Research paper

Predictors of tourist engagement: Travel motives and tourism destination profiles

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A B S T R A C T

The aim of this study is to investigate the influence of travel motives and regional tourism destinations on positive/negative engagement with a destination management organisation (DMO). According to previous literature, travel motives were classified as push and pull motives, and regional tourism destinations were classified by tourist demand behaviour. To achieve the objective, the totality of posts about regional tourism destinations published on the Brand Spain's Official Facebook Fanpage during a year were analysed (418), along with audience reactions (127,750), comments (3219) and shares to such posts. A content analysis was performed, with a regression analysis (optimal scaling) used to process data. Results show, on the one hand, that push-internal motivators (such as 'knowledge and seeing') and pull-external motivators (such as 'search for historic and cultural patrimonial') will predict positive engagement, and positive popularity, commitment and virality (the three dimensions of engagement). Tourism destination profiles (high versus low demand) are not a predictor of positive engagement with a DMO and its dimensions. On the other hand, these variables are not useful to predict negative engagement with a DMO and its dimensions. Negative popularity can only be predicted by pull motives.

1. Introduction

The search of information is a relevant aspect of travel decision process (Hudson & Thal, 2013; Amaro, Duarte, & Henriques, 2016; Amaro & Duarte, 2017). Before deciding to travel, most tourists search online information and reviews on social networks about destinations (Narangajavana, Fiol, Tena, Artola, & García, 2017). In fact, social networks are predominantly used before traveling (Cox, Burgess, Sellitto, & Buultjens, 2009).

According to Amaro et al. (2016), in general, travel decisions are influenced by social networks. Due to its importance, there has been an increasing interest in studying social networks in the field of tourism and hospitality (Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014).

In general, when the main topic of a study is social networks, engagement is a construct that acquires high relevance. In this sense, Brodie, Ilic, Juric, and Hollebeek (2013) affirm that engagement is a central theme in the discussions about online brand communities, since engagement is the phenomenon that describes the nature of the specific interactions of the brands, participants and their collaborating experiences. In fact, the pioneering article by Algesheimer, Dholakia and Hermann (2005) that focused on studying influence in social networks

used the term 'engagement' more than 50 times (Brodie et al., 2013).

Some researchers have previously considered the study of engagement in the tourism industry as a relevant topic (Mariani, Mura, & Di Felice, 2018; Sabate, Berbegal-Mirabent, Cañabate, & Lebherz, 2014). On the one hand, according to Sabate et al. (2014), tourism brands are developing its presence in social networks to generate engagement. On the other hand, tourists engaged on social networks will be probably more likely to purchase online that those that are no engaged (Amaro & Duarte, 2015). In general, online behaviour reflects the offline behaviour (Amaro & Duarte, 2017). For these reasons, engagement is the central axis in the present study. The following are some reasons for conducting the present study.

First, in the field of psychology, some researchers have considered that engagement is closely related to psychological constructs such as motivation (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008; Higgins, 2006). Empirical findings in this field have also confirmed that motivation and engagement are linked (Klauda & Guthrie, 2015). In marketing literature, there is some evidence that suggests a link between tourist travel motives and engagement (Fan & Hsu, 2014; Lee, Chua, & Han, 2017; Park, Seo, & Kandampully, 2016; Prayag, 2012; Prebensen, Skallerud, & Chen, 2010). However, the relationship between these two variables

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(engagement and tourist motivations) has not been evaluated in its entirety. In fact, previous studies in high impact journals have evaluated just the relationship between tourist motives (leisure and travel) and some separate engagement dimensions like virality and commitment (Lee et al., 2017; Park et al., 2016). Additional research is justified to better understand the link between travel motives and engagement from a social network approach.

Second, previous research has found that tourist motivations could be different depending on the type of regional tourism destinations, even if these destinations are located in the same country (Huang, Wu, & Shi, 2018; Kozak, 2002; Reitsamer, Brunner-Sperdin, & Stokburger-Sauer, 2016). It means that destinations are an important issue to consider in tourist motivations research. On the other hand, according to Mariani et al. (2018), DMOs (destination management organizations) use Facebook to promote and market their destinations. However, the research about the use of Facebook by DMOs is poor, and studies should provide recommendations about how DMOs can be more effective in their marketing efforts on Facebook (Önder, Gunter, & Gindl, 2019).

Finally, the majority of research conducted on the 'engagement' construct in marketing has tended to focus on specific positively valenced engagement; but there is a lack of research on negatively valenced engagement (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). However, this topic is emerging as a new issue in marketing literature (Villamediana, Küster, & Vila, 2019). Recently, some researchers have been interested in studying negative engagement (Azer & Alexander, 2018; Bowden et al., 2016; Dolan Conduit, Fahy, & Goodman, 2016; Heinonen, 2018; Hollebeek & Chen, 2014; Luoma-aho, 2015; Naumann, Lay-Hwa Bowden, & Gabbott, 2017; Villamediana et al., 2019; Villamediana-Pedrosa, Vila-López, & Küster-Boluda, 2018). Nonetheless, in the reviewed literature, no studies assessing the relationship between travel motives and negatively valence engagement towards brands in the tourism industry were found in high impact academic journals.

According to Villamediana-Pedrosa et al. (2018), positive engagement is "a multidimensional construct that reveals a positive valence brand's valuation, and that is observable through popularity, commitment and virality that tourists manifest in brand communities on social networks" (p. 4). While negative engagement is a multidimensional construct that reveals a negative valence brand's valuation, and which is observable through the popularity, commitment and virality that tourists manifest in brand communities on social networks (Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2018).

This means that virality, commitment and popularity are indicators of engagement on Facebook. Popularity is measured by reactions to posts. As Russell, (2017)) explains, reactions are Facebook's line-up of emojis that allow people to react to posts with six different animated emotions (like, love, haha, wow, sad, angry). According to Villamediana-Pedrosa et al. (2018), the first 4 emojis are used to express a positive brand's valuation; while the last two emojis are used to express a negative valuation of a brand. Commitment, meabwhile, is measured by comments to posts. In the same way, comments can express a positive or negative valuation oif a brand. Finally, virality is measured by the number of shares.

For these reasons, the main objective of this investigation is to study the influence of travel motivations and regional destination profiles on positive/negative engagement with a DMO. To achieve the objective, the study analysed the totality of posts about regional tourism destinations published on Brand Spain's official Facebook fanpage during a given year.

Theoretically, the findings of this study will contribute to identify some drivers of engagement, considering its positive and negative dimensions. According to the Marketing Science Institute (2018), the recognition of drivers of customer engagement is a research priority for the biannual period of 2018–2020. On other hand, practically, the findings of thsi study will provide key insights for developing a successful social network strategy in the tourism industry. The results will be helpful for senior marketing managers and marketing policy makers in tourism companies or in state tourism offices.

In the following section, a thorough review of the literature is presented, after which hypotheses (general and specific) are derived about the drivers of positive/negative engagement with a DMO. The research methods used, results of the findings and discussion are then provided. Finally, conclusions, limitations and implications are stated.

2. Conceptual framework and hypotheses

2.1. Positive and negative engagement

The study of engagement was born in the field of psychology, although it has also been of interest in sociology, political science, organisational behaviour (Brodie, Hollebeek, Jurić, & Ilić, 2011), the education sciences (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004) and communication (Campbell & Kwak, 2010). In psychology and the social science disciplines, engagement has not been defined in a unique way. Some researchers consider engagement as a one-dimensional construct while others consider it to be a multidimensional construct (Brodie et al., 2011). In general, engagement is a construct that can be adapted and measured in different contexts and subjects of study.

Engagement is a topic that has emerged since the mid-2000s in the field of marketing. As explained by Brodie et al. (2011), the pioneering article was published by Algesheimer, Dholakia and Hermann in 2005. In marketing literature, some researchers have considered engagement to be a synonym for other similar constructs (Kumar, Bezawada, Rishika, Janakiraman, & Kannan, 2016; Zheng, Cheung, Lee, & Liang, 2015); and that behaviours such as word-of-mouth, involvement with brand communities (Vivek, Beatty, & Morgan, 2012), consumer recommendations and evaluations, and blog and web postings are different manifestations of engagement (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Zheng, Cheung, Lee, & Liang, 2015) or consequences of engagement (Vivek et al., 2012).

The reactions of customers in the social networks of a brand can be considered as manifestations of engagement (Ashley & Tuten, 2015). In this sense, Ksiazek, Peer and Lessard (2016) explain that, while it is one thing to simply read or see a publication, making the decision to publicly share a reaction or opinion in response to that publication is a sign that an individual is more engaged. For these authors, interaction with content and with other users in social networks is, in short, an indicator of engagement (Ksiazek, Peer, & Lessard, 2016). In particular, on Facebook, the emojis called 'like', 'loove', 'haha', and 'wow' can be considered as manifestations of positive engagement; while the emojis called 'sad' and 'angry' can be considered as manifestations of negative engagement.

In the present study, the theoretical approach of Hollebeek and Chen (2014) is considered. This approach proposes that the engagement construct should be studied according to its valence, which can be positive or negative. Research on negative engagement could be said to be lacking because most of the marketing literature has only been concerned with studying this construct in its positive dimension (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014).

The proposal of Hollebeek and Chen (2014) has received some attention in the literature. Recently, negative engagement have been mentioned in some studies (Bowden, Conduit, Hollebeek, & Solem, 2017; Bowden, Gabbott, & Naumann, 2015; Dessart, Veloutsou, & Morgan-Thomas, 2015; Harrigan, Evers, Miles, & Daly, 2017; Naumann et al., 2017; Villamediana et al., 2019; Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2018). Dolan et al., (2016) also proposed that positive and negative engagement should be studied theoretically. Nonetheless, there are still more studies devoted to examining engagement only in its positive dimension. In general, the engagement construct is relatively new in the field of marketing and should be expanded and deepened in its understanding (Dessart, Veloutsou, & Morgan-Thomas, 2015). The study of engagement in terms of its valence allows for a deepening of the understanding of this construct.

2.2. Explaining positive/negative engagement: tourist motives and regional tourism destination profiles

The aim of this study is to study the influence of travel motivations and regional destination profiles on positive/negative engagement with a DMO in the tourism industry.

Travel motives should be considered as a psychological construct, aroused when people think of specific activities they could, should or might do in the future, and such activities are potentially satisfaction-producing (Iso-Ahola, 1982). In the literature review, travel motives are divided into push and pull factors (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Caber & Albayrak, 2016; Crompton, 1979; Klenosky, 2002; Oh, Uysal, & Weaver, 1995; Turnbull & Uysal, 1995; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Push motivations are specific forces that affect people's decisions to take a vacation, while pull motivations are the forces that influence people's decisions to choose specific tourism destinations (Kim, Lee, & Klenosky, 2003).

Regional tourism destinations are defined as territorial units (Herrero-Prieto & Gomez-Vega, 2017) located in the country analysed. In this paper, territorial units are classified according to territorial political divisions and tourist demand as stated by the Spanish office for national statistics (Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), 2019). Table 1 shows the territorial unit classifications and monthly tourist demand for each destination (Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), 2019) (Table 2).

In previous empirical studies, evidence suggests that travel motives (Fan & Hsu, 2014; Lee et al., 2017; Park et al., 2016; Prayag, 2012; Prebensen et al., 2010) and different regional tourism destinations (Chen & Phou, 2013; Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, & Del Chiappa, 2017; Stylos, Bellou, Andronikidis, & Vassiliadis, 2017; Zhang, Fu, Lai, & Lu, 2014; Zhang, Wu, & Buhalis, 2018) are key factors to explain engagement. However, the studies that evaluate the link between travel motives, regional tourism destinations and dimensions of positive/negative engagement (or similar variables) are not conclusive.

In spite of this, previous research has shown that tourist behaviour (including behaviours related with engagement) could be determined by the type of travel motivations and the type of tourism destinations chosen, (Chen & Phou, 2013; Huang et al., 2018; Kozak, 2002; Prayag et al., 2017; Reitsamer et al., 2016; Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014; Zhang

et al., 2018). Based on the review and discussion of the literature, it seems plausible to postulate a general hypothesis.

H: Travel motives and tourism destination profiles predict tourist positive/negative engagement with a DMO.

The literature review that supports this study's specific hypotheses is presented next.

2.3. Tourist motives

Tourist behaviour is a complex construct, explained by many variables; motivation is a critical one to analyse tourist behaviour because it is the driving force behind all actions (Fodness, 1994). As mentioned before, tourist motives to travel are classified into push and pull motivations.

According to literature, people travel because they are pushed by internal motivators (wants and needs); they are also pulled by external motivations related to tourism destination attributes (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). For example, push/internal factors are the desire for escape, rest, prestige, adventure or social interaction, while pull/external factors are tangible resources like beaches, recreation facilities, cultural attractions, mountains and beautiful scenery (Kim et al., 2003; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Yuan & McDonald, 1990).

Some researchers think that an understanding of push and pull travel motivations is necessary to effectively market a specific tourism destination (Oh et al., 1995; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). In general, the analysis of push and pull motivations is useful for segmenting markets, developing products, designing packages and promotional plans (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Oh et al., 1995). Since Crompton (1979) theorised about the value of tourist motivations for segmenting markets, several studies have used travel motives for segmenting tourists, from several decades ago until today (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Cha, McCleary, & Uysal, 1995; Formica & Uysal, 1998; Park & Yoon, 2009; Pesonen, 2012; Rid, Ezeuduji, & Pröbstl-Haider, 2014).

According to marketing literature, travel motives influence tourist satisfaction (Caber & Albayrak, 2016; Lee, 2009; Lee, Lee, & Wicks, 2004; Prebensen et al., 2010; Wong, Musa, & Taha, 2017; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), destination loyalty (Hungenberg, Gray, Gould, & Stotlar, 2016; Lee et al., 2017; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), tourist demand (Strobl,

Table 1
Tourist demand by months in regional tourism destinations (no resident tourists).
Source: own development with data from INE (2019).

Year 2018[a]												
Month												
Tourism destination	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Ago.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Canary Islands	1,183,811	1,192,844	1,347,620	1,102,716	967,162	1,001,439	1,120,219	1,090,395	1,039,227	1,257,741	1,184,490	1,256,248
Catalonia	862,872	1,016,409	1,213,441	1,561,979	1,874,676	2,090,369	2,385,684	2,438,984	2,005,260	1,655,610	1,040,713	977,198
Andalusia	539,516	582,686	784,910	1,042,404	1,197,159	1,168,936	1,325,995	1,437,617	1,312,605	1,141,481	606,835	553,782
Madrid (Com.)	530,646	486,061	559,298	630,846	658,319	602,037	618,582	500,149	696,911	709,365	603,967	525,408
Others	425,268	345,509	458,656	731,467	765,135	655,138	964,570	1,240,884	832,818	731,330	426,168	440,234
Valencia (Com.)	448,606	448,928	618,406	770,745	913,713	901,893	1,133,413	1,180,982	1,005,863	855,849	499,558	430,939
Balearic Islands	119,418	152,388	401,356	930,688	1,708,008	2,121,369	2,431,315	2,304,445	2,031,642	1,284,193	188,168	183,467
Year 2017 [b]												
Canary Islands	1,193,435	1,183,979	1,283,939	1,255,062	993,431	1,034,652	1,186,481	1,165,967	1,111,400	1,309,652	1,239,853	1,256,370
Catalonia	846,213	989,198	1,155,003	1,755,019	1,920,946	2,026,356	2,557,125	2,567,612	1,999,689	1,497,032	981,462	822,765
Andalusia	522,009	584,543	720,603	1,044,661	1,176,002	1,164,980	1,356,267	1,422,593	1,327,059	1,119,427	569,632	510,486
Madrid (Com.)	489,884	450,927	478,054	672,738	624,915	594,801	579,523	530,335	639,120	628,904	534,430	476,155
Others	344,125	318,335	424,202	605,784	651,158	635,744	1,111,660	1,200,137	1,200,137	645,718	437,748	416,889
Valencia (Com.)	402,914	429,384	526,701	749,885	918,843	873,923	1,217,502	1,158,902	1,158,902	812,655	452,023	400,590
Balearic Islands	107,156	162,771	325,442	998,445	1,717,352	2,101,520	2,484,880	2,352,198	2,352,198	1,256,543	177,426	99,275

[a] According to INE (2019), the data taken by 2018 year is still estimated.
[b] The data taken by 2017 is real.

Table 2

Empirical studies that support the hypotheses H1 and H2 (travel motives/engagement).

Source: own development. The research of Pentina, Guilloux, & Mico (2018) was not included because it is not empirical, but exploratory. These authors have explained their findings based on 30 semi-structured interviews.

Previous studies data in the tourism field		Evidence of influence of travel motives (push/pull motivations)			
Author (Year)	Context	*Engagement*	Popularity	Commitment	Virality
Prebensen et al. (2010)	Tourists that have selected Mediterranean destinations.			x	
Prayag (2012)	Senior tourists.			x	
Fan and Hsu (2014)	Cruise travellers.			x	
Park et al. (2016)	Pilgrimages tourist				x
Lee et al. (2017)	Cruise travellers.			x	
Previous studies data in other fields		Evidence of influence of motivation			
Jakobsson (2007)	Transportation/private car users.	X			
Allen and Bartle (2014)	Sport event volunteers.	X			

Teichmann, & Peters, 2015), revisit intention or repurchase of a travel product (Fan & Hsu, 2014; Prayag, 2012), active tourism information searching (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991) and tourist behaviour (Lee, 2009).

Previous researchers have also found evidence that supports the idea that travel motives could influence positive/negative engagement. For example, Prebensen et al. (2010) studied the influence of motivations to travel on word-of-mouth (WOM) by Norwegian tourists who travelled to Mediterranean destinations. These researchers found that travel motives contribute indirectly to increase positive WOM. It is worth mentioning that WOM could be considered a manifestation of engagement (Vivek et al., 2012) and is similar to the commitment dimension.

In 2012, a study explored the motives of senior tourists to visit a regional tourism destination in France, as well as the future behavioural intentions of the tourists (Prayag, 2012). According to the results, some pull/external motivations (cultural attractions and accommodation) had an influence on recommendation intention. This means that tourists are more likely to recommend a tourism destination to others if they are motivated by the mentioned pull factors (Prayag, 2012). Taking into account that recommendation is also a manifestation of engagement [commitment dimension of engagement], (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Zheng, Cheung, Lee, & Liang, 2015), this research offers support for the proposed hypotheses.

Fan and Hsu (2014) analysed cruise travellers and found that push and pull motives are predictors of intention to recommend a tourism product to others (the commitment dimension of engagement). In 2016, Park et al. (2016) studied pilgrimage tourist motives and tourist sharing behaviour on social networks. According to their results, recognition and friendships (push factors: Pearce & Lee, 2005) influence sharing behaviour (virality dimension of engagement: Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2018). Finally, Lee et al. (2017) investigated the formation of cruise traveller loyalty. According to their findings, novelty (a push motive: Cha et al., 1995; Crompton, 1979) could induce positive WOM about tourism products [commitment dimension of engagement].

There is also evidence in other fields or contexts of research that people's motivation and engagement could be related (Allen & Bartle, 2014; Jakobsson, 2007; Pentina, Guilloux, & Mico, 2018). Based on previous research and its evidence, we theorise and posit the following hypotheses:

H1. Push travel motivations predict higher levels of engagement with DMO and its dimensions: (a) positive engagement, (b) positive popularity, (c) positive commitment, and (d) positive virality; (e) negative engagement, (f) negative popularity, (g) negative commitment, and (h) negative virality.

H2. Pull travel motivations predict higher levels of engagement with

DMO and its dimensions: (a) positive engagement, (b) positive popularity, (c) positive commitment, and (d) positive virality; (e) negative engagement, (f) negative popularity, (g) negative commitment, and (h) negative virality.

2.4. Regional tourism destinations

Regional tourism destinations are territorial units (Herrero-Prieto & Gomez-Vega, 2017), but they also could be considered tourism products, as consumers can recommend them and repurchase them (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Every tourism destination is unique and can be differentiated by its personality (Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007) and its image (Chen & Phou, 2013). According to Sack (1992), places (destinations) are related to attitudes, values, and beliefs. In fact, previous researchers have found evidence that tourist behaviours vary depending on the destination (Chen & Phou, 2013; Zhang et al., 2014), even if destinations are located in the same country (Huang et al., 2018; Kozak, 2002; Reitsamer et al., 2016).

For example, the characteristics of destinations have been shown to affect tourist behaviour (Chen & Phou, 2013), tourist loyalty (Zhang et al., 2014), tourist satisfaction and intention to recommend [an action related to engagement] (Prayag et al., 2017), revisit intention (Stylos, Bellou, Andronikidis, & Vassiliadis, 2017; Zhang et al., 2018), and destination attachment (Reitsamer et al., 2016). According to Kozak (2002), tourist motives differ between destinations. Online behaviour depending on the tourism destination (Huang et al., 2018).

Mariani, Di Felice, and Mura (2016) explored how Italian DMOs strategically employed Facebook to promote their destinations. They found that specific destinations have a positive impact on engagement. Uşaklı, Koç, and Sönmez (2017) explored how European DMOs used social media to market their destinations. According to these researchers, there is a relationship between tourist arrivals in destinations (at a national level) and engagement. Their data showed that higher tourist arrivals are associated with higher engagement. More recently, Önder et al. (2019) affirmed that there is a relationship between tourist arrivals (destination demand) and engagement at an aggregate level.

Most tourism motivation studies are conducted in a specific tourism destination (Kim et al., 2003). However, no research in high impact journals was found that assessed the relationship between Spain's regional tourism destinations and engagement. Considering previous findings, however, we theorise that different destination profiles will generate different behaviours in terms of engagement. Consequently, we posit:

H3. Regional tourism destinations with higher tourist arrivals (massive destinations) predict higher levels of: (a) positive engagement, (b)

positive popularity, (c) positive commitment and (d) positive virality; (e) negative engagement, (f) negative popularity, (g) negative commitment, and (h) negative virality

3. Method

This is a non-experimental and ex-post-facto field research (Kerlinger, 1973; Simon & Goes, 2013) which seeks to find an explanatory relationship between the variables. Due to the objective pursued by this research, and due to the scales of the variables studied, the data was analysed with regression analyses with optimal scaling (CATREG), and a *p-value < 0.05* was used as the criterion for statistical significance. The CATREG algorithm was developed by the Data Theory Scaling System Group (DTSS) (Kircher & Lutzhoft, 2011), and has been used successfully in preceding research in the field of tourism (Almeida & Garrod, 2016; Koutsouris, Gidarakou, Grava, & Michailidis, 2014).

3.1. Data

To verify the stated hypotheses, a content analysis was carried out on Brand Spain's official Facebook fanpage, Info.Spain. According to the Spain Convention Bureau (n.d.), Brand Spain is the second leading tourism brand in the world. Recently, Spain was recognised as the most competitive country in the world tourism market in the Global Tourism & Travel Competitiveness Index 2017 (Crotti & Misrahi, 2017). The selected fanpage is managed by the Spanish National Tourism Office.

Every post about tourism destinations published in 2017 (from January 1 to December 31) was collected, along with every comment generated by each post, all reaction data and the number of times a post was shared. Data was collected manually during the second quarter of 2018. According to some researchers (Sabate et al., 2014), at this date there was no possibility that new interactions would change the data: there were just extracted public data and organic posts.

3.2. Variables

Based on the findings of recent literature, travel motives and tourism destination profiles were considered as independent variables. The dependent variables were positive/negative engagement and its dimensions (positive/negative popularity, positive/negative commitment, positive/negative virality). Travel motives were measured according to the methodology proposed by Yoon and Uysal (2005). Tourism destinations were classified according to their demand with the data from INE (Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), 2019). Finally, positive/negative engagement was measured according to the methodology proposed by Villamediana-Pedrosa et al. (2018). Table 3 shows details about the measurement of each variable.

In order to measure the push and pull motives, this study utilizes the methodology proposed by Yoon and Uysal (2005). According to these authors, the push motivation construct consists of 24 items, while the pull motivation construct consists of 28 items. As reported by Yoon and Uysal (2005), the results of an Exploratory Factorial Analysis have determined 8 significantly correlated factors to measure the push motives, and 10 significantly correlated factors to measure the pull motives (see Table 5). It is worth mentioning that the target population selected by Yoon and Uysal (2005) were in the Mediterranean region. This is one of the reasons why Yoon and Uysal's methodology was considered useful for this study.

3.3. Content analysis

The data collected was classified into analytical units and coded categories according to typologies and methodologies suggested by previous studies (Table 3) (see Tables 4 and 5). Every post was classified according to the 18 factors of travel motives found by Yoon and Uysal (2005), and according to the tourism destination mentioned. While every interaction (reactions and comments) was classified as positive or negative valence. In every comment, text was analysed as well as visual content (emoticons).

To classify comments into negative or positive valence, a codebook was created. This codebook was tested and considered suitable for the analysis (Cohen's kappa = 0.919, 95% confidence interval: from 0.890 to 0.948). To reduce mistakes in coding, the final variables were coded by the same researcher.

4. Results

In order to reach the research objective, the data from Brand Spain's official Facebook fanpage was classified and evaluated using a content

Table 3
Measurement of independent and dependent variables on the study.
Source: own development

Independent variables	Metric	Variable scale
Travel motives		
Push motivations	Posts that include push motivations, categorized according to Yoon and Uysal (2005): Exciting, knowledge/education, relaxation, achievement, family togetherness, escape, safety/fun, away from home and seeing.	Nominal
Pull motivations	Posts that include pull motivations, categorized according to Yoon and Uysal (2005): Modern atmospheres & activities, wide space and activities, small size and reliable wheather, natural scenery, different culture, cleanness & shopping, night life and local cuisine, interesting town and village, water activities.	Nominal
Regional tourism destinations		
Destinations	Regional tourism destinations in Span, categorized according to the tourists demand by INE (2019): Canary Islands, Catalonia, Andalusia, Madrid, Others, Valencia, Balaric Islands.	Nominal/Ordinal
Dependent variables	**Metrics**	**Variable scale**
Positive/negative Engagement	Index of positive/negative engagement, according to the methodology proposed by Villamediana-Pedrosa et al. (2018).	Interval-ratio
Positive/Negative Popularity	Average per thousand fans of positive/negative reactions to Facebook posts, measured according to the methodology proposed by Villamediana-Pedrosa et al. (2018).	Interval-ratio
Positive/Negative Commitment	Average per thousand fans of positive/negative comments in Facebook posts, measured according to the methodology proposed by Villamediana-Pedrosa et al. (2018).	Interval-ratio
Positive/Negative Virality	Average per thousand fans of the number of times a publication has been shared, adjusted according to the values of positive/negative popularity and commitment, measured according to the methodology proposed by Villamediana-Pedrosa et al. (2018).	Interval-ratio

Table 4
Factors to measure push and pull motives by Yoon and Uysal (2005).
Source: Factors and indicators were taken by Yoon and Uysal (2005).

Push motives	
Factors	Indicators
Exciting	Being physically active
	Meeting people of opposite sex
	Finding thrills and excitement Rediscovering myself
Knowledge/education	Experiencing new/different lifestyles Trying new food
	Visiting historical places
	Meeting new people
	Being free to act how I feel
Relaxation	Doing nothing at all
	Getting a change from a busy job
Achievement	Going places friends have not been Talking about the trip Rediscovering past good times
Family togetherness	Visiting places my family came from Visiting friends and relatives
	Being together as a family
Escape	Getting away from the demands at home Experiencing a simpler lifestyle
Safety/fun	Feeling safe and secure
	Being entertained and having fun Adventure of reduced air fares
Away from home and seeing	Feeling at home away from home Seeing as much as possible

Pull motives	
Factors	Indicators
Modern atmospheres & activities	Modern cities
	Exotic atmosphere
	Casino and gambling
	Live theatres/concerts
	First class hotels
Wide space & activities	Budget accommodation
	Wide spaces to get away from crowds Variety of activities to see
Small size & reliable weather	Manageable size
	Reliable weather
	Personal safety
Natural scenery	Outstanding scenery
	Mountainous areas
Inexpensive restaurants & Tennis	Inexpensive restaurants
	Tennis
Different culture	Quality beach
	Interesting and friendly local people Different culture
	Historic old cities
Cleanness & shopping	Cleanness
	Shopping
	Reliance/privacy
Night life & local cuisine	Night life and entertainment
	Local cuisine
Interesting town & village	Interesting town/village
	High quality restaurants
Water activities	Seaside
	Water sports

analysis. In total, 418 posts were analysed, as well as every interaction received by posts (127,750 reactions and 3219 comments). These posts were shared 33,052 times by their audiences.

Appendix A shows the frequencies and percentages for the three predictive variables — push motivations, pull motivations, and regional tourism destination profiles — according to their demand. It also shows the means and standard deviations for positive/negative engagement and its dimensions (popularity, commitment and virality).

- The most used **push motivators** in posts were 'knowledge/education' and 'away from home and seeing'. The tourist destinations using these motives seemed to look to attract tourists that are principally interested in experiencing new things, trying different lifestyles, trying new food, visiting historical places, meeting new people and seeing as much as possible (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).
- The most used **pull motivators** in posts were 'interesting town & village' and 'different culture'. The tourist destinations using these

Table 5
Empirical studies that support the hypothesis H3 (Regional tourism destinations/engagement).
Source: own development.

Previous studies data in the tourism field		Evidence of influence of leisure & travel motives (push/pull factors)			
Author (Year)	Context	*Engagement*	Popularity	Commitmant	Virality
Mariani et al. (2016)	Italian DMOs	X			
Uşaklı et al. (2017)	European DMOs	X			

Table 6
Regression analyses.

	Regression 1 Positive Engagement				Regression 2 Positive Popularity				Regression 3 Positive Commitment				Regression 4 Positive Virality			
	β	e	F	I	β	e	F	I	β	e	F	I	β	e	F	I
Travel motives																
Push motivations	.189	.041	21.684**	.227	.224	.039	33.787**	.329	.106	.036	8.635**	.072	.098	.041	5.612**	.089
Pull motivations	.232	.049	22.436**	.356	.202	.051	15.950**	.291	.182	.046	15.460**	.295	.169	.049	11.696**	.315
Regional tourism destinations																
Tourism destinations	.256	.046	30.635**	.417[1]	.239	.047	25.961**	.380[1]	.262	.050	27.960**	.632[1]	.242	.044	29.791**	.596[1]
	Regression 5 Negative Engagement				Regression 6 Negative Popularity				Regression 7 Negative Commitment				Regression 8 Negative Virality			
	β	e	F	I	β	e	F	I	β	e	F	I	β	e	F	I
Travel motives																
Push motivations	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.103	.029	12.179**	1.00[1]	–	–	–	–
Pull motivations	–	–	–	–	.203	.059	11.861**	.590[1]	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Regional tourism destinations																
Tourism destinations	.141	.046	9.586**	1.00[1]	.175	.059	8.885**	.409	–	–	–	–	.128	.044	8.689**	1.00[1]
R	.395			.391	.331			.325	.141			.241	.128			.103
R2	.156			.153	.109			.106	.020			.058	.017			.011
R2 adjusted	.114			.111	.064			.061	.006			.026	.002			.004
Prediction error	.844			.847	.891			.894	.980			.942	.983			.989
F (ANOVA)	3.675**			3.593**	2.437**			2.343**	1.390			1.783*	1.150			.730

** p-value<0.01; *p-value<0.05.

For Positive Engagement and its dimensions, liberty grades are 20/397 at the Anova models; and they are 6, 8, and 6 at the coefficient results.

For Negative Engagement, Negative Commitment, and Negative Virality, liberty grades are 6/411 at the Anova models, and they are 6 at the coefficient results.

For Negative Popularity, liberty grades are 14/403 at the Anova model, and they are 6 and 8 at the coefficient results.

β = Beta coefficients.

e = Estimation typical error.

F = F-statistic value.

I = Relative Importance (Pratt's measures).

– = In order to improve fit models, these variables were extracted during the *Stepwise* technique.

1 = Indicate which is the most importance predictor in the model.

Table 7
Hypothesis tests.

Predictors	Sub- hypotheses							
	Positive Engagement				Negative Engagement			
	Positive engagement	Positive popularity	Positive commitment	Positive virality	Negative engagement	Negative popularity	Negative commitment	Negative virality
Push motivations H1	1a) Accepted	1b) Accepted	1c) Accepted	1d) Accepted	1e) Rejected	1f) Rejected	1g) Rejected	1h) Rejected
Pull motivations H2	2a) Accepted	2b) Accepted	2c) Accepted	2d) Accepted	2e) Rejected	2f) Accepted	2g) Rejected	2h) Rejected
Destinations H3	3a) Rejected	3b) Rejected	3c) Rejected	1d) Rejected	3e) Rejected	3f) Rejected	3g) Rejected	3h) Rejected

motives seemed to try to highlight the diversity of towns and villages available for tourists in Spain, as well as the friendly local people, the possibility of knowledge and experiencing different cultures in every destination, and the excitement of visiting historic old places (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

- Comparing different tourism destination profiles, we can see that 45.7% of posts promoted lower tourist demand destinations (classified as others), and 18.7% promoted places in Andalusia. In general, it can be affirmed that the lower demand tourism destinations focused on increasing tourist demands for non-traditional places in Spain.

Our data reveals that positive engagement is much higher ($\overline{\chi}$ = .2225) than negative engagement ($\overline{\chi}$ = .0009). To test hypotheses, eight regression analyses with optimal scaling models (CATREG) were run, one for each dependent variable. Statistical assumptions and the intercorrelations among the predictor variables were checked (see Appendix B). It was found that the regression analysis with optimal scaling was a method suitable for analysing the collected data. Following previous research, the backward stepwise method was used to increase model fit (Almeida & Garrod, 2016; Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2018). A statistical significance level of p-value <0.05 (α) and a 95% confidence interval were considered to contrast the hypotheses.

According to results, our three predictive variables (push motives, pull motives and tourism destination profile) influence positive engagement, but they do not influence negative engagement (they influence on only one dimension of negative engagement: negative popularity). In total, five of the eight regression models were statistically significant. Every regression model is explained below (see Tables 6 and 7).

In general, the results were interpreted considering that the relationships between predictors and response variables are nonlinear (see transformation graphs in Appendix C). The evaluation of standardised coefficients of every regression model (Table 6), and the examination of the means (see Appendix D) have permitted acceptance or rejection of the specific hypotheses in the study. In total, nine of the 24 specific hypotheses were confirmed. The findings are explained below.

First, the data reveals that the use of **push internal motivators** (such as 'away from home and seeing', and 'knowledge/education') predict a higher level of positive engagement (F = 21.684**), positive popularity (F = 33.787**), positive commitment (F = 8.635**), and positive virality (F = 5.612**). Consequently, **the four sub-hypotheses concerning positive engagement and its dimensions should be accepted:H_{1a}, H_{1b}, H_{1c} and H_{1d}.** This result suggests that internal motivators (like the desire for experiencing something new, experiencing different lifestyles, trying new food, visiting historical places, meeting new people and seeing as much as possible) drive tourists to engage more with the DMO. With respect to negative engagement and its dimensions, the results show that push motivations do not predict higher levels of negative engagement, negative popularity, negative commitment and negative virality. This means that H_{1e}, H_{1f}, H_{1g} and H_{1h} **should be rejected,** respectively.

Second, the use of **pull external motivators** (such as 'modern atmospheres & activities', and 'different culture') predict a higher level of positive engagement (F = 22.436**), positive popularity (F = 15.950**), positive commitment (F = 15.460**), and positive virality (F = 11.696**). Consequently, **the four sub-hypotheses concerning positive engagement and its dimensions should be accepted: H_{2a}, H_{2b}, H_{2c} and H_{2d}.** External motivators related to destination attributes (the offer of modern cities to visit; exotic atmospheres in destinations; fairs, events and live activities; friendly local people; the opportunity to experience different cultures; and historic old cities and places) generated more tourist engagement with destinations. Regarding negative engagement and its dimensions, the results show that external pull motivations will not predict negative engagement, negative commitment and negative virality. This means that H_{2e}, H_{2g} and H_{2h} **should be rejected,** respectively. Only one of the dimensions, 'negative popularity', obtained significant values. More specifically, the use of pull external motivators (such as 'modern atmospheres & activities' and 'night life & local cuisine') predicted a higher level of negative popularity (F = 11.861**). Therefore, **the sub-hypotheses H_{2f}, could be accepted.**

Third, regarding **tourism destination profiles**, the data shows that engagement is higher on specific destinations. It means that tourism destinations predict engagement (this relationship is statistically highly significant). However, the link between destinations and engagement does not depend on the tourist demand in destinations. In other words, higher demand destinations are not related with higher engagement as was expected. Thus, the relationship between variables is nonlinear. Therefore, H3 should be rejected (H_{3a}, H_{3b}, H_{3c}, H_{3d} **are rejected)**. In fact, the data show that two minority destinations, Valencia and Andalusia, predict a higher level of positive engagement (F = 30.635**), positive popularity (F = 25.961**) and positive commitment (F = 27.960**). Also, Valencia and Madrid predict a higher level of positive virality (F = 29.791**). In sum, there is no evidence that supports the statement that regional tourism destinations with higher tourist arrivals predict higher levels of positive engagement and its dimensions. Therefore, although a relationship between tourist destinations and engagement has been identified, this link is not generated by tourism demand.

The same occurs for negative engagement and its dimensions. On the one hand, tourism destination profiles (higher arrival destinations) will not help to predict higher levels of negative engagement, negative commitment and negative virality. Therefore H_{3e}, H_{3f}, H_{3g} and H_{3h} **are also rejected.** On the other hand, some of the lower demand destinations (such as Valencia, Madrid and others) predict a higher level of negative popularity (F = 8.885**). In detail, it was observed that posts (classified as 'modern atmospheres & activities', and 'night life & local cuisine') related to events like San Fermin (Navarra) and WorldPride (Madrid) have presented more negative popularity. Thus, some pull external motivators (specific activities/festivals) could encourage negative popularity. In general, despite that there is a nonlinear relationship, some destinations with lower tourist arrivals produced more negative popularity (i.e. Madrid).

Table 8
Regional tourism destinations ranking.

Destination	Rank position					
	Tourist demand	Positive engagement	Positive popularity	Positive commitment	Positive virality	Negative popularity
Catalonia	**1**	4	3	3	5	5
Canary Islands	**2**	7	7	7	7	3
Balearic Islands	3	6	6	6	6	5
Andalusia	4	**2**	**2**	**2**	3	5
Valencia (com.)	5	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**
Others	6	5	5	5	4	4
Madrid (com.)	7	3	4	4	**2**	**2**

5. Discussion, implications, limitations and future research lines

This section turns to interpreting and describing the significance of the findings of this study in the light of what is known in the literature about the relationship between travel motives, tourism destinations and engagement.

According to the results, positive engagement is higher that negative engagement. This finding is consistent with the statement of Van Doorn et al. (2010), who affirmed that engagement is predominantly positive.

With respect to push internal motivators, it was found that they predict positive engagement and its dimensions. This finding is consistent with conclusions reported by Fan and Hsu (2014), Lee et al. (2017), and Park et al. (2016), who recognised the influence of push motivations on positive engagement or its dimensions. The results especially coincide with Lee et al. (2017), who affirmed that the desire of experiencing new things in tourists (a push motivation that it is called novelty) could induce positive virality. With respect to negative engagement and its dimensions, the results presented here show that push motivations do not predict higher levels of negative engagement, negative popularity, negative commitment and negative virality.

It was found, however, that push external motivators predict positive engagement and its dimensions. These results are quite similar to those presented by Prayag (2012), who found that cultural attractions could generate positive engagement. This finding is also consistent with the results given by Fan and Hsu (2014). In general, results reveal that cultural heritage and historical places contribute to engage tourists. This means that cultural resources are very important for marketing destinations. As Crotti and Misrahi (2017) declared, Spain's success in the tourism market can be attributed to its offer of cultural resources. Consequently, a recommendation to DMOs is to emphasise cultural components in the tourism destination offer (Pyo, Mihalik, & Uysal, 1989).

It was observed that some posts related to some kind of events have presented more negative popularity. In general, these events were considered controversial by a part of the audience. Taking this finding into account, it is suggested that DMOs avoid polemical issues in posting.

As previously mentioned, engagement is higher on specific destinations, but the relationship between destinations and engagement does not depend on the tourist demand in destinations as was expected. These results are consistent with those reported by Mariani et al. (2016). Mariani et al. (2016) have studied how Italian DMOs use Facebook strategically to promote their destinations. These authors have discovered that some specific destinations, although minority, can impact positively on engagement. In the same way, the fact that there is a significant relationship between the tourism destination profile and engagement coincides with some approaches of previous researchers (Uşaklı et al., 2017; Önder et al., 2019). However, findings are opposite to what was expected. Regional tourism destinations with higher tourist arrivals do not generate more positive engagement or its dimensions

(see Table 8). A possible explanation would be the influence of other variables that could intervene in the relationship. The destinations with higher tourist demand are mainly beach destinations (see Table 1). Examining the data in detail, it is observed that the posts about beach destinations were principally published in the summer months. As previous researchers have explained, seasonality influences on engagement, and summer months predict lower engagement (Villamediana et al., 2019). It is possible that beach destinations show lower engagement due to the seasonality of when they have been published. Therefore, it is suggested to increase posts about beach destinations during the first semester of the year. Another possible explanation could be the direction of the relationship. It is possible that the relationship could be inverse (Zhang et al., 2018). In other words, engagement could be influencing tourist demand. González-Rodríguez, Martínez-Torres, and Toral (2016) affirmed that the demand on tourist destinations is increasingly affected by travel-related information available on the Internet because it influences the travel decision.

Finally, it could be affirmed that findings support the statement that understanding push and pull motivations is necessary to successfully market tourism destinations (Oh et al., 1995; Yuan & McDonald, 1990). Results have shown that the variables evaluated predominantly influence positive engagement and its dimensions, and that the variables that predict positive engagement do not necessarily predict negative engagement. This means that negative engagement should continue to be studied to understand what factors predict it.

In general, these results have provided some useful theorical and practical implications. First, regarding to theorical implications, it was found that factors that predict positive engagement do not necessarily predict negative engagement. It means that positive and negative engagement seem to behave differently, as Villamediana et al. (2019) have mentioned recently. The empirical data analysed have shown that it is important to study both constructs separately, and to understand the differences between both concepts. Researchers should continue paying attention to negative engagement and look for the factors that cause it.

The results have helped not only to understand better the differences between positive and negative engagement but to understand the relationship between push and pull motives, tourism destination profiles and positive/negative engagement. In general, these findings demonstrate the usefulness of pull-external motivations to increase tourist engagement and to successfully promote tourism destinations. According to the regression analyses, specific destinations are the best predictor of positive engagement, followed by tourism destination tangibles (pull-external motives). As mentioned, pull motives are also called destination attributes in the literature.

Other major findings of this study have significant managerial implications. First, results have shown that practitioners should consider not only positive engagement indicators but negative engagement indicators in their marketing strategies. Second, since destination management should promote attributes that best match tourist motivations (Kozak, 2002), the findings provide valuable information for market

destinations. For instance, the results identify characteristics that contribute to defining a psychographic profile of tourists. It is possible that tourists interested in visiting Spain were attracted by the offer of modern cities to visit; the exotic atmospheres in destinations; the fairs, events and live activities; the friendly local people; the opportunity to experience different cultures; and the historic old cities and places. Third, understanding push and pull motivations of tourists could also help destination managers to enhance visitor satisfaction and encourage repeat visitation (Kim et al., 2003). Considering the results, it is suggested that the attributes of tourist destinations be considered a priority in a marketing strategy for the Brand Spain brand, especially those attributes related to the historical and cultural heritage in Spain.

Meanwhile it can be affirmed that there is a huge tourism potential in regions like Valencia and Andalusia. Despite the fact they are not the most visited destinations in Spain, they engage tourists more than other destinations. Consequently, we suggest improving Spanish destination marketing strategies to exploit the potential of lower demand tourism destines, such as Valencia and Andalusia.

Finally, the findings are useful to differentiate Spanish destinations from competitors (Murphy et al., 2007). As every destination is different, the marketing strategy to promote each destination should be different and consider the unique characteristics of each destination.

5.1. Limitationsand future research directions

In order to avoid methodological and statistical mistakes, the data was carefully collected, coded and evaluated. These results are valid and can be replicated by other researchers, but, as with other studies, the present research has a few limitations. First, the hypotheses were contrasted in a specific setting (Spain), and the findings should not be generalised to populations with different characteristics from the one studied. Evaluation of the proposed hypotheses in other contexts is therefore needed. Replication in other settings will contribute to the understanding of positive and negative engagement and its complex relationships. It would be interesting to compare the obtained results with those of new replicated studies in other countries. Second, the models obtained have presented low percentages of explained variance. This means that positive and negative engagement are also explained by other variables. The influence of other variables on engagement could be analysed in the future. For example, it would be interesting to evaluate the effect of cognitive image destinations and previous experience with destinations (Llodra-Riera, Martínez-Ruiz, Jiménez-Zarco, & Izquierdo-Yusta, 2015). In addition, new studies could examine the relationship between engagement and intention to visit destinations, engagement and tourist demand, push/pull motivations and visit and revisit destinations.

It was observed, meanwhile. that Facebook offers more opportunities to manifest positive popularity than negative popularity. There are four emojis for positive popularity versus two emojis for negative. This do not occur in the case of commitment. There are the same opportunities to manifest positive or negative commitment. Taking this into account, it is worth mentioning that, according to previous studies, it is normal that positive engagement is higher than negative engagement even if there are the same opportunities for both. We think that the more opportunities do not increment positive engagement. However, could be interesting to test the influence of emojis and user interface on positive and negative engagement on social media in future experimental studies.

6. Conclusions

The aim of this research was to investigate the influence of travel motives and regional tourism destinations on positive/negative engagement with a destination management organisation. The empirical results of this study provide evidence that supports some sub-hypotheses, mainly those related to positive engagement dimensions. In total, nine sub-hypotheses were accepted, and 15 were rejected. This research confirms the existence of a relationship between the positive engagement dimensions and the three predictive variables: push and pull motivations and regional tourism destinations. Meanwhile, this study confirms the existence of a relationship between the negative popularity and the two predictive variables: pull motivations and regional tourism destinations.

The main conclusions of this paper are as follows. First, specific destinations are the best predictor of positive engagement and its dimensions. However, destinations with more tourism demand do not predict higher positive engagement with a DMO.

Second, the mainly internal and external motivations that help tourists to engage with destinations have been identified. The regression analyses indicated that tourists that follow the Brand Spain Facebook fanpage are principally motivated by 'push-internal' motives (such as 'experiencing new', 'want to taste new food', 'visiting historical places', 'being in beautiful and attractive places for seeing') and 'pull-external' motives (such as 'meeting new friendly people', 'discover ancient cultures and historic old cities', 'enjoy modern cities', 'events and life activities' and 'visiting interesting towns and villages').

Third, it was found that pull-external motives (such as 'historic and cultural heritage') are very important to engage tourists and to promote Spanish destinations. In fact, pull motives are the second-best predictor of positive engagement and its dimensions. In general, the opportunity to experience ancient cultures and being in old historical cities are strong drivers of positive engagement. The results have shown the relevance of pull motives to increment positive engagement.

Fourth, according to results the factors that predict positive engagement do not predict negative engagement. In fact, some of the variables analysed are just useful to predict negative popularity. The best predictor of the negative popularity are the pull motives. This means that researchers and practitioners should continue to study negative engagement and look for the factors that cause it.

Fifth, the findings provide information about the psychographic profile of tourists interested in visiting Spain. In general, these tourists seem to be attracted by the modern cities, the local people, and historical and cultural heritage. These insights are useful to promote and differentiate Spanish destinations from competitors.

Some recommendations can be extracted from the findings. For example, the empirical data shows that it is a good idea to promote specific events, fairs and live activities. As previous researchers have explained (Uşaklı et al., 2017), promoting (and posting) should also focus more on specific destinations than the entire country. Meanwhile, negative engagement should be considered a valuable indicator for destination managers. This paper suggests that practitioners should measure negative engagement in social networks as well as positive engagement.

Appendix E. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2020.100412.

Appendix A

Descriptive statistics.
Frequencies and descriptive statistics.

Independent Variables	Frequencies	Percentage
Travel motives		
Push motivations		
Exciting	47	11.2%
Knowledge/education	174	41.6%
Relaxation	43	10.3%
Family togetherness	8	1.9%
Escape	17	4.1%
Safety/fun	28	6.7%
Away from home and Seeing	101	24.2%
Pull motivations		
Modern atmospheres & activities	47	11.2%
Wide space & activities	41	9.8%
Small size & reliable wheather	8	1.9%
Natural scenery	62	14.8%
Different culture	82	19.6%
Cleanness & shopping	2	0.5%
Night life & local cuisine	29	6.9%
Interesting town & village	97	23.2%
Water activities	50	12.0
Regional tourism destinations		
Destinations		
Canary islands	35	8.4%
Catalonia	30	7.2%
Andalusia	78	18.7%
Madrid	30	7.2%
Others	191	45.7%
Valencia	27	6.5%
Balaric islands	27	6.5%

Dependent variables

	M	SD	Min.	Max.
Positive Engagement	.2225	.1831	.0114	1.3994
Positive popularity	.1744	.1205	.0091	.7841
Positive Commitment	.0043	.0050	.0000	.0410
Positive Virality	.0436	.0872	.0009	.9016
Negative Engagement	.0009	.0036	.0000	.0628
Negative Popularity	.0000	.0002	.0000	.0040
Negative Commitment	.0001	.0004	.0000	.0063
Negative Virality	.0007	.0032	.0000	.0566

Note: Own development. Results are from an exploratory analysis on SPSS 21. (*n = 418 posts;* 127,755 reactions on posts; and 3219 comments on posts). There were found no post that include achievement.

Appendix B

Intercorrelations among the predictors.
1. First regression (positive engagement) (*n = 418; predictors = 3*)

	Push motives	Pull motives	Regional destinations
Original variables			
Push motives	1.000	.090	-.013
Pull motives	.090	1.000	.082
Regional destinations	-.013	.082	1.000
Dimension	1	2	3

| Eigenvalues	1.116	1.013	.872
Transformed variables			
Push motives	1.000	.020	-.020
Pull motives	.020	1.000	.012
Regional destinations	-.020	.012	1.000
Dimension	1	2	3
Eigenvalues	1.024	1.012	.965

2. Second regression (positive popularity) ($n = 418$; *predictors* $= 3$)

Transformed variables	Push motives	Pull motives	Regional destinations
Push motives	1.000	.029	-.018
Pull motives	.029	1.000	.047
Regional destinations	-.018	.047	1.000
Dimension	1	2	3
Eigenvalues	1.049	1.016	.936

3. Third regression (positive commitment) ($n = 418$; *predictors* $= 3$)

Transformed variables	Push motives	Pull motives	Regional destinations
Push motives	1.000	-.118	-.035
Pull motives	-.118	1.000	.027
Regional destinations	-.035	.027	1.000
Dimension	1	2	3
Eigenvalues	1.132	.986	.882

4. Fourth regression (positive virality) ($n = 418$; *predictors* $= 3$)

Transformed variables	Push motives	Pull motives	Regional destinations
Push motives	1.000	.008	-.011
Pull motives	.008	1.000	.113
Regional destinations	-.011	.113	1.000
Dimension	1	2	3
Eigenvalues	1.113	1.002	.886

5. Sixth regression (negative popularity) ($n = 418$; *predictors* $= 2$)

| Transformed variables	Pull motivations	Regional destinations
Regional destinations	1.000	-.188
Pull motivations	-.188	1.000
Dimension	1	2
Eigenvalues	1.188	.812

Appendix C
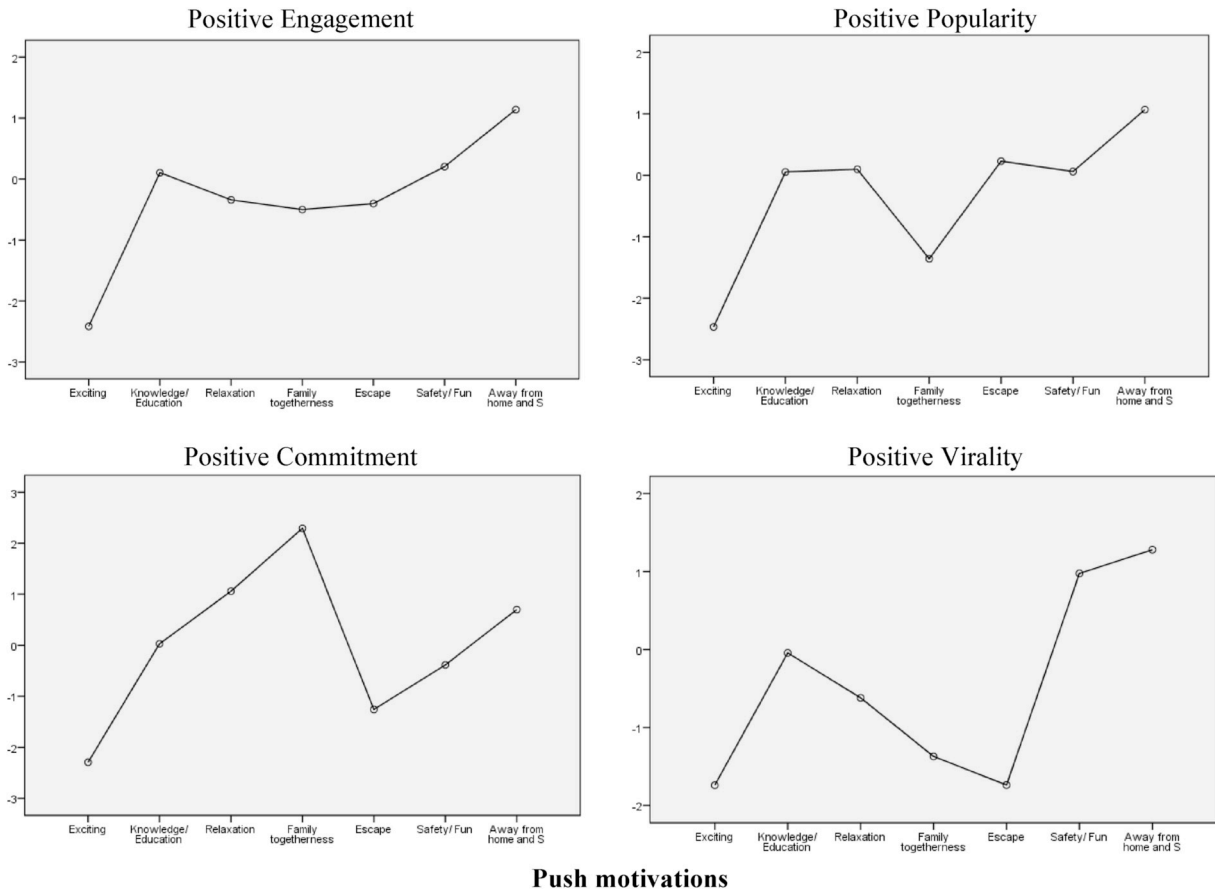
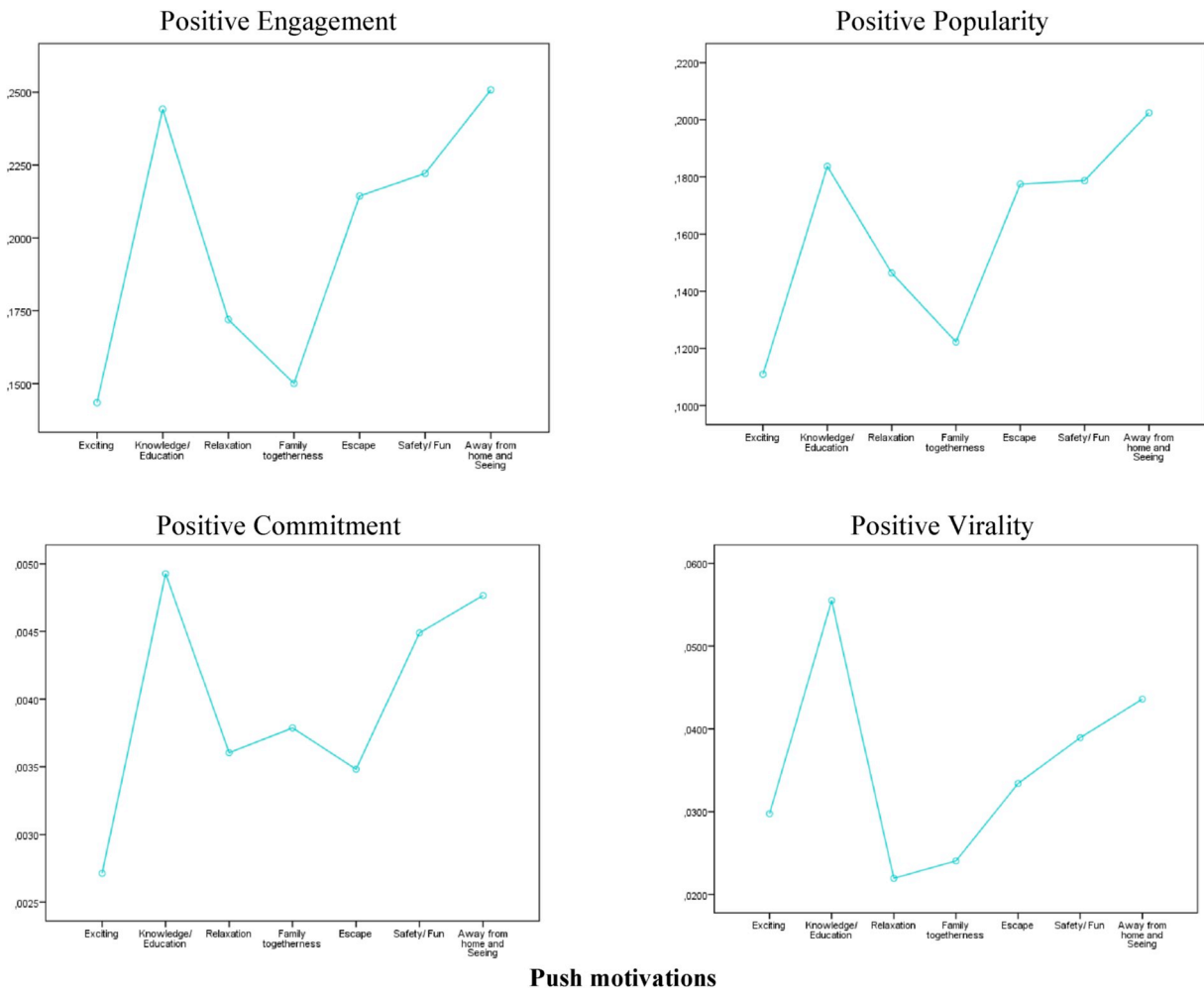**Push motivations**

Fig. 1. The graphs illustrate the transformed graphs of positive/negative engagement and its dimensions, categorized according to push motives. There are just statistically significant relationships represented on these graphs.
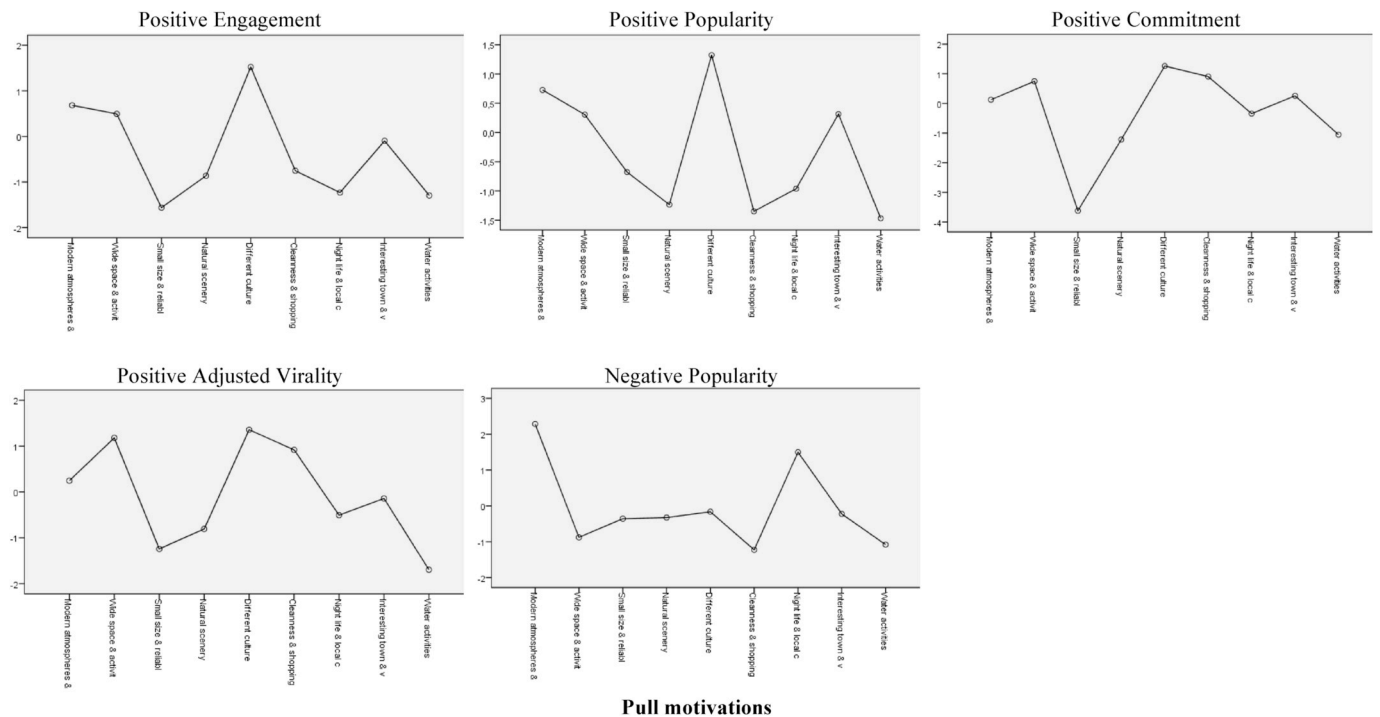
Pull motivations

Fig. 2. The graphs illustrate the transformed graphs of positive/negative engagement and its dimensions, categorized according to pull motives. There are just statistically significant relationships represented on these graphs.

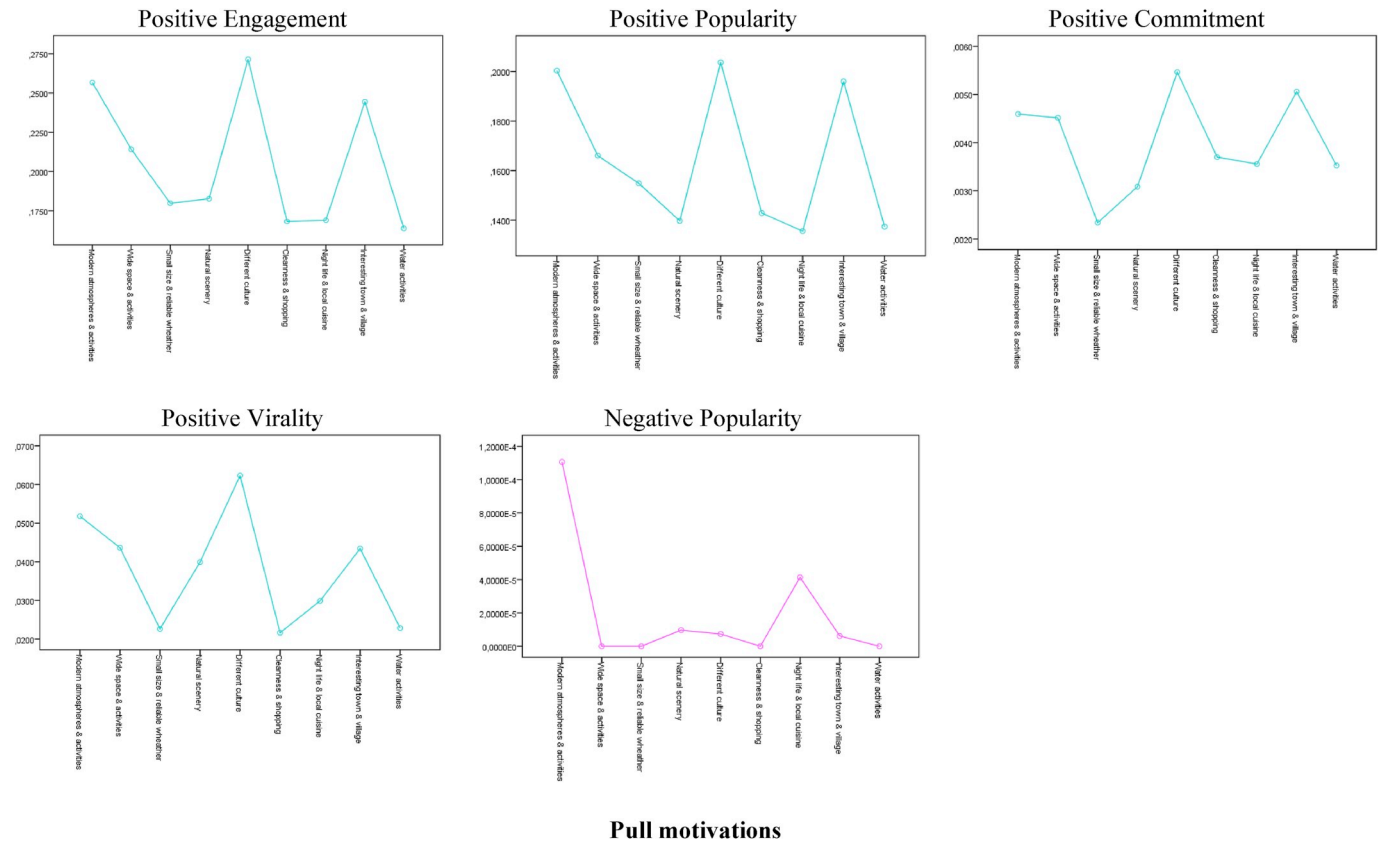**Tourism destination profiles**
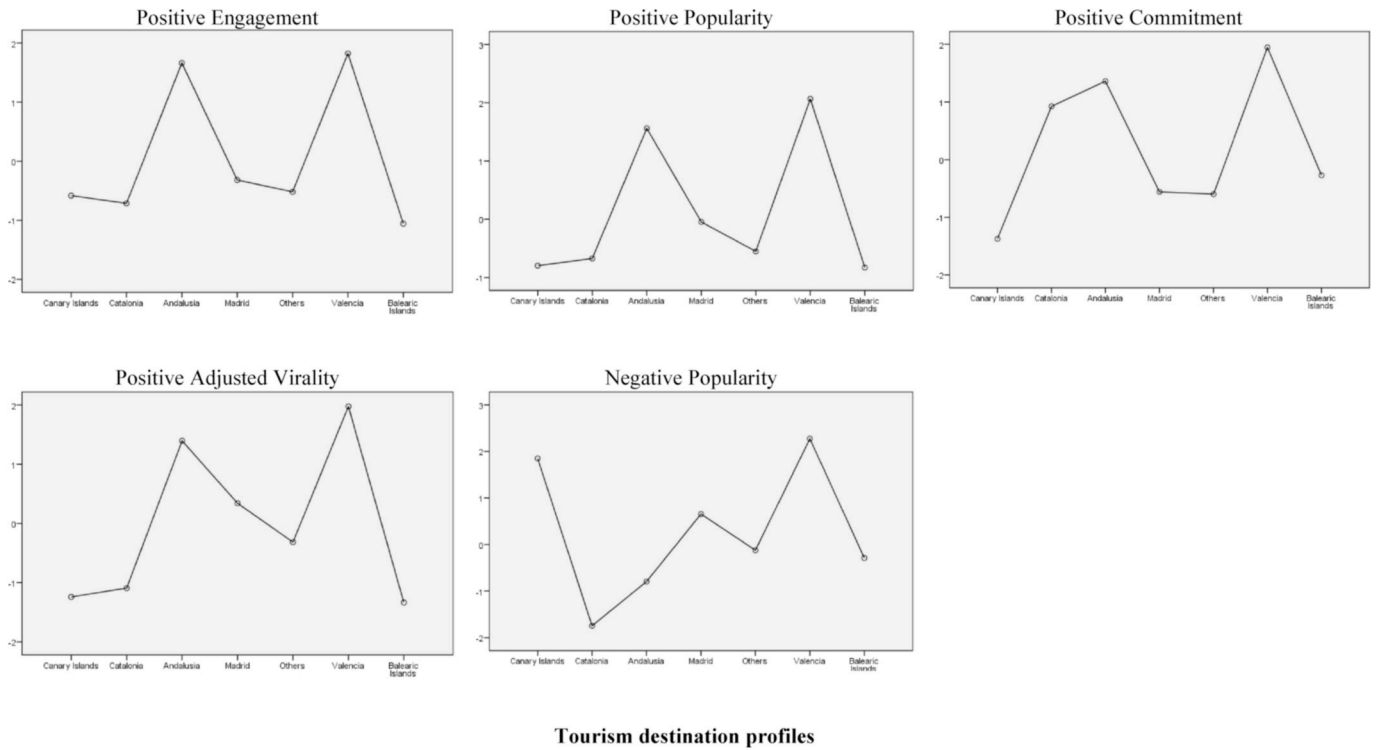
Fig. 3. The graphs illustrate the transformed graphs of positive/negative engagement and its dimensions, categorized according to tourism destination profiles. There are just statistically significant relationships represented on these graphs.

Appendix D

Push motivations

Fig. 4. The graphs illustrate the means of positive/negative engagement and its dimensions, categorized according to push motives. There are just statistically significant relationships represented on these graphs. 4
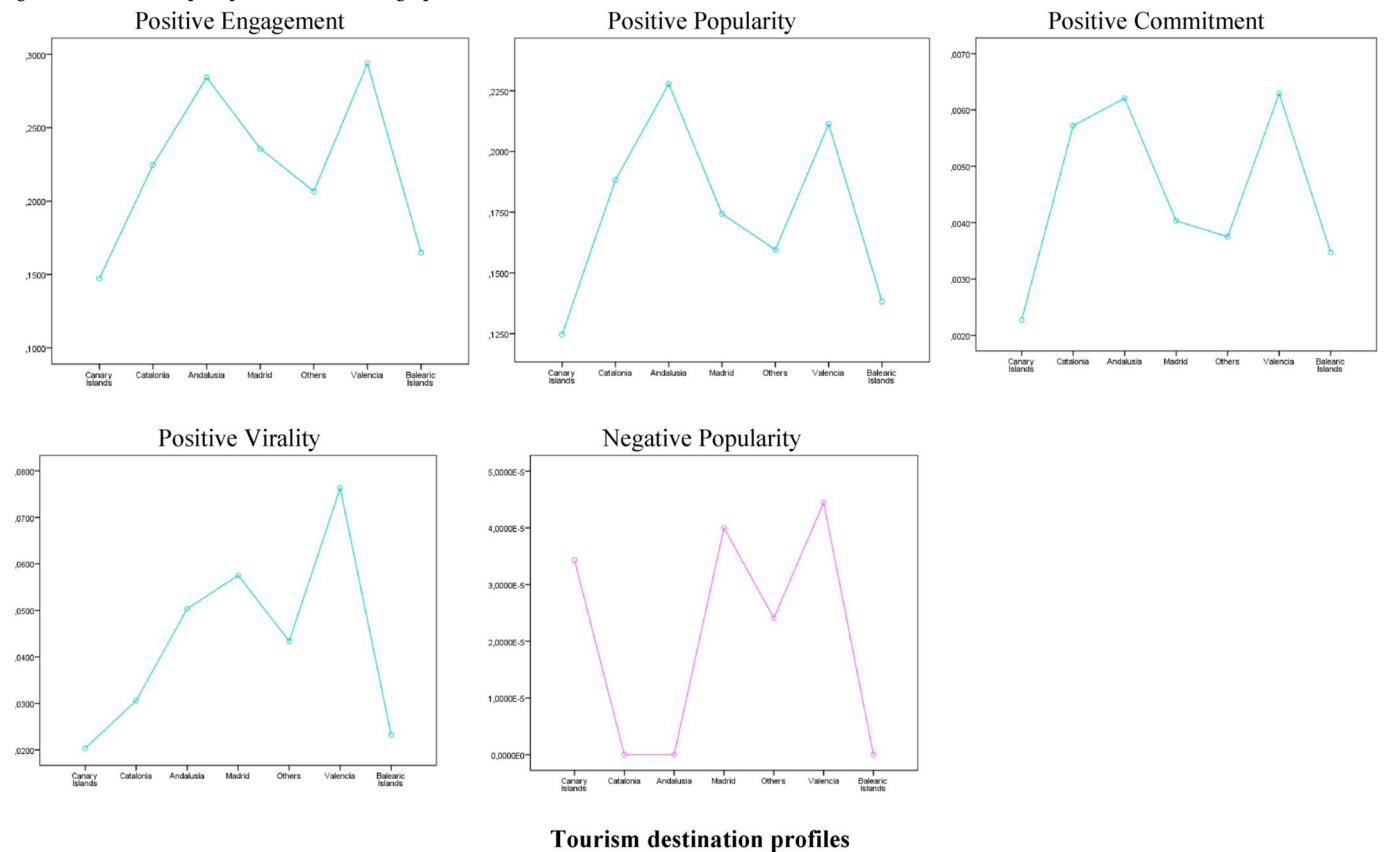
Pull motivations

Fig. 5. The graphs illustrate the means of positive/negative engagement and its dimensions, categorized according to pull motives. There are just statistically significant relationships represented on these graphs. 5

Tourism destination profiles

Fig. 6. The graphs illustrate the means of positive/negative engagement and its dimensions, categorized according to tourism destination profiles. There are just statistically significant relationships represented on these gra. 6

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