

Key Image Attributes to Elicit Likes and Comments on Instagram

Journal:	Journal of Promotion Management				
Manuscript ID	Draft				
Manuscript Type:	Original Article				
Keywords:	Instagram, SOR Model, Content Analysis, Destination Management Organization, Tourist Destination, Tourism Image				



This is an Accepted Manuscript version of the following article, accepted for publication in Journal of Promotiom Management. Maria Elena Aramendia-Muneta, Cristina Olarte-Pascual & Andrea Ollo-López (2021) Key Image Attributes to Elicit Likes and Comments on Instagram, Journal of Promotion Management, 27:1, 50-76, DOI: 10.1080/10496491.2020.1809594. . It is deposited under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License (http:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Key Image Attributes to Elicit Likes and Comments on Instagram

Abstract

This article spotlights the relationship between likes and comments and the content of tourism photographs on Instagram with the aim of understanding users' behavior and, thus, helping destination management organizations. Based on the stimulus-organism-response model, a content analysis was conducted of 1,094 pictures that received 131,116,800 likes and 2,859,448 comments. The results show that Instagrammers' responses are influenced differently by different picture attributes, resulting in dissimilar behavior with regard to likes and comments. Specifically, likes, as immediate reactions, tend to be driven by content featuring people, views, or common habits. In contrast, comments, which require greater effort on the part of the Instagrammer, are elicited by the topic of festivals or hotels, colors such as cream, green, orange, or yellow, images of water or animals, and images featuring tourist activities, mostly at night. Multi-image or fake pictures negatively impact likes. By analyzing the content of the information provided by the uploaded photographs, a typology of photographic attributes is developed to offer clues for destination management organizations to enhance engagement with potential customers and Instagram users.

Keywords: Instagram; SOR Model; Content Analysis; Destination Management Organization; Tourist Destination; Tourism Image

Introduction

Instagram has more than 1 billion monthly active users and more than 500 million daily active users, with 400 million Instagrammers sharing stories every day (Instagram, 2018). This colossal user network for sharing pictures and connecting people is an extraordinary source of information (Aramendia-Muneta, 2017) and offers new avenues to researchers, especially with regard to the tourism industry. The international tourism industry registered some 1.326 billion tourist arrivals at destinations around the world in 2017, up 7.0% from the previous year, and has a growth forecast of 3.8% per year until 2020 (UNWTO, 2018). Unsurprisingly, this industry has a deep impact on the global economy, where social networks play a major role in customer engagement with destinations.

While there are several studies in the tourism industry about the impact of social networks such as Facebook and virtual collaborative communities such as TripAdvisor, few studies have examined Instagram (Hanan & Putit, 2014). In fact, Instagram is a key factor in destination choice among millennials, and destinations are chosen by how "Instagrammable" they are (Arnold, 2018). The present study thus focuses on Beautiful Destinations, the leader on Instagram and an example of a destination management organization (DMO). With more than 3,100 posts and 4 million followers in 180 countries, Beautiful Destinations has become the world's largest travel influencer on Instagram, and other DMOs partner with it. Photographs on the @beautifuldestinations Instagram account spread a desire to visit places among users.

Visual images are a powerful tool for tourist destination organizations in all forms of tourism promotion (Jenkins, 2003). The mental image of a destination is a set of characteristics perceived by tourists that defines their behavior (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Yüksel & Akgül, 2007). Moreover, when tourists have limited information about a particular destination, this image can be essential in influencing their choices (Beerli &

Martín, 2004; Yüksel & Akgül, 2007). In this regard, photos posted to Instagram are a valuable source of information for DMOs.

The present study seeks to contribute to the emerging body of literature on Instagram, but from a tourism perspective. Because Instagram is one of the largest social platforms, marketers are keen to engage its audience and monetize it (DeMers, 2017). DMOs need to control tourism destination images, which are a stimulus for Instagrammers, in order to influence them through likes and comments (organism). In this correlation, DMOs could then receive a response from potential tourists. The stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) framework (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) is thus adapted to Instagram and tourism.

Specifically, the aim is to identify the key destination image attributes (*stimulus*) to ensure successful image content and engagement by users in the form of likes and comments (*organism*), in order to understand their behavior toward an image. Such an understanding would help DMOs create more alluring photographs to attract more potential customers and would have marketing implications for DMOs to improve their impact on potential customers (*response*).

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. The next section discusses the theoretical background on Instagram in the tourism industry, the importance of images for DMOs, and the relationship between content analysis and destination images. It then discusses the attributes that have been used in the literature and were used in the present study to formulate the research questions, the main goal of which is to identify the key elements linking image with the number of likes and comments received. The subsequent sections describe the research methodology, data collection process, and results. The final sections consist of the discussion, conclusions, and managerial implications of the findings and the limitations and suggestions for future research.

Literature Review

Instagram as a Major Source of Information about Tourism Destinations

Instagram and the tourism industry have attracted the attention of researchers over the last decade. The areas of study have ranged from cities to museums or protected areas. Weilenmann, Hillman, and Jungselius (2013) find that Instagram showcases the value of museums, as part of a destination organization, by allowing visitors to share their experiences and create new ways of narrating their feelings. Consequently, museums can learn from what visitors actually see to recategorize and reconfigure the museum environment. In a study about nature-based experiences in protected areas, Hausmann et al. (2018) find that Instagram can be used to monitor biodiversity and human activities in such places.

In their study of images from Tokyo and New York City, Hochman and Schwartz (2012) use cultural analytics visualization techniques to identify different visual rhythms for each city. New York and Tokyo are portrayed in diverse cultural ways and, thus, have distinctive beats. A replication of the study using the same technique in Tel Aviv revealed a city with diverse social, cultural, and political aspects depending on people's activity (Hochman & Manovich, 2013). Both studies show the relationship between Instagram pictures and the daily life of a city through multiple spatial and temporal scales. Single cities have also been examined through a different line of research. In the case of Macau, Yu and Sun (2019) consider the role of UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy status as a brand that influences Instagrammers and enhances Macau's image with regard to food.

In addition to DMO facilities and the study of specific cities or places, researchers have used several other methods. Fatanti and Suyadnya (2015) describe modern tourism

promotion, finding that destinations such as Indonesia, Bali, and Malang should use Instagram as a communication tool to obtain user-generated content in the form of pictures to encourage tourists to visit specific destinations. Paül i Agustí (2018) applies a mixed-method approach to determine that tourist destinations should differentiate their various forms of media and try to avoid overlapping images. Researchers using several methods have emphasized the medium of Instagram as a remarkable tool for DMOs.

Instagram is not only a platform for uploading images, but also a medium for interaction among Instagrammers. Camprubí, Guia, and Comas (2013) contend that images shared on Instagram convey emotions, thoughts, realities, and feelings that cannot be truly described in words. All of these features are part of the visual communication about a destination and are included on social-media platforms. Images with many likes represent interesting places for the whole community and increase the interest of other users (Mukhina, Rakitin, & Visheratin, 2017). Sharing images and comments on Instagram is a physical-emotional form of bonding with the destination and impacts the link between the destination and electronic word-of-mouth (Baksi, 2016). Consequently, Instagrammers can create their own tribe and community around a tourist destination.

In this interconnected process, everyday digital photography from Instagrammers provides the audience with a more personal and authentic image of a place (Thelander & Cassinger, 2017). Nevertheless, DMOs should control, at least, the impressions that they themselves wish to show the public to engage actual and potential visitors. In this regard, Nixon, Popova, and Önder (2017) examine the process of selecting appropriate images and hashtags to promote a destination and improve its image among consumers as part of a marketing strategy. This points to the need to know which of the DMO's images have a real impact on potential tourists.

The Power of Images in the Tourism Industry

The tourism industry has realized that classical advertising no longer reaches potential tourists because online innovations affect buying and selling behavior (Aramendia-Muneta, 2012). Mackay and Couldwell (2004) highlight the power of photographs to create and communicate images of a destination, noting that they remain vital to success in the tourism industry. Accordingly, the industry is increasingly turning to social-media platforms and, in particular, to Instagram to market vacation destinations. It thus recognizes that the content and likes and comments received by a picture posted to Instagram by an influencer could be the best approach to attracting potential tourists to the destination.

Though no empirical studies have demonstrated how views, likes, content, and comments about a picture posted on Instagram can be converted into real tourist visits to a destination, there is evidence suggesting that tourism information presented in the form of a picture influences potential tourists' choice of a destination (Bell & Davison, 2013; Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007). In this regard, Decrop (1999) acknowledges that visual practices are an important part of tourism experiences and influence tourists' decision-making. Photography creates an image of the purchased service and offers travelers a specific sight to visit with a sense of authenticity (Pan, Lee, & Tsai, 2014). Gallarza, Gil Saura, and Calderón García (2002) note that the intangible nature of tourism and travel services makes it hard for travelers to imagine a destination. These authors emphasize that photographs are a powerful means of generating booking inquiries and travel engagement. However, images offered through Instagram allow travelers to acquire visual knowledge of the place they wish to visit and the services being offered.

According to Stepchenkova and Zhan (2013), photographs capture reality and provide an opportunity for travelers to share their experiences with others. In keeping with this notion, Groves and Timothy (2001) suggest that the integration of mobile technology with

social media makes it easier and more enjoyable for tourists to share photos, leading to an increase in the potential audience. On the whole, images are an effective tool for: promoting, advertising, and distributing goods and ideas; marketing; and providing fast, accurate, and precise information about destinations to travelers (Dredge & Jenkins, 2003; Garrod, 2009). Yüksel and Akgül (2007) find evidence of a relationship between postcards and positive emotions, which affect a destination. In this regard, these authors emphasize the power of images as a key factor influencing travelers' destination choices. Additionally, online photography in the tourism context makes it easier for destinations to cultivate a good image in tourists' mind and serves as a symbol of user experience and reality to tourists.

The existence of multiple images for a given tourism destination is not always negative. On one hand, the literature accepts the existence of multi-images as a common and easily occurring trend, and Pike (2005) observes that DMOs are responsible for coordinating the tourism industry, in addition to enhancing destination image. On the other, all tourism agents, particularly private-sector ones (hotels, restaurants, leisure facilities, etc.), logically project their destination's tourism image from the point of view of their product. In this context, the DMO must act to properly manage and control image fragmentation so as to avoid the ensuing negative effects.

Destination Images and Content Analysis

Visual images of tourist destinations are an under-used but powerful qualitative research instrument (Haywood, 1990). Content analysis is the most well-known and widely used way of taking advantage of this tool among tourism researchers. It is the most frequently used method in tourism research of visual images (Kümpel, Karnowski, & Keyling, 2015). It can also be used to assess and identify the motivations driving tourism industry

players to post travel photos as interactive media (Skalski, Neuendorf, & Cajigas, 2017). In general, content analysis provides an empirical basis to compare and contrast features within a large data set (Albers & James, 1988).

Several postcard studies have used content analysis to obtain their results. In a qualitative content analysis of portrayals of Berlin, Milman (2012) finds a lack of depictions of contemporary Berlin. In their research on scenic postcards as items for the spatial analysis of the Savoy region, Foltête and Litot (2015) find that postcards have a dual location, namely, in the landscape or at the site and at the point of sale.

Researchers' contributions have also been highly diverse in terms of their methodology. In a study of visitor-employed photography combining content analysis and quantitative statistical techniques, Garrod (2009) proposes that photography and tourism are intrinsically linked through multiple forms of media, such as postcards, television commercials, and brochures.

Content analysis is used for several purposes. Camprubí (2015) compares the online image fragmentation of two capital cities (Paris and New York). Stepchenkova and Zhan (2013) construct maps representing projected and perceived images of Peru. Similar structural features can be found in the pictorial analysis of Portugal on Instagram by Kuhzady and Ghasemi (2019). In a study of Australian newspaper travel sections (nonnews journalism), Hanusch (2011) uses visual content to document travel stories. Finally, tourists have a specific role in the hermeneutic circle of the representation of a destination, with the power to create a specific circle of tourism consumption (Masip Hernández, Camprubí, & Coromina, 2018).

Formulation of the Research Questions

S-O-R Model for Instagram and tourism

How to attract more tourists is a key issue for DMOs, especially how to control the social-media environment due to its increasingly central role in the tourism industry (Fatanti & Suyadnya, 2015). Unlike traditional environments, the social-media environment enables interactivity between the information provider and users (Gatautis, Vitkauskaite, Gadeikiene, & Piligrimiene, 2016) and fosters new forms of interaction with and relating to customers (Sawhney, Verona, & Prandelli, 2005). Hence, if they are early adopters of this approach, DMOs will be pioneers in attracting new consumers (Aramendia-Muneta, 2012).

In this environment, Laroche (2010) finds that the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm is the most useful for explaining online consumer behavior, as the Internet is a universal medium and there is more experience and research in this field. That author adds that the S-O-R model is the most likely to provide productive solutions with regard to how online consumers behave.

To use this model, it is necessary first to look deeper into the theory of S-O-R. Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) S-O-R paradigm suggests that there is a sequential correlation between stimulus, organism, and response and asserts that environmental psychology is one of the harder areas for researchers to explore due to the subjective nature of the data (e.g., reactions to color). Stimuli are factors that trigger inner emotional and cognitive reactions (Kim, Lee, & Jung, 2019). Drawing on this framework, this study is an initial attempt to begin to understand which stimuli (i.e., tourism image attributes) are the most appropriate and have the greatest impact on Instagrammers' behavior in the form of likes and comments (organism). If DMOs act on these findings, the resulting measures could elicit a response from potential tourists, not only enhancing the destination's image, but also increasing the number of tourists. Other researchers (e.g.

Gatautis et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2019) have adapted the Mehrabian and Russell (1974) model to the online environment.

In the present study, the S-O-R model is adapted to Instagram and DMOs, where the stimulus is image attributes, the organism is Instagrammers' likes and comments, and the expected response is to improve the destination image and attract more tourists (Figure 1).

[Figure 1 near here]

Tourism Destination Image Attributes (Stimulus)

A review of the literature points to eight main tourism destination image attributes: the main theme; centricity; time of day; colors; people; water; animals; and repetition. The following paragraphs explain each of these attributes and its characteristics. A summary of the attributes is provided in Table 1.

The pictorial images from the sample were categorized into eight subcategories based on the results of a preliminary data analysis of the visual information (Choi et al., 2007; Dadgostar & Isotalo, 1996; Stabler, 1988; Timothy & Groves, 2001). Moreover, Lai and To (2015) find that destination images on social media feature two main subjects: cultural heritage, on the one hand, and hotels and entertainment facilities, on the other. The eight subcategories were: historic buildings and heritage; parks and gardens (places to take a break from city life); tourism facilities and infrastructure (transportation, facilities, hotels, etc.); panoramic view of cities or villages or views of natural scenery (e.g., mountains, lakes, national parks, beaches, the sea); special events (e.g., festivals); restaurants and dining facilities; entertainment and leisure; other photographic subjects (e.g., roads).

Another variable was a "centric" theme or centricity. Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier (2009) propose four different "centric" categories: activity-centric, self-centric, site-centric, and other centric. When a picture features a place without showing any activity or people, offers a tourist perspective, and affords viewers a view of a place of interest, it is categorized as *site-centric*. The category *other centric* refers to special or foreign events or activities such as habits, lifestyles, or simply the subway. *Activity-centric* refers to photos featuring the different kinds of activities tourists can do at a destination, including images featuring people playing, biking, partying, etc. Finally, the *self-centric* category, rather than being generic, offers the audience an expression of the photographer's self-image.

The time of day, especially, sunset, reveals emotions related to the sky and colors, which ultimately have a positive impact on the viewer (Fiallos, Jimenes, Fiallos, & Figueroa, 2018). In fact, sunsets are a favorite subject among users over the age of 50 (Han et al., 2018) and are a frequent setting, as the light at dusk is good for taking pictures (Boy & Uitermark, 2015). Hunter (2016) describes four main times of day for depicting an image: in daylight, at sunset, at night, and at night with fireworks. However, for the purposes of this study, only three times were used: daylight, sunset, and night.

Singh (2006) defines color as an important source of information for marketing purposes, because more than 60 percent of customer assessments are based on colors. Darker colors have been found to enhance the functionality of social media (Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, & Silvestre, 2011). Conversely, Bakhshi and Gilbert (2015) highlight the value of red, purple, and pink in promoting dissemination on social media, while finding that green, blue, black, and yellow have the opposite effect. For color-based features, the color space most closely related to human vision is used (Au-Yong-Oliveira & Pinto Ferreira, 2014; Ferwerda, Schedl, & Tkalcic, 2015) in order to understand the

influence of color. Thus, color-centric features can affect the audience's response. To this end, twelve colors were used: blue, black, brown, cream, gray, green, orange, red, rose, violet, white, and yellow.

Photographs can feature people prominently in order to be more successful and achieve a certain level of impact. According to Ferwerda et al. (2015), images that include people (e.g., selfies) elicit a greater response in terms of the number of likes and comments than those showing mostly things. Bakhshi, Shamma and Gilbert (2014) and Souza et al. (2015) report similar findings. Moreover, including images of the photographer him or herself, whether just parts, such as a hand or foot, or the whole body, generates self-testimony and increases his or her credibility as the main actor personally documenting and sharing lived experiences (Nunes, 2017). Likewise, selfies attract more attention from Instagrammers, thereby boosting engagement (Souza et al., 2015).

Environmental variables such as water can play a main role in pictures to emphasize nature and give the photograph an added outdoor-recreation value for viewers (Arriaza, Cañas-Ortega, Cañas-Madueño, & Ruiz-Aviles, 2004; Martín-López, García-Llorente, Peri, Lencinas, & Martínez Pastur, 2015). When audiences notice the presence of water, the perceived visual quality increases (Arriaza et al., 2004). Furthermore, the reflection of light on water amplifies the existence of colors (Singh, 2006) and may thus be more engaging for viewers. The presence of the water could thus be an alluring factor for users.

The presence of animals may also be related to the number of likes and increases in followers (Jang, Han, & Lee, 2015). Although there is very little literature on this aspect, it has been included for the purposes of this study as the presence of animals in an image could have a higher impact on Instagrammers.

Not only does each stakeholder in the tourism industry have its own image of a given destination, so does each tourist. Therefore, different images may be projected at the same

time through induced information sources, such as social media or brochures and other promotional material (Camprubí, 2015). Such differences (or dysfunctions) are often used to present the reality of a destination, selectively highlighting certain aspects, while ignoring others that might provide a more global image (Camprubí, 2015; Govers & Go, 2004). In these cases, the dysfunction occurs when tourism images are mutually inconsistent, because they ignore different aspects of the destination reality (Camprubí, 2015). Image dysfunction will thus be negative when a multi-image results from inconsistent images that do not depict the reality of the destination, such as multi-image, due to information overload or information similarity or ambiguity confusion (Mitchell, Walsh, & Yamin, 2005). The variable *multi-image* was thus also considered.

[Table 1 near here]

Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to identify the key attributes (stimulus) to boost success among Instagrammers (organism) and help DMOs improve their Instagrammer engagement and attract more potential tourists (response). Therefore, the research questions focus on the interconnection between likes, comments, and attributes as follows:

RQ1. What are the key destination image attributes (stimulus) influencing the number of likes (organism)?

RQ2. What are the key destination image attributes (stimulus) influencing the number of comments (organism)?

Methodology

Research Design

According to Hunter (2008) and Choi et al. (2007), among others, a qualitative content analysis approach is suitable for research on visual images. In this specific field, Albers and James (1988) describe the method of dividing the image into single parts, quantifying the results into frequencies, and applying distributions. In the present study, this research approach made it possible to identify common themes in the available data with a view to shedding light on how DMOs use Instagram. The use of a qualitative approach supports the presentation of a typology, in addition to diverse forms of expression by users. Typology analysis, in turn, has made it easier to reflect the impact of new technologies such as Instagram for influencing tourists' interests. A qualitative approach has also been used to facilitate the assessment of consumer preferences for the tourism-influencing tools offered by Beautiful Destinations (Flick, 2009).

The present study consists of a qualitative content analysis to investigate the impact of Instagram on the tourism industry in the case of Beautiful Destinations. The main aim of using this method is to identify the links between image content and the numbers of follower likes and comments about the pictures shared through the Beautiful Destinations Instagram account. This method is used not only to study the features of the image content through a systematic classification process, but also to draw inferences about the responses of the communicators, i.e., the followers, in order to identify themes or patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). The use of content analysis also offers insight into the use of communication indicators, in this case, Beautiful Destinations, to enhance tourism industry performance.

Sampling and Coding Process

First, a copy of each image from the @beautifuldestinations Instagram account was downloaded, and a preliminary sample with the number of comments and likes, country, and place was created. This primary data collection process yielded a final sample of 1,094 images (with a total of 131,116,800 likes and 2,859,448 comments). Two independent coders (one analyst and one judge) were then used to ensure reliability as described in Küster (2006). Both were required to have experience in Instagram and tourism, as well as experience living abroad as part of a multicultural reality to ensure a broader perspective in their approach to the content analysis. Additionally, a convenience sample of 50 images was used to provide specific training on the accurate identification of the attributes. A third trained coder was responsible for validating the resulting classifications and settling disagreements to reach a final consensus. Intercoder reliability is a method used by researchers to establish consistency within a coder's own coding process (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011). At 93.5%, the intercoder reliability for the present data was greater than 0.9 and thus acceptable according to Neuendorf (2002).

Statistical Analysis

The data were analyzed using ordinary least squares (OLS) models due to the nature of the variables in order to assess the relationship between the photographs' attributes and the number of likes (Model 1) or comments (Model 2). The quantitative dependent variables were the number of likes and comments. The independent variables were the photograph attributes, specifically: main theme, centricity, time of day, colors, people, water, animals, and, as a disruptive attribute, repetition. Out of these eight attributes, main theme, centricity, time of day, and colors were categorical variables, for which a nominal

scale was used that differed for each attribute (eight, four, three, and twelve categories, respectively). In contrast, people, water, animals, and repetition were dichotomous variables, for which a nominal scale of two was used, indicating only the attribute's presence or absence. The OLS models were estimated using SATA 14 software to measure which image attributes might influence the number of likes and comments received. Table 2 summarizes the technical details of the research.

Sample Description

[Table 2 near here] The sample of 1,094 images received a total of 131,161,800 likes, with a mean of 119,850.8 (standard deviation (SD) of 15,229.65), and a total of 2,859,448 comments, with a mean of 2,613.755 (SD 1,432.44). Of the total number of images, 44.1% received an above-average number of likes, while 39.9% of the pictures received an above-average number of comments. The number of likes received ranged from 65,400 to 210,000, while the number of comments ranged from 376 to 9,286.

Table 3 shows the descriptive data for each attribute. With regard to the attribute *main* theme, at nearly 60%, panoramic views were the predominant perspective, showing tourism destinations as a whole. They were followed by historic buildings and heritage (15.72%) and tourism facilities and infrastructure (6.58%). As for the second attribute, centricity, the characteristic site-centric, featuring a view of the destination as a place of interest, was identified in 40.49% of the cases, while the other three characteristics were all identified in around 20% of the cases (activity-centric: 22.76%; self-centric, 19.01%;

other centric: 17.43%). In terms of the time of day, *in daylight* (60.97%) was predominant, followed by *at sunset* (24.86%), and *at night* (14.17%). The most frequently registered color was green (20.57%), followed by a second group, found in around 10% of the cases, consisting of blue, cream, gray, and orange, and a third group of less common colors (black, brown, red, rose, violet, white, and yellow) identified just under 10% of the time. People (present in 41.32% of the images) and water (present in 69.29%) were key elements in the pictures, while animals (present in 4.11%) were not. Finally, the variable *multi-image*, implying that a consecutive image of a country is shown as a disruptive attribute, was identified in around 36% of cases.

[Table 3 near here]

Results

Table 4 provides the estimated results assessing the relationship between the photo attributes and the number of likes and comments received by means of multivariate analysis (OLS). For the dichotomous variables, OLS treats the absence of the feature as a dummy variable. Conversely, when the categorical variables had more than just a yes or no option, as with the attributes *main theme*, *centricity*, *time of day*, and *colors*, a dummy variable had to be ascribed. This variable was called the reference group. In these cases, the reference groups were: *festivals* for *main theme*, *self-centric* for *centricity*, *night* for *time of day*, and *red* for *colors*. Each specific characteristic was compared to the reference group attribute. A positive regression coefficient meant that success, as measured by likes or comments, was higher for the specific characteristic than for the reference group dummy variable, while a negative regression coefficient meant the

opposite. If the regression coefficient was statistically significant, the success, as measured by likes or comments, of the reference group attribute was also statistically significant.

With 1,094 observations, the comments model (Model 2) had a higher level of model fit than the likes model (17.96% vs 4.88%). The statistical solution shows the attributes with the greatest impact in each column. On the whole, more image attributes seem to have an effect on comments than on likes (4 vs 6), while in both models attributes were important factors to consider in explaining success in terms of likes and comments. In fact, the constant (-cons) was significantly different from zero at p<0.001.

In the likes model (Model 1), attributes such as *main theme*, *time of day*, *water* and *animals* did not have a statistically significant effect on the number of likes. In contrast, photographs featuring people (coefficient 3557.665, p<0.01) received more likes than those that did not, while multi-images (coefficient -1926.837, p<0.05) received fewer likes than those that did not have a disruptive effect. As for the *centricity* attribute, site-centric photos (coefficient 4340.232, p<0.01) and other-centric photos (coefficient 5182.604, p<0.001) attracted more likes than self-centric ones, whereas the effect of activity-centric photos did not differ from that of self-centric ones. The color rose had a positive effect (coefficient 6502.314, p<0.10), and cream, a negative one (coefficient -4460.684, p<0.10). Rose attracted more likes, and cream fewer likes, than the red baseline.

With regard to the number of comments (Model 2), more attributes seem to have an effect on Instagrammers. Specifically, photographs featuring water and animals received more comments than those that did not (coefficient 89.876, p<0.001; coefficient 357.699p<0.001, respectively), while the attributes *people* and *multi-images* did not seem to impact the number of comments. With regard to the *centricity* attribute, activity-centric

(coefficient 161.428, p<0.05), other-centric (coefficient 332.848, p<0.05) and site-centric (coefficient 290.664, p<0.10) photos received more comments than self-centric ones. Time of day also had an effect on the number of comments. Photographs showing images at sunset (coefficient -306.261, p<0.05) received fewer comments than photos taken at night. The attribute *color* also impacted the number of comments. Compared with photographs in which the main color is red, those in which the predominant color was cream (coefficient 282.460, p<0.01), green (coefficient 530.339, p<0.05), orange (coefficient 206.484, p<0.001), rose (coefficient 794.446, p<0.05), or yellow (coefficient 602.306, p<0.05) received more likes, whereas the effect of the rest of the analyzed colors did not differ from that of red. Finally, the attribute main theme also affected the number of comments. Compared to the main theme of festivals, photos in which the main theme was entertainment (coefficient -1019.205, p<0.01), a panoramic view (coefficient -1120.642, p<0.01), or restaurants (coefficient -545.613, p<0.001) received fewer comments. In contrast, those primarily featuring a hotel (coefficient 337.092, p<0.001) received more comments than those depicting a festival.

[Table 4 near here] Discussion, Conclusions, and Managerial Implications

With the increasing use of the Internet and growing corporate interest in accessing various social-media sites such as Beautiful Destinations, there is immense scope to enhance tourist industry performance by attracting tourists and catering to their individual needs (Wessels, 2014). In the current technology-driven era, the impact of using an Instagram account, e.g., Beautiful Destinations in the case of the tourism industry, is clear and will likely become even more prominent with continuous promotion on the Internet (Wally & Koshy, 2014). Moreover, photographs are a powerful medium for promoting a tourism destination (Hunter, 2008), and the key attributes of those photos can be a means of engaging more tourists.

The present research makes several contributions to the literature on Instagram in relation to the tourism industry and is one of the first attempts to unify the attributes of a destination image and its influence on Instagram user responses as measured by likes and comments. The first significant finding, following the initial speculation regarding the S-O-R paradigm (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), is that some attributes (stimulus) do seem to influence the number of likes and comments from users (organism). Therefore, DMOs could leverage this research to improve the final response by tailoring their projected destination image to attract more potential tourists. As Laroche (2010) predicted, the use of the S-O-R model is helpful and provides a productive solution for how Instagrammers behave with regard to certain photo attributes.

Another contribution of this research is related to the first research question and the key destination image attributes influencing the number of likes on Instagram. Although the present study focuses on the attributes of photos posted to Instagram proposed in the literature (e.g., Choi et al., 2007; Timothy & Groves, 2001), the results show that there are indeed differences among the types of attributes. Some attributes have a greater impact on the number of likes than others. The presence of people in a picture, an argument previously supported by Ferwerda et al. (2015), Bakhshi et al. (2014), and Souza et al. (2015), encourages more Instagrammers to hit the like button, while repetition of the same country in a disruptive way has the opposite effect due to the resulting multi-image, which can cause various types of confusion in the Instagrammer (Mitchell et al., 2005): overload confusion (too much information about the same country), similarity confusion (too much similar information about the same country), or ambiguity confusion (too much ambiguity about the same country). This, in turn, can lead to a state of doubt

regarding which image the user likes most. The *centricity* attribute proposed by Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier (2009) shows that a photograph featuring a view of a place of interest or a special or foreign event or activity receives more likes than an image offering an expression of the photographer him or herself. Finally, the color rose, which was considered a deterrent to promoting dissemination on social media by Bakhshi and Gilbert (2015), positively impacted the number of likes in the present study, while the color cream had a negative impact.

As regards the second research question, another notable contribution is the finding concerning the number of attributes influencing the number of comments on Instagram. On one hand, leaving a comment requires more effort, commitment, and time from the Instagrammer; therefore, the number of comments is always lower than the number of likes. In fact, the number of likes and comments can be used to distinguish whether engagement on Instagram with the audience is one-way and related to self-presentation (likes) or two-way involving feedback from Instagrammers (comments) (Russmann & Svensson, 2016). On the other, the attributes with the greatest influence on the number of comments provide more detail, as if images required a higher degree of complexity with regard to their content. Thus, the inclusion of environmental factors such as water or the presence of animals ensures an increase in the number of comments, which is consistent with previous research regarding the presence of water (Arriaza et al., 2004) and animals (Jang et al., 2015). However, the present study focused on Instagram. Furthermore, colors such as cream, green, orange, rose, and yellow were more likely to increase success in terms of comments than red. With regard to this variable, the results were slightly different from those reported by Bakhshi and Gilbert (2015), who assert that green and yellow have a negative impact, and Kietzmann et al. (2011), who finds that dark colors enhance the functionality of social media. Tussyadiah and Fensemaier's (2009) centricity

attribute had a strong impact on comments. All the characteristics in this attribute – the view of a place, special or foreign events, and various types of tourist activities – were more likely to elicit comments than the expression of self-image by the photographer. However, the results for the *time of day* attribute show that photos taken at sunset elicited fewer comments than photos taken at night. Finally, with regard to the main theme, hotels and tourist infrastructure were more likely to receive comments than festivals, and entertainment, panoramic views of places, and restaurants were less likely to receive comments.

This study has several practical implications for the marketing practice of DMOs in terms of creating a better destination image and promoting tourist visits. The disparities between photograph likes and comments suggest that these two areas should be managed separately in order to serve the DMO's ultimate purpose and avoid the negative impact of disruptive photographs. Several destinations in the sample repeated the same historical building or panoramic view of a place three or more times in a row from different perspectives. This results in information overload for the user. Likewise, many presented different places from the same country or city constantly, leading to ambiguity and similarity confusion among Instagrammers. Depending on the content of the image, all the previous conclusions are worth implementing to ensure successful photographs for DMOs in terms of likes and comments, such as predominance of the color rose or the use of site-centric and other-centric images. To increase likes, photos should depict people and avoid using predominantly cream colors, whereas to increase comments, featuring water and/or animals is basic to engaging users, as is focusing on a hotel. Colors such as cream, green, orange, and yellow and activity-centric photos can also be useful on Instagram.

Limitations and Future Research

This study makes an important contribution to destination image literature, but it has some limitations. In particular, three points bear mentioning. First, the study focused on only one Instagram account and only one year. To ensure greater rigor and control the measure, the sample was very varied; Beautiful Destinations showcases pictures from numerous places on Instagram, which is the account's main attraction for Instagrammers and researchers. Second, while the research analyzed the content of the photographs, it did not take into account the content of the comments left on each image. This was largely due to the fact that more than fifty different languages were identified in the comments and the consequent difficulty of unifying words across such a large volume of comments (nearly three million). Finally, more information about the users, their identity (e.g., their age or gender), and their internal motivations might have clarified some trends with regard to like and comment behavior.

De Bruyn and Lilien (2008) demonstrate that certain characteristics of online reviews written by other users can decrease or increase tourist visits and develop consumers' expectations regarding a tourism destination. As a new line of research, emoticons left in comments have been found to be an important source of information for connecting the emotions triggered by a specific destination and could be examined in greater depth in the future. Additionally, similar research could be undertaken using a mixed approach, wherein the qualitative as well as the quantitative results are explored and analyzed to derive suitable study outcomes and draw conclusions. In that case, future research could focus on the influence of the individual characteristics of the Instagrammer as a user.

Finally, applying the S-O-R model to other social media or to Instagram and another industry could also be an avenue of research worth pursuing. Similarly, continuing to

focus on the tourism sector, researchers could perform a cluster analysis of each country's strategies and measure their success.

References

- Albers, P. C., & James, W. R. (1988). Travel photography. A methodological approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15(1), 134–158.
- Arnold, A. (2018). Here's how much Instagram likes influence millennials' choice of travel destinations. https://www.forbes.com/sites/andrewarnold/2018/01/24/heres-how-much-instagram-likes-influence-millennials-choice-of-travel-destinations/
 Accessed 4 December 2018.
- Aramendia-Muneta, M. E. (2017). Spread the word the effect of word of mouth in emarketing. In G. Siegert, M. B. Von Rimscha, & S. Grubenmann (Eds.), *Commercial Communication in the Digital Age* (pp. 227–245). Berlin: De Gruyter.
- Aramendia-Muneta, M. E. (2012). An overview of the main innovations in e-marketing.

 In R. H. Tsiotsou, & R. E. Goldsmith (Eds.), *Strategic Marketing in Tourism Services* (pp. 289–298). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.
- Arriaza, M., Cañas-Ortega, J. F., Cañas-Madueño, J. A., & Ruiz-Aviles, P. (2004).

 Assessing the visual quality of rural landscapes. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 69(1), 115–125.
- Au-Yong-Oliveira, M., & Pinto Ferreira, J. J. (2014). What if colorful images become more important than words? Visual representations as the basic building blocks of human communication and dynamic storytelling. *World Futures Review*, 6(1), 48–54.

- Bakhshi, S., & Gilbert, E. (2015). Red, purple and pink: The colors of diffusion on Pinterest. *PLoS ONE*, 10(2), e0117148.
- Bakhshi, S., Shamma, D. A., & Gilbert, E. (2014). Faces engage us: Photos with faces attract more likes and comments on Instagram. In *Proceedings of the 32nd annual ACM conference on Human factors in computing systems CHI '14* (pp. 965–974).
- Baksi, A. (2016). Destination bonding: Hybrid cognition using Instagram. *Management Science Letters*, 6(1), 31-46.
- Beerli, A., & Martín, J. D. (2004). Tourists' characteristics and the perceived image of tourist destinations: a quantitative analysis a case study of Lanzarote, Spain. *Tourism Management*, 25(5), 623–636.
- Bell, E., & Davison, J. (2013). Visual management studies: empirical and theoretical approaches. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 15(2), 167–184.
- Boy, J. D., & Uitermark, J. (2015). Capture and share the city: Mapping Instagram's uneven geography in Amsterdam. In RC21 International Conference on "The Ideal City: between myth and reality. Representations, policies, contradictions and challenges for tomorrow's urban life" (pp. 1–20).
- Camprubí, R. (2015). Capital cities tourism image: is it fragmented? *European Journal of Tourism Hospitality and Recreation*, 6(1), 57–74.
- Camprubí, R., Guia, J., & Comas, J. (2013). The new role of tourists in destination image formation. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *16*(2), 203–209.
- Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2007). Destination image representation on the web: content analysis of Macau travel related websites. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 118–129.

- Dadgostar, B., & Isotalo, R. M. (1996). Content of city destination image for near-home tourists. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 3(2), 25–34.
- De Bruyn, A., & Lilien, G. L. (2008). A multi-stage model of word-of-mouth influence through viral marketing. *Research in Marketing*, 25(3), 151–163.
- Decrop, A. (1999). Tourists' decision-making and behavior processes. In A. Izam, & Y. Mansfeld (Eds.), *Consumer behavior in travel and tourism* (pp. 103-130). New York and London: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- DeMers, J. (2017, March 28). Why Instagram is the top social platform for engagement (and how to use it) https://www.forbes.com/sites/jaysondemers/2017/03/28/why-instagram-is-the-top-social-platform-for-engagement-and-how-to-use-it/#1fb19b8936bd Accessed 5 December 2018.
- Dredge, D., & Jenkins, J. (2003). Destination place identity and regional tourism policy. *Tourism Geographies*, 5(4), 383–407.
- Fatanti, M. N., & Suyadnya, I. W. (2015). Beyond user gaze: how Instagram creates tourism destination brand? *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *211*, 1089-1095.
- Ferwerda, B., Schedl, M., & Tkalcic, M. (2015). Predicting personality traits with Instagram pictures. *Proceedings of the 3rd Workshop on Emotions and Personality in Personalized Systems* 2015, 7-10.
- Fiallos, A., Jimenes, K., Fiallos, C., & Figueroa, S. (2018). Detecting Topics and Locations on Instagram Photos. In *5th International Conference on eDemocracy and eGovernment, ICEDEG 2018* (pp. 246–250).
- Flick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research* (4th ed.). London, UK: SAGE Publications.

- Foltête, J.-C., & Litot, J.-B. (2015). Scenic postcards as objects for spatial analysis of tourist regions. *Tourism Management*, 49, 17–28.
- Gallarza, M. G., Gil Saura, I., & Calderón García, H. (2002). Destination image: towards a conceptual framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(1), 56–78.
- Garrod, B. (2009). Understanding the relationship between tourism destination imagery and tourist photography. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(3), 346–358.
- Gatautis, R., Vitkauskaite, E., Gadeikiene, A., & Piligrimiene, Z. (2016). Gamification as a mean of driving online consumer behaviour: SOR model perspective. *Inzinerine Ekonomika-Engineering Economics*, *27*(1), 90–97.
- Govers, R., & Go, F. M. (2004). Cultural identities constructed, imagined and experienced: a 3-gap tourism destination image model. *Tourism*, *52*(2), 165–182.
- Groves, D. L., & Timothy, D. J. (2001). Photographic techniques and the measurement of impact and importance attributes on trip design: A case study. *Loisir et Société*, 24(1), 311–317.
- Han, K., Jo, Y., Jeon, Y., Kim, B., Song, J., & Kim, S.-W. (2018). Photos Don't Have Me, But How Do You Know Me? Analyzing and Predicting Users on Instagram. In *Adjunct Publication of the 26th Conference on User Modeling, Adaptation and Personalization* (pp. 251–256).
- Hanan, H., & Putit, N. (2014). Express marketing of tourism destinations using Instagram in social media networking. In N. Surmajan, M. S. M. Zahari, S. M. Radzi, Z. Mohi, M. H. M. Hanafiah, M. F. S. Bakhtia, & A. Zainal (Eds.), *Hospitality and Tourism:*Synergizing Creativity and Innovation in Research (pp. 471–474). Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press.

- Hanusch, F. (2011). Representations of foreign places outside the news: An analysis of Australian newspaper travel sections. *Media International Australia*, 138(1), 21–35.
- Hausmann, A., Toivonen, T., Slotow, R., Tenkanen, H., Moilanen, A., Heikinheimo, V., & Di Minin, E. (2018). Social media data can be used to understand tourists' preferences for nature-based experiences in protected areas. *Conservation Letters*, 11(1), e12343.
- Haywood, K. M. (1990). Visitor-employed photography: An urban visit assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29(1), 25–29.
- Hochman, N., & Manovich, L. (2013). Zooming into an Instagram city: Reading the local through social media. *First Monday*, *18*(7). https://firstmonday.org/ojs/index.php/fm/article/view/4711/3698 Accessed 4 December 2018.
- Hochman, N., & Schwartz, R. (2012). Visualizing Instagram: Tracing cultural visual rhythms. In *Proceedings of the Workshop on Social Media Visualization* (SocMedVis) in conjunction with the Sixth International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media (ICWSM–12) (pp. 6–9).
- Hsieh, H.-F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(9), 1277–1288.
- Hunter, W. C. (2008). A typology of photographic representations for tourism: depictions of groomed spaces. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 354–365.
- Hunter, W. C. (2016). The social construction of tourism online destination image: a comparative semiotic analysis of the visual representation of Seoul. *Tourism Management*, 54, 221–229.

- Instagram (2018). *Instagram Statistics*. https://instagram-press.com/our-story/ Accessed 1 December 2018.
- Jang, J. Y., Han, K., & Lee, D. (2015). No Reciprocity in "Liking "Photos: Analyzing Like Activities in Instagram. In *Proceedings of the 26th ACM Conference on Hypertext & Social Media HT '15* (pp. 273–282).
- Jenkins, O. H. (2003). Photography and travel brochures: The circle of representation. *Tourism Geographies*, 5(3), 305–328
- Kietzmann, J. H., Hermkens, K., McCarthy, I. P., & Silvestre, B. S. (2011). Social media? Get serious! Understanding the functional building blocks of social media. *Business Horizons*, 54(3), 241–251.
- Kim, M. J., Lee, C. K., & Jung, T. (2019). Exploring Consumer Behavior in Virtual Reality Tourism Using an Extended Stimulus-Organism-Response Model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 1–12.
- Kuhzady, S., & Ghasemi, V. (2019). Pictorial analysis of the projected destination image: Portugal on Instagram. *Tourism Analysis*, 24(1), 43–54.
- Kümpel, A. S., Karnowski, V., & Keyling, T. (2015). News sharing in social media: a review of current research on news sharing users, content, and networks. *Social Media + Society*, 1(2), 1–14.
- Küster, I. (2006). Relational content of travel and tourism websites. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 11(2), 119–133.
- Lai, L. S. L., & To, W. M. (2015). Content analysis of social media: a grounded theory approach. *Journal of Electronic Commerce Research*, 12(2), 138–152.

- Laroche, M. (2010). New developments in modeling Internet consumer behavior: Introduction to the special issue. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(9–10), 915–918.
- MacKay, K. J., & Couldwell, C. M. (2004). Using visitor-employed photography to Investigate Destination Image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(4), 390–396.
- Martín-López, B., García-Llorente, M., Peri, P. L., Lencinas, M. V., & Martínez Pastur, G. (2015). Spatial patterns of cultural ecosystem services provision in Southern Patagonia. *Landscape Ecology*, *31*(2), 383–399.
- Masip Hernández, L., Camprubí, R., & Coromina, L. (2018). Tourist role as a producer and consumer of tourist image on Instagram. *Gran Tour: Revista de Investigaciones Turísticas*, 17, 111–132.
- Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). *An approach to environmental psychology*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Mitchell, V.-W., Walsh, G., & Yamin, M. (2005). Towards a Conceptual Model of Consumer Confusion. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 32(1), 143–150.
- Milman, A. (2012). Postcards as representation of a destination image: the case of Berlin. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 18(2), 157–170.
- Mukhina, K. D., Rakitin, S. V., & Visheratin, A. A. (2017). Detection of tourists attraction points using Instagram profiles. *Procedia Computer Science*, 108(6), 2378–2382.
- Neuendorf, K. A. (2002). *The content analysis guidebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Nixon, L., Popova, A., & Önder, I. (2017). How Instagram Influences Visual Destination

 Image a Case Study of Jordan and Costa Rica. In *ENTER2017 eTourism*

- Conference. https://agrilifecdn.tamu.edu/ertr/files/2016/12/RN28.pdf Accessed 1 December 2018.
- Nunes, M. (2017). Selfies, Self-Witnessing and the 'Out-of-Place' Digital Citizen. In A. Kunstman (Ed.), *Selfie Citizenship* (pp. 109–117). Manchester, UK: Springer International Publishing.
- Pan, S., Lee, J., & Tsai, H. (2014). Travel photos: Motivations, image dimensions, and affective qualities of places. *Tourism Management*, 40, 59–69.
- Paül i Agustí, D. (2018). Characterizing the location of tourist images in cities. Differences in user-generated images (Instagram), official tourist brochures and travel guides. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 73, 103–115.
- Pike, S. (2005). Tourism destination branding complexity. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 14(4), 258–259.
- Russmann, U., & Svensson, J. (2016). Studying organizations on Instagram. *Information*, 7(4), 1-12.
- Sawhney, M., Verona, G., & Prandelli, E. (2005). Collaborating to create: The Internet as a platform for customer engagement in product innovation. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 19(4), 4–17.
- Skalski, P. D., Neuendorf, K. A., & Cajigas, J. A. (2017). Content Analysis in the Interactive Media Age. In K. A. Neuendorf (Ed.), *The Content Analysis Guidebook* (2nd ed., pp. 201–403). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Singh, S. (2006). Impact of color on marketing. *Management Decision*, 44(6), 783–789.
- Souza, F., De La Casas, D., Flores, V., Youn, S., Cha, M., Quercia, D., & Almeida, V. (2015). Dawn of the Selfie Era: The Whos, Wheres, and Hows of Selfies on

- Instagram. In *Proceedings of the 2015 ACM on Conference on Online Social Networks* (pp. 221–231).
- Stabler, M. J. (1988). The image of destination regions: theoretical and empirical aspects.

 In B. Goodall, & G. Ashworth (Eds.), *Marketing in the Tourism Industry* (pp. 133–161). London, UK: Croom Helm London.
- Stepchenkova, S., & Zhan, F. (2013). Visual destination images of Peru: comparative content analysis of DMO and user-generated photography. *Tourism Management*, *36*, 590–601.
- Timothy, D. J., & Groves, D. L. (2001). Research note: webcam images as potential data sources for tourism research. *Tourism Geographies*, *3*(4), 394–404.
- Thelander, Å., & Cassinger, C. (2017). Brand New Images? Implications of Instagram Photography for Place Branding. *Media and Communication*, *5*(4), 6–14.
- Tussyadiah, I. P., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2009). Mediating tourist experiences access to places via shared videos. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(1), 24-40.
- UNWTO (2018). UNWTO International Tourism Trends 2017. https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284419876 Accessed 1 December 2018.
- Wally, E., & Koshy, S. (2014). The use of Instagram as a marketing tool by Emirati female entrepreneurs: an exploratory study. In *29th International Business Research Conference, World Business Institute Australia* (pp. 1–19).
- Weilenmann, A., Hillman, T., & Jungselius, B. (2013). Instagram at the Museum:

 Communicating the Museum Experience through Social Photo Sharing. In

 Proceedings of the SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems

 (pp. 1843–1852).

- Wessels, B. (2014). *Exploring social change: process and context*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Wimmer, R. D., & Dominick, J. R. (2011). Mass media research: an introduction (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Yüksel, A., & Akgül, O. (2007). Postcards as affective image makers: An idle agent in destination marketing. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 714–725.
- Yu, C. E., & Sun, R. (2019). The role of Instagram in the UNESCO's creative city of gastronomy: A case study of Macau. *Tourism Management*, 75, 257–268.
- Zhang, Y., & Wildemuth, B. M. (2009). Qualitative analysis of content. In B. M. Wildemuth (Ed.), Applications of social research methods to questions in information and library science (pp. 318–329). Santa Barbara, CA: Libraries Unlimited.

Table 1Attribute Categories

Attribute category	Author(s)				
Main theme	Choi et al. (2007); Dadgostar & Isotalo (1996); Stabler (1988); Timothy & Groves (2011)				
Centricity	Tussyadiah & Fesenmaier (2009)				
Time of day	Fiallos et al. (2018); Hunter (2016)				
Colors	Bakhshi & Gilbert (2015); Kietzmann et al. (2011); Singh (2006)				
People	Bakhshi et al. (2014); Ferwerda et al. (2015); Souza et al. (2015)				
Water	Arriaza et al. (2004); Martín-López et al. (2015)				
Animals	Jang et al. (2015)				
Multi-image	Camprubí (2015)				

Tourism Destination Image Attributes on Instagram Stimulus (S) Instagrammer Reactions Likes & Comments

Organism (O)

Enhanced Destination Image More Tourists Response (R)

Figure 1. S-O-R model for Instagram & DMOs (adapted from Mehrabian & Russel (1974).



Table 2. Technical details of the research

Objective	Instagram images	
Case	@beautifuldestinations	
Reference period	2015	
Sample size	1,094 images	
Likes	131,116,800 likes	
Comments	2,859,448 comments	
Methodology	Content analysis	
Statistical analysis	Ordinary least squares	



Table 3. Main descriptive data of dependent and independent variables

Attribute		%
	Historic	15.73%
	Entertainment	3.56%
	Panoramic view	59.14%
Main thems	Festival	2.74%
Main theme	Hotel	6.58%
	Other	7.40%
	Park	3.20%
	Restaurant	1.65%
	Activity-centric	22.76%
Contribite	Other centric	17.74%
Centricity	Self-centric	19.01%
	Site-centric	40.49%
	Daylight	60.97%
Time of day	Night	14.17%
	Sunset	24.86%
	Black	4.02%
	Blue	10.69%
	Brown	4.48%
	Cream	10.42%
	Gray	11.15%
C-1	Green	20.57%
Colors	Orange	13.16%
	Red	4.84%
	Rose	2.74%
	Violet	4.48%
	White	5.22%
	Yellow	8.23%
People	Present	41.32%
Water	Present	69.29%
Animals	Present	4.11%
Multi-image	Present	36.65%

Table 4. Relationship between attributes and likes and comments

	Mode	Model 1: Likes			Model 2: Comments		
	Coefficient		SD	Coefficient		SD	
Historic	-2140.008	ns	3157.095	-1162.369	ns	275.772	
Entertainment	-1126.133	ns	3798.324	-1019.205	***	331.783	
Panoramic view	-2383.540	ns	3017.962	-1120.642	***	263.619	
Festival ^a							
Hotel	-1536.138	ns	3496.847	337.092	****	305.449	
Other	-864.753	ns	3397.469	-1139.409	ns	296.769	
Park	-3261.310	ns	3886.089	-1074.843	ns	339.450	
Restaurants	1117.506	ns	4653.827	-545.613	****	406.511	
Activity-centric	1988.519	ns	1629.243	161.428	**	142.314	
Other centric	5182.604	****	1585.032	332.848	**	138.452	
Self-centric ^a							
Site-centric	4340.232	***	1374.430	290.664	*	120.056	
Daylight	-233.573	ns	1576.944	-125.769	ns	137.746	
Night ^a							
Sunset	-1530.443	ns	1643.556	-306.261	**	143.565	
Blue	-669.872	ns	2585.968	766.150	ns	225.884	
Black	-3887.116	ns	3241.251	445.999	ns	283.123	
Brown	-1052.431	ns	3005.320	-37.803	ns	262.515	
Cream	-4460.684	*	2553.587	282.460	***	223.056	
Gray	-1308.595	ns	2516.674	269.944	ns	219.831	
Green	-2986.816	ns	2371.403	530.339	**	207.144	
Orange	-952.703	ns	2481.733	206.486	****	216.779	
Red ^a							
Rose	6502.314	*	3474.003	794.446	**	303.454	
Violet	-2179.451	ns	3040.471	318.416	ns	265.585	
White	-3491.518	ns	2927.779	409.205	ns	255.741	
Yellow	-1682.291	ns	2695.252	602.306	**	235.430	
People	3557.665	***	1155.294	627.743	ns	100.915	
Water	-1352.489	ns	1114.890	89.876	****	97.386	
Animals	2567.985	ns	2392.428	357.699	****	208.978	
Multi-image	-1926.837	**	969.608	-210.202	ns	84.695	
_cons	121195.600	****	3790.586	2878.189	****	331.107	
– N	1094			1094			
R^2 (%)	4.88%			17.96%			

^{*}p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ****p < .001; ns: non-significant; a Dummy variables