuals did not want to participate in the research itself as they found it difficult to imagine in the first instance.

Interestingly, some participants believe that their images are inaccurate. For example, participant 47 expressed doubts by stating, ‘is my image truthful? I don’t know, I should probably check’. Participant 218 wrote, ‘but I do not know if it is really true because only from narratives it is difficult to judge how they are in reality’. Participant 29 assessed, ‘my image will probably be largely inaccurate’. Participant 121 emphasized, ‘certainly the first image is mainly from the literature, where London is mainly a dirty and gloomy city. But probably it is not like that anymore’. Participant 198 revealed, ‘I am sure the reality must be different than this, but these are my first thoughts when I think of London’. Participant 173 admitted, ‘I suppose that the prices in London will be much higher as in other Western capital cities – this is my image, but I can be wrong’. Another participant, number 263, revealed, ‘I probably imagine London as more beautiful, more interesting and more cosmopolitan than it is in reality’. Participant 196
emphasized, ‘I imagine that I will appear in the old good England where the respect, kindness and good education still exist, maybe this image is wrong’. This seems to contrast with the certainty of one’s experience.

Some compared their images to dreams in their incomplete nature, in particular participant 299 mentioned, ‘and if I daydream, I start to think about other things as well’. Images of non-visitors are blurred, they are not as sharp as direct experiences, as respondent 126 unveiled, ‘my images of London are blurred, this is probably the right expression’. Hence, participants acknowledge the uncertainty associated with images by non-visitors. For example, participant 245 commented, ‘I certainly idealize London and to be able to judge it correctly, I would need to live there a longer period, over a year and that is when I would maybe change my opinion’.

The limited nature of the images of the non-visitors, as compared with experience, was recognized by some participants such as participant 106 who mentioned, ‘otherwise a person does not get to know much about London if he does not visit it himself - my opinion’. This limitation was also clearly stressed by participant 212 who admitted, ‘I do not have a lot of images’ and participant 273 who revealed, ‘because I have never been in London I cannot tell you much’. However; it also needs to be pointed out that many other participants had detailed images.

A kind of nostalgic view of the imagined place was also apparent. For example, participant 75 commented, ‘I would like to see Big Ben, Thames, visit Soho, and hear Cockney English. But I am worried that I will see a lot of Pakistanis, black people and other immigrants that nowadays probably form a visible part of London. This is why I do not want to go to London, because I do not want to lose my image of London that I have from the literature. And also because I am a bit old for changing my images’.

There is even an existential doubt, expressed by realists, as participant 31 put it, ‘in the end I cannot even be sure of the fact that London exists at all’. The wish by some participants to compare the visualized with reality could also be observed should they visit the destination, as participant 58 pointed out, ‘I do not know how though, as I cannot make comparisons. I will find out when I go to London’. Participant 168 stressed
that the nature of image and reality are different by stating, ‘image is not the same as reality’.

Some images, however, are perceived to be more realistic than others. It seems to depend on the credibility of image sources. Participant 56 revealed, ‘my overall and more realistic image of London was created only at the secondary school, where my teacher of English who lived in London for some time, told us about London’. Participant 72 emphasized, ‘I do not think that I am standard as I like to travel, even if with my finger on the map, so I have a lot of information, so I do not regard London as an unknown city’. Participant 101 communicated, ‘because my sister lived in London for some time and she worked there. So I have created a relatively good image’. This lack of anxiety was also linked with the capital, for example participant 6 disclosed, ‘the fact that I was born and live in Prague would mean that if I come to London I would not be, (...) ‘staring’. I think that mine are not unrealistic images’.

In contrast to the pre-visit image and post-visit image, some non-visitors simply do not have a destination image. Participant 92 evidenced a non-existent destination image by stating, ‘I cannot imagine life in London due to the language barrier. I do not have an image about life in London’. Some do not have particular elements of image, as participant 297 communicated, ‘I do not know how I would feel there. I have never been there’. Cognitive images relate to knowledge about the destination - some had difficulties expressing these types of images. Some participants were aware that their cognitive images of a destination are limited by knowledge, as participant 47 stressed, ‘I do not know anything about contemporary London. I do not have a great knowledge about sights in London’. Participant 67 could not remember the name of a well-known landmark and envisioned, ‘the famous park – I cannot right now remember the exact name’. Some noted that they have limited images, as participant 95 stated, ‘my image of London is of fog and smog. I cannot think of more than that’.

Archetypal images
This section presents findings that support the notion that destination image is comprised partly of archetypal images. Archetypal images are general images of foreign places, for example a general city image and world city image. The concept of archetypal image was unveiled by participants, for example participant 119 revealed,
‘every experience of new things or new places brings a feeling of enrichment and excitement. In reality it does not matter if I will be in London or any other city I do not know. I have never dreamt of visiting London, so my images are of a general nature’. Participant 6 imagined ‘more complex transport in relation to its size. However, I should not be surprised by this as this should be expected in all big cities. It is because myself, I live in a village and something like this is unusual for me!’.

An image of a destination is created in much the same way as an image of anything else, as participant 31 revealed, ‘an image of London (or anything else) if it is not created on the basis of one’s own experience, it is influenced by environment’. This is also illustrated in the following quote by participant 31 who states, ‘I have created my image on the basis of what I have heard, together with general images of trips to other cities, travelling, etc; almost everywhere the basic things are specific cultural events and historic sites’.

The archetypal city image is included frequently in the responses of participants; while these people have not been to London, they have been to other cities and they use their experiences and expectations of another city as a way of imagining London. Hence, it was found that images of London are partly derived from images of cities in general. As identified by participant 31 whilst writing about the image formation process, ‘the key factors should rather be these (…) shared general images about travelling and foreign cities’. A number of city attributes were identified by respondents. Participant 207 envisioned, ‘I would probably be surprised by large amounts of people, dense transport, city noise, turmoil, simply the typical features of a big city’.

In addition to that, for example participant 130 identified the anonymity of the city, ‘I would feel lonely and lost in the foreign city’. Participant 284 then commented, ‘I have never visited such a big city so I would probably, much more than its residents, feel the size, noise, traffic, but also other types of food and different types of behaviour, limited possibility to communicate and similar situations that a person experiences when he is in a foreign and unknown environment and, in a way, a different culture as well’. It is believed by some that the city changes people, for example participant 108 visualized, ‘if I lived in a bigger city, I would probably be more autonomous and have been around and more courageous, I would believe in myself more and probably I would be more
likely to travel abroad. In a bigger city there are more opportunities to get away from the family and live autonomously (bigger salaries, job opportunities and even then possibilities to get a job). The possibility to meet and understand foreigners and so practice English even at home, which then becomes very handy while travelling’. It could be summarized that many city attributes were identified by participants.

London is imagined as a typical ‘metropolis’, for example by participant 85. As participant 280 stated, ‘I live in the countryside, so for me it is an image of a metropolis’. Participant 189 envisioned, ‘I always think that a metropolis, especially if it is a world metropolis has the right and possibility to influence what happens in a country, it provides a person with more opportunities, it enables him to get an overview, but certainly also the feeling of superiority over the rest of the world’. More detailed evidence that can also be linked to the image of a metropolis is provided in the section on how place of residence influences image.

**Plurality**

Plurality of destination image was identified as a characteristic of imagery in that individuals hold multiple images at the same time. Participant 272 revealed, ‘I have never visited London, but I have some image of this place. I should rather say a number of images. The first one is linked with literature. ... Maybe I meet Hamlet at the crossroads who came to London to decide if to be or not to be. I would certainly not say no to an invitation for a glass of wine from Mr. Shakespeare. So this is my literary image. And then there is the image from the travel books and programs on television. That is a bit different. Firstly I would travel by the double-decker and would travel the whole afternoon by bus in order to be able to see all the buildings that I know from the images’. It is then evidenced that participants can have a number of images at the same time.

Written images and drawn images were other examples of plurality of images. It was the image in its visual form expressed by participant 89 as, ‘my first image is purely visual’. This participant also included a picture as shown below in Figure 5.1 to illustrate. The text next to it says ‘same little houses, built material, streets’.
Sensual imagery is another example of plurality. Images of all senses were included in the dataset. Not all participants possess all types of image; in particular not everyone has images of sense of taste for example. As participant 39 stressed, ‘I do not know what I would like to taste’. Participant 41 pictured, ‘regarding food, I cannot imagine anything, years ago I was in Paris and this cuisine is closer to my heart. I cannot imagine this though, rather only nebulously’. Participant 66 wrote, ‘cannot think of anything - food’. Participant 232 stated, ‘I cannot think of anything regarding food’. Lack of olfactory images for some was also revealed by participant 32 who visualized, ‘I cannot think of any smells, I have never thought about that’. Participant 42 wrote, ‘I do not know. If I think about London, I cannot think of any fragrance’. Participant 212 disclosed, ‘regarding the fragrances or what I would taste, I am not sure about that. But I would certainly be very happy to visit the place and I think that the visit would be pleasant and interesting’. Participant also 290 revealed, ‘what would I smell I do not know’. Images individuals have are thus highly individual.

Typicality

Different types of image referred to as ‘typical’ were identified and detailed in an unprompted way by some participants. This section presents evidence where participants themselves used the expression ‘typical’ without any prompts in association with their image attributes. Typical food was identified, as participant 5 mentioned, ‘typical English breakfast (beans, eggs, sausages or bacon)’. Participant 50 commented, ‘I would like to taste some typical English dish and beer’. Participant 238 envisioned, ‘from the foods I think of typical English breakfast, fried eggs, English
bacon and roasted bread, in the streets the typical double-decker’. Typical English attributes were also identified, for example participant 31 emphasized, ‘but mainly images about ‘typically English’. Participant 14 pictured, ‘and what would I taste? I think that nowadays the cuisine is so mixed that I cannot think of anything typically English’. Typical music was also imagined as participant 46 wrote, ‘their typical music is bagpipes and I have these connected with the marching parade of the soldiers’. The typical pub was also identified as participant 99 envisioned, ‘I would want to visit some typical pub’. Typical double-deckers were also identified by participant 6 who wrote, ‘typical double-deckers’. It could be argued that the typical images are the shared images of a destination.

Typicality generally was also identified, as participant 215 revealed, ‘I will visit the most famous sights and typical places’. Participant 241 visualized, ‘typical architectural styles linked with the famous personalities of the past and present times’. Participant 225 stated, ‘information about London gets to us through the media, we are trying to put together an image of typical London, the defined behaviour of Brits in order to simplify our own thinking and simplify our behaviour when we encounter London’. Typical images are thus, according to participants simplified shared destination images.

4.3 Image formation of destination images of non-visitors

This section presents results in regards to the research question on how destination images of London were formed. Firstly, a detailed evidence is provided for each the identified sources, it is evidenced how these were used with the help of thematic analysis. Secondly, the commonality of the sources, in particular of the shared image sources, is assessed and presented. This was enabled by the use of content analysis. Thirdly, evidence on the nature of destination image formation is presented, as
identified by participants themselves and assessed by the researcher through thematic analysis.

4.3.1 Detailed evidence of sources of destination images
A wide range of sources of destination image was identified. This section presents the evidence in depth. In particular, the following sources are discussed: books, others who have visited London, television, films, school as well as many other image sources. The identified themes are presented in Table 4.4 below.

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<tr>
<th>Books</th>
<th>Fictional imagery</th>
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<td>Distinction between new authors and old authors</td>
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<td>Specific images in books by English authors</td>
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<td>Visualization of a specific era</td>
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<td>Travel books</td>
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<td>Books by Czech authors</td>
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<td>Others who have visited London</td>
<td>Provision of books during communism</td>
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<td>How do books create image</td>
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<td>Television</td>
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<td>Television as a source and specific images</td>
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<td>Television as a passive source</td>
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<td>Films</td>
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<td>School</td>
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<td>Other subjects – geography, history, literature</td>
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<td>Other image sources</td>
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<td>Sources rarely mentioned</td>
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<td>Sources linked with the influence of the place of residence</td>
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<td>Representations without sources</td>
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Table 4.4: Table presenting themes identified in regards to destination image sources (source: primary research of this study)

**Books**

In particular, fictional imagery from books was apparent in the images held by non-visitors. Individuals were influenced by ‘famous literary figures, concepts from literature’, as portrayed by participant 31. In terms of literary images, some participants associated their images with specific figures created by English authors, of many, participant 6 communicated, ‘the overall image was mainly influenced by books about
S. Holmes’. Several others pictured ‘Jack the Ripper’ while ‘The Hound of The Baskervilles – description of landscape’ was expressed by participant 6. Other books were also detailed by respondent 33 who revealed, ‘my image was created due to a combination of reading, mainly The Forsyth Saga, and David Copperfield’. Respondent 67 wrote, ‘I was mainly interested in novels, mainly classical novels - for example Dickens’. Surprisingly, even though not located in London, ‘The Hunchback of Notre Dame’ was imagined by participant 271. Many however just mentioned ‘books’, such as for example participant 70. Some made a distinction between old authors and new authors, as participant 281 expressed, ‘my image of London comes out mainly from reading historic novels, but also from the thrillers of English authors. From contemporary sources I can think of ‘The Da Vinci Code’ by Dan Brown’. Others included ‘Agatha Christie’ as expressed by participant 69 or, as participant 270 wrote, ‘Agatha and Francis’.

Specific images associated with representations in books by English authors were pointed out, as participant 272 revealed, ‘I can say that I read most of the books by Charles Dickens and like that I gained an image of London where most of his books were situated. I can imagine the famous prison for the debtors, men with hats and striped trousers how they rush to their offices, I can imagine the suburbs with Greenwich and their observatory where the prime meridian goes through, as well as the courts where there are not buildings of doctors of civil rights anymore’. Interestingly, other literary imaginations were identified by participant 31 who stated, ‘I will hope that in the corners of London I would be able to capture something that would correspond to the humour of Oscar Wilde or classy literary style of G. K. Chesterton’. Specific images by books in general were also expressed, as participant 240 unveiled, ‘my image of London was created in books. In novels there are usually described narrow streets and gloomy atmosphere with the fog and rain’. Fiction is thus an inherent part of the imaginary destination of London.

Some visualized a specific era and historic novels, as participant 68 stated, ‘literature – historic novels about Henry the VIII’. Some stated books about World War Two, such as participant 64, ‘it was mainly influenced by reading books about World War Two and so there is also implicitly described London. I have images of London in that era, but these are the sources that have created my image about that place’, or participant 270 who revealed, ‘reading about pilots of the World War Two’. Some emphasized just
novels, for example participant 75. Some mentioned ‘thrillers’, for example participant 93. Few stated non-fiction; ‘travel books’, for example, were identified by participant 272. Respondent 254 revealed, ‘the guide – Baedeker’ while participant 264 communicated ‘factual literature’. This shows that not all the participants used the same type of books.

Books by Czech authors were also mentioned by participants, as participant 69 revealed, ‘English letters by Čapek’; respondent 99 also wrote, ‘K. Čapek – interesting description of English customs – but this is from the era of the first republic (1920s)’. Another Czech author was also pointed out by participant 138, ‘and also a big understanding came after reading a book by Stanislav Motl’. This shows that some representations of a destination are created independently of the destinations, they are created locally.

Some commented on the provision of books during communism as they seem to have taken a special place in image formation. For example, participant 96 admitted, ‘I am not sure - but even the fact that I could not go there (I lived most of my life under communism) probably influenced that I got my images from the literature. I did not look for guidebooks and travel-related books about London’. The restrictions of travel during communism then influenced the selection of other souces as participant 299 revealed, ‘years ago, everything that was English was immediately bad, so I gained my image mainly from books – and even these were rather sad. This is why my image of London nowadays is different from the one I used to have, after the revolution my images started to change’. Participant 33 stated, ‘I imagine fulfilment of dreams I had as a child when I was reading the English classics and was closed behind the barbed wire and could not travel anywhere abroad’.

A number of participants described in detail how books created their image, for example participant 31 mentioned, ‘getting to know by distance foreign cultures by reading books written by authors living there’. Participant 257 expressed that he would like to visit places from the literature, ‘it can be said that my only knowledge about London is from books and this is not from the guidebooks (or something similar to this). During my visit to London I would like try to find some places that I know from books and I would wish to compare these with the feelings and perceptions gained through reading
stories’. However; it needs to be acknowledged that this research was conducted in a library. This means that the richness of responses by those who have revealed books as a source might be biased in comparison with the rest of the population.

**Others who have visited the destination**

Others who have visited the destination were another key source of influence. The influence of ‘friends’ was stressed by, for example, participant 12. Verbal sources of friends who went there on a holiday were also identified, for example by participant 3, as well as verbal sources of friends who went there for work purposes, for example by participant 35. Visual and verbal sources from a friend were identified for example by participant 6. However, the influence of a written form of representation of London from friends was also included by participant 93 who revealed, ‘I used to read letters of an acquaintance of my husband where she mentioned a completely different way of life that she could not get used to for a very long time’. Overall, those whose friends were in London on a visit were included in responses of many, for example participant 91 wrote, ‘my professor was an Anglophile and he told me that during his visit he always had 2 oranges and 4 bananas for breakfast (he was amazed by this)’.

Participant 118 expressed the influence of acquaintances, ‘from my acquaintances I heard that it is very specific and for us maybe a little bit weird’. Participant 240 commented, ‘also narratives of friends who visited it and they liked it a lot’. Participant 286 emphasized, ‘knowledge of my acquaintance who had the possibility to visit London and he was very happy to come back because he felt that it was really chaotic’. Some also communicated, as with participant 50, ‘meeting people who lived in England’.

However it was not only the influence of friends and acquaintances that was seen as important. Many revealed verbal sources of relatives who were there on a visit, for example participant 46. Some commented on the influence of relatives who work there (participant 288). Relatives generally influenced destination image as well (as identified by participant 273). Not only verbal sources but also visual sources from relatives were mentioned (participant 234) as well as a relative who worked there (participant 14). Also video made by relatives was mentioned as a specific source of image by participant 196. ‘Postcards’ received were also included in responses (for example
Participant 35. Participant 239 had a source linked with a specific picture, ‘a visit of my sons who have visited it and they were enthusiastic about it’.

**Television**

‘Television’ was mentioned by a number of participants, for example participant 92. ‘News’ were also stated, for example by participant 35. Specific programs and specific images were associated with the source. Participant 33 revealed, ‘I was influenced by watching the Royal family on TV and while I was watching it, feelings from my childhood came to life from the time when I was admiring princesses etc. At the beginning of the nineties I saw a British programme about the Queen’s wardrobe and about people looking after her wardrobe. By coincidence, I saw five days before the tragic death of Princess Diana a film on TV about her and her then already former husband’.

Participant 130 wrote about cooking classes on TV, ‘if I think about it now, I was also strongly influenced by the chef Jamie Oliver. Not only that he cooks so well, but he also points out the wrong eating habits in schools and he transfers that atmosphere on you a little bit as well, so you can see how the school system in England works. Also on TV there can often be seen his family and even this experience from the TV you bring as a certain type of perception, it shows you at least a little bit how families work somewhere else’. Participant 224 expressed, ‘everyone is definitely influenced by the television. Be it messages about the Royal family or films from the English environment’.

Specific channels were named, for example participant 69 mentioned, ‘TV BBC’. Participant 15 linked his image to representations of London on TV, ‘probably from how London is presented on TV’. Also, ‘types of programmes on TV, in particular TV documentaries’ were included (participant 12). Participant 20 stated, ‘further from different TV series’. ‘Travel programmes’ in particular were stressed by participant 103 while participant 256 stated, ‘television – travelogues.’ Participant 259 wrote, ‘I watch programmes about travelling and different information on the television’. Participant 266 mentioned the wide range of images available on TV, ‘we can see on the television images from all around the world that I have roughly an image of the place’. Some participants identified films on TV, such as participant 283 who admitted, ‘maybe also
films on television’. Also famous figures from TV series were identified for example, ‘Professionals everywhere around me’ (participant 11).

Traditionally, television is in many respects a passive source in that participants cannot choose what they watch in a specific moment. This passive behaviour which leads to image formation, is stressed by participant 243 who states, ‘given by what is broadcast on our television’. This was a common theme also iterated by participant 259 who revealed, ‘I watch programmes about travelling and different information on the television’. Finally, this was also pointed out by participant 298, who expressed that his image was formed ‘according to information that I see on TV’.

Films
Films were also apparent in the imaginations of non-visitors. A number of participants identified ‘films’ as a source of image formation, such as for example participant 71. In addition, many detailed specific films such as participant 32, ‘dark pictures from the film about Jack the Ripper’; participant 55 admitted, ‘and film - for example the Hound of Baskervilles, Sherlock Holmes, Professionals and Elisabeth – the golden age’. Another participant, number 86 stated, ‘and films – even fairy tales (sheep Shaun, the postman Matt), again historical, educational’. Respondent 152 commented, ‘films of Sherlock Holmes – dark, spooky streets’. Some described films on London such as respondent 8 who mentioned, ‘films from the London environment’; respondent 160 also revealed, ‘documents about London (film documentaries)’. Different types of film were referred to, for example films representing an era as participant 161 unveiled, ‘old films from this city’. Participant 186 admitted, ‘I like English historic films’ while participant 208 revealed, ‘I think that the source of my images were mainly films, historic as well as contemporary’. Also travel-related films were stated by participant 72, ‘I watch travel-related films’. Thrillers, as a film genre, were also identified by participant 245, ‘my image was created mainly from English films – great thrillers’. ‘Documentaries’ were also mentioned as sources by participant 300. Some stated British films, for example participant 91 admitted, ‘influenced by films I would rather visit the English countryside’. Participant 100 also stressed, ‘probably some English film’ while participant 110 unveiled, ‘but also British films’. Participant 224 revealed, ‘I like English films and series (Mr. Bean, What a girl wants) and there you can see the true London atmosphere’.

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Czech films, once again examples of locally produced representations of London created independently of the destination, also stimulated the imagination, as participant 33 pointed out, ‘I think about the film ‘Bestiář’, where the author used the Prague Hotel Don Giovanni for unknown reasons with the pavement that is not like anywhere else in Prague and next to the crematorium it appears depressive. I look forward that the visit to London will rid me of the impressions from the Czech films that badly pretend that they are filmed in London’. It can be summarized that films have influenced images of the Czech non-visitors of London in many different ways.

**School**

Many identified that school has influenced their images of London, ‘English at school’ was mentioned for example by participant 8. Some attached specific messages to English at school as well. Participant 3 stated, ‘school (A-level exam questions about England and London)’. Merely ‘school’ was mentioned by a number of participants, for example participant 100. Participant 6 described his image formation process as, ‘firstly from school – during the English lessons, probably as everyone, we came to articles about L., later on even in the secondary school’. Participant 299 mentioned, ‘last year I started my English lessons for beginners. Our teacher thinks that if we are about to learn a language, we will need to know the culture and the history of the nation. So she uses every opportunity to bring the English Christmas closer to us with a lot of new words. And thanks to her I have an image about London and England as it is’.

Secondary school in particular was often pointed out. Participant 27 wrote, ‘I think that my knowledge and image about London was mostly influenced by studying English in my secondary school and this rather negatively’. Participant 29 stated, ‘most of my images come from the English lessons, where our teacher sometimes told us some interesting things’. Participant 56 commented that his image ‘was created only at the secondary school, where my teacher of English who lived in London for some time, told us about London’. Participant 144 commented, ‘certainly English textbooks, provision of English at school’. Participant 212 revealed, ‘the first information probably in school’. English language at school is thus an influential image source.
However, not only the English language, but other subjects were included in responses, for example geography - ‘in geography at school’ was mentioned by participant 5. History as a school subject was also identified by participants - representations ‘in history at school’ were emphasized by participant 193. Literature as a school subject was also pointed out as having an influence on destination image by participant 193 who stated, ‘I know this from literature and history (I teach this)’.

**Other image sources**

Many identified ‘magazines’ as their image source (for example participant 29). Participant 209 pointed out visual images, ‘a few pictures in some magazines’. Participant 13 included in his response images formed from written sources, ‘articles in magazines’. ‘Newspapers’ were identified by some participants too, for example participant 45.

‘The Internet’ was another image source that was identified, for example, for participant 5. Participant 59 mentioned it in relation with the active behaviour driven by interest, ‘nowadays definitely the Internet – possibilities to find everything that is interesting including maps’. Overall, the Internet was not that often identified as image source by non-visitors as this requires, in most instances, an active interest on their part to search for information, more than the above mentioned sources.

A number of other mediated sources were disclosed. ‘Radio’ was mentioned by some (for example participant 166). Representations in media in general were also admitted without including a specific medium. Some participants, such as number 166, emphasized ‘media’ as an overarching group. ‘Media’ as such were mentioned by a number of participants – for example by participant 200. Unfortunately, it is not clear, what exactly would participants count as media, most probably however they would include the sources identified previously already – such as for example television or radio.

Surprisingly, imagination or fantasy were mentioned as sources of image too - ‘imagination’ was pointed out by for example participant 69 and ‘fantasy’ was mentioned for example by participant 72. Some however expressed that they have no image source as they have ‘no image of London’ (for example participant 28).
Also, various experiences other than visitation of the destination were included in responses of participants rather than just mediated sources. Experiences of meeting with tourists and those who are from the destination were identified as sources of image. The idea that elements of a destination can partly ‘come’ to a place of residence is detailed by some participants. In particular, Englishmen were mentioned - participant 134 stated, ‘meeting with an English teacher - native speaker who was from London’. Participant 150 disclosed, ‘in our company there are sometimes Englishmen working there so that is why I know them a little bit’. Participant 211 revealed, ‘my love for … Englishmen who are not frowning’. Participant 268 wrote, ‘also recently meeting with English people’.

Promotions of tour operators were revealed as a source of images as well, but surprisingly by only few participants - all of them being from Prague and none from the other two case study areas. The following are quotes from all participants who mentioned any kind of overtly induced source. Participant 100 wrote, ‘since I was a child (now I am 73 years) I really like geography and all the information about cities, countries. I even had files with promotional material of different countries and I remember that I had a series of nice booklets about Great Britain where there was another file with London only’. Participant 26 mentioned, ‘overall promotion from the side of the tour operators’. Participant 33 expressed, ‘not lastly also promotional material of British Airways’. Only one participant out of all participants mentioned that explicitly induced images from the destination that would influence him ‘London promotes itself to tourists intensively and I would say that this promotion is successful’ (participant 30).

There were a number of individual sources mentioned by only one or two participants - Music groups were mentioned by just one participant - participant 270 commented, ‘when I was young the Beatles’. Exhibitions and appearances of the Royal family were mentioned - for example participant 38 stated, ‘maybe some exhibitions of traditions, appearances of the Royal Family, even here it is difficult to say one-sidedly if positively or negatively’. The royal visit was also emphasized by participant 54, ‘the visit of crown Prince Charles’. Talks were also identified in image formation, for example participant 186 commented, ‘talks’. The role of theatre was also included in the response of
participant 285 who stated, ‘regarding the city itself, I was definitely influenced by theatre’.

Other sources further included ‘language- English that grew to my heart’ (for example participant 11) or ‘past and reflections of the past’ (for example participant 2). The products from the destination were also pointed out - ‘clothes’ from the destination were identified as a source of image (participant 147).

In addition to the above mentioned, there were also some sources that linked with the influence of the place and country of residence, in terms of travel experience abroad for example. Travel experience abroad for the purpose of holiday was emphasized by the following participants - participant 31 wrote that his image was formed ‘with general images of trips to other cities’. Participant 11 wrote, ‘to compare my own experiences with those from Paris’. Living abroad was also pointed out as a source - participant 15 stated, ‘most probably the fact that I lived a year in Ottawa. I liken London exactly to this city’. Participant 109 commented, ‘no, I think that it was influenced by the fact that I lived in the north of Britain for 2 years’. The image sources linked with a place and country of residence are evidenced in detail in the other sections of this chapter dedicated directly to these topics.

There were a number of representations that could not be associated with any particular source of image, they were without a specific medium were included in participants’ responses. Types of representations were unveiled by participants, for example. participant 31 commented ‘pictures and images’. Participant 178 outlined that his image derived ‘from the map of London’. Participant 50 stated just ‘Sherlock Holmes’, without saying whether it was the book or the film that influenced him. The transmission of the royal wedding also influenced the image, for example, participant 296 wrote, ‘the Kingdom, the marriage of Prince Charles and Diana’.

4.3.2 The most common image sources

In order to understand the scale of influence of individual image sources identified in the previous section, the commonality of shared sources of images of London was
identified through a content analysis and is categorized in Table 4.5 below. Full details as to how these categories were obtained are included in the methodology section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of destination image</th>
<th>Number of participants who stated the source (out of 300)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Book</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who were there</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Films</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazines and newspapers</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Englishmen</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fantasy</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5: Table displaying spectrum of destination image sources and their commonality (source: primary research of this study)

It can be observed from Table 4.5 above that there is a wide spectrum of image sources. It should also be stated that this does not include only mediated sources. As mentioned previously in the methodology chapter, types of sources and similar expressions were grouped together. In particular, for books, the following expressions were counted together – ‘book’, ‘literature’, ‘novel’, ‘reading’, ‘read thriller’, ‘guide’, ‘guidebook’, ‘travel-related book’, ‘travel book’, ‘travel literature’. Regarding those who were there, the following were counted – ‘friend’, ‘acquaintance’, ‘people’, ‘mum’, ‘daughter’, ‘granddaughter’, ‘son’, ‘grandson’, ‘husband’, ‘sister’, ‘uncle’, ‘aunt’, ‘narratives’, ‘sister in law’, ‘relative’, ‘children’, ‘cousin’, ‘niece’, ‘conversations’, ‘schoolmate’, ‘those who have’, ‘surroundings’, ‘postcard’. In the case of television, the following were counted: ‘television’, ‘tv’, ‘program’, ‘reportage’, ‘documentary’, ‘news’, ‘series’. In terms of films, just ‘film’ was counted. Regarding school, the following were
counted together: ‘school’, ‘lesson’, ‘teacher’, ‘textbook’, ‘study’, ‘a-level’, ‘geography’, ‘history’, ‘lecture’, ‘education’. In terms of magazines, ‘magazine’, ‘article’, and ‘newspaper’ were counted. In terms of the Internet, the ‘Internet’ was counted. Regarding radio, ‘radio’ was counted. Regarding media, ‘media’ was counted. Regarding fantasy, ‘fantasy’ and ‘imagination’ were counted. In regards to Englishmen, ‘Englishmen’, ‘English people’ and ‘tourists from the Islands’ were counted. In regards to promotion, ‘promotion’ was counted. Some sources could not be quantified - these were sources that could be linked to the questions asked in the research instrument, as well as representations without a specific source. The use of shared sources across age groups from the whole dataset is detailed in Table 4.6 below. The results have been rounded to whole percents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of destination image</th>
<th>Percentage of age group 18-34</th>
<th>Percentage of age group 35-54</th>
<th>Percentage of age group 55 and over</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Book</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who were there</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Films</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazines and newspapers</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Englishmen</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fantasy</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6: Table displaying the use of sources across age groups
(source: primary research of this study)

It can be observed that the youngest group of participants formed their images much more at school compared with their older counterparts - half of the younger generation accessed their images at school. The youngest group also used the Internet most in the
formation of their images. For example the radio was used more by the older generation in the image formation process. The older generation also formed their images more from books, as this is a source that was available before the revolution, as evidenced in the previous section of this chapter by a number of quotes by participants.

Unfortunately, comparisons of employment and education groups could not be made, as stated previously, due to the fact that the research instrument asked open-ended questions. Hence it was difficult to categorize these groups thus such comparisons would be imprecise.

4.3.3 Reflections by participants on the nature of image formation

Table 4.7 below displays the themes identified in relation to the nature of destination image formation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interests and image</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Incidental formation of image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in other destinations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in the destination</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barriers to visitation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial limitations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health limitations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own character limitations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of interest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The importance of first sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Images created in childhood</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal characteristics and image</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The impact of personal characteristics on image</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Believability of broadcasted image</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Believability of broadcasted image</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7: Table displaying themes identified in regards to nature of destination image formation (source: primary research of this study)

Interests and image
Participants reflected on the image formation process. A number identified that their images were formed incidentally, reflecting their broader interests rather than interests
in the destination itself as a driving force for acquiring destination images. Interest in history was identified by participant 2, ‘but mainly my interest in the past and reflections of the past, history of arts’. Another participant, number 261, expressed specifically, ‘interest in the Celts and Stonehenge’. Interest in politics was also identified by participant 47 who revealed, ‘while following politics (international) I create a certain image (subjective)’.

Another type of interest was, as noted by participant 12, ‘interest in English-speaking countries’. Other interests included for example language, architecture, sports, literature and airforce. For example, participant 39 stated, ‘I think that I was more influenced by partly studying the English language’. Another interest that was also important in the image formation of non-visitors was, as participant 72 admitted, ‘information about modern architecture’. Participant 203 stated, ‘I have studied arts and it is also my hobby’. Interest in sports also stimulates image formation, for example participant 85 commented, ‘nowadays I am very interested in sports, be it tennis, but I am an admirer of island football, mainly Chelsea, I am a big fan of Peter Cech’. Participant 270 revealed, ‘horse racing’.

Interest in literature was another key factor that fuelled image formation. Participant 261 for example disclosed, ‘since childhood reading books of Sherlock Holmes’. Another expressed interest that fuelled image formation was interest in the airforce. As participant 132 stated, ‘I am personally interested in the air force, I would like to visit the museum of the Royal British Air Force, RAF Hendon – London’. Interestingly, it can be seen that images of destinations are not necessarily created intentionally, but are created almost as a by-product of other interests.

Interest in foreign places as a possible destinations to visit was also evident from the data, as participant 3 revealed, ‘having the desire to get to know foreign places and look at them realistically and not with some kind of prejudice’, while participant 30 admitted, ‘and interest in travel definitely belongs to this’. Interest in other destinations rather than London also influences image formation, as participant 24 identified, ‘I was always more interested in the USA so I never thought about London’. Participant 209 stated, ‘but personally I do not have an interest in London. I am more interested in the areas of southern Europe (mainly Spain) and that is why I see a city in the northern parts a bit
more gloomy than it actually is’. Participant 265 disclosed, ‘there are places that I would wish to visit more – Scotland, Ireland’.

Hence, interest in the destination itself is also key in forming an image. For example, participant 46 linked the importance of interest to image formation, ‘this image is rather influenced by interest in information’. Participant 52 communicated that the interest is essential, ‘it is not that I would not have the information, but I do not look for them’. Another participant, number 86, revealed, ‘I think that it does not matter where a person lives, but what he is interested in’. It has been clearly expressed by participants that interest in the destination itself influences image. For example, participant 210 stated, ‘my image of London is definitely influenced by the fact that I would like to go there and travel through not only London, but the whole island. If all works fine for me, I will already go there during these holidays’. However, sources do not have to have a positive or negative impact on image to still act as a stimulator of image - as evidenced by participant 118, ‘but I cannot say whether that influenced me in a positive or a negative way. Rather it ignited my curiosity’. Another participant pointed out the different use of sources in the pre-visit stage - participant 256, admitted the use of different sources if he decided to go to the destination, ‘I will buy maps in advance and guides and I will try to get to know London as much as possible’.

Some expressed no interest in imagining London, as participant 136 disclosed, ‘I never had the interest to find out about it, I never wanted to travel there, I was not interested in it’. In addition participant 172 wrote, ‘I do not have an image, so I do not know where it would be created’. Due to lack of interest, some participants do not have a destination image, however they still stated image sources as evidenced by participant 279’s comment, ‘I hear about London only on the television and on the radio’.

When there are no intentions to visit the destination, there is a subordination of image sources to what a person normally hears or sees and their everyday life and habits, as evidenced by participant 2, ‘I think that the fact where a person lives does not depend on the fact that if he can make his own judgment on this or that. Me personally, I love books and films, history, so I create my own opinion from what I learn from there’. In addition participant 20 detailed, ‘everybody creates the image from information that gets to him’. Another participant, number 61, stated, ‘image is created from what a
person hears and sees’. As further revealed by participant 160, ‘everyone has their images according to which environment they come from, which books he reads and which type of information they seek (films & documents)’. The results indicate that interest in the destination largely influences the destination image formation process. Those who do not plan to visit the destination, those who are interested in the destination and those who are going to visit the destination thus all use different types of sources in their image formation.

**Barriers to visitation**

Whilst not prompted, participants included in their responses why they cannot visit the destination. Participants deemed that limitations constrain image formation. Amongst the factors that encourage passive behaviour of non-visitors are, as could be expected, financial limitations. For example, participant 267 stressed, ‘nowadays the lack of finances’. Another participant, number 276, revealed, ‘now, when it is possible to travel around the world, my age does not allow me to do so, not even my financial situation’.

Some of these barriers are linked to the state pension income, as participant 185 commented, ‘I probably look at this only as a tourist, but probably not even that, because as a pensioner I am happy that my pension covers the everyday spending’ or, as outlined by participant 273, ‘I would really like to visit London, but I do not have enough money for that in my pension’. This barrier is perhaps unsurprising. Other factors that encourage passive behaviour in the formation of image relate to health problems, for example participant 184 wrote, ‘but the visit to London will probably not take place. I am too old and have some health problems’.

**The importance of first sources**

The importance of first sources was stressed by some participants as their images were created in childhood. For example participant 22 stated, ‘I was first captivated by London as a child in books by A.C. Doyle ‘Sherlock Holmes’, I loved it and sometimes I come back to it. So the image of London as a gloomy city probably cannot be erased by anything from my mind anymore’. Participant 222 mentioned, ‘the image of London is created from the earliest years, probably already from the primary school there first I heard about something called London. I would forget the cities where we hear this or experience this even before that. With the education and age the knowledge increases. A
lot of small pieces come into our own composition called London’. Participant 260 commented, ‘all the information and images about London I already have since my childhood. As I wrote already, when I was little, I got a postcard from Piccadilly with red double-deckers’.

The importance of first images is crucial to some - participant 285 identified his own as, ‘my first image of the royal city was created through philately. The first stamp from the year 1840, the author is R. Hill. Black one pence stamp with the Queen. Since the childhood I was drawn to this, Her Majesty the Queen. I do not think that any other portrait of a person is so famous and so diffused’. So, it can be summarized that images of a number of individuals are created in childhood.

Images are gradually built and thus are persistent to any ad-hoc radical changes, as participant 100 wrote, ‘definitely at school, but after that during my whole life’. Participant 213 unveiled, ‘most of my information comes from the elementary school, preparations for the A-levels in English where London was a single theme and fragments of information and curiosities during the course of life’.

Overall, the formation of images of non-visitors is seen as a highly complex process. Participant 130 commented, ‘my image was created by putting together different experiences, be it from others who have already visited London (my English teacher, mum), or a gradual putting together of own mosaic of pictures caught somewhere’. Participant 225 stated, ‘all the media and also what we learned at school forms a complex image. Any information in the newspapers, books, magazines gradually fills in the complex image’. Unlike images of visitors, the images of non-visitors are gradually built over the course of life thus, in absence of an actual visitation that would radically and quickly change the image (possibly), they are then highly persistent. The influence of school across different age groups was evidenced in the previous section.

**Personal characteristics and image**

General curiosity as a personal characteristic influences destination image formation, as participant 14 revealed, ‘probably my curiosity’. Another participant, number 101,
revealed, ‘certainly my curious character and energy’. Respondent 158 stated, ‘maybe also my character – very conservative’. Interest in learning something new was disclosed by participant 14, ‘it is rather influenced by the fact if someone is interested to learn something, if he wants to learn something’. Respondent 121 summarized the link between the creation of images and the character of a person by stating, ‘I think that the images are created mainly according to the character of a person, not the country where he lives’. This is also confirmed by participant 228 who stated, ‘it all depends on the character of people’. Own memory as a personal characteristic was also pointed out as participant 96 admitted, ‘I am now in the age that I forgot even what I did not know’.

Imagination was a further factor limiting image formation of countries as participant 272 wrote, ‘it depends on ... how can he work with his own fantasy’. Another participant, respondent 184, disclosed the view that much depends on the type of person, ‘I am a realist – this is why I do not imagine much’. A realistic attitude was also evident from participant 141 who mentioned, ‘I do not care what it looks like in London. For me it is important what it looks in our place, in our republic, in our towns. So that it would be safe here, so that we would have jobs, where to live, live a normal life. I would definitely not have the need to go to London, I could not care less’. Other evidence was provided by participant 269 who stated, ‘I do not day dream much’.

**Believability of media**

Believability of the media was another theme that was identified. Participant 222 revealed, ‘images about places we have never visited are created mainly by the media and it is up to each person if he believes the information or not’. In the end, for some as participant 195, their image is merely mediated, ‘the image of London was also created only in a mediated way’. Participant 246 summarized, ‘images of people about things or even cities that they could not or did not manage to see yet, experience it and live the atmosphere is nowadays mainly influenced by the television and film. It is possible that these media create an image that has got little in common with the reality’.

**4.4 The influence of country of residence on destination image**

This section discusses the influence of living in the Czech Republic on destination image and its formation. The findings that encompass the influence of country of
residence on destination images of participants are summarized in Table 4.8 below. It presents themes and subthemes that were obtained through a thematic analysis. Even though many participants believed that country of residence does not influence their image, there are also many who believe the contrary however the key focus of this research question is to investigate ways how a country where non-visitors live influences on their images.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural distance</th>
<th>Comparisons with the Czech culture in general</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparisons of personal characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparisons of languages - language barrier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparisons of multiculturalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparisons of cuisines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental distance</td>
<td>Comparison of physical environment of one’s country of residence to the imagined destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived geographical distance</td>
<td>Influence of the geographical location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared history</td>
<td>Experienced history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political influences</td>
<td>Restrictions to outbound travel – visa restrictions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Restrictions to inbound travel – visa restrictions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of information and the nature of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic status of the Czech Republic</td>
<td>Influence on the provision of information as well as the ability to travel abroad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Czechness’ of sources</td>
<td>The fact that some sources on London are Czech</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8: Table displaying themes identified in regards to the perceived influence of country of residence on image and its formation (source: primary research of this study)

4.4.1 Cultural distance

Participants compared elements of their own culture to the images of culture in London. There is evidence of a comparative nature of images, as identified by the participants
themselves. For example, participant 7 pointed out, ‘socialization in one cultural area always influences views on other cultural area. So this means that it influences it in everything. We look at a different socio-cultural landscape through the prism of our own socio-cultural area’. Participants even expressed the need for comparison as respondent 245 admitted, ‘it is impossible to avoid comparing with life in the Czech Republic’. Participant 29 pointed out that his images were created through a comparison, by stating, ‘I was more looking at the contrasts’.

The cultural distance, meaning the difference between cultures, was linked to national identity, for example participant 8 stated, ‘I think that all residents of central Europe have more or less the same image about London’. Not only central Europe, but also northern Europe was included in a similar response, as participant 209 mentioned, ‘I think that there is a similar culture that is familiar to the central European as well as the states of northern Europe’.

Even though some of these images were already mentioned previously, images presented in this section are different, as they all include the comparative dimension as well. For example, Londoners and their cultural characteristics were central to the participants’ images; their imagined characteristics were compared with those of Czechs. For example, participant 220 compared the imaged politeness of people, ‘and if it is said that the Brits are polite and kind it would be interesting to compare the two nations’. Participant 47 detailed, ‘unconsciously probably the self-restraint, pushing ahead everything English which I admire (in comparison with us)’.

A different kind of humour was associated with Londoners as well, ‘humour that is foreign’ (participant 218). Londoners were pictured as ‘calmer … more balanced’ (participant 245). Participant 202 stated, ‘I think that in the Czech Republic we have a different mentality’. Participant 116 illustrated the perceived different cultural characteristics as follows, ‘I think that for example if in the Wenceslaus’s square someone would take off his shoes and socks and take out his lunch and read some book, everyone would look at him with astonishment’.

Participant 215 pointed out different customs, ‘we have different culture, customs’. Participant 218 stated, ‘since school everyone says how the Brits are ‘spontaneous’, completely different than us’. Other comparisons were also made, ‘everything well—
arranged compared with the Czechs’ (participant 19), ‘rather cold compared to the Czechs’ (participant 218). Elsewhere, participant 245 recognised, ‘Englishmen ... may be rushing, but more slowly than the Czechs, they will be calmer and more balanced and probably even colder as they are used to their beautiful environment they live in and where they live their everyday lives’. Participant 33 detailed, ‘I imagine hardworking and closed, but also witty, almost sarcastic people. They are certainly really neat and elegant, definitely not as gloomy and unkindly looking as the Czechs. I think that in comparison with the Americans they are not laughing much; rather they have a neutral expression’. Participant 263 communicated, ‘people are at first sight different than us, I do not think that the face characteristics are different, just only the hairstyles, clothes, the expressions in face’.

Other cultural differences were also pointed out - participant 222 revealed, ‘I would learn cultural, language and religious differences, compared to our country, because each country has its pros and cons. It is said that the Englishmen are kind people and that is why I would often go to the society in order to improve my language while talking about all sorts of things’. Participant 268 suggested, ‘there are a lot of traditions that are kept as a part of the monarchy’.

Further differences were identified. Participant 33 stated, ‘I think that the Czech Republic with its corruption and dirt badly represents its rich past and cultural traditions. I do not anticipate this in England’. Participant 41 noted, ‘the forwarded time by one hour’. Participant 94 suggested ‘conservative civilization’. Participant 220 envisioned, ‘firstly I will probably be staring how the Brits travel in the opposite direction. Driving on the other side is ‘out’ in the Czech Republic’. Participant 85 wrote, ‘London, represents a lot of interesting places that every Czech cannot see in person, but it is a pity, because there are a lot of interesting places that each Czech should see and create an image how such a metropolis looks like, where the order and democracy rule’. ‘Lifestyle less busy’ was highlighted by participant 194. ‘Different lifestyle’ was suggested participant 8, whilst participant 284 noted ‘different types of behaviour’. Participant 126 unveiled, ‘completely different way of life than here in our place’.

A perceived inferiority of the Czechs towards Londoners was also pointed out by participant 47, who wrote, ‘as a member of a small nation I feel their superiority’. 139
Participant 210 stated, ‘the Czech Republic belongs to the poorer countries of Europe, while England with its capital city belongs to the most advanced countries of the world, so there will definitely be a different level of life and relationships between people, or even a different behaviour of people than in our country’. Participant 189 imagined, ‘the fact that it influences world politics and financial markets and we are from the era of Charles IV in more of a inferior position’. However, another participant stated, ‘our Republic was poor when I was small and now I think we are getting closer’ (participant 177).

Different language was also expressed in the responses of participants. Participant 215 pointed out, ‘for example we do not speak English here and I am not particularly strong in English’. Participant 224 detailed, ‘the image is of a different country, different culture, and different language’. The language barrier causes many anxieties to non-visitors in regards to the imagined destination, in this case London. Some recognize English as a ‘potential barrier to communication’ (participant 115). The language barrier was also linked with the anxiety of travelling alone. In particular, participant 182 admitted, ‘a visit to London with my son – he will help me with English, I cannot speak English, which is why I will only watch and wait what my son translates for me’.

Language anxiety also resulted in ‘guilt that they should have studied more’ (participant 146). Clearly, all of the above-mentioned images of the language barrier mean that it was seen as a ‘reason for not feeling good’ by participant 27. Feelings about the language barrier in London were summarised by participant 185 as ‘lost, feel bad because as unable to communicate, panicking, shame of poor English, not in own skin, could not travel alone as a result of language barrier’.

Some compared envisioned multiculturalism in London to the Czech Republic, for example, ‘bigger diversity of residents in London’ (participant 87). Participant 135 pointed out, ‘people of different nationalities can live here only few years now, we do not meet a lot of them (except tourists)’. Participant 101 commented, ‘on the top of that we do not have in the Czech Republic a city that would be close to London in terms of its … multicultural aspect. So it is not possible to make a comparison’.

Different cuisine was another contrasting element of culture that was identified. Participants compared imagined food in London with the food in the Czech Republic. A
number of quotes regarding cuisine were already presented in the first section of this chapter, hence here only quotes that included the comparisons are presented. For example, participant 104 pointed out, ‘I would be focusing on tasting different kinds of beer, barley, upper fermented that are rare in the Czech Republic’. Participant 207 outlined similarities, ‘what they like for breakfast, lunch or dinner. What types of food do they like most, if their cuisine is similar to ours or not? I know from my own sources what the Brits roughly eat, but I would like to try it, because some combinations sound really weird’. However, the differences in cuisine were a source of negative attitudes as well, as participant 85 pointed out, ‘regarding food, I think that I would not like it, because I am used to typical Czech cuisine’.

4.4.2 Environmental distance

Environmental distance in terms of the natural and built environment was another theme that emerged. As with cultural distance, environmental distance includes a comparative dimension itself however, rather than cultures, one’s own environment is contrasted with the visualized one. For example, participant 212 stated, ‘even though it is also a European state as well as our republic, it is an island with the ocean climate’. Participant 97 mentioned, ‘the weather in London will probably be different than ours. In the summer it will be colder’.

In particular, participants stressed temperature, greenery, the sea. It was participant 219 who stated, ‘it is warmer in here and I hope also more green, but we do not have the sea’. Participant 29 expressed that this is not stable in time, ‘regarding the fact how warm it is now, I would go there immediately – it has to be colder in there’. Participant 209 poetically described the similar environment, ‘weather rather cloudy where the sun occasionally shows up, bridges over the wide Thames where the water (of neutral colour, similar to the one in Vltava in Prague) lazily travels in the direction of the sea’.

Participants compared the size of Czech cities and London. For example, participant 21 revealed, ‘I think that even though Prague is also a metropolis at the heart of Europe, I imagine London much bigger than that’. Participant 101 visualized, ‘On the top of that we do not have in the Czech Republic a city that would be close to London in terms of its size … So it is not possible to make a comparison’. Participant 282 stated, ‘no city in
our republic can compare with such a big city as London’. Participant 122 disclosed, ‘London is, in comparison with our towns, a completely different world’.

4.4.3 Perceived geographical distance
Perceived geographical distance in terms of proximity was identified as one of the themes. Participant 239 for example pointed out the geographical distance of the two countries by stating, ‘each country has its specifics that are given by the size and location of the country. Not only the country but also the place of residence may impact on possibilities to travel from place of residence’.

The perceived geographical distance varied, for example participant 134 wrote, ‘nowadays London is very well accessible, but it was not always like this, so there is definitely still that exotic element’. London seems far away also for participant 110, who commented, ‘I think that London is so far away that the fact if I live in Prague or in a village is not important’. The distance however is not seen as dramatic for some, for example participant 53 revealed, ‘We all live in Europe.’ Participant 103 also stressed that, ‘both countries, Czech Republic and Great Britain, are in Europe’.

4.4.4 Shared history
Some remembered shared Czech and British history. When writing about the destination it was pointed out by a number of participants that the two countries are linked by history, ‘I am linked (to London) with different historic bonds’ (participant 284). History was also included for example by participant 47 who stated, ‘historical events’. The remembered history also depended on participants’ age. For example, participant 85 wrote, ‘England has influenced the Czech Republic since its creation. It was considered to be an ally and it also took part in the disintegration of Austro-Hungarian Empire and this means even the creation of our own state…’.

Some memories of participants relate to World War 2, as pointed out by participant 184, ‘London evokes in me a memory of betrayal that England made on the Czechoslovak Republic, when it shamefully sold us to Hitler’. Participant 281 also remembered World War 2, ‘I have London linked with the World War 2, with the stay of our exile government there during that time, Western resistance against the fascists. The events of World War 2 – support and betrayal of Czechoslovakia. It is not positive. They simply
threw us to deep waters’. Participant 195 wrote, ‘maybe by the fact that I was comparing the attitudes of England during World War 2 and attitudes of the Czech Republic. England resisted, but we did not, I think that the government of Great Britain then actually contributed to our occupation and indirectly to World War 2, but London resisted even because they had the support of Her Majesty the Queen. For example I feel a kind of distance towards the Germans because of the WW2. Great Britain is a nice state that stayed by the Czech Republic, they did not try to destroy us as a state’.

4.4.5 Political influences

One key political influence on image formation is the visa restrictions policy. Participants identified with the inability to travel to London freely before 1989, for example participant 56 stated, ‘before (the revolution) we could hardly visit the West, so my images were created from images and articles of different magazines and various books’. Participant 67 also pointed out, ‘my information and this means the above statements is caused by the fact that I did not have the possibility in the past to travel to this country’. Participant 71 remembered the ability to visit only selected countries, ‘I am the year 1947 (…) nowadays the youngsters travel and take part in various exchange programmes; my generation was travelling mainly to Bulgaria, Germany, friendly countries. This is the only thing that I envy the youngsters and that is hardly possible to catch up as a pensioner’.

Participant 89 emphasized that this influenced the fact that he still has not visited London, ‘I think that the fact that I live in the Czech Republic probably influenced me by the fact that I still have not visited London (I am now older and before we did not have the possibility to do so’. Participant 300 also admitted, ‘most of my life (…) there was the limitation of travelling. If I lived in another country, I would probably have visited London already’. The inability to travel meant some idealised the destination and still do. For example, participant 240 admitted, ‘I think that by the prohibition to travel during the communist era people rather idealised it’. However, this was not the case for all. The fact that individuals could not travel, reduced interest in the destination for some - as participant 276 emphasized, ‘before it was not possible to travel, so I was never interested in London and I do not have much information about it’. As participant 279 puts it, ‘the communist regime did not allow us to be interested in these countries’.
Restrictions not only to outbound travel but also on inbound travel influenced destination images of London held by Czechs. Limited cosmopolitanism in the place where one lives was another feature raised, for example by participant 135 who stated, ‘people of different nationalities can live here only few years now, we do not meet a lot of them (except tourists), this is why it should be different in London (but also in other metropolises)’. As pointed out by participant 268, ‘meeting with tourists was possible only recently’. A number of quotes on comparisons of multiculturalism were presented earlier on in this section however, as all of those quotes were based on comparisons, they were cited in the comparisons section.

Another key political feature that influenced the images of non-visitors was the lack of information as well as the content of information provided about London before 1989, during the communist era. As participant 34 pointed out, ‘I did not have much information about London before 1989, it is just from the last years from my friends who have visited it’. Participant 78 stated, ‘I have lived 40 years in communism and we did not have much information about neighbouring countries’. Participant 113 commented, ‘I am a part of the generation that still remembers the period before the revolution. This imposed the impossibility to travel to London, but also the informational embargo. The outside world was very attractive, but unreachable. Everything I know about London is only thanks to the opening of information channels after 1989’.

The nature of the information provided was also raised as a factor that influenced image formation by participant 237, ‘my image is very negative thanks to the regime that ruled here under the period I was going to school. It was poured in our heads that they are our enemies. I think that the Czech Republic influenced my views about London’. Participant 279 pointed out that, ‘the communist regime ... we never learned about London in school.’ Restrictions of language provision in schools was another area where the regime impacted before 1989 as participant 185 pointed out, ‘I could probably not travel alone, even the language barrier is significant, I belong to the generation that studied mainly Russian and German and the fact that we could not use these languages and almost forgot them anyway. It is better for today’s generation, travelling to London will not be a problem for them and travelling generally all over the world’.
Nowadays, however, there is a perceived increased freedom of speech as participant 70 accentuated, ‘freedom of speech’. Participant 130 mentioned, ‘the Czechs know very well by now what democracy is and they let everyone create their own image, eventually perceptions of different cultures’.

4.4.6 Economic status of the Czech Republic
The recent development of the Czech Republic and free market place are also influential factors in image formation, in particular in the provision of sources, as was pointed out by participants. These are all linked with the economic status of the Czech Republic. Some believe that the level of provision of information nowadays is linked with the fact that the Czech Republic is a developed country. For example, participant 232 wrote, ‘I think that my image of London would be the same if I would live anywhere else in the world, I mean the civilized world, because it is formed by the media and literature’. Participant 117 revealed that, ‘I had the chance to read about London on the Internet, in the newspapers, that I would not have in less developed countries’.

4.4.7 ‘Czechness’ of sources
The Czech language and the Czech origin of sources were pointed out by participants as influential in the image formation process. These sources could not be used by those who do not speak Czech. For example, participant 12 included in his response a Czech TV series, ‘TV series such as Objektiv’. Participant 42 stated a Czech travelogue, ‘I got the information about London from television programmes (‘Cestománie’)’. Participant 28 mentioned Czech radio programmes, ‘I like to listen to ‘Cestovní zpravodaj’. On a similar note, participant 189 commented, ‘reportage from Mr. Kyncl’.

The unique influence of Czech sources was raised in regards to historic events that can clearly be interpreted in many ways by different countries as participant 47 wrote, ‘broadcasting from London during tough times shows a support for Czechoslovak resistance’. Participant 179 pointed out the ‘Czechness’ of some sources about London, ‘I was particularly influenced by the WW2 and London radio, the broadcasting for the Czechs with President Benes and Jan Masaryk. His ‘Good night and be strong in your hopes’ message I can hear until today. And of course our courageous air force, I follow them until today’.
4.5 The influence of place of residence on destination image

This section presents the findings in regards to the fourth research question on the ways a place of residence influences destination image and its formation. As mentioned previously, this study was conducted in three case study areas. The first was a capital city case study area, this was represented by Prague 8, the second case study area was a larger town, this was represented by Kolin, and lastly the small towns and rural case study area was represented by selected villages and small towns in Českomoravská Vrchovina.

Hence, when the metropolitan area is referred to in the text the researcher relates to the first case study, when referring to the urban area the second case study is meant and, lastly, when the rural area is mentioned this means the third case study area. Participants were asked how place of residence has influenced their images and these findings were grouped into themes. However, comparisons of image sources across the case study areas were also made which was enabled by a content analysis of the data.

On a couple of occasions, there is an overlap with the previous section in terms of themes, for example environmental and cultural distance. However in regards to this research question, different evidence is presented. The rationale as to why there are fewer quotes overall in this section than in the previous section is that, of the many quotes that appeared in the dataset, quite a few were repeated often, so the evidence base might seem rather short. However, in reality, the arguments presented are strong as they were identified by many participants at the same time.

As with the influence of a country of residence, even though some participants believed that country of residence does not influence their image, there are many who believe the contrary. However; the key focus of this research question is to investigate ways how place where non-visiters live influences on their image formation. Table 4.9 below presents the themes and subthemes that were identified in relation to the research question on how place of residence influences destination image and its formation.
Comparisons of the imaged environment to the place of residence
Comparisons of the imagined environment to the visited one
Different environment
Different societies
Different distribution of sources
Different interests
Different motivations
Economic disparities
Cultural distance
Distribution of information and cultural capital
The presence of tourists/working foreigners as well as goods

Table 4.9: Table displaying themes identified in regards in regards to the perceived influence of place of residence on image and its formation (source: primary research of this study)

4.5.1 Different environment
Comparisons of the environment of participants’ own place of residence to the imagined one were important in answering the research question as it evidence that location and place mattered in the image formation process. Participants compared the environment of the envisioned destination to that one their own place of residence. In particular, the business of one’s own environment was identified as participant 161 from the large town case study area admitted, ‘I think that life in a small town is completely different than in London, it is much busier there’.

The bustle of the city was also identified by participants in the rural areas as participant 217 stated, ‘I could not live directly in London, because I am not used to the bustle of the city’. This bustle was elaborated on by participant 236, also from the rural case study area who mentioned, ‘a person living in a big city probably perceives the bustle of the metropolis differently than a person living in a countryside in a hamlet’. 
In particular, the levels of noise were often pointed out by participants. Participant 251 for example stated about the image of London, ‘only the noise and a lot of people bring negative feelings for me’. Participant 255 revealed, ‘my image is definitely influenced by the fact that I live in a quiet countryside’. Participant 210 from the rural case study area pointed out, ‘and there will not be such tranquillity and well-being, but rather bustle, stress and problems. This was elaborated on further by participant 299 who stated, ‘I always like to come back to the tranquil environment of the little town. And this influenced my image of London as a bustling metropolis’.

The size of the place of residence was also compared as participant 21 stated, ‘I think that even though Prague is also a metropolis at the heart of Europe, I imagine London much bigger than that’. Participant 12 from Prague mentioned, ‘The fact that I live in Prague predestines me to compare Prague and London, not only in size, but mainly in the atmosphere’. Participant 29, also from the Prague case study area, revealed, ‘I imagine London smaller than Prague, even though it will certainly be the other way around’. The presence of nature was also compared, for example participant 267 stated, ‘I would miss the nature’. The levels of cultural capital within the country were also compared as participant 210 commented, ‘however London also offers sights and possibilities that cannot be found here, that is why we can enjoy the possible stay’.

Generally, participants from Prague often visualized London like Prague, as participant 94 from Prague admitted, ‘comparable environment of the metropolis’. Participant 18 disclosed, ‘I will probably imagine London more or less like Prague’. Participant 29 outlined, ‘because I live in Prague, the image of London automatically appeared as a city full of people with majestic buildings’. Participant 5 stated, ‘the fact that I live in Prague can give me an idea about how busy London must be from the point of view of transport and how expensive it can be to rent’. Participant 94 wrote, ‘comparable environment of the metropolis’. Participant 64 revealed, ‘if a person lives in a small town, Prague is for him a big city with a lot of possibilities and how about London where there is a high concentration of residents and much bigger possibilities’. Participant 29 commented, ‘because I live in Prague, the image of London automatically appeared as a city full of people with majestic buildings’. Participant 102 stated, ‘I could not live in London; I think that it must be little bit like living in Prague. A lot of noise. I prefer tranquillity’.
It also matters where in Prague one lives. The case study area selected in Prague, Prague 8, includes both central areas as well as the periphery. A visit to central Prague was pointed out by a participant living in Prague, participant 37, who outlined, ‘nowadays I live in Prague – Bohnice where it is quite calm. I am on maternity leave so I spend all my time with the kids and I do not travel much. This is why it is also a shock for me when I get to central Prague. I have to get used to the cars, busy streets, watch out so that the children would not get lost, I am tired from this. But I like occasional visits to the centre’.

However, comparisons were also made between the visited environment and the envisioned one. Differences in domestic travel experiences within the Czech Republic were identified and comparisons with cities visited were expressed by participants from larger town, as participant 130 stated, ‘I am partly influenced by how I perceive Prague – I imagine that it is a similar city (of course, on a larger scale), full of sights, people of different cultures, city full of hectic and busy life’. Participant 173 wrote, ‘maybe the old Prague city, its buildings are inspiring, I think that London would be something similar’.

These differences were also pointed out by those residing in the rural case study area. For example, participant 208 outlined, ‘I live in a village and the image of such a huge city is really weird, on the other side I can find my way for example in Prague, so I think that a person gets used to this very quickly’. Participant 215 from the rural case study area revealed, ‘I live in a small town in the south of the Czech Republic and it is a bit of a different life than in Prague. I think that the life in Prague definitely resembles life in London, after all it is a bigger city’. Participant 236 commented, ‘own experiences of a visit to other big cities in the Czech Republic – e.g. Prague, Brno’. Participant 245, also from the rural case study area stated, ‘even a visit to a night Prague is for me an amazing experience. The last time was around 12 years ago where we were rushing to a coach from a musical and I regretted that it was not possible to walk through Prague full of lights more and more, and we went home straight away. It is a different atmosphere – full of excitement and unknown, the life in a small town and a village is mostly similar – few opportunities to meet new people, new environment and new experiences. A person gets into a stereotype and finds excitement only on television and the Internet’.
4.5.2 Different societies

Different societies were emphasized by participants in regards to the differences between image formation in metropolitan, urban and rural areas. Participant 7 unveiled, ‘the situation is the same here. (Socialization in one cultural area always influences views on other cultural areas. So this means that it influenced everything. We look at a different socio-cultural landscape through the prism of our own socio-cultural area.)’.

Different interests in particular were perceived by participants. For example, participant 209 stated, ‘the place where I live in the Czech Republic definitely influenced the images of London. Even though it is a long time ago I was studying in Brno, I have understood better the life in bigger cities, what customs people in big cities have compared with those from the countryside, how they think about their free time and what do they get amused by, with which activity and attention to their surrounding they approach their jobs and life in general’. Participant 224 admitted, ‘for example who lives in Prague does not have to be surprised about … what crowds of people are there, the expensive prices’. Participant 238 wrote, ‘maybe people in bigger cities are more interested in travelling and this means even about London more than people in the villages. Different reasons to visit the city’. Participant 279 stated, ‘I was born in a small village. Everyone only worked and nobody was interested in London. I never even thought of thinking about it. If I would have been born somewhere else where they would teach about London, speak about London, I would know more about it. Yes, I think that where I was born and lived did influence me, that I do not have any image about London’.

Overall, the influence of society on image formation was summarized by participant 257 who stated, ‘the size and the type of the place of residence and lifestyle form the insight and attitudes of a person, this contributes towards receiving of information and creation of own image of the surroundings – the close one and even the distant one’.

However, there were counter-arguments in this theme as well. Participant 285 also stressed the importance of interest rather than place of residence by stating, ‘the fact where a person lives (this is my opinion only), is not connected with the image. If I am interested in something, I make an effort for it’. Participant 292 concluded that, ‘who is
interested in Great Britain, he can get information about Great Britain’.

Motivation of participants was also perceived as different across the three case study areas. Participant 66 pointed out, ‘someone who lives in a village is probably not used to busy life in the city - and vice versa. An old person prefers peace – does not long after a metropolis’. Participant 80, also from Prague, wrote, ‘because I live in Prague, I am attracted to get to know other big or capital cities’. Participant 276 noted, ‘I live in a village and we were never much interested in travelling’. Participant 26 who is from Prague elaborated, ‘I believe that people from bigger cities have more desire to travel’. However, there were also counter-arguments as participant 157 revealed, ‘I am from Kolin and this does not mean that I would not want to get to know new things’.

Economic disparities across and within the country were also outlined as influencing destination image. For example participant 108 stated, ‘in bigger cities there are more opportunities to get away from the family and live autonomously (bigger salaries, job opportunities and even then possibilities to get a job)’. Language knowledge disparities were identified. Participant 26 who is from Prague commented, ‘I believe that people from bigger cities have (…) bigger financial possibilities’.

Cultural distance is another theme that appeared in regards to place of residence. It needs to be pointed out that this theme also appeared in the previous section in the context of country of residence. However, in this instance, the imagined place was compared directly to place of residence. For example, participant 284 pointed out, ‘I have never visited such a big city so I would probably much more than its residents feel the ... different types of behaviour, limited possibility to communicate’. Another quote that supports this theme was made by participant 210 who unveiled, ‘I live in a small town in the south of the Czech Republic. In our town there are approximately 3,000 inhabitants, a lot of people know each other and we have friendly family relationships between us. This certainly cannot be said about the metropolis in England. You will hardly know and say hello to every third person that you meet’.

4.5.3 Different distribution of sources

Another type of qualitative evidence put forward by participants is linked to the distribution of information. How information is distributed across the country was identified as one of the key themes when considering influence of place of residence on
image, for example participant 98 stated, ‘I live in Prague and the big city definitely influences my images, because there are bigger opportunities here and a broader information base’. A participant from the rural case study area, participant 292, summarized this by stating, ‘whoever is interested in Great Britain, he can get information about Great Britain. However, those from Prague have an advantage’. Participant 299 emphasized, ‘I lived my whole life in a small town that is beautiful and has its rich history. And from here I go to bigger cities for gaining knowledge, to see something beautiful or for a visit’.

Generally, the cultural capital differs across the three case study areas, for example participant 71 admitted, ‘I have lived my whole life in Prague, if I can judge whoever wants to look for information, he will get it and before as well. However, in Prague it is rather easier because of the bigger cultural background in here’. Participant 237 stated, ‘if I were born in a city where they talk about London more, I would know more about it’. Participant 160 detailed, ‘I live in Kolin, I work in Prague. The influence on the image of London will be only in the fact that the cultural life is much bigger in such a place, more complex’. Overall, it is summarized by participant 15, currently residing in Prague, who revealed, ‘before I moved to Prague I lived in a small town and my images about big cities were definitely skewed’.

On the other hand, times are changing and many types of information can be accessed from virtually anywhere - participant 83 stated, ‘I think that in today’s era of the Internet everyone can find whatever he wants’. Participant 268 outlined, ‘nowadays, but also about 20 years ago, there was a lot of information about London’. Another person, participant 234, communicated that, ‘if someone has the interest in learning about historic sights and about the history of a faraway city or a country, it does not matter where he lives’. Participant 252, on a similar note, stated, ‘the information I am interested in I can find easily and read it’.

The presence of tourists/working foreigners in a place of residence was also included in responses as a different element across the country that influenced destination image, as participant 17 stated, ‘in Prague a person meets more foreigners than in the countryside and that definitely influences opinion about London’. Participant 78 admitted, ‘in bigger cities, we have now the possibility to meet the Englishmen, be it at work or in language
Participant 120 commented, ‘in Prague a person gets the chance to meet someone from there and get to know more about the place like that’. Participant 108 wrote about those from Prague, ‘a possibility to meet and understand foreigners and so practice English even at home, which then becomes very handy while travelling’.

Participant 218 from the rural area on the other hand outlined, ‘I am from a village where Brits and generally tourists do not travel as much as for example to Prague. So I do not even see them: I cannot form even a small picture about them’. Participant 225 detailed, ‘in Prague a person probably meets a Londoner or a Brit more often than in a village. Villages are full of prejudices and various dogmas whereas bigger cities are used to multiculturalism’. Distribution of British goods, which is more pronounced in Prague, was identified as impacting on images of the destination by participant 33, ‘English luxury goods in Tuzex Štěpánská imported here’.

4.5.4 Difference in destination images
In addition to the reflections of participants, there were some observations made by the researcher. This section presents evidence in regards to the differences in some of the destination images across the three case study areas, as identified by the researcher. Whilst assessing the images, it was identified that conative elements of image (whether participants would like to visit the destination) were more pronounced in small town and rural case study areas.

In particular, the following participants expressed that they would like to visit London: participants from the large town case study area were participant 101, participant 159, participant 163 – overall 3. Participants from the rural/small town case study area were participant 212, participant 219, participant 227, participant 226, participant 230, participant 251, participant 273, participant 284 – overall 8. Surprisingly, no participants from Prague expressed that they would like to visit London. It however need to be stressed that this information was not directly asked.

Secondly, it has also been observed by the researcher that more people in the rural and urban case study area did not have a destination image of London. In particular, the following participants from the large town case study area did not have image of London: participant 136, participant 141, participant 172, participant 180. Also the
following participants from the rural/small town case study area expressed that they did not have an image of London: participant 277, participant 279, participant 297. No participants from Prague commented that they had no image of London. It is however possible that some that did not have image preferred not to take part in the research exercise.

Lastly, it has also been found that images of those who reside in the countryside were more stereotyped. For example, Big Ben and Tower Bridge for example were mentioned by many more participants in the rural area rather than those in metropolitan and urban case study areas.

### 4.5.5 Differences in the use of sources

This section includes quantitative evidence in regards to the influence of place of residence on image formation. It shows that there are objectively some differences in the use of sources across places with different degree of urbanisation, backing up the reflections of participants on this theme in the previous sections. Table 4.10 below presents percentages of sources drawn from across the three case study areas.
Some observations can be made from Table 4.10 above. Firstly, it is the fact that films are more common as a source of destination image in the metropolitan case study area. Secondly, television as a source seems to be more common as a source of destination image in the large town and rural areas. Thirdly, as could perhaps be expected, promotions are more commonly cited in the capital.

Of interest it was also evidenced that the Internet was used more in the image formation process by those residing in the large town and rural areas rather than in the metropolitan case study area. However, this finding could be linked to the fact that more participants in these areas expressed that they would like to go to the capital but had not been yet as the Internet as a source requires an active interest in the destination. Lastly, radio is more commonly cited as a source of image in the rural case study area rather than in the capital city.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of destination image</th>
<th>Metropolitan Area</th>
<th>Large town Area</th>
<th>Small town/rural area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Book</strong></td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Those who were there</strong></td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Television</strong></td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Films</strong></td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School</strong></td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Magazines and newspapers</strong></td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internet</strong></td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Media</strong></td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Radio</strong></td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Englishmen</strong></td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fantasy</strong></td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promotion</strong></td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10: Table displaying the use of sources across the three case study areas
(source: primary research of this study)
4.6 Results from secondary research

This section focuses on the travel attitudes of individuals in the Czech Republic living in metropolitan, urban or rural areas. It is linked with the fourth research question on how a specific place of residence influences destination image and its formation. As identified previously, travel attitudes can be seen as demand-related factor in destination image formation (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999), and thus are relevant to this study. As the differences in travel attitudes in places with different degrees of urbanisation is an under-researched area, it provides the much-needed evidence that at least partly fills this gap in the existing literature.

Primary evidence from the Eurobarometer (2009) study was re-analysed in this chapter. In particular, the re-analysis of the Czech subsample of the SPSS data obtained from the Eurobarometer (2009) study was conducted. These data were received from the Gesis institute in Germany. One of the questions in the Eurobarometer (2009) questionnaire was whether participants consider themselves to be residents of metropolitan, urban or rural areas. This question was then cross-tabulated with other questions in the closed-ended questionnaire in order to find out whether there were differences in travel-related attitudes across places with different degrees of urbanisation in the Czech Republic.

4.6.1 Travel attitudes and behaviour according to degree of urbanization

It was found that the metropolitan residents in the Czech Republic seem to travel more in general to stay somewhere overnight for at least one night. On the question ‘During 2008, how many times have you travelled for business or private purposes where you were away from home for min 1 night?’, 17.4% of metropolitan residents, 32.3% of urban residents and 44.5% of rural residents responded that they had not travelled at all in 2008. This included both domestic as well as international travel. Figure 4.2 below displays a graphical representation of the above-mentioned data.
Fig. 4.2: Column chart displaying percentages of metropolitan, urban and rural residents who had not travelled at all in 2008 (source: based on primary data of Eurobarometer (2009), on a sample size of 1000 participants).

There are also differences in how Czechs from places with different degree of urbanisation travel, if they travel. More of those in metropolitan areas used air travel as the main method of transport than those residing in urban and rural areas. Also, with domestic flights rather limited in the Czech Republic due to its small size, it can be assumed that most of these were international trips.

In particular, on the question on participants’ holidays, ‘How did you travel there in 2008? (What was the main method of transport?)’, 36.2% of metropolitan residents, 15.8% of urban residents and 13.8% of rural residents responded that they had travelled on an airline. Figure 4.3 below presents a graphical representation of the above-mentioned data. In particular, it focuses on displaying the differences between metropolitan, urban and rural case study areas.
Fig. 4.3: Column chart displaying percentages of metropolitan, urban and rural residents who used airlines as the main mode of transport for their travels in 2008 (source: based on primary data of Eurobarometer (2009), on a sample size of 1000 participants).

Those in the metropolitan area seem to be less price-sensitive than those in the remaining two groups. On the question ‘Did changes in your cost of living have an impact on your 2008 travel/holiday plans?’, 5.8% of metropolitan residents, 16.8% of urban residents and 16.6% of rural residents responded ‘yes’ as graphically represented in Figure 4.4 below.
Fig. 4.4: Column chart displaying percentages of metropolitan, urban and rural residents who felt the impact of the economy on their travel arrangements (source: based on primary data of Eurobarometer (2009), on a sample size of 1000 participants).

More of those in metropolitan areas are adventurous in their choice of destination and possibly type of holiday as well. On the question ‘What type of holiday destinations do you prefer?’, 53.6% of metropolitan residents, 61.4% of urban residents and 62.4% of rural residents responded traditional, well-known destinations. Figure 4.5 below displays the graphical representation of this data, focusing on displaying the differences between metropolitan, urban and rural case study areas.
4.6.2 The use of information sources according to degree of urbanization

The information sources used to plan travel arrangements in the Czech Republic were also studied. On the Eurobarometer (2009) question ‘Which information source do you consider to be the most important when you make a decision about your travel/holiday plans?’, 23.2% of metropolitan residents, 21.9% of urban residents and 26.6% of rural residents stated personal experience which, of course, is not relevant to this study as this thesis only looks at non-visitors. However, friends and colleagues were listed as one of the key sources as 29.0% of metropolitan residents, 29.0% of urban residents and 29.3% of rural residents stated recommendations of friends and colleagues as the most important source. The Internet was also pointed out as a main source with 24.6% of metropolitan residents using the Internet while 17.9% of urban residents and 13.4% of rural residents stated the Internet as a main source.

Other sources were identified as well as the most important sources listed above. Only a few participants mentioned what could be called commercial sources with 4.3% of metropolitan residents, 4.7% of urban residents and 1.4% of rural residents stating guidebooks and magazines (commercial). A few more mentioned non-commercial brochures; 7.2% of metropolitan residents, 10.2% of urban residents and 7.9% of rural residents.
residents stated catalogues and brochures (non-commercial). Travel/tourist agencies were mentioned by only 5.8% of metropolitan residents compared to 10.2% of urban residents and 10.3% of rural residents. Not many participants mentioned the media as a source when deciding where to go on holidays and making travel plans with 2.9% of metropolitan residents, 1.4% of urban residents and 3.8% of rural residents mentioning media (newspapers, radio, TV). The rest of the participants did not know or did not respond to this question. Overall, it can be summarized that there seem to be a number of differences in travel-related attitudes of those residing in metropolitan, urban and rural areas. Figure 4.6 below displays the graphical representation of the most important sources used to plan travel arrangements by those residing in metropolitan, urban and rural areas in the Czech Republic.

![Column chart displaying the most important sources used to plan travel arrangements by those residing in metropolitan, urban and rural areas in the Czech Republic (in percentages)](source: based on primary data of Eurobarometer (2009), on a sample size of 1000 participants).
4.6.3 Summary of results from secondary research

This chapter presented results on travel attitudes and travel behaviour by those residing in places with a different degree of urbanisation in the Czech Republic. It was found that the metropolitan residents in the Czech Republic travel more (staying overnight at the destination for at least one night) than those residing in urban or rural areas.

There were differences in how Czechs from places with different degrees of urbanisation travel, if they travel. More of those in metropolitan areas used air travel as the main mode of transport than any other group. Travel information sources across the three case study areas were also identified. Personal experience and friends and colleagues were the main information sources in all three areas. More metropolitan residents stated the Internet as the main information source.

The sources with a low impact in all three case study areas were guidebooks and magazines (commercial), brochures (non-commercial), media and travel agencies. It could be summarized that this secondary research at least partly filled in the gap in the literature on the influence of a place of residence, in terms of degree or urbanisation, on travel attitudes.
4.7 Summary
Overall, this chapter has presented results in regards to the four research questions set out at the beginning of the study. It could be observed that overall; the dataset obtained was very rich. Many relevant themes were identified. Often, many different aspects of the same theme were identified as well. Selective quotes were used to illustrate the themes and subthemes identified through thematic analysis. The key elements were also the reflections of participants on their images as well as image formation processes. A complementary content analysis enabled the identification of key shared images and image sources. Full details of how the analysis was conducted are included in the methodology chapter.

A detailed summary of this chapter is provided in the conclusion to this thesis. To avoid repetition, a detailed summary is thus not included here. Selected findings will be discussed and critically evaluated in depth in the next chapter – discussion. Some will also be further critically discussed in the last chapter of this thesis (conclusion), whilst assessing the contributions of this study to existing knowledge.
5. Discussion chapter

5.1 Introduction

There are five key themes that emerged from the findings which will be discussed in this chapter. All of these themes were identified through a thematic analysis and they form a framework for the structure of this chapter as follows:

- Comparisons of the imagined destination with own experiences
- Persistence of destination images
- Archetypal images
- Credibility of sources
- Image formation processes by different types of non-visitors

In addition, diversity of images is discussed at the end of the chapter.

5.2 Comparisons of the imagined destination with own experiences

This study found the images of London held by Czechs to be based on comparisons with respondents’ experiences. This suggests that images are relative, contributing to the research question on how do the place of residence and the country of residence influence destination image. The various detailed elements of which comparisons were made are discussed in this section. In particular, it has been found that images are relative to the individual’s own culture and environment. Other comparisons such as those of places visited were also identified. Comparisons that were expressed by participants are not only part of the images themselves, but were also present in individuals’ reflections on the influence of country and place of residence on the images and their formation. As participant 245 explained, ‘it is impossible to avoid comparing with the life in the Czech Republic’, whilst participant 29 wrote, ‘I was more looking at the contrasts’.

It should be emphasized that participants were not asked for comparisons, but provided them anyway. Whilst the non-visitors were not asked about comparisons, participants mentioned this constantly in their images, as participant 101 wrote, ‘on the top of that we do not have in the Czech Republic a city that would be close to London in terms of its size or multicultural aspect. So it is not possible to make a comparison’.
Cultural distance affects the image that is formed and is often discussed in literature with reference to visitors - as Ivanovic (2010, p. 100) notes, ‘cultural distance refers to the extent of cultural difference between the host culture and the visitors’ culture’. However, it is not often linked with non-visitors. For example, personal characteristics were compared as one aspect of culture - as participant 202 stated, ‘I think that in the Czech Republic we have a different mentality’. In particular, Londoners were imagined for example as ‘calmer … more balanced’ (participant 245).

Elsewhere in reference to culture, traditions were also compared. As participant 215 summarised, ‘we have different cultures and customs’. The imagined traditions were seen as different, highlighting what individuals are not used to, but at the same time are attracted to. For example, participant 116 wrote, ‘I think that for example if in the Wenceslaus’s square someone would take off his shoes and socks and took out his lunch and read some book, everyone would look at him with astonishment’.

Language as a key part of cultural distance was often expressed in the images held by non-visitors. Once again, the contrasts were pointed out as participant 215 expressed, ‘for example we do not speak English here and I am not particularly strong in English’. As identified in the literature review, research by Eurobarometer (2006) suggests that only 24% of Czech residents speak English, thus the implication of using a foreign language were found to be central to participants’ thoughts.

Food was another element of culture that was frequently compared in the findings. Participants compared imagined food in London with that of the Czech Republic. For example, participant 104 pointed out that the things that are different than those present in the Czech Republic are imagined, ‘I would be focusing on tasting different kinds of beer, barley, upper fermented, that are rare in the Czech Republic’. Given that non-visitors have not tasted the local food, images they hold are often imprecise. Individuals imagined local food and drink in respect of what they see as the traditional Czech food and drink. Contrasts were highlighted here as well, as participant 207 outlined, ‘I know from my own sources what the Brits roughly eat, but I would like to try it, because some combinations sound really weird’.
The mix of cultures and ethnicities in London were also compared by participants. Some respondents discussed imagined multiculturalism by making a comparison, ‘bigger diversity of residents in London’ (participant 87). Some wrote that minority groups have only recently immigrated to the Czech Republic, as participant 135 wrote, ‘people of different nationalities can live here only few years now, we do not meet a lot of them (except tourists)’. In the Czech Republic multiculturalism is limited with the proportion of foreigners residing in the country at only 2.5% (ČSÚ, 2006).

Apart from cultural distance, another form of distance explicitly expressed in the images was that of ‘environmental distance’. Environmental distance means that participants compare environment of their place of residence, which means the physical surroundings, to the imagined one. No link has been found in the existing literature between environmental distance and destination imagery. The findings of this study show that where participants live influences the environmental distance of their images.

In particular, comparisons of the weather and climate were key elements of the imagined environment in regards to the country of residence. Participant 97 recognised the differences in climate suggesting that, ‘the weather in London will probably be different than ours. In the summer it will be colder’. Imagined weather was also compared. For example, the fact that Britain is not land locked and has a sea climate, unlike the Czech Republic, was also pointed out. It was participant 219 who stated, ‘it is warmer here and I hope also more green, but we do not have the sea’. Participant 29 provided evidence that environmental distance in the image can depend on the current weather in the place of residence, ‘probably the first thing that comes to my mind is the ‘British’ rain. Regarding the fact how warm it is now, I would go there immediately – it has to be colder in there’.

It became clear that images are relative to the nature of an individual’s place of residence. For example, participant 209’s images included comparisons with what they had experienced in the Czech Republic, ‘bridges over the wide Thames where the water (of neutral colour, similar to the one in Vltava in Prague) lazily travels in the direction of the sea’.
The built environment was another element of environmental distance. The non-visitors from less urbanised areas imagine London as a typical city. Participant 210 made the following comparison, ‘and there will not be such tranquillity and well-being, but rather bustle, stress and problems. However London also offers sights and possibilities that cannot be found here, that is why we can enjoy the possible stay’. Non-visitors from Prague on the other hand related the imagined environment to that of their city. For example, participant 18 stated, ‘I will probably imagine London more or less like Prague’. Participant 21 wrote, ‘I think that even though Prague is also a metropolis at the heart of Europe, I imagine London much bigger than that’.

Comparisons of the imagined destination with a variety of one’s own experiences can also be linked with wider theory. As pointed out in the literature review, for example Massey (2004) writes from a geographer’s perspective that constructions of identity of places are relational. In the context of this thesis, it has been found that destination images are relational in many ways. It has been acknowledged in the literature review however that the increasing interconnection of communication channels changes these relations and this change is further strengthened by changes in communications and an increase in movements across borders (Hall, 2005). However, the primary research findings show that it is place of residence that forms comparisons and comparative images with the world around.

It has been found that where one lives is relevant to what one imagines and how he images it. This is in accordance with a number of authors from the literature review. Fisher (1997), for example, states that anthropologists acknowledge the link between how the world is perceived and the cultural identity of individuals. However, it needs to be recognized that, unfortunately, this comparative nature has not been fully recognized and is often overlooked.

The notion that images are based on what individuals know and can compare is rooted in geography as well as psychology. As Massey (2006) suggests, individuals do use the background information that they have about the world in general to form their images (Massey, 2006). On a similar note, as mentioned previously in the literature review, Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003, p. 39) state that ‘imagery has been defined by psychologists as a distinct way of processing and storing multisensory information in
working memory. In essence, imagery processing depends upon more holistic or gestalt methods of representing information. This is often described as mental picturing’. It is interesting that Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003) link Gestalt theory with destination images of non-visitors, suggesting that images are based on what one knows, what he or she is familiar with or he or she has experienced.

To summarize, it is argued that the images of London held by non-visitors are based upon comparisons. Participants made comparisons with their own country and place of residence in terms of its culture and natural as well as built environment, though a few also drew on cities they had visited. Images are thus relative to what the individual has directly experienced. Overall, it can be summarized that this relativist characteristic of destination image of non-visitors seems under-researched.
5.3 Persistence of destination images

Some images persist for a long time in the minds of individuals and are resilient to change. There are many ways in which persistence of images manifests itself in the responses of participants and these are evidenced and discussed in this section. This section also considers why these types of images are so persistent. The persistence of destination images has special significance in the post-communist context of this study where some of the images participants gained a long time ago, before the revolution in 1989, are still vivid nowadays.

The first images are highly persistent; ‘first images’ in this context meaning the images that people get about a destination when they are young. These first images can have a special place in the minds of non-visitors, for example participant 22 stated, ‘I was first captivated by London as a child in books by A.C. Doyle’s ‘Sherlock Holmes’, I loved it and sometimes I come back to it. So the image of London as a gloomy city probably cannot be erased by anything from my mind anymore’. Some non-typical first images appeared, showing how individual the first images can be, for example participant 285 noted, ‘my first image of the royal city was created through philately. The first stamp from the year 1840, the author is R. Hill. Black one pence stamp with the Queen. Since my childhood I was drawn to Her Majesty the Queen. I do not think that any other portrait of a person is so famous and so diffused’. This highlights that images created in childhood persist into adulthood. For example, participant 260 pointed out, ‘all the information and images about London I already have since my childhood. As I wrote already, when I was little, I got a postcard from Piccadilly with red double-deckers’. No two first images seem to be the same, but what they have in common is the fact that they are retained by their owners possibly for the rest of their lives.

The persistence of these first images is linked with school which was revealed to be the key source of image formation during childhood and adolescent years, as participant 222 wrote, ‘the image of London is created from the earliest years, probably already from the primary school, there first I heard about something called London’. On the question of how their images were formed, participant 100 replied, ‘definitely at school, but after that during my whole life’. Participant 56 wrote that his image ‘was created only at the secondary school, where my teacher of English who lived in London for some time, told us about London’. Not only English, but other subjects were important
in the first image formation as well. Representations ‘in geography’ were mentioned (participant 5), ‘in history’, ‘literature and history’ (participant 193). In summary, the first images, many of them created in primary and secondary school, are essential in the overall destination image formation, as they influence subsequent interest in the destination.

It is evidenced that typical images are persistent; an example is images of London in the fog. With time, images become stereotypical of the destination. The expressions ‘stereotypical’ and ‘typical’ are used interchangeably in this thesis; typical is used in cases where individuals themselves have used the term in association with their images. These images are, unlike individual first images, shared images that are also highly persistent throughout time. An example of this is the typical food, as participant 238 stated, ‘from the foods I think of typical English breakfast - fried eggs, English bacon and roasted bread, in the streets the typical double-decker’. Participant 232 wrote, ‘typical English pub’.

Even though many participants mention cuisines from all over the world in their responses, none of the participants mention this multicultural cuisine as typical. It then seems to take a long time for a typical image to emerge suggesting it is synonymous with a stereotypical image. It is not clear why this happens, but it just seems to take time to establish the image as typical. In the existing literature, this is confirmed by, for example, Kotler and Gertner (2002) who suggest in regards to place image that stereotypes are long lasting and difficult to change.

So, what does it take for an image to become typical? This typicality seems to have been developed over a long period of time. None of the ‘new attributes’ of London were named as typical, for example. How a stereotypical image can endure over the years is another question that arises. It is argued that if an image is constantly fed by messages that strengthen it, over time this image becomes typical. Another question also arises as to how it is possible to change a typical image. It is argued that this is actually hard to do, as even though some individuals have a certain, typical image, they say that it is probably wrong ‘nowadays’ but at the same time they somehow seem reluctant to change their typical image.
Persistence is demonstrated by the old-fashioned nature of some images. This is recognized by participants in their responses and outdated images can be recognized by the researcher as well, for example a common image held of London is that the city is in a fog. Of interest, some believe that the persistent image they have might be far from the reality, but they still have it, as suggested by participant 121, ‘*certainly the first image is mainly from the literature, where London is mainly a dirty and gloomy city. But probably it is not like that anymore*.’ It could thus be observed that destination images of non-visitors thus suffer from a time lag. This time lag from the times before revolution for example is reflected in the perceived distance between the Czech Republic and London. The perceived geographical distance of places is not an exception as participant 134 wrote, ‘*nowadays London is very well accessible, but it was not always like this, so there is definitely still that exotic element*.’

This time lag, a demonstration of persistence of images, seems to be often created by outdated sources, for example books. Books are essential in the circulation of outdated images and their persistence; respondent 99 expressed that he was influenced by, ‘*K. Capek – interesting description of English customs – but this is from the era of the first Republic (1920s)*’. Other examples include for example Dickens and Sherlock Holmes. In addition, many mentioned specific films set in the past, such as for example participant 32, ‘*dark pictures from the film about Jack the Ripper*’; participant 55 stated, ‘*and film - for example the Hound of the Baskervilles, Sherlock Holmes (…) and Elisabeth - the golden age*’. Respondent 152 stated associations with old-fashioned images, ‘*films of Sherlock Holmes – dark, spooky streets*’. Participant 161 wrote, ‘*old films from this city*’. Participant 186 also mentioned films, in this case, ‘*English historic films*’. Even though such images are based on past realities, these are essential in current image formation. The key point is that cultural tourists are often keen readers of classic literature meaning that potential tourists are aware of the historic image of London.

There are several explanations for the persistence of images and their time lag. If there is an outdated source, when that image source is used it seems to create an outdated image. The reason for the time lag is that representations present in sources do not change, but the reality does. For example, it is argued that if a friend or a family member visited the destination fifteen years ago, he would portray the image of the destination as it was at that time.
The persistence of images is also attributed to other influences. Clearly, historical and political events influence the image formation process, with some respondents remembering a shared Czech and British history. These memories, associated with World War 2 or the communist era for example, provide evidence that some representations are memorable and thus highly persistent. The remembered history between the two countries also depends on the participants’ age. This experience of personal or shared history is what makes images persistent as well. A place of residence is thus filled not only with its own history, but also with historical perspectives of other places. This finding is supported in the literature, for example, Shields (1992a) recognised that place images are produced historically. It can be summarized that personal history and experience have a lasting effect on image formation and are making the image more persistent.

An important example of the persistence of people’s images is the fact that some still have some images from the communist era before 1989. Even though this is more than twenty years ago, image formation processes and images are still remembered and they remain ever-present in the minds of many Czechs. To illustrate, participant 96 stated, ‘I am not sure - but even the fact that I could not go there (I lived most of my life under communism) probably influenced that I got my images from the literature. I did not look for guidebooks and travel-related books about London’. It is striking that participants wrote about how the communist era; ending more than twenty years ago, affected their current image which shows how long it takes to really change an image.

Overall, the formation of images of non-visitors is seen as a highly complex process, resistant to change. Participant 130 wrote, ‘my image was created by putting together different experiences, be it from others who have already visited London (my English teacher, mum), or a gradual putting together of my own mosaic of pictures caught somewhere’. The complexity of the image has been confirmed by others, for example, participant 225 stated, ‘all the media and also what we learned at school form a complex image. Any information in the newspapers, books, magazines gradually fills in the complex image’. However, image change is possible and for some individuals their images have changed, for example participant 299 stated, ‘years ago, everything that was English was immediately bad, so I gained my image mainly from books – and even these were rather sad. This is why my image of London nowadays is different from the
one I used to have, after the revolution my images started to change’. This shows that image change is possible, but the expression ‘started’ is important here as it shows how slow the change can be.

The persistence theme also has a number of links with the wider literature. Boulding (1961), a sociologist, for example recognizes that images are built on individuals’ past experiences that are gradually formed. Luque-Martinez et al. (2007), recognise that people create their images over long periods of time. In the literature review of this study, links were made between the destination image of non-visitors and that of public opinion. For example, Sharma and Sharma (2004) mention that these views are formed by a complex process over rather long periods of time.

Massey’s (2006) work recognizes that geographical imaginations are well embedded in individuals’ minds – and she acknowledged the role of history as one of the essential elements of image formation. The historical perspective has also been offered by Short (1991) who suggests that certain messages are persistent in time and are passed along through the ages. Overall, it can be summarized that some of the images are highly persistent. This persistence is evidenced on an individual as well as shared level.
5.4 Archetypal images

Archetypal city image is an overarching category of the destination image of London. In this thesis, general images of a city, capital city, world city and foreign place were identified. It has been found that these general images inform destination image. For example, it has been found that an archetypal city image includes the following attributes: ‘a lot of people’, ‘crime’, ‘cars’, ‘buildings’, ‘billboards’, ‘tourists’, ‘the smell of traffic’, ‘anonymity’, ‘business’, ‘expensive’, ‘bigger possibilities’, ‘new people’, ‘new experiences’ and ‘excitement of the city’ and others. As participant 207 identified, ‘I would probably be surprised by large amounts of people, dense transport, city noise, turmoil, simply the typical features of a big city’.

A city is also seen as capable of changing people, for example participant 108 stated, ‘if I lived in a bigger city, I would probably be more autonomous and have been around and more courageous, I would believe in myself more and probably I would be more likely to travel abroad. In a bigger city there are more opportunities to get away from the family and live autonomously with bigger salaries, job opportunities and even then possibilities to get a job. A possibility to meet and understand foreigners and so practice English even at home, which then becomes very handy while travelling’.

Unlike specific unique features of the destination image, archetypal images, in this case of a city, seem to have a limited number of attributes that can be tested quantitatively.

Another archetypal image that people hold of London is the capital city image. The capital city image or image of a metropolis is distinctive from just the city image. For example, participant 189 stated, ‘I always think that a metropolis, especially if it is a world metropolis has the right and possibility to influence what happens in a country, it provides a person with more opportunities, it enables him to get an overview, but certainly also the feeling of superiority over the rest of the world’. As participant 175 wrote, ‘metropolis. If you do not have a guide, you are lost’, or ‘metropolis – a lot of minorities’ was the image of participant 109, while participant 210 mentioned, ‘London is a metropolis, so I imagine a lot of people, cars, buildings, billboards I believe that one will meet a lot of tourists’ or ‘noise of the metropolis’ (participant 290). Identifying this archetypal image of a metropolis is important as it is recognised within the current
debate on capital cities that further research into this area is still needed (Ritchie and Maitland, 2007).

London is seen as a world city, a global city. This is evidenced by participant 278 who sees it as, ‘a world centre of culture’ and participant 226 as a city of, ‘global sports and global sports events as London is famous for the sports’. London is seen as one of the tourist capitals of the world, as ‘one of the most visited cities in the world’ (participant 226). Also world dominance is an attribute that is linked with a world city, for example participant 189 wrote, ‘an empire that dominates the world until today, even though only with the English language now’. This centrality and power is thus key to the world city image as opposed to image of any big city.

Another archetypal image that exists in line with destination image study is the image of London as any other foreign place. Participant 284 imagined that he will experience, ‘similar situations that a person experiences when he is in a foreign and unknown environment and in a way a different culture as well’. It is difficult to manipulate these general images of a city, world city or a foreign place, as they seem to be largely based on experiences of individuals as well.

Archetypal city image is a theme that also links with the research question on the influence of place of residence on destination image and its formation. Archetypal city images of those residing in the small towns and rural case study area seem to be less positive than those held by residents of a city, perhaps because of the fact where they have chosen to live themselves, they imagine a city, as such, differently.

Archetypal images could be linked with a number of sources identified in the literature review. For example, Massey (2006) writes that general background information is used to generate geographical imaginations without direct experience. It is also mentioned by Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003), who establish the link between Gestalt theory and destination imagery, that individuals make use of what they have already experienced or what they know in the formation of their images of a destination.

These images mean that there are set dimensions of the archetype. The archetypal image of a destination could also be linked with work by Beerli and Martín, (2004) who propose a framework that includes a variety of dimensions of a destination that can later
form destination image. They assigned nine individual groups to the framework which includes: culture, natural resources, tourist infrastructure, history and art, tourist leisure and recreation, political and economic factors, natural environment, social environment, general infrastructure and the atmosphere of the place. For each of the groups they have detailed the possible attributes. However, this framework encompasses only the archetypal destination image in general (Beerli and Martín, 2004), as it also includes attributes such as beaches and deserts, hence does not describe the archetypal city image for example, as it was created generally for any destination rather than for a specific type of destination. Archetypal images can be seen as common components of destination image, as opposed to unique components of image; common and unique components are described in depth by Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003). However, once again, there is a difference between the two. The main difference is that common components are suited to destinations generally and do not have common attributes specific to a type of destination, whereas archetypal images have specific attributes of a type of destination.

It could be summarized that a number of attributes of various archetypal images were identified. However; these still need further investigation. The reason is that in many cases it is not possible to assess with certainty whether the attribute is mentioned as the archetypal image or as a unique image of the destination. It was possible to assess this only when participants themselves associated the attribute with for example a typical image of a metropolis.
5.5 Credibility of sources

Credibility of image sources was a major theme identified. It could be observed from the data that participants’ images of London were influenced mostly by sources perceived to be with less commercial foundations. This section discusses the finding that credible sources seem to have a great impact on image formation. The most influential and credible image sources are identified and discussed. It is acknowledged that films, those who have visited the destination, books as well as school, as highly credible sources, play a key role in framing how people see and understand other countries and cities.

The analysis of primary data shows that the most frequently cited sources of image were also the most credible ones. The most commonly cited sources were books mentioned by 155 individuals out of 300. Others who have visited the destination were another major source of image, cited by overall 148 individuals. Television was mentioned by about a half of the respondents and films were mentioned by more than a third. School as a source was mentioned by 70 participants out of 300. The less important image sources included magazines and newspapers, the Internet, radio, promotion and others. The last sources mentioned had only negligible impact on image formation. This list of image sources, for example school, can be useful for future quantitative image research as, previously, some of these sources were not considered at all in destination image quantitative questionnaires used in the studies on this topic.

The analysis shows that the most commonly cited sources in all the three case study areas are still sources which are considered to be the most credible ones. However, this could also be partly attributed to the low perceived credibility of official sources during the communist era that might still persist. The differences between the sources across different case study areas are highlighted in the results chapter.

Eurobarometer (2008) questioned Czechs as to the two forms of information media they trust the most in a quantitative study with pre-determined categories and found
the following: 68% mentioned television, 42% newspapers, 33% Internet, 25% radio. This provides corroboration for the finding that people use certain sources more because they think they are more trustworthy.

Destination images were often based on books. This could be influenced by the fact that the primary research was conducted in libraries, thereby attracting participants who probably read more than an average person. Still, the impact of books should not be underestimated.

As could be observed from the responses detailed in the results chapter, the credibility issue is not always explicitly mentioned in the participants’ responses, but in many cases can be inferred. Literature, as a credible source, is important in image formation - as, Robinson (2002, p.6) states, ‘literature is a potent and pervasive force that runs deep within and across societies, shaping the way we see the world and each other’. Robinson (2002, p. 22) then further wrote, ‘within the context of an expanding tourism culture, literature’s role has been under-estimated and largely under-researched’, providing further rationale for investigation of the relationship between destination image and literature.

Some respondents pointed out that during communism the only at least a little bit credible information that was available to them about London was to be found in books whilst participant 299 stated, ‘years ago, everything that was English was immediately bad, so I gained my image mainly from books – and even these were rather sad’.

Imagery from films also appeared often, in particular in responses of 107 respondents, out of 300. For example participant 55 stated, ‘...and film - for example the Hound of Baskervilles, Sherlock Holmes, Professionals and Elisabeth – the golden age’. Image is thus rarely created by one book or one film. It is the combination of different sources that makes them even more credible.

Books and films are perceived to be credible, even though they are often based on fiction. It could be argued that the boundary between fictional environments and real environments is not clear. Whilst in some cases representations in both films as well as
books are based on elements of reality of the city, it could be argued that in some cases these are based on the imagination of the author instead, at least partly. It can however be summarized that books as well as films are still perceived to be highly credible sources by individuals.

Word of mouth is also one of the most important, credible sources. Others who have visited London influenced almost half of all respondents in this study. It is the fact that credible sources are often not very easy to manipulate, that explains why people trust them. Friends, family as well as just acquaintances that visited London all influenced the image. Many different family members were identified by participants – daughter, son, husband, grandchildren and others. Of interest, people believed less those who just visited the city for a few days and believed more representations by those who lived there for an extended period of time, as stated explicitly in the responses. Word of mouth also originated occasionally from British people who came to Prague, possibly contributing to differences between the image formation processes across the case study areas.

It shows that public sphere is important in learning about a destination. In addition, the power of word of mouth also signals the great potential of social media for example. The sheer range of image sources and the overriding influence of word of mouth show that any real control over destination image can only be limited. Even if a traditional marketing campaign uses a number of sources, unless they are credible to the public, their effectiveness can be questioned.

Another source that was also identified by a number of individuals was the television – almost half of participants mentioned it in their responses. However; the issue of believability was brought up by a participant in this context - as participant 222 pointed out, ‘images about places we have never visited are created mainly by the media and it is up to each person if he believes the information or not’. School is another source that belonged to the top five most important image sources. It is a place where people expect to hear the truth. This image source is, discussed in a previous section of this chapter on the persistence of images.
The distinction between commercial and non-commercial sources is not new and has been made previously in the existing literature. With regard to the components in destination image formation, Gunn (1972, cited in Selby, 2004) defines induced and organic images. This is fundamentally the difference between commercial sources and non-commercial sources of image. As was emphasized in the literature review however, that nowadays such a classification of images is debatable. For example Smith (2005) suggests that public relation activities are currently so sophisticated that the border between induced and autonomous imagery is blurred. He adds that images that appear to be autonomous are actually influenced by public relations (Smith, 2005).

This theme is also in accordance what has been found in the secondary research chapter in the Eurobarometer (2009) study. In particular, even though not specified to London, it has been found that potential visitors use mostly personal experience and friends and colleagues as the two most important information sources. It was interesting that the media was not that important for participants. Other sources that had a low impact were travel agencies and guidebooks, non-commercial brochures, and magazines (Eurobarometer, 2009), findings that were largely in line with this study as well.

It is of great importance to re-emphasize that even some previous studies based on post-visit research that entailed experience of the destination showed only negligible importance of induced sources (e.g. Beerli and Martín, 2004). In particular, Beerli and Martín (2004) point out that induced sources such as brochures provided by advertising campaigns, tour-operators’ brochures, the Internet and other induced sources have been found to have no significant impact on first-time image. However, travel agency staff proved to be the only induced source which displayed a positive and considerable influence. As has been recognized previously, it is believed that the promotion of a destination can be developed in many ways. It is suggested, in line with what has been found in this study, that the use of credible sources in particular would be effective in terms of influencing views about the destination amongst the non-visitors.

In summary, both the primary and secondary research confirm that sources that are perceived to have less commercial content are the most influential ones in information
search and destination image formation in particular. Word of mouth, books, films, television and school are the most influential image sources in the context of this study.

5.6 Image formation processes by different types of non-visitor

It has been found that non-visitors, those who have not visited the destination, can be further categorized into potential visitors, pre-visitors, non-visitors without an interest in visitation and non-visitors who cannot visit the destination. A typology of non-visitors developed in this study is outlined in Table 5.1 below. It has been found that there are differences in their image formation process. The differences in the image formation processes are discussed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of non-visitor</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-visitor</td>
<td>Anyone who has not visited the destination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential visitor</td>
<td>Non-visitor who can, and would like to, visit the destination, but has not decided to do so yet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-visitor</td>
<td>Non-visitor who has already decided to visit the destination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-visitor without an interest in visitation</td>
<td>Non-visitor who is not interested in visiting the destination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-visitor that cannot visit the destination</td>
<td>Non-visitor who cannot for any reason visit the destination.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1: Table displaying types of non-visitors as identified in this study (source: primary research of this study)
There are implications for image formation that are different to some of the above mentioned non-visitors’ groups, in particular pre-visitors, potential visitors and non-visitors generally. The image formation process for potential visitors and pre-visitors is influenced by interest as participant 210 pointed out, ‘my image of London is definitely influenced by the fact that I would like to go there and travel through not only London, but the whole island’. However, the image formation process is, influenced by the actual decision to travel to the destination as well, not just by interest. The pre-visitors who have decided that they are going to the destination actively look for and use sources on the tourist destination that other types of non-visitors would not normally use. For example, participant 256 stated the different sources he would use if he decided to travel to the destination, such as specific travel guides, ‘I will buy maps in advance and guides and I will try to get to know London as much as possible’.

Then there are image formation processes of non-visitors without an interest in destination and those who cannot visit the destination. As identified previously in the results chapter, when there is no decision to travel to the destination or a specific interest in the destination, there is a subordination of image sources to what a person normally hears or sees and their everyday life and habits, so the image is obtained passively, almost accidentally, as expressed by participant 2, ‘me personally, I love books and films, history, so I create my own opinion from what I learn from them’. As further pointed out by participant 160, ‘everyone has their images according to which environment they come from, which books he reads and which type of information they seek (films & documents)’. Then there are non-visitors without an interest in visitation, as participant 136 pointed out, ‘I never had the interest to find out about it, I never wanted to travel there, I was not interested in it’.

The indifference towards a destination is often caused by other preferences or priorities than visitation of the destination. As identified, for example, by participant 141, ‘I do not care what it looks like in London. For me it is important what it looks in our place, in our republic, in our towns. So that it would be safe here, so that we would have jobs, where to live, live a normal life. I would definitely not have the need to go to London, I could not care less’. Participant 136 wrote, ‘I never had the interest to find out about it, I never wanted to travel there, I was not interested in it’.
For some of the non-visitors without an interest in visitation, this can be due to the fact that the destination image is not stimulating enough, the archetypal city image is not stimulating enough or the archetypal image of foreign places is not stimulating enough; sometimes this lack of appeal was not specifically linked to London, but was linked to the general image of a city or foreign place. This is where participants, especially from case study areas encompassing small towns and the countryside, perceived cities to be too noisy, anonymous, too busy or just too large in scale and therefore places where one can get lost. It could be observed that, as participants hold multiple images at the same time, if at least one of these images is unattractive, it may cause a barrier to visitation.

For other non-visitors without an interest in visitation, the reason can also be their realist nature, their lack of imagination as, for example, participant 184 pointed out, ‘I am a realist – this is why I do not imagine much’. Participant 269 stated, ‘I do not daydream much, I have lived my whole life in a village and I am happy that I live here, simply everywhere live some people’. Of interest, the researcher noted during the fieldwork that some participants were uncomfortable with even just imagining the destination in the first place, suggesting that they could not participate in the research due to a lack of imagination. To what extent this was merely an excuse not to participate in the research, however, cannot be known.

Another group of non-visitors are those that cannot visit the destination. This group can be further categorized, in particular according to barriers to visitation of the destination. These barriers were presented as a part of participants’ images and were provided without prompting. They can be classified into three different groups, physical, financial and confidence barriers. The first two were identified by participants who could not visit for health reasons or did not have enough money to visit. Participant 273 stated, ‘I would really like to visit London, but I do not have enough money for that in my pension’ and participant 184 mentioned, ‘but the visit to London will probably not take place. I am too old and have some health problems’.

The third barrier was linked with a lack of confidence in one’s skills, for example the inability to orientate in the foreign environment, city environment or the language barrier. The language barrier was mentioned by many. As with many of the other barriers to visitation, it was linked with anxiety. Some were worried that they would not be able to communicate, as participant 115 wrote, ‘potential barrier to communication’.
People were also anxious of travelling alone, for example, participant 182 stated, ‘a visit to London with my son – he will help me with English, I cannot speak English, which is why I will only watch and wait what my son translates for me’. These and other anxieties result in non-visitation of the destination. It was also identified that before 1989, one of the barriers was the inability to obtain a visa.

It should be emphasized that any non-visitor can clearly belong a number of these barrier categories at the same time as they are not mutually exclusive. The following quote from participant number 276 exemplifies this as he stated, ‘now, when it is possible to travel around the world, my age does not allow me to do so, not even my financial situation’. Overall, the first two groups of non-visitors identified in this study are pre-visitors and potential visitors. Pre-visitors are those who have already decided to visit the destination. In economic terms, these could be seen as a part of the effective demand, described by Paajanen (2003). Potential visitors in the existing studies on destination image are those who can and would like to visit a destination but have not decided to do so yet. This is not the case in economic theory where ‘potential demand consists of those who have the will to participate, but lack social and economic circumstances’ (Paajanen, 2003, p. 137). These would rather correspond to non-visitor that cannot visit the destination. Potential visitors in existing destination image studies are more the types of individuals assigned as deferred demand, ‘those who have the will to participate in tourism activities but cannot, as they lack supporting knowledge or access to tourism activities or both’ (Paajanen, 2003, p. 137).

Then there is no demand – those without the will to participate (Paajanen, 2003). This corresponds with non-visitor without an interest in visitation. It can be seen that the distinction of non-visitors according to their image formation process is only partly in line with the existing categorization of demand. It could be summarized that all types of non-visitors, except pre-visitors and potential visitors, seem to be less active in their search in terms of looking for sources on London as a tourist destination in particular. However, it is argued that it is not only the activity that differs, but which sources they look for as well. It is stressed that the image formation process differs for different types of non-visitors due to the level of interest in the destination, the decision to travel there and, lastly, the ability to travel there.
5.7 Diversity of images

Whilst assessing the nature of image and image formation in this chapter, it needs to be emphasized that often there are a number of parallel images of London that exist in the minds of individuals at the same time. It is evidenced that these parallel images are built on a wide range of mostly organic sources which makes them difficult to control. As a result, individuals receive mixed messages about the destination and these mixed messages create image tensions.

It could be argued that at the individual level, there is a tension between images that are obtained from fiction and those that are obtained from reality through a mediator. For example, participant 272 stated, ‘I have never visited London, but I have some image of this place. I should rather say a number of images. The first one is linked with literature (...) maybe I meet Hamlet at the crossroads who came to London to decide if to be or not to be. I would certainly not say no to invitation for a glass of wine from Mr. Shakespeare. So this is my literary image. And then there is the image from the travel books and programs on television. That is a bit different. Firstly I would go by the double-decker and would go the whole afternoon by bus in order to be able to see all the buildings that I know from the images’. Some images are based on reality and some images are based on fiction, hence each of these different images is created by a different source. It is this existence of parallel images and their separate formation that does not enable the perception of the destination as a simple image in the minds of many non-visitors, at least in the case of destination London.

Another example of tension in individual images is that different images exist of the same place - images of a place to visit and of a place to live. It was identified by
participant 150 that there are differences between place and destination images, ‘as for a tourist trip this place is interesting, but I would not want to live there’. This is in line with the existing literature where, for example, Nadeau et al. (2008) discussed that, as a country, Nepal might have a positive destination image, but a rather negative place image in reference to the individual’s country or education levels. Elsewhere, Stepchenkova and Morrison (2008) suggest that the image of Russia as a travel destination does not equate to the image of Russia held by individuals who choose it as a place to live. This tension is due to mixed messages about the city as a destination and about the city as a place to live, each possibly coming from unrelated sources.

The image tension that exists at the collective level rather than at individual level is between the parallel images of London as seen through one’s own identity. It was found that a tension exists between seeing London as part of the West and seeing it as part of Europe. This is linked with the identity change initiated after the Velvet Revolution in 1989 and shows that history impacts on image formation. Some still perceive London as a part of the West, an association made by those who perceive the Czech Republic as being in the Eastern Block. For example, participant 3 stated, ‘usually, the Czechs, including me, imagine everything in the West – so this means even London – better’. On the other hand it was expressed by participant 53 that, ‘we all live in Europe’. However, it can be argued that image tension exists in this case due to political influences that are hard to control, mainly because some images are highly persistent, as discussed earlier on in this chapter.

At the collective level, there are many other tensions in destination images some of which exist because of the persistence of some old images. An example can be the red buses as participant 113 stated the misconception that, ‘it is a pity that the double-deckers are signed off. I would like to see London from the second floor of one of them’. A time lapse in the type of buses used was recognized as participant 224 wrote, ‘red buses would go everywhere around me so I would jump into one of them and travel like that’. Associations of buses with the wrong destination were identified too, for example participant 203 wrote about the yellow colour of buses, ‘big buses with two storeys red or yellow colour’. It is of interest that a number of participants actually know that their images are wrong and outdated. This evidences that there is a clash between the images that they have and how the destination is expected to be. This uncertainty is typical for
non-visitors of all types as opposed to visitors who have the certainty of the experience of the destination.

There is clearly a tension between the shared and personal images of a destination. The personal images of a destination are incredibly fragmented. Contrary to the reviewed destination image literature, images of London are composed of many hundreds of attributes, many of which are unique to the destination. It is thus argued that it is nearly impossible to fully categorise the image of a specific world city destination into a number of pre-existing attributes.

Interestingly, many of the image attributes were mentioned just once in the three hundred responses. Hence, a city, particularly a large city, is imagined in a highly heterogeneous manner. Even though there are common experiences for individuals in the same geographical area and possibly social group, such as those who have the means to travel for leisure purposes and those who do not, image formation is still, to a large extent, individual. It is recognized that shared and individual images coexist (Jenkins, 2000).

The plurality of images in the minds of non-visitors has been recognized in the literature (Hall, 2002). Due to this fragmentation, there can be a tension between these two types of image as both are created in a different way. The tension in the context of geographical imaginations is recognized by Massey (2006), who states that they might sometimes be contradictory and in conflict.

Overall, it could be concluded that a number of images exist in parallel. Some images seem to be more persistent than others, for example the first images seem to persist for a long time. Images were found to be based on comparisons with own country and place of residence, there are thus clearly tensions these. Even though there are many tensions between images at both shared as well as individual levels, there are a number of images that do not seem to create image tensions and, instead, symbiotically complete the specific destination image. These are the discussed archetypal images such as a city image, metropolitan city image and world city image.
It can be summarized that parallel images in the minds of non-visitors are built on the sheer number of sources perceived as credible to individuals, creating highly varied destination city images, depending on how interested the non-visitor is and whether he has already decided or whether he actually can visit the destination. However, it needs to be stressed that these characteristics might not be the same for all types of destination, as Avraham (2000) suggests, places with rich images exist and these have complex image formation processes. London, as one of the most famous cities in the world, is clearly one of them.

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

This, the final chapter of this thesis, is structured as follows. Firstly, a summary of the answers to the four research questions that were set out at the beginning of the study is provided. Then the key contributions of this thesis to the investigated area are critically assessed and integrated with the existing literature. A number of limitations are set out. Then a number of recommendations for further research as well as for practice are provided. Lastly, the wider significance of this study is discussed.

6.1 Summary of the thesis in regards to the research questions

This section presents a summary of the findings in regards to the four research questions set out at the beginning of the study. A thematic analysis was used to generate the themes and subthemes from the dataset that contained 300 qualitative responses. A complementary content analysis enabled the identification of the key shared images and image sources. This section aims merely to summarize the key findings; the key themes will be further linked to existing literature and critically assessed in the contributions section of this chapter.

6.1.1 Summary of results in regards to the first research question

This section presents results which answer the first research question, 'What are the destination images of London held by Czech non-visitors?'. The detailed evidence of destination images, organised through thematic analysis into themes and subthemes, was grouped into three categories: intangible, tangible and experiential images. The key
intangible image themes identified were the centrality of cultural London, royal and
historic links, the everyday culture of people, cultural place image (meaning the culture
of London as a place to live in as opposed to the culture imagined in London as a tourist
destination), the imagined atmosphere as well as attraction to London. The key tangible
image themes identified were the natural environment, London’s historic sights and
everyday life sights. The experiential image themes were imagined role as a tourist and
imagined feelings at the destination. The richness of destination images was evidenced
in this section.

The common shared images of London held by Czech non-visitors were then identified.
This was done through a content analysis of data through counting the frequency of
respondents who stated the expressions. Expressions stated by more than twenty
participants were presented as they were considered as shared for the purposes of this
study. These most common images were sorted into three categories – those mentioned
by more than 100 participants, those mentioned by more than 50 participants and those
mentioned by more than 20 participants. It was interesting to see that for example fog
and double-deckers are so commonly images in association with destination London.

Regarding the reflections of participants on the nature of destination image, firstly,
participants identified unknowability of the non-visited destination as one of the key
characteristics of their destination image. They mentioned, for example, that it is
difficult to describe the imaginary and that imaginings are different to experiences.
Participants were anxious about the inaccuracy of their own image of a destination.
They identified anxiety of losing their existing image once they visit the place; this was
linked with a kind of nostalgia of imagined places. It was found that archetypal images
are held by participants, meaning generic images associated with a specific type of
destination. These included, for example, archetypal images of ‘city’, ‘metropolis’,
‘world city’ and ‘foreign place’. Another key characteristic identified was the plurality of
destination images of non-visitors. Individuals mentioned that they hold a number of
images of the destination at the same time.

The main theme that was a part of the discussion chapter and has links with the first
research question was archetypal images. As identified in the paragraph above, an
archetype of a number of overarching categories of London was provided with a number of attributes identified. Also, an integrating section at the end of the discussion chapter can be linked with this research question, as it uncovers tensions that exist between some images, on both individual as well as shared levels.

6.1.2 Summary of results in regards to the second research question

The key findings in regards to the second research question, ‘How were destination images formed?’ are presented below. Detailed evidence was provided of which and how individual image sources were used. All the sources were evidenced in detail. Overall, it could be summarized that a wide spectrum of sources was evidenced. Shared image sources were then also assessed through complementary content analysis. The commonality of image sources was identified. From the most important ones, these included books, representations of those who were there, television, films, school, magazines, Internet, radio, media, fantasy, events and other sources. Some sources could not be reliably quantified as they were answers to the questions of the research instrument in regards to the influence of own place and country of residence as well as travel experience, and thus their commonality could be biased. Some individuals mentioned that they did not have any image sources; these were mostly those who did not have any images. Content analysis evidenced the use of different sources across age groups. It was found for example that the youngest group of participants formed their images more at school compared with their older counterparts. This could possibly be attributed to the shift in what was being taught before and after the revolution in 1989.

Reflections on the nature of destination image formation, as identified by participants themselves, were then presented. The role of interests in image formation was evidenced. In particular, the incidental formation of images of non-visitors was pointed out, where many participants do not deliberately seek to obtain the images and obtain them passively. The interest in other destinations influenced the image formation process. The interest in the destination itself clearly also influenced image formation. Barriers to visitation that were linked with image formation were presented. In particular, these were for example financial limitations and health limitations. The importance of first sources in the image formation process was then recognized. In particular, it was pointed out that images are already created in childhood and at school. The role of personal characteristics in image formation was also briefly examined.
Lastly, the questioned believability of broadcasted images, identified by participants, was presented as a theme.

Image formation by different types of non-visitor is a theme in the discussion chapter that links with this research question. Categories of non-visitors were developed in this study and it was evidenced that different types of non-visitor have different image formation processes. Another theme linked with this research question, credibility of sources, was critically analysed in the discussion, in particular, it was the fact that the key sources non-visitors use in their formation of destination image are the sources perceived to be highly credible. Credible sources are the less commercial sources, sources perceived as organic, for example novels, films or school and those who have visited the destination. It was evidenced that the credibility of destination image sources is essential in order to have an impact on individuals.

6.1.3 Summary of results in regards to the third research question

The third research question asked ‘How does country of residence influence image and its formation?’ In this section, reflections of participants were presented - firstly the evidence of perceived cultural distance was presented. This entailed a number of aspects of cultural distance such as comparisons of the imagined with the Czech culture in general or comparisons of personal characteristics. It also included comparison of languages, as the language barrier seemed to be a key factor for many Czechs. The comparison of multiculturalism and the comparison of cuisines was discussed.

The perceived environmental distance was pointed out, in particular the comparison of physical environment of one’s country or place of residence to the imagined destination. Perceived geographical distance was also evidenced. Other theme that appeared in regards to this research question was the shared, experienced history of the United Kingdom and the Czech Republic. Then political influences were identified as another theme. In particular, this encompassed the restrictions to outbound and inbound travel as a result of visa restrictions as well as the lack of or negative nature of information about London. The economic status of a Czech Republic was also linked by participants to the provision of information as well as the ability to be able to afford travelling abroad, consequently influencing their images. As a last theme of this section, the
‘Czechness’ of destination image sources was identified. In particular, it was the fact that some sources on London are of Czech origin was evidenced.

Persistence of destination images is one of the themes of the discussion that links with this research question. However, it can also be associated with the previous research question on image formation in general. It is linked to the influence of country of residence on image as often the images older individuals had were created before 1989, under a different regime, and are still persistently residing in the minds of non-visitors. It was evidenced that the first images an individual creates of a destination persist. In particular, it can be concluded that especially the images formed at school are resistant to change, some images transcend political changes from decades ago.

6.1.4 Summary of results in regards to the fourth research question

The fourth research question of this study asked, ‘How does place of residence influence destination image and its formation?’. The three key themes that appeared in responses of participants in regards to this research question were different environment, different society and different distribution of sources. Different environment was perceived by participants. This was also evidenced by comparisons of the imagined environment to the one of own place of residence.

Second key theme that was identified by participants was different society. This included in particular different interests, different motivations, economic disparities and different perceived cultural distance in metropolitan, urban and rural places. Lastly, different distribution of sources was perceived by participants as well. In particular this was linked to the distribution of information and cultural capital, as well as the presence of tourists, goods and working foreigners from the destination in places of residence in the Czech Republic.

Some differences were noted by the researcher in regards to the conative elements of image (meaning whether participants would like to visit the destination). A number of those living in large towns mentioned this, however many more from the rural and small town case study area mentioned this whilst no one from Prague expressed this in their response. However; it needs to be emphasized that such statements were unprompted. More of those from large town and rural and small town case study areas mentioned that they have no image of London. Of note is that these responses were unprompted as
well. It was evidenced that images of those in the rural/small town case study area are in a way more stereotyped than images of those in the capital city, as typical sites such as Big Ben were mentioned much more often in the former than the latter.

Based on the content analysis, differences in the use of image sources across the different case study areas were also identified by the researcher. It was evidenced that films were more commonly used as an image source in the capital, perhaps because of the high number of cinemas in the capital. It was evidenced that television is more commonly cited in rural and large town case study areas. Promotions were more pronounced in the capital city case study area than in the other two case study areas.

This last research question can be linked with the theme from the discussion entitled ‘Comparisons of the imagined destination with own experiences’. However, this theme could also be linked to research question two as well as research question three. Overall, it can be concluded that images are relative, that they are created through, and based on, comparisons of the imagined and the known or experienced. This section aimed to provide a concise description of what has been found in regards to the research questions; however the next section of this conclusion aims to assess the contribution of this study by critically evaluating the findings and linking them to the existing theories.

6.2 The contribution of this study to existing knowledge in the investigated area

The key contribution of this thesis can be classified into three areas. The first area is the images that people have about cities that they have never visited, the second area is the typology of non-visitors that has been developed in this study and, lastly, it is the area of destination image formation by non-visitors. In order to be able to assess contributions, links with the existing theory in the area of destination image as well as similar concepts, are provided. Unlike the summaries in the previous section of this chapter, this section aims to critically assess the contribution to the chosen topic area.

6.2.1 Images that people have about cities never visited

It has been previously pointed out that destination image of non-visitors is an under-researched area. Even though destination image is one of the most popular topics within tourism (Pike, 2002), there is a limited literature on images before the visitation (Govers et al., 2007a).
There are a number of concepts that can be applied to destination image. Even though attempts were made in the past to import additional similar concepts from a number of social science disciplines, for example by Gallarza et al. (2002), Page and Hall (2003) and Del Bosque and San Martín (2008), some additional links were made in this thesis. In particular, the concepts of literary images, not normally linked with destination image of non-visitors, were applied.

The key area of contribution is in regards to the nature of destination image of non-visitors. It has been identified, through conducting the literature review, that there is a need for understanding the nature of destination image, as very few sources have been found that would assess the actual characteristics of destination image of non-visitors. Some of the characteristics of image are linked with the influence of place or country of residence on image and these are included in the latter part of this section. This lack of assessment of the nature of destination imagery links with the lack of qualitative studies in this area.

It has previously been pointed out in the literature review that even though there are some studies on destination image of non-visitors that have used a qualitative approach, unfortunately they rarely go beyond assessing only the actual images of the destination itself. Reviewing the characteristics of images of non-visitors, it needs to be emphasized that destination images of those without direct experience of the destination are different than those of visitors (Selby and Morgan, 1996; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991), thus questioning the applicability of the contributions in this section to destination images of visitors.

Participants themselves in the primary research mentioned that not everyone has images, as some did not have images to express. This opposes the notion identified by Massey (2006) in the literature review that everyone has, to an extent, an image of places, as she wrote that geographical imaginations are inevitable in that everyone has them. In each case, the fact that some individuals do not have a destination image is linked with the non-visitors’ aspect, and it is suggested that this could possibly not happen with the images of visitors due to the direct experience of the destination.
It was stated by participants themselves that their images are full of insecurities. Possibly unlike those who have had the benefit of direct experience of London, images held by non-visitors include many doubts - participants themselves express that their images do not have to be accurate. It is these doubts that form an inherent element of these imaginations. Once again, this would probably not happen with the images of visitors due to the direct experience and thus certainty about what was seen. Whilst conducting the literature review, a gap in the existing theory in regards to this topic was identified.

The old-fashioned nature of images was also identified by participants. Such characteristic is partly a result of the long life-span of some sources. For example, it is surprising how many people imagine London in the fog. This old-fashioned nature of images might be kept alive for example by books. Once again, it could be argued that this is a characteristic of image typical for non-visitors because of the absence of the experience of the destination. Once again, this area seems to be neglected in the existing literature.

Participants themselves suggested that a number of images exist in their minds at the same time and these can be of a conflicting nature. These competing images coexist in the mind of the same person. This conflicting nature of destination image of non-visitors has been pointed out previously in the wider literature, for example Massey (2006) writes that geographical imaginations, a concept similar to destination image, can be contradictory. This is also in line with what Hall (2002) points out, that there are a number of images of a destination that coexist at the same time. It is suggested that the conflicts happen as these different images are created through different sources, some forming image tensions. Once again, these image tensions can be a result of the insecurity resulting from the lack of experience of the destination.

There are also many characteristics of destination image of non-visitors that were not directly identified by participants in their reflections, but that could be observed by the researcher from the data. It could be observed that images of individuals vary to a large extent. Some responses of participants include long, in-depth reflections; others’ images are just highly superficial. Images of some people are blurred, others are detailed. The
dreams of a city never visited are, for some, obscure, full of enigma, while for others those images are just full of shiny bare facts. Complexity as well as simplicity of individual images could thus be observed in the dataset obtained. The complexity of images was, however, pointed out previously for example by Di Vittorio (2007) or Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003). However, surprisingly, the simplicity of images without a direct experience is also recognized in the literature for example by Gunn (1972 in Jenkins, 1999); Chon (1990 in Jenkins, 1999) as well as Kotler and Gertner (2002). The findings of this study show that complexity and simplicity of images of the same destination may coexist.

It could be observed that the sensual images people have are also highly individual. Everyone imagines differently and not everyone has sensual images. Some people have more visual imaginations, whereas others have more olfactory ones. It needs to be emphasized that all of the following: visual imagery, auditory imagery, olfactory imagery, gustatory imagery, as identified by Govers et al.’s (2007a) study, appeared in the responses of participants in this study as well. However, in addition to the sensual images identified by Govers et al. (2007a), there were some additional types of sensual images linked to destination image in this study imagined by participants. In particular, these were organic and kinaesthetic images, concepts first identified in literary imagery by Ziolkowski (1981, cited in Stambovsky, 1988) which have not yet been linked with destination image area of study in previous studies. Literature in regards to tourism and the sensory was also reviewed in the literature review (Boniface, 2003; Dann and Steen Jacobsen, 2003; Gretzel and Fesenmaier, 2003). However; it has been found that the organic and kinaesthetic senses seem to be an under-researched area of study.

The centrality of city images of non-visitors could be observed from the data. This is in line with what the London Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008) evidences that even visitors stay mostly in central London and mostly planned to visit the borough of Westminster over other boroughs. As with experiences of visitors, it has been found that destination images of non-visitors are also oriented towards the centre of the city. That is perhaps because the centre is continuously highlighted in a variety of representations as well as by word of mouth of visitors.
In the case of this thesis, experiential images were investigated, as in the Govers et al.’s (2007a) study. All the well-known components of destination image (as identified in the literature review and detailed below) were included in the responses. This included designative (cognitive) components (as described by Richards and Wilson, 2004, in the literature review), evaluative and affective components (as described by Gartner, 1993, in Richards and Wilson, 2004) as well as conative elements (as described for example by Chalip and Costa, 2005).

Of interest, it has been found that not only that the traditional components were all reflected in the responses, but the experiential imaginations were too. These experiential imaginations included, for example, how participants imagined they would feel or what would they do at the destination. It is argued that experiential images are important as, in the end, the decision-making process of individuals where to go on holiday, seems to depend on what the person himself would gain from the visit, not only from what is objectively imagined.

It is further argued that images are not wrong or right as there is no single reality that they can be judged against. It is perhaps sometimes expected by the reader that the author of this thesis can solve these conflicts to establish which image is wrong and which one is right. Instead, it is argued that, in the imaginary world, there are just coexisting multiple truths. Imaginations often cannot be right or wrong. In some rare cases however, it is possible to assess the accuracy of image - where attributes of other cities are pointed out instead for example; in regards to London it was Paris (The Hunchback of Notre Dame was identified) or New York (yellow taxis were identified). London has thousands of faces in itself and it could be said metaphorically that images of London have a thousand facets times thousands. It is however possible, that in the case of more one-dimensional destinations, such as a beach destination for example, as identified previously by Avraham (2000), the reality of the destination is not that complex, and thus it is easier for the researcher to assess what is an inaccurate imagination, as is not the case of complex global cities, such as London.

There are also contributions to the nature of destination image of non-visitors that are linked with the influence of place and country of residence. Firstly, it was identified by participants themselves in this thesis that their destination images include comparative
elements. Images are thus relative to what one knows, to what one has experienced. They are created through comparisons with what one is most familiar with. One of the comparative dimensions of image is the environment. It was evidenced in this study that the environment one lives in still matters, whether it is a rural or a city environment. One of the concepts developed in this study is environmental distance. It is important to emphasize that this is not actually referring to distance in kilometres, rather it is about the similarity or diversity of the imagined place and the one is imagining from. The second comparative dimension that appeared in this study is culture. Such comparisons create cultural distance. Thirdly, people compare the place they imagine to other places they have visited. It is often argued that differences between places have become more blurred, but this research suggests that place still matters because image formation derives from a comparison with experiences of one’s own environment surrounding place of residence. This could be linked to what the exiting literature says – that background information is used to create images (Echtner and Brent Ritchie, 2003).

One of the key contributions of this study is in the area of archetypal images. Individuals have archetypal images of a city, or a capital city, of a world city and of a foreign place. People use these wider, broader, more general images to build images of specific destinations. Archetypes of cities are mainly built on one’s own experiences or a visit to another city or a capital city. Archetypal images of individuals are thus inherently linked with where individuals live. It could be argued that the researched images can be different to, for example, archetypal city images of those living in India or the United States of America. In particular, the contribution is in the area of archetypal images of ‘world city’ or ‘global city’, ‘capital city’ or ‘metropolis’, ‘big city’ or just ‘city’. However, as stated in the discussion chapter, these still need more attention. This is because often it was not possible to assess whether the attribute is mentioned as an archetypal image or as a unique image of the destination, unless participants explicitely wrote it.

It has been previously pointed out that the area of destination city image is underresearched. Even though an extensive number of attributes of destinations were reviewed in the past, for example by Jenkins (1999), Pikkemaat (2004), O’Leary and Deegan (2005), as well as Beerli and Martín (2004), the identified attributes in the theory do not focus on one specific type of destination, thus clearly not the city image.
It could be argued that as well as the archetypal images of a city that were revealed in this study, it is possible that all types of destination have their own archetypal images such as a typical beach destination.

It is suggested that the archetypal images could be linked to generic attributes of image identified by Echtner and Brent Ritchie (1991, cited in Jenkins, 1999). However in their case, even though they have identified a number of generic attributes that a destination may have, they have not taken into consideration specific type of destination, and thus clearly not outlined a detailed list of generic attributes of a city image.

The last key contribution to this topic area is that this study attempted an innovative way of capturing a combination of individual as well as shared destination images. A key and largely methodological challenge lays in assessing unique shared images, as both common and unique features of the destination needed to be assessed to obtain a complete destination image, as described by Echtner and Brent Ritchie (1991, cited in Jenkins, 1999). The contribution is that this was conducted in an innovative way, detailed in the methodology chapter.

6.2.2 Non-visitor typology
One of the main contributions of this thesis is that a typology of non-visitors has been developed. The existing research on destination image in the absence of visitation is usually conducted on one type of non-visitor only. It was pointed out previously that this study is unusual since it focuses on all various types of individuals who have not visited the destination. It is argued that by understanding the images held by those in the less commonly researched groups of non-visitors, ways of improving their destination images can be subsequently found. It should be emphasized that non-visitors in general were the subject of an investigation previously by Hughes and Allen (2008), but without specifying which types of non-visitors exactly were included.

It has been identified in this thesis that the first type of non-visitor, often targeted in theoretical studies, is potential tourist. Potential tourists are those who would like to visit the destination (for example Goodrich, 1978; Young, 1995; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Chen and Hsu, 2000; Hudson, 2000; Uysal et al., 2000; Sönmez and Sirakaya,
Another sub-group of non-visitors are the pre-visitors. This group encompasses those just before visitation of the destination (for example, O’Leary and Deegan, 2005; Yilmaz et al., 2009; Stepchenkova and Morrison, 2008).

Then it was found that there are those who are not normally studied in regards to destination image. This includes those who would still like to visit the destination but cannot for some reason, and there are numerous reasons why they have not done so yet. For example, they do not have enough finances for the trip, they cannot speak the language of the destination, their confidence levels are not high enough, they had visa restrictions or they are not physically fit. In economic terms, these individuals are part of the latent demand (Paajanen, 2003).

Lastly, it has been identified that there are also those non-visitors who would not like to visit the destination at all. In economic terms, this group could be seen as no demand (Paajanen, 2003). The application of economic theory to all types of non-visitors was considered in detail in the Discussion chapter. This typology of non-visitors links with the research enquiry of this thesis in regards to destination image, as it has been found that the type of non-visitor is a relevant variable in the image formation process, as identified in the next section of this chapter.

### 6.2.3 The image formation process

This section aims to assess contributions in regards to destination image formation of non-visitors. It has been stressed that image formation is one of the least researched areas of destination image and needs more investigation (Baloglu and McLeary, 1999; Beerli and Martín, 2004; Govers et al., 2007a). As with destination image, formation of similar concepts was also applied to this area of study.

Firstly, there are contributions in regards to the nature of destination image formation of non-visitors. As with the nature of destination image, it has also been found that this is an under-researched area. The main contribution of the primary research is thus identifying the characteristics of the image formation process by non-visitors. As with the nature of destination image, many of these characteristics of destination image formation were identified by the participants themselves.
Persistence of destination images has been pointed out by participants themselves as a key theme in regards to image formation. The demolition of old images and creation of new ones takes time, as the saying goes, ‘Rome was not built in a day’, hence, metaphorically speaking, images of Rome cannot be built in a day either. In the context of the Czech Republic, the moment when the most radical change in representation of London happened was already in 1989. This was a result of the Velvet revolution that saw the country shift from communism to democracy. Even though almost all the representations of London were changed almost immediately, this study shows that some images from the era before 1989 still persist even nowadays. It thus needs to be stressed that it is not possible to change images of a person from one day to another.

This persistence is in line with what Kotler and Gertner (2002) pointed out about place images from a marketing perspective. The persistence of images is linked with when the key destination images are created in one’s life – it has been found by conducting the primary research that many are created at school age. It seems that these images formed at school strongly influence the interests of a person, often for their whole life. The fact that images are created so early shows that many in the Czech Republic are influenced by what was taught at school before 1989, and these images still persist. This characteristic can also be linked with the gradual nature of image formation, pointed out by participants. As evidenced, images tend to grow with age along with the facts that a person learns (and what he actually remembers from what he learns). Once again, it could be argued that it is the absence of direct experience of the destination that makes the existing images so persistent.

This research showed that image formation can be highly complex. This is in line with what Short (1991) as well as Sharma and Sharma (2004) suggest that formation of similar concepts is a complex process. It could, however, be argued that whether the image formation process is complex or not possibly depends on the type of destination. It could be argued that the image formation of places with one-dimensional images, such as a beach destination, can be different to the results that will appear in regards to London, as London is clearly a famous place, meaning a place with a rich image, as identified by Avraham (2000) in the literature review. Also, it could be observed that
those without an interest in the destination seem to have simpler destination image formation processes.

The credibility of sources is one of the main characteristics of destination image of non-visitors, as identified by participants and analysed in detail in the discussion. This study showed that overt-induced sources have a negligible impact on destination images of non-visitors. Once again, the credibility of sources might have greater importance for images of non-visitors, because of the key importance of mediated sources due to the absence of experience of a destination. It has been recognized in the literature that the believability and authenticity of the projected image is essential in order to create impact on individuals (Del Bosque and San Martín, 2008; Kotler et al. 1993; Ashworth and Goodall, 1995; Selby, 2004). Previous studies have also shown a negligible importance of induced images on destination images (Crompton; 1979; Beerli and Martín, 2004 and Govers et al., 2007b), the major question then lies why these overt-induced sources are still used in destination marketing.

Some additional image sources that previously have not been linked to destination image formation have been identified in the dataset, providing an additional contribution to knowledge. Even though the lists of existing studies on image sources identified in research by Reynolds (1965, cited in Echtner and Brent Ritchie, 2003), Govers et al. (2007b) or Kotler and Gertner (2002) are detailed, it has been found in this study that for example the presence of tourists, workers and goods from the destination as well as school or experience of own place of residence or a place visited are all relevant to destination image formation of non-visitors. It needs to be emphasized that these image sources are not normally included in destination image studies as sources of destination image.

Of interest, as could be observed above, it has been identified that not only mediated information is characteristic of the destination image formation process of non-visitors, but it has been found that also experience of one’s own city of residence or other cities also influence city destination images. This opposes to what Echtner and Brent Ritchie (2003) write that destination image prior to visitation is created merely by mediated information sources.
Following on from the previous section, this study suggests that different types of non-visitor have different image formation processes. Whilst those non-visitors without an interest in visiting the destination obtain their images rather passively, almost accidentally, it is the images of those who would like to visit the destination that are formed actively. In particular, in regards to pre-visitors, those who have already decided to visit the destination and thus with great interest in the city, it has been pointed out by the London Visitor Survey Annual Report (2008), that the most frequent information sources were, apart from own experience, ‘guidebooks/maps (35%), the internet (other than VisitLondon.com) at 34% and advice from friends/relatives (32%)’. Even though these are results of a global survey, the active searching of pre-visitors includes both the Internet and guidebooks, confirming the findings of a primary research of this study. This then opposes the much more passive sources used by other types of non-visitors.

From the existing literature, this could be linked with the theory formed by Gunn (1972, cited in Jenkins, 1999) who assessed different stages of image formation. He mentioned that people go through modification phase - intensively research just before making the decision to visit the destination. It could, however, be argued that it is the decision to travel to the destination that can come before the modification phase, as a pointed out in primary research, where the participant mentioned that guides will be bought only once he decides to visit the destination.

Overall, it could be observed that image formation is a highly diverse process for different individuals. To what extent destination image formation processes can be generalized is questionable, a thought proposed already by Friedman (1953) in regards to a similar concept. It is an individual process as it does not depend on the image sources only but on the ability of imagination as well. It is then this diversity of the ability to imagine that characterizes destination image formation process of non-visitors.

The second area of contribution is to the country-related factors influencing the destination image formation of non-visitors. There is a lack of understanding as to how country of residence influences destination image. Even though a number of destination image studies took into consideration country of residence of non-visitors as a variable, it was found in the literature review that none of the following studies discuss in great detail how this variable actually influences destination image and its formation (Yilmaz
et al., 2009; Reid and Stanley, 1997; Shanka and Phau, 2008; Richards and Wilson, 2004; Prebensen, 2007; Ryan and Pike, 2003; Beerli and Martín; 2004).

The following paragraphs present factors that were identified by participants themselves in regards to the influence of country of residence on their images. Both demand and supply factors (as identified by Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999) were present in participants’ responses. Cultural distance was identified as a factor. In particular, this included a number of comparisons with the Czech culture in general and comparisons of characteristics of individuals. Cultural distance is an important concept in image formation, as Hall and Hall (1990) recognize, values are different in each culture. As mentioned in the literature review, according to Hofstede (2010) there are differences between the Czech and British cultures. This notion was also reflected in participants’ images.

The responses of participants also included comparisons of languages and the language barrier. Language of country of residence was also identified in the literature review as it is essential in communication (Hall, 1997; Fiske, 1990). Regarding the knowledge of languages in the Czech Republic, as pointed out in the literature review, according to Eurobarometer (2006), merely 28% of the Czech population speaks English. This has a major impact on destination images, especially in the form of the language barrier that was a major concern for many participants. Comparisons of multiculturalism were also pointed out by participants, as well as comparisons of cuisines.

Perceived geographical distance was identified as another factor of influence linked with a country of residence, as proposed by participants. Perceived distance was pointed out previously as an important part of image by Frochot and Legoherel (2007). In particular, it was confirmed in this study that it was not the influence of the actual geographical location on image; it was the perceived location, creating perceived distance, part of image. In particular, it was emphasized that there was a shift in perceived distance of London and the Czech Republic after the revolution. It has also confirmed Walmsley and Jenkins’ (1992) assertion that a difference exists between a distance measured in kilometres and the distance that is perceived.

Another country-related factor that was found to have an influence on image formation, environmental distance, was identified as an important factor in the findings. In
particular, a comparison of the physical environment of one’s country of residence with the imagined destination was evident in participants’ responses, making the actual environment of where one lives an important influence on his image.

Shared history has been identified as another factor by participants themselves in the findings. In particular, the experienced history was pointed out. The influence of history has been previously linked with a similar concept - place image, by Shields (1992a), who recognizes that it plays a key role in the formation of images. In particular, there were specific episodes from history, mentioned by participants that have shaped the destination images of London held by Czech non-visitors, such as the episodes from World War Two.

Political influences have also been identified as having influence on participants’ images. In particular, this encompassed restrictions to outbound and inbound travel due to the visa restrictions (mainly prior to 1989), as outlined by participants. It also included the nature and provision of information. In the literature review it was previously pointed out that politics is one of the supply factors that influences destination image and its formation (Ryan and Pike, 2003) and influences the provision of information sources (Prebensen, 2007). This has also been confirmed by Massey (2004) from a geographical imaginations perspective. However the fact that in particular visa restrictions influence destination images is a contribution to existing knowledge within this topic area.

The economic status of the Czech Republic was identified as a factor in the findings. Economic issues have been previously found to have an impact on image formation by Havel and Jánoška (2008). In particular, it was pointed out that the provision of information as well as the ability to travel abroad from an economic perspective influence images of non-visitors.

In addition, there are some new factors that were identified that had not previously been considered such as the specificity of the country’s image source, in this case the ‘Czechness’ of sources which was identified as a factor in the findings. In particular, the fact that some sources of images of London are of a Czech origin was identified. This is clearly linked with the language of the source. The importance of the language of the
sources had not previously been linked with destination images of non-visitors in particular.

There are a number of factors that were linked with an influence of a specific place of residence on images, as identified by participants. The first of them is a different society that could be assigned as a demand–related factor (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). It has also been previously recognized that in particular motivations influence destination image (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). Different motivations were pointed out by participants in regards to places with a different degree of urbanisation. This is in line with what was identified in the literature review that the motivations of urban visitors differ to those of rural inhabitants (Maat and Vries, 2003).

Economic disparities were also pointed out by participants as image influencing factor in regards to places with different degrees of urbanisation. This is another place–related factor that was identified previously in the literature review - for example Jasmand and Stiller (2005) pointed out that in the context of the Czech Republic, as one of the countries relatively new to the European Union, the capital cities actually act as economic gateways.

Cultural distance was also pointed out by participants in regards to different societies across places within the Czech Republic with different degrees of urbanisation. This is in line with the existing literature, where differences for example in conservativeness of residents of places with different degrees of urbanisation were identified (Fisher, 1978), in that those from urban areas being less conservative than those in rural regions.

Different distribution of sources is another area that has been identified as a key factor of influence on destination image in regards to place of residence in the findings. The provision of sources has been previously identified in the literature review as an important supply-related factor influencing destination image (Stabler, 1988 cited in Jenkins, 1999). This may also be linked to different levels of cultural capital. As mentioned in the literature review, some sources suggest that there is a lower level of cultural capital within the countryside than in the capital city (Bourdieu, 1984), and it needs to be pointed out that, in addition to the rural-urban dichotomy, the cultural capital also links with the ‘capitalness’ of the place of residence.
In addition to that, the presence of foreigners from the destination as image source differed across areas. This difference in ethnicity across places with different degrees of urbanisation has also been pointed out in the literature review (Champion and Hugo, 2004). Even though many pointed out that accessibility to sources has now been standardized across places, in accordance with what has been written by Sassen (2000), many however believe the opposite.

Some additional factors in regards to distribution of sources that were not identified in the literature review were identified by the researcher in the primary research. This included different environment as a factor that was identified as key in the findings. In particular, this comprised of comparisons of the imaged environment to that of place of residence as well as comparisons of the imagined environment with the visited one, providing a contribution to the existing theory on the influence of place of residence in terms of its degree of urbanisation on destination image formation process.

It was identified by the researcher that there were different uses of image sources across the different case study areas. The use of sources is different to provision of sources, even though these are clearly interlinked. It is not only the primary research, but also the secondary research in this study that provides a detailed analysis of the use of sources according to the degree of urbanisation, confirming that there are differences across places with different degrees of urbanisation (Eurobarometer, 2009). This is also confirmed by some authors, as Anderson (2004) who states in the context of the Czech Republic that residents within urban areas use different information sources to those residing in rural areas. Even though many believe that country or place of residence have not influenced their image at all, the above-mentioned suggests that the image formation process is, in many ways, still localized. This is in line with what is believed by geographers such as Massey (2004). The next section of this conclusion chapter assesses the limitations of this study.

6.3 Limitations of this study
Even though libraries were found to be suitable for this research, they had one limitation. Those who were library users were participants possibly making the frequency of books as a source of image biased. For example, Frías et al. (2008)
concluded that the type of information used by an individual actually influences the nature of the image held. So even though libraries were an innovative venue for obtaining rich data, there can be an inherent bias in terms of who visits the library, as library users could be different than the rest of the population. In terms of where participants’ images come from, it is clear that books are certain to feature. It is not possible to assess how far these results can be read across to the wider population. Film-goers, for example, may have more visual but fewer literary images. It is suggested that if the research had been conducted research in cinema foyers, the results may have been different.

Even though it would have been useful to obtain the income levels of participants to be able to draw conclusions regarding the influence of income on destination image as well as image formation, unfortunately the feedback from the pilot study meant that income groups were not included in the primary research. In particular, the question on income levels had to be taken out because participants were not comfortable at all disclosing this and including this question proved to have a dramatically negative impact on the response rate as well as strong reactions of participants in pilot study 1.

In terms of the other demographic groups, employment and education were asked as open-ended questions. Due to the variety of responses, however, it was almost impossible to categorize them, thus these categories could not be used for comparative purposes. It would have been better to ask people to choose a category instead to enable clear comparisons and this is a valuable lesson for the future. The next section of this chapter provides recommendations, partly based on the limitations of this study.

6.4 Implications of this research and recommendations
6.4.1 Implications of this research
This research has a number of implications. There are methodological and conceptual implications, as well as implications for place marketing. In regards to methodological implications, this thesis has provided some useful ideas regarding the quantification of qualitative data. For example, counting expressions per dataset rather than per participant opens up new methodological possibilities. This allows the recognition of key patterns in the dataset, with particular regard for age groups or other demographic groups. Also, it is rare to find studies using multiple analyses of the same data, this
study shows that such analysis of the data can be very insightful. Further methodological recommendations are provided in the next section of this chapter.

Apart from methodological implications, there are also conceptual implications of this thesis. This study provided a greater understanding of the nature of destination image. For example the observation that people often know their images are unrepresentative challenges the accepted notion that destination images are key to understanding travel behaviour. This study helps us to better understand non-visitors, and includes a typology of non-visitors. The destination image of non-visitors remains an under-researched area. In fact non-visitors have been neglected generally and this study provides a platform for further research in this area. Conceptually, this study has wider implications beyond tourism. In this global era, there are still a lot of people that find out about places through very traditional communications. This is in line with Massey’s (1994) observation that not all individuals are equally affected by globalisation. Some people are more globalized, some not. For example, some people do not even have image of London, and people’s images remain heavily influenced by books they have read at school.

Finally, this study also has implications for understanding marketing and place image. It showed that place image / marketing evaluations need to be more imaginatively designed to capture the true complexity of destinations images. As this research suggests, changing an existing image can be a difficult task, indicating that making a real impact using traditional marketing techniques may be problematic. This study showed the importance of understanding the images of people who have not visited the destination and provided a framework for their evaluation. Specific recommendations for policy and practice based on the characteristics of destination image found in this study are provided in the next section.

6.4.2 Recommendations for further research
The first of the recommendations for further research points to the comparison between the nature of destination images of non-visitors and those of visitors. How the experience of visitation changes the nature of images should be investigated and similar research could be conducted into the image formation process of visitors, for example whether images are still plural or if the experience overrides plurality of images once
the destination has been visited. It is suggested that the actual experience of the
destination might perhaps change many of the characteristics of image as well as how
images are formed. This could be conducted on any group of non-visitors that have just
returned from destination and, ideally, they should be Czech. It would be interesting to
match them per area, although this might be challenging from a practical point of view.

The second recommendation for further research is that a study similar to this one
should be conducted in a different country. In order to assess the influence of place of
residence on destination image formation, research across different paces with different
degrees of urbanisation in various countries could be conducted.

The third recommendation is that there is an indication that a classification of archetypal
images of different types of destinations should be developed. A comparative study
enabling the assessment of whether archetypal images differ according to country of
residence could be conducted. The archetypal image formation of places with a ´rich
image´ and places with a ´one-dimensional image´ should be compared. As pointed out
previously, this links back to what Avraham (2000) wrote, that places with a rich image,
places often mentioned in the media and elsewhere such as world city destinations, have
different image formation processes than places with a one-dimensional image, such as
a place developed as a beach destination. Finally, a quantitative study of London´s
images amongst Czech non-visitors could now be conducted in the three case study
areas based on the findings of this large-scale qualitative study. Attributes of image as
well as various image sources identified could be used to collect extensive quantitative
evidence that could further serve for comparisons.

6.4.3 Recommendations for policy and practice
The identified comparative nature of destination image formation means that effective
destination marketing campaigns should be based on comparisons to strengthen the
associations one has about a destination. This means that comparisons should be
embedded in the campaigns. If the marketing campaigns are of a comparative nature, it
means that participants can identify with them, as they will be in line with their
destination images. The use of comparisons with the non-visitors´ country and place of
residence would enable a well-targeted marketing campaign.
The persistence of destination images that has been found in this study has an important implication for destination marketers. Since images of London are already established in childhood, an ad-hoc marketing campaign seeking to project a completely different image is likely to have a limited impact, even with significant investment. This means that a destination image campaign needs to be build on existing images in order to ensure its effectiveness.

This links to the importance of the credibility of sources and the sources people use in their image formation were explored in this research. Credible sources will increase the effectiveness of destination marketing; their role is important and should not be underestimated. The importance of organic sources and their wide spectrum mean that destination images can rarely be controlled to a great extent.

6.5 The wider context of the study

Even though this thesis focuses on destination image, it has a number of links to wider debates. Imagination has been a fascinating concept for many, regardless of their discipline; as Albert Einstein once said ‘imagination is more important than knowledge’ (cited in McGuire, 2012, p.83).

Destination image is very closely linked with politics and, in particular, as mentioned previously, it is closely linked with public opinion, a concept identified in politics (Sharma and Sharma, 2004). This unique case study showed to what extent images can be controlled by governments, in this case the communist government before the Velvet Revolution in 1989. The primary research has shown that such political manipulations persist in minds of individuals long after political change has occurred, in this case for many decades.

This topic is linked with geography and the concept of geographical imaginations which are, as Massey (2006) suggests, in a way inevitable. People have always dreamt about places that they have not visited. It was one of the driving forces for discoveries of new lands in the past. This thesis evidences that the place where people live still plays a role in how people think about places they have not visited as it is not only access to information that influences the image, but many other factors identified in this study as well.
This thesis has also links with marketing. The most influential factors in this study are the most credible sources. Fatigue with traditional marketing practices means that people are influenced by what they trust most: friends and family, school, books, films, some media and their own experiences.

Lastly, imaginations are always a part of the artistic world; they are inspiration for artists, for sculptors, for writers, for poets. Literary imaginations can be as colourful as one’s own experiences, as identified in this study, as they may include visual, olfactory, and numerous other types of sensual imagery as identified by Ziolkowski (in Stambovsky, 1988). As Pablo Picasso once said, ‘everything you can imagine is real’ (cited in Mackall, 2004, p.78).

In the book Fantastic Cities, in which artists were asked to express their feelings about a city of their choice they had never visited, this richness is expressed by the artist Papaconstantiou (2004, p. 25) on the example of Prague, ‘Prague is one of the most romantic and beautiful places in Europe. It’s got wonderful architecture and the stone bridges that cross over the river are decorated with statues. It’s got musicians and artists and notorious jazz-clubs and restaurants and romantic alleys. I have always imagined Prague in the sound of music and the autumn rain …’. This richness is expressed by another artist, Shaefer (2004, p. 26), who also wrote about Prague, ‘this city has done a Faustian deal. The buildings hold their shape and grandeur long after their sell-by date. Time tumbles down narrow steps in twos or threes …’.

Like these artists, individuals in this study became not only respondents, but writers, handwriting their responses without anything other than paper and pen in the timeless atmosphere of the libraries in the summer, inspired by their unique ways of imagination. These individuals and their daydreams, and reflections on the nature of their daydreams, are what make this thesis so important, and so different.
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Appendix

Appendix A: English translation of the research instrument, as it appeared in the magazine Knihy

How do readers of magazine Knihy imagine London?

We met Barbora Cherifi, born in Prague and now a doctoral student in the University of Westminster’s Tourism department so that she could introduce her project that concerns how Czechs see London.

It is common within tourism that tourists are asked as to how they liked a country, city or region they have visited and what it lacked. Your research approaches the topic from a completely different angle. You are asking how people who have never visited London how they imagine it to be. Why are you asking this and why did you choose readers of Knihy as respondents?

The fact that Knihy has a distribution throughout the whole of the Czech Republic, helps to capture images from the whole Czech Republic. I believe that readers of Knihy will help me.

Images of places that we have not visited yet are very important in tourism, as they directly influence where we decide to go on holiday, however there remains little written about the images people possess.

Replies from readers of Knihy will help me enormously as they will enable me to understand these images.

Just to remind, only those who have never visited London may answer.

What will readers of Knihy that have never been in London, help you to gain from their participation?

Each of the first fifty answers sent by post and fifty replies sent by email will get 100 CZK sent to them by post within two weeks of receipt. I also look forward to the joy of one lucky respondent winning 5 000 CZK. I would be grateful if anyone replies at all. I look forward to reading interesting and maybe unexpected answers.

This is not a literary contest, so it does not matter whether the only thing that you are used to writing is a weekly shopping list - only write whatever comes to mind. All of the answers will be anonymous, so you do not have to worry that someone will evaluate or criticise your thoughts.

No matter what your thoughts, everything you share will be of great help to me! All details will be used only for this academic research. Comments regarding this project will be welcomed.

1. This first question is the main one and all the other questions follow on from this first one. Imagine that next week you will visit London for the first time. What images and thoughts immediately come to your mind - what do you think your experience will be like, what do you expect to feel, see, hear, smell, or taste?

2. Do you think that living in the Czech Republic has influenced your above image of London? If yes, how? If not, why not?

3. Do you think that the place you live in, the Czech Republic - be it Prague, other city or town or a village - influences your above image of London? If yes, how? If not, why not?

4. Where did your above image of London come from - what were your main information sources?

5. What else do you think influenced your above image of London and how?

6. Add your name, surname, age (only readers over 18 years of age), level of education, employment status and postal address including postcode.

I thank the readers of Knihy in advance.

Editors.