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### **Do Stereotypes Matter for Attachment?**

**Purpose** – This study aims to investigate the role of destination brand stereotypes in predicting destination brand attachment (DBA).

**Design/methodology/approach** – Using survey data from 612 Indonesian respondents, the conceptual framework is tested by applying structural equation modeling analysis.

**Findings** – The results show that the four components of destination branding contribute to DBA through brand stereotypes.

**Originality/value** – Based on the Stereotype Content Model, this study explores how two cognitive (i.e., brand awareness, perceived quality) and two affective (i.e., ideal self-congruence and enduring culture involvement) components build destination brand stereotypes, which in turn increases DBA.

**Keywords** *Brand attachment; destination brand management; brand stereotypes.*

**Paper type** Research paper

## 1. Introduction

The term “attachment” first appeared in the psychology field referring to the evolution of an emotional bond in the relationship between individuals (Bowlby, 1979). In the marketing field, Thomson *et al.* (2005) argue that individuals can develop attachment toward brands based on specific emotions. Schmalz and Orth (2012) show that individuals are attached to a brand because it helps foster self-referential and self-defining needs. Molinillo *et al.* (2017) advocate the importance for managers of understanding consumer–brand relationships to create better strategies. The concept of brand attachment is also utilized in tourism destinations. For example, Huang *et al.* (2017) contend that destination brand attachment (DBA) reflects the depth of the connection with a destination brand. Derived from Thomson *et al.*’s (2005) and Huang *et al.*’s (2017) studies, DBA is defined as the intensity of emotional bond toward a destination brand to reflect the self.

Brand attachment influences favorable consumer behaviors toward a brand, such as loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price, among others (Orth *et al.*, 2012). Hwang *et al.* (2019) show that brand attachment increases loyalty intention, share of visit, and share of wallet, thereby increasing profitability. Their study demonstrates that brand attachment is a stronger predictor of share of wallet than loyalty intention. Despite the significant outcomes of DBA and its contribution to destination brand management and destination marketing (Pike and Page, 2014), limited efforts have been made to scrutinize the notion of DBA within tourism destinations. Researchers endorse auxiliary concepts such as place attachment (e.g., Jiang *et al.*, 2017) but a few studies have focused on destination attachment, conceptualizing it as an affective bond toward a place (e.g., Yuksel *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, an individual’s emotional bond to a place is different from the bonding to a destination brand because the latter has tangible, intangible (e.g., culture) and symbolic associations (i.e., name, logo, and slogan) (Kladou *et al.*, 2017). Supporting this statement, Orth *et al.* (2012), for example, show that place attachment is distinct from DBA and is an important determinant of DBA.

Not only on brand attachment but also stereotypes play an important role in predicting the consumer’s favorable behavior. The basic assertion is that individuals perceive and distinguish between others on the basis of different stereotypes (i.e., warmth or competence) (Cuddy *et al.*, 2008). These stereotypes could also transpire to brands. Recent studies argue that brands stereotypes reflect the condition when the brands act as agents that can be perceived by their intentions and abilities (e.g., Japutra *et al.*, 2018; Kervyn *et al.* 2012). People are able to

perceive the brands' intentions, whether good or ill, and abilities, whether able or unable, by their level of competence and warmth. Japutra *et al.* (2018) showed that brand stereotypes predict customer-brand relationship quality. The present study suggests that stereotyping applies to destination brands. Destination brand stereotypes (DBS) refer to individuals' judgments on the extent of a destination brand's competence and warmth. Stereotypes lead to predicting cognitive, emotional, and behavioral reactions (Cuddy *et al.*, 2008). Similarly, Hence, this study proposes that DBS are critical in shaping DBA.

Accordingly, the aim of this study is to scrutinize the effect of DBS on DBA. The study contributes to the destination branding literature by exploring the relationship with DBS and DBA and improving the understanding of DBA. Stereotypes perform a prominent role in consumers' perceptions of organizations and brands (Aaker *et al.*, 2010). However, few studies have applied the notion of stereotypes to destination branding. For example, Chen *et al.* (2016) examined the impact of stereotypes on destination image, quality, and uniqueness in the political science field. The present study examines stereotypes from the social perception theories; thus, it contributes to the body of knowledge on how individuals' social cognition affects the relationship with a destination brand.

Second, this study explores the antecedents of DBS in cognitive and affective components (i.e., destination brand awareness, enduring culture involvement, perceived quality, and ideal self-congruence) as the determinants of DBS and DBA. This addresses the call from Japutra *et al.* (2018) that advocates the need for further studies to investigate the antecedents of brand stereotypes. Previous research suggests that brand attachment is critical to developing long-term customer relationships, but research investigating the role of cognitive and affective components in building brand attachment is still limited (Hwang *et al.*, 2019). Hence, this study contributes to the literature by increasing our understanding of the process of building enduring relationships with consumers.

Third, this study tests the conceptual framework in Indonesia, which is an emerging developing country. Indonesia presents tremendous capacity for tourism development (Purwomarwanto and Ramachandran, 2015). Research on the hospitality and tourism industries in developing countries has surged (Ayeni, 2013). However, not much research has touched upon Indonesia. As tourism is envisioned to repeatedly boost the economy of Indonesia in the future

(Situmorang, *et al.*, 2019), research using Indonesian respondents could offer various implications for tourism management researchers and practitioners.

## **2. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development**

Based on an acknowledged model of social perception theories, the Stereotype Content Model (Fiske *et al.*, 2002), the present study argues that two cognitive and two affective components lead to stronger DBS and DBA (see Figure 1). The Stereotype Content Model is derived from the act of stereotyping, which is considered as individuals' shorthand blanket judgment of other people (Aaker *et al.*, 2010). The Stereotype Content Model proposes potentially prevalent assumptions of societal stereotypes and their connection to social structure, which stem from phenomena common to all individuals (Cuddy *et al.*, 2009): (1) the basic survival need to determine friends from foes and (2) the pervasiveness of hierarchical status distinctness and contest for resources. The Stereotype Content Model maps out how individuals discern the social world around them under two different dimensions—competence and warmth—that oversee their interactions and decisions (Kervyn *et al.*, 2012).

[PLEASE INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]

DBA refers to the tourist's emotional bond toward a destination, encompassing feelings of affection, passion, and connection, following Thomson *et al.* (2005). DBS are conceptualized to reflect two universal dimensions, warmth and competence. DBS are influenced by four factors: awareness, ideal self-congruence, quality, and involvement.

Emotional brand attachment is a multidimensional concept formed with three components: affection, connection, and passion (Thomson *et al.*, 2005). Affection refers to the feelings of warmth toward a brand. Connection refers to the strength of the relationship, whereas passion reflects profound positive feelings. Similarly, Hung and Lu (2018) argue that emotional brand attachment reflects positive emotions about a brand, including love, passion, affection, and connection. A destination can be treated as a brand (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007), and thus it is possible for individuals to build attachment toward a destination.

A stereotype is defined as a set of convictions about the attributes of a social group's members. "Stereotypes guide judgment and action to the extent that a person acts toward another as if the other possesses traits included in the stereotype" (Greenwald and Banaji, 1995, p. 14). Kervyn

*et al.* (2012) argue that brands can be seen as intentional agents, and thus consumers discern brands similarly to how they foresee social groups. The notion of brands as intentional agents is derived from the Stereotype Content Model, in which warmth reflects the brands' intention and competence reflects the brands' ability (Japutra *et al.*, 2018). "Warmth judgments typically include perceptions of generosity, kindness, honesty, sincerity, helpfulness, trustworthiness, and thoughtfulness, whereas competence judgments include confidence, effectiveness, intelligence, capability, skillfulness, and competitiveness" (Aaker *et al.*, 2010, p. 225). Both competence and warmth stereotypes dimensions elicit high levels of emotional connection. These two judgments play salient capacities in brand perceptions (Ivens *et al.*, 2015). If a brand is premeditated as high in the warmth dimension, people perceive that the brand has good traits (e.g., generous, kind, helpful, etc.), whereas if a brand is considered high in competence, people perceive the brand to possess high ability (e.g., confident, skillful, intelligent, etc.). Therefore, tourists assess destination brands using stereotypes in the same way they do with people. In this study, according to the Stereotype Content Model, DBS are emulated by two dimensions: competence and warmth (Fiske *et al.*, 2002).

Like interpersonal contexts, an individual develops attachment toward a brand as a process over time and through experience, which involves emotional and cognitive links between the person and the brand (Park *et al.*, 2010). This study proposes brand awareness and perceived quality as the cognitive components and enduring culture involvement and ideal self-congruence as the affective factors driving DBS that could foster stronger attachment. "Brand awareness relates to brand recall and recognition performance by consumers" (Keller, 1993, p. 2) and is an important asset of destinations due to its influence on tourist purchasing decisions (Boo *et al.*, 2009). In destination branding, perceived quality refers to destination attributes including landscape, environment, infrastructure, and services (Buhalis, 2000). Enduring culture involvement refers to the consumer's enduring interest toward the destination culture based on an individual's protracted deep-rooted desire or motives (Whang *et al.*, 2016). Enduring culture involvement is reflected by feelings such as love and enjoyment toward the destination's culture. Thus, enduring culture involvement reflects the affective component rather than the cognitive component. Ideal self-congruence is the coincidence level between a tourist's ideal self-concept and the destination brand image; if the coincidence is high, the tourist will be motivated to visit that destination to enhance his/her self-esteem (Nam *et al.*, 2011).

The level of knowledge of a brand affects its evaluation, so consumers tend to choose well-known brands because they entail lower risks (Aaker, 1992). A place has to be known to some extent to be treated as a promising destination (Gartner and Ruzzier, 2011). Thus, one of the main objectives of destination marketing strategies is to increase destination awareness through brand management (Buhalis, 2000). That is, the level of knowledge of the destination brand will positively influence how the tourist cognitively perceives it (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007). Stereotypes are formed from the perceiver's knowledge, beliefs, and expectations (Greenwald and Banaji, 1995). Consequently:

**H1:** Destination brand awareness is positively related to DBS.

A tourist destination brand represents an integrated experience of services and products offered to tourists by a destination (Buhalis, 2000). In the literature, the components of a destination as a product represented by its brand have been classified into different groups, such as accessibility, accommodation, hospitality, attractions, infrastructure, and ancillary services, among others. Several studies have shown that destination-perceived quality through these components positively influences brand equity (Konecnik and Gartner, 2007), perceived value (Chen and Tsai, 2007), and destination image (Hankinson, 2005). Therefore:

**H2:** Perceived quality is positively related to DBS.

The consumption of destination brands is also symbolic based on user personality traits and his/her perception of the brand personality (Ahn *et al.*, 2013; Huang *et al.*, 2017). Symbolic consumption takes place when individuals choose a brand to contribute to the formation, confirmation, and communication of their self-concept through the brand's symbolic meaning (Bhat and Reddy, 1998). This notion has led to the concept of self-congruence as defined above in the present study. Ideal self-congruence refers to a future desired image and is governed by a self-enhancement motive (Japutra *et al.*, 2017). Branaghan and Hildebrand (2011) show that self-congruence is associated with product preference and ideal product preference. Therefore, according to self-enhancement and ideal self-congruence theories, tourists tend to pursue their aspirations or ideal selves when choosing a destination (Huang *et al.*, 2017). Accordingly:

**H3:** Ideal self-congruence is positively related to DBS.

In this study, involvement refers to “a person’s perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests” (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342). Involvement has been shown to influence information processing and, therefore, destination brand perception (Molinillo *et al.*, 2018). Enduring culture involvement refers to a long-term interest (e.g., love and enjoyment) in the destination culture regardless of any particular situation (Hou *et al.*, 2005; Whang *et al.*, 2016). High levels of enduring culture involvement positively affect destination perceived cognitive and affective image (Whang *et al.*, 2016). Consequently:

**H4:** Enduring culture involvement is positively related to DBS.

The Stereotype Content Model suggests that higher degrees of competence and warmth stereotypes elicit sensations of esteem and pride toward members of a social group (Fiske *et al.*, 2002). According to this model, the brand is perceived as intentional agent based on two dimensions: warmth and competence, which elicit specific emotions toward the brands (Kervyn *et al.*, 2012). Xu *et al.* (2013) argue that the Stereotype Content Model increases our understanding of consumers’ acceptance of unfamiliar brands. They show that warmth has a bigger role than competence in predicting attitude toward product failure. In particular, high levels of both competence and warmth positively affect the feeling of admiration toward the brand (Ivens *et al.*, 2015) and the consumer’s disposition to preserve his/her brand relationship (Japutra *et al.*, 2018). Therefore:

**H5:** DBS are positively related to DBA.

### **3. Research Method**

#### *3.1. Data collection process and sample*

A questionnaire was initially developed in English for the survey. Since the questionnaire was administered to Indonesians, it was translated to Indonesian using a back translation procedure to confirm the veracity of the questions. The questionnaire was personally administered in Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia, and a prominent Southeast Asia’s megacities due to its immense economy (McCarthy, 2003). Jakarta, including greater Jakarta, is the major contributor to Indonesia’s economic output (Oberman *et al.*, 2012).

The questionnaire was administered to local domestic tourists, in different public places around Jakarta. Soler *et al.* (2018) note that it is important for destination managers to understand the

domestic tourists' key characteristics. The participants were approached through the intercept method under identical settings where the purpose of the study was revealed in different public places (shopping malls, public libraries, university cafeteria, etc.). The selection of public places was purely at the researchers' convenience.

Purposive sampling was applied to ensure that the participants had visited a holiday destination within the last 12 months. The participants could not participate if they had not visited a holiday destination within that period. This was intended to confirm that the participants were able to respond to the questions adequately. Initially, the participants were given a list of holiday destinations in Indonesia and asked to select holiday destinations they had visited before. The participants were also allowed to enter a holiday destination not in the provided list of holiday destinations. They were then asked to narrow destinations down to one holiday destination that they had visited within the last 12 months and respond to a series of questions about it. The questionnaire ended with demographic questions.

To randomize the sampling process, the questionnaire was distributed not only at different locations but also on different days and at various times over two weeks. In total, 650 people participated. Several people rejected the invitation for various reasons (e.g., time constraints). After eliminating some questionnaires due to excessive missing values, 612 questionnaires were considered applicable for analysis. Of the respondents, 51.1% were men, 64.5% were between 18 and 24 years, and 30.7% were between 25 and 44 years. As many as 49.5% of the respondents had obtained a high school certificate, and 42.4% had a university degree. Of the respondents, 40.9% were students, 18.2% were entrepreneurs, and the rest either worked full-time or part-time in various fields (e.g., as a teacher, chef, medical doctor, and barista). In terms of income, 40.2% earned 2.50 million–7.49 million IDR per month, 34.8% less than 2.5 million IDR per month, and 21.2% 7.50 million–49.99 million IDR per month.

### *3.2. Measurement instrument*

The construct measures were adopted from previous research, as shown in Appendix 1. All the items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = “strongly disagree” to 7 = “strongly agree”) apart from DBS (1 = “not at all” to 7 = “very much”). Destination brand awareness was assessed through a scale adapted from Buil *et al.* (2013), perceived quality adapted from Yoo and Donthu (2001), ideal self-congruence from Nam *et al.* (2011), and enduring culture involvement from Whang *et al.* (2016). DBS were a second-order factor reflecting warmth and



competence stereotypes. Competence and warmth were measured employing two items each adapted from Aaker *et al.* (2010). Finally, DBA was assessed employing three items adapted from Thomson *et al.* (2005) and Pedeliento *et al.* (2016).

## 4. Findings

### 4.1. Reliability and validity of measures

Before constructing the measurement model, the univariate normality of the measures was checked. Since the absolute values of the skewness and kurtosis of the items was around +/- 2, normality was achieved (Kline, 1998).

The adequacy of the measures was assessed through the constructs validity and the reliability, performing a confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 21 (Hair *et al.*, 2018). The results show a reasonably good fit for the model:  $\chi^2(102) = 206.55$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.03$ , GFI = .96, NFI = .97, CFI = .98, and RMSEA = .04. As indicated in Table 1, all average variance extracted (AVE) values were above the threshold of .50, confirming good convergent validity. The AVE values were also greater than all of the squared correlations, indicating good discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Cronbach's alpha scores of the constructs exceeded .70, indicating that reliability was achieved (Hair *et al.* 2018).

[INSERT TABLE 1 HERE]

Before advancing to build the structural model, common-method variance was checked using Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). The results of the factor analysis revealed that three factors with Eigen values greater than one represented 64.38% of the total variance, where the first factor explained 47.84% of the total variance. Therefore, there was no issue with common-method variance.

### 4.2. Structural model assessment

A structural model was created to evaluate the hypotheses. The model fit indices showed reasonably good values:  $\chi^2(106) = 454.52$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 4.29$ , GFI = .92, NFI = .93, CFI = .95, and RMSEA = .07. The research hypotheses were then examined by analyzing the standardized path coefficients and t-values (Table 2).

[INSERT TABLE 2 HERE]

The mode explained 68% of the DBS variance and 43% of the DBA variance. The results support all the hypotheses: H1 that destination brand awareness is positively related to DBS (SPC = .11,  $t = 1.94$ ,  $p < .05$ ); H2, which refers to the relationship between perceived quality and DBS (SPC = .31,  $t = 5.00$ ,  $p < .001$ ); H3 that ideal self-congruence is positively related to DBS (SPC = .16,  $t = 2.83$ ,  $p < .01$ ); H4 that enduring culture involvement is positively related to DBS (SPC = .37,  $t = 5.46$ ,  $p < .001$ ); and H5 that DBS are positively related to DBA (SPC = .65,  $t = 13.13$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

## **5. Discussion**

The findings show that the four factors of awareness, ideal self-congruence, quality, and involvement contribute to building DBS. With regards to the cognitive component, perceived quality outperforms awareness in building DBS. The path coefficient from perceived value to DBS is much higher compared to the path coefficient from destination brand awareness to DBS. It has been conceptualized that DBS include two universal dimensions: competence and warmth (Cuddy *et al.*, 2008). Perceived quality is regarded as a more important dimension in building competent destination stereotypes. Competence judgments include capability and skillfulness, among others (Aaker *et al.*, 2010). In a way, competence reflects a destination brand's abilities (Japutra *et al.*, 2018). When a destination is able to create a perception that it is high in functional quality, it will be strongly perceived by the visitors that the destination is highly capable and skillful. As a result, the destination will be stereotyped as a competent destination.

Of the two affective components, the findings show that the influence of enduring culture involvement on DBS outperforms the influence of ideal self-congruence on DBS. Enduring culture involvement represents enduring interest based on individuals' traits in a particular culture where individuals consistently relate themselves to that particular culture (Whang *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, enduring culture involvement may help in building the warmth stereotype. Meanwhile, warmth reflects a destination brand's intentions through positive traits, such as friendliness and trustworthiness (Japutra *et al.*, 2018). If a destination is able to increase visitor involvement, visitors will evoke positive emotions and warmth stereotypes (e.g., love and joy).

## **6. Conclusion**

### *6.1. Theoretical contributions*

Studies in the tourism context that examine DBS are very limited. In this study, we posit cognitive and affective components that play a crucial role in predicting DBS, which in turn influence DBA. The original value of this research is the crucial role of DBS in building DBA. The present study contributes to the literature in applying the Stereotype Content Model toward destination brands. Destination brands can be stereotyped based on their intentions and abilities (Kervyn *et al.*, 2012). In addition, the present study proposes an overall DBS that includes the perception of warmth and competence. This confirms Aaker *et al.*'s (2012) argument that a warm brand can be seen as competent and a competent brand as warm. Likewise, a destination can be seen as competent and warm at the same time when the destination has friendly people (warmth) and the ability to effectively manage the tourism attractions (competence). Furthermore, the findings support previous studies that brand stereotypes strengthen consumer–brand relationships (e.g., Japutra *et al.*, 2018). However, one study has shown that only warmth stereotypes contribute to strengthening consumer–brand identification, while competence does not have a significant effect on identification with global brands (Kolb *et al.*, 2019). Rather than contemplating the individual effect, Aaker *et al.* (2012) have shown that warmth and competence interactively affect purchase intent, surpassing each stereotype's individual contribution. The present study extends their work by showing that having both stereotypes helps the destination brand in building stronger DBA.

Four components have been shown to have positive associations with DBS that can help destination management organizations (DMOs) create a better branding strategy for their destination, particularly if they use their destination brands as intentional agents (cf. Kervyn *et al.*, 2012). Of these four components, perceived quality and enduring culture involvement were the strongest predictors. The results show that enduring culture involvement is slightly stronger than perceived quality. This supports the findings of Liu *et al.*'s study (2018) that hedonism induced by lifestyle experience and perceived novelty were better predictors of brand love compared to brand reputation. It seems that the destination culture evokes the visitors' hedonism and enjoyment experience while visiting the destination.

The findings indicate that perceived quality acts as the strongest cognitive component, whereas enduring culture involvement acts as the strongest affective component in building DBS. A study about festival destinations found that celebrity expertise positively affects perceived quality and festival brand image (Kim *et al.*, 2018). However, the authors did not explore the path between perceived quality and brand image. The present study addresses this gap by

showing that perceived quality is able to influence destination brand image and help with the DBS formation.

Wang *et al.* (2016) found that enduring pop culture involvement is a better predictor of building the destination image (affective and cognitive) compared to situational pop culture involvement. Similarly, Chen (2018) revealed that celebrity involvement positively influences the development of cognitive and affective image. This study confirms these two studies that enduring culture involvement influences the destination brand image. Culture involvement is not only limited to pop culture alone but to any culture. This study also extends those previous studies by showing that involvement helps in forming the warmth and competence stereotype.

### *6.2. Managerial implications*

A destination could be stereotyped as a competent destination. This is an important implication for DMOs. DMOs should pay more attention toward increasing the destination's perceived quality rather than only increasing its awareness. To communicate the destination's competence, DMOs could start with its website that has a crucial role in forming an evaluation of the destination (Luna-Nevarez and Hyman, 2012). Providing websites in multiple languages would increase the perception of being a competent destination. DMOs could also provide bilingual tourist guides at the destination. It has been found that brand credibility increases perceived quality (Baek *et al.*, 2010). Thus, DMOs could partner with celebrities as representatives of their destinations. Celebrity familiarity and expertise lead to stronger perceived quality and competent brand image (Kim *et al.*, 2018).

Enduring culture involvement is a salient predictor of DBS. DMOs should promote the destination's culture by creating joyful experiences that involve individuals. For example, rather than only showing the destination culture images or activities (i.e., traditional dance shows), they could involve the visitors through participation (e.g., simplified traditional dance lessons). Through this learning experience, visitors would be more involved with the destination culture and share with others. Recently, Japutra (2020) found that when a destination is able to fulfill the three basic psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence, visitors are more likely to have higher enduring culture involvement. Thus, the destination should be able to foster these three needs through higher visitor participation in its culture and sharing their experiences online or offline.

## 7. Study limitations and future research directions

This study sheds light on building DBS and DBA but is not without its limitations. First, the study respondents came from a single country, i.e., Indonesia. Although it has its own merits, it is difficult to generalize the results. Further research should validate the framework by replicating this study across different countries. Apart from cultural differences, it would also be interesting to know whether the visitors' demographic characteristics and other travel-related variables (e.g., frequency of visits) influence the development of DBS. For example, Kim *et al.* (2018) argue that younger people might differ from older people in their historical knowledge, which might affect their destination attachment.

Second, the proportion of students in this study's sample is quite high. Student and youth travelers are an increasingly important market for destinations around the world; travelers from the ages of 15 to 29 accounted for around 23% of all international travelers in 2015 (UNWTO, 2016). Nevertheless, this student proportion could introduce some bias to the results. Students and young travelers have different needs and are attracted to different things compared to other travelers. For example, youth travelers are known to be attracted to food tourism (UNWTO, 2016).

Third, research on brand attachment has started to conceptualize brand attachment to include not only affective bonding but also cognitive bonding (Park *et al.*, 2010). Since this study only accounted for affective bonding, future studies could incorporate cognitive bonding when measuring DBA. Fourth, it would also be a compelling research proposition to explore other DBA mediators. Jiang *et al.* (2017) found that authenticity is the antecedent of place attachment. Meanwhile, Kang *et al.* (2017) showed that brand experience is an important antecedent of attachment for hotel brands. Do authenticity and experience predict DBA? Do these two constructs perform better than DBS? Recently, it has been shown that destination source credibility and destination image help in the development of stronger attachment (Japutra and Keni, 2020). These two constructs should also be included in the model.

Lastly, in this study, DBS are measured on a second-order factor. Future research should measure DBS on a first-order factor. This would increase our understanding of which stereotype components (competence or warmth) lead to stronger DBA. It would also be interesting to look at different brand emotions resulting from different combinations of stereotypes. Ivens *et al.* (2015) note that brand stereotypes influence four different types of brand emotions (i.e.,

admiration, contempt, pity, and envy), which in turn influence attitude toward the brand and behavioral intention.

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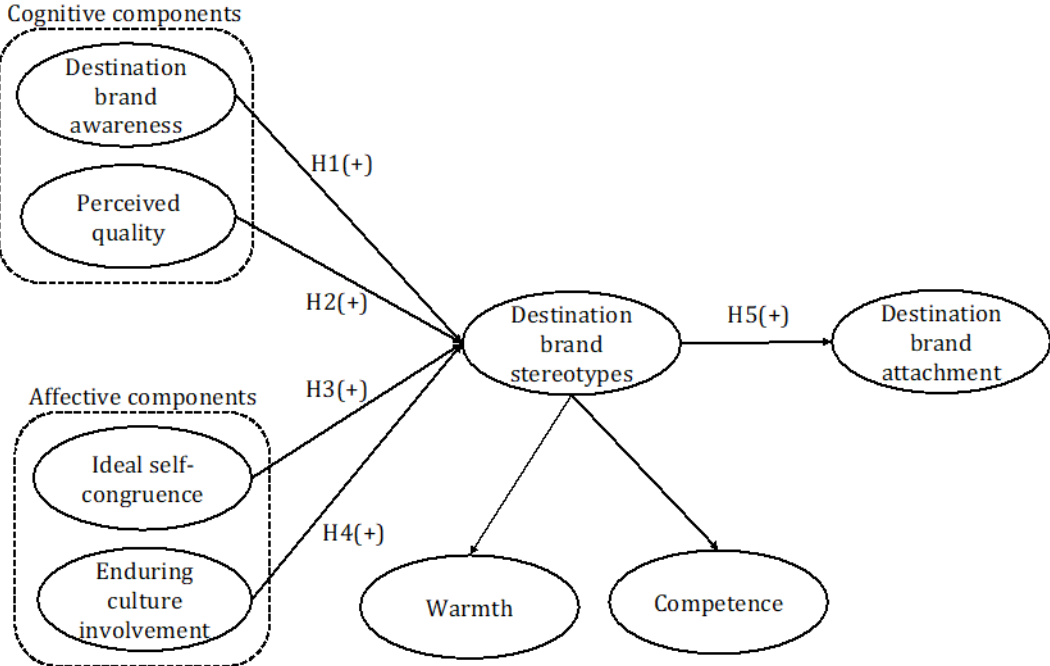


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**Figure 1. Research Model**



**Table 1**  
Correlations and Discriminant Validity of Measures

Constructs	Mean	SD	CA	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Destination brand awareness	5.41	0.93	.75	<b>.51</b>					
2. Perceived quality	5.35	1.03	.81	.63	<b>.67</b>				
3. Enduring culture involvement	5.24	1.15	.80	.63	.66	<b>.67</b>			
4. Ideal self-congruence	5.00	1.23	.90	.57	.64	.70	<b>.76</b>		
5. Destination brand stereotypes	5.40	0.90	.85	.57	.67	.66	.60	<b>.92</b>	
6. Destination brand attachment	4.88	1.24	.88	.54	.58	.78	.71	.53	<b>.71</b>

Note. SD: Standard deviation; CA: Cronbach's alpha. The diagonal values in bold indicate the average variances extracted (AVE). The scores in the lower diagonal indicate inter-construct correlations (IC).

**Table 2**  
Result of Structural Equation Analyses

Relationships	SPC	t-value
H1 Destination brand awareness → Destination brand stereotypes	.11	1.94*
H2 Perceived quality → Destination brand stereotypes	.31	5.00***
H3 Ideal self-congruence → Destination brand stereotypes	.16	2.83**
H4 Enduring culture involvement → Destination brand stereotypes	.37	5.46***
H5 Destination brand stereotypes → Destination brand attachment	.65	13.13***
Variance explained (R <sup>2</sup> )		
Destination brand stereotypes		.68
Destination brand attachment		.43

Note: SPC: Standardized Path Coefficient; \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

## Appendix 1

### Measurement instrument

Constructs and measures	Factor Loading
<i>Destination brand awareness</i> (1 = Strongly Disagree - 7 = Strongly Agree)	
When I think of a destination brand, this brand is one of the destinations that comes to mind	.65
This is a destination brand I am very familiar with	.79
I know what this destination brand looks like	.71
<i>Perceived quality</i> (1 = Strongly Disagree - 7 = Strongly Agree)	
The likely quality of this destination brand is extremely high	.82
The likelihood that this destination brand would be functional is very high	.82
<i>Ideal self-congruence</i>	
The typical visitors of this destination have an image similar to how I like to see myself	.87
This destination brand has an image similar to how I like to see myself	.90
This destination brand has an image, which represents how I would like others to see me	.85
<i>Enduring culture involvement</i> (1 = Strongly Disagree - 7 = Strongly Agree)	
I love and enjoy this destination culture	.81
I am a fan of this destination culture	.83
<i>Destination brand stereotypes</i> (1 = Strongly Disagree - 7 = Strongly Agree)	
Warmth stereotype	.92
Competence stereotype	.99
<i>Warmth stereotype</i> ( $\bar{x} = 5.43$ ; $SD = 0.94$ ; $\alpha = .80$ )	
To which extent this destination brand is: (1 = not at all – 7 = very much)	
Warm	.80
Generous	.85
<i>Competence stereotype</i> ( $\bar{x} = 5.36$ ; $SD = 0.99$ ; $\alpha = .83$ )	
To which extent this destination brand is: (1 = not at all – 7 = very much)	
Competent	.87
Effective	.82
<i>Destination brand attachment</i> (1 = Strongly Disagree - 7 = Strongly Agree)	
I feel emotionally connected to this destination brand	.83
I have a personal bond with this destination brand	.90
I feel attached to this destination brand	.80

Note.  $\bar{x}$  = Mean; SD = Standard deviation;  $\alpha$  = Cronbach's alpha.