

Destination Image and Intent to Visit China and the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games

Heather J. Gibson, Christine Xueqing Qi, and James J. Zhang

University of Florida

Although there is growing awareness of the relationship between hosting mega-sporting-events and destination image, there is little empirical evidence documenting what images people hold before an event. The purpose of this study was to investigate the images young Americans hold of China both as a tourist destination and as the host of the 2008 Olympic Games. Specifically, the relationships among destination image, travel intentions, and tourist characteristics were explored. A total of 350 college students were surveyed before the close of the Athens Olympic Games. Overall, the respondents perceived China and the Beijing Olympic Games positively. Destination image was significantly ($p < .05$) predictive of the intention to travel to China and the Olympic Games. Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that destination image partially mediated the relationship between past international travel experience and intention to travel. The theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed with a view to promoting China as a tourist destination and the host of the Olympic Games.

As the global competition for prominence among countries has intensified, there has been a growing awareness of the potentially significant impact that hosting mega events such as the Olympic Games can have on a country's image, particularly through the media coverage that these events receive (Chalip, Green, & Hill, 2003; Essex & Chalkley, 1998; Ritchie, 1984). As Essex and Chalkley explained, "in the modern global economy in which major world cities compete for investment, the Olympic Games represent a unique publicity platform and opportunity for place marketing" (p. 201). Indeed, it was hoped that Australia through hosting the 2000 Games in Sydney could substitute the pervasive "Crocodile Dundee image and project an image of a diverse and modern country with a unique look and feel" (Chalip & Green, 2001, p. 2). Similarly, Greece through hosting the 2004 Games in Athens hoped to project an image of a modern and efficient country (BBC World News, 2004). In a relatively newer development on this theme, South African Tourism used the 2006 U.S. Open Tennis Tournament in New York to raise awareness of their country as a potential tourist destination among tennis fans by strategically locating promotional materials in the subways and on the buses serving the Flushing Meadows complex (ETN Travel Industry Deals, 2006).

Gibson, Qi, and Zhang are with the Department of Tourism, Recreation, and Sport Management, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-8208.

Destination image has been a topic of study and debate in the tourism literature for the past 20 years. Much of the attention accorded to this topic is because of the importance of destination image to tourism development in a locale (Chon, 1990; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1993; Smith, 2001). Hall (1989a) suggested that hallmark and mega events can act as image-builders for modern tourism as their primary function is to provide the host community with an opportunity to secure high prominence in the tourism marketplace (Brown, Chalip, Jago, & Mules, 2004; Hall, 1989b; Kim & Chalip, 2004; Roche, 1994). Furthermore, according to Fakeye and Crompton, the images potential tourists hold of a destination are related to their visitation patterns; as such, image is a central factor in understanding tourists' destination choice processes (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gartner, 1993; Jenkins, 1999; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989).

Although destination image has been a research focus in the Western travel literature, the topic has received little attention in developing and lesser developed countries (Schneider & Sönmez, 1999) such as China. In China, the reform-induced economic growth during the last two decades has led to the rapid development of the tourism industry (Witt & Turner, 2002). For many years, international tourism was essentially nonexistent in China. It was not until 1978, when the country started to open up to the outside world (Wen, 1998), that the Chinese tourism industry started to grow and has since expanded to such an extent that China has become one of the world's most popular destinations (Dong, Droegge, & Johnson, 2002; Wen, 1998). The World Tourism Organization (WTO) predicts that by 2020, China will be the number one tourist destination in the world with inbound tourist arrivals estimated at 210 million (WTO, 1997). According to the China National Tourism Organization (CNTO), the United States is a major inbound market and an important potential source of tourists for China. Despite political discrepancy and spatial distance, over 1.5 million U.S. travelers visited China in 2005, of whom 719,879 were tourists, a number that is predicted to increase over the next decade (CNTO, 2006). It is anticipated that by hosting the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, China's tourism industry will receive a considerable boost by raising awareness among potential tourists and stimulating their interest in visiting the country.

Well-conceived, carefully planned, and executed hallmark events can increase international awareness and knowledge of a destination (Ritchie, 1999; Ritchie & Hu, 1987). Ritchie and Smith (1991) in a longitudinal study found that overall awareness of Calgary leading up to and after hosting the 1988 Winter Olympic Games increased. However, one year after the Games there was already evidence of image decay. Moreover, there is always the danger that hosting a mega event will not promote the desired image to the world. For example, Atlanta is still remembered for its traffic congestion and the bombing at the Olympic Plaza (Shoval, 2002), and Athens received much negative media coverage in the lead up to the 2004 Games that counteracted their goal of rebranding themselves as "modern and efficient" (BBC World News, 2004). Green, Costa, and Fitzgerald (2003) found that host cities cannot assume that the media coverage of an event will actually showcase the attributes of the destination unless strategies are implemented that actually encourage television and press coverage of the sights outside of the sporting venues (Chalip, 2004). Nevertheless, while there are dangers inherent in using a world-class sports event to re-image a destination, empirical studies of past mega

events suggest that overall, hosting such events does raise awareness of a major city (Ritchie & Smith, 1991), which in turn can be generalized to an improved image of a country (Kim & Morrison, 2005).

With China as a growing economic power and host of the 2008 Olympic Games, we asked the question, "What does the average U.S. person know about China?" Particularly, what images does he or she have of China as a potential tourism destination? Because previous researchers have indicated that destination image is closely linked to intention to travel (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), and it is also affected by a tourist's characteristics such as past travel experience (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Mazursky, 1989; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998), tourist role preference (Lepp & Gibson, 2003), age, gender, education level, and nationality (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2003), we also asked the question, "How does image affect intention to travel and how do tourists' characteristics affect destination image?"

The purpose of this study was to investigate the images U.S. young adults hold of China as a tourist destination and as the host site for the 2008 Olympic Games. Moreover, this study examined the relationship between destination image, intention to travel, and tourist characteristics of these young adults four years before the opening ceremonies of the 2008 Olympic Games. Because previous studies found that life stage, nationality, and education level can influence destination image and travel intentions (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Lepp & Gibson, 2003), this study was designed to control for these three variables by focusing on a homogenous population, students below 30 years of age, U.S. born and raised, and enrolled at a large southeastern university in the U.S.

Review of Literature

Destination Image and Intent to Travel

Image as a concept has been studied in numerous fields since the 1950s, notably in consumer behavior research in relation to retail spaces (Martineau, 1958) and brand image (Dobni & Zinkham, 1990). Image is a psychological concept and refers to the mental pictures that individuals hold regarding a place or a product. In tourism studies, the most pervasive definition of destination (place) image was proffered by Crompton (1979) as "the sum of beliefs and ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination" (p. 18). Destination image is a mixture of the cultural, natural, and social attributes, as well as tourism infrastructure of a particular destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Milman & Pizam, 1995). It incorporates information from a wide array of sources and includes impressions about the historical, political, economic, and social aspects of a destination (Gartner, 1989; 1993).

Gunn (1972) in his seminal work on the topic suggested that images are formed in two ways: (a) organic images are those that have their origin in the general exposure individuals have to places through reading, watching television, or even movies; whereas, (b) induced images are those that are more refined and are formed through the promotional materials produced by the tourism industry. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) extended this work and suggested a third type of image, the complex image, one that is formed through actual experience with a destination. They suggested that potential visitors develop organic images of a

relatively large set of potential destinations. When the desire to take a vacation emerges, individuals engage in an active information search guided by particular travel motives. As a result, potential tourists develop more refined induced images of alternative destinations, and in turn they evaluate and select the destination that offers the best benefits and images for them. Upon visiting the selected destination, tourists will develop a more complex image resulting from actual contact with and experiences in the area.

In an attempt to offer some conceptual clarity and further understanding as to how destination images are formed, Baloglu and McCleary (1999) suggested that there are three types of image: perceptual/cognitive, affective, and overall image. Compton's (1979) definition falls into the realm of perceptual/cognitive images and refers to the beliefs and knowledge individuals have of a destination. Affective image refers to the emotions or attachment individuals have towards a destination, and overall image is a combination of the two. Baloglu and McCleary indicated that image is derived from two forces, personal and stimulus factors. Personal factors are the social and psychological characteristics of the individual forming the image. Stimulus factors, on the other hand, are derived from external stimuli such as media exposure and previous experience with the object or place. The authors suggest that few researchers have examined the factors that influence destination image formation among individuals who have not previously visited a particular destination. Baloglu and McCleary tested a path model that identified both exogenous and endogenous variables related to image formation. Exogenous variables refer to the amount and type of information sources, age, education, and socio-psychological travel motivations; whereas endogenous variables refer to the perceptual/cognitive, affective, and overall images individuals hold. They found that the perceptual/cognitive and affective images are extremely significant in understanding the overall images individuals hold of a destination and that age, education level, motivations, and information sources influence these images somewhat, but these exogenous factors still require further study.

Destination image is influenced not only by the information obtained from external sources, but also by individual characteristics including sociodemographics, past travel experience, and nationality. Numerous researchers have examined how age, education, gender, and social class influence the images individuals hold of destinations (Baloglu, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Chen & Kerstetter, 1999; Um & Crompton, 1990; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993). Baloglu and McCleary found that age and education level are inversely related to perceptual/cognitive images. Walmsley and Jenkins found that images of New South Wales in Australia varied by age and gender. Indeed, Jordan and Gibson (2005) in their study of solo women travelers found women hold mental maps of the world in terms of safety, cultural differences, and the social norms associated with women's roles in different countries. Not surprisingly, past travel experience has also been found to exert more influence on travel decisions than information acquired from external sources (Mazursky, 1989). For example, individuals with past travel experience, particularly of international destinations, might become more confident travelers as a result of their experience and are more likely to travel in the future (Pearce, 1988; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Familiarity with a destination which is linked to destination image is also shaped by past travel as well as other factors such as geographical distance from a particular place and overall level of

knowledge of it (Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Milman & Pizam, 1995). Milman and Pizam suggested that individuals who are more familiar with a destination tend to hold more positive images of it, and Crompton (1979) found that individuals who live further away from a destination tend to hold more positive images of it. Milman and Pizam also explained that when potential tourists move from the awareness to the familiarity stage regarding a particular destination, their interest in it and their intent to visit also increases.

In a study from the sport tourism literature, Chalip, Green, and Vander Velden (1998) in an examination of U.S. resident's interest in and intent to travel to the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games found that age and education level were influential. In particular, younger respondents reported a higher likelihood of attending the Games and that general interest in traveling to Australia to attend the Games was further related to higher education levels and an interest in non-mainstream U.S. sports. In another study, Chalip, Green, and Hill (2003) found that not only was destination image significantly related to intention to visit the destination, in this case Australia's Gold Coast, but the image factors that influenced intentions varied by nationality. For Americans, three destination image variables, safe environment, developed environment, and natural environment, were significantly related to intention to visit, whereas among the New Zealanders novelty and convenience were found to be more important.

Another factor that has been found to influence an individual's choice of destination and behavior is their choice of tourist role or style of travel determined by an individual's tolerance for novelty or strangeness in a destination (Cohen, 1972). Cohen proposed a typology of four tourist roles distinguished by the degree to which each ideal type of tourist preferred novelty or familiarity in their travel style. The organized mass tourists prefer package tours and familiarity during their trip. Independent mass tourists also place a premium on familiarity and prefer the regular tourist routes. However, they travel independently and have more control over their time and itinerary. Explorers prefer a mix of familiarity and novelty. They try to get out of their "environmental bubble of the familiar" and interact with the locals. Drifters represent the opposite extreme of the organized mass tourist and view novelty as a premium. They try to avoid the regular tourist route and totally immerse themselves in the host culture. Thus, it is conceivable that a tourist's image of a destination as either familiar or novel may also influence his or her intentions to visit a particular locale and the travel style adopted during that visit. Certainly, Lepp and Gibson (2003) found that individuals who prefer more novelty in their travels (the explorer and the drifter) were less likely to perceive as much risk associated with traveling abroad and were more likely to report previous international travel experiences than those classifying themselves as organized or independent mass tourists.

Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) applied the Levinson's model of the adult life cycle (Levinson, 1978, 1996) to understand stability and change in tourist role preference with age. They found that individuals in their twenties are most likely to prefer roles such as the drifter and explorer, choices which match their life stage characteristics and include a desire for exploration, adventure, and experimentation. Furthermore, preference for tourist roles not only appears to vary at different stages in the life course, but that gender appears to influence these preferences with slightly more women than men in their twenties choosing the organized and independent

mass tourist roles. Other researchers such as Lawson (1989) and Ryan (1995) have also found that life stage appears to be an influential factor in both predicting and understanding tourist behaviors and preferences. Thus, conceivably stage in the life course, gender, and tourist role preference may influence how individuals perceive a destination and their intentions to visit.

Conceptual Framework

This study was framed within an adaptation of Woodside and Lysonski's (1989) general model of traveler destination awareness and choice. In this model, Woodside and Lysonski proposed that destination image (traveler destination awareness) is directly related to intention to travel. They explained that intention to visit (or what we will term intention to travel) is the perceived likelihood that a tourist will visit a particular destination within a specific time period. In their model, Woodside and Lysonski proposed that intention to travel is a consequence of two exogenous variables (tourist characteristics and marketing influences) which in turn influence tourists' destination awareness (images). Potential tourists form their destination preferences from these images and include affective components in the form of positive and negative evaluations of a destination. Indeed, Woodside and Carr (1988) found that these preferences are strongly correlated with intention to visit.

Despite the fact that destination image is crucial for tourism development (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gunn, 1972), a review of literature reveals that only a few researchers have examined China in this regard. Gartner and Shen (1992) and Roehl (1990) investigated the impact of the Tiananmen Square protests on China's tourism image. Go and Zhang (1997) examined Beijing's image as an international meeting destination, and Choi, Chan, and Wu (1999) examined the image of Hong Kong as a tourist destination. In relation to sport event tourism and the Asian context, Ahn (1987) explained that for Seoul, hosting the 1988 Olympic Games was an image maker for the country. Also, because of the need to project a positive image to the world, the city's urban regeneration plan was compressed by 10 years. More recently, Kim and Morrison (2005) found that co-hosting the 2002 FIFA World Cup enhanced the image of Korea as an attractive tourist destination. However, to date, no study has been found that examines the current image of China as a tourist destination or as the site of the 2008 Olympic Games as perceived by residents of a western country. Thus, in accordance with our conceptual framework, the specific aims this study were: (a) to investigate the images U.S. college students hold of China as a general tourist destination and host site of the 2008 Games; (b) to examine the relationship of destination image and intention to travel to China and the 2008 Olympic Games; (c) to examine the relationship of tourist characteristics and destination image; and (d) to explore the sequential relationship among tourist characteristics, destination image, and intention to travel to China and the 2008 Olympic Games.

Method

Instrument

A questionnaire was developed that consisted five sections: (a) international travel experience, (b) destination image, (c) travel intention, (d) tourist role, and (e) demographic background. For the international travel experience section, three questions were designed to assess whether participants had traveled internationally (what countries they have been to), whether participants had traveled to Asia (what countries they have been to), and whether participants had previously traveled to China (when they visited). A Likert 4-point scale was adopted for these items (4 = five or more times; 3 = three to four times; 2 = one to two times; 1 = never). The destination image section contained 24 items that measured the perceptual/cognitive images of China as a tourist destination. The items were generated from a comprehensive review of literature. In particular, related concepts and items in studies by Echtner and Ritchie (1993) and Gibson, Williams, and Pennington-Gray (2003) were adopted or modified for the current study. Additionally, seven items measuring the image of China as a future site of the Olympic Games were developed. A Likert-type 5-point scale was utilized (5 = *strongly agree* to 1 = *strongly disagree*). The travel intention questions were adapted from those of Chalip et al.'s., (1998) study of the 2000 Olympic Games and contained questions related to the intention to travel to China within the next five years as a general tourist (measured on a 5 point Likert-type scale from 1 = *very unlikely* to 5 = *very likely*), past travel experience to the Olympic Games (open-ended response), their primary information sources for the Olympic Games (TV, Internet, etc.), their intention to travel to the 2004 Athens Olympic Games (yes, no, not sure), and intention to travel to the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games (5 point Likert-type scale from 1 = *very unlikely* to 5 = *very likely*). Tourist role was measured by four statements developed by Lepp and Gibson (2003), which described the behaviors of Cohen's (1972) four tourist roles: the organized mass tourist, the independent mass tourist, the explorer, and the drifter. Participants were asked to choose the role that best described them from the four statements. For the demographic background section, five variables were included: gender, age, household income, ethnicity, and university class standing. A fixed choice format was adopted for these questions. A test of content validity of the questionnaire was conducted by a panel of experts in sport tourism and sport management. The panel members focused on the relevance, representativeness, and clarity of items in each measurement area. Based on their input, improvements were made, primarily in the areas of item clarity.

Data Collection

Data were collected during the summer months of 2004 at a large southeastern university. International Olympic Committee rules dictate that a future Olympic

Games cannot be advertised before the preceding Games have closed. Thus, data collection was completed before the end of the 2004 Athens Games to ensure that participants had not seen any coverage of the 2008 Games, which could have influenced their images of Beijing and China overall. A combination of spatial-location sampling and systematic random sampling was used. Spatial-location sampling was used to identify four high foot traffic areas on campus. Data were collected at each site during different times of the day and different days of the week. Participants were selected using a systematic sampling procedure with a sampling interval of every 10th person and a random entry point. Potential participants were asked two screening questions before they were deemed eligible to participate. Only those who were born and raised in the U.S. and those aged between 18 and 30 years old were selected to participate in the study. After reading and signing the informed consent form that was approved by the University's Institutional Review Board, participants completed the questionnaire. On average, the questionnaire took approximately 10 minutes to complete. Overall, 350 questionnaires were collected from the four locations, with a response rate of about 70% among those who were approached and eligible to participate in the study.

Sample

Of the respondents ($N = 350$), just over one half were male (52.7%) and 47.3% were female. As would be expected on a college campus, 76.3% of the participants were aged between 18 and 23, 15.2% were aged between 24 and 26, with the remainder (8.5%) aged between 27 and 30 years. In terms of ethnicity, 57.6% were White, 18.1% Hispanics, 10.9% Asians or Pacific Islanders, 5% African Americans, less than 1% Native Americans, and 7.7% interracial or other. A majority of the participants (63.7%) were undergraduate students, and 34.9% were graduate students.

Of the participants, 24.1% never traveled internationally, 35.2% traveled 1 or 2 times, 18.1% traveled 3 or 4 times, and 22.6% traveled 5 or more times. Overall, 75.9% had traveled at least once internationally. However, a majority of participants (82.9%) had never traveled to Asia. Of those who had visited Asia, 10.0% had visited 1 or 2 times and 8.2% traveled 3 or more times. Almost all of the participants (98.0%) had never traveled to China. In terms of tourist role or tourist type, 14.3% of participants were organized mass tourists, 35.7% independent mass tourists, 40.8% explorers, and 9.2% drifters. This breakdown is consistent with previous studies on tourist roles with this age group and study population (Lepp & Gibson, 2003).

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the demographic, tourist role, international travel experience, destination image, and travel intention variables. To understand the images that U.S. college students hold of China as a tourism destination and the host of the 2008 Olympic Games, one-sample *t*-tests were conducted to examine the magnitude of destination image variables. For the purpose of conducting data reduction and examining the dimensionality of the destination image variables related to both image of China as a tourist destination and image of China as a future

site of the Olympic Games, a factor analysis with principal component extraction and varimax rotation was conducted. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the predictability of destination image factors to the travel intention variables. Due to the categorical nature of two tourist characteristic variables (i.e., gender and tourist role), general linear model (GLM) analyses were conducted to examine the relationship of tourist characteristics to destination image. Likewise, to explore the sequential relationship among tourist characteristics, destination image, and intention to travel to China and the 2008 Olympic Games, ordinary least square (OLS) analyses were conducted.

Results

Descriptive statistics for the destination image variables are presented in Table 1. Of the 24 items related to general destination image of China and 7 items related to image of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, a total of 28 items had a mean score that was significantly ($p < .05$) greater than 3.0, respectively. For instance, the respondents rated China highly in terms of 'beautiful scenery and natural attractions' ($M = 4.44$; $SD = .78$), 'many cultural attractions' ($M = 4.33$; $SD = .80$), 'friendly people' ($M = 4.28$; $SD = .75$), 'historical sites and museums' ($M = 4.25$; $SD = .79$), and 'exotic cuisine' ($M = 4.19$; $SD = .83$). The participants rated the country poorly in terms of perceived 'ease of communication' ($M = 2.12$; $SD = .88$), and the item "clean country" ($M = 2.98$; $SD = .87$) was the only one of the image items not significantly different from 3.0 ($p > .05$).

Regarding the images concerning China as the host of the 2008 Olympic Games, overall the respondents rated China and Beijing positively. They rated China as a highly competent host ($M = 3.60$; $SD = .94$). They also felt that China would be a safe country to host the Games ($M = 3.59$; $SD = .86$) with plenty of friendly people ($M = 3.38$; $SD = .80$). All of these items had mean scores that were significantly above 3.0 ($p < .05$). In terms of less positive images, the only image item rated significantly less than 3.0 ($p < .05$) was the perception that China is not an easy country to get to ($M = 2.71$; $SD = 1.09$).

For the factor analysis, the following four criteria were applied: (a) only those factors (domains) with an eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1.0 were extracted (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2004), (b) items with loadings of at least .40 and without double loading were retained (Hair et al., 2004; Stevens, 1996), (c) each domain was subjected to a reliability testing, and domains with alpha coefficient equal to or greater than .50 were deemed acceptable (Baumgartner & Jackson, 1999), and (d) items that reduced the reliability of a factor were eliminated from further analysis (Chen & Kerstetter, 1999). The factor solution is presented in Table 2. Seven factors were identified, with a total of 62.4% variance explained. The factors were labeled as Attraction, Competence, Convenience, Atmosphere, People, Activities, and Money. Alpha coefficients for the factors ranged from .57 to .85 and displayed acceptable internal consistency. Of the items, 20 general destination image items and all 7 of the Olympic destination image items loaded on 1 of the 7 factors. Three items did not meet the criteria for retention, which were 'China has a good climate,' 'China is a crowded country,' and 'China is highly urbanized.' The item 'China has

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics and T-Tests for Destination Images Variables

Images	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
General Destination Image				
1. Beautiful scenery/natural attractions	4.44	.78	34.54	.000*
2. A crowded country	4.34	.80	30.79	.000*
3. Many cultural attractions	4.33	.71	34.74	.000*
4. Many friendly people	4.28	.75	31.64	.000*
5. Historical sites and museums	4.25	.79	28.99	.000*
6. Exotic cuisine	4.19	.83	26.72	.000*
7. A place to increase my knowledge	4.17	.83	26.08	.000*
8. A place for adventure	4.07	.88	22.52	.000*
9. Many tourist attractions	3.82	.85	17.77	.000*
10. Highly urbanized	3.80	.92	16.07	.000*
11. Many shopping facilities	3.80	.90	16.51	.000*
12. Good value for the money	3.58	.79	13.52	.000*
13. An exotic atmosphere and culture	3.56	.85	12.21	.000*
14. A family oriented destination	3.55	.91	11.14	.000*
15. A good climate	3.49	.78	11.59	.000*
16. Readily available travel information	3.47	.90	9.62	.000*
17. A good quality of service	3.43	.77	10.26	.000*
18. Good night life and entertainment	3.38	.87	8.05	.000*
19. Easy to find accommodations	3.33	.82	7.30	.000*
20. A safe destination	3.30	.83	6.61	.000*
21. Convenient transportation	3.18	.82	4.07	.000*
22. A place for relaxing	3.12	.95	2.39	.017*
23. A clean country	2.98	.87	-0.37	.790
24. Easy to communication with the local people	2.12	.88	-18.50	.000*
China as the Host of 2008 Olympic Games				
1. Strong competence to host the Olympic Games	3.60	.94	11.80	.000*
2. A safe place to hold the Olympic Games	3.59	.86	12.70	.000*
3. Many friendly people	3.58	.80	13.32	.000*
4. A good value for the money	3.57	.78	13.42	.000*
5. World-class sports facilities	3.40	.88	8.37	.000*
6. Easy to find accommodations	3.33	.81	7.37	.000*
7. Easy to get to	2.71	1.09	-4.93	.000*

a good climate' was eliminated because it did not meet the minimum .40 factor loading criterion. The other 2 items were eliminated because they together loaded on a factor (domain) with the alpha coefficient equal to .46, which was too low for acceptance. These items were excluded from future analyses.

When participants were asked about their intentions to travel to China as a tourist, a majority of them (68.0%) indicated 'very unlikely' or 'unlikely' to travel to China in the next five years, 22.0% 'somewhat likely,' and only 9.9% 'likely' or 'very likely'. In terms of their intentions to attend the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games,

Table 2 Factor Structure of Destination Images Variables

Factor	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Factor 1 - Attractions							
An exotic atmosphere and culture	0.760	0.106	-0.080	0.123	0.063	0.145	-0.006
A place to increase my knowledge	0.703	0.135	0.284	0.051	0.020	-0.008	0.037
Beautiful scenery/natural attractions	0.692	0.076	-0.150	0.192	0.199	0.154	0.153
Many cultural attractions	0.665	0.028	0.081	-0.011	0.296	0.193	0.205
A place for adventure	0.649	0.115	0.051	0.272	0.105	0.269	0.013
Historical sites and museums	0.646	0.180	0.155	-0.112	0.089	0.073	0.157
Exotic cuisine	0.622	0.138	0.233	0.228	-0.292	-0.182	0.057
Many tourist attractions	0.441	0.245	0.225	-0.076	0.218	0.202	0.214
Factor 2 - Olympic Competence							
A safe place to hold the Olympic Games	0.133	0.798	0.046	0.200	0.170	0.101	0.084
World-class sports facilities	0.152	0.793	0.113	0.097	0.022	0.091	0.037
Strong competence to host the Olympic Games	0.317	0.703	0.142	0.029	0.288	0.106	0.055
Easy to find accommodations (Olympic)	0.087	0.525	0.393	0.219	0.130	0.299	0.245
A safe destination	0.071	0.433	0.390	0.330	0.230	0.004	0.191
Factor 3 - Convenience							
Readily available travel information	0.151	0.123	0.717	0.192	0.105	0.065	0.107
Easy to find accommodations	0.208	0.113	0.662	0.222	0.106	0.289	0.191
Easy to communicate with the local people	-0.111	0.093	0.560	0.192	0.395	0.030	-0.022
Convenient transportation	0.133	0.106	0.508	-0.029	0.131	0.474	-0.034

(continued)

Table 2 continued

Factor	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Factor 4 - Atmosphere							
A clean country	0.072	0.188	0.187	0.697	0.117	0.189	-0.123
A place for relaxing	0.120	0.101	0.173	0.696	0.210	-0.005	0.244
A good quality of service	0.174	0.271	0.416	0.456	-0.025	0.212	0.096
A family oriented destination	0.154	0.129	0.147	0.466	0.420	0.123	0.104
Factor 5 - People							
Many friendly people	0.279	0.097	0.089	0.305	0.671	0.139	0.088
Many friendly people (Olympic)	0.267	0.377	0.131	0.203	0.618	0.126	0.061
Easy to get to (Olympic)	0.036	0.246	0.371	0.029	0.612	-0.110	0.084
Factor 6 - Activities							
Many shopping facilities	0.211	0.169	0.036	0.098	0.057	0.758	0.087
Good night life and entertainment	0.170	0.097	0.285	0.217	0.014	0.645	0.135
Factor 7 - Money							
Good value for the money	0.298	0.020	0.124	0.028	0.027	0.143	0.829
Good value for the money (Olympic)	0.114	0.431	0.130	0.216	0.206	0.062	0.703
Eigenvalues	4.06	3.00	2.65	2.16	2.15	1.82	1.62
Cronbach Alpha	0.85	0.82	0.57	0.70	0.71	0.65	0.72
Composite Factor Mean Score	4.19	3.44	3.02	3.27	3.28	3.59	3.58
Percentage of Variance Explained	14.51	10.73	9.46	7.73	7.68	6.51	5.78
Cumulative Variance Explained	14.51	25.24	34.70	42.43	50.11	56.62	62.40

a majority of the respondents (92.8%) answered 'very unlikely' or 'unlikely', 6.0% 'somewhat likely', and only 1.2% answered 'likely' or 'very likely.'

Multiple regression analyses revealed that the destination image factors were significantly ($p < .05$) predictive of the intention to visit China within the next five years, with a total of 20.5% variance explained (Table 3). Of the destination image factors, 3 factors, Attraction ($\beta = .316$), Money ($\beta = .276$), and Convenience ($\beta = .237$) were found to be statistically significant contributors to the relationship between destination image and intention to travel to China. The destination image factors were also found to be significantly ($p < .05$) predictive of intention to attend the 2008 Olympic Games, with a total of 7.9% variance explained. Two destination image factors, People ($\beta = .191$) and Attraction ($\beta = .175$), were identified as statistically significant contributors to the relationship between destination image and intention to the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. It is interesting to note that although not significant statistically, two destination image factors, Atmosphere and Activities, were negatively related to both travel to China within the next five years and intention to attend the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. GLM analyses further revealed that previous international travel experiences ($R^2 = .044$), Asian travel experiences ($R^2 = .086$), and previous travel experience to China ($R^2 = .036$) significantly ($p < .05$) impacted respondents' destination image. However, tourist

Table 3 Predictability of Destination Images to the Intention to Travel to China and the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games

Variable	β	SE β	Standardized β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intent to Travel to China Within the Next 5 Years					
(Constant)	-1.729	0.451		-3.83	0.000*
Attraction	0.316	0.126	0.155	2.511	0.013*
Olympic competence	0.108	0.121	0.063	0.891	0.374
Convenience	0.237	0.121	0.13	1.96	0.051*
Atmosphere	-0.012	0.123	-0.007	0.099	0.921
People	0.146	0.101	0.095	1.453	0.147
Activities	-0.008	0.088	-0.005	0.092	0.926
Money	0.276	0.097	0.171	2.852	0.005*
$(R^2 = .205; F = 12.177; p = .000)$					
Intent to Travel to the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games					
(Constant)	0.345	0.296		1.164	0.245
Attraction	0.175	0.083	0.142	2.118	0.035*
Olympic competence	0.035	0.08	0.033	0.432	0.666
Convenience	0.049	0.079	0.044	0.611	0.541
Atmosphere	-0.1	0.081	-0.092	-1.237	0.217
People	0.191	0.066	0.203	2.885	0.004*
Activities	-0.076	0.058	-0.084	-1.309	0.191
Money	0.029	0.064	0.03	0.457	0.648
$(R^2 = .079; F = 4.002; p = .000)$					

*Significant at the .05 level.

role ($R^2 = .026$), and gender ($R^2 = .030$) were not found to be significantly ($p > .05$) related to the destination image factors.

The mediating effects of destination image on the relationship between tourist characteristics and intention to travel were further examined via OLS. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), in order to establish a mediating effect that a variable has on the relationship between a predicting variable and a criterion variable, four elements are required: (a) the predicting variable is correlated with the criterion variable; (b) the predicting variable is correlated with the mediating variable; (c) the mediating variable is correlated with the criterion variables after controlling for the effect of the predicting variable; and (d) correlation between the predicting and the criterion variables is equal to zero after controlling for the effect of the mediating. Semipartial correlation coefficients generated by OLS analyses are presented in Figure 1, which revealed that destination image partially mediated the relationship between past international travel experience and intention to travel to China. International travel and Asian travel experiences significantly ($p < .05$) impacted destination image, which in turn impacted the intention to visit China and attend the 2008 Olympic Games. Without the partial effect of destination image, previous China travel experience had a direct relationship with intention to travel both to China and the 2008 Olympic Games. Similarly, tourist role had a direct relationship to the travel intentions without the mediating effect of destination image. The result of a post-hoc analysis showed that organized mass tourists were more likely to travel to China. Gender was not found to be significantly related to destination image, nor intention to travel to China.

Discussion

The findings of this study indicate that participants have both positive and negative images of China as a tourist destination and as the host of the 2008 Olympic Games. This supports Woodside and Lysonski's (1989) contention that destination image is mediated by affective factors, comprised of both positive and negative evaluations of a particular destination. Participants felt that China is a country with beautiful scenery, many cultural and natural attractions, friendly people, and exotic cuisine. In contrast, they felt China is a crowded country, one that it is not very clean, and they expressed concerns over difficulties communicating with the locals. Intuitively, much of this makes sense as for most of these young participants their responses are a reflection of their organic images of China, images that they would have been garnered largely from school text books, television, and general stereotypes of Chinese culture. Until recently, the common images of China in the U.S. have been pictures of the Great Wall that might have reinforced the perceptions of beauty and history; alternatively, the other common media images are crowds of people. At the point when these data were collected, in accordance with IOC rules, the Beijing Olympic Organizing Committee (BOCOG) had not started any marketing campaigns, also the television documentaries outlining China's growing power as an economic force and a rapidly modernizing country that have become more prevalent over the past year, were not yet evident. Thus, we would hypothesize that for many Americans (including those surveyed in this study), awareness

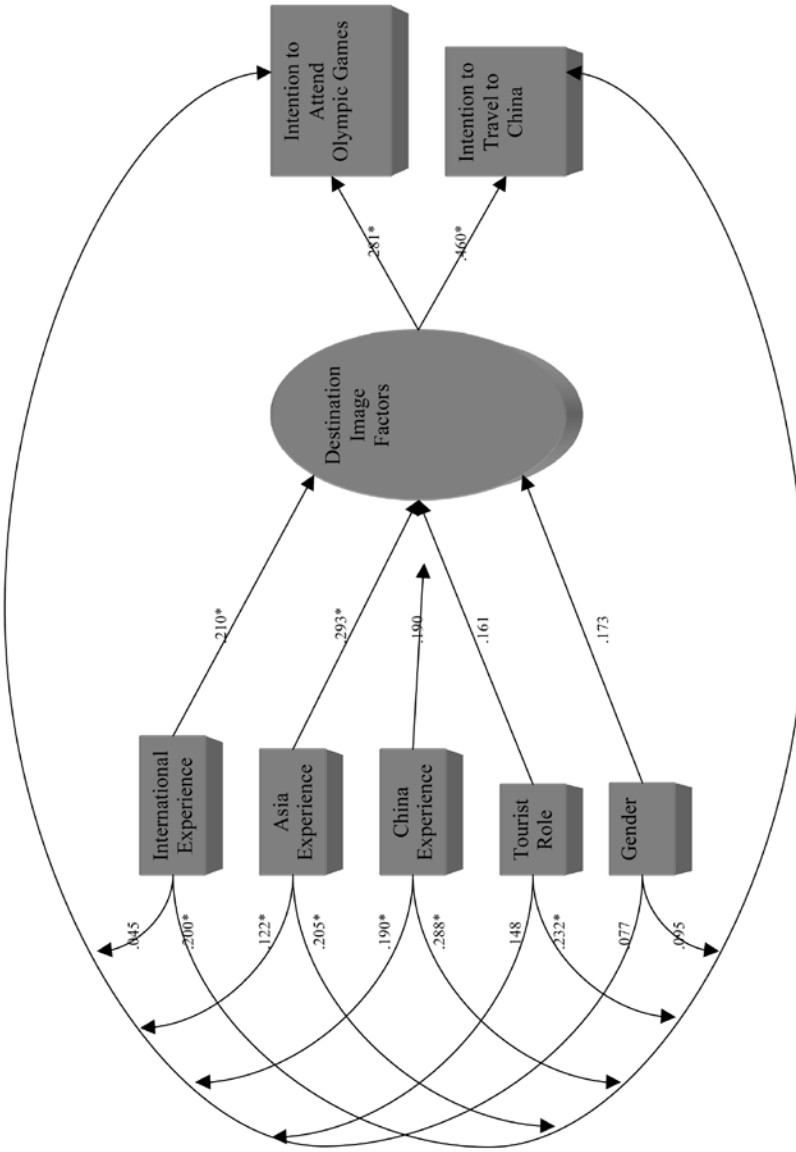


Figure 1—Sequential relationships among tourist characteristics, destination image, and intention to travel.

of China, particularly when these data were collected, was quite low and largely reflected organic images (Gunn, 1972).

In terms of the images of China as a future site of the Olympic Games, the participants generally felt that China had the ability to host the Olympic Games and that China was a safe place to host the Games. However, in terms of accessibility, the participants rated China poorly. This makes sense because for the U.S., China is considered a long-haul destination. Usually, it takes travelers more than 20 hours to travel from the U.S. to major cities in China. On the other hand, the participants rated China positively in terms of perceived competence and safety, issues that have become key issues for host cities. For example, in the months leading up to the 2004 Olympic Games in Athens the media coverage of the delays in construction were portrayed as generalized incompetence on the part of the Athens Organizing Committee (BBC World News, 2004). Fortunately, amid fears over the disruption of the Games because of potential terrorist threats, the Athens Games are generally considered to be a success and certainly their tourism industry seems to have benefited from increased visitation during the subsequent years¹ (Heyer, 2006). Indeed, there is general consensus among scholars in this area that competence and efficiency in hosting these events are key criteria (Getz, 1997; Hall, 1989a, 1989b). Likewise, safety and security are known to be prerequisites of consistent tourist flows and general commerce (Sönmez, 1998). The fact that these young Americans perceived China as a safe country is also significant because the level of perceived risk associated with destinations around the world is increasingly being understood as a key to a healthy tourism industry as the majority of the world's tourists can be classified as independent mass tourists who tend to be more risk averse and are less likely to travel to places deemed as unsafe (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). Fears over the mega events as potential terrorist targets are something that organizing committees and governments are having to deal with as part of their overall plans to stage such events as potential event sport tourists are likely to stay away from events perceived as risky (Kim & Chalip, 2004; Toohey, Taylor, & Lee, 2003). Likewise, on a more mundane level, concerns over accessibility are perceptions that can easily be changed by the marketing campaigns associated with the Beijing Olympic Games and the increased availability of direct flights from more major U.S. cities to China. The major airlines have already realized the potentially lucrative nature of having these routes and have been actively lobbying to win them (Sulaiman, 2006a).

When destination image was examined in relation to intention to travel to China either as a general tourist or as a sport tourist to attend the 2008 Games, the results revealed that there is a significant relationship between image and intent, thereby further supporting the propositions suggested by our conceptual framework. In terms of predicting general intent to travel within the next 5 years, three factors (attraction, money, and convenience) explained over 20% of the variance. The attractions factor is comprised of images pertaining to culture, history, and exoticism, and again is likely to be linked back to the largely organic images held by these young Americans. The money factor reveals that the participants view China as good value for money, which is interesting because many long-haul destinations tend to be associated with high cost, particularly in terms of the airfare; however, perhaps many of them have not engaged in an active information search to investigate the possibility of actually traveling to China, and so the organic images of a largely

underdeveloped country might give the impression of being relatively inexpensive (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). The convenience factor is also an interesting one as it contains images that suggest these participants view China as a country that has a good tourism infrastructure with good transportation links and accommodation, and it is easy to get around. This factor also contains the item measuring communication that was identified as a concern in the initial image analysis. Nonetheless, this age group of tourist tends to be more adventurous and is not generally discouraged by potential difficulties such as lack of spoken English in a destination. Perhaps, if the general tourism infrastructure is perceived as good, potential tourists might not view language difficulties as much of a barrier (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). Moreover, as Crompton (1979) found, individuals who live further away (geographically distant) from a destination also tend to hold more positive images about it.

In terms of the relationship between destination image and intentions to attend the 2008 Olympic Games, the model shows a significant relationship between these two sets of variables although the variance explained by the two factors, attractions and people, was lower at only 8%. Again, the images associated with history and culture appear to be important in addition to the presence of friendly people in the host country. The nature of the Olympic Games as a festival of sport and culture might be linked to images of friendship in these young American's minds. However, the real significance of this finding is that for the Olympic Games, the link between image and intent is supported (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), which is consistent with much of the general tourism literature. However, for the specialist area of sport tourism especially in relation to hosting a mega event, the general images of a destination related to culture, history, food, and people are only part of the process predicting intentions to attend the Olympic Games. This finding is consistent with much of the discussion in the sport tourism literature over the unidimensional motivations and interests of the event sport tourist (Faulkner, Tideswell, & Weston, 1998). In the lead up to the 2000 Games, Faulkner et al. warned that Olympic tourists are largely "sport junkies" and are likely to be interested in little else that Sydney and Australia has to offer other than sport, food, and accommodation. Certainly, studies of smaller scale event sport tourism suggest that different types of sport tourist can be identified and that only a few might be interested in a broader range of attractions in addition to the sporting events (Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2003; Ritchie, Mosedale, & King, 2000). Thus, as it relates to the relationship between image and intent to attend the Olympic Games, marketers might have to rethink some of their assumptions that a sports event is just another tourist attraction. Images, motivations, interest, or involvement in specific sports may be niche specific (Chalip et al., 1998; Kim & Chalip, 2004; Papadimitriou, Gibson, & Vasioti, 2005).

Perhaps not surprisingly, the results revealed that previous international and Asian travel experience are both related to destination image. This supports previous literature that past travel experiences might significantly affect people's images of a destination (Ahmed, 1991; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999) and lead to the development of complex images (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). However, one of the unique findings of this study was that the analysis revealed that the influence of previous travel experience and future travel intentions is mediated by destination image. Intuitively, this makes sense, and the data provide support for this contention.

Gender differences in destination images were not evident in this study. Perhaps the largely organic images that these young Americans hold of China are homogenous, and too few of them had enough knowledge or experience of the country to reveal any gender diversity. Preference for a particular travel style or tourist role also did not directly influence destination image although tourist role was directly related to intention to travel. Interestingly, the organized mass tourists who are the least likely to seek strangeness and novelty in a destination reported the most interest in traveling to China. Perhaps because most of the current marketing of China in the U.S. is package tours, this advertising practice had influenced the participants of this study.

While this study contributes some unique findings to the literature, it also has implications for promoting China as the next “big” tourism destination and host of the 2008 Olympic Games. Because China is a relatively new destination for U.S. college students, there is still very little knowledge about their images and intention to travel to China. This study provides a good overview of this potentially marketable group. According to Chalip et al., (1997), young respondents were more likely to expect to travel to the 2000 Olympic Games. As China becomes more open as a travel market, it is hoped that student travel will become an important travel segment. Indeed, Carr (2003) suggested that college students are a special youth population with distinct sociocultural, educational, and economic characteristics that shape their travel behaviors. Thus, to make China a more attractive destination, it is necessary to understand potential tourists’ images of China. This is especially important for Americans, as the U.S. is both politically discrepant and spatially distant from China.

This study was conducted right before the 2004 Athens Olympic Games when the Beijing Olympic Games had not yet been marketed extensively in the United States. Many of the participants were still unaware that Beijing is the host city of the 2008 Olympic Games. Future studies might find out if people’s images change when they get more information about the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. In particular, the growing debate over human rights issues and calls to boycott the Games and the media attention on plans to clear Beijing of “undesirable components” (Gupta, 2006; Sulaiman, 2006b) such as stray dogs, the homeless, and the poor might also impact the largely positive images that the young Americans held of China and Beijing four years before the Games. A longitudinal study in the vein of Ritchie’s work with the 1988 Calgary Olympic Games (e.g., Ritchie & Smith, 1991) is recommended to track changes in awareness, destination image, and travel intentions in the lead up to and in the years subsequent to the 2008 Games. Although many studies have looked at destination image as it relates to event sport tourism, few have looked at image change over time. This is surprising since there is so much rhetoric about linking mega events to destination image; however, the only way of establishing the causality of this relationship is to use experimental designs where images are measured before and after the event. The closest work to this suggestion is Chalip et al.’s (2003) study of the media images associated with events held in the Gold Coast in Australia.

Conclusion

This study was conducted on a U.S.-based student population. Although the intent was to control for life stage, nationality, and social class (the assumption being that these students were largely middle class), it would benefit the Chinese tourism agencies and the Beijing Olympic Organizing Committee to examine the images and intent to travel of a more diverse population to see how life stage, social class and nationality influence these constructs. As a starting point for this line of research, however, the results show some valuable insights, particularly related to the nature of the organic images held by these young adults and the effects of destination image, previous travel experience, and tourist role on travel intentions. Examining the sequential relationship among these variables is unique in this line of research and has not been tested in this way previously; as such the findings of this study both confirm and add to Woodside and Lysonski's (1989) general model of traveler destination awareness and choice.

In terms of practical applications, the findings of the study show that some images are considered more important among potential tourists than others. Tourism marketers should be aware which image factors might be crucial to potential tourists because these can significantly affect their future travel destination choices. Hughes (1993) suggested that increased tourism activity depends on the extent to which the Olympic city becomes widely known and recognized as a tourism destination and the duration of this recognition. The host city and region are given considerable exposure in the media (e.g., advertising and news coverage). However, an event's impact on destination image also depends on whether the destination image is compatible with the event (Chalip et al., 2003; Chalip, 2004). Essentially, to determine whether an event is likely to have a positive or negative effect on destination image, three sources of information are required, including the destination's image, the event's image, and the image that the destination wants to project. To achieve a positive change in destination image that in turn causes visitation to increase, the image change must be positive and occur along the destination image dimensions (e.g., developed environment, natural environment, value, sightseeing opportunities, safety, novelty, climate, convenience, and family environment) that are important to travelers from a particular market. Moreover, the event messages become important only after the images of the event transfer to the image of a destination. Chalip's work on the Sydney Olympic Games and various events on the Gold Coast suggests that destinations need to actively leverage the benefits that they wish to accrue from an event (Chalip, 2001; Chalip & Green, 2001; Chalip & Leyns, 2002). Event organizers cannot assume that hosting an event will automatically bring benefits; conversely these benefits have to be actively strategized and managed. Furthermore, in terms of destination image benefits in particular, the latest thinking that should be applied by the BOCOG is the concept of destination branding and the co-branding of an event and a destination (Chalip & Costa, 2005; Jago, Chalip, Brown, & Mules, 2003). Another trend among the world's cities that several scholars have discussed is the use of the Olympic Games and other

mega events in the quest for the status of 'global city' (Essex & Chalkley, p. 201). Shoval (2002) hypothesizes that since the Sydney Games in 2000, the world-level cities have entered a competition among themselves with a view to establishing themselves as leading centers of commerce, culture, sport, and tourism. Indeed, in the tourism literature the idea of "city states" competing among themselves for tourists has already been proffered (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). Thus, while the focus of this study was on images of China in general, perhaps in future studies it might be pertinent to investigate both the images of the host country and the host city to see if they differ and if indeed the city does have more prominence in people's minds around the world.

The debate over the benefits of hosting mega sports events continues to evolve with many beginning to doubt the long-term economic and tourism benefits touted by the politicians and organizing committees. What we do know is that destination image is linked to intent to travel and so, with the strategic leveraging of images that are shown to the world in conjunction with the event (pre, during and after), the level of awareness of a particular city and/or country can be raised, which may in turn provide the impetus to visit at some point in the future, or at the very least be used to educate the world about a particular locale.

Notes

1. Although there is no causal link between hosting the Olympic Games and increased tourism, it is generally assumed that increased tourism numbers in the years following the Games is an indicator of the increased awareness resulting from Olympic media coverage (e.g. Kang & Perdue, 1994)

References

- Ahmed, Z.U. (1991). The influence of the components of a state's tourist image on product positioning strategy. *Tourism Management*, 12, 331–340.
- Ahn, J.Y. (1987). The role and impact of mega-events and attractions on tourism development in Asia. In *Proceedings of the 37th Annual Congress of the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism* (pp. 133–180). St. Gallen, Switzerland: Editions Aiest.
- Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K.W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26, 868–897.
- Baloglu, S. (1997). The relationship between destination images and sociodemographic and trip characteristics of international travelers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 3, 221–233.
- Baron, R.M., & Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1173–1182.
- Baumgartner, T.A., & Jackson, A.S. (1999). *Measurement for evaluation in physical education and exercise science* (6th ed.). Boston: W. C. Brown.
- BBC World News (2004, August 26) *Report on the 2004 Athens Olympic Games*.
- Berli, A., & Martin, J.D. (2004). Tourists' characteristics and the perceived image of tourist destinations: A quantitative analysis - A case study of Lanzarote, Spain. *Tourism Management*, 25, 623–636.

- Brown, G., Chalip, L., Jago, L., & Mules, T. (2004). The Sydney Olympics and brand Australia. In N. Morgan, A. Pritchard, & R. Pride (Eds.), *Destination branding: Creating the unique destination proposition* (pp. 163–185). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Chalip, L. (2001, February). Leveraging the Sydney Olympics to optimize tourism benefits. Paper presented at the international conference on the Economic Impact of Sports, Athens, Greece.
- Chalip, L., (2004). Beyond economic impact: A general model for sport event leverage. In B. Ritchie & D. Adair (Eds.), *Sport tourism: Interrelationships, impacts and issues* (pp. 226–252). Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications.
- Chalip, L., Green, B.C., & Vander Velden, L. V. (1998). Sources of interest in travel to the Olympic Games. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 4, 7–22.
- Chalip, L., & Green, B.C. (2001, June). Leveraging large sports events for tourism: Lessons learned from the Sydney Olympics. Supplemental proceedings of the Travel and Tourism Research Association 32nd Annual Conference, Fort Myers, FL.
- Chalip, L., & Leyns, A. (2002). Local business leveraging of a sport event: Managing sport for economic benefit. *Journal of Sport Management*, 16, 132–158.
- Chalip, L., Green, B.C., & Hill, B. (2003). Effects of sport event media on destination image and intention to visit. *Journal of Sport Management*, 17, 214–234.
- Chalip, L., & Costa, C. (2005). Sport event tourism and the destination brand: Towards a general theory. *Sport in Society*, 8, 218–237
- Chen, P.J., & Kerstetter, D.L. (1999). International students' image of rural Pennsylvania as a travel destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37, 256–271.
- China National Tourism Organization. (2006). *China tourism statistics*. Retrieved September 14, 2006, from <http://www.cnto.org/>
- Choi, W., Chan, A., & Wu, J. (1999). A qualitative and quantitative assessment of Hong Kong's image as a tourist destination. *Tourism Management*, 20, 361–365.
- Chon, K. S. (1990). The role of destination image in tourism: a review and discussion. *The Tourist Review*, 2, 2–9.
- Cohen, E. (1972). Towards a sociology of international tourism. *Sociological Research*, 39(1), 164–182.
- Crompton, J.L. (1979). An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon that image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17(4), 18–23.
- Dobni, D., & Zinkham, G., (1990). In search of brand image: A foundational analysis. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 17, 110–119.
- Dong, L.C., Droegge, S.B., & Johnson, N.B. (2002). Incentives and self-interest: Balancing revenue and rewards in China's tourism industry. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 4, 69–77.
- Echtner, C.M., & Ritchie, J.R.B. (1991). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 14(1), 2–12.
- Echtner, C.M., & Ritchie, J.R.B. (1993). The measurement of destination image: an empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(4), 21–64.
- Essex, S., & Chalkley, B. (1998). Olympic Games: Catalyst of urban change. *Leisure Studies*, 17, 187–206.
- ETN Travel Industry Deals. (2006, September 9). *South Africa Tourism Serves up major awareness during the U.S. Open*. Retrieved September 10, 2006, from <http://www.travelindustrydeals.com/news/816>
- Fakeye, P.C., & Crompton, J.R. (1991). Image differences between prospective, first-time, and repeat visitors to the lower Rio Grande valley. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29(2), 10–16.

- Faulkner, B., Tideswell, C., & Weston, A. (1998, November). Leveraging tourism benefits from the Sydney 2000 Olympics. *Sport Management: Opportunities and Change* Key-note presented at the fourth Annual Conference of the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand, Gold Coast, Australia.
- Gartner, W.C. (1989). Tourism image: attribute measurement of state tourism products using multidimensional scaling techniques. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(2), 16–20.
- Gartner, W.C. (1993). Image formation process. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(2/3), 191–215.
- Gartner, W.C., & Shen, J. (1992). The impact of Tiananmen Square on China's tourism image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(4), 47–52.
- Getz, D. (1997). *Event management and event tourism*. New York: Cognizant Communication.
- Getz, D. (1998). Trends, strategies and issues in sport-event tourism. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 7(2), 8–13.
- Gibson, H., & Yiannakis, A. (2002). Tourist roles: Needs and the lifecycle. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29, 358–383.
- Gibson, H., Willming, C., & Holdnak, A. (2003). Small-scale event sport tourism: Fans as tourists. *Tourism Management*, 24, 181–190.
- Gibson, H., Williams, S., & Pennington-Gray, L. (2003). Destination images and benefits sought from an international ski and snowboard trip: A follow-up study. In E. Fors (Ed.). *Proceedings of the European Association for Sport Management Congress* (pp. 167–169). College of Physical Education, Stockholm, Sweden, September 10–13, 2003.
- Go, F., & Zhang, W. (1997). Applying importance-performance analysis to Beijing as an international meeting destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(4), 42–49.
- Goodrich, J.N. (1978). The relationship between preferences for and perceptions of vacation destinations: Application of a choice model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17(2), 8–13.
- Green, B.C., Costa, C., & Fitzgerald, M., (2003). Marketing the host city: Analyzing exposure generated by a sport event. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 4(4), 335–353.
- Gunn, C.A. (1972). *Vacationscape: Designing tourist regions*. Austin: Bureau of Business Research, University of Texas.
- Gupta, S. (2006, September 22). *Has China failed to live up to its pledges to hold a successful Olympics? eTurboNews*. Retrieved September 22, 2006, from <http://www.travelwirenews.com>
- Hair, F.H., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L., & Black, W.C. (2004). *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hall, C.M. (1989a). The definition and analysis of hallmark tourist events. *Geojournal*, 19(3), 263–268.
- Hall, C.M. (1989b). Hallmark tourist events: Analysis, definition, methodology and review. In G. Syme, B. Shaw, D. Fenton, & W. Mueller, (Eds.), *The planning and evaluation of hallmark events* (pp. 3–19). Brookfield: Gower.
- Heyer, H. (2006, July 7). *Greece's new tourism manager speaks. eTurboNews*. Retrieved July 7, 2006, from <http://www.travelwirenews.com>
- Hu, Y., & Ritchie, J.R.B. (1993). Measuring destination attractiveness: A contextual approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(2), 25–34.
- Hughes, H. (1993). Olympic tourism and urban regeneration. *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, 1, 157–162.
- Hunt, J.D. (1975). Image as a factor in tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 13 (3), 1–7.
- Jago, L., Chalip, L., Brown, G., & Mules, T., (2003). Building events into destination branding: Insights from experts. *Event Management*, 8(1), 3–14.

- Jenkins, O. (1999). Understanding and measuring tourist destination images. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(1), 1–15.
- Jordan, F., & Gibson, H. (2005). “We’re not stupid..but we’ll not stay home either”: Experiences of solo women travelers. *Tourism Review International*, 9(2), 195–212.
- Kim, N., & Chalip, L. (2004). Why travel to the FIFA World Cup? Effects of motives, background, interest, and constraints. *Tourism Management*, 25, 695–707.
- Kim, S., & Morrison, A. (2005). Change of images of South Korea among foreign tourists after the 2002 FIFA World Cup. *Tourism Management*, 26, 233–247.
- Lawson, R. (1991). Patterns of tourist expenditures and types of vacation across the family life cycle. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29(4), 12–18.
- Lepp, A., & Gibson, H. (2003). Tourist roles, perceived risk and international tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30, 606–624.
- Levinson, D. (1996). *The Seasons of a Woman's Life*. New York: Knopf
- Levinson, D., Darrow, C., Klein, E., Levinson, M., & McKee, B. (1978). *The Seasons of a Man's Life*. New York: Knopf.
- Martineau, P. (1958). The personality of the retail store. *Harvard Business Review*, 36, 47–55.
- Mayo, E.J. (1975). Tourism and national parks: a psychographic and attitudinal study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 14(1), 14–18.
- Mazursky, D. (1989). Past experience and future tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16, 333–344.
- Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1995). The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination: The Central Florida case. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33(3), 21–27.
- Office of Travel & Tourism Industries. (2000, 2001, & 2002). *Profile of U.S. Resident Traveler Visiting Overseas Destinations Reported from Survey of International Air Travelers*. Retrieved March 15, 2004, from <http://tinnet.ita.doc.gov/>
- Papadimitriou, D., Gibson, H., & Vasioti, E. (2005). *Applying the concept of social world to the study of winter sport tourists*. Paper presented at the 13th Congress of the European Sport Management Conference, Newcastle, UK, September, 7–10, 2005.
- Pearce, P. (1988). *The Ulysses factor: Evaluating visitors in tourist settings*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Pike, S. (2002). Destination image analysis: A review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000. *Tourism Management*, 23, 541–549.
- Ritchie, B., Mosedale, L., & King, J. (2000). Profiling sport tourists: The case of Super 12 Rugby Union in Canberra. In B. Ritchie & D. Adair (Eds.). *Sports generated tourism: Exploring the nexus* (pp. 57–67). Proceedings of the first Australian Sports Tourism Symposium, October 5–7, 2000, Canberra, Australia.
- Ritchie, J.R.B. (1984). Assessing the impact of hallmark events: Conceptual and research issues. *Journal of Travel Research*, 23(1), 2–11.
- Ritchie, J.R.B. (1999). Lessons learned, lessons learning: Insights from the Calgary and Salt Lake City Olympic Winter Games. *Visions in Leisure and Business*, 18, 4–13.
- Ritchie, J.R.B., & Hu, Y. (1987). The role and impact of mega-events and attractions on national and regional tourism: a conceptual methodological overview. In *Proceedings of the 37th Annual Congress of the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism*. pp. 32–50. St. Gallen, Switzerland: Editions AIEST.
- Ritchie, J.R.B., & Smith, B. (1991). The impact of a mega-event on host region awareness: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(1), 3–10.
- Roehl, W. (1990). Travel agent attitudes toward China after Tiananmen Square. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29(2), 16–22.
- Ryan, C. (1995). Islands, Beaches and life-stage marketing. In M. Collins & T. Baum (Eds.). *Island tourism: Management principles and practice* (pp. 79–93). New York: Wiley & Sons.

- Schneider, I., & Sönmez, S. (1999). Exploring the touristic image of Jordan. *Tourism Management, 20*, 539–542.
- Shoval, N. (2002). A new phase in the competition for the Olympic Gold: The London and New York bids for the 2012 Games. *Journal of Urban Affairs, 24*(5), 583–599.
- Smith, A. (2001). Sporting a new image? Sport based regeneration strategies as a means of enhancing the image of the city tourist destination. In C. Gratton, & I. Henry (eds.), *Sport in the city* (pp. 127–148). London: Routledge.
- Sönmez, S. (1998). Tourism, terrorism, and political instability. *Annals of Tourism Research, 25*, 416–456.
- Sönmez, S., & Graefe, A. (1998). Determining future travel behavior from past travel experience and perceptions of risk and safety. *Journal of Travel Research, 37*, 171–177.
- Stevens, J. (1996). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Sulaiman, Y. (2006a, September 17). Airlines woo future passengers on US-China route. *eTurboNews*. Retrieved September 17, 2006, from <http://www.travelwirenews.com>
- Sulaiman, Y. (2006b, September 19). Is China going too far with the Beijing Olympics? *eTurboNews*. Retrieved September 19, 2006, from <http://www.travelwirenews.com>
- Tapachai, N., & Waryszak, R. (2000). An examination of the role of beneficial image in tourist destination selection. *Journal of Travel Research, 39*, 37–44.
- Toohey, K., Taylor, T., & Lee, C. (2003). The FIFA World Cup 2002: The effects of terrorism on sport tourists. *Journal of Sport Tourism, 8*(3), 167–185.
- Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research, 17*, 432–448.
- Walmsley, D.J., & Jenkins, J.M. (1993). Appraisive images of tourist areas: Application of personal constructs. *Australian Geographer, 24*(2), 1–13.
- Wen, J. (1998). Evaluation of tourism and tourist resources in China: Existing methods and their limitations. *International Journal of Social Economics, 25*, 467–485.
- Witt, S.F., & Turner, L.W. (2002). Trends and forecasts for inbound tourism to China. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 13*(1/2), 99–109.
- Woodside, A.G., & Carr, J.A. (1988). Consumer decision-making and competitive marketing strategies: applications for tourism planning. *Journal of Travel Research, 26*(3), 2–7.
- Woodside, A.G., & Lysonski, S. (1989). A general model of traveler destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research, 17*(4), 8–14.
- World Tourism Organization. (1997). *Tourism 2020 Vision*. Retrieved April 15, 2004, from <http://www.world-tourism.org/publications/>