Journal of Sport & Tourism
Vol. 12, Nos. 3–4, August–November 2007, pp. 183–206

The Interrelationship between Sport Event and Destination Image and Sport Tourists' Behaviours

Kyriaki Kaplanidou & Christine Vogt

Existing literature suggests that event and destination images could interact to influence sport tourism behaviours. Within an attitude-behaviour theoretical framework, this paper proposes and tests a theoretical model examining the interrelationships between sport event image, destination image, satisfaction with the event, past experience with the event and destination, intentions to revisit the destination and subsequent behaviours of sport tourists to revisit. A population of active sport tourists, whose primary trip purpose was to participate in a sport event, was used to test empirically the proposed model. Self-administered questionnaires were used to collect panel data in two waves after the event's completion. Structural equation modelling results showed a significant impact of event image on destination image but not the opposite. Destination image and past experience with the destination significantly influenced intentions to revisit the destination for sport tourism activities, while intentions were a significant predictor of actual behaviour to revisit a destination for sport tourism activities. Implications for synergistic approaches are discussed for sport events and destinations.

Keywords: Sport Event Image; Destination Image; Satisfaction; Intentions to Revisit; Behaviour; Panel Data

Introduction

Destination marketers have focused on hosting sport events as a strategy to enhance destination image and differentiate its tourism products (Chalip & Green, 2001; Chalip *et al.*, 2003; Dimanche, 2003; Jago *et al.*, 2003; Chalip & McGuirty, 2004). Communities view the use of sport events as marketing tools that contribute to the future success of the destination by creating awareness, seeking image improvement, and attracting

Dr Kyriaki Kaplanidou is Assistant Professor at the Department of Tourism, Recreation and Sport Management, University of Florida, 300 Florida Gym, PO Box 118208, Gainesville, 32611-8208, USA. Dr. Christine Vogt is Associate Professor at the Department of Community, Agriculture, Recreation and Resources Studies, Michigan State University-East Lansing, 131 Natural Resources Building, MI 48824, USA. Email: kkaplanidou@hhp.ufl.edu

ISSN 1477-5085 (print)/ISSN 1029-5399 (online) © 2007 Taylor & Francis
DOI: 10.1080/14775080701736932

tourism business development to generate future inbound travel (Dimanche, 2003). Sport events can be part of a set of destination attractions for new and loyal sport consumer markets (Dimanche, 2003). Small local communities that are not widely known or considered tourism destinations may be impacted positively or negatively by small or large-scale sport events that attract attendees and participants from state, national and international levels. Destination images, therefore, can be influenced by the hosting of a sport event and the attributes associated with the event.

Destinations can impact the image of events as they are the suppliers of the place of experiences related to the event (Hinch & Higham, 2004). Additionally, the impact of image on behavioural intentions has been of great importance within the sport management and tourism literature (e.g. Baloglu, 1999; Bigne *et al.*, 2001; Chalip *et al.*, 2003). The need to further establish whether intentions are a good proxy measure of behaviours is also needed in this field.

This paper examines the interrelationship between sport event and destination image perceptions and their impact on the decision to revisit a destination (behaviour). More specifically, the research questions this study aims to address are the following:

(a) What is the influence of sport event image on destination image?
(b) What is the influence of destination image on sport event image?
(c) What is the influence of past experience with a sport event and a destination on images?
(d) Does the interrelationship between destination and event images impact behavioural intentions to revisit a destination for sport tourism activities?
(e) How does satisfaction with the event interact with event and destination images and how does it influence intentions to revisit the destination for sport tourism activities?
(f) In the context of sport tourism, are behavioural intentions a significant predictor of behaviour?

Literature Review

Sport tourism scholars have identified that the field of sport tourism is lacking theoretical frameworks explaining sport tourism demand, supply and impacts (Gibson, 2004; Hinch & Higham, 2004; Weed, 2005). Issues related to sport tourism demand might include the extent to which the behaviour of sport tourists can be predicted, or the variables that can influence sport tourists to revisit a destination. Most destinations would like to retain repeat visitors since it is harder and more costly to attract new visitors (Petrick *et al.*, 2001). When active sport tourists, as opposed to passive and nostalgia sport tourists (Gibson, 1998), decide to revisit a destination as a result of exposure to an event, a number of variables may influence their decisions. Social psychology research focusing on predicting consumer behaviours has proposed that behavioural intentions mediate the impact of attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control (i.e. people's perceptions of their ability to engage in a behaviour) on behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen, 1985). Attitudes are also

linked to behaviour (Fazio *et al.*, 1989; Fazio, 1990). In the sport and tourism literature, sport tourists' behavioural intentions to visit for the first time or revisit a destination have been found to be influenced by event and destination image perceptions. More specifically, Woodside & Lysonski (1989), Court & Lupton (1997) and Baloglu (1999) found that destination image plays an important role when consumers decide to visit a destination for the first time. Bigne *et al.* (2001) found destination image to positively impact re-visitation intentions. In Xing & Chalip's (2006) study on matching events and destination images, it was found that destination image perceptions impacted intentions to visit a destination when the event was present in a destination advertisement and matched the destination image in terms of activity characteristics.

Past experience or past behaviour with an entity or object (in this case the event or destination) has been found to be a significant predictor of destination image (Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Milman & Pizam, 1995). Milman & Pizam (1995) found that travellers who visited a place previously had a more positive destination image than those who were just aware of the destination. Hu & Ritchie (1993) reported that visitors with previous experience with a destination had more positive images than non-visitors.

In post-trip contexts, satisfaction has been found to be a significant predictor of re-visitation intentions (Petrick *et al.*, 2001), and loyalty (Bigne *et al.*, 2005). In an earlier study by Bigne *et al.* (2001), however, satisfaction was found to be an insignificant predictor of re-visitation intentions, which suggests that the relationship between satisfaction and intentions is uncertain.

The interrelationships of the previously mentioned variables is addressed through the attitude-behaviour theoretical frameworks found in the social psychology domain (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen, 1985; Fazio *et al.*, 1989; Fazio, 1990). Event and destination image perceptions (which are conceptualized as attitudinal constructs), past experiences with both the sport event and destination, and satisfaction with the overall event and destination experience may interact to influence intentions to revisit a destination and actual subsequent visitation.

Destination Image (DI), Sport Event Image (SEI), and Behaviour

Events and destinations may influence each others' imagery based on theoretical approaches that examine the image transfer concept (e.g. Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Xing & Chalip, 2006). The interrelationship between these concepts needs to be examined within a larger theoretical framework to understand not only their potential mutual influence but also their impact on consumer behaviours.

Destination image has been defined by cognitive, affective and conative elements (Gartner, 1993, 1996; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999), which are elements of the attitude construct (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). The concept of sport event image is lacking a clear definition and most work has associated the image of sport events with that of sponsors (Ferrand & Pages, 1996; Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999) predominantly using brand personality scales to measure this concept. These scales consist of attitudinal semantic differential items such as good-bad and unpleasant-pleasant (e.g. Ferrand & Pages, 1996).

The destination image construct has been conceptualized as being holistic or attribute based with cognitive, affective and conative components that may differ from the sport events' image. The brand image of the sport event is conceptualized as featuring attitudinal components based on the theoretical framework proposed by Keller (1993), who suggested that brand images consist of attitudes, attributes, benefits and costs toward an entity. Marketing images of the event and destination may therefore feature different characteristics. For example, marketing sport event images tends to incorporate elements such as sub-culture associations among participants (Green, 2001) and physical activity components, while marketing of destination images tends to feature physical or cultural settings. Consequently, the same measure for event and destination images may not suffice for studying sport tourist behaviours.

Understanding how the event and destination images work together is important. The theoretical background on co-branding and bundling approaches of a destination with events (Jago *et al.*, 2003; Xing & Chalip, 2006) suggests that the interrelationship between event and destination images should be examined in more detail (Chalip & Green, 2001; Chalip & McGuirty, 2004). Depending on the size of the sport event, the impacts of the event on the destination may be different. For example, mega sport events (e.g. Olympic Games) have had both positive and negative impacts on destination awareness in terms of peak destination awareness, its decay (Ritchie & Smith, 1991) and its image (Ritchie & Yangzhou, 1987; Hall & Hodges, 1996; Hiller, 1998; Kim & Morrison, 2005; Smith, 2005). Sport events have influenced specific attributes associated with the destination image when advertisements were used as a destination image promoting tool (Chalip & Green, 2001; Chalip *et al.*, 2003). It would be logical to assume that smaller scale events (e.g. local running events, cycling races) will have positive and negative impacts on the destination as well. Despite potential negative impacts of sport event hosting, more and more destinations compete and bid for sport events mainly because sport events have predominately been identified as positive influences on the marketing of destinations (Jago *et al.*, 2003; Xing & Chalip, 2006). Previous studies have suggested that the image of the event can influence destination image perceptions when the event image is considered a fit with the destination image (Jago *et al.*, 2003; Chalip & McGuirty, 2004; Xing & Chalip, 2006).

Although obtaining a fit between events and destinations is one objective for event and destination marketers, the quantification of the impact of a sport event's image on a destination's image is another one. Smaller scale sport events, in particular, have not been studied as to whether they bring significant positive or negative impacts on the image of the hosting destination. Given the predominantly positive impact reported in various event studies, it was expected prior to this study that the image of a small scale sport event will positively impact the destination image.

Examining the impact of destination image on event image, Xing & Chalip (2006) reported a transfer of image between destinations and events, suggesting that the impact of destination image on event image could be considerable. The impact of destination image on event image was not quantified in the Xing & Chalip (2006) study since its goal was to test the match between event and destination images. For successful destination branding, marketers need to better understand how destination images

impact upon the image of the events they are hosting. Since co-branding requires a mutual positive interrelationship between event and destination images, the hypothesis for this study is that the image of a destination will positively influence the image of a sport event. Research has also supported the positive impacts of destination image on intentions to revisit a destination (Bigne *et al.*, 2001; Kaplanidou, 2007). Consequently, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H1: Event image will positively influence the image of the destination;
H2: Destination image will positively influence the image of the event; and
H3: Destination image will positively influence intentions to travel to the destination to participate in sport tourism activities.

The Role of Past Experience with Events (PEE) and Past Visitation Behaviour with Destinations (PVD)

Past experience has been shown to play an important role in attitude-behaviour theories (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Gwinner (1997) proposed that the image of a sport event may be influenced by previous experiences with the event. Hagger *et al.* (2002) emphasized the need to include past behaviour in the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) as an important variable for the predictive validity of the Theory of Planned Behaviour model. Hagger *et al.*'s (2002) study found that past behaviour was a strong predictor of attitudes towards physical activity and intentions to be active. Cunningham & Kwon (2003) found past game attendance behaviour was a significant predictor of spectator intentions to attend a game, controlling for race, perceived behavioural control, subjective norms and attitudes.

Research in the tourism field indicates that previous experience with a destination impacts intentions to return to a destination (Perdue, 1985; Mazursky, 1989; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998; Kozak, 2001; Petrick *et al.*, 2001). One explanation for the influence of past experience on intentions to return to the destination is that destination choice is perceived as less risky. Gitelson & Crompton (1984) indicated that past destination experience reduces the risk from potential unsatisfactory experiences. Furthermore, Baloglu (2001) found familiarity (as a function of past visitation experience and informational familiarity) positively influenced destination image, which supports similar findings by Milman & Pizam (1995) and Fakeye & Crompton (1991). Other studies showed that previous experience influenced more positively specific attributes of the destination image such as outdoor recreation (Ahmed, 1996) and destination attractiveness (Hu & Ritchie, 1993). Chon (1991) reported differences between non-visitors and visitors for safety, scenic beauty, shopping and general attitudes toward the destination.

Destination image can be influenced before and during a trip (Vogt & Andereck, 2003). Visitation experience with the destination creates a more realistic image compared with images held before visiting (Gunn, 1972; Gartner, 1989). Additionally, previous visits can result in more affective destination image perceptions (Dann, 1996; Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997). Other studies have found no significant influence of prior

visitation on a destination's image (Hunt, 1975; Chen & Kerstetter, 1999). Most of the studies, however, have shown support for the positive effect of prior visitation on destination image. Therefore, based on the reviewed literature, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H4: Past visits to the destination will positively influence the destination image;
H5: Past experience with the sport event will positively influence the event image; and
H6: Past visits to the destination will positively influence intentions to revisit the destination for sport tourism activities.

Satisfaction and Intentions

While satisfaction is often not included in attitude-behaviour theoretical models, testing its impact on active sport tourists' behaviour in a post-consumption context is important. In the tourism literature, satisfaction has been a strong predictor of behavioural intentions in the post-trip phase (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Bigne *et al.*, 2001; Rittichainuwat et *al.*, 2002; Lee *et al.*, 2004) when individuals evaluate overall trip experiences (Chon, 1989). Satisfaction is expected, therefore, to positively influence the behavioural intentions to revisit a destination to participate in sport tourism activities. Destination image has been found to positively influence overall satisfaction with the trip (Bigne *et al.*, 2001). Similarly, it is expected that sport event image will positively influence satisfaction with a sport event. Therefore, in relation to satisfaction, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H7: Satisfaction with the event will positively influence behavioural intentions to revisit the destination for sport tourism activities;
H8: The sport event image will positively influence satisfaction with the event; and
H9: The destination image will positively influence satisfaction with the event.

Intention–Behaviour Link

The link between intentions and behaviour has been examined via meta-analyses (Sheppard *et al.*, 1988; Hagger *et al.*, 2002) of theoretical frameworks such as the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The results of these meta-analyses provide mixed results regarding the intention-behaviour link. Hagger *et al.* (2002) found a small, but significant impact of intentions toward physical activity to actual behaviour, while Sheppard *et al.* (1988) found that the intention–behaviour relationship was influenced by the type of activity. In a sport and tourism context, the link between intentions and behaviour has not yet been empirically tested, therefore this study will test whether intentions predict subsequent sport tourist re-visitation behaviour. This proposition leads to the final hypothesis:

H10: Intentions will positively influence sport tourist behaviour to revisit the destination to participate in sport tourism activities.

Figure 1 summarizes and presents the hypotheses tested with this study.

Method

Event Description

This study tests linkages between attitudinal and behavioural constructs addressing event and destination image attributes for participating sport tourists. The event that was selected to test these linkages was a week-long amateur bicycling event. The event took place along trails in a Midwest US state and had two 'legs.' The first leg was a two-day bicycling tour. It covered a distance of approximately 35 miles per day, and attracted largely novice riders. The two-day leg included a night's stay in a community considered to be a tourism destination. The second leg was five days, included accommodations along the designated route, covered approximately 320 miles, and attracted largely seasoned riders. The event occurs annually and has been staged for the past 11 years as an event that promotes trails and raises funds for the sponsoring non-profit organization. The event's route and the associated tourism destinations are different each year but the event remains within the boundaries of the state.

The destination studied in this research was the community hosting the overnight stay in the first leg of the tour. The destination is situated on the Great Lakes and has a population of about 5,000 residents according to the latest census. Participants had the option to spend the night in facilities provided by the event organizers (i.e. camp ground) or could choose to stay in other accommodations. The participants had a half-day to experience the tourist attractions in the nearby area.

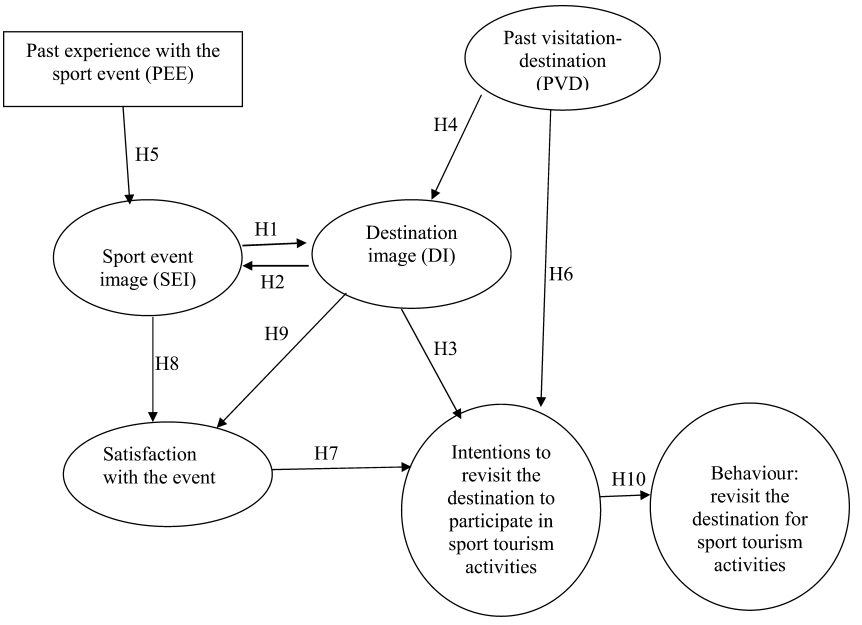

Figure 1 Model testing the interrelationship between SEI, DI, PEE, PVD, satisfaction, intentions and behaviour.

Procedures

Since one of the objectives of this research was to test the link between images, intentions and behaviours, two survey rounds were performed. The first round was shortly after the event and aimed to record image perceptions and intentions of the participants to return to the destination. Data on actual behaviour were collected during a second survey round approximately one year later.

First Survey

The study's population was active sport tourists who registered and paid for either the two-day or seven-day bicycling tour. The contact information for the population ($N = 981$) was obtained from the event organizers at the beginning of October 2005. The statistical analysis of this study required independent observations, which led to the refinement of the population to study households ($N = 720$) and not individuals (one person per household was selected randomly). The measurement instrument for the first survey round was a self-administered four-page questionnaire. A modified Dillman (2000) mailing procedure was used excluding the pre-notice letter and a final third contact by certified mail. Seven-hundred-and-twenty (720) questionnaires were mailed on 1 November 2005 along with a detailed personalized cover letter. One week later, a reminder postcard was mailed to the entire sample to thank those who already responded and to remind non-respondents that their responses were important to the research project. Two weeks after the postcard a second mailing to the non-respondents occurred. To achieve a high response rate, an incentive was offered to the recipients of the questionnaires. The incentive was the chance to win one of two $50 discounts from next year's event. The modified Dillman survey administration method yielded a satisfactory response rate ($n = 495$, 70.3%) minimizing the potential impact of non-response error. Non-response bias checks were performed between respondents and non-respondents on demographic data and no significant differences between the two groups were found.

Second Survey

Behavioural data were collected approximately a year after the 2005 sport event. In October 2006, a follow-up, two-page questionnaire mailing was conducted with those individuals ($n = 495$) who responded to the 2005 survey. Two mailing rounds were performed for the 2006 follow-up survey following the same survey procedures as in 2005. Three-hundred-and-forty-four (344) individuals responded to the follow-up survey, yielding a response rate of 87%.

Sample Profile

The sample's primary purpose of the trip was to attend the sport event. The sample consisted of 54% males and 46% females. The average age of the sample respondents

was 50 years old. Most of the respondents (91%) came from the state where the event took place. The household income distribution of the respondents featured 47% above \$80,000, 21% between \$60,000–\$79,999, 19% between \$40,000–\$59,000, and 13% below \$39,999.

Measurement

Sport event image was measured with a scale created for this study following DeVellis's (2003) scale development approach. Focus groups were initially conducted to begin the scale development process for item generation. The focus group members were participants from the actual event and a Midwest US university cycling club. From focus group scripts, a set of initial items (41) were created. Next, the items were reviewed by two tourism researchers and a convenient sample of active sport tourists ($n = 44$) for face validity. The pilot subjects were requested to provide comments about the clarity of each item and its relationship to the concept of image and rate the item on a seven-point scale based on experiences they had from a sport event they participated in during the past year. Based on the pilot subjects' comments, a pool of 28 items (out of the initial 41) were retained for inclusion in the scale. A subsequent exploratory factor analysis of the 28 items (using the study's sample data) produced a four-factor solution with eigenvalues equal to or greater than one. The first factor had an eigenvalue of 8.0 and explained most of the variance in the latent factor of event image (29%). The second factor had an eigenvalue of 2.0 and explained 9% of the variance in event image. The third factor had an eigenvalue of 1.4 and explained 8% of the variance and the fourth factor had an eigenvalue of 1.12 and explained another 8% of the variance in event image. The first factor had a high Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient ($\alpha = 0.92$) compared with the rest of the extracted factors, which had reliability Cronbach's α coefficients less than 0.57. The items that loaded on the first factor captured the qualitative aspects identified by the focus group data analysis. This first factor consisted of 13 seven-point semantic differential items and based on the qualitative data analysis and the reliability analysis it was retained for the model evaluation phase.

The 13-item event image scale was further tested for discriminant and convergent validity (construct validity dimensions) with the survey data. To test for the discriminant validity of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using the measurement model, was conducted to estimate how the sport event image construct correlates with the rest of the constructs. The results supported the discriminant validity of the scale. Low correlation coefficients were observed between sport event image and intentions ($r = 0.17$) and sport event image and past experience with the destination ($r = -0.05$), which are variables that semantically should not correlate highly with the event image.

Convergent validity of the event image construct was evaluated by incorporating into the survey questionnaire a brand personality scale by Aaker (1997) 'to determine

1) the extent to which the measure correlates with other measures designed to measure the same thing, and 2) whether the measure behaves as expected' (Churchill, 1979, p. 70). This scale was chosen because brand personality is considered to be associated with brand image (Aaker, 1997). Another CFA was conducted between the two concepts and the results revealed a significant correlation between the sport event image and the brand personality scale ($r = 0.59$, $p < 0.05$), which supports the convergent validity of the sport event image construct.

Destination image scales were derived from previous studies (for a review see Gallarza *et al.*, 2002) and a review of the destination's promotional material (i.e. destination travel guide, website). These destination image scales included a set of 17 cognitive and five affective items (see Table 1 for a description of all measures). The cognitive items involved destination attributes and were measured on a seven-point Likert scale. The set of affective items used in this study was based on previous destination image formation and measurement studies (e.g. Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999), which were originally derived from studies on the affective meaning of the environment (Russell & Pratt, 1980; Russell *et al.*, 1981).

Past experience with the sport event was measured with one open-ended item, which asked the respondents about the frequency of their participation in the event. Past visitation to the destination was measured with two open-ended items, which asked the respondents about the frequency of visiting the destination during the past five years for either vacation reasons or to participate in a sport event. Intentions were measured with three seven-point Likert items asking participants about the likelihood of return to the destination in the following two years to participate in a sport or recreation activity, take a vacation, or ride the nearby trails where the event was staged. Satisfaction measures included three seven-point Likert items that asked respondents to express their satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the condition of the biking trails and the overall event experience. On the 2006 follow-up survey round, subsequent behaviour was measured with two ordinal items that asked the respondents about the number of times they used a bike trail in the past 12 months that was part of the event and the number of vacations trips they took to the destination area for any purpose or activity. These items were derived from Ajzen & Driver's (1992) study testing the Theory of Planned Behaviour to measure the link between intentions and leisure behaviour.

Data Analysis

The purpose of the model evaluation was to test the fit of the model to the data and the significance of the proposed paths between sport event image, destination image, satisfaction with event experience, past behaviour with both event and destination, intentions to return to the destination, and actual subsequent visitation behaviour. The fit of the model was estimated using structural equation modelling (SEM) with SPSS 12.1 and EQS 6.1.

Table 1 Variables Utilized in the Model Testing

Variables	Items-scale	Description of items	
Destination image (DI): cognitive*	17 cognitive seven-point Likert scale type items	How much did the destination offer you during your stay? Answers ranged from 'offers very little' to 'offers very much' on various items such as suitable accommodations, good quality restaurants, beaches, interesting historical attractions, beautiful scenery, great museums.	
DI–affective*	five seven-point semantic differential items	Exciting-gloomy, unpleasant,-pleasant, arousing-sleepy, distressing-relaxing, unfriendly-friendly	
Sport event image (SEI)	13 seven-point semantic differential scale type items	Unfulfilling	Fulfilling
		Stimulating (R**)	Unstimulating
		Poor	Excellent
		Sad	Joyful
		Healthy (R)	Unhealthy
		Boring	Exciting
		Gloomy	Cheerful
		Valuable (R)	Worthless
		Ugly	Beautiful
		Distressing	Relaxing
		Unadventurous	Adventurous
		Inspiring (R)	Uninspiring
		Unsupportive	Supportive
Satisfaction	three seven-point Likert scale items (extremely dissatisfied-extremely satisfied)	How satisfied were you with the 2005 event on the condition of the trail, the overall event experience and the condition of other trails part of the event.	
Past participation with the sport event (PPE)	one open-ended item	Times participated in the event	
Past visits to destination (PVD)	two open-ended items	Number of times visited destination for vacation in past 5 years, Number of times visited destination area to participate in a sport tourist event	
Intentions	three seven-point Likert scale type items Extremely unlikely-extremely likely	Ride the xxx trail in the next two years Visit destination for vacation in the next two years Visit destination area to participate in a sport/recreation activity in the next two years	
Behaviour	two five point ordinal scale items 0 times, 1–2 times, 3–4 times, 4–5 times, more than five	During the past 12 months how many times did you use the xxx trail? During the past 12 months how many vacation trips did you take to the destination area?	

*The initial questionnaire items are presented in the table before factor analysis procedures, which are described in the results section of this paper. After factor analysis and CFA procedures the model tested in this study utilized two cognitive and one affective items to measure destination image, which were estimated from the mean score of each of the factor items.
**Reverse coded items.

Analysis Procedures

To test the hypotheses, several statistical methods and procedures were used. The statistical analysis followed a three-step process. The first step involved data management and reduction techniques. Initially, the distribution of the variables was checked for non-normality patterns and outliers were removed from three variables. Factor analysis for the destination image construct was performed using principal component extraction and oblique rotation methods to identify underlying dimensions. Next, the items composing the uni-dimensional (for this set of data) event image scale (as previously discussed in the measurement section) were parcelled to form three indicators. Parcels are total scores—or linear composites—across a set of homogeneous factors for those items composing each of the latent factors after exploratory factor analysis has indicated their uni-dimensionality. As such, uni-dimensionality is a prerequisite for parceling (Kline, 2005). Parcels increase the stability of parameter estimates, improve the variable-to-sample-size ratio, remedy small sample sizes and reduce measurement error (Holt, 2004). Parcels create indicators with better distribution properties and better approximation to the normal distribution (Bandalos & Finney, 2001). Parceling was done by placing every fourth item of the one dimension factor into groups, which resulted in three parcels. The 13th item was included in the last parcel as the remaining item from the selection process. Parcels are supposed to have very similar reliability coefficients with the individual items. Reliability analysis was estimated and parcels featured the same reliability coefficient ($\alpha = 0.92$) with the individual items as required in SEM literature (Bandalos & Finney, 2001).

The second step involved the two-step modelling approach (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). More specifically, the model is specified as a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) measurement model. The CFA model is then analysed to determine whether it fits the data with the aim of finding an acceptable CFA model (Kline, 2005). As a result, testing and evaluation of the measurement model through a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. The loadings of the items were evaluated and the factor structure (i.e. the items composing each factor) was retained or dropped accordingly to prepare for the testing of the structural models. More details on the CFA model are provided in the results section.

The second part of the two-step modelling approach of the structural equation model evaluation analysed data based on the multivariate distribution assumption and tested the hypothesized relationships simultaneously (Kline, 2005). This step of the modelling approach also provided means for assessing and modifying the theoretical models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

All analyses were performed using listwise covariance matrices utilizing the maximum likelihood estimation method. Listwise analysis provides more powerful results compared with pairwise covariance matrices analysis (Kline, 2005). The recommendations of Raykov *et al.* (1991) and Klem, (2000) were followed to report the goodness-of-fit measures (normed fit index, NFI; non-normed fit index, NNFI; and comparative fit index, CFI). One widely used misfit index was also reported: the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Fit indices that exceeded

0.90 and RMSEA misfit indices at or below 0.06 are considered to indicate good or acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Large sample sizes tend to produce a statistically significant χ^2. In SEM, the desired result for χ^2 for a model to have a good fit to the data should not be a significant estimate. Although the χ^2 values are not valuable fit indicators, they are still mentioned in the results section for information purposes. The significance and the magnitude of the path estimates were also examined. The path estimates are presented in standardized form (regression coefficients, i.e. betas) to make meaningful comparisons (despite the variable's metric type) among them.

Results

Factor Analysis

The latent variable of destination image was conceptualized as a second-order factor comprising cognitive and affective items based on a study by Kim & Yoon (2003), which built on previous destination image studies (e.g. Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gallarza *et al.*, 2002). To explore the dimensions underlying the cognitive and affective aspects of destination image, exploratory factor analysis was used allowing for factors to correlate and reflect the second-order latent factor of destination image. Four underlying dimensions of destination image were found using principal component analysis with oblique rotation and eigenvalues equal or greater to one. These factors were similar to the findings of Baloglu & McCleary (1999). The four factors were titled 'environment' (seven items, $\alpha = 0.86$, eigenvalue = 7.80 rotated, rotated variance explained = 6%), 'infrastructure' (six items $\alpha = 0.66$, eigenvalue = 2.17 rotated, rotated variance explained = 5%), 'historical attractions' (two items, $\alpha = 0.66$, eigenvalue = 1.40 rotated, rotated variance explained = 3%) and 'affective' (five items, $\alpha = 0.84$, eigenvalue = 1.32 rotated, rotated variance explained = 5%). The mean for each of the factors was estimated (sum all the variables and divide by the number of items) to form three new variables for the cognitive aspect of the destination image and one item for the affective aspect of the destination image. These four new variables were included in the estimation of the measurement and structural models. An additional step taken in this process was to perform an exploratory factor analysis on the affective items to test whether these items form more than one dimension, as evident in earlier research (Russell & Pratt, 1980; Russell *et al.*, 1981; Kaplanidou, 2007). Principal components analysis using varimax rotation (to test for independent sub dimensions) with eigenvalues equal to or greater than one were used in the factor analysis. The results revealed one factor with an eigenvalue = 3.17, which explained 63% of the variance in the latent construct of affective destination image.

Measurement Model

The measurement model results revealed a good fit of the model to the data. All fit indices, were above 0.95 except for NFI, providing evidence of good fit of the model to the data (NFI = 0.89, NNFI = 0.96, CFI = 0.96). The chi square for this

model was $\chi^2 = 204.63$, df = 149, RMSEA was 0.04 with the 90% confidence interval between 0.04 and 0.06. A review of the item loadings for each factor showed there was one item that did not load sufficiently (loading cut-off criterion was 0.50) on the destination image factor. A decision was made to drop that item before proceeding with the structural model analysis. After dropping that item, the model was re-estimated and the results showed a better fit to the data (NFI = 0.99, NNFI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.05). The chi-square value for the re-estimated measurement model was $\chi^2 = 166.07$, df = 100. Table 2 depicts the factor loadings of the re-estimated measurement model.

Structural Equation Model: Goodness of Fit Indices

To test the fit of the proposed model, a non-recursive structural equation model was estimated utilizing cross-sectional data (Wong & Law, 1999). The model includes: one independent variable, one exogenous (independent) factor and five endogenous (dependent) factors. A table of correlations among the model variables, means and standard deviations (SD) is presented in Table 3.

The results for non-recursive SEM model are depicted in Figure 2. The EQS maximum likelihood solution revealed that the model had a good fit to the data. All fit indices, except for the NFI, were above 0.90, providing evidence of good fit of the model to the data (NFI = 0.89, NNFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.95). RMSEA was 0.06 with the 90% confidence interval between 0.05 and 0.07. The chi-square value for this model was $\chi^2 = 202.21$, df = 110.

Table 4 provides the summary of goodness of fit indices for both the measurement and the structural equation model. The model explained 38% of the variance in intentions to travel to the destination to participate in sport activities ($R^2 = 0.38$), 39% of

Table 2 Measurement Model CFA Factor Loadings

Factor items	Standardized beta	Error	R^2
SEI-item 1	0.90	0.43	0.80
SEI-item 2	0.89	0.45	0.79
SEI-item 3	0.89	0.44	0.80
Satisfaction with the event-item 1	0.69	0.72	0.48
Satisfaction with the event-item 2	0.73	0.68	0.53
Satisfaction with the event-item 3	0.54	0.84	0.29
DI_cognitive item 1	0.85	0.52	0.73
DI_cognitive item 2	0.71	0.69	0.52
DI_affective item 3	0.67	0.74	0.45
Past visitation destination-item 1	0.85	0.51	0.73
Past visitation destination-item 2	0.77	0.63	0.60
Intentions-item 1	0.71	0.70	0.51
Intentions-item 2	0.84	0.54	0.70
Intentions-item 3	0.85	0.51	0.73
Behaviour_item 1	0.61	0.79	0.36
Behaviour item 2	0.99	0.06	0.99

Table 3 Correlations, Means and SD among Model's Variables

	PEE_1	SAT_1	SAT_2	SAT_3	I_1	I_2	I_3	PVD_1	PVD_2	SEI_1	SEI_2	SEI_3	DI_1	DI_2	DI_3	B_1	B_2
PEE_1	1																
SAT_1	0.09	1															
SAT_2	0.05	0.49**	1														
SAT_3	0.17**	0.43**	0.49**	1													
I_1	0.06	0.20**	0.07	0.09	1												
I_2	−0.07	0.09	0.09	0.07	0.53**	1											
I_3	0.01	0.12*	−0.02	0.09	0.57**	0.73**	1										
PVD_1	0.10	−0.01	−0.01	−0.06	0.26**	0.36**	0.28**	1									
PVD_2	0.24**	−0.02	−0.06	0.02	0.26**	0.21**	0.30**	0.56**	1								
SEI_1	0.10	0.34**	0.43**	0.30**	0.18**	0.18**	0.13*	−0.00	0.04	1							
SEI_2	0.08	0.36**	0.46**	0.31**	0.20**	0.16**	0.13*	0.04	0.02	0.79**	1						
SEI_3	0.13**	0.29**	0.33**	0.22**	0.22**	0.12**	0.14*	−0.01	−0.00	0.82**	0.79**	1					
DI_1	0.00	0.21**	0.23**	0.19**	0.14**	0.21**	0.13*	0.09	0.06	0.47**	0.47**	0.37**	1				
DI_2	0.02	0.14**	0.20**	0.16**	0.14**	0.23**	0.17*	0.09	0.05	0.33**	0.32**	0.29**	0.67**	1			
DI_3	−0.00	0.25**	0.16**	0.19**	0.22**	0.39**	0.30*	0.14*	0.13*	0.43**	41**	0.41**	49**	0.42**	1		
B_1	0.05	0.00	0.04	0.01	0.23**	0.05	−0.01	0.09	0.13*	−0.02	0.05	0.00	0.07	0.04	0.02	1	
B_2	−0.10	0.01	0.03	−0.06	0.16**	0.17**	0.09	0.31**	0.19**	0.03	0.09	0.02	0.09	0.09	0.07	0.43**	1
Mean	4.34	6.06	6.02	5.25	4.41	4.13	3.96	0.89	0.53	6.32	6.13	6.07	5.95	5.55	5.49	0.30	0.61
SD	3.84	.91	.99	1.31	1.61	1.62	1.54	1.45	0.95	0.56	0.65	0.59	0.62	0.59	0.59	0.25	0.45

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$.

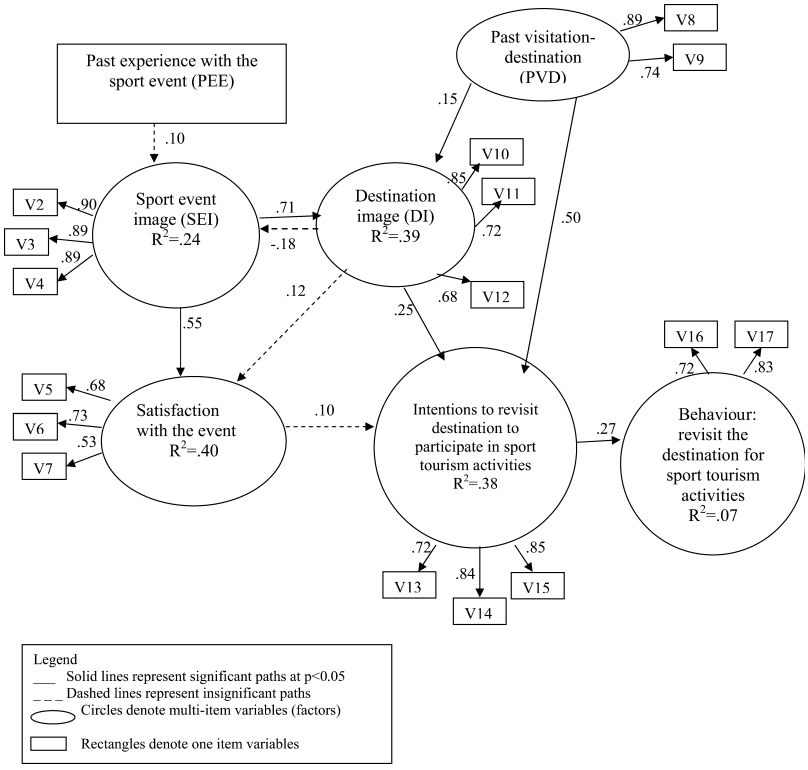

Figure 2 Path estimates derived from model testing.

the variance on destination image ($R^2 = 0.39$) and 40% of the variance on satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.40$). A small amount ($R^2 = 0.07$) of the variance in behaviour to revisit the destination was explained by the proposed model. Past experience with the sport event and destination image explained 24% of the variance in the sport event image ($R^2 = 0.24$), a surprising result given the insignificant predictors of sport event image.

The structural model also depicts the item loadings for each factor, which were similar to the measurement model. This is a positive indication regarding the measurement part of the model because it is not indicative of interpretational confounding (which means that the empirical definitions of the constructs change based on the structural model) (Kline, 2005).

Table 4 Summary of goodness of fit indices for measurement and structural models

	n	χ^2	df	p	NFI	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
Measurement model	239	166.07	100	0.000	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.05
Structural model	239	202.21	110	0.000	0.89	0.93	0.95	0.06

Model Path Estimates

The results of the analysis supported six out of the ten hypotheses. More specifically, the first hypothesis (H1), indicating that the image of a sport event positively influences the image of the destination that is hosting the event, was supported ($\beta = 0.71$, $p < 0.05$). The path estimate from sport event image to destination image was strong, which indicates the importance of the influence of event image on destination image. The second hypothesis (H2), stating that the destination image impacts the image of the sport event, was not supported ($\beta = -0.18$, $p > 0.05$). The third hypothesis (H3), stating that the destination image will impact intentions to return to the destination to participate in sport activities, was supported ($\beta = 0.25$, $p < 0.05$). The fourth hypothesis (H4) related to the impact of past experience (visits) to destination image was supported ($\beta = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$). The impact of past experience with the sport event on SEI was insignificant ($\beta = 0.10$, $p > 0.05$). As a result, the fifth hypothesis (H5) was not supported. Intentions to return to the destination to participate in sport activities was predicted by past experience with the destination ($\beta = 0.50$, $p < 0.05$) supporting H6, but not from satisfaction ($\beta = 0.10$, $p > 0.05$) which did not support H7. Satisfaction was significantly influenced by SEI ($\beta = 0.55$, $p < 0.05$) supporting H8 but not from destination image ($\beta = 0.12$, $p > 0.05$), which did not support H9. Finally, intentions significantly predicted behaviour ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < 0.05$) supporting H10 but the variance explained in behaviour was not large ($R^2 = 0.07$).

Discussion

This study tested a model featuring the reciprocal impact of sport event image (SEI) and destination image (DI) and their interrelationships with past event experience, past destination experience, and satisfaction with the event. Furthermore, this study tested whether intentions to revisit the destination are predicted by destination image, satisfaction with the event, and past visitation to the destination; and whether intentions can predict sport tourist behaviour in revisiting the destination for sport tourism activities. All these variables are presented in a theoretical model that relies on attitude-behaviour theoretical frameworks. Studies on spectators' perceptions have shown support for the positive impact of sport events on the image of destinations (Ritchie & Yangzhou, 1987; Ritchie & Smith, 1991; Bieger *et al.*, 2003; McCartney, 2005). The results of this study support the positive impact of SEI on destination image but surprisingly do not show influence of destination image on sport event image. This finding, albeit surprising, suggests a number of implications for destination image marketing (discussed in the next section under implications for practice). Furthermore, past experience with the event did not significantly influence sport event image. The image of the event positively influenced satisfaction levels with the event, but, surprisingly, satisfaction with the event did not significantly influence intentions to revisit the destination for sport activities. Destination image along with past experience with the destination were significant predictors

of intentions to revisit the destination. Finally, intention to revisit the destination was a significant predictor of actual behaviour, but not much variance was explained by its impact on behaviour.

Implications for Theory

The results of this study suggest that after an event is completed, destination image may not play a significant role in the way the event image is formed in the consumers' mind. This point raises a question regarding active sport tourist behaviour: does the image of the destination matter in the evaluation phase of the event consumption process? Although previous research supports the interrelationships between event and destination image in the pre-trip context, often based on advertisement perceptions (e.g. Xing & Chalip, 2006), the results of this study underline the power of events as destination image formation agents but undermine the power of destination images as event image formation agents in the post-trip context.

In this study, both the event and destination were of a smaller scale and the event did not happen in the same place every year. Theoretically, it seems feasible that variables such as size of event (Gwinner, 1997) and destination as well as stability (event re-occurrence) in destination hosting may influence the way destination image impacts the event's image. Small-scale events are viable tourism marketing solutions for communities that rely on tourism as economic activity. For the active sport tourists of this study, destination image does not seem to have an influence on the image of the sport event in the post-trip phase. This result supports the use of events as destination image formation agents and tourism stimulators because sport tourists are driven to the destination primarily due to the event. Jago *et al.* (2003) acknowledged community support, and a good strategic and cultural fit of the event with the destination as necessary requirements for building events into destination branding approaches. The image of the event appears to be a key factor in generating a more positive destination image and higher re-visitation behaviour.

Despite previous research support for the satisfaction-intention link (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Bigne *et al.*, 2001; Rittichainuwat *et al.*, 2002; Lee *et al.*, 2004) this association was not supported in this study. Satisfaction, however, should not be discounted from future model conceptualization in predicting intentions in the post-trip phase. Potentially, another variable related to satisfaction with destination services (e.g. service quality) could be added to the model to increase it predictive power.

Active sport tourists' past experiences with the sport event did not influence the image of the event. This result presents challenges for theories and studies, which postulate that past experience or past behaviour has been found to have significant influences on attitudes (Hagger *et al.*, 2002). Potentially, the link between sport event image and past event experience would be significant for recurring events in the same destination. Consequently, behavioural models for active sport tourists should probably include or exclude past experiences with the event according to the nature of the event: e.g. recurring event–same place, recurring event–different place, and one time sport event. On the contrary, past experience with the destination was a significant

predictor of destination of and intentions to revisit the destination. This finding is supported by previous research both in sport and tourism domains (Petrick *et al.*, 2001; Cunningham & Kwon, 2003) and should be considered in models testing interrelationships between event and destination images and intentions.

The theoretical contribution of this study is also in the link between intentions and behaviour within the sport tourism context. The results of this study revealed intentions to be a significant predictor of behaviour. Although the result agrees with previous literature from studies utilizing the Theory of Planned Behaviour in the domain of leisure (Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Hrubes *et al.*, 2001), caution should be used with the interpretation of the results as intentions did not explain much of the variance in behaviour. Consequently, actual behaviour could be influenced by other variables such as perceived behavioural control (Ajzen & Driver, 1992).

In conclusion, when events are the point of attraction to a destination, as proposed with this study, then behaviour can be indirectly influenced by intentions, past experience with the destination, destination image and sport event image.

Implications for Practice

Destination marketers are encouraged to project the event's images in their promotional material to benefit from the impact the event can bring about on the destination image and from its indirect impact on intentions to revisit. Both theoretical approaches and empirical results suggest that synergy in promotional and organizational efforts should be a necessary component of sport tourism planning and destination development. Sport events can be the major attraction for sport tourists to visit a destination. Destination marketers and suppliers of the tourism experience can capitalize on the visitors' exposure to the destination by offering and promoting quality products and services in association with the event's image. The image of these tourism products could be in conjunction with visitor destination image perceptions and event images. Each destination should identify and understand its imagery, which can be derived by both visitor and resident images (Bramwell & Rawding, 1996). Synergistic marketing approaches between destination marketers and event organizers can be supported on a long-term basis when recurring events are pursued by the destination (McCartney, 2005) and where the event image can be significantly influenced by destination image.

The image of the sport event was a significant predictor of satisfaction with the overall event experience. This result is valuable to event organizers, who can maintain a strong event image by providing the participants with positive experiences that enhance the organizational, environmental, emotional, social, fulfillment and physical activity aspects of the event (Kaplanidou, 2006).

Destination image positively influenced intentions to revisit the destination, which reinforces the importance of destination image as a marketing tool for destination development. Destination image can be effectively managed through efficient advertising and public relations, proper management of tourist information offices, travel agents, tour operators and other promotional instruments such as the Internet

(Bigne *et al.*, 2001) in association with the event. Creating and sustaining a positive destination image can also result in increased word-of-mouth activity (Bigne *et al.*, 2001).

Given the positive impact of past visits on destination image, destination marketers should customize their marketing communication campaigns for the needs of repeat visitors to maintain a higher probability of return visitation. For example, the diversification of the tourism product through the use of various sport events, which also influence the destination image, could be a salient point of attraction for the repeat visitor. Past experience with the destination was also an indirect predictor of repeat visitation behaviour (through intentions), which emphasizes the importance of retaining loyal visitors and the significance of providing quality destination experiences. Finally, event and destination marketers and researchers could utilize measures of intent as predictor variables of destination re-visitation behaviour but they should be cautious with the interpretation of the results.

Future Research

Future research might examine perceptions of the event and destination images that elite sport tourists (i.e. professional athletes) hold, and the ways these images impact their athletic performance and their intentions to revisit the destination (Copeland & Hirtler, 2002). Future research should also test the model for recurring and one-time events targeting both spectators and athletes.

In conclusion, the model tested in this study showed the significant and powerful impact of sport event image on destination image. The probability of returning to the destination is higher when the active sport tourists are exposed to the destination through the event. Intentions were a significant predictor of behaviour.

Limitations of the Findings

This study aimed to test a theoretical model that was not previously tested per se in the sport and tourism literature. A single population of sport tourists (bicyclists) participating in a single event and one overnight destination provided the context for the research. Consequently, the results cannot be generalized to all sport tourists, events or destinations. At this stage of the research, generalizability was not a necessary requirement due to the model testing phase of the study (Calder *et al.*, 1981; Lynch, 1999). The results, however, can be used in relationship to branded events, such as the bike event studied, to target the pertinent sport tourist (in this case the bicyclist).

References

Aaker, J.L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *34*(3), 347–356.

Ahmed, Z.U. (1996). The need for the identification of the constituents of a destination's tourist image: a promotional segmentation perspective. *Journal of Promotional Services Marketing* *14*(1), 37–60.

Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: a theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds), *Action-control: from cognition to behavior*, pp. 11–39. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *50*, 179–211.

Ajzen, I., & Driver, B.L. (1992). Application of the theory of planned behavior to leisure choice. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *24*(3), 207–224.

Anderson, J.C., & Gerbing, D.W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, *103*(3), 411–423.

Baker, D., & Crompton, J. (2000). Quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *27*(3), 785–804.

Baloglu, S. (1999). A path analytic model of visitation intention involving information sources, socio-psychological motivations, and destination image. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *8*(3), 81–90.

Baloglu, S. (2001). Image variations of turkey by familiarity index: informational and experiential dimensions. *Tourism Management*, *22*, 127–133.

Baloglu, S., & Brinberg, D. (1997). Affective images of tourism destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, *35*(4), 11–15.

Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K.W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *26*(4), 868–897.

Bandalos, D.L., & Finney, S.J. (2001). Item parceling issues in structural equation modeling. In G.A. Marcoulides & R.E. Schumaker (Eds), *New Developments and Techniques in Structural Equation Modeling*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.

Bieger, T., Laesser, C., Scherer, R.J., Johnsen, J., & Bischof, L. (2003). The impact of megaevents on destination images – the case of the annual meeting of the WEF in Davos. Paper presented at the *TTRA European Chapter*, Glasgow.

Bigne, E.J., Andreu, L., & Gnoth, J. (2005). The theme park experience: an analysis of pleasure. *Tourism Management*, *26*(6), 833–844.

Bigne, E.J., Sanchez, I.M., & Sanjez, J. (2001). Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behavior: Inter-relationship. *Tourism Management*, *22*, 607–616.

Bramwell, B., & Rawding, L. (1996). Tourism marketing images of industrial cities. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *23*, 201–221.

Calder, B.J., Phillips, L., & Tybout, A.M. (1981). Designing research for application. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *8*(2), 197–207.

Chalip, L., & Green, B.C. (2001). Event marketing and destination image. Paper presented at the *AMA Educators' Proceedings*, Summer.

Chalip, L., & McGuirty, J. (2004). Bundling sport events with the host destination. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, *9*(3), 267–282.

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*(3), 214–234.

Chen, P.J., & Kerstetter, D. (1999). International students' image of rural Pennsylvania as a travel destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, *37*, 256–266.

Chon, K.S. (1989). Understanding recreational travelers' motivation, attitude and satisfaction. *Revue de Tourism*, *44*(1), 3–6.

Chon, K.S. (1991). Tourism destination images modification process–marketing implications. *Tourism Management*, *12*(1), 68–72.

Churchill, G.A.J. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *16*(1), 64–73.

Copeland, B., & Hirtler, J. (2002). Games image matters. *Olympic Review*, *46*, 55–58.

Court, B., & Lupton, R.A. (1997). Customer portfolio development: modeling destination adopters, inactives and rejecters. *Journal of Travel Research*, *36*(1), 35–43.

Cunningham, G.B., & Kwon, H. (2003). The theory of planned behavior and intentions to attend a sport event. *Sport Management Review*, *6*, 127–145.

Dann, G.M.S. (1996). Tourists' images of a destination – an alternative analysis. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *5*(1/2), 41–55.

DeVellis, R.F. (2003). *Scale development. Theory and application.* California: SAGE Publications.

Dillman, D. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: the tailored design method*, 2nd edn. New York: Wiley.

Dimanche, F. (2003). The role of sport events in destination marketing. Paper presented at the *AIEST 53rd Congress in Sport and Tourism*, Athens, Greece.

Eagly, A.H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Orlando: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Fakeye, P.C., & Crompton, J.L. (1991). Image differences between prospective, first-time, and repeat visitors to the lower Rio Grande valley. *Journal of Travel Research*, *30*(2), 10–16.

Fazio, R. (1990). Multiple processes by which attitudes guide behavior: the mode model as an integrative framework. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*, Vol. 23, pp. 75–109. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Fazio, R., Powell, M., & Williams, C. (1989). The role of attitude accessibility in the attitude-to-behavior process. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *16*, 280–289.

Ferrand, A., & Pages, M. (1996). Image sponsoring, a methodology to match event and sponsor. *Journal of Sport Management*, *10*(3), 278–291.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Gallarza, M.G., Saura, I.G., & Garcia, H.C. (2002). Destination image: towards a conceptual framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(10), 56–78.

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. In M.U. a. D.R. Fesenmaier (Ed.), *Communication and channel systems in tourism marketing*, pp. 191–215. New York: The Haworth Press.

Gartner, W.C. (1996). *Tourism development: principles, processes and policies*. New York: Wiley.

Gibson, H.J. (1998). Sport tourism: a critical analysis of research. *Sport Management Review*, *1*, 45–76.

Gibson, H.J. (2004). Moving beyond the 'what is and who' of sport tourism to understanding 'why'. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, *9*(3), 247–265.

Gitelson, R.J., & Crompton, J.L. (1984). Insights into the repeat vacation phenomenon. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *11*(2), 199–217.

Green, B.C. (2001). Leveraging subculture and identity to promote sport events. *Sport Management Review*, *4*(1), 1–19.

Gunn, C. (1972). *Vacationscape: Designing tourist environments*. Austin: University of Texas.

Gwinner, K.P. (1997). A model of image creation and image transfer in event sponsorship. *International Marketing Review*, *14*(3), 145–158.

Gwinner, K.P., & Eaton, J. (1999). Building brand image through event sponsorship. *Journal of Advertising*, *28*(4), 74–58.

Hagger, M.S., Chatzisarantis, N.L.D., & Biddle, S.J.H. (2002). A meta-analytic review of the theories of reasoned action and planned behavior in physical activity: predictive validity and the contribution of additional variables. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *24*(1), 3–32.

Hall, C.M., & Hodges, J. (1996). The party's great but what about the hangover? The housing and social impacts of mega-events with special reference to the 2000 Sydney Olympics. *Festival Management and Event Tourism: An International Journal*, *4*, 13–20.

Hiller, H.H. (1998). Assessing the impact of mega-events: a linkage model. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *1*(1), 47–57.

Hinch, T., & Higham, J. (2004). *Sport tourism development*. Clevedon; UK: Channel View Publications.

Holt, J.K. (2004). Item parceling in structural equation models for optimum solutions. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the Mid-Western Educational Research Symposium*, Columbus, OH.

Hrubes, D., Ajzen, I., & Daigle, J. (2001). Predicting hunting intentions and behavior: an application of the theory of planned behavior. *Leisure Sciences*, *23*, 165–178.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *6*, 1–55.

Hu, Y., & Ritchie, B.J.R. (1993). Measuring destination attractiveness: a contextual approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, *32*(2), 25–34.

Hunt, J. (1975). Image as a factor in tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, *13*(3), 1–17.

Jago, L., Chalip, L., Brown, G., Mules, T., & Shameem, A. (2003). Building events into destination branding: insights from experts. *Event Management*, *8*(1), 3–14.

Kaplanidou, K. (2006). The impact of sport tourism event image on destination image and intentions to travel: A structural equation modeling analysis. Unpublished Dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Kaplanidou, K. (2007). Affective event and destination image: their influence on Olympic travelers' behavioral intentions. *Event Management*, *10*(2), 159–173.

Keller, K.L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing*, *57*(January), 1–22.

Kim, S.S., & Morrison, A.M. (2005). Change of images of South Korea among foreign tourists after the 2002 FIFA world cup. *Tourism Management*, *26*(2), 233–247.

Kim, S., & Yoon, Y. (2003). The hierarchical effects of affective and cognitive components on tourism destination image. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *14*(2), 1–22.

Klem, L. (2000). Structural equation modeling. In L.G. Grimm & P.R. Yarnold (Eds.), *Reading and understanding multivariate statistics*, pp. 227–257. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Kline, R.B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*, 2nd edn. New York: The Gilford Press.

Kozak, M. (2001). Repeaters' behavior at two distinct destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *28*(3), 784–807.

Lee, J., Graefe, A., & Burns, R.C. (2004). Service quality, satisfaction, and behavioral intention among forest visitors. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *17*(1), 73–82.

Lynch, J. (1999). Theory and external validity. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *27*(3), 367–376.

Mazursky, D. (1989). Past experiences and future tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *16*(3), 333–344.

McCartney, G.J. (2005). Hosting a recurring mega event: Visitor raison d'etre. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, *10*(2), 113–128.

Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1995). The role of awareness and familiarity with the destination: the central Florida case. *Journal of Travel Research*, *33*(3), 21–27.

Perdue, R. (1985). Segmenting state travel information inquirers by timing of the destination decision and previous experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, *23*, 6–11.

Petrick, J.F., Morais, D.D., & Norman, W.C. (2001). An examination of the determinants of entertainment vacationers' intentions to revisit. *Journal of Travel Research*, *40*, 41–48.

Raykov, T., Tomer, A., & Nessleroade, J.R. (1991). Reporting structural equation modeling results in psychology and aging: some proposed guidelines. *Psychology and Aging*, *6*, 499–503.

Ritchie, B., & Smith, B.H. (1991). The impact of a mega-event on host region awareness: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Travel Research*, *31*(1), 3–10.

Ritchie, B., & Yangzhou, J. (1987). The role and impact of mega-events and attractions on national and regional tourism: a conceptual and methodological overview. Paper presented at the *37th Annual Congress of the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST)*, Calgary.

Rittichainuwat, B.N., Qu, H., & Mongknonvanit, C. (2002). A study of the impact of travel satisfaction on the likelihood of travelers to revisit Thailand. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *12*(2/3), 19–43.

Russell, J.A., & Pratt, J. (1980). A description of the affective quality attributed to environments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *38*(2), 311–322.

Russell, J.A., Ward, L.M., & Pratt, J. (1981). Affective quality attributed to environments. A factor analytic study. *Environment and Behavior*, *13*(3), 259–288.

Sheppard, B., Hartwick, J., & Warshaw, P.R. (1988). The theory of reasoned action: a meta-analysis of past research with recommendations for modifications and future research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *15*(3), 325–343.

Smith, A. (2005). Reimaging the city. The value of sport initiatives. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *32*(1), 217–236.

Sonmez, S.F., & Graefe, A. (1998). Determining future travel behavior from past travel experience and perceptions of risk and safety. *Journal of Travel Research*, *37*(4), 171–177.

Vogt, C., & Andereck, K. (2003). Destination perceptions across a vacation. *Journal of Travel Research*, *41*(May), 348–354.

Weed, M. (2005). Sports tourism theory and method-concepts, issues and epistemologies. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *5*(3), 229–242.

Wong, C. & Law, K. (1999). Testing reciprocal relations by nonrecursive structural equation models using cross sectional data. *Organizational Research Methods*, *2*(1), 69–87.

Woodside, A.G. & Lysonski, S. (1989). A general model of traveler destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research*, *27*(4), 8–14.

Xing, X., & Chalip, L. (2006). Effects of hosting a sport event on destination brand: a test of co-branding and match-up models. *Sport Management Review*, *9*, 49–78.

Copyright of Journal of Sport Tourism is the property of Routledge and its content may not be copied or emailed to multiple sites or posted to a listserv without the copyright holder's express written permission. However, users may print, download, or email articles for individual use.