



KOREA'S DESTINATION IMAGE FORMED BY THE 2002 WORLD CUP

Choong-Ki Lee

Kyunghee University, South Korea

Yong-Ki Lee

Sejong University, South Korea

BongKoo Lee

DongEui University, South Korea

Abstract: Mega events have many effects on host regions. Considering their influence on tourist behavior, image-related effects merit more attention. In spite of broad agreement among scholars regarding the influence of image on individual behavior, little empirical research has been conducted on this aspect. This study focuses on the influence of various dimensions of destination image on onsite experiences, of these on overall evaluation and behavioral intentions, and of the latter on behavioral intentions. The results show that the four dimensions of image have differential effects on these experiences, which in turn influence subsequent behavior. **Keywords:** image, onsite experience, behavioral intention, World Cup. © 2005 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Résumé: Formation de l'image de destination de la Corée par la Coupe du Monde 2002. Les méga-événements ont beaucoup d'effets sur la région d'accueil. Étant donné leur influence sur le comportement des touristes, les effets liés à l'image méritent plus d'attention. Malgré l'accord général parmi les spécialistes en ce qui concerne l'influence de l'image sur le comportement individuel, peu de recherche empirique a été menée sur cet aspect. Cet article se concentre sur l'influence des diverses dimensions de l'image de destination sur les expériences sur le site, de celles-ci sur l'évaluation globale et de cette dernière sur les intentions de comportement. Les résultats montrent que les quatre dimensions de l'image ont des effets différentiels sur ces expériences, qui à leur tour influencent le comportement ultérieur. **Mots-clés:** image, expérience sur le site, intention de comportement, Coupe du Monde. © 2005 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

INTRODUCTION

Mega sports events such as the World Cup and the Olympics receive a great deal of international attention and contribute to increased interest in sports tourism (Green and Chalip 1998). The 2002 FIFA World Cup was the first one awarded to Asia, and also the first to have two host countries, Korea and Japan. A hallmark event such as the World Cup has many effects on the countries or regions in which it

Choong-Ki Lee, Associate Professor in the College of Hotel & Tourism, Kyunghee University (Seoul 130-701, Korea, Email <cklee@khu.ac.kr>), is a specialist in mega-events and tourism demand. **Yong-Ki Lee**, Associate Professor in the Department of Business Administration researches hotel and tourism marketing. **BongKoo Lee**, Assistant Professor in the Department of Tourism Management works on tourist behavior and marketing.

occurs. It not only increases tourist receipts, income, employment, and government revenues, but it also raises awareness and knowledge of the country or region involved. By successfully co-staging the 2002 World Cup, South Korea had the opportunity to project a positive impression to the world, which in the long term made Korea's tourism more competitive.

This enhancement effect needs further investigation since it influences tourist behavior (Ashworth and Goodall 1988; Gartner 1989; Mansfeld 1992; Mathieson and Wall 1982). Image is generally defined as a mental or attitudinal construct developed on the basis of a few selected impressions from among the flood of total impressions through a creative process in which those selected are elaborated, embellished and ordered (Reynolds 1965). Many researchers define destination image as an individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings, and overall perception of a particular destination (Crompton 1979; Fakeye and Crompton 1991).

Destination image plays two important roles in behavior. Some researchers have suggested that it allows an individual to pretaste the venue, thus influencing the decisionmaking process (Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Gartner 1989; Mathieson and Wall 1982). Others have argued that it can also condition after-decisionmaking behavior (Ashworth and Goodall 1988; Bigné, Sánchez and Sánchez 2001; Mansfeld 1992), consisting of participation (onsite experience), evaluation (satisfaction), and future behavioral intentions (intention to revisit and willingness to recommend). Unfortunately, little theoretical and empirical research has been done in this area. The intent of this study is to examine the relationship between destination image and onsite experience, as well as between onsite experience and after-decisionmaking behavior. More specifically, since image is considered to be multidimensional (Chen 2001; Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Gartner and Hunt 1987; Gunn 1972), this study examines how Korea's image as a World Cup host influenced onsite experiences (service quality and its affect state), looks at the effects of these experiences on satisfaction and behavioral intentions, and assesses how satisfaction affects future behavior.

CONCEPTUAL FRAME AND MODEL ESTIMATION

Tourist behavior is an umbrella term which includes decisionmaking, onsite experience, experience evaluation, and post behavior. Many factors intervene in this process, including the image tourists have of a destination, which influences behavior in two ways. First, it affects the choice of holiday destination (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Gartner 1989; Mathieson and Wall 1982). Destinations with stronger positive images are chosen. Second, it influences after-decision behavior (Ashworth and Goodall 1988; Bigné et al 2001; Mansfeld 1992). When people take a vacation, they form opinions about service quality and how much they enjoyed themselves. However, the level of enjoyment is governed by the expectations they

had before arrival, which form a baseline for performance comparison. From a marketing perspective, Kotler, Bowen and Makens (2003) suggest that consumers have a positive experience of a purchase when they had a good image of that product before obtaining it. The same principle would apply to tourist consumption: individuals having a favorable image of a location would perceive their onsite experiences positively, which in turn would lead to greater behavioral intentions and satisfaction levels.

In spite of the intuitive validity of the relationship between expectation and satisfaction, almost no empirical research has been done on the role of destination image in after-decision behavior. Bigné et al (2001) is an exception. Their study found that it was a direct antecedent of perceived quality, satisfaction, intention to return, and willingness to recommend. However, their study has two shortcomings. One, it measures destination image by a single item, without considering its widely suggested multidimensionality (Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Gartner 1989; Walmsley and Jenkins 1992). For example, Gunn (1972) proposed three dimensions: organic, induced, and complex. Walmsley and Jenkins (1992) used cognitive (designative) and evaluative dimensions in a position study for the state of Utah. In general, image is measured with cognitive and evaluative dimensions.

However, as evaluative attributes are rather abstract and vague and provide far less applicable information (Chen 2001), only the cognitive attributes are used in this study, as is the case in other studies (Gartner and Hunt 1987; Walmsley and Jenkins 1992). From a cognitive point of view, image is measured in terms of a set of attributes that correspond to the attractions of a locale. Analysis of cognitive image reveals a lack of homogeneity in terms of revealed subdimensions, but attractions, comfort, value for money, and exotic atmosphere have been widely suggested (Baloglu 2001; Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Chaudhary 2000; Chen 2001; Leisen 2001; Walmsley and Jenkins 1992). Accordingly, it is difficult in Bigné et al's (2001) study to understand the relative influence of its dimensions on onsite experiences. Two, Bigné et al merely define these experiences from the cognitive perspective, in spite of a suggestion that they include both cognitive (mental processing) and affective (feeling) aspects (Mannell and Kleiber 1997). Ajzen and Driver (1992) claim that leisure participants evaluate behavior in terms of costs and benefits as well as in terms of positive and negative emotions. Tourists may also compare expectations with the reality during their stay. Furthermore, expectations derived from favorable impressions put people in a positive affect state. In this respect, both cognitive and affective components need to be included when examining how image influences onsite experiences.

In this study, the cognitive component is represented by perceptions of service quality, considered to be a comparison between expectation and actual performance as perceived by tourists (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985, 1988). The affective component refers to tourists' affect state, especially their evaluative state (good, pleased, happy, etc.), since this state is widely suggested to be important in

relation to consumer behavior (Mehrabian and Russell 1974). Thus, the first two hypotheses are as follows:

- H1:** *The more favorable the image of a destination, the higher the probability that service quality is perceived positively.*
- H1a:** *The more favorable the attraction image, the higher the probability that service quality is perceived positively.*
- H1b:** *The more favorable the comfort image, the higher the probability that service quality is perceived positively.*
- H1c:** *The more favorable the value for money image, the higher the probability that service quality is perceived positively.*
- H1d:** *The more favorable the atmosphere image, the higher the probability that service quality is perceived positively.*
- H2:** *The more favorable the image of a place, the higher the probability that the tourist has a positive affect.*
- H2a:** *The more favorable the attraction image, the higher the probability of a positive affect.*
- H2b:** *The more favorable the comfort image, the higher the probability of a positive affect.*
- H2c:** *The more favorable the value for money image, the higher the probability of a positive affect.*
- H2d:** *The more favorable the atmosphere image, the higher the probability of a positive affect.*

Over the years, two competing schools of thought have dealt with the cognition/affect relationship. Some researchers have favored the affect-cognition approach, suggesting that the former can take place without an antecedent cognitive process and can be generated by biological or sensory events (Heise 1987; Zajonc and Markus 1984). Thus, people feel first, then think about what makes them feel that way. Others have adopted the cognition-affect school of thought (Lazarus 1991; Oliver 1980), positing that the causal role of cognition is a necessary but not a sufficient condition to elicit affects. That is, people first recognize what is happening around them, then feel according to their perception. In a study involving mall shoppers, Chebat and Michon (2003) found that the second theory better explains behavior. Lin (2004), following the concept of Gestalt psychology, argues that an individual's cognitive perceptions stimulate his or her emotional responses. The present study is also based on this school of thought. In order for tourists to be in an affect state, cognition (in this study conceptualized as service quality perception) needs to be first. Therefore, the third hypothesis would be:

- H3:** *The more favorable the perception of the service quality of a place, the higher the probability of a positive affect.*

The concept of perceived service quality as a comparison between expectations and performance as perceived by consumers has been widely accepted following the studies of Parasuraman et al (1985,1988). Though these have not been successfully defined or dis-

tinguished in tourism literature, the concepts are not identical. The former is a type of attitude, related but not equivalent to satisfaction, which is described as the degree and direction of the discrepancies between the perceptions of the performance and the consumer's expectations of the service (Parasuraman et al 1988), whereas the latter is an evaluation of consuming behavior. Evaluation may be made in terms of overall experience and/or attribute-specific. Bigné et al (2001) point out several differences. First, in the literature on satisfaction, expectations are interpreted as predictions, but in the literature on service quality they are interpreted as wishes or ideal results. Second, expectations of service quality are based on perceptions of excellence, whereas those of satisfaction refer to need or equity. Third, service quality judgments are related to performances of more specific aspects of customers' experiences (accommodation, food, service, etc.), while their satisfaction is concerned with more holistic experience. Fourth, a purchase process is a necessary condition for customer satisfaction judgments, but the process is not needed for other judgments; the former depends on price, but not the latter. Fifth, service quality judgments are related to tourists' onsite experiences, whereas satisfaction is related to overall evaluation after the event. Many researchers have emphasized the final aspect (Appiah-Adu, Fyall and Singh 2000; Grönroos 1990; Heung and Cheng 2000; Kozak and Rimmington 2000). According to them, service quality judgments determine the satisfaction of consumers because this comes from their assessment of perceived quality. Thus, there exists a positive relationship between service quality perception and satisfaction. Appiah-Adu et al (2000), Bigné et al (2001) and Kozak and Rimmington (2000) demonstrate that perceived quality is an antecedent of satisfaction.

On the other hand, service quality judgments influence behavioral intentions such as willingness to buy or repurchase, loyalty, and willingness to recommend to others (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Sweeney, Soutar and Johnson 1999; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1996). Bigné et al (2001) empirically support a positive relationship between service quality perception and two behavioral intention variables. Consequently, the next three hypotheses are:

- H4:** *The more favorable the perception of service quality during a stay, the higher the probability of satisfaction.*
- H5:** *The more favorable the perception of service quality during a stay, the higher the probability of a revisit intention.*
- H6:** *The more favorable the perception of service quality during a stay, the higher the probability of a recommendation to others.*

It is reasonable to assume that an individual with positive feelings (emotions) while staying at a place is more likely to be satisfied with it and to have greater future behavioral intentions. Mehrabian and Russell (1974) theorize that environmental stimuli affect an individual's affective (emotional) states, which in turn affect approach or avoidance responses. Some researchers who adopted the Mehrabian and Russell model report a positive relationship between individuals'

positive affect and subsequent behaviors, such as staying in, looking around, and exploring the environment; communicating with others in the environment; and being satisfied with consumption (Chebat and Michon 2003; Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Hightower, Brady and Baker 2002; Oliver 1997; Russell and Pratt 1980; Sweeney and Wyber 2002). More specifically, Wakefield and Baker (1998) find that consumers' affective state measured by excitement influences their desire to stay and their repurchase intentions. Westbrook (1987) also reports that affective states directly influence satisfaction, complaining behavior, and word-of-mouth activity. These findings lead to the next three research hypotheses:

- H7:** *The more positive the affective state during a stay, the higher the probability of satisfaction.*
- H8:** *The more positive the affective state during a stay, the higher the probability of a revisit intention.*
- H9:** *The more positive the affective state during a stay, the higher the probability of a recommendation to others.*

The positive influence of satisfaction on behavioral intentions has been widely suggested and tested in both tourism and marketing literature (Appiah-Adu et al 2000; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Fornell 1992; Oliver and Swan 1989). Bigné et al (2001) tested this relationship but found that satisfaction significantly influenced only willingness to recommend. However, they suspended a definite conclusion on the role of satisfaction in terms of intention to revisit, suggesting further examination. This problem leads to the final two research hypotheses:

- H10:** *The more positive the satisfaction, the higher the probability of a revisit intention.*
- H11:** *The more positive the satisfaction, the higher the probability of a recommendation to others.*

The research model shown in Figure 1 summarizes the discussion to this point and the research hypotheses.

Survey Design and Operationalization of Constructs

A survey instrument which included all constructs of interest was developed to investigate the hypotheses of this study. A cognitive image scale consisting of 19 items to assess perceptions of Korea was extracted from previous studies (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Chaudhary 2000; Leisen 2001; Walmsley and Jenkins 1992). The scale included such sub-dimensions as attractions, comfort, value for money, and exotic atmosphere. Each subdimension had more than two items. Respondents were asked to indicate their levels of agreement on each item on a 5-point scale anchored by strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (5).

Perceived service quality was measured with two items (low-high, poor-excellent) based on previous studies (Babakus and Boller 1992;

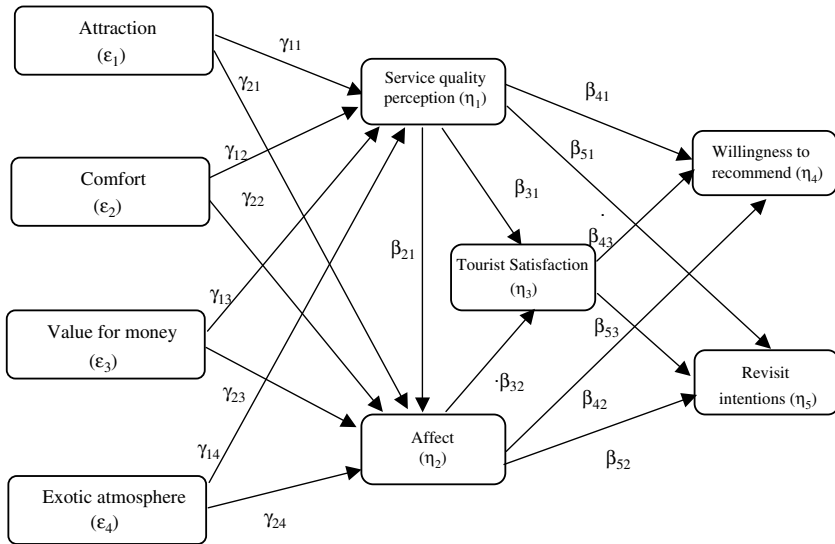


Figure 1. A Proposed Research Model

Cronin and Taylor 1992). Although both expectations and perceptions of specific attributes were generally used, respondents in this study were asked, as suggested by Carman (1990), to judge directly their experiences in Korea compared with their expectations. This approach could also be supported by a second distinction between service quality and satisfaction (perception of excellence versus need or equity), as suggested by Bigné et al (2001). Furthermore, the purpose of this study was to test a research model, rather than to examine each attribute's contribution to the perception of service quality or other constructs (satisfaction, behavioral intentions, etc.). Respondents were asked to indicate their levels of agreement on each item to the question "The service quality of Korea is ..." on a 7-point semantic scale ranging from one extreme to the other, with the middle category representing neutral.

Several researchers (Heise 1979; Kemper 1978; Mehrabian 1976; Mehrabian and Russell 1974; Osgood, May and Miron, 1975) have suggested that the affect state has three dimensions (pleasure-dominance-arousal or evaluation-potency-activity); however, in this study only the evaluative dimension (bad-good, unpleasant-pleasant and nasty-nice) was used as a measure since this component is known to be effective in explaining consumer behavior (Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Wakefield and Baker 1998). Respondents were asked to indicate their levels of agreement on each item to the question "Korea is..." based on the impression they had after their visit to Korea during the 2002 World Cup. A semantic-differential scale was presented, which had seven response categories, ranging from one extreme to the other, with the middle category representing neutral. The operationalization of satisfaction should be different according to the objects of interest

(Fornell 1992; Spreng, ManKenzie and Olshavsky 1996). That is, attention should be given to whether one is interested in satisfaction with specific attributes or in overall satisfaction. Because this study focuses on the overall satisfaction level, the construct was measured with two items (unsatisfied-satisfied and displeased-pleased) similar to the criteria used by others (Andreasen 1984; Bigné et al 2001). Respondents were asked to indicate their levels of agreement on each item of the statement "My experience in Korea has been. . ." on the above 7-point semantic scale. The intention to revisit measure consisted of two items (revisit for pleasure trip/holiday and revisit again in the next five years), adopted from Zeithaml et al (1996). This measure also used a 7-point scale anchored by strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7). The willingness to recommend measure consisted of three items (recommend to family or friends, say positive things to other people and recommend to those who want advice). The criteria were also adopted from Zeithaml et al (1996). The measure used the latter 7-point scale.

Once a questionnaire was developed, it was sent to experts on destination image. They were asked to clarify the items and comment on whether the items were likely to be appropriate for this study. After their comments were integrated, a pretest was conducted with guides and foreign tourists in order to further refine the list of items. These efforts made the questions easier to understand.

The survey instrument was initially written in English and then translated by experts into Japanese, Chinese, and Spanish. It was then translated back into English by three native Japanese, Chinese, and Spanish speakers who were proficient enough in English to check the accuracy of the translation. Based on a comparison between the original English version and the translated-back version, some modifications were made to questions that were less accurately translated. This process ensures the accuracy of a multilanguage survey instrument (Soriano and Foxall 2002). As mentioned by Van de Vijver and Hambleton (1996), cross-culture studies have three types of biases in translation: construct, item, and method bias. In order to avoid construct bias, this study employed expert translators. Method bias was administered using field researchers fluent in each relevant language answering in the respondent's native language if he or she raised any questions about the questionnaire. Further, item bias, which refers to instrument anomalies at the item level, was examined using confirmatory factor analysis, discussed later.

Data Collection and Demographic Profile

On weekdays and weekends during the 2002 World Cup, onsite surveys were conducted among foreign tourists in the World Cup stadiums in Seoul, Suwon, and Incheon, and in two popular areas, Itaewon and Insadong. The survey was administered by students from Kyunghee University in Seoul. In particular, field researchers who were fluent in Japanese, Chinese, and Spanish conducted the survey for respondents from those countries, whereas field researchers with fluency in

English administered the survey for Americans and other residents of English-speaking countries. They provided a brief background explanation and asked foreigners if they would like to participate in the survey. Questionnaires were presented to the respondents, and they were asked to rate how much they agreed with each item on the scale. A self-completion questionnaire is considered to be the most reliable way to obtain responses (Kozak 2001), since respondents have an opportunity to study it. To increase the response rate and express thanks for their participation, small gifts were provided to those completing the form. A total of 451 questionnaires were collected. Of those, 39 were removed because they were incomplete and 412 were coded for data analysis. The samples were composed of 197 Asians, 94 North and South Americans, 92 Europeans, and 29 from other regions.

Respondents were more males (68.1%) than females (31.9%), a pattern similar to that of regular tourists during non-World Cup periods when the proportion respectively was 62.0% and 38.0% (KNT0 2002). The majority of respondents (78.5%) were aged between 20 and 39. University or higher graduates were predominant (74.9%), implying that people with higher education are more likely to travel overseas. Singles (55.8%) were slightly higher than married individuals (41.2%). In addition, 53.9% of the sample indicated that their main purpose was to attend the 2002 World Cup or World Cup-related purposes (World Cup family). First-timers (62.7%) were dominant. Asians represented the plurality of respondents, accounting for 48.6%, followed by North and South Americans (23.2%) and Europeans (22.7%). In terms of nationality, Japanese respondents, who constitute the largest inbound market for Korea, were dominant, representing 27.4% of the total, followed by Chinese (15.8%), British (11.1%), Americans (8.6%), and Costa Ricans (8.6%). The proportions by nationality might be slightly different from ordinary market shares because supporters for national teams visited Korea during the competition.

Measurement Model

The overall measurement quality was assessed using a confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson and Gerbing 1992). Although it is sometimes assessed factor by factor, each multiple-item indicator was considered simultaneously to provide for the fullest test of convergent and discriminant validity. When a poor fit occurred, the fit was purified by the inspection of modification indices. Initial analyses suggested that nine of 19 image items (suitable accommodations, appealing local food and beverages, various shopping products, variety of interesting events/festivals, easy accessibility, lack of language barriers, refreshing/relaxing atmosphere, good climate, and unpolluted/unspoiled environment) with low factor loadings (below .50) should be dropped from further analyses.

As shown in Table 1, the results of statistical analysis indicate that all factor loadings exceed .5, and t-values of each indicator exceed 12.9 ($p < .001$). All statistics support the overall measurement quality

Table 1. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis^a

Constructs and Items	Standardized coefficient	t-value	Composite construct reliability	Average variance extracted
Service quality perception			.87	.77
Low-high	.88	20.95		
Poor-excellent	.88	21.02		
Affect			.76	.52
Bad-good	.77	16.84		
Unpleasant-pleasant	.70	14.82		
Nasty-nice	.68	14.22		
Tourist satisfaction			.87	.77
Unsatisfied-satisfied	.87	20.92		
Displeased-pleased	.88	21.45		
Willingness to recommend			.87	.69
Recommend to family or friends	.79	18.46		
Say positive things to other people	.80	18.76		
Recommend to those who want advice	.90	22.41		
Revisit intentions			.85	.75
Revisit for pleasure trip (holiday)	.94	18.98		
Revisit again in the next five years	.78	15.69		
Attraction			.79	.40
Beautiful scenery/natural attractions	.73	15.98		
Interesting historical/cultural attractions	.69	14.77		
Various recreational opportunities	.62	12.93		
Good night-life/entertainment	.73	16.16		
Comfort			.75	.49
Convenient local transportation	.69	14.30		
Personal safety/security	.71	14.85		
Interesting, friendly and hospitable people	.71	15.00		
Value for money			.77	.63
Good value for money	.75	14.10		
Inexpensive travel costs/price	.84	15.48		
Exotic atmosphere			-	-
Exotic atmosphere	1.00	1.00		

^a $\chi^2 = 337.33$, 174 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$), CFI = .96, PNFI = .70, RMSEA = .048.

($\chi^2 = 337.33$, $df = 174$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .048; CFI = .96; AGFI = .90; PNFI = .70; χ^2/df ratio = 1.94) given a large sample and the number of indicators (Anderson and Gerbing 1992). Furthermore, the evidence of discriminant validity exists when the proportion of variance extracted from each construct exceeds the square of correlation coefficients (Φ) representing its correlation with other factors (Fornell and Larcker 1981).

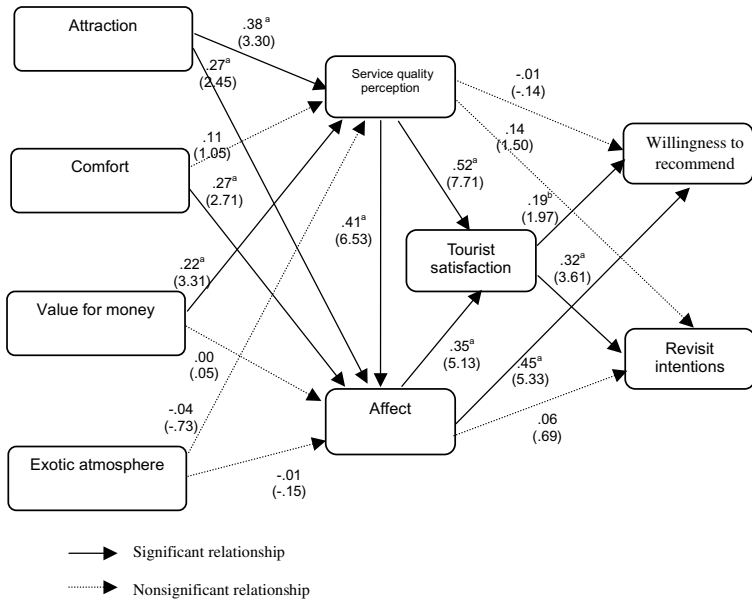
As shown in Table 2, overall service quality and customer satisfaction ($\Phi = .66$, $\Phi^2 = .44$) are one pair of scales with a high correlation between them. The variances of extracted estimates are .77 and .77, respectively, indicating adequate discriminant validity (Table 1). The variance extracted in each measure exceeds the respective correlation

Table 2. Correlation Estimates (Φ) and Construct Means

Measures	SQP	Aff	TS	WTR	RI	Att	Com	VFM	EA	Mean	S.D
Service quality perception (SQP)	1.00									5.49	1.11
Affect (Aff)	.54	1.00								5.70	.94
Tourist satisfaction (TS)	.66	.54	1.00							5.64	1.08
Willingness to recommend (WTR)	.47	.48	.56	1.00						5.60	.98
Revisit intentions (RI)	.28	.14	.28	.43	1.00					4.93	1.34
Attractions (Att)	.44	.50	.42	.49	.28	1.00				3.83	.73
Comfort (Com)	.37	.45	.46	.47	.13	.58	1.00			4.12	.73
Value for money (VFM)	.34	.29	.36	.32	.24	.38	.34	1.00		3.64	.86
Exotic atmosphere (EA)	.28	.33	.33	.33	.11	.53	.44	.31	1.00	3.60	1.04

estimate between factors, which provides evidence of discriminant validity. According to these assessments, the measures appear to have acceptable levels and validity.

In this study, the data were analyzed with the use of LISREL 8.5, and the covariance matrix was used. The maximum-likelihood estimates for the various parameters of the overall fit of the model are given in Figure 2. All indicators of each construct were used in the structural analyses reported subsequently. Further, because there is no theoretical



^a p < .01; ^b p < .05. Path Coefficient (t-value) (two-tailed test). $\chi^2 = 454.84$, $df=187$, $p = .000$, $RMSEA = .059$, $NFI = .90$, $CFI = .94$, $PNFI = .73$, $RMR = .077$, $GFI = .91$, $AGFI = .88$

Figure 2. Estimates of Proposed Overall Model

reason to assume that the latent independent variables are independent of each other, the covariances between them were allowed to vary.

The statistical analysis of the overall model indicates χ^2 is 454.84 with 187 degrees of freedom ($p = .000$; GFI = .91; AGFI = .88; RMSEA = .059; NFI = .90; PNFI = .73; CFI = .94), suggesting that the hypothesized model fits the data (Figure 2). The squared multiple correlations (SMCs; R^2) of the structural equations for affect, satisfaction, and willingness to recommend appear to be high. Half of the variance (SMC = .50) in the factor of willingness to recommend is explained by the direct effects of affect and satisfaction. For satisfaction (SMC = .64), even more of the variance is explained by the direct effects of service quality perception and affect. Similarly, for affect (SMC = .63), still more of the variance is explained by the direct effects of service quality perception and two image dimensions (attractions and comfort). For service quality perception (SMC = .34), the variance is explained by the direct effects of two image dimensions, namely, attractions and value for money.

Within the overall model, the estimates of the structural coefficients provide the basis for testing the proposed hypotheses. Following the conceptual model, this study first addresses the effects of destination image on onsite experience variables (service quality perception and affect) and then discusses the links between the latter and behavioral intentions, namely, satisfaction, intention to revisit, and willingness to recommend to others (Figure 2).

Hypotheses Testing

As shown in Figure 2, the attraction dimension has a significant positive effect on service quality perception and affect ($\gamma_{11} = .38$, t -value = 3.30, $p < .01$, $\gamma_{21} = .27$, t -value = 2.45, $p < .01$, respectively); thus supporting H1a and H2a. The empirical results afford mixed support for the hypotheses on the relation of the comfort dimension on service quality perception and affect. Comfort has a positive effect on service quality perception, but this relation is not statistically significant ($\gamma_{12} = .11$, t -value = 1.05, n.s.); hence not supporting H1b. However, the effect of comfort on affect is in the expected direction and statistically significant ($\gamma_{22} = .27$, t -value = 2.71, $p < .01$), supporting H2b.

The value for money dimension, as hypothesized, has a positive and statistically significant effect on service quality perception ($\gamma_{13} = .22$, t -value = 3.31, $p < .01$), supporting H1c. But, value for money does not have a significantly positive effect on affect ($\gamma_{23} = .00$, t -value = .05, n.s.), not supporting H2c. In addition, the exotic atmosphere dimension, contrary to expectations, does not appear to affect either service quality perception or affect; thus results do not support H1d or H2d. The expected relationships between service quality perception and affect (H3) and satisfaction (H4) are supported by the positive path coefficient ($\beta_{21} = .41$, t -value = 6.53, $p < .01$, $\beta_{31} = .52$, t -value = 7.71, $p < .01$, respectively), but service quality perception does not appear to significantly influence the two behavioral intention variables. In

regard to the relation of affect with satisfaction, intention to revisit, and willingness to recommend, as expected, does have a significant positive effect on satisfaction ($\beta_{32} = .35$, $t\text{-value} = 5.13$, $p < .01$) and willingness to recommend ($\beta_{42} = .45$, $t\text{-value} = 5.33$, $p < .01$), these supporting H7 and H9. However, affect does not appear to directly influence the intention to revisit ($\beta_{52} = .06$, $t\text{-value} = .69$, n.s.), rejecting H8. As hypothesized, the relationship between satisfaction and intention to revisit is positive and statistically significant ($\beta_{53} = .32$, $t\text{-value} = 3.61$, $p < .01$), supporting H10; and satisfaction also significantly influences willingness to recommend ($\beta_{43} = .19$, $t\text{-value} = 1.97$, $p < .05$), indicating support for H11.

CONCLUSION

Tourist behavior is a process consisting of several consecutive stages: decisionmaking, onsite experiences, evaluation, and future behavioral intentions. In spite of broad agreement among scholars regarding the influence of destination image on the process (Ashworth and Goodall 1988; Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Gartner 1989; Mansfeld 1992; Mathieson and Wall 1982), little empirical research has been done. This study has attempted to fill that gap.

The first research question addresses the relationship between Korea's image and onsite experiences, conceptualized as service quality perception and affect state. The results of the study indicate that the two subdimensions of attraction and value for money influence perceptions of service quality. It has been suggested that one of the important factors leading to high service quality perception is value for money (Zeithaml et al 1996). However, in this case although this dimension significantly influences service quality perception, the attraction dimension has greater influence. The results also indicate that the two subdimensions of attraction and comfort have equivalent influence on the affect state. The exotic atmosphere dimension has, on the other hand, no influence on onsite experiences. These results provide empirical support for previous studies that suggested but did not measure the effects of image on after-purchase behavior (Ashworth and Goodall 1988; Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Gartner 1989; Mansfeld 1992; Mathieson and Wall 1982). Considering that image molds the expectations of individuals before they visit (Bigné et al 2001; Font 1997; Grönroos 1990; Phelps 1986), it is not surprising to find that it influences the perception of service quality since the latter depends on a comparison of expectations with experience. Furthermore, a favorable image is likely to put individuals into a good affect state during their visit.

In addition, this study reveals more about the general relationship between image and onsite experiences. That is, each dimension has a different influence on experiences. The attraction dimension influences both cognitive and affective aspects. On the other hand, the exotic atmosphere dimension has no significant influence on either

aspect. The dimensions of comfort and value for money influence either the cognitive or the affective aspect. Previous research has investigated image with a question about overall impression (Bigné et al 2001); thus the findings have been generally inclusive, providing nomothetic implications. This study expands previous literature by providing more detailed information on the role of destination image.

Results show that the influence of the exotic atmosphere dimension on onsite experience is insignificant. This finding might be related to characteristics of the sample and/or the method used. More than 50% of the respondents visited Korea for World Cup-related activities. They might not be generally interested in exploring unfamiliar environments. Furthermore, sampling was made around three World Cup stadiums and popular sites in the most developed areas in Korea. If a survey was conducted for tourists during non-World Cup periods and/or in other sites, there is a possibility that the aforementioned results (the relationship between the exotic atmosphere dimension and onsite experience) could be different.

The findings of the study suggest some useful implications for those interested in marketing Korea. First, each destination image has a different role in formulating onsite experiences. Thus, in order to influence a specific aspect of onsite experiences, Korean marketers should effectively integrate the relevant image dimensions into their promotion materials. In particular, marketing failures will be reduced when efforts are geared toward improving existing attractions and developing new tourism resources, since the attraction dimension has been found to have the most powerful influence on onsite experiences. Second, marketers should try to provide value for money because that appears to influence service quality perception. Therefore, expensive products with lower service quality are detrimental to destination marketing. Third, marketers should also maintain or improve local transportation and personal safety/security along with hospitable people, considering the effect of the comfort dimension on the affect state.

The second research question concerned the relationships between onsite experiences and overall evaluation of a place, as well as future behavioral intentions (intention to revisit and willingness to recommend). The structural equation model shows that, while individual perceptions of service quality have a positive influence on overall satisfaction, their influence on intention to revisit Korea and willingness to recommend it to others cannot be satisfactorily demonstrated. This result is incongruent with previous consumer behavior research that indicated a positive direct relationship (Bigné et al 2001; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Sweeney et al 1999; Sweeney and Wyber 2002; Zeithaml et al 1996). The influence of affect on overall satisfaction and willingness to recommend Korea to others is supported. The more positive the affect of tourists while visiting Korea, the more they are satisfied with their stay and the more willing they are to recommend the trip to others. This result generally parallels previous research that showed a positive relationship between affect and satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Chebat and Michon 2003; Donovan and Rossiter 1982; Hightower et al 2002; Mano and Oliver 1993; Russell and Pratt 1980;

Sweeney and Wyber 2002; Wakefield and Baker 1998). Taking these findings into consideration, this study suggests that the affective aspect of onsite experiences is important in influencing subsequent behavior and that onsite experiences are more relevant to evaluation of travel (satisfaction) than to future behavioral intentions. In particular, the results show that intention to revisit Korea was not influenced by onsite experiences at all. This may have arisen from a peculiarity related to tourism product consumption. Usually product consumption occurs in the future and thus people may be uncertain of their revisit behavior when asked months or years in advance (Sirakaya, McLellan and Uysal 1996). Foreigners may have difficulty in decisionmaking about revisit since international tourism is much more expensive and infrequent than domestic. Additionally, on many occasions people are more interested in experiencing new places than in visiting the same place. Further, socioeconomic characteristics may curtail options to revisit. All of these factors may intervene in the relationship between onsite experiences and intention to revisit the same place in the future. That more than half of the respondents came to Korea for World Cup related purposes might also have contributed to the insignificant relationship. Their major motivation in the visit may have been to watch games or support teams. In this case their next trip is likely to be to the site of the 2006 World Cup.

The third research question concerned the relationship between overall satisfaction and future behavioral intentions. The study results support the premise widely suggested and verified in tourism (Appiah-Adu et al 2000; Bigné et al 2001) and marketing literature (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Fornell 1992; Oliver 1980; Oliver and Swan 1989) that satisfaction is important in relation to future behavioral intentions. The greater the level of satisfaction, the more likely the willingness to recommend later. Therefore, marketers should work unceasingly to increase customer satisfaction.

Since onsite experiences positively influence satisfaction, marketers should work to meet tourist expectations. A variety of methods such as legislation, direction, supervision, control, guidance, and monitoring can be used to improve service qualities. In addition, managing service quality puts people in a positive affect, and that increases the satisfaction level. This means that directly and indirectly a well-developed service quality management strategy could lead to a higher satisfaction level. Furthermore, this study reveals that onsite experiences through the satisfaction mechanism have a significant indirect influence on future behavioral intentions. Consequently, providing good onsite experiences is an effective tool to increase the satisfaction level and to encourage revisitation and recommendation, thus ultimately reducing marketing costs. However, this study reveals that, before doing something to provide good onsite experiences, marketers should create a favorable image.

In conclusion, with regard to the often discussed but insufficiently investigated role of image in tourist behavior, this study reveals that it is a direct antecedent of onsite experiences, though various dimensions are at work. Furthermore, the results indicate that all dimensions

except the exotic atmosphere dimension indirectly influenced overall evaluation and future behavioral intentions either through service quality perception or affect. The results of this study provide an encouraging start in understanding the influence of image on individual behavior, thereby broadening the understanding of the relevant literature. However, the findings are limited in that the sample was one of convenience, consisting of people who visited Korea during the 2002 World Cup. Hence, the results should be interpreted with caution. Undoubtedly, if research is to further the understanding of destination image, it must explore the research model in a way that ensures the representation of foreigners who visit Korea during non-World Cup periods. Furthermore, generalization of the results may be limited, since the area of research only permits the results to be generalized in the case of Korea, making it advisable to replicate this research in other settings.

This study suggests additional directions for future research. First, individual sociodemographic characteristics could be investigated for their influence on image formation and subsequent behaviors. Second, it suggests that affect plays an important role in satisfaction and future behavior, both directly and indirectly. While the two dimensions of image and perception of service quality play an important role in experiencing positive affect, other factors might also be involved. Furthermore, as suggested by many researchers (Heise 1979; Kemper 1978; Mehrabian and Russell 1974), affect is multidimensional and thus this aspect should be incorporated into future research. Third, Gunn (1972) suggests that image is a continuum, beginning with the organic, followed by the induced, and ending in a complex composition. The former image is formed by a long history of non-tourism specific information (history and geography books, television reports), the second is derived from a conscious promotional effort (brochures, TV commercials, advertisements in newspapers), with the complex image being a result of actual visitation and incorporation of the onsite experience. The first two are equivalent to projected and the last to perceived image. Considering the importance of image in tourist behavior, though attention was given to the projected image, it is necessary to investigate the relative role of each.

Finally, destination image is conceptualized as an antecedent of behavior in this study. However, it could change as a result of onsite experiences and evaluation, thus leading to a reverse relationship among these concepts. Longitudinal study can give insights into the reverse relationship of onsite experiences and satisfaction influencing this image. **A**

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