The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

School of Hotel and Tourism Management

Celebrity Endorsement Effectiveness for Print Destination Advertising

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it reproduces no material previously published or written, nor material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

Robert van der Veen

Abstract

The aim of this study is to develop a conceptual framework for understanding the effects of celebrity endorsement on the attitude and visitation intentions of tourists. Ohanian's (1991) model is applied and modified to examine the effects of celebrity endorsement in print destination advertisements in the context of Mainland Chinese tourists visiting Hong Kong. In such a context, this study widens the application of the model beyond a single discipline and cultural setting. The model is modified by introducing a continuous moderator 'Matchup' and two mediators, Attitude towards the Advertisement and Attitude towards the Destination. The key research constructs within the framework and effects are Attractiveness, Trustworthiness and Expertise. Combined, these constructs influence Attitude towards the Advertisement and Attitude towards the Destination, which then impacts on Visitation Intentions. Structural equation modeling is the main statistical technique for testing and estimating the relationships. The structural relationships between the dimensions are hypothesized as follows: (1) Attractiveness, Trustworthiness and Expertise have significant and positive direct effects on Attitude towards the Advertisement and Attitude towards Hong Kong. (2) Attitude towards the Advertisement and Attitude towards Hong Kong both have significant and positive direct effects on Visitation Intentions. (3) Attitude dimensions mediate the relationships between the celebrity endorsement factors and visitation intentions. (4) The component 'Matchup' moderates the relationship between credibility factors and attitude constructs. A pre-test amongst a mixed student and teacher sample (n=113) was conducted to specify the moderator 'Matchup'. In addition, they helped identify the picture of Hong Kong and the selection of the four celebrity endorsers (Andy Lau, David Beckham, Britney Spears and Maggie Cheung).

This study administers a questionnaire using a number of published items and a 7-point semantic differential scale format. A pilot study (n=246) tested the questionnaire and identified all proposed constructs with the exception of the Trustworthiness dimension. A revised questionnaire was employed for the main survey (n=1044) with residents of Guangzhou at five popular shopping locations. Face-to-face street intercept interviews combined with a quota sampling technique were conducted for both the pilot study and the main survey. A renowned research company collected the data and ensured the sample closely represented the strata set out by the visitor profile of the Hong Kong Tourism Board. The revised measurement model and structural model were found to fit the data satisfactorily. The path coefficients and their statistical significance in the revised structural model indicated that all hypotheses were supported, apart from one. Although the path from Attractiveness to Attitude towards the Advertisement is in the specified positive direction, it is not statistically significant. This study found that tourist's attitude towards the advertisement and the destination were predictors of visitation intentions, and at the same time played a mediating role between the celebrity endorsement dimensions and visitation intentions. 'Matchup' reported significant moderation effects on the relationship between perceived expertise and attitude towards a destination. Squared multiple correlations indicate that the revised structural model has a strong statistical ability to predict Mainland Chinese respondents' Attitude towards the Advertisement (47%) and Attitude towards Hong Kong (26%) and to a lesser extent their Visitation Intentions (9%). The experimental research design is able to determine the effects of the four treatment groups versus the control group. By comparing the latent mean differences, it was found that the experimental groups significantly score better on both attitude dimensions. However, no significant differences were detected for visitation intentions.

The study also compared celebrity endorser groups on familiarity, likability and all major dimensions. From the data, it appears that Andy Lau is the most appropriate celebrity for endorsing Hong Kong. Finally, the study findings provide support for the proposed model of celebrity endorsement in a tourism setting among an Asian sample. As a result, considerable insight into tourists' responses to celebrity endorsement for destination advertising is gained. In addition, the study sheds light on the appropriateness of Trustworthiness as a construct to examine source credibility for a celebrity endorser. Instead, it appears that the trustworthiness of the celebrity endorser depends on the media providing information about the celebrity. Attitude was found to be one of the significant antecedents, which may serve as a necessary condition for the consequent intentions within future celebrity endorsement frameworks. In addition, significant interaction effects of the relationship between Expertise and Attitude towards Hong Kong are identified. Consequently, the proposed inclusion of the mediator and moderator changes the current thinking regarding the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer evaluations. By assessing the value of celebrity endorser assets and their effectiveness, this study may help to inform destination marketers who may independently use the model or at least in part, to form, explain and perhaps justify promotional activities.

Key words: Celebrity Endorsement, Tourism, Destination Marketing, Experiment, Structural Equation Modeling, Mediator, Moderator, Measurement Invariance, Latent Mean Differences

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Foreword

This chapter provides an introduction to the background and purpose of this study. It discusses the various constructs of the proposed theoretical framework, the methodology and overall research question, which is followed by the objectives. Furthermore, several sections relevant to the phenomenon of celebrity destination endorsement are discussed to provide justification for this study.

1.2 Background

On 13 June 2006, Jackie Chan was appointed by the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) as 'Asia's Tourism Ambassador' at the Asia-Pacific Tourism Ministerial Conference in Macau. The reason for his appointment was to represent and promote Asia in order to generate tourist arrivals and to create a positive image. Additionally, in 1995, Jackie Chan was appointed as Hong Kong's official Tourism Ambassador. There are other examples of destination management organizations (DMOs) selecting celebrity endorsers to support their marketing efforts. For example, the Mauritius Tourism Promotion Authority launched a celebrity endorsement campaign to persuade the Indian traveller in 2000. The celebrities, Ritu Beri and Malaika Arora were selected as they embody certain characteristics of the destination. Hence, a conclusive merger was established to showcase Mauritius (Express Travel & Tourism, 2002). In March 2002, the Australian Tourism Commission appointed Australian swimming star Ian Thorpe as Australia's Holiday Ambassador in Japan. It is believed that Ian generated around AUS$20 million in media publicity since his appointment

and has helped to raise interest in travelling to Australia (Australian Tourist Commission, 2002). Obviously, from these practices there appears to be potential for celebrity destination endorsement. Some tourism scholars also indicate that the link between a destination and a well-known personality could be of enormous benefit in the promotion of a destination (Holloway & Robinson, 1995) and may attract tremendous media attention (Morgan & Pritchard, 2001). Andrews and Jackson (2001) investigated sporting celebrities and indicate that they could be considered as role models because they are powerful cultural, financial and media figures and image creators. Exploiting the wide recognition of sports celebrities in tourism promotion media to penetrate specifically targeted tourism markets is becoming increasingly common (Higham & Hall, 2003). For example, the British Tourist Authority (2000) indicates that the prominence of sporting celebrities in the national and international media is such that they have become a powerful tool in destination marketing. One of the reasons for this is that a celebrity endorser is considered effective in selling products and services as status symbols because celebrities are individuals of indisputably high status (Packard, 1991). This was also found in a study by Friedman and Friedman (1979). They manipulated four spokespeople variables and found that expert endorsers are more effective for household durable products, whereas celebrities are more effective for luxury and fashion products. Celebrities could move beyond the luxury consumer goods and promote destinations in order to increase awareness levels among potential tourists. As style and status indicators, destinations could offer the same consumer benefits as other more highly branded lifestyle accoutrements such as cars, perfumes, watches and clothes (Clarke, 2000). This inclination is also supported by the UNWTO (2001b) as it indicates that the next century possibly marks the emergence of tourism destinations as a fashion accessory.

Hence, destinations seen as a fashionable product may be evaluated more positively when endorsed by a celebrity (Chao, Wührer, & Werani, 2005). However, no studies to date have associated celebrity endorsement with destination choice on a national level and this is a gap addressed by this study. The rational of the study is discussed in the next section.

1.3 Purpose of the study

Researchers have not thoroughly investigated the phenomenon of celebrities endorsing destinations, which is necessary in order to evaluate and take advantage of its potential. It is likely that as tourism continues to gain economic importance, promotional instruments previously unrelated to tourism research are to be considered in order to investigate their effectiveness. This study investigates the potential of celebrity destination endorsement. The suggestion is that the endorsement claim communicated to desired target markets may have the ability to create positive attitudes towards the destination and the advertisement, which in turn may have a positive influence on visitation intentions to the destination. The probability of a visit can increase considerably if the DMO can favourably change the tourist's attitude by persuading them to visit their destination. The assumption underlying this study is that celebrity endorsement in a print destination advertisement is likely to influence tourists' attitude and intentions. Most people make travelling decisions consciously and those plans could be influenced or shaped through changes in attitude and other conditions that contribute to the formation of travelling intentions. It is assumed that manipulated messages are able to positively influence attitude and visitation intentions of the tourists.

Therefore, if the effect of the stimulus on the tourist's attitude and visitation intentions is clarified, DMOs could be more confident in launching celebrity endorsed communication campaigns. A celebrity endorsed campaign may offer considerable potential to achieve a competitive advantage and provide a point of differentiation for destinations. The next section illustrates the proposed methodology and objectives in order to achieve and satisfy the intentions of this study.

1.4 Methodology and the Objectives

This study adopts a quantitative approach to address the overall research question: *Is the celebrity endorser able to generate a positive impact on tourist attitude and would this lead to positive visitation intentions?* A comprehensive model is proposed in order to explain and predict celebrity endorsement effectiveness on tourists' attitude and their visitation intentions. An experimental research design using a print destination advertisement was selected to determine the effects that four celebrity endorsers (native/male, non-native/male, native/female, non-native/female), could have on tourists' attitude and visitation intentions compared to a control group showing no endorsement claim. If significant celebrity endorsement effects are found, DMOs may consider applying celebrity endorsement to support specific marketing activities or segments that positively react to an endorsement claim. It is expected that higher positive scores will be recorded for a relevant, rather than a less relevant association between the celebrity endorser and the destination. As a result, it may be possible to indicate the most suitable endorser based on the most relevant matchup to the destination. The following research questions relate to the specific effects of the celebrity endorser.

- Would a destination print advertisement employing a celebrity endorser generate a more positive tourist attitude towards the destination than a destination print advertisement without a celebrity endorser?

- Would a destination print advertisement employing a celebrity endorser generate a more positive tourist attitude towards the advertisement than a destination print advertisement without a celebrity endorser?

- Would a destination print advertisement employing a celebrity endorser generate a more positive tourist visitation intention than a destination print advertisement without a celebrity endorser?

- Would destination print advertisements with native celebrity endorsers generate a more positive tourist attitude towards the destination than destination print advertisements with non-native celebrity endorsers?

- Would destination print advertisements with native celebrity endorsers generate a more positive tourist attitude towards the advertisement than destination print advertisements with non-native celebrity endorsers?

- Select the most appropriate celebrity endorser for a destination print advertisement.

In summary, an existing model explaining celebrity endorsement effectiveness is selected and then modified. This study investigates whether celebrity endorsement allows destination marketers to communicate and enhance the perceived destination image through print advertisements towards an appropriate target market. Nearly all major constructs and their indicators are based on previous studies. The dimensions are latent variables, which mean they are measured by observable indicators. The relationship between celebrity endorsement factors and tourists' attitude will be analysed using structural equation modelling (SEM), to show how these combined elements influence visitation intentions. This study employs a modified model to examine the nexus between celebrity endorsement factors (*Attractiveness*, *Trustworthiness* and *Expertise*) and attitude towards the destination and advertisement, leading to intentions to visit the destination. Therefore, the following objectives are specified as follows.

- Identify the underlying structure of the celebrity endorsement factors (*Attractiveness*, *Trustworthiness* and *Expertise*).

- Identify the underlying structure of the Mainland Chinese tourists' attitude towards the advertisement and their attitude towards the destination leading to visitation intentions.

- Investigate how the celebrity endorsement factors influence tourists' attitudes towards the advertisement and destination and whether this leads to visitation intentions.

This study analyses whether the celebrity endorser has a direct positive impact on the respondents' attitude towards the advertisement and destination. It is assumed that these two dimensions positively mediate the relationship between the celebrity endorsement factors and visitation intentions.

- Investigate whether tourists' attitude towards both the advertisement and destination mediates the impact of celebrity endorsement factors on visitation intentions.

Furthermore, it is expected that response to the destination vary from one endorser to another and it is suggested that marketers construct perceived connections between the destination and the endorser. If the perceived association is not mirrored by the largest part of the target market then one has to question whether the endorser is appropriate. The impact of any advertising stimulus on attitude is conditioned by a host of moderator variables. Pornpitakpan (2003) calls for Matchup as a moderator to be added to Ohanian's (1991) model. This study includes Matchup as a moderator to represent the congruency between the celebrity endorser and the destination.

- Investigate whether the Matchup dimension moderates the impact of celebrity endorsement credibility factors on tourists' attitude towards the advertisement and destination.

1.5 Communication Overload

Consumers develop their preferences when faced with a purchase decision based on the ways in which the alternatives are presented to them (Simonson, 1999). Their judgment depends on availability of information and the attitude towards that information (Obermiller, 1985). Furthermore, the information format may influence the consumers' evaluation and decision-making process (Bettman, Luce, & Payne, 1998; Ganzach & Karsahi, 1995; Harlam, Krishna, Lehmann, & Mela, 1995; Simonson & Tversky, 1992; Simonson & Winer, 1992) and could influence the importance of certain attributes (Areni, Duhan, & Kiecker, 1999; Simonson, 1999). Not only does the format but also the amount of information given affect consumer choice (Johnson & Levin, 1985; Kivetz & Simonson, 2000). Kivetz and Simonson (2000) argue that consumers increasingly face the situation of information overload and they are unlikely to process all available information. With increasingly competitive consumer markets and rapidly changing consumption patterns, scholars have constantly exercised a battery of studies to supply marketing information needs (Yaman & Shaw, 1998). Hence, in an age of increasing communication overload, people's selective perception mechanism will work harder but by employing an eye-catching stimulus, it may help obtain people's attention (de Mooij, 1997). Anholt (2002) reminds us that the real prize is the wealthy consumers' rapidly diminishing attention span, a commodity whose price has steadily and inexorably risen, as advertising messages have proliferated. Celebrity endorsements may offer an opportunity to differentiate products, services and brands by going beyond a focus on activities, attributes and rational benefits.

In modern marketing campaigns, celebrity endorsements are employed to differentiate and position products, services or even political candidates from competitors. In a similar vein, DMOs may appoint celebrity endorsers to differentiate themselves from others and direct awareness towards their destination. It is believed that in a world of growing media clutter, a celebrity endorsing a destination may serve as a distinctive instrument to draw tourists' attention.

1.6 Destination Marketing

This study focuses on the efforts to increase demand for a destination's tourism, as it is an opportunity to increase the destination's export of services (Middleton & Clarke, 2001). The reason for this is that the competition to encourage tourists to spend Dollars, Euros and RMBs continues to increase as it supports the growth of the tourism and hospitality industry. It also encourages community development that satisfies the quality-of-life factor all destinations try to achieve. As a market place, the demand for supply struggles for attention and consumption (Murphy, 1985). It is believed that a 'wait and see' approach is considered as inappropriate, as some strategic framework is necessary to harvest the economic benefits in a way it suits the destination (Connell, 2005). Hence, intervention to influence this operation is not only both possible and desirable; it is also largely unavoidable (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). However, destinations are some of the most difficult entities to manage and market. This is due to the unique needs and limitations of each destination as well as their particular geographical, environmental and socio-cultural characteristics (Buhalis, 2000). It is also because of dynamics of interests and benefits sought by various stakeholders (Sautter & Leisen, 1999) and the increasingly complex and uncertain

environmental conditions (Brown, 2000). Therefore, destination marketing differs from any other product, service or non-profit marketing strategy (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990, 1994; Harti-Nielsen, 2000), because the purchases of tourism products are unique and different from those of other consumer products (Moutinho, 1987). Nevertheless, it appears that marketing is very useful to enhance awareness and attention of the destination's unique benefits (Nielsen, Murnion, & Mather, 2000). Moreover, it seems that destination marketing is important, because those that fail to market themselves successfully face the risk of economic stagnation and decline (Kotler et al., 1999). As a result, destination marketing is becoming increasingly competitive (Clarke, 2000; Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith, 2000). Optimal information provision, in contents as well as in channels, is regarded as crucial for the success of selling the destination (Cai, Feng, & Breiter, 2004). Destinations could be considered as a complex of activities, attributes and experiences, and is ultimately what is sold by destination promotion agencies to the market (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Blumberg, 2005). Not surprisingly, it forces DMOs to play a more active selling role as tourists appreciate a one-stop-service (Buhalis, 2000). The increased recognition of marketing as an indispensable tool has led to the evolution of destination marketing as a topic relevant to tourism in both theory and practice (Ahmed, 1991; Blumberg, 2005; Hen & Iversen, 2004). Destination marketing is defined for this study as "*an integral part of developing and retaining particular location popularity*" (Kotler et al., 1999: 653). The rewards to those who achieve even marginal improvements can be great in terms of marketing efficiency and added profitability (Middleton & Clarke, 2001). In other words, whatever marketing strategy destinations eventually choose, some form of awareness or attention is inevitable if the destination hopes to survive or grow (Evans, Fox, & Johnson, 1995).

However, some format of direction or strategy is recommended. Developing a marketing mix for destinations will depend on each destination, the types of target markets, and a whole range of issues on the external environment (Buhalis, 2000). This study follows a promotional strategy, concentrating on advertising efforts. The reason is that most DMOs focus their attention on the communication element of the marketing mix in their efforts to publicize a desirable destination image (Hankinson, 2001). Advertising plays an important role in the change process because it provides one of the most efficient means by which a country can convey its image to potential travellers (Bojanic, 1991). Therefore, the DMO has the challenging task of using graphic and verbal representations to positively influence the purchase decision (Fesenmaier, 1994). Due to the lack of control, DMOs have little to say over what is actually delivered to and experienced by visitors as it depends on others (Hanlan & Kelly, 2005; Walker & Hanson, 1998), and most destinations are bound to accepting the local tourism product as given (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). Hence, there is a need for managing the market portfolio rather than the product portfolio, due to the limited control tourism marketers often have over the product mix and/or new product development (de Chernatony & Segal-Horne, 2003; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Fyall, Callod, & Edwards, 2003; McKercher, 1995). For this reason, McKercher (1995) suggests development of a destination-market-matrix to help in the strategic marketing process via visualization of complex inter-relationships existing between a destination and its many markets. Although many scholars have indicated that societal marketing or sustainable management strategies are more important than just increasing numbers of tourists or awareness levels, in practice the tangible financial bottom-line may offer a more convincing justification to obtain resources.

In practice, DMOs, sponsoring authorities and institutions are very much interested in destination marketing as a promotional instrument in order to increase the region's profile and a subsequent increase in tourism volume (Blumberg, 2005; Connell, 2005). Blumberg's (2005) study found that the DMO managers still regarded destination marketing as a traditional promotional instrument to shift attitudes. The idea behind it is that potential tourists must be informed and motivated to take an interest in the regional tourism offering (Heath & Wall, 1992). For this reason, tourism promotion is usually designed to be informative, persuasive or reminding (Mill & Morrison, 1998). The overall aim for many DMOs is to create awareness, and to transform the existing image held by the target market more closely to the destination's desired image (Ahmed, 1991). Furthermore, it is believed that the destination with a strong and positive differentiated image has a higher probability of being included in the destination selection process (Alhemoud & Armstrong, 1996; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Johnson & Thomas, 1992; Telisman-Kosuta, 1994). The focus of destination marketing agencies at all levels is largely to convey a differential and positive overall image of a destination to prospective tourist segments (Ahmed, 1991; Cai, 2002; Fyall et al., 2003). Consequently, destination marketing is often understood to be an image enhancing sales tool within a market-oriented approach to destination marketing, which helps persuade tourists to visit (Calantone & Mazanec, 1991). The next section further elaborates on the importance of establishing and conveying a positive destination image.

1.7 Destination Image

Research indicates that the destination image differentiates destinations from each other and it is an integral and influential part of the tourists' decision process (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Coshall, 2000; Laws, 1995; Lumsdon, 1997; Middleton & Clarke, 2001; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000). Moreover, the destination image is thought to represent a compilation of perceptions based upon information processing, which determine attitude towards the destination that subsequently may lead to visitation intentions (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997). The influence of destination image on the choice of holiday destinations has been considered by various scholars in decision-making models (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Gartner, 1989; Goodall, 1988; Moutinho, 1987). It is suggested that a destination's image has great importance in the destination selection process and considerable implications for marketing (Cai, 2002; Gartner, 1986, 1993; Lee, O'Leary, & Hong, 2002), as it can inspire people to visit and revisit it (Coshall, 2000; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000), irrespective of whether or not the image is truly representative of what a place has to offer (Shields, 1991; Um & Crompton, 1991). However, the influence of image is not limited to the stage of selecting the destination, but also affects the behaviour of tourists in general (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988; Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Bigné, Sánchezb, & Sánchez, 2001; Bramwell & Rawding, 1996; Chon, Weaver, & Kim, 1991; Mansfeld, 1992). Nevertheless, tourists' perceptions play an important role in influencing behavioural intentions as found by various tourism studies (e.g., Lennon, Weber, & Henson, 2001; Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2001). Therefore, tourism scholars indicate that destination marketers should concern themselves with improving their image if they are to compete successfully in the

holiday market (Bigné et al., 2001; Middleton & Clarke, 2001). In an increasingly competitive environment, each location has recognized the economic benefits in establishing a clear and compelling selling proposition, because such a proposition makes it more appealing to visit the location (Hall, 2004). This study identifies celebrity endorsement as such a proposition and examines whether it allows destination marketers to communicate and enhance the perceived value of the destination's uniqueness towards an appropriate target market in order to maximize strategic objectives. The next section justifies the choice for celebrity endorsement.

1.8 Celebrity Endorsement

As previously indicated, tourism is based on images and its overriding concern is to construct an image (of the destination) that entices the outsider to place him/herself into the symbol-defined space (Buck, 1993a). Using various communication instruments, the DMO could positively manipulate the image to increase the destination's appeal to the target audience (Chon, 1987; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1993; Litvin & Ling, 2000). This study examines celebrity endorsement as a communication instrument, because it was found that celebrity endorsers are able to contribute more to increased brand visibility (Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Till, 1998; Tom, Clark, Elmer, Grech, Masetti, & Sandhar, 1992), higher attention levels (Atkin & Block, 1983; Friedman & Friedman, 1979), more positive attitudes towards the advertising and the product (Atkin & Block, 1983; Freiden, 1984; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Kamins, 1989; Tripp, Jensen, & Carlson, 1994), and greater purchase intentions (Friedman, Termini, & Washington, 1976) than non-celebrity endorsers.

There have been a number of studies that have examined whether, and under what conditions, celebrities make appropriate endorsers for products (e.g., Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995; Atkin & Block, 1983; Freiden, 1984; Kamins, 1989; Kamins, Brand, Hoeke, & Moe, 1989; Ohanian, 1991; Tripp et al., 1994). It was found that the appropriate use of celebrity endorsers can be highly effective in product promotions (Atkin & Block, 1983; Misra & Beatty, 1990; Mitchell & Olson, 1981), because famous people have distinct images that can be transferred to associated brands (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Langmeyer & Walker, 1991; McCracken, 1989; Simonin & Ruth, 1998). These studies highlight that when there are synergies between the brand and the celebrity, and when the consumer purchases the product, the transfer process is completed (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). Research has shown that destinations could represent and be equivalent to organizations in a competitive context (e.g., Kotler et al., 1999; Melián-González & Garzía-Falcón, 2003) or to brands (e.g., Cai, 2002; Gnoth, 1998; Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002; Sirgy & Su, 2000), and in such a context it may suggest that benefits found in celebrity endorsement for other products and services may apply to destinations as well. Therefore, the frequent use of celebrity endorsers, their economic value (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995), and their perceived effectiveness in endorsing all kinds of goods and services (Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Till, 1998; Tom et al., 1992) underscores the need to examine the celebrity as an effective spokesperson for destinations.

1.9 Context

Since most studies regarding factors affecting the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement have been US-based (Erdogan & Baker, 2000), there seems to be a need for a similar study in a different context. Therefore, this study is set in the context of Hong Kong as a destination with the objective to positively influence Mainland Chinese tourists' attitude towards visiting Hong Kong. Although Hong Kong has been the leading tourism destination for Mainland Chinese outbound travellers, this position will not be everlasting (Huang & Hsu, 2005). In fact, fierce competition exists for attracting Mainland Chinese tourists among intra-regional and even inter-regional destinations (Huang & Hsu, 2005). The Chinese economy ranks third in terms of GDP and has the highest economic growth rate of any major nation, of three times the world average (Liu & Diamond, 2005). Despite China's large total GDP, its per capita GDP and outputs are still much lower than those of many other countries, hence they still have a large potential to increase (Liu & Diamond, 2005). Mainland China has become the most important inbound tourism market for Hong Kong (Huang & Hsu, 2005), and tourist arrivals from Mainland China accounted for 56%, or 12.2 million of a total of 21.8 million arrivals in 2004 (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2005). However, tourists are prepared to substitute a destination for other alternative places (Mill, 1990; Woodside & Carr, 1988). Therefore, it is of importance for Hong Kong to maintain its competitive advantage by providing appropriate tourism products that meet Mainland Chinese visitors' needs (Huang & Hsu, 2005). It is suggested that the Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB) identifies and promotes innovative and specialized tourism products to attract intentional demand and to differentiate their products.

It is often recommended that DMOs should develop new tourism products or attractions, however in many cases this is simply not feasible due to high costs and risks involved. As mentioned previously, many destinations are unable to change much with regard to what they can offer. Perhaps a safer strategy is to focus on existing and unique propositions. Hong Kong could expand their market portfolio by highlighting products, services or attractions that would appeal to new markets. Moreover, the choice and evaluation of a place is not entirely determined by the physical properties of that place (Johnson & Thomas, 1992; Seaton & Bennett, 1996; Ward & Russel, 1981). *"Tourists base their decisions upon mental images of tourism products and service rather than being able to sample them physically"* (Chang, Wall & Tsai, 2005: 348). Tourists are not able to 'test drive' by trying tourism products before making a choice (Cai et al., 2004; Eby, Molnar & Cai, 1999; Gartner, 1989). Thus, when the relationship to physical attributes is less direct, abstract beneficial and imagery attributes may be more important for consumer evaluation (Creusen & Schoormans, 1997). Therefore, the HKTB should be aware of how the information about the destination is presented and sold, as the information format affects the way tourists attain and process information (Stoddard & Fern, 1996). For Hong Kong, the study may serve to support its marketing efforts and build on its position within Asia and the world. Furthermore, there are plenty of opportunities to promote Hong Kong's role as the principal 'gateway' to Mainland China. Mainland China represents the largest and most important market for Hong Kong. However, it is recommended that Hong Kong continuously develop their markets and diversify their portfolio in order to reduce dependency on any single market. Exploring other markets is recommended, but at the same time, expanding and retaining current market share should not be neglected.

This study proposes to explore the attitude towards Hong Kong, the attitude towards the advertisement and visit intentions to Hong Kong from the Mainland Chinese travellers' perspective. Consumers turn to goods and services not only as collections of utility with which to serve functions and satisfy needs, but also as bundles of meaning with which to fashion who they are and the world in which they live (Belk, 1988; de Chernatony, 1992; Urde, 1999; Williams, 2002). King (1991) argued that people are becoming increasingly tribal within the context of globalization, and are seeking to express their sought-after identity in everything they do or purchase. A destination experience is not solely derived from the consumption of various travel services (Cohen, 1979). Destinations are able to communicate, reflect and reinforce associations, statements and group memberships. In a similar vein, tourists may use their trips as expressive devices to communicate messages about themselves to peers and observers (Clarke, 2000). The social status and peer groups of tourists often influence what is acceptable and desirable as a destination (Buhalis, 2000). The choice of a holiday destination helps to define the identity of the traveller and in an increasingly homogeneous world, set him/her apart from the hordes of other tourists (King, 1991). Although there are similarities, tourists are different from other types of consumers, which make the context of this study different from that of the previous endorsement studies. Taking into account the contextual differences, the findings of this study reveal valuable information in understanding the potential of celebrity endorsement for destinations. The next section presents the contributions in further detail.

1.10 Contributions

The contributions of this study centre on the analysis of celebrity endorsement for print destination advertisements. This phenomenon has only been speculated in literature and seen from practice. However, no empirical investigation regarding the phenomenon has been carried out before. This study presents a modified framework, which is a first thoroughly researched step towards understanding tourist responses to a print destination advertisement endorsed by a celebrity. As such, this study brings forward the following contributions, which are listed below.

- This study provides evidence of tourist responses to a print destination advertisement which is celebrity endorsed by validating the majority of the research constructs, and thereby widening their applicability beyond a single discipline and cultural setting. At the same time, the study highlights the appropriateness of Trustworthiness as a dimension to examine the celebrity endorser's effectiveness.

- The study successfully amends Ohanian's (1991) model by including Attitude towards the Advertisement and Attitude towards the Destination as two mediators. The two mediators appear to be one of the necessary transporters of information for the evaluation of visitation intentions and they should be included in future endorsement frameworks.

- The study develops and applies a moderator to the revised framework. The continuous moderating dimension Matchup, reported significant moderation effects on the relationship between perceived expertise and attitude towards a destination.

- The revised structural model has a strong statistical ability to predict tourists' attitude towards the advertisement and the destination, and to a lesser extent their visitation intentions as generated by the endorsement claim in the print destination advertisement.

- The study puts forward an advanced and innovative approach to determine the effects of a celebrity endorser and to compare spokespeople for a destination. As such, the improved framework constitutes a more comprehensive, objective and justified method for comparing and appointing celebrities for endorsement purposes.

1.11 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is composed of seven chapters, each with a Foreword and a Summary. Since terms employed by scholars may have different meanings (Perry, 1998), a list with specific terms used and discussed throughout the thesis has been defined in Table 1.1. Chapter 1 introduces the background to the study, defines the purpose and identifies the specific questions and objectives leading from the research question. In addition, it addresses the importance and justification of this study.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature relevant to celebrity endorsement, destination marketing and various conceptual models. It also highlights the definitions and concepts in order to set the boundaries. In addition, it discusses the merits and shortcomings of celebrity endorsement and its related complexity. It examines literature addressing the mediating dimensions of attitude and the congruency concept for the moderator dimension. Chapter 3 presents the conceptual framework and the hypothesized relationships between the research constructs. It identifies how the theoretical framework is able to explain celebrity endorsement effectiveness for print destination advertising and how it is extended by including two mediators and one moderator.

Chapter 4 illustrates the experimental research design, the pre-test and the pilot study. It elaborates on the questionnaire design, the measurement items and the translation procedure. It also discusses the quota sampling technique, sample characteristics and the data collection method. The chapter concludes with results of the pilot study, specification of the moderator and discusses SEM as a method of data analysis for the main survey. Chapter 5 examines the results of the main survey and the related hypotheses. It discusses the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the adequacy of the quota sampling procedure and the data preparation process. This is followed by a description of the procedure for establishing a reliable and valid measurement model. The structural model was fitted to the dataset to test the hypotheses. Chapter 5 also illustrates the celebrity endorsement effects and specifies the most appropriate celebrity endorser by looking at the latent mean differences.

Chapter 6 discusses the performance of the model, the constructs and their structural relationships. It also serves to compare and contrast the findings with previous studies to highlight similarities and differences. Lastly, it addresses the theoretical and practical contributions of the study, and the practical implications are presented as specific marketing tools. The final chapter draws conclusions about each of the research objectives and concludes with a discussion on the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research opportunities.

Table 1.1 Definitions of Terms

Terms	Definition
Advertising	any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services by an indentified sponsor (Kotler, 2000).
Attractiveness	the visual properties of a stimulus object that is pleasing to the visual sense of an observer (Bashour, 2007).
Attitude	a tendency to evaluate an entity with some degree of favour or disfavour, ordinarily expressed in cognitive, affective, and behavioural responses (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).
Behavioural Intention	a person's subjective probability that he will perform a certain behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).
Celebrity Endorser	any person who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition to endorse consumer goods or services by appearing with it in an advertisement (McCracken, 1989).
Destination	consist of amalgams of individually produced tourism amenities and services, and a wide range of public goods (Buhalis, 2000).
Destination Image	compilation of beliefs and impressions based on information processing from various sources over time, resulting in an internally accepted mental construct (Crompton, 1979).
Destination Marketing	an integral part of developing and retaining a particular location's popularity (Kotler, Makens, & Bowen, 1999).
Expertise	extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions (Hovland, Janis, & Kelly, 1953).
Matchup	occurs when the relevant characteristics of the endorser are consistent with the relevant attributes of the brand (Misra & Beatty, 1990)
Tourism	comprises the activities of people travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (UNWTO, 2001a).
Trustworthiness	degree of confidence in the communicators' intent to communicate the assertions he considers most valid (Hovland, et al., 1953).

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Foreword

Reviewing the literature is an important part of this and any research (Bell, 1999; Brunt, 1997; Clark, Riley, Wilkie, & Wood, 1998; Finn, Elliott-White, & Walton, 2000; Greenfield, 1996; Pender, 1999; Veal, 1997). It should be taken into account that the use of secondary data may not always be appropriate for certain studies, because the information might have been gathered for a different purpose or in a different context (Veal, 1997). Nevertheless, it provides a valuable benchmark in comparison to primary data. This chapter addresses the conceptual boundaries for this study and at the same time discusses the proposed research constructs, which are fundamental in order to clarify and create understanding.

2.2 The Destination

This section explains the concept and the precincts of a destination for the endorsement claim. Several studies have attempted to clarify and specify the nature of the destination (Leiper, 1993; Murphy et al., 2000; Smith, 1991). However, until today the spectrum of definitions for a destination remains extremely broad (Batchelor, 1999). At one end there are compact product complexes, such as theme parks, resorts and holiday villages (d'Hauteserre, 2001), and on the other end of the spectrum, the European Travel Commission (ETC) and the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) consider and market whole continents as destinations (Batchelor, 1999). One aspect is central to many reports; a destination consists, like any other product, of a number of multi-dimensional attributes (Hu & Ritchie, 1993).

Kotler et al. (1999) indicate that destinations are 'tourism-place' products. This also follows the opinion of Ashworth and Voogd (1994), as they note that the destination is a product and that it consists of various other elements, such as attractions, amenities and activities. These elements collectively represent the *"focus of facilities and services designed to meet the needs of the tourist"* (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, Shepherd, & Wanhill, 1998: 102), which can draw tourists from beyond its spatial confines (Pearce, 1989). This study adopts Buhalis' (2000: 109) definition, which indicates that a destination *"consists of amalgams of individually produced tourism amenities and services* (e.g., accommodation, transportation, catering, entertainment, etc.) *and a wide range of public goods"* (e.g., landscape, scenery, sea, lakes, socio-cultural surroundings, atmosphere, etc). It is believed that this definition is appropriate, as it offers all the elements that combine a total experience of the area visited (Murphy et al., 2000). The success of a particular form of tourism in a destination depends to a great extent, on the resources which it possesses (Bull, 1991; Smith, 1994) and can be used to evaluate the competitive potential of a certain tourism type in a destination (Melián-González & Garzía-Falcón, 2003). Therefore, Hong Kong as a destination is considered by its geographical and administrative regional borders (Davidson & Maitland, 1997; Hall, 2000). By focusing on the geographic and administrative area, it includes certain resources and/or capabilities, which enable the DMO to carry out and justify a particular economic activity (Buhalis, 2000; Melián-González & Garzía-Falcón, 2003). Hong Kong as a destination, being defined by its geographical and administrative borders, enables the HKTB to be accountable for the planning and marketing in order to achieve its strategic objectives. The next section discusses exactly what is endorsed and promoted by the HKTB.

2.3 Destination Image

This section discusses how a collection of the destination's various amenities and services is endorsed. An important characteristic of this collection is that it cannot be physically presented to the market for inspection in the evaluation process of tourists and at the point of sale (Cai et al., 2004). The set of various destination attributes contain similar characteristics as services in general such as intangibility, inseparability of production and consumption, variability in performance and being perishable (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). It is suggested that the purchase depends on tourists' mental construct of what a potential destination has to offer relative to their needs (Cai, 2002), and this mental construct or total set of impressions of a place is referred to as the destination image (Alhemoud & Armstrong, 1996; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993; Middleton, 1994; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Phelps, 1986; Seaton & Bennett, 1996). This study defines destination image as "*a compilation of beliefs and impressions based on information processing from various sources over time, resulting in an internally accepted mental construct*" (Crompton, 1979: 20). This set of mental perceptions has a logic of its own that is often inaccessible to conscious declarative knowledge (Banks & Krajicek, 1991). As a result, the tourists' representations of the destinations or settings are complex concepts (Williams, Schreyer & Knopf, 1990). Due to the complexity, it is identified as a concept with vague and shifting meanings used in a large number of contexts and disciplines (Jenkins, 1999). Gunn (1988) suggests that the destination image could be explained through two stages as organic and induced. An organic image may be formed by news reports, tourist's peers or general knowledge of history, whereas induced stage involves the process of destination marketing resources and the

intentional promotion endeavour by the destination marketer. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) add the third and final stage, the actual visit to the destination result in a complex image. Hence, the image of a particular place may be shaped by different types of objective information sources, age, education, and socio-psychological motivations (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). On the other hand, the image can be interpreted subjectively by tourists depending on previous experience, word of mouth, press reports, advertising, and common beliefs, before visiting (Ahmed, 1991; Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Beirman, 2000; Chacko, 1997; Chon, 1991, 1992; Chon et al., 1991; Morgan & Pritchard, 2002; Vellas & Bécherel, 1999). Finally, the evaluation of the experience at the destination may influence the image and modify it as well (Chon, 1991; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Several researchers consider a destination image as a holistic representation (Kotler et al., 1999; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Reilly, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1991), whereas others focus on the subjective function and behavioural outcome (Gartner, 1989, 1993; Hu & Richie, 1993). Although researchers try to include both attribute-based and holistic perceptions in the imagery concept (MacInnis & Price, 1987), most studies of destination image examine just a number of separate destination attributes (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993). Destination attributes such as local food, beaches, friendliness of local people, climate, nightlife and entertainment, quality of accommodation, quality of infrastructure, safety, hygiene and cleanliness and value for money (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Calantone, di Benedetto, Hakam, & Bojanic, 1989; Haahti, 1986; Mok & Armstrong, 1995). This list of attributes may be imperfect by failing to include all of the relevant characteristics of the destination image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Gartner, 1989).

This is because some aspects of the destination image, such as the overall impression or atmosphere, cannot be broken down (Jenkins, 1999) and "*overall impression may be greater than the sum of its parts*" (Oxenfeldt, 1974: 9). The average or sum of the attribute scores is not an adequate measurement of the overall image (Bigné et al., 2001). This study considers the destination image of Hong Kong as a whole and not as separate attributes. The next section discusses the importance of a destination image to decision making.

2.4 Destination Advertising

It is believed that the DMO should serve as a custodian of the destination's image, and it needs to evaluate how this is perceived in the marketplace and determine how and by what means it can be enhanced (Batchelor, 1999; Middleton & Clarke, 2001). Research shows that marketing plays a crucial role in tourism in order to communicate the destination's uniqueness to the tourists (Awaritefe, 2004; Harti-Nielsen, 2000; Middleton & Clarke; 2001; Vellas & Bécherel, 1999), and is able to gain the economic benefits for the community and its members (Blain, Levy, & Ritchie, 2005). Promoting the destination's uniqueness typically contains its primary characteristics (e.g., climate, scenery and culture) and/or its secondary factors (e.g., accommodation, transportation or events) (Blain, Levy, & Ritchie, 2005; Laws, 1995; Mo, Howard, & Havitz, 1993). It is believed that by developing positive attitudes towards these characteristics, tourists are more likely to visit the destination in the future (Hede & Jago, 2005). As part of the integrated marketing communication program, advertising is considered to be one of the effective ways in which positive attitudes and perceptions of products and services can be developed (Jones, Sinclair,

Rhodes, & Courneya, 2004). Advertising is an important marketing instrument (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002) and it is suggested that a repeated exposure to the message may result in gradual learning and ultimately to visitation (Bonham & Mak, 1996; McWilliams & Crompton, 1997). Hence, a destination seems to have the potential to enhance traffic to the destination from the target market by emphasizing those attributes, which are positively perceived in the marketplace through tourism advertisements (Chon, 1991). Moreover, advertising is said to be one of the most efficient means of conveying images (Bojanic, 1991). Consumers are not passive recipients of advertising, instead they interact with, respond to and interpret advertising, and they can choose to embrace or reject its message (Morgan & Pritchard, 2001). The assumption underlying this study and found in other studies (e.g., Um & Crompton, 1991; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989) is that travel stimuli, such as advertising is likely to influence the destination choice. Thus, with increasing global competition among destinations and tourists becoming more demanding in their choice and desire for unique experiences, destination advertising arguably offers considerable potential to achieve a competitive advantage and is therefore selected for this study. Johar and Sirgy (1991) found that among all the advertising appeals, rational and emotional ones are the most often adopted. In addition, it is recommended that rational advertising appeals should be used for tangible products. Emotional advertising appeals, in contrast, should be implemented for intangible products (Albers-Miller & Stafford, 1999). This links to the findings by Jeon, Franke, Huhmann and Phelps (1999) as they suggests that emotional advertising appeals affect Korean consumers' awareness by creating positive links between the product and its environmental context, whereas, rational advertising appeals influence consumers by drawing attention to the specific features of the product itself.

That being said, it is likely that emotional advertising appeals are more appropriate for tourism and hospitality advertising, because consumers' experiential consumption is associated with emotional feelings (Albers-Miller & Stafford, 1999). Moreover, DMOs are interested in evoking an emotional response from visitors, because travelling is more of a holistic experience than a simple purchase (Blain et al., 2005). Nevertheless, the primary/secondary attractions of the destination should not be neglected as it still appeals to various target markets (Gross & Brown, 2006). In addition, it is suggested that consumers are likely to remember scenery, outdoor activities and special attractions featured in the advertisements (Schoenbachler, di Benedetto, Gordon, & Kaminski, 1995). Blain et al. (2005) even argued that if visitor reactions are not emotionally positive in nature, then destinations cannot expect to keep loyal visitors, either in repeat visitation or positive word-of-mouth. However, most tourism advertising often gets no further than talking about the richness of the offer in a generic way (Hall, 2004). Therefore, this study intends to investigate and apply an emotional element (celebrity endorser) into the advertisement combined with a background picture of a prominent spot of the destination to evoke positive reactions.

2.5 Making the Intangible Tangible

This section argues why a celebrity endorser might be an appropriate emotional construct to add to an advertisement. One way of seeing the consumer is as a logical decision maker who solves purchase problems with the aid of objective features, with tangible benefits, that are primarily functional in nature, although any product or service may carry symbolic intentional meaning (Stafford, Spears & Hsu, 2003).

According to Lane and Russell (2000: 22), "*one of the primary challenges for advertising is to provide a tangible and differentiating element to the marketing of services.*" This study examines the consumer decision-making process from a subjective state focusing on the symbolic characteristics with benefits that are primarily psychosocial in nature, moving beyond any tangible aspects (Stafford et al., 2003). Service advertisers use various strategies to provide tangibility. These include visualization of the benefits or qualities of a service, association with an extrinsic product, person, event, place, or object, physical representations of components of the service, and documentation such as facts or figures explaining the characteristics of the service (Lane & Russell, 2000). Although advertising sources contribute to the formation of tangible or physical destination attributes (Baloglu, 1999), they remain highly abstract, and the interactive nature of what the destination offers makes tangible representations of the benefits difficult. However, research suggests that the conspicuous use of a spokesperson is one approach to enhancing tangibility (Bush, Moncrief, & Zeithaml, 1987; Mattila, 1999; Stafford, 1996; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1988) and might provide a point of differentiation. Stafford, Stafford and Day (2002) support the idea of using a spokesperson as a tangible cue or a physical representation, and argue it has considerable potential as service marketers continue to seek innovative approaches to making a service less abstract. Advertisers have long since used endorsements as a promotional strategy to communicate product merits (Kamins, 1990); however, the endorsement theme has only recently begun to appear in some tourism studies (Chang et al., 2005). Although marketers often use endorsers to promote their products or brands, there is a lack of research on the use of advertising endorsers in the tourism industry (Chang et al., 2005). The next section discusses the type of endorsement focus for this study.

2.6 Endorsement

This section discusses the various types of endorsers and provides justification for selecting the proposed endorser type. Displaying products with a specific attribute (e.g., the endorser) may increase the importance of that product and facilitates choice processing by that particular attribute (Areni et al., 1999). Endorsement can be defined as making a statement indicating approval of the product, service, idea, or other subject of the advertisement. This can be made by an individual or by an organization speaking on behalf of the advertiser, the individual, or spokesperson, a celebrity, an expert, or a typical consumer. As opposed to a testimonial where the statement is based on actual experience, an endorsement may or may not be based on actual use of the product (Govoni, 2004; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004). Advertising endorsers, when recognized as opinion leaders, draw audiences' attention and affection, thereby stimulating purchase intentions (Mowen & Brown, 1981). It has been claimed that advertisements with endorsers are a ubiquitous feature of modern marketing (McCracken, 1989) and an effective form of persuasive communication (Hsu & McDonald, 2002). Endorsers could give testimony about the use of a product, both to promote the product and simply be associated with the product (Swerdlow, 1984). Friedman and Friedman (1979) state that as advertisers expect each endorser type to influence consumers via a different feature, each type of endorser works differently in inducing attitude change. Thus, one might conclude that some endorser types lend themselves to a good endorsement, while others are poor endorsement prospects. Endorsers come in a variety of types (Stout & Moon, 1990), including unidentifiable people (e.g., typical consumers) (Friedman & Friedman, 1979, Friedman et al., 1976), professional experts (Friedman & Friedman, 1979, Friedman

et al., 1976), employees (Chang et al., 2005; Stafford, 1998; Stephens & Faranda, 1993), company presidents (Friedman & Friedman, 1979, Friedman et al., 1976; Reidenbach & Pitts, 1986), and inanimate figures (e.g., cartoon characters) (Callcott & Lee, 1994; Pringle & Binet, 2005; Till, 1998). Nevertheless, identifiable people (e.g., celebrities), are the favourites among advertising agencies (Kamins, 1990). Film, sports stars, fashion models or other celebrities tend to be selected because they are able to penetrate the commercial clutter of advertising and seize consumers' attention (Morgan & Pritchard, 2001). Freiden (1984) compared four types of endorsers (celebrity, company president, expert and typical consumer). He determined that in comparison with other endorser types, the celebrity endorser scored generally well on dimensions such as trustworthiness, believability, persuasiveness and likeability. It is suggested that celebrity endorsers produce more positive attitudes towards advertising and greater purchase intentions than non-celebrity endorsers (Atkin & Block, 1983; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Friedman et al., 1976; Ohanian, 1991; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). Therefore, this study focuses on the celebrity endorser, as research shows that celebrities are more effective compared to other types of endorsers in having impact on the audience's attention, recall and purchase intentions (Hsu & McDonald, 2002). The next section illustrates the celebrity endorsement format for an advertisement in a Chinese context.

2.7 Endorsement Format for China

There are many cross-cultural advertising studies aimed at exploring differences and similarities in advertising styles across borders. Cutler, Javalgi and Erramilli (1992) conducted a multi-country content analysis comparing visual components of print advertising among various countries. They conclude that there are more differences

than similarities. Zandpour, Chang and Catalano (1992) found that in contrast with French and Taiwanese advertising, the United States more often use celebrities and credible sources to convey the specific benefits of products to consumers. Cutler and Javalgi (1992) present similar findings. They analysed and compared the visual components of print advertising in the United States, the United Kingdom and France. They also indicate that testimonials by celebrities are typical American advertising formats. Zandpour et al (1994) combined Hofstede's (1991) dimensions with advertising related variables and analysed television commercial content from eight countries that are culturally very diverse. With respect to the advertising strategy, they indicate that testimonials were found in individualistic cultures. This might explain the pure user-testimonials that are used in low-context cultures and in particular by American companies. For example, Procter & Gamble use this form worldwide for a number of brands in the category of disposable products, such as, diapers, sanitary tissues and napkins (Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, & Chua 1988). The testimonial format is used in various cultures, but the roles of the presenters in both endorsements and testimonials vary. A spokesperson suggests that he or she is a user of the product (testimonial) or has an opinion about it and therefore endorses the product (endorsement). An important element of the testimonial is its credibility, which is an important element for cultures occupied with seeking the truth. Although in other cultures sales will also be the ultimate goal of advertising, its role in the sales process may be different. For example, in collectivistic cultures, the use of 'hard' sell or directly addressing consumers, may turn them off and have an adverse effect (de Mooij, 1997). According to Chan (1995), a more characteristic advertising style is developing in Mainland China, with less direct product selling approaches. An advertising style relevant to Chinese culture may include an indirect approach, which

is a general characteristic of collectivistic cultures (de Mooij, 1997). Chan (1995) analysed Chinese television advertising for information content and found that between 1990 and 1995 information content had decreased. Changes were found to be from a product-oriented theme, emphasizing product characteristics to an audience centred theme, lifestyle and ideal self-image, accompanied by emotional and symbolic appeals to position a product in a particular market segment. Cheng's (1994) earlier analysis of Chinese magazine advertisements observed a similar trend during a period of rapid development from the use of utilitarian values towards more symbolic values. This trend seems to offer opportunities to combine the synergies between the brand and the symbolic meanings of the celebrity for Chinese advertising. The purpose of selecting an endorser in collectivistic cultures is that the audience can associate with them, while in individualistic cultures they address the audience more directly (de Mooij, 1997). Hence, it is recommended that the endorsement format for China is designed in such a way that the celebrity plays a more symbolic role. The endorser should merely be associated with the product instead of directly addressing the audience. The following section elaborates more on celebrity endorsement in general.

2.8 Celebrity Endorsement

Celebrities are able to offer a range of personality and lifestyle meanings that the anonymous person cannot provide, and these meanings may be generated by various political, social, entertainment, military or athletic achievements and could be transferred to the product (McCracken, 1989, Stout & Moon, 1990). Research indicates that celebrity endorsers are not only able to create and maintain attention, but may also transfer the right message in a limited amount of space and time,

achieving high recall rates for marketing messages in today's highly cluttered environment (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995; Atkin & Block, 1983; Dyer, 1988; Erdogan, 1999; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Kamen, Azhari, & Kragh, 1975; Kamins et al., 1989; Mathur, Mathur, & Rangan, 1997; Newsom, Turk, & Kruckeberg, 2000; Ohanian, 1991; O'Mahony & Meenaghan, 1998). This study adopts the following definition of a celebrity endorser, which is "*any person who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition to endorse consumer goods or services by appearing with it in an advertisement*" (McCracken, 1989: 310). This is the most frequently cited and used definition in endorsement studies. Celebrities could be both well-known individuals who are directly associated with the product category being advertised, and/or famous people who are recognized for achievements in areas unrelated to the product class being promoted (Freiden, 1984). The appointment of celebrity endorsers dates back to the 1800s, and the aim has always been to increase message persuasiveness (Knott & St. James, 2004). Nowadays, this preference for celebrities is accompanied by large compensation structures for endorsements. One extreme example is that of Tiger Woods, who has now earned US$ 750 million in endorsements during his career and is well on course to pass the billion-dollar mark before he retires (Goldsmith, 2008). Prize money only accounts for about a tenth of his earnings with the rest coming from lucrative endorsement deals signed by the exceptionally popular golf player with companies that include Nike, Buick and Gillette (Goldsmith, 2008). Commercial advertising is a significant source of income for celebrity sports stars (Higham & Hall, 2003). It is estimated that the top ten endorsers are earning US$ 111 million (Bradley, 1996), with endorsements reaching US$ 45 million for Michael Jordan and US$ 25 million for Tiger Woods in 1998 (Spiegel, 1998). Now, ten years later, it is estimated that Tiger Woods alone would

earn around US$ 90 million in endorsement contracts during 2008 (Goldsmith, 2008). Large multi-national organizations make these considerable investments in order to align themselves and their products with celebrity endorsers in the belief that they, (a) draw attention to the endorsed products and (b), transfer image values to these products by virtue of their celebrity profile and engaging attributes (Buck, 1993b; Erdogan, 1999; Kamins, 1990; Ohanian, 1991; O'Mahony & Meenaghan, 1998; Shimp, 2000; Tripp et al., 1994; Walker, Langmeyer, & Langmeyer, 1992). It is estimated that the use of celebrity endorsements in the United States increased from a little over 15% to about 25% of all advertisements between 1979 and 1997 (Stevens & Rice, 1998 as cited in Stafford et al., 2003) and thereby remaining a popular strategy among advertisers to increase consumer awareness. It is suggested that even before advertisements are launched, company endorser decisions can generate considerable publicity (Berkowitz, 1994 as cited in Louie & Obermiller, 2002). Some evidence even suggests that stock value increases because of appointing celebrity endorsers. Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) show through an event study that the announcement of celebrity endorsement contracts had a positive effect on stock returns, concluding that celebrity endorsement contracts are generally viewed as a worthwhile investment. Their analysis of stock price movement shows that press releases announcing celebrity endorsement contracts resulted on average in a 44% excess return. Another event study reports that the anticipation of Michael Jordan's return to the National Basketball Association in 1995 raised his client firms' market-adjusted values by almost two percent on average, or over one billion dollars in stock market value (Mathur et al., 1997). However, employing celebrity endorsement to support marketing efforts does not always go without risks. The next section presents the potential shortcomings of celebrity endorsement and its related complexity.

2.9 Complexity of Celebrity Endorsement

In general, celebrity endorsements are considered to be high-risk, high-reward events because there is always a human element involved that is difficult to predict and to control; therefore one has to weigh the potential risks versus the potential rewards (Miller, 1994). The risk with personality-based advertising is that when a personality suffers adverse public relations exposure, the credibility of the advertising suffers too (Buck, 1993b; Holloway & Robinson, 1995). Celebrities contain certain attributes or properties that are desirable for endorsing the product. However, they might also have other, even more closely associated attributes that are inappropriate for a specific product and may actually damage it (Newsom et al., 2000; Walker et al., 1992). The potential intangible risks to an advertiser may include a celebrity becoming involved in a controversial situation, the celebrity being overexposed, the celebrity's loss of popularity, or a change in the celebrity's image (Kaitaki, 1987). In the case of celebrity sports star endorsers, the success and/or failures or, perhaps more importantly, their (mis)conduct on and off the fields of competition, may have implications far beyond their athletic achievements (Higham & Hall, 2003). Tripp et al. (1994) found that if celebrities endorse multiple products, the liking of the celebrity and the consumers' perceptions of his or her expertise decrease via attributions of trust. In addition, they show that an excessive number of exposures to a celebrity advertisement negatively influenced the consumers' intention to purchase. If a celebrity's image ties in with too many brands, the impact and identity with each product may lessen since the relationship between the celebrity and a particular brand is not distinctive (Mowen & Brown, 1981), possibly undermining the credibility of a specific advertisement (Moore, Mowen, & Reardon, 1994).

Furthermore, the lack of credibility is aggravated by certain incidents where celebrities endorse products that they do not really believe in, or in some cases do not use (Solomon, Bamossy, & Askegaard, 1999). This practice could make consumers overly aware of what is perhaps the 'true' nature of endorsement, which has less to do with brand or product attributes, and more to do with generous compensation for the celebrity, leading consumers to overt cynicism about their motives (Kamen et al., 1975; Tripp et al., 1994). Human endorsers have a way of changing their public persona as they intentionally or unintentionally, become involved in various activities that may degrade their image in the eyes of the public (Tom et al., 1992). For example, Pepsi Cola discontinued their collaboration with Michael Jackson because he was accused of child abuse (Beh, 1993 as cited in Louie & Obermiller, 2002). The advertiser who chooses to appoint a celebrity has no control over the celebrity's future behaviour (Till & Shimp, 1998) and limited control over the celebrity's persona (Erdogan, 1999). Although most endorsement contracts include a clause to protect the advertiser in the event of a celebrity's fall from grace, it generally only terminates the contract (Kaitaki, 1987). Once the advertiser's image is damaged, termination of the contract is of little consolation (Knott & St. James, 2004). The selection of a celebrity for endorsement is thus a crucial, difficult and risky decision (Pornpitakpan, 2003). On the other hand, the celebrity is not always the one to be blamed, as some problems may be due to an inappropriate script outline by the agency (Pringle, 2004). The person or script developer has to take into account that not all celebrities are suitable for a particular endorsement (Pornpitakpan, 2003). Therefore, during the selection of a celebrity endorser, one has to consider the broader meanings associated with an endorser and make sure that it does not conflict with the preferred image (Newsom et al., 2000; Walker et al., 1992).

However, this is easier said than done, as investigating the impact of the celebrity is difficult due to the complex collection of cultural values and meanings a celebrity can embody (Walker et al., 1992). Clearly, particular people are famous for some target groups but not for others. Celebrity fame is in the eye of the beholder (Pringle & Binet, 2005). Consumers assess celebrities according to their own cultural meanings, background, values and norms, making the task even more complicated (Basil, 1996). This reflects one of the most difficult aspects of global marketing, which is to grasp the target group's cultural 'roadblocks' such as time, space, language, relationships, power, risk, masculinity, femininity and many others (Hofstede, 1984; de Mooij, 1994;). However, Kaitaki (1987) argues that celebrities with worldwide popularity can help companies break through many such 'roadblocks'. Furthermore, Dyer (1988) believes some expressions can be read and understood cross-culturally, but in order to understand fully the function and meaning of affective images, one needs to refer to a particular context or social situation within a culture. A well-crafted advertisement should enable consumers to 'see' the cultural meanings contained in the endorser, object and in the context of the advertisement (McCracken, 1989). When this is done skilfully, the celebrity's stardom may accelerate the brand's communication, deliver a massive return on investment and hugely increases intangible asset value for shareholders (Pringle & Binet, 2005). However, from the academic readings is it unclear how one should develop such a well-crafted advertisement and select the 'right' celebrity endorser, as it depends on numerous attributes. Nevertheless, the virtues of belief accompanying the celebrity endorser have been well researched and the next section reviews some eminent conceptual models that may explain the phenomenon of celebrity endorsement.

2.10 Review of Theoretical Models

Even though it is believed that Ohanian's (1991) three-factor source credibility model is found most appropriate to achieve the study's objectives, it was only determined after reviewing other potential models, which is discussed in this section. Considerable emphasis of various models has been placed on the effects of various stimuli on consumer behaviour and the premise is that emotions or moods trigger buying responses (Gardner, 1985). The reason for this is that if the message or stimulus is partly or entirely misunderstood by the target market the advertisement maybe less or even completely ineffective (de Mooij, 1997). Therefore, it is important to apply models beforehand to assess the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement for destination advertising. A selection of prominent models is reviewed in the next section.

Elaboration Likelihood Model - Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) elaboration likelihood model (ELM) is probably one of the most advanced models as to how advertising works. It takes into account involvement and whether persuasion follows a central route, peripheral route or both. Within the central route, a person engages in thoughtful consideration of the issue in related information within the message. If the person lacks the motivation or ability to undertake issue related thinking, persuasion follows a peripheral route. Advertising research is dominated by the American information processing approach with its focus on verbal information and persuasion. Persuasion may intend someone to do something, especially by reasoning, urging or inducing, so therefore it is thought that communication might either be persuasive or unpersuasive (Hunt, 1993).

However, there is an implicit assumption that all consumers see ads in terms of logical, rational and 'reason-why' arguments and these American concepts may not necessarily explain advertising realities in other parts of the world (Zinkhan, 1994). Moreover, the difference in thinking patterns is supposed to be the greatest between the Western World and the cultures of Asia (de Mooij, 1997). Therefore, it seems inappropriate to use persuasion models to test advertisements meant for people who have a different information processing system.

Theory of Reasoned Action and Theory of Planned Behaviour - The question of how attitudes are changed has been of interest to humankind since the earliest of our writing (Bagozzi, Gurhan-Canli, & Priester, 2002). McGuire (1968) refers to Aristotle as he was seeking to explicate the laws of persuasion in the classic text *Rhetoric* and the ancient Romans, in the time of Cicero, as well as the Italians during the Renaissance, also attempted to understand the principles underlying persuasion. Clearly, these early approaches relied on philosophic and introspective insight rather than on empirical approaches (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Attitude is regarded as "*a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour of disfavour*" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993: 1). The psychological tendency embodied by an attitude is sometimes termed an acquired behavioural disposition (Campbell, 1963), that is, acquisition of an attitude is thought to be primarily through learning (Bagozzi et al., 2002). The theory of reasoned action (TRA) is a parsimonious explanation of action and has a wide currency in psychology as well as other basic and applied disciplines (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988). Under TRA, action is hypothesized to be a direct function of a person's intentions.

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), maintain that TRA applies to behaviours under volitional control, by which they mean, "*people can easily perform these behaviours, if they are inclined to do so*" (Ajzen, 1985: 12). "*When one is asked about performing a behaviour that is completely under one's own volitional control, one typically believes that one can, and will, do whatever one intends or tries to do*" (Fishbein & Stasson, 1990: 177). It is believed that TRA applies to a wide range of actions, assuming that most actions of relevance are under volitional control (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). However, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980: 41) do not say much, if anything, about what they mean by volitional and how intentions influence actions, except to say that "*intention is the immediate determinant of behaviour*" (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Intention is the likelihood that one intends to do something (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and they regard intentions as self-predictions or expectations that one will act (Bagozzi et al., 2002). For actions not completely under volitional control, Ajzen (1985, 1991) modified the TRA model to include perceived behavioural control (PBC) as an additional predictor of both intentions and action. The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) has been applied in many contexts, indicated by several meta-analyses (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Conner & Sparks, 1996). PBC is defined as "*person's belief as to how easy or difficult performance of the behaviour is likely to be*" (Ajzen & Madden, 1986: 457). However, Ajzen never elaborated on what volitional and non-volitional actions are (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Perceived behavioural control tries to capture the extent to which decision makers take into account problematic personal and situational factors that may hinder or promote action. People tend to perform behaviour to the degree that they believe they have control over the action; however, Ajzen does not provide an answer why mere perceived control influences a decision (Bagozzi et al., 2002).

The connection between PBC and action rests, not on a psychological interpretation, but on a physical one (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). Bagozzi et al. (2002) argue that actual control might be constituted by, or the result of volition and claim that TPB is not clear on these issues. Ajzen (1991) and Eagly and Chaiken (1993) take PBC to be essentially the same as self-efficacy, which Bandura (1997) defines as the confidence one has that he/she can perform a particular action. In contrast, Armitage and Conner (1999) argue and found in their study of intentions to eat a low-fat diet, that self-efficacy and PBC are distinct and had independent effects on intentions. Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990) raise concerns regarding the incorporation of prior learning and past behaviour in the explanation of intentions. A number of studies of both TRA (Bagozzi, 1981; Bagozzi & Kimmel, 1995; Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1992; Bentler & Speckart, 1981; Fredricks & Dossett, 1983) and TPB (Ajzen & Driver, 1991; Bagozzi & Kimmel, 1995; Beck & Ajzen, 1991; Norman & Conner, 1996) found that past behaviour is a significant predictor of intentions and/or subsequent behaviour. This brings into question the sufficiency of the TRA and TPB models, as past behaviour fails to work through the variables in the theories as Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) hypothesized, but instead has direct effects on intentions and behaviours (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Moreover, Sutton (1994) offers several reasons why TRA and TPB models do not always predict as well as one might like them to. Nevertheless, these theories are one of the most influential theories describing the attitude-behaviour relationship (Schultz & Oskamp, 1996) and the relationship is important for this study. However, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) are clear in their requirement that the TRA applies only to volitional behaviour. The authors indicate that the theory does not apply to attitude towards objects, outcomes, people, or institutions (Ajzen 1985; Ajzen & Fishbein 1980), or to non-volitional behaviour or goals (Fishbein & Stasson, 1990).

Attitude towards acts that are perceived to be problematic in the eyes of a decision maker simply because one lacks needed resources, or the situation contains impediments to successful implementation of goal-directed behaviours, are formed in fundamentally different ways than dispositional attitudes (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Consumer research considers celebrity endorsement as a form of extrinsic cue (intangible attribute of the product) intended to positively affect consumers' perception of a product or brand (Dean, 1999), instead of the consumers' perception of the actual process to perform an action. Therefore, attitude in this study will refer to a general positive or negative feeling about an object (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981).

Meaning Transfer Model - This model was proposed by McCracken (1989) and he suggests using a 'meaning transfer' approach where the attributes of the celebrity move from the celebrity to endorsed goods, and then from the goods to the consumer. It is believed that celebrity endorsement is successful when the properties of the celebrity are made the properties of the endorsed product (McCracken, 1989). It appears that from this model the only objective is to show the celebrity in such a way that the target group can associate the product with the celebrity. However, how this can be done is not clearly illustrated. Appropriate case examples are Tiger Woods with Nike and Cindy Crawford with Omega. The image of the sports star or 'active' is supposed to be transferred to the sports brand and the image of the actress or 'elegance' is transferred to the watch brand (de Mooij, 1997). However, there appears to be an association requirement between the product and the celebrity for the transfer to happen, which is not plainly addressed by the model. The next section illustrates the notion of congruency, which focuses on the association concept more clearly.

2.11 Congruency

Attention is the process by which a person concentrates mental activity on a stimulus, an important characteristic of attention is that it is selective. People respond to only certain stimuli, and do not focus on others. Social psychological research suggests that individuals respond to a stimulus if the stimulus is personally relevant, unexpected, interesting and salient (McArthur & Post, 1977; Nisbett & Ross, 1980). Inferences can be generated spontaneously when inferential cues are salient to consumers at the time of decision-making (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Dick, Chakravarti, & Biehal, 1990). Consumers were found to respond to certain features in a product description when the features were made salient in a usage situation (Ratneshwar, Warlop, Mick, & Seeger, 1997). This effect was shown to vary to the level of incongruity. Stayman, Alden and Smith (1992) indicate that respondents who are exposed to incongruent information are likely to discount the cue. In contrast, when they are exposed to congruent information they are likely to assimilate the information within the cued schema. Sujan (1985) shows that if the information matches the features of an activated product category, category-based affective processes mediate consumers' judgments. However, if the attribute information does not match the features of an activated category, respondents' judgments are likely to be based on piecemeal processing of attribute information. Schmitt, Tavassoli and Millard (1993) suggest that congruity of different elements in the advertisement lead to improvement in retrieval processes because nodes are more closely associated if the information represented is related. Furthermore, they suggest that advertisements containing related items among different advertisement components were remembered better than advertisements that have unrelated advertisement components. Without a

relevant and specific relationship between the celebrity and the product there is also the danger of the 'vampire effect' (Evans, 1988). This means that in the endorsed advertisement receivers focused more on the celebrity whereas it should enhance the product brand and its features (Evans, 1988; Holloway & Robinson, 1995; Mehta, 1994; Newsom et al., 2000; Rossiter & Percy, 1987). This association component is addressed as a moderating variable and discussed further in the next chapter.

2.12 Summary

This chapter provides a review of the literature relevant to the phenomenon of celebrity destination endorsement. Various sections address the definitions and provide justification for the research topic. These underlying concepts and assumptions are discussed on a conceptual and practical level to address the conceptual boundaries for the objectives of the study. The assumption underlying this study is that celebrity endorsement in print destination advertising is likely to influence destination choice. It is believed that it may offer considerable potential to achieve a competitive advantage and provide a point of differentiation for destinations. Furthermore, the merits, shortcomings and the related complexity accompanying celebrity endorsement are discussed. A separate section is devoted to several prominent models, such as the Meaning Transfer Model, ELM, TRA and the TPB, to discuss their potential in achieving the study's objectives. In the last section, literature addressing the mediating dimensions of Attitude is reviewed and the congruency concept for the moderator dimension is discussed in order to propose amendments to Ohanian's model. The next chapter further elaborates on the theoretical model and illustrates the research constructs in more detail.

Chapter 3 Theoretical Framework

3.1 Foreword

This research describes the nexus between celebrity endorsement, the attitude towards Hong Kong and also to advertising, which combined, may lead to intentions to visit Hong Kong. Based on previous literature review, a conceptual framework and the related hypotheses are proposed. The model is based upon existing theory drawing on works of prominent scholars, and then further extended. Since destination selection is a process, linear structural modelling provides a useful technique for understanding this process. Relationships are hypothesized between celebrity endorsement effectiveness and attitude dimensions, which may influence visitation intentions. This chapter further substantiates these relationships and illustrates a conceptual framework.

3.2 Proposed Model for Celebrity Destination Endorsement

Knott and St. James (2004) found three broad categories of attributes that influence the effectiveness of celebrity endorsements. These are 'celebrity attributes', 'situation attributes' and 'target attributes'. From these three categories, the attributes of the celebrity are the most important predictors for the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement (Buhr, Simpson, & Pryor, 1987; Freiden, 1984; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Nataraajan & Chawla, 1997; Ohanian, 1991; Swerdlow, 1984; Tom et al., 1992). Moreover, Tripp et al. (1994) indicate that trustworthiness and expertise are key characteristics of celebrity endorsers. Ohanian's (1990) three-part measure of source credibility was found appropriate to determine celebrity endorser effectiveness.

Her source credibility dimensions assess the perceived expertise, trustworthiness and attractiveness of the source. Research consistently includes the trustworthiness and expertise constructs as dimensions of source credibility (Hovland, Janis, & Kelly, 1953; Ohanian, 1991). The Source Credibility Model by Hovland et al. (1953) contends that the effectiveness of a message depends on the perceived level of expertise and trustworthiness in an endorser (Dholakia & Sternthal, 1977; Erdogan, 1999; Ohanian, 1991; Ratneshwar & Chaiken, 1991; Solomon et al., 1999). Expertise is the extent to which a communicator is perceived capable of making valid assertions. Trustworthiness is the degree to which the audience perceives the communicator's intention to convey valid assertions (Hovland et al., 1953). Empirical evidence has established that source expertise and trustworthiness affect attitude change and product evaluations (McGuire, 1985). Based on Hovland et al. (1953), several studies have manipulated levels of trust or expertise, thereafter assessing the impact of the manipulations on attitude change (McGinnies, 1973), product perception (Harmon & Coney, 1982), and behavioural intentions (Dholakia & Sternthal, 1977; Ohanian, 1991). Source credibility seems to provide the best understanding of how a spokesperson can be more effective, depending on their personal characteristics and situational contingencies related to the endorsed product and the targeted audience (Stafford et al., 2002).. Pornpitakpan (2003) evaluates the reliability and validity of Ohanian's scales to measure source credibility using four Chinese celebrities as stimuli on a sample of 880 Singaporean undergraduate students. Her research verifies the factor structure of the celebrity endorsers' credibility scales by employing a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). This suggests that the dimensions of the source credibility scale proposed by Ohanian remain valid when used among Asian respondents, and thus seems appropriate for the context of this study.

Although Pornpitakpan (2003) widens the applicability of endorsers' credibility scales across a different cultural setting by employing a CFA, it is less convincing as providing measurement invariance. Perhaps more compelling evidence could have been obtained with testing for measurement invariance between two groups from different cultural backgrounds. It is a rigorous test to examine whether the relationships between latent constructs and their manifest variables function equivalently across groups or occasions (Ong & van Dulmen, 2007). Measurement invariance implies that the test is unbiased with respect to groups, and is independent of group membership (Drasgow & Kanfer, 1985; Mellenbergh, 1989; Millsap & Everson, 1993). Furthermore, Pornpitakpan (2003) only investigated the measurement model and not the structural model. She could have added the construct purchase intentions, with only three manifest variables. Employing and verifying the structural model could have further encouraged a more explicit approach for understanding the effects of the source credibly scales in a different cultural setting. Moreover, she could have compared the magnitude of the effects, which identify the relationships in the model that characterize the impact of celebrity endorsement to the endogenous variable. The advantage of employing a structural model is that it provides a rigorous framework for structural relationships from which one can draw meaningful inferences. These relationships have psychological interpretations that lend themselves to scrutiny on theoretical as well as empirical grounds. Another issue related to Pornpitakpan's study and many other celebrity endorsement studies (e.g., Burroughs & Feinberg 1987; Koernig & Page, 2004; Louie & Obermiller, 2002; Moore & Readon, 1987) is the use of a student sample.

Even though more than half of all the celebrity endorsements studies use a student sample (Amos, Holmes, & Strutton, 2008), there has been some controversy to what extent students are able to represent general consumers. Previous studies regarding the use of students in consumer studies clearly indicate that students are not valid surrogates for adults (Burnett & Dunne, 1986; Cunningham, Anderson, & Murphy, 1974; Khera & Benson, 1970; Vinson & Lundstrom, 1978). An explanation for the extensive use of students is that they are quick and convenient sources of information as it may save time, distance, and money considerations (Shuptrine, 1975). Some scholars argue that students make decisions or process information in a manner similar to the general population (Lamb & Stern, 1979), and provide similar responses as their non-student counterparts (Bergmann & Grahn, 1997; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). Nevertheless, Shuptrine (1975) suggests that investigators attempt in every way possible to test the population that they are interested and argues that using students as subjects in consumer behavior experiments should be discouraged unless there are compelling reasons for assuming validity of the results. One way to address this is to ensure that the respondents are representative of the target segment for the product category used in the experimental research (Ferber, 1977). Many of the celebrity endorsement studies using a student sample have done this accordingly, by creating relevant stimuli for which a student population has already developed schematic memory, for example, non-carbonated drinks (La Ferle & Choi, 2005), athletic shoes (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999), soap and ballpoints (Petroshius & Crocker, 1989), roller-blades (Priester & Petty, 2002), cologne and pens, energy bars and candy bars (Till & Busler, 2000) and movies (Wang, 2005). However, other stimuli used in studies are perhaps questionable such as inkjet printers and luxury perfume (Ryu, Park, & Fleick, 2006), banks and restaurants (Stafford et al., 2002), and credit cards

(Woo, Fock, & Hui, 2006). Even tough most scholars provide contextual justification and acknowledge the limitations of their student sample, the results should be questioned or at least approached with extreme caution (Soley & Reid, 1983) as using student participants remain an issue (Ferber, 1977; Lamb & Stern, 1979). One of the reasons for this is that the impact of celebrity source effects was much larger in studies using student samples than in studies using non-student samples (Amos et al., 2008). This may be explained by the relatively homogeneous demographic and psychographic characteristics associated with student samples (Lynch, 1999). Other studies also illustrate that students' survey responses were different than those of household consumers (Cunningham et al., 1974; Park & Lessig, 1977). More specifically, Soley and Reid (1983) found that students react differently than adults on four commonly used measures of advertising effectiveness. This was also plainly illustrated by Freiden (1984) who employed a student sample representing a group of young consumers and compared it with a group of older consumers. He attributed the differences between the groups with the following possible and rather obvious explanation that younger consumers (students) tend to have less experience with purchasing color television receivers. Student subjects usually score lower on purchase intention than samples of consumers due to their resource constraints (Chao et al., 2005). Hence, scholars are recommended to assess the possible amount of respondent's involvement with product or service categories beforehand in order to develop relevant stimuli. Therefore, this study will avoid students as much as possible and sample those that are able to represent potential visitors to Hong Kong. More details regarding the sample characteristics and the sampling technique are provided in chapter four.

It is important to target respondents that represent potential tourists because the structural model includes the endogenous construct of visitation intentions. Behavioural intention refers to a person's subjective probability to perform a certain behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) or to the likelihood of visiting a destination (Moutinho, 1987), and are based on the intensity and amount of effort made by the person to actually engage in the target behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). On the other hand, the relationship between preferring a destination and the behaviour of actually visiting that destination is often relatively low, because of the moderating influence of the situational context within which the behaviour takes place (Um & Crompton, 1991). Therefore, this study focuses on the intention to visit a destination, which is perhaps more salient than the actual visit. It is easier to predict salient behaviours than to predict less salient behaviours (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Hence, consistent with past endorsement studies (Chang et al., 2005; Chao et al., 2005; Daneshvary & Schwer, 2000; Fireworker & Friedman, 1977; Goldsmith, Lafferty, & Newell, 2000; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999; Misra & Beatty, 1990; Till & Busler, 1998; Wang, Hsieh, & Chen, 2002; Wang, 2005), the dependent variables in this study include 'Attitude towards the Advertisement', 'Attitude towards the Destination' and 'Visitation Intentions'. The following sections elaborate on Ohanian's (1990) dimensions relating them to the proposed dependent variables. Throughout this study, the words 'advertisement' and 'Hong Kong' are occasionally abbreviated to 'Ad' and 'HK' to save space in figures and tables.

3.2.1 Attractiveness

Research indicates that consumers tend to form positive stereotypes with attractive individuals, finding that physically attractive communicators are more successful in changing consumer's attitudes (Baker & Churchill, 1977) and generating purchase intentions (Friedman et al., 1976; Kahle & Homer, 1985) than their unattractive counterparts. This was also verified in the Source Attractiveness Model by McGuire (1985) in assessing the attractiveness of a source. In fact, one of the reasons why a celebrity may do better than a non-celebrity in generating higher communication effectiveness is his/ her attractiveness to the consumer (Chao et al., 2005). Physical attractiveness is one of the most visible and accessible characteristics of a person (Caballero & Solomon, 1984; Dion et al., 1972; Patzer, 1983), and as such, people may develop positive attitudes because of this. Research demonstrates that physical attractiveness has a significant effect on judgment and behaviour (Dion, 1972; Dion, Berscheid, & Walster, 1972; Joseph, 1982; Patzer, 1985; Solnick & Schweitzer, 1999). Moreover, attractiveness has become an important dimension in source credibility models (Patzer, 1985). Therefore, based on previous studies, (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Caballero & Pride, 1984; Horai, Naccari, & Fatoullah, 1974; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Patzer, 1983; Petroshius & Crocker, 1989), it is expected that an attractive celebrity endorser has a positive effect on tourists' attitude towards an advertisement and a destination.

H1: *Attractiveness significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Advertisement.*

H2: *Attractiveness significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Destination.*

3.2.2 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is defined as "*the degree of confidence in the communicators' intent to communicate the assertions he/she considers most valid*" (Hovland et al., 1953: 21). In the previous section, this dimension was already found to be important in assessing the credibility of a source. Research repeatedly indicates that an endorser associated with high trustworthiness provokes greater message acceptance than an endorser associated with moderate or low trustworthiness. In addition, the seminal report of Hovland et al. (1953) discloses findings from several studies that examined the positive influence of trustworthiness on attitude. In these studies, credibility is defined as the combination of a source's expertise (the source has knowledge of the topic), and trustworthiness (the source can be trusted to provide accurate information about the topic). It is also expected that a trustworthy celebrity endorser has a positive effect on the tourists' attitude towards both an advertisement and a destination.

H3: *Trustworthiness significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Advertisement.*

H4: *Trustworthiness significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Destination.*

3.2.3 Expertise

Expertise is defined as "*the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions*" (Hovland et al., 1953: 21). Research indicates that the endorser's expertise is important in affecting attitude and intentions to buy an endorsed brand (Daneshvary & Schwer, 2000; Dean & Biswas, 2001; Erdogan, 1999; Evans, 1998; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Holloway & Robinson, 1995; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999; Till & Busler, 1998; Shimp, 2000).

This may be caused by credibility. Research on the persuasive effect of credible sources versus those with less credibility consistently demonstrate that credible sources produce more attitude change than do less credible sources (Craig & McCann, 1978; Erdogan, 1999; Hovland & Weiss, 1951). Experts are more credible as they are assumed more efficient external information seekers as they are likely to better discriminate between relevant and irrelevant information (Alba & Marmorstein, 1987; Hutchinson & Moore, 1984). However, it is irrelevant whether an endorser is an expert; the issue is how the target audience perceives the endorser (Ohanian, 1991). Hence, it is expected that a perceived expert celebrity endorser has a positive effect on the tourists' attitude towards both an advertisement and a destination.

H5: *Expertise significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Advertisement.*

H6: *Expertise significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Destination.*

3.3 Mediating effects of Attitude

One of the most important aspects of attitudes is their presumed influence on subsequent behaviour, being considered an important means by which to modify or change behaviour (Bagozzi et al., 2002). It is the advertisers' primary goal to persuade their audience and to induce an attitude change towards their offerings (Walley, 1987). Attitudes have been conceptualized in many studies as an important mediator of behaviour (e.g., Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fazio, 1995; Fazio & Williams, 1986; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Ohanian's study (1991) and other studies have centred on the relationship between the source credibility factors and intentions to purchase (e.g., Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Woodside, Frey, & Daly, 1989).

However, this relationship could be mediated by attitude or other factors. For example, many tourism studies indicate that attitude is an important factor in tourist choice behaviour (Ajzen & Driver, 1991; Chen, 1998; Fesenmaier, 1988; Iso-Ahola, 1980; Mohsin, 2005; Pike, 2006; Um & Crompton, 1991). It appears that attitude might be one of the significant antecedents serving as a necessary condition for the consequent visitation intentions. Moreover, various consumer studies support the mediated effects of attitude towards the advertisement and towards the brand concerning purchase intentions (Biehal, Stephens, & Curlo, 1992; Burke & Edell, 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986; Miniard, Bhatla, & Rose, 1990; Mitchell & Olson, 1981), and it appears to be the missing link in current endorsement research. Furthermore, from a tourism perspective, several studies have demonstrated that attitude towards destinations influences travellers' preferences and intentions (Court & Lupton, 1997; Goodrich, 1978; Milman & Pizam, 1995). More often, the emotional reactions to advertisements in influencing consumer decision-making have been measured as attitudes (Bagozzi et al., 2002), for example, attitude towards the advertisement and the brand (Brown & Stayman, 1992; Mitchell & Olsen, 1981; Shimp, 1981). Attitude towards the advertisement is thought to be a function of feelings and thoughts about the advertisement itself (Batra & Ray, 1986; Mackenzie et al., 1986). Stayman and Batra (1991) found that subjects exposed to an affective, as opposed to an argumentative advertisement were able to retrieve brand attitudes faster when primed with the brand name. Attitude towards advertising and attitude towards the brand are defined as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner in general (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989). These attitudinal constructs are expected to have effects on consumers' affective and cognitive reactions emanating from the advertisement (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989).

This study regards attitude as an evaluative response towards an object that once learned, is triggered automatically when one is exposed to the object or act, or thinks about it (Fazio, 1995). When people are asked to respond with their attitudes, they are asked to make a choice of favourability or non-favourability, and it is common practice using bipolar items to indicate respondent's attitudes (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Thus, it seems reasonable to include attitude towards both the advertisement and destination as mediating constructs within the proposed framework.

H7: *Attitude towards the Advertisement significantly affects individuals' Visitation Intentions to the Destination.*

H8: *Attitude towards the Destination significantly affects individuals' Visitation Intentions to the Destination.*

H9: *Attitude dimensions mediate the relationship between the celebrity endorsement factors and Visitation Intentions.*

3.4 Moderating Effects of Matchup

Scholars note that advertising effectiveness and enhanced purchasing potential only exist when congruence between the characteristics of the endorser and the endorsed product is present (Basil, 1996; Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Kamins et al., 1989; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; McCracken, 1989; Misra & Beatty, 1990; Mittelstaedt & Riesz, 2000). It is suggested that there is a heightened degree of effectiveness when a celebrity is incorporated into the advertising and marketing communication for brands where there is either personal consumption or personal appearance involved (Pringle & Binet, 2005).

Michael Jordan, for example, is an attractive endorser, however his effectiveness is likely to be greater when endorsing products related to his athletic prowess, such as Nike or Gatorade, rather than products that are unrelated to athletic performance, such as WorldCom Communications (Till & Busler, 1998). Therefore, it is important that consumers see similarities between the image of the endorser and the product (Trimble & Rifon, 2006). For example, the cooperation between Jamie Oliver and the grocery chain-store brand Sainsbury's has worked well. Sainsbury's is one of Britain's largest supermarket brands, and Jamie Oliver is a famous television chef through his own 'Naked Chef' and 'Jamie's Kitchen' television series. The campaign generated an incremental £1.12 billion in sales for the Sainsbury's brand with a return on investment of 27:1 (Pringle & Binet, 2005). The idea of a match between the celebrity and the product became formalized under the rubric 'matchup hypothesis' (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Solomon, Ashmore, & Longo, 1992). The matchup hypothesis has focused on the appropriate match between an endorser and a product based on endorser physical attractiveness (Drumwright, 1996; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Trimble & Rifon, 2006). However, Ohanian's (1991) model does not include a matchup dimension (Pornpitakpan, 2003). Therefore, this study proposes to introduce the Matchup dimension as a continuous moderator, with comprehensive scale development. This dimension may moderate the relationship between the celebrity endorsement credibility factors and the attitude dimensions. Regardless of the nature of compatibility, research findings consistently confirm that the greater the consumer's perception of compatibility, the more positive effect it had on consumer responses (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005; Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004).

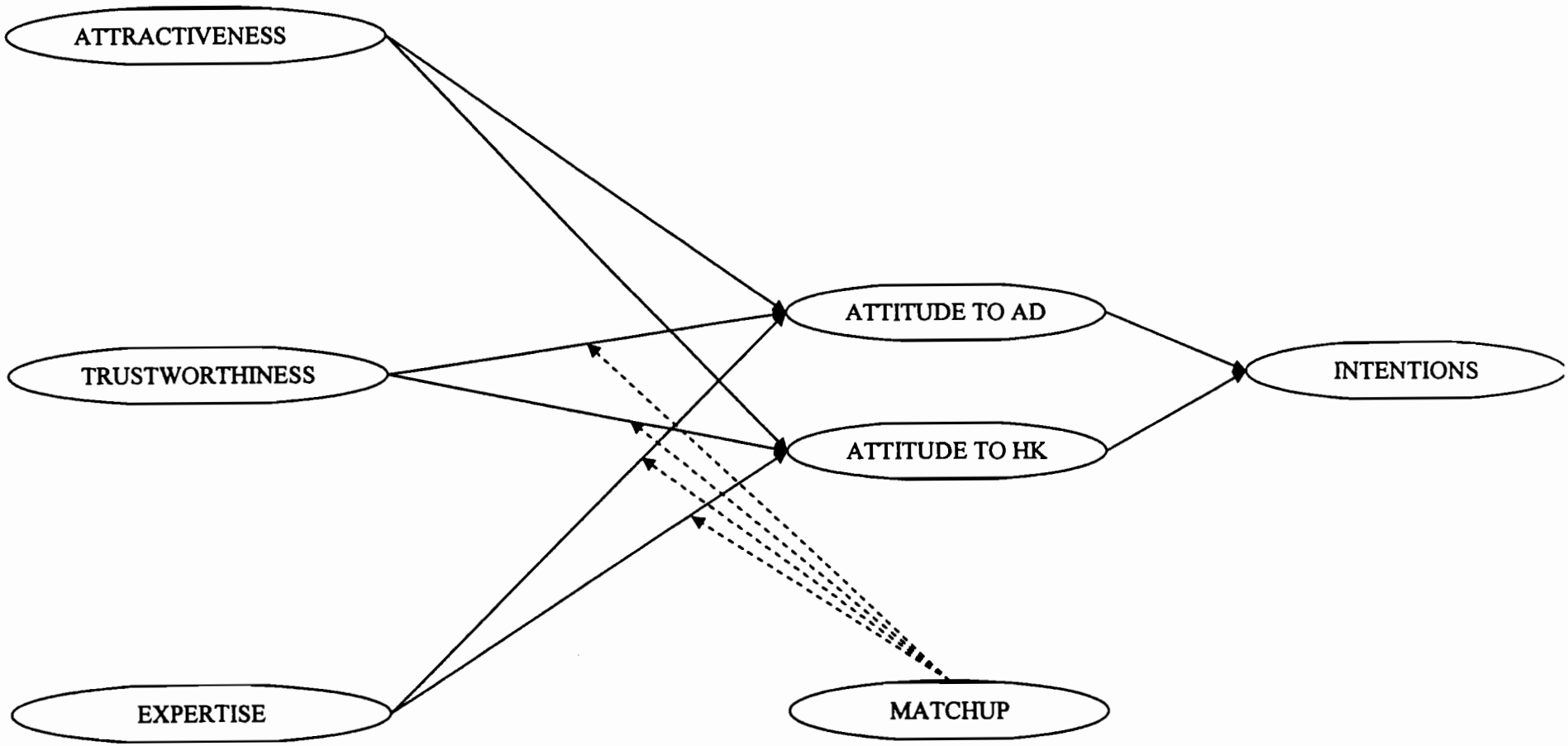
This study proposes that the congruency is reflected by using a native/local versus non-native/international celebrity, due to the hedonic nature of the product/brand being endorsed (Chandon, Wansink, & Laurent, 1999 as cited in Stafford et al., 2002; Johar & Sirgy, 1991). Thus, the celebrity endorsement credibility constructs seem to be subject to compatibility, and therefore might change the current relationship in the conceptual framework proposed by Ohanian (1991).

H10: *Matchup moderates the relationship between credibility factors and attitude.*

3.5 Proposed Conceptual Framework

As delineated from the previous sections in this chapter and from the literature review, a conceptual framework is proposed. It tries to capture the relationships between endorser effectiveness (constructed by the dimensions of attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise) and attitude (constructed by attitude towards the destination and the advertisement). These factors together contribute to explain the celebrity endorsement effect on visitation intentions accordingly (see Figure 3.1). Furthermore, the credibility factors of celebrity endorsement effectiveness are believed to be moderated by the *Matchup* dimension, with the dotted lines representing these moderating relationships. In accordance with conventional practice in the causal modelling literature (Bentler, 1980), ovals/circles are used to represent the latent variables. In the next chapter, indicators as squares are added to the framework to designate the manifest variables for the constructs. Unidirectional arrows between the theoretical constructs represent the types of causal paths involved in the model, with the dotted arrows representing the moderation effects (Aish, 2006).

Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework for Celebrity Destination Endorsement



3.6 Summary

This chapter presents the conceptual framework of the study and hypothesize the relationships between the constructs. The model is primarily based on Ohanian's framework and it tries to explain celebrity endorsement effectiveness for print destination advertising. Her model is further extended by including two mediators and one moderator in order to advance the knowledge regarding celebrity endorsement. Literature addressing the constructs and the amendments is reviewed. The modified model illustrates the nexus between celebrity endorsement, attitude towards Hong Kong and attitude towards the advertisement, all of which are believed to impact positively on intentions to visit Hong Kong.

The relationships were developed into six hypotheses between all major constructs. This is followed by two additional hypotheses. The first proposes a mediation effect of attitude between the celebrity endorsement effectiveness factors and visitation intentions. The second hypothesis proposes moderation effects on the relationship between credibility factors and attitude dimensions. This chapter also illustrates how the framework is designed to provide an integrated model explaining the effects of celebrity endorsement on tourists' attitude and visitation intentions to Hong Kong.

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

4.1 Foreword

This chapter addresses the research methodology and the methods used to examine celebrity endorsement effectiveness for destinations. Several valuable contributions from advertising, marketing and other social science scholars have offered direction to endorsement effectiveness. However, there is still a need to gain more in-depth understanding of endorsement effectiveness (Mittelstaedt & Riesz, 2000).

4.2 Research design

The methodology of a study is an important element and should be carefully selected since it affects the direction, structure and process of the research (Sarantakos, 1993). This study adopts a quantitative method and collects numerical data in contrast to the qualitative method, which collects data in the form of words (Neuman, 2000). Due to the post positivistic approach of this study, the process is directed towards testing hypotheses, which could be generalized across settings. Therefore, the initial step is to test the conceptual framework to check if a different observer arrives at the same conclusions. The study attempts to determine whether the celebrity endorser has an effect on the consumer's attitude and visitation intentions towards a tourism destination using SEM. The rationale behind an SEM approach is to test and analyse interrelationships among unobservable dimensions and their observable manifest variables (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006). It represents a powerful statistical technique, which has been successfully employed in many social and psychological, and behavioral science studies (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006).

SEM modeling has not been widely applied in the tourism discipline, but the number of tourism studies applying SEM has been steadily increasing (Reisinger & Turner, 1999; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006). This study follows this trend because the application of SEM in tourism is an important tool for promoting better quality research (Reisinger & Turner, 1999). It allows solving research problems related to proposed structural relationships between latent constructs. Furthermore, structure means invariance is employed to determine whether the celebrity endorser's effects are significantly different from the control group. In addition, this approach also allows for selection of the most appropriate celebrity endorser for Hong Kong among the four treatment groups. The following sections illustrate the type of experiment and the design of the experiment.

4.3 Classic Experiment

This study employs a classical experiment to test the effects of the stimulation (celebrity endorsement) on tourists' attitude and if there is any influence on visitation intentions resulting from this. Experiments are popular in marketing and behavioural studies (Louviere, Hensher, & Swat, 2000) and they refer to an investigation where the phenomenon under study is under control of the investigator (Cox & Reid, 2000). The crucial element in a classical experiment is that the researcher can manipulate a factor (celebrity endorser) and to a certain extent has control over the setting in which the change is introduced. Experiments are considered as an appropriate method since they are capable of providing convincing evidence of causal relationships than other designs. They can provide the necessary control that may infer that causal relationships do exist (Bouma & Atkinson, 1995; Churchill, 1999; Hakim, 2000;

Miller, 1991). However, for a relationship to be called causal, the results should be minimally affected by either random error or confounded by other factors (Blalock, 1965). This is often difficult in most social science studies, as the researcher cannot have complete control of all the subjects or the environment. A suitable approach is to obtain respondents' perceptions of the celebrity destination endorsed advertisement based on the image in front of them, and to compare them with the control group regarding the attitude and intention dimensions. Moreover, it follows a similar approach employed by other researchers (e.g., Allen & Janiszewski, 1989; Money, Shimp, & Sakano, 2006; Till & Busler, 1998). This study applies a between-subjects design and takes different subjects for each of the experimental condition. Respondents who receive the experimental treatment are called the 'treatment group' while those who do not receive the experimental treatment are called the 'control group'. The control group is presented with the same advertisement but without any celebrity endorsement. It is assumed that if any endorser effect existed, it would show up in at least one of the four treatment groups. How and why this is assumed is illustrated in the next section.

4.4 Experimental Design

This section discusses how to assess the cause and effects of the treatment (celebrity endorser), which is the primary concern. The key question is whether observed changes can be attributed to the manipulation and not to other causes (Trochim, 2001). This refers to the internal validity of an experiment which can be defined as "*the degree to which a design successfully demonstrates that changes in a dependent variable are caused by changes in an independent variable*" (Clark-Carter, 1997: 41).

In other words, "*internal validity refers to the extent in which the research design accurately identifies causal relationships*" (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2006: 91). By introducing a control group (without treatment) to the design, could indicate that any change in a dependent variable may only occur in the other treatment groups. Including a control condition in the design represents the greatest strength of the experiment and the best way to ensure internal validity (Hair et al., 2006). The recommendation to randomly assign the subjects to groups was fairly impossible as no predetermined groups could be formed because a street intercept survey was employed. Nevertheless, it is believed that any differences in the outcome are more likely to be the result of differences in the treatments used rather than difference in composition of the groups. Table 4.1 illustrates the experimental design for both the pilot study and the main survey. One sample group is assigned to experimental group No. 1 (EG1), to evaluate a native male celebrity endorser; a second group is assigned to experimental group No. 2 (EG2) evaluating the non-native male celebrity endorser; the third group evaluates a native female celebrity endorser No. 3 (EG3) and the fourth group evaluates a non-native female celebrity endorser No. 4 (EG4). The last experimental group would be the control group (CG) without any endorsement. This design should be able to determine whether the celebrity endorser's effect is significantly different from the control group based on the attitude and intention constructs. In addition, this setting allows evaluation comparisons of the different celebrity endorsers. This is based on all dimensions for all the treatment groups, which will determine the most appropriate celebrity endorser for Hong Kong. By using an experimental approach, it is possible to improve the validity and reliability, which are fundamental factors that underpin all research papers (Chisnall, 2001; Clark et al., 1998; Denscombe, 2003; Robson, 2002).

Table 4.1 Experimental Design

Groups	Pilot Study (N)	Main Survey (N)	Stimuli
EG1	50	200	Endorser No. 1
EG2	50	200	Endorser No. 2
EG3	50	200	Endorser No. 3
EG4	50	200	Endorser No. 4
CG	50	200	No endorsement

Even though procedures were taken, it might not always be possible to exclude extraneous variables confounding the relationships. Therefore, caution is warranted for the interpretation of the results. Next is the question of generalization, which is inescapable with experiments and second to the internal validity (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000; Trochim, 2001). External validity refers to *"the extent to which a causal relationship found in a study can be expected to be found in the entire target population"* (Hair et al., 2006: 93). Generalization of the experimental findings can be tested by repeating the experiment in different circumstances and with different types of participants. If the findings can be replicated regardless of the context, method and respondents' characteristics, the results can be applied widely (de Vaus, 2002). The more often a study can be replicated, the stronger the external validity or the ability to generalize (Clark-Carter, 1997). Both Winer (1999) and Peterson (2001) advocate social science research to focus on greater external validity. Therefore, to address external validity, the study uses a cross-validation approach to establish an appropriate measurement model. In addition, the cross-validation value (ECVI) is examined for the structural model to ensure it has replication abilities. The ECVI is a means to assess, in a single sample, the likelihood that the model cross validates across similar-sized samples from the same population (Browne & Cudeck, 1989).

4.5 Sample characteristics

Scholars have recognized that involvement with a product category has considerable impact on how an advertising message affects formation or change of attitude (Greenwald & Leavitt, 1984; Heesacker, Petty & Cacioppo, 1983; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Park & Young, 1983; Zaichkowsky, 1986), and it was found that advertising might have a significant impact on the low-involvement segment (McWilliams & Crompton, 1997). Furthermore, research shows that endorsement is more effective under a low, rather than a high, product involvement condition (Chaiken, 1980; Heesacker et al., 1983; Park & Young, 1983; Petty & Cacioppo, 1985; Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981; Traylor, 1981; Zaichkowsky, 1986). Therefore, the decision was made to choose a context for which a low-involvement situation existed. Tourist studies indicate that short break holidays are generally considered to be low involvement decisions (Davies, 1990; Edgar, Litteljohn, Allardyce, & Wanhill, 1994; Fache, 1994; Middleton & O'Brien, 1987; Teare, Davies, & McGeary, 1989). Comparing a short vacation to a long trip, no matter the difference between a domestic or foreign destination, households passed through the decision-making process less extensively (Bargeman & van der Poel, 2006). Crouch (1996) offers an explanation as to why this might be;

- Long-haul tourism seems to be more income sensitive than short-haul tourism.
- Tourists regard long-trail tourism as being more 'luxurious'.
- Long-haul tourism is significantly less price elastic than short-haul tourism.

In addition, the respondents are assumed to represent leisure tourists, rather than business tourists, because business trips are fairly inflexible and it is often complex for business travellers to select their destinations (Andsager & Drzewiecka, 2002; Buhalis, 2000). It was deemed appropriate to focus on potential leisure visitors that are supposedly making a decision within a low-involvement situation. This is because an endorsement claim and advertising as a medium are both more effective under a low product involvement condition. It was found that short-trips are generally considered to be a low involvement decision within a tourism context. The next section discusses the short-trip market that was found most appropriate for Hong Kong.

4.6 Study Location

As previously indicated, a short-haul market for Hong Kong is desirable as the target population. A short-break is defined as a non-business trip away from home of between one to five nights (Huybers, 2003; MacKay & Smith, 2006; Pike, 2006). Huang and Hsu (2005) indicate that Guangzhou provides a large target market for short-break visitors to Hong Kong. Moreover, the HKTB reports that Guangzhou demonstrates the largest number of overnight visitor arrivals for vacation in Hong Kong (see Appendix C1) and it is one of the cities to which the HKTB gives its marketing priority. The short-break market is one of the most competitive tourism markets for many destinations, given the plethora near home places available to travellers (Pike, 2006). Hence, Guangzhou was chosen as the study location. Any competitive advancement to target this market segment would also be of interest to the HKTB.

The city of Guangzhou is the third largest city in China and has around 10 million inhabitants. It is the capital of Guangdong province and belongs to the Individual Visit Scheme (IVS). The IVS allows the residents from designated cities and regions to travel to Hong Kong on their own. Residents can conveniently apply for an entry permit to Hong Kong, which is valid for 3 months and only costs around 15 RMB. Within the valid period, individual visitors can travel to Hong Kong twice, each time staying up to seven days. Hong Kong is easy accessible from Guangzhou, either by coach, train, and plane or automobile.

Although most people in Hong Kong are able to speak and/or understand Mandarin, the leading dialect is Cantonese. Most Guangzhou residents are able to speak Cantonese as well, which avoids any potential dialect barriers when visiting Hong Kong. Moreover, the Guangzhou broadcasting authority also offers Hong Kong media, such as TVB and ATV television channels. This allows Guangzhou residents to be exposed to the local Hong Kong celebrities. Even though travelling to Hong Kong may be perceived as a luxury for Guangzhou residents, compared to other markets (e.g., Beijing or Shanghai) in Mainland China, the travel decision is assumed to be less complicated due to a closer distance, easier accessibility and less perceived constraints. Therefore, Guangzhou residents were found to be an appropriate target population. They appear to correspond to a relatively low-involvement segment and at the same time providing a large target market for short-break visitors to Hong Kong. The next section elaborates in more detail about the remaining selection criteria for the sample.

4.7 Sample selection criteria

Being financially independent, able to make independent decisions and accepting responsibility for one's self are three criteria for adulthood that appear repeatedly in the studies of young people's conceptions (Arnett, 1997, 1998). In a similar vein, these three criteria could be considered as important assumptions for making a travel decision. Nelson, Badger and Wu (2004) examined emerging adulthood in the Chinese culture and compared it with students from the United States. Their findings reveal that the majority of Chinese college students feel they have reached adult status in their early twenties. Therefore, it was decided to assure all the respondents for this study are at least 20 years or older, which assumes the respondents are mature enough to make an independent travel decision. Instead of assuming financial independence of the respondent, they were asked in advance to confirm this was the case. The request relates to the teachings of Confucius, which is strongly interwoven in Chinese culture and thinking. Confucius taught that being able to support one's parents and take care of one's family are morally significant and an indicator of mature adulthood (Nelson et al., 2004). Moreover, individuals were considered immature if they did not take care of their families, which generally consisted of a spouse, children, and elderly parents (Lin, 1935). Hence, it is believed that confirming the respondent's financial independence would allow us to assume that they accept self-responsibility and are affluent enough to travel to Hong Kong. The following paragraphs discuss the differences between the repeat and novice travellers to Hong Kong.

4.8 Repeat versus novice travellers

Prior destination knowledge and experiences are likely to influence tourists' involvement and their decision-making process (Aktaş, Aksu, & Çizel, 2007; Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Fodness & Murray, 1997; Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997; Snepenger & Snepenger, 1993; Vogt & Fesenmaier, 1998; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Tourists with prior destination experience are likely to focus on certain destination attributes to make a decision (McFarlane, Boxall, & Watson, 1998; Schreyer & Beaulieu, 1986), simply because they are aware of the existence of those attributes (Brucks, 1985). However, novices may find some product related facts to be less useful and less interesting, because of their limited ability to comprehend and evaluate product related facts (Anderson & Jolson, 1980). Consumers store acquired and processed information in their memory so that when a need arises (for themselves or for others) to evaluate a product or to make a decision, they can access the stored information (Chen & Gursoy, 2001). Consumers acquire knowledge and gain product knowledge from their previous experiences with the product or by means of travel stimuli such as advertisements, newspaper/magazine articles and television programs (Vogt & Fesenmaier, 1998). This acquired knowledge in the consumers' memory is called internal information (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995). Travellers may utilize internal information first rather than external information in order to minimize the cost of search (Marmorstein, Grewal, & Fishe, 1992). However, if the internal information proves insufficient for making a decision, the tourist may direct attention and effort to search for external information (Crotts, 1999; Fodness & Murray, 1997; Gursoy & Chen, 2000; Gursoy & McCleary, 2004; Engel et al., 1995; Moutinho, 1987; Snepenger & Snepenger, 1993; Vogt & Fesenmaier, 1998; Vogt & Stewart, 1998) or

use it to confirm their decision or extend their knowledge (Bargeman & van der Poel, 2006). Research suggests that the best predictor of behavioural intention and future actual behaviour is the frequency of past relevant behaviour (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998; Quellette & Wood, 1998). Frank (1962) indicates that the more often a consumer purchases the same brand within a purchase sequence, as well as the more recent purchase of that particular brand, the higher the probability is to repurchase that brand again. Opperman (1999) suggests that there is a close linkage between previous destination purchase history and future purchase behaviour. One of the possible reasons is that consumers tend to maintain behavioural persistency and value consistency (Cialdini, 1988; Staw, 1981). Previous destination travel experiences relate positively to the inclusion of that destination in a consumer's consideration-set versus other mental categories of vacation destinations (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Once people have been on holiday to a particular country and liked it, they tend to return to that destination (Witt, 1989). Lam and Hsu (2004) note that as the number of previous visits to Hong Kong increases, Taiwanese travellers' intention to revisit Hong Kong becomes stronger. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the inclusion of repeat travellers to Hong Kong in the study could bias or weaken the predictive ability of the proposed endorsement model. If the repeat travellers are included, it is quite likely that their intentions might be biased by familiarity with the destination. Familiarity is mostly measured by a single indicator and often referred to as previous trip experiences (Woodside & Ronkainen, 1980). To ensure the exclusion of repeat travellers to Hong Kong, a single filter question (have you visited Hong Kong before?) was asked to the respondent prior to presenting the questionnaire. Moreover, it was found that experienced holiday makers may become less susceptible to marketing activities that rely on supplying external information (Bargeman & van der

Poel, 2006; Gursoy & McCleary, 2004), due to their acquired internal information. There may be less chance that external information may affect them and seize their attention (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2000; Frederick, 2002; Quelette & Wood, 1998; Reid & Crompton, 1993; Verplanken & Aarts, 1999). This study focuses on first time travellers, as they tend to rely on third-party information more frequently than repeat visitors (Sheldon & Mak, 1987; Snepenger, Meged, Snelling, & Worrall, 1990), and sample the opinions of others (Brucks, 1985; Furse, Punj, & Steward, 1984). The celebrity endorser may be able to serve as an opinion leader or as a third-party information source, making it likely that novices could be influenced by the endorsement of the celebrity and not by familiarity with the destination.

4.9 Fictitious versus Real

A fictitious destination could be used in order to avoid the possible confounding effects (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999). However, one study found that respondents guess what destination is pictured in the advertising, and generalize about their perceived destination based on their stereotypes of it (Andsager & Drzewiecka, 2002). Therefore, the depicted location is identified to the respondents in order to avoid inconsistencies among destination images. A realistic destination and real celebrities are chosen for this study. The aim is to examine existing attitudes or perceptions about the destination and celebrity displayed in the advertisement. Employing a created celebrity would allow careful control over subjects' prior knowledge and familiarity, and it may help to minimize potential confounding effects that could occur when using real celebrities. Nonetheless, it is important to recognize that the results might increase generalization in the use of well-known celebrity endorsers towards a

known destination. Celebrities in the marketplace often evoke a much richer set of feelings and responses than a fictitious celebrity used in a laboratory research setting (Till & Shimp, 1998). Authentic and true celebrities have a life of their own (Pringle & Binet, 2005) and this is what makes them interesting in the first place. Thus, it is important that the respondents know the celebrity endorser, which represents the last filter question (do you know this person?). Although Hong Kong had already been chosen as the destination to be advertised, the picture representing Hong Kong is determined by a pre-test. In addition, the pre-test also determines the four celebrities and specifies the indicators for the moderator. The next section presents the pre-test in more detail.

4.10 Pre-Test

A pre-test was conducted in order to determine three things; (1) a picture representing Hong Kong, (2) the specification of the moderator and (3) the four celebrities (see Appendix A). The test was successfully carried out in the business school at Sun Yat-Sen University in Guangzhou with the assistance of Professor Liu, Sunny and many others. The participants of the pre-test were mixed, with 13 academic staff members and 100 undergraduate students from the business school. Although the majority of the participants were students, it is believed that they have the knowledge and experience comparable with the population to fulfil the three objectives for the pre-test (Enis, Cox, & Stafford, 1972; Khera & Benson, 1970). Small incentives (Snickers candy bar or Dutch caramel waffles), each worth five Hong Kong Dollars, were distributed among the participants. The participants were simultaneously instructed in both English and Chinese regarding the pre-test.

The documents presented were translated into Chinese with answers being in either English or Chinese. The first page asked the attendees to indicate numerically (with number 1 signifying the most appropriate and number 8 indicating the least appropriate picture,) which could best represent Hong Kong in a tourism advertisement. The pictures were borrowed from the E-cards section of the HKTB website but are not presented in the study due to potential copyright restrictions. The participants were instructed to read each page carefully and to look at the pictures as if they were seeing it in a magazine. Based on frequency, it appeared that a picture of the Wan Chai harbour front was perceived as the most representative picture for a tourism advertisement for Hong Kong and was therefore selected for this study. The second objective of the pre-test was to obtain the adjectives or descriptive words to develop comprehensive scales for the '*Matchup*' dimension. The participants were given a list with 30 synonyms for the word association (see Appendix A10/11). They were instructed to carefully study each adjective and then to circle only five words that would describe a suitable association between a celebrity and a tourism destination. Items with 75 percent or more agreement as belonging to the construct were retained for further analysis. This approach is similar to Ohanian's (1990) work (see Appendix A12). The chosen items were embedded and formatted according to the original semantic-differential scales presented by Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957). These scales were based on associations to Kent-Rosanoff word stimuli, or thesaurus-based scales or adjective pairs drawn from Roget's Thesaurus by Kipfer (2005). In addition, the Random House College Thesaurus by Stein, Flexner, Pearsons, and Braham (2000) and the Oxford Thesaurus of English by Waite (2006) were consulted to confirm and verify the adjective pairs. The results of the adjective pairs for the continuous moderator are specified in Table 4.2.

Furthermore, other endorsement scholars (Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Till & Busler, 2000) also found similar measurement scales, such as compatible/not compatible, consistent/inconsistent, effective/ineffective and relevant/irrelevant/important.

Table 4.2 Specification of the Moderator

Relate	Disassociate
Correspond	Differ
Echoing	Not Echoing
Effective	Ineffective
Compatible	Not compatible
Consistent	Inconsistent
Representative	Unrepresentative
Combine	Separate
Relative	Irrelevant

The last objective was to find four popular celebrities. The participants were asked to list down all the names of the active Asian/non-Asian celebrities they could remember, *other* than Jackie Chan (see Appendix A1-8). This was mainly done to allow maximum freedom to list any celebrity they could think of apart from Jackie Chan. He was excluded because of being the official Hong Kong representative, therefore making it possible for the participants to be exposed to the endorsement claim, which might have confounding effects on the experimental design. The subjects were informed that the native celebrity should be a local and indigenous person from Hong Kong. For the non-native celebrity, the participants were asked to provide names for non-Asian celebrities to increase the likelihood that he or she was an international and non-indigenous person from Hong Kong. The request was to mention as many names as they could remember which produced an extensive list of more than 100 non-native unique male celebrities. This procedure followed Ohanian's (1990) earlier work. From these lists, the most frequently mentioned celebrity was selected. See Appendix A9 for the top five celebrities per category.

Surprisingly, there appeared to be two different types of celebrities. The Hong Kong celebrities fell into the entertainment genre whereas the top two international celebrities were political figures. Because George W. Bush and Hillary Clinton are currently fulfilling a political function and representing another destination, it was deemed inappropriate to select them for this study. Therefore, the second celebrity names on the list, which were David Beckham and Britney Spears, were chosen. The most frequently mentioned names of local celebrities were Any Lau and Maggie Cheung. The following sections discuss the background of the celebrities. Information regarding the celebrities was collected from news websites and official fan sites.

4.11 Profile of the Celebrity Endorsers

David Beckham - is an English professional football player. He currently captains Major League Soccer's Los Angeles Galaxy and is a member of England's national team. He was ranked by Forbes as number five in 2008, as one of the most influential celebrities in the world (Miller, 2008). In addition, he was Google's most searched sportsman in both 2003 and 2004 (Google, 2004). This global recognition made him an elite advertising brand and a top fashion icon (Isidore, 2007). The income from his contracts and endorsement deals made him the world's highest-paid player in 2004. His fame extends beyond the football field with his name instantly recognized through companies such as Coca-Cola and IBM (Moon, 2006). This is perhaps enhanced by his celebrity wife Victoria Beckham, who is a member of the Spice Girls music group. His endorsements are abundant and he is currently involved in promoting London's successful bid for the 2012 Olympic Games.

Andy Lau - is a famous Chinese entertainer and producer in Hong Kong. He is one of Hong Kong's most successful film actors and has appeared in more than 100 movies. He has also won several awards during his singing career, which earned him a place in the Guinness World Records for 'Most awards won by a Canto-Pop male artist'. His face is famous across Hong Kong and Mainland Chinese media, commercials, advertising and endorsement claims. Encouraging businesses to join the Quality Tourism Services Scheme in Hong Kong is one of his most recent endorsements.

Maggie Cheung - is a Chinese actress from Hong Kong who has won various awards for her acting career both locally and internationally. She was awarded best actress from the Berlin and Cannes film festival and received five Golden Horse Awards. She appears in numerous television commercials, advertising and mainly endorsed fashion, and jewellery and make up products. Brought up internationally, she has multi-lingual skills and was praised for her beauty during various pageant contests in the early 1990s. Her appearance is still much valued and was recently selected to show her glamour to the world on the famous Pirelli 2008 Calendar (Castonguay, 2007).

Britney Spears - is an American singer-songwriter, dancer and actress. Major album successes propelled her into early stardom and turned her into a pop icon during the late 1990s. Until this day, she still holds the record for the youngest artist to have a debut single and debut album simultaneously at number one on the Billboard Charts (8notes. com). Her career success was highlighted by Forbes in 2002 as Spears was ranked the world's most powerful celebrity (Forbes, 2002). One of the reasons for this is that she signed a multi-million dollar endorsement deal with Pepsi in 2001.

However, more recently, her personal life and family began to gain substantial media attention. Throughout 2007, she sought help from rehabilitation centres when she faced personal difficulties. Her troubled life and misbehaviour were often picked up by tabloids and news, which eventually began taking its toll. At this moment in time, it seems much work is needed to regain her positive image and return to her lucrative career.

4.12 Communication Instrument

As previously indicated, it is found that advertising may have a significant impact on the low-involvement segment (McWilliams & Crompton, 1997). Hence, the communication instrument applied is a print advertisement. Generally, advertisements can be divided into two categories. 1), thinking advertisement, where focus is placed on either factual information (e.g., product attributes, utilitarian consequences) or 2), feeling ads, where concentration is placed on the emotions one experiences through use or ownership of a product (Puto & Wells, 1984). This study focuses on the latter category and print media is chosen for consistency with past studies (Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999; Moore & Reardon, 1987). The print advertisement shows a picture of the destination in the background combined with a celebrity endorser for the treatment groups. In addition, to avoid any misinterpretations, the official slogan of the HKTB, 'Hong Kong, Live it and Love it' was included. The advertisement for the control group only shows the slogan and the picture of Hong Kong. This was also done because advertisements that integrated the brand name and the picture were remembered better than advertisements that did not (Edell & Staelin, 1983; Lutz & Lutz, 1977).

The most described problem of international advertising is that of translation, but it is suggested *"that using visuals will solve the problem"* (de Mooij, 1997: 31). Pictures may communicate affective and holistic content better than words (Eysenck & Keane, 1990). Paivio (1986) also found that it is easier for consumers to form verbal codes for pictures as compared to forming visual codes for words. Childers and Houston (1984) note that when processing is directed at appearance features, picture superiority occurred in both immediate and delayed recall tasks. Full colour pictures were chosen as tourism implies a visual experience; therefore photographs play an important role on the effect of promotional visuals (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997). Research suggests that advertisements containing colours with higher levels of value and chroma lead to greater liking of the advertisement. This is due to feelings of relaxation elicited by the higher value colour and feelings of excitement elicited by the higher chroma colour (Gorn, Chattopadhyay, Yi, & Dahl, 1997; Meyers-Levy & Peracchio, 1995). Dann (1996) notes that holiday brochures presented destinations as a type of paradise. However, the projection of images should not be that far from social reality (Cohen, 1993). Regarding the design of the advertisement, it was found that consumers spent more time looking at a focal object in an exploratory search task when the material surrounding that object was not very demanding (Janiszewski, 1988). Consumers can attend to something in their peripheral vision even though they may not be aware of it (Janiszewski, 1990). The non-conscious processing of stimuli in peripheral vision has been referred to as a pre-attentive process and can be explained on the basis of hemispheric resource theory (Allen, 1983). The right hemisphere is suited to holistic, inferential processing (music and pictures) and the left hemisphere is suited to analytic, repetitive processing (words and numbers) (Hansen, 1981; Janiszewski, 1988; Meyers-Levy, 1989).

Janiszewski (1988) found that subjects preferred pictorial stimuli more when placed on the left, which encourages the use of the holistic processing resources of the right hemisphere. Similarly, it was found that subjects preferred verbal stimuli more when placed on the right, which encourages the use of analytical processing resources of the left hemisphere. For these reasons, it was decided to place the celebrity endorser on the left in order to encourage the use of the holistic processing resources. The advertisements were professionally designed by the media assistant at the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The advertisements used in the study are not presented due to potential copyright restrictions.

4.13 Measurement Instrument

This study employs a self-administered questionnaire, because it is an efficient data collection mechanism. The researcher knows which variables are required and how to measure the variables of interest (Sekaran, 2000). Two key sources of information regarding the questionnaire design were consulted, Czaja and Blair (2005) and Dillman (2000). The questionnaire was designed in such a way it complied with most of their recommendations (see Appendix B). The questionnaire was first sent to friends and colleagues to obtain open and encouraging suggestions on the design. The reason for this was that a 'respondent friendly' questionnaire could reduce unit non-response, particularly among those least likely to respond (Dillman, Sinclair, & Clark, 1993 as cited in Dillman, 2000). Many respondents do not read the entire content of the questionnaire in a thoughtful way, but "*they take clues from the layout about what must be read and what can safely be ignored, and some respondents skip many words,*

with the frequent result that questions get misinterpreted or missed" (Dillman, 2000: 81). Therefore, the ease of administration was given priority in designing the survey questions (Fowler, 1995). Clear and bold headings were used throughout the entire questionnaire (Czaja & Blair, 2005). Furthermore, every section restarted numbering consecutively, being generous with white space. The items were vertically aligned to encourage more thorough reading of words and to make the task look easy. All these measures should give the respondents ease of progress by enabling them to quickly move down each page (Dillman, 2000). A cover letter was included in order to state the rational, introduction and promises, as suggested by Dillman (1978). The respondents were informed as to their importance to the study, how the results were to be used and that their participation was voluntary with confidentiality guaranteed. Open questions were not included in the questionnaire in order to minimize the cost of processing the data and to avoid burden upon the respondents (Czaja & Blair, 2005). Most questionnaires have the positive items in the scale presented first (agree) and the negative items last (disagree). However, there is some evidence of a bias towards the left side of the scale (Friedman & Amoo, 1999; Friedman, Friedman, & Gluck 1988; Friedman, Herskovitz, & Pollack, 1994). Belson (1966) found that the negative end of a traditional rating scale was used more by respondents when presented first. Friedman et al. (1994) indicate that the scale with the 'strongly agree' response category on the left side resulted in a greater degree of agreement than the scale with the 'strongly disagree' on the left side. Therefore, the polarization of the scales was randomized to avoid bias caused by the format of the scale. An issue that has received little attention in consumer research is whether to use uni-polar or bipolar items to measure emotions.

Bipolar scales run from a great amount of a characteristic to a great amount of its opposite (e.g., warm-cold), while uni-polar scales run from a great amount of a characteristic to the absence of that characteristic (e.g., warm-not warm; cold-not cold). Some studies indicate that pleasant and unpleasant emotions are independent (Diener & Emmons, 1985; Zevon & Tellegen, 1982), for example, people are either happy or sad, and any other pattern is thought to be an artefact of measurements error (Barrett & Russell, 1998; Green, Goldman, & Salovey, 1993; Russell & Carroll, 1999). Bagozzi, Wong and Yi (1999) challenge these conclusions and hypothesize that bipolarity depends on gender, culture and the target of one's emotions. Bagozzi et al. (1999) found that positive and negative emotions are highly negatively correlated for American women, but highly positively correlated for Chinese women. The former pattern is evidence for bipolarity (i.e., either positive or negative emotions occur, but not both). The latter concomitance stands for an occurrence or existence together or in connection with one another (i.e., both positive and negative emotions occur at the same time). For men, the correlation between positive and negative emotions are much smaller in magnitude but similar across ethnicity (i.e., slight negative correlations were found in American men, slight positive correlations in Chinese men) (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Bagozzi et al. (1999) argue that differences in culture (i.e., a tendency for Americans to view things in dichotomies or in discrete categories, in opposition, and a tendency for Chinese to view things dialectically, that is, in balance or harmony), interact with gender differences, (i.e., a tendency for women to be more knowledgeable about and skilled in the use of emotions than men) to produce the divergent patterns. However, it might be too early to give a definitive recommendation on which emotional scales to employ in empirical work, but for now, Bagozzi et al. (2002) recommend to use uni-polar scales that ask respondents to

express to what extent each emotion describes their own subjective feelings, rather than bipolar scales which can obscure differences in emotional responses across the various dimensions. Also they suggest that at least five, or preferably seven to nine, scale steps should be used for each item to increase the chances that optimal distributional properties of the measurement is achieved. They recommend at least three, but preferably more, items should be used for each emotional subcategory. The measurement instrument follows most of the suggestions of Bagozzi et al. (2002) and the next section presents the measurement scales and their format in more detail.

4.14 Measurement Scales

Generally, for SEM, there should be at least two or three items (observed variables) for every latent variable in order to avoid under-identified models (Kelloway, 1998). The questionnaire administered uses a number of published items and scale format to measure endorser effectiveness, attitude and behavioural intentions with at least three indicators (see Table 4.3). Ohanian (1990) developed a list of 139 adjectives relating to source credibility, which was believed to measure the effectiveness of the celebrity endorser. This is later reduced to a more manageable list of 15 manifest variables, five for each construct being *Expertise*, *Trustworthiness*, and *Attractiveness*. The resulting scales were subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis as well as several validity tests, from which was obtained a valid and reliable instrument. Given the rigor of Ohanian's study, this study borrows the measurement instrument to examine the celebrity endorser effectiveness for destinations. The measurement instrument consisted of 15 semantic differential items encompassing the dimensions of (1) *Attractiveness* (attractive/unattractive, classy/not classy, beautiful/ugly, elegant/plain, and sexy/not

sexy), (2) *Trustworthiness* (dependable/undependable, honest/dishonest, reliable/unreliable, sincere/insincere, and trustworthy/ untrustworthy), and (3) *Expertise* (expert/not an expert, experienced/ inexperienced, knowledgeable/ unknowledgeable, qualified/unqualified, and skilled/unskilled). Ohanian's three factors, fifteen-item credibility scale has been accepted and replicated by other researchers (Pornpitakpan 2003; Till & Busler 1998, 2000) and the items are similar to those proposed by other scholars (Feick & Higie, 1992; Walker et al., 1992). Consistent with past endorsement studies (Chang et al., 2005; Chao et al., 2005; Daneshvary & Schwer, 2000; Fireworker & Friedman, 1977; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999; Misra & Beatty 1990; Till & Busler, 1998; Wang, 2005; Wang et al., 2002) the dependent variables in this study are attitude towards the advertising and destination and behavioural intentions. Even though many of the scales were not designed to explain a destination choice decision, like most models applied by tourism scholars, this study also borrowed the scales from other disciplines for explaining the process to purchase tourism services (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Attitude towards the destination was chosen as a uni-dimensional construct in order to analyse the inter-relationships among destination image and other variables. It is not the purpose of this study to conduct an in-depth analysis of the construct itself (Bigné et al., 2001). To measure attitude towards brand/destination, subjects are asked to rate; "How would you describe your overall attitude to Hong Kong?" on three 7-point semantic differential scales anchored by good-bad, dislike-like, pleasant-unpleasant, positive-negative and favourable-unfavourable (Homer, 1990; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989). In addition, scales are drawn from previous studies (Chang et al., 2005; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999; Simons & Carey, 1998; Wang et al., 2002) to measure attitude towards the

advertisement. Respondents are asked to rate; "your overall attitude towards the advertisement" on ten items on a 7-point semantic differential scale format. These ten items include both cognitive and affective components for attitude towards the advertisement. Cognitive aspects were measured on five items; unpersuasive-persuasive, uninformative-informative, unbelievable-believable, ineffective-effective, and unconvincing-convincing (Burton & Lichtenstein, 1988). Affective dimensions were measured by five items with endpoints labelled bad-good, unappealing-appealing, unattractive-attractive, unpleasant-pleasant, and unlikable-likable (Janiszewski, 1988). The visitation intention dimension was measured by asking the question "How likely is it that you will visit Hong Kong in the next 12 months?" using the following three items: probable/improbable, likely/unlikely and possible/impossible (Yi, 1990). Another set of items were included to measure the respondents' likelihood to inquire about, consider purchasing, and actual purchase the product endorsed by the particular celebrity. The reason for this is that a multiple-item measurement for behavioural intention has been found to be superior to single-item measurement (Conner & Sparks, 1996). *Inquiry*, *consideration*, and *purchase* represent increasing levels of commitment towards the product (Ohanian, 1990, 1991). These dependent variables are commonly employed to evaluate the effectiveness of source credibility in advertising research (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Rubin, Mager, & Friedman, 1982). These items are combined with the contingent valuation method (CVM), which provides an individual with hypothetical opportunities to purchase public goods in the absence of existing information pertaining to a real market (Kim, Wong, & Cho, 2007). In other words, the CVM attempts to ascertain from respondents what they would be willing to pay under certain hypothetical market scenarios (Lee, 1997).

In addition, the method is simple because it is a direct valuation approach, which aims at eliciting preferences from questionnaires and experiments (Kim et al., 2007). Therefore, 'willingness to consider', 'willingness to inquire', 'willingness to visit', were added in order to determine the respondent's intentions to visit Hong Kong. The questionnaire employed a 7-point semantic differential scale to measure all the major constructs. The statements are kept as short and precise as possible, and in most cases represent a single word. This is to ensure and to facilitate that the respondent reads and understands both ends of the scale (Brace, 2004). Moreover, the exact formation of the measurement items gives the semantic differential scales an advantage over the Likert scale format (Brace, 2004). Often Likert scales are accompanied with adverbial quantifiers, such as 'extremely', 'quite', and 'slightly', in order to clarify the scale format. However, this does not seem to apply to semantic differential scale format. Research suggests that subjects are affected by both the label and position effects (Wildt & Mazis, 1978). Even to such an extent, that the label appeared to display a stronger effect, and that the subjects respond much more to the actual descriptor used in the scale, rather than to its position relative to the endpoints (Friedman & Leefer, 1981; Friedman, Wilamowsky, & Friedman, 1981). To avoid this bias, no labels or adverbial quantifiers were used in the questionnaire. Instead, the scale format was clarified to the respondents by an instruction sheet, as recommended by Osgood et al. (1957). In addition, the interviewers were professionally instructed about scale format and offered assistance to the respondents. Even though it is believed the questionnaire does not discuss any sensitive topics, the item *sexy* might be perceived as sensitive or causing embarrassment. Therefore, precaution was taken to guard against social desirability effects by providing anonymity to respondents.

Table 4.3 Proposed Measurement Scales

Attractive	Unattractive
Classy	Not Classy
Beautiful/Handsome	Ugly
Elegant	Plain
Sexy	Not sexy
Expert	Not an expert
Experienced	Inexperienced
Knowledgeable	Unknowledgeable
Qualified	Unqualified
Skilled	Unskilled
Dependable	Undependable
Honest	Dishonest
Reliable	Unreliable
Sincere	Insincere
Trustworthy	Untrustworthy
Believable	Unbelievable
Pleasant	Unpleasant
Appealing	Unappealing
Good	Bad
Persuasive	Unpersuasive
Like	Dislike
Effective	Ineffective
Convincing	Unconvincing
Attractive	Unattractive
Informative	Uninformative
Pleasant	Unpleasant
Favourable	Unfavourable
Good	Bad
Like	Dislike
Positive	Negative
Probable	Improbable
Willing to visit	Not willing to visit
Likely	Unlikely
Possible	Impossible
Willing to inquire	Not willing to inquire
Willing to consider	Not willing to consider

4.15 Functional Equivalence

This research replicates and validates the scales with respondents from Mainland China. It cannot be assumed that they all speak English, and therefore the measurement items were translated into Mandarin Chinese. It should be cautioned that when the scale is translated into another language, the psychometric property of the scale might change substantially (Pornpitakpan, 2003). The Centre for Foreign Language Training at the Guangdong University of Foreign Studies in Guangzhou was responsible for the initial translation. Experienced interpreters translated the questionnaire from English to Mandarin Chinese. The Guangdong University of Foreign Studies is one of the most prestigious universities of international studies in China and one of the key institutions of higher learning in Guangdong province. The Centre for Foreign Language Training is one of the 11 foreign language training centres affiliated with the International Cooperation Bureau of the Ministry of Education. To ensure an even higher level of clarity, scholars suggested translation of the questionnaire through the double translation method (de Mooij, 1997; McGorry, 2000). The study followed this approach and the questionnaire was first translated into the target language (Mandarin Chinese) and then it was translated back into the original language (English). Six translators were selected to translate the questionnaire following the double translation method. These six translators were all born in Mainland China and had lived for at least three years in an English speaking country. They all spoke fluent Mandarin Chinese and English, and all of them possessed a Master's degree or higher. Three of the interpreters were asked to translate from English to Mandarin Chinese and the remaining three were later asked to translate from Mandarin Chinese to English.

This process obtained a total of three English versions and four Mandarin Chinese versions (including the first translation). A qualified translator from the English Department at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University gave advice in selecting the most appropriate translation for each manifest variable. Even though it was a lengthy and complicated process, it is believed that with much care from interpreters and colleagues, the Chinese items were able to represent their English counterparts as closely as possible. See Appendix B1 for the English version and Appendix B2 for the Chinese version of the first draft of the questionnaire.

4.16 Sample Size

This study tests for structure means invariance using SEM in an experimental setting. It determines whether the celebrity endorser's effects are significantly different from the control group. Kline (2005) specifies that a sample size of more than 200 is considered large enough to generate significant results in chi-square tests. In addition, a sample size of 200 is also suggested by Hair et al. (2006), when using the most common estimation procedure of maximum likelihood (ML). Therefore, it is believed that having a sample size of 200 per group is suitable to test for structure means invariance. Furthermore, this specification ensures an adequate sample size for the overall measurement and structural model test following the recommended ratio of at least 10 respondents for each estimated parameter by Hair et al. (2006).

4.17 Sampling Method

Sampling is the process of selecting a sufficient number of respondents from the population and by studying and understanding the properties and characteristics of the sample, it would be possible to generalize the properties and characteristics of the population (Sekaran, 2000). There are two major types of sampling designs which are probability and non-probability. In non-probability sampling, the probability of selection of each sampling unit is not known. In probability sampling, each unit in the defined target population has a known, non-zero probability of being selected from the sample (Hair et al., 2006). Ideally, the preferred approach is to use probability sampling in order to give each person in the population an equal chance of being selected. Probability sampling requires a sampling frame, a list of sampling units or a procedure to reach the respondents with a known probability, such as a telephone registry. Even though a telephone registry is available, a random household study is not feasible due to the advertisement. It is necessary for the respondents to view the advertisement in order to obtain their perceptions of it. Thus, this study employed a non-probability sampling technique. More specifically, the method used is a quota-sampling technique. The sample represented is often estimated by comparing the known distribution of the population sampled and the corresponding sample distribution (Foreman, 1991). This correspondence was assured, by purposely selecting sample units according to quotas ordinarily set in proportion to a known population distribution, this is called quota sampling (Foreman, 1991). Although it is not as rigorous as probability sampling, quota sampling was chosen as the most cost effective means of obtaining a representative sample of potential visitors to Hong Kong.

The population strata were taken from the visitor's profile of the HKTB, which offers a comprehensive source (see Appendix C2). Stratification was based on all the demographic variables, which are often good stratifying variables (Polit & Beck, 2004). It was found an appropriate strategy to ensure that the sample, to a certain degree, mirrors the target population to whom the survey's findings are to be applied or generalized.

4.18 Data Collection

This section explains the data collection process for both the pilot study and the main survey, because they were conducted in a similar manner. A local research company was contracted to collect the data in order to overcome the language barriers between the author and the respondents. Unfortunately, the author is unable to communicate in Chinese which may cause difficulties in providing instructions to the respondents. ARK Marketing Research Co. Ltd, a marketing research company in Guangzhou was selected for this task because it has several years experience in conducting surveys among Guangzhou residents. This study truly benefited from their suggestions, service and people. The pilot was conducted on 10 November, 2007 and the main survey was conducted on 24 November, 2007. All the survey interviews were conducted outdoors in public areas on Saturdays, between 10:00 a.m. and 19:00 p.m. The Grandview Mall and the Tee Mall at the Tin He District in Guangzhou was the recommended location for data collection because it attracts over half a million customers on a good day and ranks number 9 on "Forbes world's 10 largest shopping malls" (Van Riper, 2008).

Obviously, this popular shopping and entertainment location made it possible to obtain the desired sample size relatively quickly. Nevertheless, it was not possible without the help of the managers, supervisors and interviewers on site. Prior to the data collection, the interviewers and supervisors were professionally instructed, which was observed by the author behind a two-way mirror. A team of ten interviewers and a field supervisor were assigned to each interview site. For the pilot study, there were two sites and for the main survey, there were a total of five. The sites were all located in public areas adjacent to shopping mall entrances. The interviewers were assigned to different groups, either one of the four treatment groups or the control group. Each interviewer brought along a set of questionnaires and an advertisement to be shown to the respondents. The author and a personal interpreter were on site to observe the data collection process on both days. The supervisors were there to ensure data quality, maintaining professional standards and providing assistance when required. The interviewers were asked to only submit completed questionnaires to the supervisors. The respondents were also asked, at random, to collect the first name or the last four digits of the phone number from the respondent, ensuring that the interviewers did not complete the questionnaire themselves. During the pilot study, it was observed that interviewers were declining eligible, but perhaps in their eyes less 'desirable' respondents. Therefore, to avoid this interview bias, a sampling interval was introduced for the main survey, which means they were instructed to approach every fifth case (Sudman, 1980). The interviewers approached the potential respondents with care and asked the screening questions first. If successful, they were then asked to complete the questionnaire in return for a small incentive. The incentive was a small notebook worth five RMB. Face-to-face interviews were chosen because they tend to produce higher response rates and greater participant responsiveness to

interviewer questions (Brambilla & McKinlay, 1987; Groves & Lyberg, 1988). Furthermore, because a semantic differential scale format was employed, personal supervision was necessary to assure the speed and 'top-of-mind' responses (Mindak, 1961). It is not desirable that respondents have too much time to plan and think over their judgments. Their first impressions and immediate feelings regarding the items are of importance. Each interview was conducted by a single interviewer, which typically lasted for seven to ten minutes per questionnaire. This process continued until the sample size for each quota was satisfied. A total of 1365 interviews were conducted, 267 for the pilot and 1098 for the main survey. The eligibility characteristics are to a certain extent visually noticeable, which allowed interviewers to identify potential respondents quickly, in contrast to mailed and telephone surveys (Sebold, 1988). This was necessary because a quota sampling technique was employed and efforts were made to ensure the predetermined distribution of demographic variables across all groups. The supervisors monitored the process closely and stopped recruiting respondents when the quota for a given demographic group was full. This made sure that the sample distribution coincided closely to that of the population with respect to each of the quota variables, which will be discussed separately in the following sections. The interview completion rate is high for both the pilot and the main survey, which is probably because respondents are less likely to break off a face-to-face interview. For the main survey, two response rates were calculated. Firstly, the refusal rate was examined, which determines the proportion of respondents who refused to give an interview. A total of 1242 people were approached, however 144 declined participation. The interviewer recorded the refusal but no attempts were made to report or estimate the demographic characteristic or the reason for refusal.

The refusal rate was only 11.6 % and should not cause any major problems in the interpretation of results. Secondly, the screening rate was assessed which indicated the proportion of respondents who agreed to participate but were not eligible for the study. A total of 1158 respondents agreed to participate but 60 of them were not eligible. The screening rate was only 5.2% and should not cause any major issues regarding the interpretation of the results.

4.19 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to ensure the experiments and questions were clear and comprehensive before the actual study was undertaken (Vern & Thompson, 2002). Pre-testing the research instrument is necessary to check the 'mechanical' problems of the instrument (Oppenheim, 1992; Sarantakos, 1993) in order to evaluate the interpretation and understanding of questions. As a rule of thumb, running a factor analysis requires a sample size at least five times the number of scale items (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, for this study, running a factor analysis on a total of 45 items would require at least 225 sample cases. The research company collected 267 questionnaires, which is sufficient for running the exploratory factor analysis. By reducing a dataset from a group of interrelated variables into a smaller set of components, principal components analysis (PCA) achieves parsimony by explaining the maximum amount of common variance in a correlation matrix using the smallest number of explanatory concepts (Field, 2005). This method seems more appropriate as the primary objective is data reduction and to focus on the minimum number of components needed to account for the maximum portion of total variance represented in the original set of variables (Hair et al., 2006; de Vaus, 2002).

This data reduction is achieved by looking for variables that correlate highly with a group of other variables, but do not correlate with variables outside that group (Field, 2005). The PCA is a psychometrically sound procedure because it is conceptually less complex than a factor analysis (Field, 2005). It is expected that the factors were independent and therefore an orthogonal rotation, varimax rotation, was employed. Varimax rotation attempts to maximize the variance on factors by minimizing the numbers of variables loading highly on the separate factors of loadings within factors (Kaiser, 1958). Therefore, it tries to load a smaller set of variables highly on to each factor resulting in more interpretable clusters of components (Field, 2005). The data was screened and cleaned before analysis. This was done for three reasons, the first to find cases that reported extreme inconsistency within a certain dimension. The inconsistency was caused by the randomization of the polarization of the items, which was done to encourage the respondents to clearly read the questionnaire. There were ten cases found that reported inconsistently within a certain construct, such as indicating high positive scores on one set of items and high negative scores on the remainder. This is contradictive as the items are supposed to measure the same dimension. Possibly, the respondent may not have read carefully enough and ticked the first boxes only. Therefore, it was decided to remove these ten cases from the dataset. Secondly, individual cases that reported over 10% of missing values were examined. The missing values were specified as 'unable to answer'. A total of eleven cases were found reporting over 10% of missing values and were deleted from the dataset as recommended by Hair et al (2006). Lastly, the missing values for each variable were examined but none of them reported more than 10% missing. The next section illustrates the descriptive statistics of the respondent's demographic information.

4.20 Profile of the Pilot Study Respondents

Table 4.4 displays the demographic characteristics of the pilot study respondents (n=246). In addition, it also helps to evaluate the adequacy of the quota sampling technique. The strata were compared to the strata of the visitor's profile of the HKTB (See Appendix C2). Although the HKTB include the age groups 16 to 25, following a more detailed examination, it appeared that a clear majority of respondents (97.6 %) were aged between 20 and 45. The majority of the respondents were working (77.9), which follows the quota of the HKTB. The income section indicated that the majority of respondents (78.3%) in the sample had an income at least 1001 to 6000 RMB per month. These figures confirm results that respondents are affluent enough to make a decision in travelling to Hong Kong. The largest part of respondents had a college or university education (80.9%) which is higher than the set quota. The respondents confirming secondary or high school education was 15.4%, which is lower than the set quota. Perhaps the higher educated were more willing to participate in the survey. The other demographic variable that did not really match the set quota is marriage, 47.2 % of the respondents were married and 52.8% belonged to others, which included anything other than marriage itself. These strata differed from the quota that was requested; therefore the interviewers were requested to keep a closer eye on these strata for the main survey. However, there seems no reason to believe that the deviation of the set quota for marriage would cause major problems for interpretation of the pilot study results. Hence, in terms of demographic characteristics of respondents for the pilot study, it does not appear to deviate much from the overall population of Guangzhou visitor's profile to Hong Kong as reported by the HKTB.

Nevertheless, some improvements regarding the strata for marital status and educational level were requested from the research company for data collection of the main survey. All the indicators have a mean value before the middle or neutral score (see Table 4.5). The scale ranges from (positive item) 1 very - 2 - quite - 3 slightly - 4 neutral - 5 slightly - 6 quite - 7 very (negative item). Bearing in mind that these mean values were taken across all the groups, it indicates that respondents generally rate all the constructs rather positively. The moderator *Matchup* is not included here but is discussed in a separate section. At this stage, it is important to retrieve the exact measurement items. Notably, the construct Attitude towards Hong Kong illustrates the very positive mean scores. The low standard deviations suggest that generally respondents have a positive attitude towards Hong Kong and that the scores are not that diverse. This also applies to the willingness of people to enquire, consider and visit Hong Kong, indicating very positive mean scores and low values for the standard deviations.

Table 4.4 Profile of the Pilot Study Respondents

Characteristics	Valid N	Percentage
Gender		
Male	125	50.8
Female	121	49.2
Age		
20 - 25	91	37
26 - 35	98	39.8
36 - 45	38	15.4
46 - 55	13	5.3
56 - 65	5	2.0
66 +	1	0.4
Occupation		
Working	189	76.8
Housewife	18	7.3
Student	18	7.3
Retired	4	1.6
Other	17	6.9
Education Level		
Postgraduate	4	1.6
College/University	199	80.9
Secondary/High School	38	15.4
Primary/Elementary	1	0.4
No formal education	4	1.6
Marital Status		
Married	117	47.6
Others	129	52.4
Income		
Below 1000	15	6.1
1001-3000	123	50.0
3001-6000	69	28.0
6001-9000	11	4.5
Above 9001	2	0.8
No fixed income	26	9.7

Table 4.5 Descriptive Statistics for the Pilot Study

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Attractive	2.26	1.376
Classy	2.57	1.516
Handsome/beautiful	2.34	1.380
Elegant	2.70	1.572
Sexy	2.78	1.550
Dependable	2.42	1.586
Reliable	2.67	1.586
Honest	2.67	1.419
Sincere	2.87	1.496
Trustworthy	2.82	1.631
Knowledgeable	2.72	1.735
Qualified	2.68	1.524
Experienced	2.45	1.514
Expert	2.61	1.540
Skilled	2.53	1.564
Favourable	1.65	1.122
Good	1.88	1.271
Positive	2.05	1.259
Pleasant	2.03	1.433
Like	2.01	1.410
Believable	2.45	1.593
Pleasant	2.45	1.571
Appealing	2.48	1.481
Good	2.29	1.413
Persuasive	2.83	1.578
Like	2.45	1.556
Effective	2.70	1.565
Convincing	2.59	1.492
Attractive	2.44	1.494
Informative	2.79	1.653
Probable	2.17	1.749
Willing to visit	1.91	1.404
Likely	2.26	1.671
Possible	2.11	1.386
Willing to inquire	1.93	1.424
Willing to consider	1.74	1.268

4.21 Principal Components Analysis

The moderator was tested separately, and not included in the current PCA. Initially, it seemed appropriate to use pairwise deletion to handle the missing values; however, this method did not account for stable and reliable factors. Therefore, it was decided to use the listwise deletion method. This meant that the control group was to be ignored. The PCA was run with a remaining sample size of 172. This is still a sufficient sample size as the variables for the moderator were excluded. After running the PCA requesting five factors it appeared that the variables *dependable*, *reliable* and *sincere* reported cross-loadings on several factors. Cross-loadings were deleted as recommended by Comrey (1988), as any one item should be allowed to load on only one latent variable. The three variables were specified as indicators of *trustworthiness* and only two of the original items remained. The two remaining indicators are *honest* and *trustworthiness*. They appeared to load on the construct *Expertise*. Except for *willing to visit,* the two other items, *willing to consider* and *willing to enquire* seem to represent another factor. It appears that 'willingness to' is conceptually different from behavioural intentions. Therefore, *willing to consider* and *willing to enquire* was deleted. However, the variable *willing to visit* loaded onto the intention factor and therefore it was allowed to remain in the main survey. Noteworthy are the positive mean scores and the low values of the standard deviations for the 'willing to' items. This reveals a small dispersion around the average *willing to consider*, *willing to inquire* and *willing to visit,* indicating small differences among the respondents. Nevertheless, it seems impossible to transform these items into behavioural intentions because they are conceptually different.

'Willingness to', represents a hypothetical and perhaps too optimistic, a situation, which is not realistic, and simply not a good indicator for behavioural intentions. All factor loadings reported an absolute value greater than 0.4, which explains around 16% of the variance in the variable and were therefore retained for interpretation as suggested by Stevens (1992). From Table 4.6 it shows that all the factors have four or more loadings greater than 0.6, which means the factors are reliable regardless of the sample size (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value for these data is 0.908, indicating that the PCA is appropriate (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Furthermore, the Chi-square value of Bartlett's test of Sphericity is 3943.30 and being significant at the 0.001 level, suggests the correlations among the items are adequate for running the PCA. When multiple measures of a single discrete emotional response, for example 'good', 'pleasant' or 'fun' are interspersed throughout a questionnaire, it tends to reduce correlations among items purported to indicate the same response and to increase correlations of these items with measures of other responses (Bagozzi et al., 2002). However, it appears that most of the items load on their proposed construct except for the variables *honest* and *trustworthiness,* as they appear to load on the *Expertise* construct. Therefore, it was decided to group these two items with the *Expertise* dimension, which tends to increase correlations among measures of the same thing and decrease correlations among measures of different emotional responses (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Since the improvement is only marginal, most of the items were retained for the main survey (see Appendix B3/4 for the final version of the questionnaire). The next section applies a PCA to specify the continuous moderator.

Table 4.6 Principal Components Analysis of Major Constructs

Component/Item	Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)
Attitude to Ad		**12.52**	**40.37**
Convincing	0.837		
Attractive	0.806		
Pleasant	0.797		
Like	0.782		
Effective	0.755		
Good	0.736		
Appealing	0.733		
Persuasive	0.730		
Believable	0.679		
Informative	0.678		
Visitation Intentions		**3.19**	**10.28**
Probable	0.834		
Possible	0.832		
Likely	0.696		
Willing to visit	0.540		
Attitude to Hong Kong		**2.14**	**6.92**
Positive	0.847		
Good	0.773		
Like	0.751		
Favourable	0.672		
Pleasant	0.648		
Expertise		**1.60**	**5.16**
Expert	0.844		
Skilled	0.810		
Experienced	0.748		
Qualified	0.728		
Knowledgeable	0.703		
Honest	0.654		
Trustworthy	0.489		
Attractiveness		**1.45**	**4.68**
Attractive	0.745		
Sexy	0.683		
Classy	0.656		
Handsome/beautiful	0.574		
Elegant	0.552		
Total			**67.40**

KMO = 0.908 / Bartlett's Test of Sphericity; Chi-square = 3943.30, $p < 0.000$

4.22 Specification of the Moderator

Again, a PCA was employed to specify the indicators for the moderating dimension *Matchup* (n=189). This method seemed most appropriate, as the goal is to examine whether or not there is one dimension. Even though it is expected to be a one-dimensional construct, the PCA should verify this assumption. The means and standard deviations for all the variables were examined (see Table 4.7). The scale ranges from (positive item) 1 very - 2 - quite - 3 slightly - 4 neutral - 5 slightly - 6 quite - 7 very (negative item). All the items have a mean value above the middle or neutral score. Bearing in mind that these mean values were taken across all the groups, it indicates that respondents generally rate all the items positively.

Table 4.7 Descriptive Statistics for the Moderator

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation
Related	2.51	1.607
Correspond	2.80	1.558
Echoing	2.71	1.528
Representative	2.61	1.586
Combine	3.04	1.559
Relative	2.74	1.542
Effective	2.75	1.476
Compatible	2.85	1.547
Consistent	2.89	1.526

From the correlation matrix it appeared there is a potential problem regarding multi-collinearity. The variables *correspond* and *consistent* reported a high correlation coefficient of 0.810. However, it is still below the 0.9 score and therefore it was kept for the main survey. For these data, the KMO value is 0.918, indicating that the PCA is appropriate (Kaiser, 1974).

Furthermore, the Chi-square value of Bartlett's test of Sphericity is 1459.828 and significant at the 0.001 level, also indicating that the factor analysis was appropriate. As expected, only one component was extracted and the solution could not be rotated, see Table 4.8. For these data, all the factor loadings are well above 0.6 and they seem to load onto just one component, which is supposed to represent the *Matchup* dimension. The outcome of the PCA provides evidence that it could be considered as a uni-dimensional construct. Hence, the *Matchup* construct may be able to function as a continuous moderator and is employed as such for the main survey.

Table 4.8 Principal Components Analysis of the Moderator

	Component	**Eigenvalue**	**Variance Explained**
Matchup	1	**6.22**	**69.14%**
Effective	0.898		
Related	0.859		
Relative	0.843		
Representative	0.840		
Compatible	0.826		
Echoing	0.816		
Correspond	0.806		
Consistent	0.805		

KMO = 0.918/ Bartlett's Test of Sphericity; Chi-square = 1459.828, $p < 0.000$

4.23 Method of Data Analysis

The method of data analysis used for this study is SEM, because it incorporates unobservable or latent variables and measurement errors, and has increasingly been applied for theory testing and empirical model building in the field of marketing (Fornell & Larcker, 1981a, 1981b) and social sciences (Byrne, 1998; Jaccard & Wan, 1996). SEM could be defined as a class of methodologies that seeks to represent hypotheses about the means, variances, and co-variances of observed data in terms of

a smaller number of structural parameters defined by a hypothesized underlying model (Kaplan, 2000). SEM may be roughly characterized as a combination of the logic of path analysis with that of factor analysis (Bentler & Speckart, 1981). The essence of applying SEM is to handle structural relationships, especially relationships between the latent constructs (Byrne, 1998, Nachtigall, Kroehne, Funke, & Steyer, 2003). However, SEM could also estimate multiple interrelated relationships while employing multiple indicators for any single independent or dependent variable (Ullman, 1996), and determine the extent to which the proposed model is consistent with the collected data (Byrne, 1998). Constructs may be defined as "*terms which though not observational either directly or indirectly may be applied or even defined on the basis of the observables*" (Kaplan, 1964: 55 in Barcharach, 1989). A manifest variable may be defined as an observable entity, which is capable of assuming two or more values (Schwab, 1980 in Barcharach, 1989). Thus, a construct may be viewed as a broad mental configuration or a given phenomenon, while a variable may be viewed as an operational configuration derived from a construct (Barcharach, 1989). A set of linear equations relating the constructs to their manifest variables is specified and this set of equations represent the *measurement model*. Conducting a CFA determines whether the observed variables that were hypothesized to be indicators of certain latent constructs in fact reflect them reliably (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Herting & Costner, 2000; Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Brière, Senécal, & Vallières, 1992). The obtained parameter values of the measurement model can be interpreted as factor loadings (Reisenzein, 1986). In order to retrieve the path coefficients among the latent variables it is necessary to specify the linear equations relating the constructs together which constitutes the *structural model*.

The values of the parameters of both the structural and the measurement model can be estimated simultaneously via maximum likelihood techniques (Reisenzein, 1986). In this study, the Linear Structural Relations (LISREL) software package version 8.54 (Jöreskog, 2000; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) was used for this purpose. LISREL is widely used for estimating structural equation models, because it tests the structure, diagnoses problems, fixes or constrains model coefficients, completes multiple-group analyses, estimates latent means and intercepts as well as slopes, and most importantly, distinguishes consistently between latent concepts and observed indicators (Hayduk, 1987). LISREL is probably the most frequently used software package and considered by most researchers as the flagship SEM program (Reisinger & Turner, 1999). LISREL allows the ability to clarify controversial or ambiguous aspects of a model, as well as elaborating and refining the model by contrasting it with competing alternative conceptualizations (Reisenzein, 1986). An important postulate in the model is that attitude is a direct determinant of behavioural intention. This relationship is strongly supported by SEM in various studies (Vallerand et al., 1992; Oliver & Bearden, 1985; Ryan, 1982; Shimp & Kavas, 1984). Reisenzein (1986) suggests three reasons why latent-variable causal modelling seems to be appropriate to the experimental testing of mediational models. Firstly, it allows an explicit test of the consistency of any postulated links between mediating and dependent variables with the data. Secondly, the path estimates are free from the unreliability of the manifest variables. This allows for a much more precise test of the relationship among the various components of a given model (Kenny, 1979; Maruyama & McGarvey, 1980). Thirdly, latent-variable causal modelling permits the testing of all of the links in a mediational model simultaneously, rather than in typical piecemeal fashion.

Although structural modelling techniques were developed for the analysis of non-experimental data, the experimental context actually strengthens the use of the techniques (Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacKenzie, 2001) and potentially even more useful within an experimental context (Bagozzi, 1980; Taylor & Fiske, 1981). Traditionally, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is often employed to assess the mean differences across groups on a set of multiple dependent variables. However, studies have proven that using SEM to compare groups on the latent variable means is a more suitable approach in many multivariate designs (Aiken, Stein, & Bentler, 1994; Cole, Maxwell, Arvey, & Salas, 1994; Hancock, 1997). Thompson and Green (2006) put forward the following reasons why this might be;

- SEM is more appropriate when the interest is in the comparison of latent variable means, while MANOVA is acceptable for an emergent variable system.

- SEM offers a flexible approach to compare latent variables that account for unreliability of measures, allows for inclusion of latent covariates, and can be more powerful than MANOVA.

Between-group differences in latent variable means can be conducted using a structured means modelling (SMM) or a multiple-indicator multiple-cause (MIMIC) modelling approach. The SMM approach was selected as it is more flexible than the MIMIC approach in that it allows for partial measurement invariance across groups (Thompson & Green, 2006).

4.24 Summary

This chapter has addressed the research methods and discussed the pilot study. The experimental design was illustrated for both the pilot study and the main survey. It appears that this procedure is appropriate to test the effects of the manipulation on attitude and to determine if there are any influences on visitation intentions resulting from this. It was found that an endorsement claim and advertising as a medium are both more effective under low involvement conditions. Guangzhou residents were found to be a fitting target population for such a condition and provide a large segment for short-break visitors to Hong Kong. The remaining sample criteria were discussed in order to reflect potential leisure tourists as closely as possible. A pre-test was conducted in order to determine (1) the most appropriate picture representing Hong Kong, (2) the specification of the moderator and (3) the four celebrities. The participants (n=113) selected nine adjectives that formed a scale for the *Matchup* dimension. In addition, the group most frequently mentioned Andy Lau and Maggie Cheung for the local celebrities along with David Beckham and Britney Spears for the international celebrities. Full colour print advertisements were designed showing a picture of the Hong Kong harbour front combined with one of the four celebrity endorsers for the treatment groups and the official slogan. The control group was not shown the endorsement claim. The questionnaire administered consisted of a number of published items and employed a 7-point semantic differential scale format. The translation method ensured that the Chinese items were able to adequately represent their English counterparts. Quota-sampling technique was conducted and sample units were carefully set according to quotas in proportion to the visitor's profile of HKTB.

A research company was contracted to collect the data for both pilot and main study. Several sites were selected at a popular shopping location in Guangzhou. A total of 1365 valid face-to-face street interviews were conducted, 267 for the pilot and 1098 for the main survey. The pilot study confirmed that the measurement and communication instruments were relatively easy to understand and administer. The mean scores and the values for the standard deviations indicated that respondents generally rated all the constructs quite positively. The PCA with varimax rotation confirmed the proposed components, except for the construct Trustworthiness. The three variables, *dependable*, *reliable* and *sincere*, reported cross-loadings and were deleted accordingly. The two remaining indicators, *honest* and *trustworthiness* loaded onto the construct *Expertise*. Furthermore, *willing to consider* and *willing to inquire* did not represent visitation intentions as '*willing to*' is conceptually different from behavioural intentions. The *Matchup* dimension was found to represent a uni-dimensional construct and will be employed as a continuous moderator. Since the improvements are only marginal, most of the items were retained for the main survey. The last section of this chapter discusses SEM, which is used to analyse the relationship between the constructs and for comparing groups.

Chapter 5 Results

5.1 Foreword

This chapter presents the results. It starts with a description of the profile of the main survey respondents, and to what extent they fit the specified quota. After the data screening and normality checking, it reports the results of the reliability analysis for all the measurement scales of the major constructs. This section is followed by separate sections describing the procedure to find an appropriate measurement model. This is done by firstly running a PCA, which is followed by a CFA. Subsequently, the data was joined to the proposed structural model for hypotheses testing, which is preceded by a section discussing the mediating and moderating effects. After testing for measurement invariance, the treatment groups were compared to the control group to examine whether there were any celebrity endorsement effects based on mean structure invariance. The last section of this chapter tries to specify the most appropriate celebrity endorser for promoting Hong Kong by analyzing the mean structure invariance for all major dimensions.

5.2 Data screening

The data was screened and cleaned before analysis. The objective of this process is to ensure the dataset is appropriate for data analysis and does not significantly violate the assumptions for SEM. The questionnaire employed 7-point semantic differential scales to measure the major constructs so therefore outliers were not considered as a major issue. Nevertheless, the cases were inspected using the case summaries option in the Software Package for Social Science version 12.0 (SPSS).

This was done for three reasons; the first reason was to find cases that evaluated the indicators extremely inconsistent within a certain dimension. The inconsistency was caused by randomizing the polarization of the items. Six cases were found that ticked all the boxes on the far left of the scale, indicating the items were not carefully read. Therefore, it was decided to remove these six cases from the dataset. The low number is probably due to the guidance of the interviewer, who reminded the respondent to read the items carefully. Secondly, individual cases that reported over 10% of missing values were examined. The missing values were specified as 'unable to answer'. Again, the case summary option was selected to examine each case and was then exported to Excel to calculate the percentage of missing values. A total of 50 cases were found with over 10% of missing values and were deleted from the dataset as recommended by Hair et al (2006). These 50 cases were inspected and the demographic characteristics did not lead to an alternative explanation other than missing at random. Lastly, the dataset was inspected for variables that reported over 10% of missing values; however, none exceeded the limit. The 'unable to answer' option may have been a risky strategy as it could lead to a substantial amount of lost data, but it was chosen to provide the respondents with an outlet if they did not know how to answer the question. Moreover, it gave additional information regarding certain variables. From the missing values dataset it appears that the variables *honest* (5.1%) and *trustworthiness* (2.1%) were the most difficult items for respondents to evaluate among the celebrity endorser factors. In a similar vein, most of the respondents reported on the neutral scale for *honest* (12.6%) and *trustworthiness* (12.5%) respectively. These two variables are indicators from the *Trustworthiness* construct but were found to load on the *Expertise* construct.

Throughout the main survey data collection, the tendency to tick either 'unable to answer' or 'neutral' for these two items was noticed. This prompted the interviewers to ask respondents why they had difficulties with these two variables. Following are some of their replies; "*I hear much bad news about the celebrity*", "*I find it difficult to differentiate between true or false news about the celebrity*" or "*I do not know the celebrity*". The first statement indicates that the subjects knew about the bad news regarding the celebrity, but as the second statement indicates, people were not sure whether the news was true or false. Apparently, this would make it difficult for someone to judge whether a person is *honest* or *trustworthy*. Even though all respondents confirmed that they were familiar with the celebrity, some respondents pointed out that they did not 'know' the celebrity and were therefore unable to answer the question whether this person was *honest* or *trustworthy*.

During the data collection process, the author spoke to some of the respondents through an interpreter about this issue. Their response was that although they had heard bad news associated with the celebrity, in their mind it was impolite or inappropriate to judge whether the celebrity was or was not *honest* or *trustworthy*, simply because they did not know the celebrity in person and they did not really trust the media. Therefore, they chose the option *unable to answer* or *neutral*. This may indicate that *trustworthiness* was not an appropriate measurement construct for these respondents for celebrity effectiveness. Nevertheless, the reported missing values for these two variables were below the threshold of 10% (Hair et al., 2006) and therefore they were kept for further analysis.

5.3 Profile of the Main Survey Respondents

The descriptive statistics of the respondent's demographic information for the main survey (n=1044) is shown in Table 5.1. Although the HKTB survey shows there were more female than male respondents, setting the quota to an equal split of 50/50 is more practical for operational reasons. A clear majority of the respondents (95.5 %) were aged between 20 and 45. The HKTB includes 16 to 25; however, for reasons specified earlier the current sample only includes 20 to 25 for the first age group. The majority (75.5%) of respondents were working, however, the remaining 24.5% were assumed to be financially independent having financial means to travel to Hong Kong. The income section may also further support the assumption as the majority of the respondents (73.2%) reported an income at least 1001 to 6000 RMB per month. This should encourage confidence in the results that the respondents are affluent enough to make a travel decision regarding Hong Kong. The greater part of the respondents had a college or university education (73.1%) which was higher than the set quota. The respondents with secondary or high school education were 20.8%, less than the set quota. Perhaps the higher educated were more willing to participate in the survey. However, there seems no reason to believe the minor deviation of the set quota for education causes any major problems to the interpretation of the results. The other demographic variable that did not really match the set quota is marriage. This showed a deviation over 10%, indicating 43.2% for others, which included anything other than marriage, making 30% for the HKTB sample. 56.8% of the respondents were married, making 70% for the HKTB sample. However, there was no reason to believe that the deviation of the set quota for marriage would cause major problems for interpretation.

Therefore, in terms of the demographic characteristics of the main survey respondents, it does not appear to deviate much from the overall population of Guangzhou visitors' profile to Hong Kong as reported by the HKTB (see Appendix C2).

Table 5.1 Profile of the Main Survey Respondents

Characteristics	Valid N	Percentage
Gender		
Male	528	50.5
Female	517	49.5
Age		
20 - 25	462	44.2
26 - 35	365	34.9
36 - 45	171	16.4
46 - 55	40	3.8
56 - 65	6	0.6
66 +	1	0.1
Occupation		
Working	789	75.5
Housewife	52	5.0
Student	115	11.0
Retired	7	0.7
Other	82	8.2
Education Level		
Postgraduate	41	3.9
College/University	764	73.1
Secondary/High School	217	20.8
Primary/Elementary	6	0.6
No formal education	17	1.6
Marital Status		
Married	594	56.8
Others	451	43.2
Income		
Below 1000	88	8.4
1001-3000	498	47.7
3001-6000	265	25.5
6001-9000	48	4.6
Above 9001	18	1.7
No fixed income	127	12.2

5.4 Measurement of the Major Dimensions

The means and standard deviations for all the manifest variables were examined using the descriptive statistics option of SPSS and are presented in Table 5.2. The scale ranges from (positive item) 1 very - 2 - quite - 3 slightly - 4 neutral - 5 slightly - 6 quite - 7 very (negative item). All the indicators have a mean value before the middle or neutral score. Bearing in mind these mean values were taken across all the groups, it indicates that respondents generally rated all the dimensions positively. The moderator *Matchup* is not included here but is discussed in a separate section. At this stage, it is important to retrieve the exact measurement items. Notably, the construct *Attitude towards Hong Kong* illustrates the most positive mean scores and the lowest standard deviations. This suggests that in general, respondents had a positive attitude towards Hong Kong and that the scores were not that diverse, which may explain the high values for kurtosis on this dimension (see Table 5.3).

The other dimension showing interesting values is the intention construct. It appears that the respondents generally agreed on willingness to visit Hong Kong, but agreed less on the probability, likelihood or possibility. As the construct *Attitude towards Hong Kong*, the variable *willingness to visit* displays a high kurtosis. This may be caused by the barriers of visiting a destination, as one would 'like to' or is 'willing to' visit, but deems it unlikely due to perceived constrains (e.g., time available). This variable will need further analysis as previously mentioned.

Table 5.2 Means and Standard Deviations of Measurement Items

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Attractive		
Attractive	1.92	1.260
Classy	2.06	1.371
Handsome/beautiful	1.87	1.154
Elegant	2.26	1.509
Sexy	2.52	1.646
Expertise		
Honest	2.46	1.585
Experienced	2.14	1.470
Knowledgeable	2.72	1.917
Qualified	2.38	1.651
Trustworthy	2.45	1.589
Expert	2.42	1.596
Skilled	2.16	1.410
Attitude HK		
Favourable	1.74	1.180
Good	1.75	1.046
Positive	1.92	1.186
Pleasant	2.03	1.338
Like	1.81	1.157
Attitude Ad		
Believable	2.55	1.660
Informative	3.10	1.858
Pleasant	2.42	1.468
Appealing	2.56	1.584
Good	2.40	1.425
Persuasive	2.86	1.691
Like	2.56	1.581
Effective	2.73	1.612
Convincing	2.75	1.618
Attractive	2.55	1.573
Intentions		
Probable	2.72	2.111
willing to visit	1.74	1.302
Likely	2.70	2.051
Possible	2.21	1.712

5.5 Data Normality

SEM is generally more sensitive than other multivariate techniques to departures in multivariate normality and kurtosis (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). Most statistical software packages are able to test for normality of data distribution, however, only PRELIS provides a test for the multivariate normality of a variance-covariance matrix (Fraser & Tobin, 1998). If there is a lack of multivariate normality, it may substantially inflate the Chi-square statistic creating an upwards bias of critical values in determining significance (Marchand, Kettinger, & Rollins, 2001). However, there is evidence that the maximum likelihood method is reasonably robust to modest violations of the normality assumption (Hoyle, 1995; Hu, Bentler, & Kano, 1992). The PRELIS 2.54 program that accompanies LISREL was employed to screen the data and test for uni-variate and multi-variate normality for the manifest variables that measure the constructs *Attractiveness, Expertise, Attitude towards the Advertisement, Attitude towards Hong Kong and Visitation Intentions* (see Table 5.3). To avoid departures from uni-variate normality, Kline (2005) recommended cut-off values of 3.0 for skewness and 8.0 for kurtosis. The uni-variate skewness ranged from 0.716 to 2.091 and uni-variate kurtosis ranged from -0.005 to 4.589, demonstrating that the responses were distributed relatively normally. In addition, relative multi-variate kurtosis was 1.74. Even though there is no standard cut-off for this index, Bentler (1998) recommends that multi-variate normality can be assumed if this value is less than 3. Assuming multi-variate normality, along with passing Kline's (2005) criteria for uni-variate normality, it appears that the data does not depart too much from normal distribution and could be used for further analysis.

Table 5.3 Univariate and Multivariate Normality Test Results

Variable		Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness and Kurtosis	
D1_1	Attractive	1.702	2.927	Chi-square	P-Value
D1_2	Classy	1.612	2.494	222.604	0.000
D1_3	Handsome/beautiful	1.520	2.014	203.795	0.000
D1_4	Elegant	1.394	1.393	183.345	0.000
D1_6	Sexy	0.991	0.158	155.058	0.000
D2_1	Honest	0.983	0.210	82.304	0.000
D2_2	Experienced	1.446	1.859	81.850	0.000
D2_3	Knowledgeable	0.808	-0.524	171.007	0.000
D2_4	Qualified	1.236	0.863	73.428	0.000
D2_5	Trustworthy	1.163	0.726	124.341	0.000
D2_6	Expert	1.163	0.662	112.420	0.000
D2_7	Skilled	1.421	1.732	111.231	0.000
D4_1	Favourable	1.014	4.589	83.654	0.000
D4_2	Good	0.891	3.265	84.636	0.000
D4_3	Positive	1.541	2.087	71.156	0.000
D4_4	Pleasant	1.698	2.818	187.396	0.000
D4_5	Like	0.825	3.948	220.156	0.000
D5_1	Believable	1.180	0.808	66.176	0.000
D5_2	Pleasant	1.058	0.573	116.158	0.000
D5_3	Appealing	1.046	0.407	96.433	0.000
D5_4	Good	0.974	0.427	92.200	0.000
D5_5	Persuasive	0.831	-0.136	83.508	0.000
D5_6	Like	0.994	0.227	62.424	0.000
D5_7	Effective	0.962	0.321	83.323	0.000
D5_8	Convincing	0.861	-0.035	80.539	0.000
D5_9	Attractive	0.983	0.295	65.510	0.000
D5_10	Informative	0.716	-0.366	82.749	0.000
D6_1	Probable	1.117	-0.036	53.957	0.000
D6_2	Willing to visit	2.091	4.209	97.380	0.000
D6_3	Likely	1.099	-0.058	289.431	0.000
D6_4	Possible	1.471	1.290	95.219	0.000
				162.674	0.000

5.6 Scale Reliability

No major issues were detected after screening the data for non-normality and outliers. The next step was to check for reliability. This means that a scale should consistently reflect the construct it is measuring and that the manifest variables should produce results consistent with the overall questionnaire (Field, 2005). The reliability analysis was conducted to test the level of internal consistency for the measurements of the constructs *Attractiveness, Expertise, Attitude towards Hong Kong, Attitude towards the Advertisement* and *Visitation Intentions*. The results are presented in Table 5.4. A value of 0.7 to 0.8 is an acceptable value for Cronbach's α and values substantially lower indicate an unreliable scale (Field, 2005). The majority of measurements for the dimensions indicated a reliability coefficient above 0.80, showing that the internal consistency of the measurements was acceptable other than *Attractiveness,* which showed a lower score of 0.76, apparently caused by the variable *sexy*. The item might be too sensitive for the respondents or perhaps not a good measurement for *Attractiveness*. When deleted, it may improve the reliability of the measurement. Nonetheless, the variable was not deleted as the item-total correlation for *sexy* was 0.345, which is above the threshold value of 0.3 (Ho, 2006). This means that the item still correlates with the total and is acceptable for further analysis. At a later stage it is determined whether or not to remove the variable.

Table 5.4 Measurement Reliability of the Major Constructs

Item	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted	Reliability Coefficient
Attractiveness (Valid N=815)			**0.76**
Attractive	0.661	0.674	
Classy	0.569	0.701	
Handsome/beautiful	0.643	0.686	
Elegant	0.506	0.725	
Sexy	0.345	0.793	
Expertise (Valid N=757)			**0.90**
Honest	0.710	0.879	
Experienced	0.707	0.880	
Knowledgeable	0.680	0.885	
Qualified	0.779	0.870	
Trustworthy	0.675	0.883	
Expert	0.663	0.884	
Skilled	0.693	0.881	
Attitude HK (Valid N=1022)			**0.87**
Favourable	0.694	0.837	
Good	0.716	0.834	
Positive	0.705	0.834	
Pleasant	0.649	0.851	
Like	0.696	0.836	
Attitude Ad (Valid N=1002)			**0.94**
Believable	0.680	0.936	
Pleasant	0.744	0.933	
Appealing	0.790	0.931	
Good	0.791	0.931	
Persuasive	0.719	0.935	
Like	0.820	0.930	
Effective	0.757	0.933	
Convincing	0.800	0.930	
Attractive	0.789	0.931	
Informative	0.675	0.938	
Intentions (Valid N=1018)			**0.86**
Probable	0.802	0.786	
Willing to visit	0.511	0.895	
Likely	0.810	0.780	
Possible	0.767	0.802	

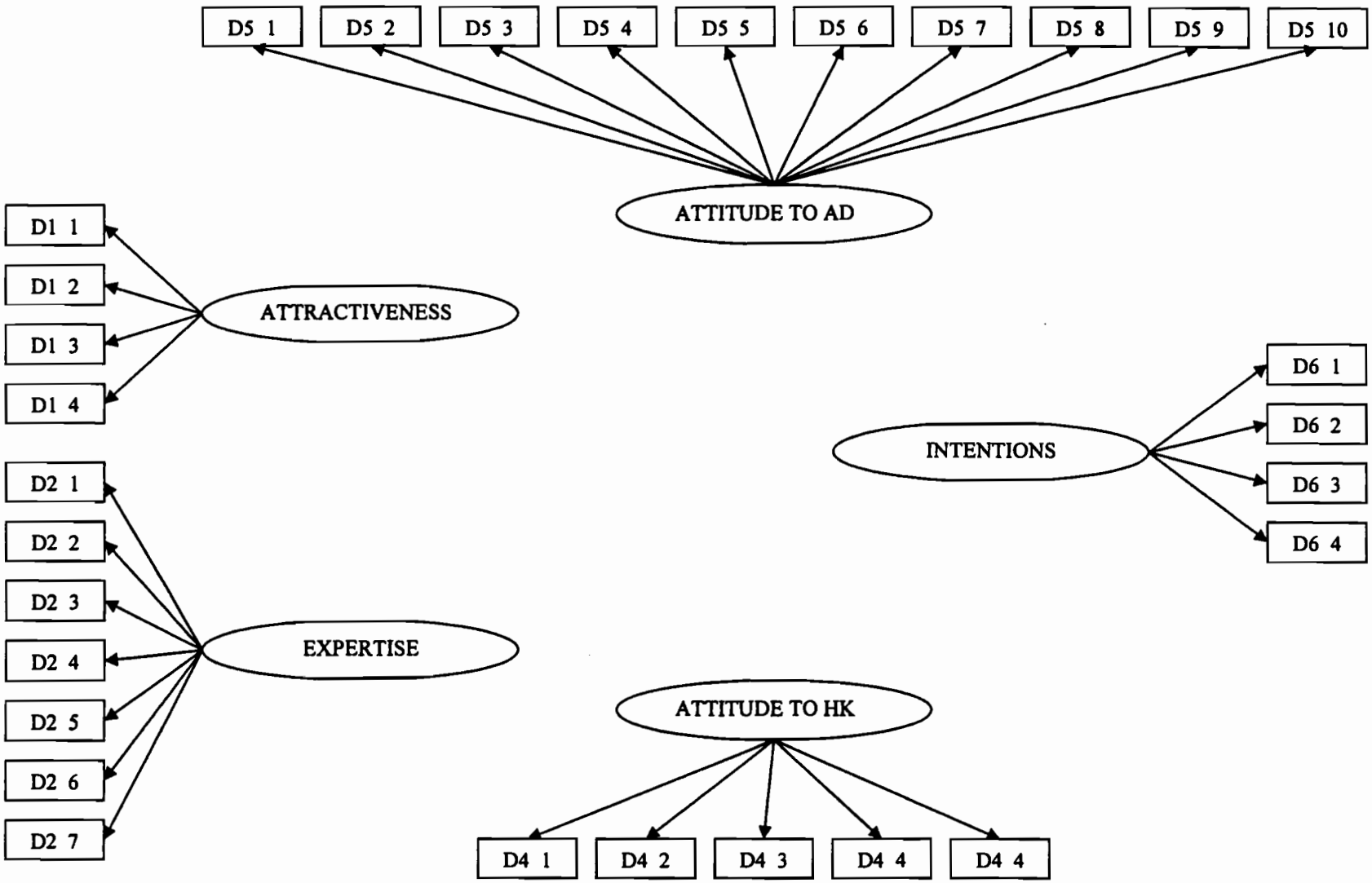
5.7 Principal Components Analysis of Major Dimensions

The purpose of the factor analysis is to find clusters or groups of variables that may represent an underlying dimension. A PCA with varimax rotation was employed to summarize the relationships among a set of variables and to produce a smaller set of components (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The PCA with varimax rotation was deemed as an appropriate first step to find the major constructs for these data. Moreover, scholars agree that in many cases similar results were found for both a PCA and a common factor analysis (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 2006; de Vaus, 2002). To be more specific, the PCA and common factor analysis arrive at similar results if the number of variables exceeds 30 or the communalities exceed 0.60 for most variables (Gorsuch, 1983). For these data, there are 39 variables and the results suggest that the communalities exceed 0.60 for 90% of the variables. Hence, it appears that a PCA with varimax rotation is an appropriate first step for an exploratory factor analysis, which is followed by a CFA at a later stage. Furthermore, a cross-validation approach for the measurement model is taken in order to ensure a reliable specification. At first, PRELIS 2.54 was employed to delete the missing values, using the listwise deletion option. This entails deleting any cases from the dataset that have missing values on any of the variables. This option is chosen because it is assumed the values are missing at random and they represent only a small part of the dataset (< 10%). In addition, it appears that listwise deletion is even more robust than other sophisticated methods (e.g., maximum likelihood and multiple imputation) when the values are missing at random (Allison, 2002). Following the recommendation of Schumacker and Akers (2001), the original sample data were randomly split into approximately two equal halves using SPSS.

The procedure generated one dataset with 353 observations for the calibration sample and another 353 cases for the CFA validation. Cross-validation is carried out to increase the generalization and reliability of results, which can be achieved only if the analysis uses different samples and reveals the same structure. However, the findings only hold true for the set of measurement items selected on the current sample. Figure 5.1 illustrates the revised measurement model with the respective indicators and Table 5.5 indicates the factor loadings. The 353 cases retained for the PCA were considered appropriate, because these are above the recommended minimum of 300 cases (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). If the KMO measure of sampling adequacy shows a value close to 1, it means that patterns of correlations are relatively compact ensuring that the analysis yields distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2005). "*Values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and values above 0.9 are considered superb*" (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999: 224). For these data, the value is 0.94 indicating that the factor analysis is appropriate. Furthermore, the Chi-square value of Bartlett's test of Sphericity is 7763.28 and significant at the 0.001 level. This suggests that the item correlations are adequate for running the PCA. Identical to regression analysis, extreme multi-collinearity or singularity can be a problem for factor analysis as it becomes impossible to find out the unique contribution to the factor if the variables are highly correlated (Field, 2005). The correlation matrix suggests a potential problem concerning multi-collinearity. The variables *probable* and *likely* reported a correlation coefficient of 0.813. This is likely to be caused by the fact that the two words translated in Chinese are very similar. This was noted by the professional translator during selection of the final questionnaire. Nevertheless, both are retained at this stage as it is still below 0.9, but close attention will be paid to these two items during the analysis.

Furthermore, the diagonal elements of the anti-image correlation matrix were inspected and all the values were above the minimum of 0.5 for all variables. The extraction process begins with providing an initial estimate of the total amount of variance in each individual variable. This is explained by factors extracted at a later stage and referred to as the communality of an item (Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan, 2003). *"The communality of a variable is the proportion of variance that can be accounted for by the common factors"* (Gorsuch, 1983: 29). It is suggested that variables with communalities less than 0.50 should be removed for not having sufficient explanation (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, the communalities for all the variables were inspected and it was found that the item *sexy* (0.409) and *elegant* (0.458) were below the specified threshold of 0.50. However, when the sample size exceeds 250 and the average communality is greater than or equal to 0.6, it is recommended the factors are retained (Kaiser, 1960 as cited in Field, 2005). For these data, the average communality is 0.69 and the sample size exceeds 250, therefore the two variables *sexy* and *elegant* were retained.

Figure 5.1 Revised Measurement Model



The final solution with five extracted components explains 68.61% of the total variance. This is often the case as the majority of variance is accounted for by a relatively small number of components (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). To facilitate the interpretation of the factor loadings, a factor rotation was applied. Factor rotation effectively rotates the factor axes so that variables are loaded to the maximum of only one factor (Field, 2005). Varimax rotation is the most commonly used rotation method, as it tries to produce factors that are as simple as possible by maximizing the variance of the loadings across items within factors (de Vaus, 2002). An orthogonal rotation was chosen because it is preferable for interpretative reasons as it contains information about the unique contribution of a variable to a factor (Field, 2005).

After having reached an appropriate rotated solution, it appears that the items loaded onto the five components clearly represent the hypothesized dimensions. Attitude towards the Advertisement, Attitude towards Hong Kong, Visitation Intentions, Attractiveness and Expertise are all measured by the respective indicators. Stevens (1992) suggests retaining and interpreting factor loadings with an absolute value greater than 0.4. For these data, all factor loadings are well above 0.4 and they appear to load all on just one component, without detecting any cross-loadings at the 0.4 level (Comrey, 1988). The two variables sexy (0.655) and elegant (0.551) are above the threshold of 0.4 and display sufficient explanatory power. Therefore, the two items are retained for the CFA.

Table 5.5 Principal Components Analysis of Major Constructs

Component/Item	Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)
Attitude to Advertisement		**12.47**	**40**
Convincing	0.897		
Like	0.892		
Good	0.883		
Attractive	0.846		
Persuasive	0.816		
Believable	0.814		
Effective	0.798		
Pleasant	0.792		
Appealing	0.768		
Informative	0.739		
Visitation Intentions		**2.91**	**9.40**
Probable	0.916		
Likely	0.902		
Possible	0.863		
Willing to visit	0.666		
Attitude to Hong Kong		**2.61**	**8.45**
Positive	0.869		
Good	0.857		
Like	0.837		
Favourable	0.768		
Pleasant	0.733		
Expertise		**1.91**	**6.15**
Knowledgeable	0.811		
Expert	0.767		
Qualified	0.747		
Experienced	0.736		
Skilled	0.658		
Honest	0.634		
Trustworthy	0.609		
Attractiveness		**1.36**	**4.39**
Attractive	0.807		
Handsome/beautiful	0.680		
Classy	0.679		
Sexy	0.655		
Elegant	0.551		
Total			**68.61**

KMO = 0.941 / Bartlett's Test of Sphericity; Chi-square = 7763.28, $p < 0.000$

5.8 Criteria for Goodness-of-Fit Indices

It is important to discuss the evaluation criteria for the models, because the "*evaluation of model fit should derive from a variety of sources and be based on several criteria that can assess model fit from a diversity of perspectives*" (Byrne, 1998: 119). This section discusses the various fit indices used to assess the model fit. Hair et al. (2006) suggest reporting the Chi-square value and the associated degrees of freedom, Comparative Fit Index and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, because they should provide sufficient information to evaluate a model fit. In addition, other measures such as Goodness-of-Fit (GFI), Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit (AGFI) and the Root-Mean-Square Residual (RMSR) do not perfectly express the quality of the models (Reisinger & Turner, 1999). The first measure is the Chi-square statistic and it has been the traditional criteria for evaluating the overall model fit in the covariance structure models (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). "*It provides a test of perfect fit in which the null hypothesis fits the model population data perfectly. A statistically significant Chi-square may cause rejection of the null hypothesis, implying an imperfect model fit*" (Jaccard & Wan, 1996: 18). Given the sensitivity of the Chi-square statistic to the sample size, scholars have proposed numerous alternative fit indices to assess model fit. Among the various fit indices, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) by Bentler (1990) and the Normed Fit Index (NFI) by Bentler and Bonett (1980) show the best overall performance in simulation studies (Chou & Bentler, 1995; Kaplan, 1995), and thus this study reports the NFI as well. Both the NFI and the CFI are supposed to be above the minimum value of 0.90 to be acceptable (Chau, 1997).

The last fit index is the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), which tries to answer the following question "*how well would the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values, fit the population covariance matrix if it were available?*" (Browne & Cudeck, 1993: 137). Values less than 0.05 indicate good fit and values up to 0.08 to represent reasonable errors of approximation in the population (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara (1996) suggest RMSEA values ranging from 0.8 to 0.10 as mediocre and those greater then 0.10 as poor fit. However, in a latter study, Hu and Bentler (1999) recommend a value of 0.6 to indicate good fit between the hypothesized model and the observed data. MacCallum and Austin (2000) suggest using the RMSEA regularly, as it appears adequately sensitive to model mis-specification (Hu & Bentler, 1998), and appears to render appropriate conclusions regarding the model quality (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

All these goodness-of-fit indices are assessed in the measurement model, structural model and the measurement invariance tests. The GFI (Goodness of Fit) and the AGFI (Adjusted GFI) proposed by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1989) are frequently mentioned in the literature. However, researchers recommend against use of GFI and AGFI as they are insufficiently and inconsistently sensitive to model specifications (Hu & Bentler, 1998) and sensitive to sample size (Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988) and therefore they were not considered in this study.

5.9 Measurement Model Test

The 5-factor solution previously identified will be verified by a CFA with the remaining 353 cases. The CFA employed the maximum likelihood estimation and the listwise deletion option. During the first run of the CFA, it was found that the variable *sexy* reported a factor loading of 0.37, which is below the 0.4 of Stevens' (1992) criteria. Therefore, it was decided to delete the variable *sexy,* as it did not contribute sufficiently. The second run without the variable *sexy* was more successful and reported the following fit indices ($\chi 2 = 998.74$, df =395, RMSEA = 0.066, NFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.97). Table 5.6 shows the results and it also illustrates the squared multiple correlations (SMC) for the items. These values represent the extent to which a variable's variance is explained by the latent factor and it is similar to the communality from EFA (Hair et al., 2006). While some of the SMC values were relatively low, especially for *willingness to visit* 0.30 and *elegant* 0.33, the majority of them had SMC values close to or above 0.50, indicating that the latent factor could explain around fifty percent of the item's variance. The RMSEA suggest that there is room for improvement and therefore the modification indices were inspected. LISREL reports modification indices and these numbers offer suggestions for improving the overall model fit. The modification index was examined and these indices were calculated for every possible relationship that is not free to be estimated. Modification indices of about 4 or greater suggest that the fit could be improved, however, making model changes solely on modification indices is not recommended and should always be justified by theory (Hair et al., 2006). It appears that several items have something in common with other dimensions, either by sharing measurement error or as a direct indicator of another latent dimension.

However, eliminating paths or allowing correlated error terms can only be done when it makes substantive as well as statistical sense to do so and changes should never be made based on the modification index alone (Hair et al., 2006). The most outstanding ones were examined and it appears that *willingness to visit* loads onto *Attitude towards Hong Kong*. The modification indices suggest adding a path to *willing to visit* to *Attitude to Hong Kong* and that this could yield a decrease in Chi-square of 39.05, with a parameter estimate of 0.42. In the previous stage of the analysis, the variable *willing to visit* was already noted. Looking at the factor loading (0.55) of this variable, it is just above the threshold level as the specified level of 0.5 by Hair et al. (2006). As shown earlier in the pilot study, *willingness* does not seem to correlate with the other measurements of *Visitation Intentions*. Following the suggestions of Little, Lindenberger and Nesselroade (1999), *willingness to visit* has a small multiple correlation relative to the other items and therefore, it was decided to delete the variable and to run the test again. This time the fit indices are as follows ($\chi 2 = 908.87$, df=367, RMSEA = 0.062, NFI = 0.96, CFI = 0.97) rendering slightly improved figures, but still the RMSEA indicates room for improvement. Therefore, once again, the modification indices were consulted; however, it did not seem appropriate to change any of the paths because of the lack of theoretical justification. The next modification index suggests adding an error covariance between measurement items. Again, the most outstanding ones were examined more closely, but it was not deemed appropriate to follow the modifications. The suggested modifications are possibly due to content overlap. Because one employs several manifest variables for a construct it may be possible that some items have common characteristics or repeat each other.

It is generally accepted that the wording of the indicators should be simple and straightforward, that the items tap the content of the dimension and that the respondents derive at the researcher's intended meaning of the measurement item (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003). However, if items are worded too similarly, it will increase the average inter-item correlation without adding substantively to the content validity of the measure (Boyle, 1991; Clark & Watson, 1995). Without any methodological or theoretical justification, it becomes difficult to substantiate the incorporation of any of the correlated measurement errors. Even though the RMSEA suggests further improvement, it is believed that most of the other fit indices claim an acceptable fit. Further modifications can never be done solely on the degree of these values but should always be based on theory and it seems that none of the modifications can be theoretically justified. Moreover, blindly following the modification indices, one may run the risk of capitalization on chance and model adjustments may make no substantive sense (Silvia & MacCallum, 1988). Data-driven model modifications may capitalize on chance and on the features of the sample (MacCallum, Rosnowski, & Necowitz, 1992), making it less likely for the model to be generalized to other samples. Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) further caution that correlating measurement errors should be avoided unless there are clear theoretical or methodological reasons for doing so. Moreover, the 'mechanically' adjusted model may not fit another sample, because the model has been more or less been created based on the uniqueness of an initial dataset (Golob, 2003). Therefore, no further modifications were carried out, mainly because they are not theoretically justifiable and most of the fit indices reported an acceptable fit. LISREL outputs are provided in Appendix D1.

Table 5.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Major Constructs

Factor/Item	Std. Factor Loading	*t*-value	SMC	Composite Reliability
Attitude to Ad				**0.85**
Convincing	0.87	20.29	0.75	
Like	0.85	19.58	0.72	
Good	0.83	18.75	0.68	
Attractive	0.81	18.21	0.66	
Persuasive	0.68	14.11	0.46	
Believable	0.70	14.88	0.49	
Effective	0.72	15.48	0.52	
Pleasant	0.76	16.54	0.58	
Appealing	0.79	17.50	0.62	
Informative	0.70	14.67	0.48	
Visitation Intentions				**0.70**
Probable	0.88	20.02	0.78	
Likely	0.91	20.96	0.83	
Possible	0.76	16.20	0.57	
Attitude to Hong Kong				**0.81**
Positive	0.78	16.64	0.61	
Good	0.78	16.71	0.62	
Like	0.76	16.03	0.58	
Favourable	0.78	16.58	0.61	
Pleasant	0.63	12.39	0.39	
Expertise				**0.76**
Knowledgeable	0.68	14.06	0.47	
Expert	0.65	13.24	0.43	
Qualified	0.82	18.03	0.67	
Experienced	0.72	15.04	0.52	
Skilled	0.71	14.87	0.51	
Honest	0.76	16.16	0.57	
Trustworthy	0.69	14.18	0.47	
Attractiveness				**0.70**
Attractive	0.81	16.89	0.65	
Handsome/Beautiful	0.77	15.80	0.59	
Classy	0.73	14.76	0.53	
Elegant	0.57	10.85	0.33	

$\chi 2 = 908.78$, df = 367, $p < 0.01$,
RMSEA = 0.062, NFI = 0.96, CFI = 0.97

5.9.1 Assessment of the Measurement Model

The previous section indicated an acceptable fit between the overall measurement model and the data. We next have to verify the validity and reliability of the measures employed to represent the dimensions under study. Validity reflects the extent to which an item actually measures what it is supposed to measure, while reliability refers to the consistency of measurement (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). To assess the reliability of the manifest variables, it is possible to calculate the construct reliability values for each dimension. The construct reliability was manually calculated using the formula provided by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000). The composite reliability (or construct reliability) draws upon the standardized factor loadings and the measurement errors for each variable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981a). This value is similar to Cronbach's alpha, and a composite reliability value greater than 0.60 is regarded as desirable, while a value of 0.70 or higher suggests strong composite reliability (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). For these data, all construct reliability values are at or above the acceptable threshold of 0.7 indicating strong composite reliability (see Table 5.6). The next stage is to determine validity. Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) indicate that validity of indicator variables can be assessed by examining the magnitude and significance of the loadings between each latent variable and its indicators. All the standardized loading estimates are 0.5 and higher and their respective *t*-values are all over 1.96 suggesting construct validity as proposed by Hair et al. (2006). The convergent validity can be indicated by *t*-value larger than 1.96 or smaller than -1.96 and this provides validity evidence in favour of the indicators used to represent the latent variables (Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991).

It appears that the measurement model is consistent with the theoretically derived expectations and it may be concluded that the measurement model is construct valid (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). Hence, it appears that the items have adequate validity and reliability of measuring their respective latent factors. The following step is to check for discriminate validity. This is the degree to which measures of different concepts are distinct (Bagozzi, 1994). The validity of latent factors can be examined by checking their correlation matrix (see Table 5.7).

Low correlations among latent constructs are preferred to provide evidence of discriminate validity. The correlation between *Attractive* and *Expertise* is 0.66 and between *Expertise* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement* is 0.67, which may suggest that the dimensions may not be sufficiently differentiated from each other as theoretical constructs. Comparing the variance-extracted percentages for any two constructs with the square of the correlations estimate between the two constructs provide good evidence of discriminate validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981b; Hair et al., 2006). The squared correlation estimate between *Attractive* and *Expertise* is 0.43, and only one item *elegant* reports a lower score of 0.33. In addition, the squared correlation estimate between *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and *Expertise* is 0.44 and only one item *expert* reports a lower score of 0.43. Therefore, it can be safely assumed that the latent constructs explain the item measures better than it explains another construct and that the constructs are distinct.

Table 5.7 Correlation Matrix of the Major Constructs

	Attractiveness	Expertise	Attitude to Ad	Attitude to HK	Intentions
Attractiveness	1.00				
Expertise	0.66 (0.04) 16.57	1.00			
Attitude to Ad	0.44 (0.05) 8.76	0.67 (0.03) 19.09	1.00		
Attitude to HK	0.43 (0.05) 7.99	0.46 (0.05) 9.22	0.42 (0.05) 8.61	1.00	
Intentions	0.14 (0.06) 2.25	0.14 (0.06) 2.42	0.28 (0.05) 5.32	0.28 (0.06) 4.95	1.00

Note: The first number indicates the correlation coefficient, the second number in brackets is the standard error and the third number is the *t*-value.

5.10 Structural Model Test

Previously, the measurement model was found acceptable and at this stage, the structural relationships between exogenous and endogenous variables are estimated by testing the structural model. The entire sample (n=706) was used for this test. Maximum likelihood estimation was employed to estimate all models and listwise deletion was selected. As proposed in the conceptual framework, the structural relationships included the effects of celebrity endorsement on attitude dimensions and behavioural intentions. The exogenous variables are represented by *Attractiveness* and *Expertise* and the endogenous variables are represented by *Attitude towards the Advertisement, Attitude towards Hong Kong* and *Visitation Intentions*.

Figure 5.2 indicates the structural relationships by four one-way arrows. These are from exogenous to endogenous variables and from the two attitude variables to behavioural intentions. From the measurement model it is possible to find the reference indicators, as one should choose the fixed values of the observed variable which best represents the latent variable (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). For the dimension *Attitude towards Hong Kong* the manifest variable *good* (0.79) was selected, *convincing* (0.86) for *Attitude towards Advertisement* and for the *Visitation Intentions* construct *likely* (0.92) was chosen. The proposed structural model was tested using LISREL 8.54.

Table 5.8 indicates the standardized factor loadings, their respective *t*-values and the model fit indices for the structural model. From the initial output, it appears that the values of standardized factor loadings, *t*-values, and SMCs are very similar to the values in the measurement model. This implies the measurement of each latent variable in the structural model is quite stable. It may indicate an acceptable replication of the measurement model between the two samples. The model ($\chi 2$ = 1291.49, df = 370, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.059; NFI = 0.97; CFI = 0.98) reported acceptable fit indices. Again, the modification index was checked, but there seemed to be a lack of theoretical support in drawing alternative paths or to add correlations between measurement errors. Hence, it is deemed appropriate to discontinue and to conclude that the hypothesized model fits the sample data fairly well. LISREL outputs are provided in Appendix D2. The next section illustrates how well the model fits the sample data.

Figure 5.2 Revised Structural Model

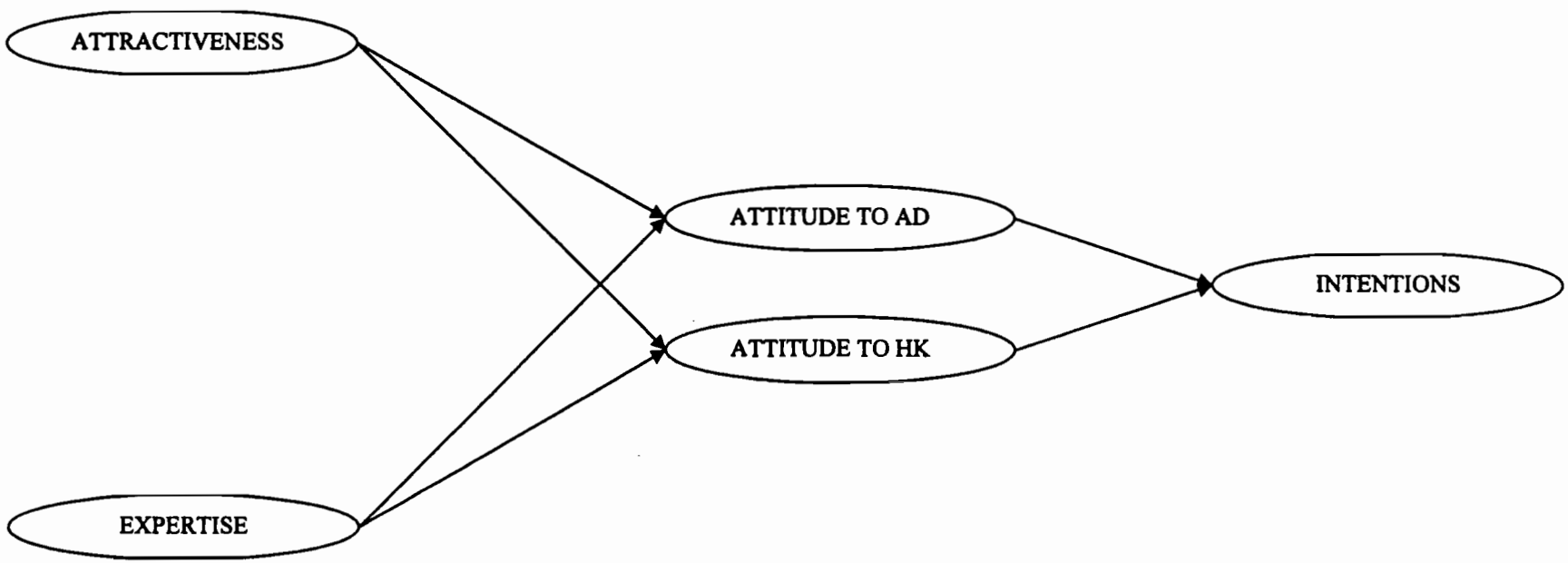


Table 5.8 Revised Structural Model

Construct/Items	Std. Factor Loadings	*t*-value	SMC (R^2)
Attitude to Ad			
Convincing	0.86	Reference	0.75
Like	0.86	30.78	0.75
Good	0.84	29.76	0.71
Attractive	0.84	29.71	0.71
Persuasive	0.73	23.26	0.53
Believable	0.73	23.17	0.53
Effective	0.79	26.26	0.62
Pleasant	0.78	26.13	0.61
Appealing	0.84	29.53	0.71
Informative	0.74	23.68	0.54
Visitation Intentions			
Probable	0.88	30.58	0.78
Likely	0.92	Reference	0.82
Possible	0.78	25.76	0.63
Attitude to Hong Kong			
Positive	0.77	21.06	0.58
Good	0.79	Reference	0.62
Like	0.78	21.33	0.61
Favourable	0.79	21.69	0.62
Pleasant	0.73	19.72	0.53
Expertise			
Knowledgeable	0.72	21.44	0.52
Expert	0.68	20.02	0.46
Qualified	0.82	26.09	0.67
Experienced	0.76	22.97	0.58
Skilled	0.73	21.87	0.53
Honest	0.77	23.40	0.59
Trustworthy	0.74	22.31	0.55
Attractiveness			
Attractive	0.80	23.75	0.64
Handsome/beautiful	0.78	22.74	0.61
Elegant	0.57	15.14	0.32
Classy	0.70	19.65	0.49

$\chi 2 = 1291.49$; df = 370, $p < .0.01$,
RMSEA = 0.059, NFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.98

5.10.1 Assessment of the Structural Model

This section presents the goodness of fit indices for the structural model. Prior to testing the study's hypotheses, the model's overall fit must be established (Bollen & Long, 1993). The results of the structural model estimation are shown in Figure 5.3. The model's Chi-square statistic is significant ($\chi 2$ = 1291.49; df = 370, $p < 0.01$). However, the Chi-square estimate has been shown to be sensitive to small model discrepancies when sample sizes are larger than 200, or when the model contains a large number of variables (i.e., when the model is complex) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Bollen & Long, 1993; Hair et al., 2006; Keith & Witta, 1997; Marsh et al., 1988). With a large sample size being allocated to the structural test, the Chi-square values are inflated (statistically significant), thus may erroneously imply a poor data-to-model fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Cudeck and Henley (1991) even argue that virtually all proposed models are rejected with large samples; even though large samples are desirable to minimize sampling bias. To remedy this issue, Hair et al. (2006) suggest setting the sample size to 200 in the LISREL command line. This procedure yielded a non-significant Chi-square ($\chi 2$= 364.55, df = 370, p-value = 0.570), which indicates a reasonable model fit. Looking at the model with the entire sample, the NFI and the CFI are all above the minimum acceptable 0.90 level with values of 0.97 and 0.98 respectively indicating an acceptable fit. The data shows that the RMSEA value for the hypothesized model is 0.059, with the 90% confidence interval ranging from 0.056 to 0.063. The confidence interval indicates that one can be 90% certain that the true RMSEA value in the population falls within the bounds of 0.056 to 0.063, which represents a good degree of precision.

Given that the RMSEA value of 0.059 with a narrow confidence interval is within the specified range of 0.05 and 0.08 as suggested by Browne and Cudeck (1993), and lower to the cut-off value recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999), it is believed that the initially hypothesized model fits the sample data well. Furthermore, the SMC were inspected, which are analogous to the R^2 obtained from a conventional regression analysis (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). The SMC show the amount of variance in each endogenous variable that is accounted for by the exogenous variables (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Obviously, the higher the squared multiple correlation, the greater the joint explanatory power of the hypothesized antecedents (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000).

The SMC of *Attitude towards the Advertisement*, *Attitude towards Hong Kong* and *Visitation Intentions* are 0.47, 0.26 and 0.09 respectively. Cohen (1988) suggests that, R^2 values of 0.01, 0.09, and 0.25 could be used to denote 'small,' 'medium' and 'large' effects respectively in behavioural sciences. Therefore, the structural relations to the exogenous variables and endogenous variables in the final model explain 47% of the total variation in *Attitude towards the Advertisement,* 26% of the total variation in *Attitude towards Hong Kong* and finally they explain 9% of the total variation in *Visitation Intentions*. Hence, *Attractiveness* and *Expertise* are able to explain nearly half of the variance in *Attitude towards the Advertisement,* and *Expertise* took the leading position having a larger effect. Regarding *Attitude towards Hong Kong,* the roles between *Attractiveness* and *Expertise* are more similar with both having a large effect.

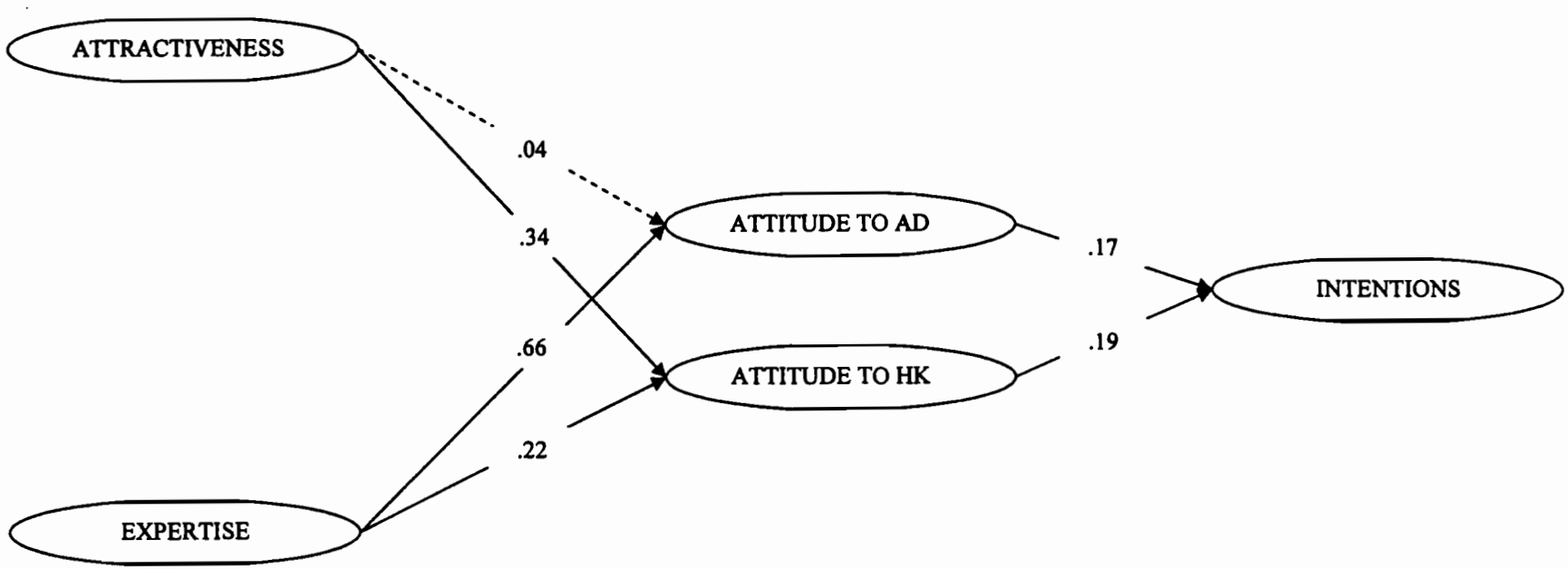
Attractiveness and *Expertise* with the mediating role of *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong* are able to explain 9% of the variation in *Visitation Intentions*, which indicates a medium effect. The SMC indicate that the hypothesized structural model has a strong statistical ability to predict Chinese mainland respondents' attitude towards the advertisement, Hong Kong and to a lesser extent their visitation intentions.

Turning to the next cluster of statistics, the value related to the Expected Cross-Validation index (ECVI) is a useful statistic to address cross-validation or replication ability of the model. The ECVI assesses, using a single sample, the likelihood that the model cross-validates across similar sized samples from the same population (Browne & Cudeck, 1989). Research indicates that the expected one-sample cross-validation index tend to have similar results to those of a two-sample approach (Benson & Bandalos, 1992; Benson & El-Zahhar, 1994). The ECVI values are placed in rank order and the model having the smallest ECVI exhibits the greatest potential for replication (Byrne, 1998). The ECVI value of the hypothesized structural model (ECVI=2.02) is compared to both the saturated model (ECVI=1.23) and the independence model (ECVI=59.29). However, the hypothesized model does not represent the best fit to the data. The ECVI value is also provided with a 90% confidence interval (ECVI = 1.87 to 2.18) suggesting that the hypothesized model has an acceptable fit and represents a reasonable approximation to the population. Therefore, the model appears suitable for hypotheses testing, which is discussed in the next section.

5.11 Hypothesis Testing

Previously, the proposed structural model was found to fit the sample data adequately. Most of the path coefficients are statistically significant; therefore this section tests the proposed hypotheses. Figure 5.3 shows the revised structural model combined with the standardized parameter estimates and goodness-of-fit indices. Table 5.9 displays similar information, but the *t*-values and results of the hypotheses testing are added. The *t*-value is used to determine whether a standardized parameter is significantly different from zero in the population (Byrne, 1998). All structural path estimates are significant and in the expected direction apart from one, with the exception being the estimate between *Attractiveness* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement*, which has an ML estimate of 0.04 and a *t*-value of 0.89. Therefore, while the estimate is in the hypothesized direction, it is not supported. *Expertise* as a factor for celebrity endorsement effectiveness, has positive effects on the respondent's *Attitude towards the Advertisement* (γ = 0.66/*t*-value = 13.47) and *Attitude towards Hong Kong* (γ = 0.22/*t*-value = 4.16). The latter is also positively effected by *Attractiveness* (γ=0.34/*t*-value = 6.01). The two attitude factors, *Attitude towards the Advertisement* (γ = 0.17/*t*-value = 4.08) and *Attitude towards Hong Kong* (γ = 0.19/*t*-value = 4.47) have a positive effect on *Visitation Intentions*. This indicates that mainland Chinese respondents who have a positive attitude towards both the advertisement and Hong Kong tend to have intentions to visit Hong Kong. Overall, given that five out of six estimates are consistent with the hypotheses, these results support the theoretical model, with a warning regarding the path between attractiveness and attitude towards the advertisement, which is not supported.

Figure 5.3 Revised Structural Model with Estimated Path coefficients



Hypothesis 1 posited that *Attractiveness significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Advertisement.* Attractiveness is thought to be measuring part of the celebrity endorsement effectiveness. The hypothesis was tested by studying the path coefficients between the dimensions *Attractiveness* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement.* The path coefficient from *Attractiveness* to *Attitude towards the Advertisement* is positive but not significant, thus the hypothesis is not supported.

Hypothesis 2 posited that *Attractiveness significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Destination.* Attractiveness is thought to be measuring part of the celebrity endorsement effectiveness. The hypothesis was tested by examining the path coefficient between the dimensions *Attractiveness* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong.* The path coefficient from *Attractiveness* to *Attitude towards Hong Kong* is positive and significant, thus the hypothesis is supported.

Hypothesis 5 posited that *Expertise significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Advertisement.* Expertise is thought to be measuring part of the celebrity endorsement effectiveness. The hypothesis was tested by examining the path coefficient between the dimensions *Attractiveness* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement.* The path coefficient from *Expertise* to *Attitude towards the Advertisement* is positive and significant, thus the hypothesis is supported.

Hypothesis 6 posited that *Expertise significantly affects individuals' Attitude towards the Destination.* Expertise is thought to be measuring part of celebrity endorsement effectiveness. The hypothesis was tested by examining the path coefficient between the dimensions *Expertise* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong.* The path coefficient from *Attractiveness* to *Expertise towards Hong Kong* is positive and significant, thus the hypothesis is supported.

Hypothesis 7 posited that *Attitude towards the Advertisement significantly affects individuals' Visitation Intentions to the Destination.* Attitude towards the advertisement is thought to be representing a person's attitude. The hypothesis was tested by examining the path coefficient between the dimensions *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and *Visitation Intentions.* The path coefficient from *Attitude towards the Advertisement* to *Visitation Intentions* is positive and significant, thus the hypothesis is supported.

Hypothesis 8 posited that *Attitude towards Hong Kong significantly affects individuals' Visitation Intentions to the Destination.* Attitude towards Hong Kong is thought to be representing a person's attitude. The hypothesis was tested by examining the path coefficient between the dimensions *Attitude towards Hong Kong* and *Visitation Intentions.* The path coefficient from *Attitude towards Hong Kong* to *Visitation Intentions* is positive and significant, thus the hypothesis is supported.

Table 5.9 Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses	Path	Standardized Coefficient	*t*-value	Result
H1: Effect of Attractiveness on Attitude to Ad	Attractiveness → Attitude to Ad	.04	.89	Not supported
H2: Effect of Attractiveness on Attitude to HK	Attractiveness → Attitude to HK	.34	6.01	Supported
H5: Effect of Expertise on Attitude to Ad	Expertise → Attitude to Ad	.66	13.47	Supported
H6: Effect of Expertise on Attitude to HK	Expertise → Attitude to HK	.22	4.16	Supported
H7: Effect of Attitude to Ad on Intentions	Attitude to Ad → Intentions	.17	4.08	Supported
H8: Effect of Attitude to HK on Intentions	Attitude to HK → Intentions	.19	4.47	Supported
H9: Mediation Effects	Attitude to Ad and Attitude to HK			Partially Supported
H10: Moderation Effects	Matchup			Partially Supported

5.12 Mediating Effects

Attitude towards the Advertisement and *Attitude towards Hong Kong* are hypothesized to mediate the relationship between celebrity endorser factors and behavioural intentions. Table 5.10 presents the direct, indirect and total causal effects on the endogenous variables. "*An indirect effect is one in which an exogenous variable influences an endogenous variable through the mediation of at least one other variable*" (Kaplan, 2000: 36). The direct effects of *Attractiveness* (*t*-value = 0.76) and *Expertise* (*t*-value = -1.12) on *Visitation Intentions* are both insignificant. However, *Attractiveness* and *Expertise* have significant indirect effects on *Visitation Intentions* in the hypothesized direction, except for the path from *Attractiveness* to *Attitude towards the Advertisement*. Although one path appeared not to be significant, it can be argued that the majority of the paths and the pattern of the results, reporting significant indirect effects but insignificant direct ones, is probably a reasonable demonstration for mediation effects (Barron & Kenny, 1986). Cohen and Cohen (1983) suggest that if all of its components path coefficients are significant then the whole indirect effect can be taken as significant too. *Attractiveness* to *Attitude towards the Advertisement* (*t*-value = 0.88) is the only exception, whilst all other path coefficients in the model meet this requirement. Furthermore, as already confirmed, the model provides a reasonable fit ($\chi 2$ =1265.22; df = 370, $p < 0.01$; RMSEA = 0.059; NFI = 0.97; CFI = 0.98), which also supports a mediating role for *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong* (Hair et al., 2006). Hence, due to the acceptable fit of the model, it supports the role of both *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong* as mediating variables.

Full mediation is not supported because *Attractiveness* and *Expertise* are still related with *Visitation Intentions* after control of the mediator. The direct path estimates for *Attractiveness* to *Visitation Intentions* and *Expertise* to *Visitation Intentions* are not significant, while all but one of the indirect paths is significant. Therefore, only partial mediation is supported for the hypothesized mediating roles for the attitude constructs.

Table 5.10 Decomposition of Standardized Effects for the Structural Model

Exogenous	**Endogenous**					
	Attitude to Ad		Attitude to HK		Intentions	
Attractiveness	Path	*t*-value	Path	*t*-value	Path	*t*-value
Direct effect	0.04	0.88*	0.34	8.99	0.05	0.76*
Indirect via Attitude to Ad	-	-	-	-	0.00	-
Indirect via Attitude to HK	-	-	-	-	0.06	-
Indirect via Attitude to Ad and Attitude to HK	-	-	-	-	0.00	-
Total effect	0.04		0.34		0.11	
Expertise						
Direct effect	0.66	13.48	0.22	4.18	-0.08	-1.12*
Indirect via Attitude to Ad					0.13	-
Indirect via Attitude to HK					0.04	-
Indirect via Attitude to Ad and Attitude to HK					0.00	-
Total effect	0.66		0.22		0.08	-
Attitude to Ad					0.20	3.57
Attitude to HK					0.19	3.90

*not significant

5.13 Comparing Groups

Before one can compare groups it only seems reasonable to either fully or partially ensure that indicators and constructs measure the same trait and to a certain degree across contexts, especially when one examines conceptual models containing latent variables, as people may attach different meanings to the various items. Only if this is ensured can comparisons and analyses of the groups yield meaningful interpretations. Therefore, '*to what extent are manifest variables transportable or generalized across populations?*' (Vandenberg & Lance 2000: 8). That is, the cross validation of a measurement model, which refers to the ability of the model to be invariant across two or more random samples from the same population (Du Toit & Du Toit, 2001).

A two-part strategy by Sörbom (1974) to identify the mean structures of CFA models is employed. The approach estimates the relative differences in factor means instead of absolute differences (Kline, 2005). The multiple CFA comparison option in LISREL is used to test measurement invariance and group mean differences on latent variables. In the first step, the measurement model without the mean structure was simultaneously estimated across the groups in order to evaluate the degree of measurement invariance, that is, to determine if the indicators measure the same dimensions in all the groups (Kline, 2005). The next section discusses measurement invariance in detail.

5.13.1 Measurement Invariance

According to Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998), a multiple group CFA represents the most powerful and versatile approach to testing for measurement invariance. Vandenberg and Lance (2000) suggest that the establishment of measurement invariance across groups is a logical pre-requisite to conducting substantive cross-group or cross-context comparisons. This assessment consists of a Chi-square difference test. If the difference value is statistically significant, it suggests that the constraints specified in the more restrictive model do not hold, in other words the model is not equivalent across groups. If on the other hand, the difference value is statistically insignificant, it suggests that all specified equality constraints are tenable (Byrne, 2006). However, scholars argue that the Chi-square difference test is as sensitive to sample size and non-normality as the Chi-square statistic itself, thereby rendering it an impractical and unrealistic criterion on which to base evidence of invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Little, 1997). As a result, two alternative criteria are suggested; (a) the multiple group model exhibits an adequate fit to the data, and (b) the difference in the CFI values between models is negligible (Byrne, 2006). The latter criteria should not exceed a value of 0.05 (Little, 1997). Cheung and Rensvold (2002) examined 20 goodness-of-fit indexes within the context of invariance testing and recommend a CFI difference of no more than 0.01. However, following these criteria may not lead to full measurement invariance. On the other hand, the ideal case of full measurement invariance is impractical and unnecessary for substantive applications (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989). It is rarely established in practical applications (MacCallum, Roznowski, Mar, & Reith, 1994; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998), even more so when the number of samples and scaling items

become larger (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Hypothesized covariance structure models represent only approximations of reality and thus are not expected to fit real-world phenomena exactly (Cudeck & Brown, 1983; MacCallum et al., 1992). Most research applications are likely to require the specification of alternative models in the quest for one that fits the data well (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; MacCallum, 1986). Muthén and Christofferson (1981) suggest that is it possible to test hypotheses only when some of the loadings are invariant across multiple samples, which they refer to as partial measurement invariance. Kaplan and George (1995) indicate that testing for factor mean differences is relatively robust against violations of factorial invariance or partial invariance, but insist that the sample sizes should be equal. They note that the marginal effect of inequality of sample size led to dramatic increase of Type II error probabilities, even when the factorial invariance hypothesis was true. As such, 'partial measurement invariance' has been supported as acceptable for measurement invariance models (Byrne, 2006; Byrne et al., 1989; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). LISREL was employed to fit the measurement model to four multivariate datasets representing the four different celebrity endorsers. The multi-group modelling feature was employed to test for factorial invariance across the four groups. The four groups, Andy Lau (n=206), David Beckham (n=204), Britney Spears (n=205) and Maggie Cheung (n=211) were compared with the five dimensions *Attractiveness, Expertise, Attitude towards Advertisement, Attitude towards Hong Kong* and *Visitation Intentions* respectively. The decision to impute missing values was made to enable multiple confirmatory factor analyses for each group having adequate sample sizes. The mean imputation is less than 10% and it facilitates testing of the four models as the subsample sizes are close to or exceed the required sample size of 200 (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Hair et al., 2006).

A Chi-square difference test is employed to asses if the factor loadings of the measurement model are invariant across the four treatment groups. The Chi-square difference test is merely the difference in values between the multiple group measurement models under the null and alternative hypothesis (Du Toit & Du Toit, 2001), which are summarized in Table 5.11. The small *p*-value suggests that there is sufficient evidence that the null hypothesis should be rejected. That is, the factor loading across the four treatment groups are different. Ideally, one should proceed testing, independently, for the invariance of each factor variance parameter, while continuing to hold constrained all parameters found to be cumulatively invariant across the groups (Byrne, 2006). However, this post-hoc analysis is based on modification indices and the limitations of this process have been discussed earlier. Thus, it is decided to examine the alternative criteria to evaluate partial measurement invariance.

Table 5.11 Global Fit Indices (Factorial Invariance)

Hypothesis	Chi-square	df	*p*-value	RMSEA	NFI	CFI
H0 Equal	3373.46	1558	0.000	0.075	0.90	0.95
HA Unequal	3104.17	1480	0.000	0.073	0.91	0.95
Difference	269.29	78	0.000	0.002	0.01	0.00

Looking at the alternative criteria as suggested earlier, the multiple group models display an adequate fit to the data, indicating that both the NFI and the CFI are above the minimum acceptable 0.90 level (Chau, 1997; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Rigdon, 1996). The RMSEA with values less than 0.08 indicate reasonable to acceptable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; MacCallum et al., 1996; Rigdon, 1996). The second criterion is the difference in the CFI values between models which should be small as mentioned previously.

The difference in CFI values for the two models is zero and therefore negligible and lower than the recommended CFI difference of 0.01 (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002) or 0.05 (Little, 1997). Alternative criteria to evaluate partial measurement equivalency appear to be sufficiently satisfied and the model fit indices are acceptable, with no substantial changes. Hence, it is deemed appropriate to proceed to analyse invariance of mean structures, which is illustrated in the next section.

5.13.2 Mean Structure Invariance

It is important to look at the relationship between the latent variables, rather than looking at each of them in isolation and this section elaborates on the assumption to evaluate the mean differences on all of the latent variables simultaneously. The multi-group function in LISREL allows comparison of latent variable means simultaneously. The three constructs of interest are; (1) *Attitude towards the Advertisement*, (2) *Attitude towards Hong Kong* and (3) *Visitation Intentions* to Hong Kong. It is suggested to make a construct multi-operational a (i.e., have several measures of it), rather than make mono-operation of the construct (i.e., have a single measure of it) (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Particularly in social sciences, in which measurement is considerably less than perfect, multi-operational constructs and using multivariate methods to assess the effects of a stimulus may provide a more valid assessment of the treatment effects (Cole, Howard, & Maxwell, 1981). The mean latent variable differences are indicated by the mean vector of independent variables or as centroids in MANOVA terms (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The means of latent variables are unable to be observed, however they derive their structure indirectly from the manifest variables (Byrne, 2006).

Although it is possible to test for latent mean differences between groups, it is not possible to estimate simultaneously the mean for each group. The latent means for one group must be constrained to zero (Byrne, 2006). Therefore, only the relative latent mean differences are provided in the tables. The following paragraph presents the differences between the treatment groups and the control group.

5.13.3 Treatment Groups versus Control Group

This section discusses the test for mean structure invariance between the control group and the treatment groups. Therefore, it makes sense to specify the control group as the reference sample and given this specification, all relative factor mean differences between each treatment condition and the control condition are estimated (Kline, 2005). In order to identify the mean structure, both direct effects of the constant on the factors were fixed to zero in the control group. This specification makes the control group the reference sample. The control group (n=218) without celebrity endorsement and the four treatment groups of Andy Lau (n=206), David Beckham (n=204), Britney Spears (n=205) and Maggie Cheung (n=211), were compared on the three dimensions *Attitude towards the Advertisement, Attitude towards Hong Kong* and *Visitation Intentions* respectively. The global fit indices indicate a reasonable fit ($\chi 2$ =1829.03; df = 780, $p < 0.01$; RMSEA = 0.080; NFI = 0.93; CFI = 0.96), which ensures an appropriate analysis. For the study purposes, the group effects are of interest because it tells whether the celebrities have any effect on the three dimensions. Table 5.12 shows that in general celebrity endorsement performs better and in the proposed direction. The majority of the mean vectors of independent variable scores are minus, which indicates a score closer to 1.

The original scale format is 1 to 7, with 1 being positive and 7 being negative. However, not all the scores are significantly better than the control group when looking at the *t*-values. Even though the mean vectors of independent variable scores are in the hypothesized direction, none of the values for *Visitation Intentions* are significantly different from the control group. This may mean that celebrity endorsement may not necessarily be better than no celebrity endorsement in order to influence the *Visitation Intentions*. The mean vectors of independent variable scores for *Attitude towards the Advertisement* for the group of David Beckham (0.16) and for the group of Britney Spears (0.081) both display a higher mean score than the control group. The latter is significantly higher (*t*-value = 6.26), indicating that Britney Spears performs significantly worse than the control group. On the other hand, latent variable means for the groups Andy Lau (-0.61) and Maggie Cheung (-0.48) are significantly lower than the control group, indicating that they perform better than the control group. Even though there are mixed results, when excluding the group for Britney Spears, it seems that celebrity endorsement may be better than no celebrity endorsement in order to influence the *Attitude towards the Advertisement*. This is explained by the significantly lower latent variable mean score difference for the groups of Andy Lau (*t*-value = -5.20) and Maggie Cheung (*t*-value = -4.41) when compared to the control group. The last dimension of interest is the *Attitude towards Hong Kong*. Regarding the *Attitude towards Hong Kong*, all the treatment groups perform significantly better than the control group except for the group for Britney Spears (0.03), which displays a higher, however not a significant (*t*-value = 0.34) score. By excluding Britney Spears, these results illustrate that celebrity endorsement is significantly better than no celebrity endorsement in order to influence the *Attitude towards Hong Kong*.

Despite random assignment, the samples will inevitably differ to some degree because of sampling error (Bray & Maxwell, 1985). On the other hand, the majority of the experimental groups indicate a lower mean score, and such an occurrence is extremely unlikely due to sampling error alone (Bray & Maxwell, 1985). The special case for the group of Britney Spears indicates higher mean scores than the control group for both the *Attitude towards Hong Kong* and the *Attitude towards the Advertisement*. This may be interpreted that there are celebrity endorsement effects, even though they are negative but shows that influence of the stimulus filters through and influences respondents' *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and *Attitude towards the Destination*. In general, the other three treatment groups (Andy Lau, David Beckham and Maggie Cheung) clearly show statistical significant and positive differences compared to the control group and these results concur with previous studies (Atkin & Block, 1983; Freiden, 1984; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Friedman et al., 1976; Kamins, 1989; Till, 1998; Tom et al., 1992; Tripp et al., 1994). Further interpretations and implications of these results are discussed in the next chapter. The next section will illustrate the specification of the continuous moderator *Matchup*.

Table 5.12 Latent Mean Differences across Groups

	M	SE	Ad	M	SE	HK	M	SE	VI
Britney	0.81	0.13	*	0.03	0.09	NS	-0.07	.19	NS
David	0.16	0.14	NS	-0.32	0.09	*	-0.28	.20	NS
Maggie	-0.48	0.11	*	-0.29	0.08	*	-0.20	.19	NS
Andy	-0.61	0.12	*	-0.46	0.08	*	-0.31	.20	NS

Note: M= Mean Difference, SE = Standard Error, Ad = Attitude towards the advertisement, HK = Attitude towards Hong Kong, VI = Visitation Intentions, NS = nonsignificant differences between pairs of means, while an asterisk (*) = significant with alpha of 0.05. Treatment groups are compared to the control group. The control group is held constant.

5.14 Specification of Moderator

A PCA with varimax rotation was employed to specify the indicators for the moderating dimension *Matchup* and the results are presented in Table 5.14 (n=784). Pruzek (1971: 187) argues that "*often it is advisable to use the principles and methodology of factor analysis as it is likely to offer hope of facilitating interpretations of data*". This method seemed most appropriate as the goal is to examine whether there is still one component. Although it is expected to be a one-dimensional construct, the PCA should verify this assumption.

Table 5.13 Descriptive Statistics for the Moderator

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
Related	2.76	2.001	784
Representative	2.69	1.953	784
Combine	2.86	1.931	784
Relative	2.64	1.915	784
Effective	2.62	1.754	784
Consistent	2.76	1.936	784
Correspond	2.76	1.953	784

The moderator *Matchup* reports relatively higher scores for the mean and standard deviation than the other constructs (see Table 5.13). The standard deviation may illustrate the differences between the groups of celebrities either representing a better or worse perceived fit. From the correlation matrix, a potential problem was found regarding multi-collinearity. The variables *correspond* and *consistent* reported a correlation coefficient of 0.955. After examining the communality scores, *correspond* (0.819) was deleted as it had a lower communality score then *consistent* (0.837). The closer the communalities are to 1, the better the components are at explaining the data (Field, 2005). After deletion of *correspond*, the PCA was repeated and no further problems regarding multi-collinearity were found in the correlation matrix. The next step is to examine the communalities. "*Items with communalities less than 0.50*

should be removed for not having sufficient explanation" (Hair et al., 2006: 131). These data revealed that all communalities score well above 0.7. The KMO value is 0.902, indicating that the PCA is appropriate for these data (Kaiser, 1974). Furthermore, the Chi-square value of Bartlett's test of Sphericity is 6040.635 and significant at the 0.001 level, also indicating that the factor analysis is appropriate. As expected only one component is extracted and the solution could not be rotated (see Table 5.14). For these data, all the factor loadings are well above 0.4 and they appear to load all on just one component, representing the proposed *Matchup* factor. The outcome of the PCA provides evidence that the *Matchup* dimension can be considered as a uni-dimensional construct and that it is able to function as a continuous moderator. The next section discusses the moderating effects.

Table 5.14 Principal Components Analysis of the Moderator

	Component	**Eigenvalue**	**Variance Explained**
Matchup	1	5.460	78.00%
Relative	0.915		
Representative	0.889		
Related	0.886		
Consistent	0.885		
Combine	0.862		
Effective	0.856		

KMO = 0.902 / Bartlett's Test of Sphericity; Chi-square = 6040.635, $p < 0.000$

5.15 Moderating Effects

Interactive relations involves at least three variables and if the relation of X to Y changes as a function of a third variable W, then an interaction effect is indicated (Kline, 2005). It is expected that the moderator *Matchup* would moderate the relationship between *Expertise* to *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and the

relationship between *Expertise* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong*. For respondents who rated the celebrity to be matched (low score on *Matchup*), the relationship between celebrity endorsement effectiveness and the attitude constructs is likely to be positive. For subjects who do not rate the celebrity to be matched (high score on *Matchup*), the relationship between celebrity endorsement factors and attitude constructs is likely to be negative. In this sense, *Matchup* moderates the relationship between celebrity endorser constructs and the *Attitude* constructs. In the present study, it tests for moderation effects using hierarchical multiple regression, which is consistent with suggested strategy by Bennett (2000). Moderation effects could also be tested using SEM, but hierarchical multiple regression allows for a more precise description of the relationship between independent and outcome variables. More specifically, Bennett (2000) noted that independent variables do not have to be significant predictors of the outcome variable in order to test for an interaction in the next step. However, when an interaction term (the product of two independent variables, which represents the moderator effect) is entered and when it explains a statistically significant amount of variance in the dependent variable, a moderator effect is present. Therefore, only the difference between model two and model three are discussed. Firstly, the latent variable scores were obtained from the LISREL program for the dimensions *Expertise* and *Matchup*. Secondly, the latent variable scores were exported to SPSS to run the hierarchal multiple regression. Before running the regression, the accuracy of the dataset was assessed. The errors in the model were inspected first, followed by cases that excessively influence the parameters of the model. It appeared that a small number of cases were influential and biased the estimated regression coefficients. Cases proved to have a larger standardized residual than 3 were considered as outliers and deleted from the dataset

(Field, 2005). In addition, the Mahalanobis distances, which measure the distance of cases from the mean(s) predictor variable(s) were inspected. Barnett and Lewis (1978) recommend that with large samples (n = 500) and five predictors, values above 25 are cause for concern. Therefore, cases that showed a higher Mahalanobis value of 25 were deleted from the dataset. In total 39 cases (4.7%) were deleted and 787 cases were retained for further analysis. The demographic characteristics for the deleted cases did not indicate any abnormal deviation from the remaining cases. It is only a small portion of the complete dataset and it should not cause any major problems for interpretation of the results. After these deletions, a reliable model was obtained showing no excessive influence by any case. The regression was conducted per group, for Andy Lau (n=187), David Beckham (n=196), Britney Spears (n=204) and Maggie Cheung (n=200). Table 5.15 indicates two models for *Attitude towards the Advertisement* per group. The first model (R^2_1) refers to *Expertise* and *Matchup* as predictors. The second model (R^2_2) includes the interaction variable *exmat* (*Expertise* × *Matchup*). For illustrative purposes, only the group for Britney Spears is discussed. The first model reports an R^2 value of 0.460, which means that the perceived *Expertise* of a celebrity accounts for 46% of variation in the *Attitude towards the Advertisement*. However, when the interaction variable is included as shown in the second model, the R^2 shows a value of 0.463 or 46.3% indicating a small change. The *F*-ratio determines whether the change of R^2 is significant (Field, 2005). In this case, none of the groups showed a significant change in R^2 when the interaction variable was entered. This means that for these data the *Matchup* dimension has no moderating effect for the relationship between a celebrity's perceived *Expertise* and the *Attitude towards the Advertisement*. The second part of this section tests for interaction effects of the relationship between *Expertise* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong*.

Table 5.15 Expertise - Attitude towards the Advertisement

	R^2_1	R^2_2	R^2_{Change}	F Change	Sig. F Change
Andy	0.185	0.188	0.003	0.681	0.410
David	0.622	0.623	0.001	0.732	0.393
Britney	0.460	0.463	0.003	1.150	0.285
Maggie	0.323	0.326	0.003	0.757	0.385

Again, the outliers were inspected and if appropriate deleted from the dataset using the same approach as discussed earlier. In total 47 cases (5.7%) were deleted and a total of 779 cases remained for the analysis. A reliable model is obtained showing no extreme influence by any case (see Table 5.16). The regression was conducted per group, for Andy Lau (n=190), David Beckham (n=193), Britney Spears (n=203) and Maggie Cheung (n=193). Again, the change or *F* statistics are important as they illustrate the difference made by adding the interaction variable to the model. For all the groups, there are significant changes in R^2, indicating there are moderation effects. This illustrates that for these data *Matchup* has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between a celebrity's perceived *Expertise* and the *Attitude towards Hong Kong.*

Table 5.16 Expertise - Attitude towards Hong Kong

	R^2_2	R^2_3	R^2_{Change}	F Change	Sig. F Change
Andy	0.237	0.253	0.016	4.053	0.046
David	0.142	0.198	0.055	12.980	0.000
Britney	0.083	0.163	0.080	19.063	0.000
Maggie	0.310	0.337	0.037	10.854	0.001

5.16 Choosing the Right Celebrity - Q-rates

This section and the following section are probably of most interest to the HKTB as it may illustrate the most appropriate celebrity for endorsing Hong Kong towards Guangzhou visitors. The first two parts discuss results that are recognized as the standard for testing popularity in the industry, the Q-rates. The Q-rates consist of two variables, *familiarity* and *likability*. The celebrity endorser that scores higher Q-rates is assumed to be a more popular celebrity. A one-way between-subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) compared the mean scores of *familiarity* among the four treatment groups. The alpha level is 0.05 and this test was found to be statistically significant, $F(3, 823) = 34.32$ $p < 0.01$. Post-hoc tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means using a Games-Howell procedure. The results of these tests, as well as the means and standard deviations for each of the groups are reported in Table 5.17. There is a significant difference in the means for *familiarity* between all treatment groups, apart from Maggie Cheung and David Beckham. Furthermore, the group for Andy Lau reports a significantly lower mean score compared to the others. Therefore, for these data, Andy Lau appears to be the most familiar celebrity endorser among the four celebrity groups. The group for Britney Spears reports a significant higher mean score compared to others and appears to be the least familiar celebrity endorser among the four celebrity groups. For the remaining two, Maggie Cheung and David Beckham, no significant difference in the mean scores for *familiarity* were found, only between Andy Lau and Britney Spears. The next section compares the mean differences for *likability* among the four celebrity endorsers.

Table 5.17 Mean Differences Treatment Groups on Familiarity

Treatment Group	N	M	SD	Andy	David	Britney	Maggie
Andy	206	1.91	1.26	-	*	*	*
David	204	2.41	1.72	*	-	*	NS
Britney	205	3.37	1.36	*	*	-	*
Maggie	209	2.55	1.54	*	NS	*	-

Note: NS = nonsignificant differences between pairs of means, while an asterisk (*) = significant using Games-Howell procedure with alpha of 0.05.

Again, a one-way between-subjects ANOVA was employed to compare the mean scores for *likability* across the four treatment groups. The alpha level was 0.05 which was found to be statistically significant, $F(3, 822) = 31.82$ $p < 0.01$. Post-hoc tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means using a Games-Howell procedure. The results of these tests, as well as the means and standard deviations for each of the groups are reported in Table 5.18. There are no significant differences in the means for *likability* between all treatment groups, apart from Britney Spears. Her group reported a significantly higher mean score for *likability* compared to the other three. This is not an unexpected result and it indicates that Britney Spears is the least likeable endorser among the four celebrities. The remaining three celebrity endorsers score significantly better than Britney Spears, however none of them excelled as the most likable. Even though the group for Andy Lau reports the lowest mean score it does not significantly differ from the other groups. In general, looking at the absolute mean score for both *familiarity* and *likability*, Andy Lau reports a better Q-rate than the other three endorsers. This provides a basis for the next section which examines the differences between the celebrities on all the major dimensions of interest.

Table 5.18 Mean Differences Treatment Groups on Likability

Treatment Group	N	M	SD	Andy	David	Britney	Maggie
Andy	206	1.79	1.32	-	NS	*	NS
David	202	1.90	1.22	NS	-	*	NS
Britney	204	2.89	1.42	*	*	-	*
Maggie	211	1.99	1.14	NS	NS	*	-

Note: NS = nonsignificant differences between pairs of means, while an asterisk (*) = significant using Games-Howell procedure with alpha of 0.05.

5.17 Choosing the Right Celebrity - Major Dimensions

From previous analyses, Andy Lau appears to score relatively better on *familiarity* and *likability* than the other three celebrity endorsers. In addition, it highlighted that Britney Spears was not positively received. This section evaluates the performance of the four different celebrity endorsers based on the major dimensions including the *Matchup* construct. To provide clear and compelling evidence, it was found appropriate to test for invariance of structure means among the four treatment groups. Although the *Matchup* construct is specified as a moderator and not as an exogenous variable in the model, it was found suitable to compare the latent mean differences across groups to facilitate selection of the most appropriate celebrity endorser for Hong Kong. LISREL was employed to examine the mean differences between the four treatment groups on dimensions *Attractiveness, Expertise, Attitude towards the Advertisement, Attitude towards Hong Kong, Visitation Intentions* and *Matchup*. Firstly, it was important to ensure that the data would fit the theoretical model reasonably well by inspecting the global fit indices (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

Table 5.19 Global Fit Indices (Factorial Invariance)

Hypothesis	Chi-square	df	*p*-value	RMSEA	NFI	CFI
H0 Equal	7078.13	2522	0.00000	0.094	0.86	0.90
HA Unequal	5040.25	2357	0.00000	0.074	0.90	0.95
Difference	2037.88	165	0.00000	0.020	0.04	0.05

It appeared that the fully constrained model combined with the *Matchup* dimension across four different groups just satisfied the requirements (see Table 5.19). The NFI did not achieve the level of 0.90, but the CFI did. In addition, the RMSEA was below 0.10, which can be considered as appropriate. The unconstrained model shows better fit indices. This is because both the CFI and NFI reported the minimum acceptance level of 0.90 and the RMSEA was below an acceptable level of 0.08. Therefore, the acceptable fit indices of the models ensure the first requirement of the earlier specified alternative criteria for means structure invariance is fulfilled. The second criterion is the difference in the CFI values between models. The difference in CFI values for the two models was 0.05 and complies with the recommended CFI difference of 0.05 by Little (1997). Alternative criteria to evaluate partial measurement equivalency appears to be just satisfied, probably caused by including the *Matchup* dimension, which was not originally specified for the proposed model. Even though there are no structural relationships specified for the *Matchup* dimension, it seems to be an important dimension to evaluate the celebrity's performance. In addition, by employing mean structure invariance, it constitutes a more advanced and innovative approach to comparing means across groups. The mean latent variable differences are indicated by the mean vector of independent variables. This study follows the interpretation suggested by Schumacker and Lomax (2004).

The values reported in Table 5.20 and Table 5.21 indicates to what extent the groups significantly differ from the group that is being held constant. The analysis of latent mean differences within a SEM framework provides a precise test.

This is because measurement errors among items are modelled and possible between-group differences are controlled, for when testing differences in latent variable means for each group. Latent means (means of factor scores) are better indicators of true differences than observed scores because they are not associated with measurement error (Hancock, 1997). In this case, the values in Table 5.20 and Table 5.21 are either greater than (negative) or less than (positive) the first group on the latent variables. Full details and *t*-values are provided in Appendix D3. The following sections review each dimension in detail.

Attractiveness – Regarding the dimension *Attractiveness*, Britney Spears reports significant higher mean scores than Andy Lau (-1.03), than David Beckham (-0.93) and than Maggie Cheung (-0.87). However, there are no significant differences regarding perceived *Attractiveness* among the other three celebrities. Therefore, for these data it appears that Britney Spears is perceived significantly less attractive than the other three celebrities However, none of the remaining three excelled individually regarding their perceived attractiveness.

Table 5.20 Latent Mean Differences for Attractiveness, Expertise and Matchup

	M	SE	Attractiveness	M	SE	Expertise	M	SE	Matchup
Andy (Constant)									
Britney	1.03	0.12	*	2.18	0.11	*	2.88	0.13	*
David	0.10	0.10	NS	1.19	0.11	*	1.99	0.14	*
Maggie	0.16	0.10	NS	0.35	0.07	*	0.37	0.08	*
Britney (Constant)									
Andy	-1.03	0.12	*	-2.18	0.11	*	-2.88	0.13	*
David	-0.93	0.12	*	-0.99	0.13	*	-0.88	0.17	*
Maggie	-0.87	0.11	*	-1.82	0.11	*	-2.51	0.13	*
David (Constant)									
Andy	-0.10	0.10	NS	-1.19	0.11	*	-1.99	0.14	*
Britney	0.93	0.12	*	0.99	0.13	*	0.88	0.17	*
Maggie	0.06	0.10	NS	-0.84	0.11	*	-1.62	0.15	*
Maggie (Constant)									
Andy	-0.16	0.10	NS	-0.35	0.07	*	-0.37	0.08	*
Britney	0.87	0.11	*	1.82	0.11	*	2.51	0.13	*
David	-0.06	0.11	NS	0.84	0.11	*	1.62	0.15	*

Note: NS = nonsignificant differences between pairs of means, while an asterisk (*) = significant *t*-values
*$p < 0.01$ **$p < 0.05$, M = relative difference of the mean vectors, SE = Standard Error.

Expertise – from this dimension, both David Beckham and Britney Spears report significant higher mean scores than Andy Lau (-1.19/-2.18) or Maggie Cheung (-0.84/-1.82). This indicates that the two native celebrity endorsers were perceived to have more *Expertise* regarding Hong Kong than the two non-native celebrity endorsers. It appears that David Beckham was perceived to be more *Expertise* regarding Hong Kong than Britney Spears, as she reports a significantly higher mean (0.99) than David Beckham. There are also significant differences in mean scores between Any Lau and Maggie Cheung. Andy Lau reported a lower mean score than Maggie Cheung (0.35) and therefore appeared to have more *Expertise* regarding Hong Kong than Maggie Cheung. This suggests that Any Lau had the most *Expertise* regarding Hong Kong out of all the celebrities.

Matchup – with this dimension, both David Beckham and Britney Spears reported significant higher mean scores than Andy Lau (-1.99/-2.88) or Maggie Cheung (-1.62/-2.51). This illustrates that the two native celebrity endorsers were perceived to be more associated with Hong Kong than the two non-natives. David Beckham was perceived to be more closely associated with Hong Kong than Britney Spears as she reported a significantly higher mean (0.88) than David Beckham. There was also a significant difference in mean score between Andy Lau and Maggie Cheung. Andy Lau reported a lower mean score than Maggie Cheung (0.37) and therefore appeared to be more closely associated to Hong Kong than Maggie Cheung. The results prove that Andy Lau displayed the closest match to Hong Kong out of all the celebrities.

Table 5.21 Latent Mean Differences for Attitude to Ad, to HK and Intentions

	M	SE		M	SE		M	SE	
Andy (Constant)			**Attitude to Ad**			**Attitude to Hong Kong**			**Visitation Intentions**
Britney	1.43	0.13	*	0.49	0.09	*	0.25	0.13	NS
David	0.78	0.14	*	0.13	0.08	NS	0.02	0.14	NS
Maggie	0.13	0.10	NS	0.17	0.08	**	0.12	0.08	NS
Britney (Constant)									
Andy	-1.43	0.13	*	-0.49	0.19	*	-0.25	0.19	NS
David	-0.65	0.15	*	-0.35	0.19	*	-0.23	0.19	NS
Maggie	-1.30	0.12	*	-0.32	0.18	*	-0.13	0.18	NS
David (Constant)									
Andy	-0.78	0.14	*	-0.13	0.08	NS	-0.02	0.20	NS
Britney	0.65	0.15	*	0.35	0.09	*	0.23	0.19	NS
Maggie	-0.64	0.13	*	0.03	0.09	NS	0.10	0.19	NS
Maggie (Constant)									
Andy	-0.13	0.10	NS	-0.17	0.08	**	-0.12	0.19	NS
Britney	1.30	0.12	*	0.32	0.09	*	0.13	0.18	NS
David	0.64	0.13	*	0.03	0.09	NS	-0.10	0.19	NS

Note: NS = nonsignificant differences between pairs of means, while an asterisk (*) = significant *t*-values
*$p < 0.01$ **$p < 0.05$, M = relative difference of the mean vectors, SE = Standard Error.

Attitude towards the Advertisement – In this construct, both Andy Lau and Maggie Cheung reported significantly lower mean values than David Beckham (0.78/0.64) or Britney Spears (1.43/1.30). This indicated that the two native celebrity endorsers influenced the Attitude towards the Advertisement more positively than the two non-natives. It appears that David Beckham was able to generate a more positive Attitude towards the Advertisement than Britney Spears, as she scored a significantly higher mean (0.65) than David Beckham. Even though Andy Lau showed a lower mean value than Maggie Cheung (-0.13) it was not significant. Both native celebrity endorsers appear to affect Attitude towards the Advertisement in a similar fashion but neither excelling.

Attitude towards Hong Kong – Unfortunately, for Britney, she again reported the highest mean values among all spokespeople, this time for the Attitude towards Hong Kong, where all the other celebrities seem to perform significantly better in influencing the attitude towards the destination. Britney Spears scored significantly higher mean values than Andy Lau (-0.49), David Beckham (-0.35) or Maggie Cheung (-0.32). It appears that David Beckham was able to generate a more positive Attitude towards Hong Kong than Britney Spears (0.35). Andy Lau reported a lower mean score than Maggie Cheung (0.17) therefore influencing the visitor's Attitude towards Hong Kong more positively. Even though Andy Lau indicated a lower mean value than David Beckham (-0.13) it was not significant. Hence, no celebrity endorser significantly excelled in influencing the Attitude towards Hong Kong.

Visitation Intentions - as in the previous section, the celebrity endorser did not influence this construct any more positively than the control group. When looking across the treatment groups, none of the celebrity endorsers excelled. Even though Andy Lau appeared to perform best when looking at the mean values, there were no significant mean differences between the groups. Thus, it does not seem appropriate to indicate an overall winner in influencing *Visitation Intentions* to Hong Kong.

In general, it appears that Andy Lau is the overall winner and the most appropriate celebrity endorser in terms of his perceived *Expertise* and *Matchup* to Hong Kong. Regarding the other dimensions, no clear cut result was found and therefore not appropriate to choose a winner just by looking at the relative mean scores. Even though it might seem obvious, selecting Britney Spears as the endorser for Hong Kong does not appear to go without risks. For these data, it showed that Britney Spears was found to be the least appropriate celebrity endorser for Hong Kong as she reported significantly higher mean values on all major constructs, apart from *Visitation Intentions*. Moreover, it appeared that native celebrity endorsers perform significantly better in terms of *Expertise* and *Matchup*. It is also found that the native celebrity endorsers significantly outperformed the two non-native celebrity endorsers in influencing the *Attitude towards the Advertisement*. This result would not have been found by solely examining the Q-rates and it illustrates that the two native celebrity endorsers are probably more appropriate spokespeople for Hong Kong than the two non-natives.

5.18 Summary

This chapter discusses the results of a series of statistical tests and starts by illustrating the respondent profile according to the demographic variables. These were gathered through a quota sampling procedure. The strata were generated from the HKTB visitor profile, from which it appeared that the respondent closely matched the visitor profile from Guangzhou. Hence, there seemed no reason to believe that the sample differs in any important way from the population of interest. Data was screened before testing and outliers were deleted. Furthermore, uni-variate and multi-variate normalities were examined, and there appeared no violation of normal distribution. Measurement model testing verified the manifest variables for the major constructs. Initially, a PCA was carried out with a calibration sample to explore the underlying structure of the components. This was followed by a CFA using the validation sample and it appeared that the structure remained stable. From these tests, a few indicators were removed as they were neither relevant nor redundant other than *honest* and *trustworthiness*, which tended to load the *Expertise* construct. It appeared that the remaining factors and respective indicators confirmed adequately with hypothesized constructs. As the measurement model was considered to fit the sample data reasonably well, it was found appropriate to test the structural model using the entire sample. The structural model was found to fit the data satisfactorily, as verified by various fit indices and this allowed for testing the hypotheses. Even though Hypothesis 1 was in the specified direction, it only reported a path coefficient of just 0.04 and it was not significant at the 0.05 level (0.89), and therefore Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

However, the remaining hypotheses were fully supported, reporting path coefficients that were all positive and significant at the 0.01 level. All the hypotheses were developed based on a thorough literature review and all but one were fully supported in this study. In general, these findings appear to be in line with previous studies, which further validate the structural model. Mediating effects were examined and it appeared that partial mediation was supported for the attitude constructs. In addition, the results indicate that *Matchup* had a significant moderating effect for the relationship between a celebrity's perceived *Expertise* and the *Attitude towards Hong Kong*. However, no moderation effects for the relationship between a celebrity's perceived *Expertise* and the *Attitude towards the Advertisement* were found, which partially supported moderation effects. After testing for measurement invariance, the treatment groups were compared to the control group, and there were significant celebrity endorsement effects based on mean structure invariance. The last section of this chapter tried to specify the most appropriate celebrity endorser for promoting Hong Kong by comparing the latent mean scores for all the major dimensions. From these data, it appears that Andy Lau was the most appropriate celebrity for endorsing Hong Kong. Any Lau significantly performed better on the familiarity variable and on the dimensions *Expertise* and *Matchup* than all the other celebrity endorsers. It is believed that evaluating the celebrity endorser on more variables was more appropriate and objective. This way, one can obtain a comprehensive picture of which celebrity endorser performs better and in which areas. The implications of these results are further discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter 6 Discussion and Implications

6.1 Foreword

This chapter serves to interpret the study findings and how they relate to previous studies by discussing all major research constructs independently and their relationship to other dimensions. In addition, this chapter indicates how the results contribute to knowledge and practice. Various recommendations regarding marketing related practices for destinations are outlined and proposed separately as instruments.

6.2 Overall Model Performance

Results of the PCA and the CFA partially supported the proposed model. This study only identifies the Attractiveness and the Expertise constructs, the Trustworthiness dimension was not identified. Therefore, it is not possible to test Hypothesis 3 and 4. Borrowing constructs from previous studies is questionable, because like any other psychological dimension they are context specific. The constructs were developed in a different context and may be less or even not applicable at all for another study setting. From a methodological perspective, developing measurement items and their related constructs for each unique study setting is the preferred approach, such as following the method proposed by Churchill (1979). Nevertheless, applying a modified framework proved successful in achieving the study's objectives. This was mainly due to Ohanian's (1990, 1991) rigor and model design. Her three factor fifteen-item credibility scale has been widely accepted and replicated by other researchers (Pornpitakpan, 2003; Till & Busler, 1998, 2000). In addition, her model is proven to be validated in an Asian setting (La Ferle & Choi, 2005; Pornpitakpan, 2003).

Overall, the components identified in this study show a high degree of consistency with those found in previous studies. Most values in this study were developed in a different environment and sometimes the values of one culture cannot be used indiscriminately in another. Further research should lead towards models that are more refined. Nevertheless, it appears that the values in the majority of constructs are less restricted by culture and has proven to be an effective measurement model. Most of the predictors were chosen from past studies that have utilized appropriate methodologies, which is probably one of the reasons why this study yielded a reliable and generalizable model. The preliminary tests for the measurement instrument indicated that only minor changes were needed for the remaining constructs. A five-factor underlying structure was identified relating to the proposed constructs, *Attractiveness, Expertise, Attitude towards the Advertisement, Attitude towards the Destination* and *Visitation Intentions*. Even though similarities in the methods used to measure the constructs might have inflated the inter-construct correlations either because of (1) the same type of scale was used to measure all dimensions or (2) some identical scale endpoint labels were used (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989), it appeared that the derived dimensions were sufficiently independent. It seems that the measurements are consistent with the theoretically derived dimensions and it may be concluded that the measurement model is construct valid. The internal consistency of the measurement is reliable with strong composite reliability being found. Cross-validating the measurement model revealed a similar structure. This provides confidence that the model could be used across different populations to increase the generalization and reliability of results. This result also implied that the measurement of each latent variable in the structural model was robust and reported satisfactory fit indices. No mechanical modifications to the structural model were carried out, mainly

because they were not theoretically justified and most fit indices reported an acceptable fit. The final model is able to explain 47% of the total variation in *Attitude towards the Advertisement,* 26% of the total variation in *Attitude towards Hong Kong* and 9% of the total variation in *Visitation Intentions*. As a result, the hypothesized structural model has a strong statistical ability to predict Chinese mainland respondents' attitude towards the advertisement and their attitude towards Hong Kong and to a lesser extent their visitation intentions.

6.3 Attractiveness

Regarding the attractiveness dimension, the only indicator that did not perform well is *sexy*. Perhaps this item is too sensitive for respondents to evaluate during the face-to-face interview. In addition, from the CFA it appeared that the dimension could not explain the variance in the item sufficiently, and was therefore deleted. It appears that all celebrity endorsers are attractive, as measured by the four remaining indicators, elegant, attractive, handsome/beautiful and classy. These items all show positive mean values. Regarding the structural relationships, *Attractiveness* only has a significant positive impact on *Attitude towards Hong Kong*, however, no significant impact on *Attitude towards the Advertisement* was found. While the estimate between *Attractiveness* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement* is in the hypothesized direction, it is not supported due to the insignificant *t*-value. Studies report that physically attractive models used in advertising lead to favourable attitudes towards the ad and purchase intentions (Patzer, 1983; Petroshius & Crocker, 1989).

However, other studies are unable to detect any effect of endorser's attractiveness (Caballero & Solomon, 1984; Caballero, Lumpkin, & Madden, 1989; Cooper, Darley, & Henderson, 1974). The products employed in the former studies are not directly related to a user's activeness, which may explain the contradictory findings. The argument is that attractive celebrities are more effective endorsers for products that are used to enhance one's attractiveness (Kamins, 1990). Scholars indicate there is a minimal impact of celebrity attractiveness on product and advertisement evaluations when the product is not related to the user's physical attractiveness (Baker & Churchill, 1977, Friedman & Friedman, 1979, Joseph, 1982; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Peterson & Kerin, 1977). It may explain why this study found an insignificant relationship between *Attractiveness* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement*, as the endorsed product (destination) is not directly related to the user's physical attractiveness. On the other hand, the *Attitude towards Hong Kong* is significantly positively affected by *Attractiveness.* This concurs with previous research indicating that physically attractive communicators are successful in changing beliefs (Chaiken, 1979; Dion et al., 1972). Therefore, advertisers tend to appoint physically attractive endorsers rather than unattractive ones, based on the belief that physically attractive people are more liked. Physically attractive endorsers appear to cause the advertisement to be more effective in inducing favourable responses to the advertised brand (Pornpitakpan, 2003). Studies indicate that using attractive models have a positive effect on affective evaluation of brand attitude (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Johnson & Harrington, 1998; Till & Busler, 1998). Therefore, as expected, the perceived attractive celebrity endorsers may have caused the positive and significant relationship between a celebrity endorsers' attractiveness and people's attitude towards a destination.

6.4 Expertise

This study modelled *Expertise* as a factor for celebrity endorsement effectiveness and it has significant positive effects on the respondent's *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and significant positive effects on respondent's *Attitude towards Hong Kong*. These findings correspond with previous research, which found that the endorser's expertise affects attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards an endorsed brand (Friedman et al., 1976; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Maddux & Rogers, 1980; Shimp, 2000; Stafford et al., 2002; Till & Busler, 1998). The findings of this study also verify the positive effect a credible endorser has on consumers' attitudes towards the ad and the brand (Atkin & Block, 1983; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Goldberg & Hartwick, 1990; Mitchell & Olson, 1981). However, the construct of *Expertise* in the current study is slightly different from Ohanian's original *Expertise* construct. Her trustworthiness indicators *honest* and *trustworthiness* appeared to load onto the *Expertise* construct for this study. Interestingly, previous studies that formed a baseline for Ohanian's work produced similar findings. For example, Simpson and Kahler (1980) found that 'trustworthiness' belonged to the 'expertise' construct and they note that 'honest' seemed to represent 'believability'. Perhaps the *Expertise* construct combined with *honest* and *trustworthiness* could be renamed as the 'believability' construct. The 'believability' construct may be able to represent the knowledge that the communicator perceives to possess in order to support the claims made in the advertisements. At the same time, this modified construct could represent the extent to which these claims are provided in an honest and trustworthy way.

6.5 Trustworthiness

The current study did not identify the trustworthiness dimension. The many cross-loadings of measurement items (*reliable, dependent,* and *sincere*) made it virtually impossible to identify the latent variable during the pilot study. Pornpitakpan (2003) also excluded the variable *sincere,* as it was too difficult to evaluate for the respondents. The two remaining indicators, *honest* and *trustworthiness* appeared to load onto the component *Expertise* in the pilot study. This result was also confirmed by the CFA for the main survey data analysis. Although trustworthiness is found to be an important factor in persuasive communication research, it appears to be irrelevant among respondents for evaluating the credibility of the celebrity endorser. Moreover, trustworthiness appeared to have a minimal impact in Ohanian's source credibility study too. She argues that this is because respondents do not associate a high level of trustworthiness with individuals who are paid generously to promote a product. This fact may also be true for the current findings. However, the respondents did not mention this issue. During the main survey, the respondents expressed their concern about the trustworthiness and accuracy of the celebrity's image portrayed in the media. Indeed, Ohanian (1991) refers to trustworthiness as the consumer's confidence in the source for providing information in an objective and honest manner. She refers to the source as the celebrity endorser; however, for the current study it appears that the respondents refer to the source as the media. It shows that media as a source, reporting information regarding the celebrities, is an incredible source, so therefore their information may be inaccurate. Ohanian (1991) goes on to say that most people would consider a good friend to be trustworthy on most matters.

However, while sales personnel often have more knowledge on a particular subject than an inexpert friend, many consumers doubt salespeople's trustworthiness because of the potential conflict of interest. Research indicates that when the source possessed self-interest in the topic, it produced differences in how trustworthy the participants perceived the sources to be (Kelman & Hovland, 1953). In addition, Priester and Petty (2003) note that if message recipients are unsure as to whether a source provides accurate information because of low or questionable trustworthiness, they may feel the need to scrutinize the arguments to ascertain if the communication is indeed cogent and valid. This may explain why the media as a source was not perceived trustworthy due to the potential conflict of interest. The commercial media performs a significant role in the interpretation of a celebrity image, as well as the familiarity and obsession that may accompany celebrities (Andrews & Jackson, 2001). The respondents mentioned that there is a perceived self-interest of portraying bad news about celebrities as this would be more interesting and helpful in increasing sales. Even though the respondents were aware of the negative news around the celebrity (e.g., Britney Spears) it was felt impolite and inappropriate to rate the celebrity trustworthiness negatively. It appears to be inappropriate because the respondents could not rely on their personal knowledge to assess the trustworthiness of a spokesperson. In addition, the respondents could not rely on the media as they declared they did not trust them as a source providing celebrity information. This study sheds light on the appropriateness of trustworthiness as a dimension to examine source credibility for a celebrity endorser. It appears that the trustworthiness of the celebrity endorser depends on the media providing information about the celebrity.

6.6 Effect of Attitude on Visitation Intentions

There is clear evidence that the emotions advertising arouses carries over to products and brands and studies have often shown that attitude is a strong mediator of advertising effectiveness (Batra & Ray, 1986; Bruner & Kumar, 2000; MacKenzie et al., 1986; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Stevenson, Bruner, & Kumar 2000). The majority of these studies have focused on the study of attitude towards the advertisement and brand as a causal mediating variable in the process through which advertising influences these attitudes and behavioral intentions as a result. However, the direct effects and their implications will be addressed first. Both constructs *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong* have positive and significant effects on *Visitation Intentions*. This supports the findings of previous studies (Bruner & Kumar, 2000; McMillan, Hwang, & Lee, 2003; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Stevenson et al., 2000). Although these studies vary in their context, they have shown a strong positive relationship between attitude towards an object (advertisement and brand) and behavioral intentions. In a similar vein, the results of this study suggest that significant determinants of an individual's intention to visit a destination are their attitude towards the advertisement and their attitude towards the destination. Therefore, this indicates that mainland Chinese respondents who have a positive attitude towards both the advertisement and Hong Kong tend to have intentions to visit Hong Kong. This study views both attitude dimensions as a tourist's affective pre-disposition towards a future visitation to a destination, which is similar to the affective dimension of a destination image (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997; White, 2005). Chaiken and Stangor (1987) indicate that attitude studies generally supports the notion that behavior is

affected by the attitude and perception of the situation in which the particular decision is being made. In effect, this suggests that the use of an attitude as a basis for a behavioral decision is governed in part by situational factors that influence its accessibility in memory (Wyer & Rashmi, 2008). In such a context, it follows that people's behavioral intentions towards objects are reflective of their attitudes towards those objects (Singh, Slotkin, & Vamosi, 2007). Both attitude dimensions in this study are conceptualized as an evaluation of an object along a positive-negative dimension (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Tesser & Martin, 1996). Although attitudes towards a behavior may generally be a stronger determinant of intention to engage in it, than are attitudes towards the object of this behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), this does not mean that attitudes towards the object play no role at all (Wyer & Rashmi, 2008). Perhaps it is more useful to say that attitudes are summary evaluations that are formed by affective experiences with the attitude object, beliefs about the object and behaviors directed towards the object (Weiss & Ilgen, 2002). Each of these former elements of attitude can be seen as a different piece of information that helps form the attitude (Crites, Fabrigar, & Petty, 1994; Olson & Zanna, 1993). Wyer and Rashmi (2008) argue that it is quite likely that behavioral decisions that stimulate the deliberative processing described by the Fish-Ajzen model (attitude towards the overt action) are only a small subset of those that occur in daily life. The authors refer to an important implication for social psychological research when investigating people's attitude towards an object; once a stimulus (celebrity endorser) has been evaluated based on information that is available at the time of judgment, this evaluation is stored in memory and may later be retrieved and used as a basis for subsequent judgment independently of the information that gave rise to its construction (Carlston, 1980; Srull & Wyer, 1980; Sherman, Ahlm, Berman, & Lynn, 1978).

From a product perspective, the affect elicited by contextual stimuli is assumed to become associated with the product, leading the product to elicit the feelings later and increasing the likelihood of purchasing it (Gorn, 1982; Morris & Boone, 1998). Within a spokesperson context, consumers learn something about the product or service, modify their attitudes based on that learning, and then act on their revised attitudes (Burroughs & Feinberg, 1987). Without doubt, tourists will pass through several stages when making a decision in a similar way as buyers of general consumer products. For the present study, this may suggest that if tourists form a favourable attitude towards a destination and advertisement based on a celebrity endorsement, the evaluation may be later retrieved and used as a basis for a visitation decision. However, one's attitude towards an advertisement and a destination are not the only basis for a visitation decision; it depends on many other influencing factors. For example, visitation intentions for a tourism destination are also influenced by physical destination attributes (attractions) and perceived value of the destinations (Baloglu, 1998). Hence, further research efforts are required to examine the effects of tourist attitude on the decision making process along with other behavioral determinants.

6.7 Mediating Effects of Attitude on Visitation Intentions

Regarding the mediating effects, the results show that the direct effects of *Attractiveness* and *Expertise* on *Visitation Intentions* were both insignificant. Johnson and Harrington (1998) note that without doubt attractive celebrity endorsers positively improve attitudes towards advertising and brands, but whether they are able to create purchase intentions is uncertain. The findings of this study appear to verify their claim. In addition, the insignificant relationship between attractiveness and purchase

intentions is also reported by Ohanian (1991). She reports that the attractiveness of the celebrity has an insignificant impact on respondents' intentions to purchase the products endorsed by each of the four celebrities used as examples. This study concurs with Ohanian's explanation that the insignificant direct relationship between attractiveness and visitation intentions could be explained by the fact that most celebrity endorsers are attractive. One only has to watch television or look at advertisements to see that most endorsers are physically attractive people. Therefore, the respondents may have a mind set in which attractiveness may not be an important factor in their final decision-making process. Although Ohanian (1991) reported that perceived expertise of the celebrities is a significant factor in explaining the respondents' intentions to purchase, this study did not find a significant direct relationship between expertise and respondents' intentions to visit. The results of this study correspond with the findings of Stafford et al. (2002). They found and argued that there has been general agreement that high credibility sources tend to cause favourable evaluations of advertisements and brands but do not necessarily affect purchase intentions. The positive and significant indirect effect of attitude on visitation intentions coincides with previous studies. Research supports the mediated effects of attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards the brand on purchase intentions (Biehal et al., 1992; Burke & Edell, 1989; MacKenzie et al., 1986; Miniard et al., 1990; Mitchell & Olson, 1981). These findings also apply to tourism, as scholars found that attitude towards a destination influences travellers' intentions (Court & Lupton, 1997; Goodrich, 1978; Milman & Pizam, 1995). Hence, attitude appears to be one of the transporters of information for the subjective evaluation of visitation intentions and is suggested it should be included in future endorsement frameworks.

6.8 Visitation Intentions

Fowler (1995) notes that "*asking people to predict their response to a future or hypothetical situation should be done with considerable caution, particularly when respondents are likely to have limited direct experience on which to base their answers*" (p. 80). In light of this information, selection criteria was put in place in assuming the respondents were able to make a travel decision to Hong Kong. Research suggests that the best predictor of behavioural intention and future actual behaviour is the frequency of past relevant behaviour (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998; Quellette & Wood, 1998). Therefore, this study only targeted novices, to rule out past experience. However, none of the celebrity endorsers were able to influence visitation intentions more positively than the control group. This may mean that celebrity endorsement may not necessarily be better than no celebrity endorsement in order to influence visitation intentions. Moreover, one could argue that the explanatory power of the model for visitation intentions being 9% is considered low. However, for behavioural science it is still considered as a medium effect and deemed acceptable. In addition, the context may have been influenced by extraneous variables or constraints of travel such as cost, time, trip duration (Botha, Crompton, & Kim, 1999; Dellaert, Ettema, & Lindh, 1998; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Moutinho, 1987; Schmoll, 1977) and social influences, such as friends and families (Middleton, 1994; Moutinho, 1987; Schmoll, 1977). Many of these intervening variables are not always available and/or they are simply not quantifiable. Several of these variables influence the complex tourist' decision process and attractiveness of the destination in particular which are simply beyond the destination marketing agency's control (Crouch, 1994; Faulkner, 1997; McWilliams & Crompton, 1997).

This study only examined one stimulus, that of celebrity endorsement and its relative impact. Furthermore, there appears to be a gap between the relatively high explanatory power for the attitude dimensions and visitation intentions. This is probably because behavioural intentions require consumers to exhibit a higher level of commitment than attitude formation (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995). As previously indicated, the model is able to explain 47% of the total variation in *Attitude towards the Advertisement and* 26% of the total variation in *Attitude towards Hong Kong.* In addition, the celebrity endorsers influenced both attitude dimensions significantly more positively than the control group. This could mean that celebrity endorsement may be better than no celebrity endorsement in order to influence tourists' attitude. Although stimulating visitation intentions is important, the impact relating to tourists' attitude might be as valuable to a DMO as well. Tourism marketing efforts should also be designed to create positive feelings among the potential tourists and these feelings are an important factor in evaluating potential destinations for travelling (Dann, 1996; Mohsin, 2005). The consumer ties affective associations such as positive, neutral or negative feelings to a destination (Woodside & Lysonki, 1989) and these emotional evaluations are referred to as attitudes (Shimp, 2000). Consumption processes are influenced by the attitudes of the buyers and knowledge of these attitudes are useful for marketing purposes (Mohsin, 2005). Moreover, attitude serves as a reliable indicator of how people act under a given set of circumstances (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). Pike (2006) goes as far to say that ultimately, destination competitiveness is decided by attitude in the market place. Thus, the proposed model may be of valuable use to DMOs in order to foresee respondents' attitude towards the advertisement and the destination, and to a lesser extent their visitation intentions to the destination endorsed.

6.9 Moderating effects

The continuous moderating dimension *Matchup*, reported significant moderation effects for the relationship between *Expertise* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong*, however no significant moderation effects were found for the relationship between *Expertise* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement*. Only the relationship between source credibility factors, trustworthiness and expertise and the attitude factors is specified. The reason for this is that credibility is found to be more appropriate for matching products with a celebrity endorser than attractiveness (Till & Busler, 1998, 2000). However, there seems no moderation effect for the relationship between *Expertise* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement* as this may not be an important factor for the respondents to objectively evaluate an advertisement. Significant moderating impacts of *Matchup* on the relationship between *Expertise* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong* were found across all the celebrity endorsers. This could be explained by the congruency of the hedonic features of the celebrities and the destination endorsed. Perhaps the celebrities employed for this study have a hedonic appeal, which can be linked to hedonic activities such as travelling to and around the destination. Koernig and Page (2002) found that consumers would trust and respect the celebrity's choice for a fun service, but these attributions are significantly lower for a more utilitarian service. The destination does not represent a typically commercial product as used in previous studies (Dr. Andrew Chan, 29 March, *personal communication*). The hedonic offering of the destination might be considered more personal, fun, experiential, and/or pleasurable (Ahtola, 1985; Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994) as it would certainly be value expressive (Johar & Sirgy, 1991).

It has already been thought that spokespeople can be effective in the promotion of hedonic activities (Wakefield & Barnes, 1996). In addition, Koernig and Page (2002) note the existence of a hedonic-utilitarian continuum of the celebrity appeal. Hence, the moderating effects might be caused by the hedonic appeal of the celebrity endorser, which apparently matched the hedonic offering of the destination.

6.10 Theoretical Contributions

An existing model developed by Ohanian (1991) has been selected and modified to explain celebrity endorsement effectiveness. This study investigates whether celebrity endorsement allows destination marketers to communicate and enhance the perceived destination image through print advertisements towards an appropriate target market. It is important to continually improve conceptual frameworks as this might alter our understanding of the phenomena and existing relationships. One way to demonstrate the value of a proposed change is to identify how a change affects the accepted relationships between the variables (Whetten, 1989). Therefore, one of the aims of this study is to examine how the accepted relationship that exist between celebrity endorsement and behavioural intentions change, when mediating constructs and a moderating variable are introduced. Generally speaking, a mediator can be thought of as the carrier or transporter of information along the causal chain of effects and a moderator, on the other hand, is the changer of a relationship within a system (Little, Bovaird, & Card, 2007). The proposed inclusion addresses multiple elements of the conceptual framework and takes responsibility for designing an improved concept. The proposed change to the established relationship is exemplified by introducing two Attitude dimensions as mediators and Matchup as a moderator within an existing conceptual framework.

The tests of mediation and moderation in SEM managed to provide strong empirical evidence of 'for or against' mediation or moderation hypotheses, particularly as effects are corrected for measurement error (Little et al., 2007). As a result, the proposed inclusion of the mediator and moderator changed current thinking regarding the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement on behavioural intentions. New applications should improve the tool and not merely reaffirm its utility (Whetten, 1989) and it is important that scholars learn something new about the framework itself as a result of working with it under different conditions. For a conceptual framework to be meaningful in analyzing a certain social phenomenon, it should be flexible and applicable across a wide variety of contexts, where similar questions can be asked of the data being supplied, irrespective of the scale of the studies (Harrison, 2007). The model proposed has never been explored before. The process intends to explain celebrity endorsement effectiveness for decision making within a tourism context. The celebrity endorsement studies that have focused on factors of different product types or various celebrity endorsement effects have provided the necessary basis for this research. Although these studies have laid a solid theoretical foundation in identifying the celebrity endorsement effects among different groups of products, it is interesting to investigate the effects of celebrity endorsement among different types of consumers, in this case among tourists and to confirm the assumptions still hold. In doing so, this study has enhanced confidence in the fact that the findings are valid and generalizable, as this study has produced similar findings but in a different context (Eisenhardt, 1989). The result is a framework with stronger internal validity, generally broader and a higher conceptual level. The model not only contributes to the field of tourism, but also contributes to the knowledge of consumer behaviour in general.

By including the two mediating constructs and a moderating variable in explaining celebrity endorser effectiveness on tourists' responses, the current study puts forward a more comprehensive conceptual framework in reflecting the complicated phenomenon of celebrity endorsement.

6.11 Practical Contributions

To our knowledge, there have been no studies that have examined the impact of celebrity endorsers on tourist attitudes and their intent to visit the destination. The results of this study may be of interest to DMOs as it provides practical assistance in selecting an appropriate celebrity endorser for a destination. By assessing the celebrity endorsement effectiveness using the proposed model, marketing practitioners can gain a more complete understanding of the impact that certain celebrity endorsers may have on tourist's attitude and their visitation intentions. The proposed model is able to assess several celebrity endorsers at the same time using an advanced statistical analysis such as SEM. After the assessment and by being able to develop a more effective communication program, the DMO is able to select the most appropriate celebrity endorser for a specific target market. Moreover, instead of hiring and appointing a popular celebrity endorser, one could use the proposed model to asses the effectiveness beforehand and thereby avoid spending large sums of money on service fees requested by most celebrity endorsers. Thus, it may be employed to asses the current image that a certain celebrity endorser has among the target market beforehand, thereby avoiding taking any risks. As this study is placed within a certain context, it may be of particular interest to the HKTB and the Hong Kong Tourism Commission.

Implications derived from the findings may provide useful information in considering promotional activities by appointing one of the four selected celebrity endorsers. With regard to China's potential contribution to Hong Kong's economy and in increasing volume of China's outbound tourism, this study may also be of interest to other tourism stakeholders in Hong Kong (e.g., Hong Kong Disneyland, Ocean Park and Ngong Ping 360). These large-scale attractions are often associated with Hong Kong and can initiate large-scale promotional campaigns to attract tourists. It may generate interest in exploring celebrity endorsement to support marketing activities in order to positively influence choice making among potential Mainland Chinese travellers. This study may help destination marketers assess the value of the collection of celebrity endorser assets and their effectiveness in positively influencing attitude and visitation intentions. By using the model, or at least in part, may help marketers explain and perhaps justify promotional activities. The following sections illustrate how the model could be employed as a selection of marketing tools.

6.11.1 Differentiation Tool

Images that destination marketing organisations convey are generally undifferentiated (Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott, 2002). However, a destination marketer should portray an image that sets the destination apart from competing alternatives and determine its ability to satisfy visitors' expectations (Ahmed, 1991; Aktaş et al., 2007; Morgan & Pritchard, 1998; Pearce, 1997; Seaton, 1996). Yet most destination images are relatively fixed. Therefore, it is believed that celebrity endorsements may offer an opportunity to differentiate destination images by going beyond a focus on activities, attributes and rational benefits.

In modern marketing and advertising, celebrity endorsements are employed to differentiate and position products, services or even political candidates from competitors, therefore the same principle could be applied to destination images. Differentiation is critical in the determination of destination choice (Blain et al., 2005; d'Hauteserre, 2001) as it may limit discounting (Aaker, 1997) and may prevent slippage into the maturation phase of the destination life cycle (Blain et al., 2005). Moreover, developing and maintaining a differentiated and positive destination image in line with targeted visitor groups should be regarded as an important destination marketing task (Lumsdon, 1997).

Although it is not possible to control all the elements intervening to differentiate the image of a destination, it is possible to manipulate some of them with the aid of advertising and other promotional instruments (Bigné et al., 2001). Dichter (1985) compared image to a symphony, the composition is melodious only when all players and instruments are properly integrated and tuned to each other. Hence, concentrated promotional efforts benefiting from the strengths of the endorsement claim may enhance the image of the destination as a whole. These claims could be regarded as unique representations of a destination and be printed in promotional materials to support destination images. The advertisements for this study were also discussed with a senior officer from the HKTB (see Appendix C3 for the transcription). The interviewee sees "*the local celebrity as a unique asset to the destination. For example, Jackie Chan was not born in Singapore or Taiwan. He relates to Hong Kong therefore no other competitor can take advantage of the relevancy in combining Hong Kong and Jackie Chan.*" Relating this to management theory, a company is said to have a sustained competitive advantage when it implements a value-creating strategy

that is not simultaneously being implemented and cannot be duplicated by another competitor (Barney, 2001). Hence, native celebrities would create a source of sustained competitive advantage to a destination as it is imperfectly imitable. The relevant combination cannot be duplicated by any other competitor, making it a promising instrument for differentiating the destination from competition. Increased competition from all quarters of the world merely reinforces the need to be different in offering something unique to visitors carrying currency in the marketplace. Traditionally, a disproportionately high percentage of marketing budgets has been spent on brochures and leaflets, but more educated and sophisticated visitors are demanding more varied communication efforts (Dore & Crouch, 2003; Foley & Fahy, 2004). The pressure is now on to differentiate as much as possible one destination from another (Fyall, Garrod, & Tosun, 2006) and incorporating a celebrity endorsement claim in promotional efforts might provide a valuable option for differentiation.

6.11.2 Segmentation Tool

As discussed earlier, the core product endorsed is the destination and this cannot, to any great extent, be modified. Therefore, it is necessary to find a market or segments of a market whose needs match the destination product rather than developing a product or service to meet identified and specific needs (Collier, 1999). Few destinations are universally acceptable and desired, suggesting that DMOs should not waste marketing resources to please all tourists. Instead, they should aim their efforts specifically to the wants and needs of likely prospects (McIntosh, Goeldner, & Ritchie, 2003; Middleton & Clarke, 2001). The model could assist in evaluating segment

membership as each segment may respond differently to a different celebrity endorser. Various members of a distinct segment could be identified and compared according to similarities of responses. Should a certain celebrity have a positive effect on one segment this would not necessarily be true for another segment and vice versa. The latter indicates that on some occasions a celebrity endorser might even be employed for de-marketing purposes. Some segments display a higher sensitivity to tourism promotion than others, and the promotional sensitivity may depend on the destination being promoted and its relationship with the origin country (Crouch, 1994). For example, in the Netherlands, there are radio commercials that promote holidays to the Greek Islands, which were endorsed by world famous disc jockeys. These islands would appeal to a certain segment of Dutch holidaymakers, especially youngsters. On the other hand, there were also radio commercials that promoted Vienna in Austria endorsed by famous classical musicians. These endorsements may make Vienna less appealing for the previous segment, but may create more interest to the senior market. Destinations recognize that some segments are more attractive than others due to variations in segment size, growth potential or competition (Guiltinan & Paul, 1994). Some segments can be perceived as growth opportunities and as such, a destination with limited resources needs to pick up only the best opportunities to pursue (Beane & Ennis, 1987). In such a context, it is perhaps more important to select those visitors necessary to achieve maximum profitability and value for both parties (Newell, 1997). By implementing the model to assess the effectiveness of the celebrity endorser in which attitude constructs and intention measurements were the dependent variables, the result could be used to illustrate a market's attitude and intentions to visit and/or assist in capturing significant segments of a particular market that positively responds to the endorsement claim.

6.11.3 Selection Tool

Given the extensive fee paid to celebrities for attaining objectives such as getting attention, improving a brand's image and positioning a brand (Kaitaki, 1987), it is important that celebrity-product pairing is wisely considered. Selection and risk assessment function of the model was touched upon earlier. This section further elaborates on the model as a selection tool. Past research findings provide modest direction to DMOs in selecting celebrity endorsers for their advertising campaign. Considering that no study has applied celebrity endorsement to destination decision making before, this study proposes a model that connects specific dimensions to identify a celebrity endorser that may take responsibility for having a higher probability to infer positive attitudes and intentions to visit a destination. Since the 'gut-feeling' or 'having a good relationship with celebrity xyz' approach may not necessarily be the most appropriate method for selecting an celebrity endorser, this study puts forward a model that may constitute a more objective and justified method for selecting a celebrity for endorsement purposes. The innovative and advanced statistical techniques applied in this study were able to identify causal relationships between the constructs of interest and at the same time allow selection of the appropriate endorser based on the major dimensions. In this study, Andy Lau appears to be the most familiar and likeable celebrity endorser among the four celebrity groups with Britney Spears as the least familiar and likable. However, the Q rates only measure the celebrity's marketable popularity and familiarity (Slinker, 1984 as cited in Ohanian, 1991). When looking at the other research dimensions, it appears that the native celebrities (Andy Lau and Maggie Cheung) consistently perform significantly better in positively influencing people's attitude than the non-native

celebrities (David Beckham and Britney Spears). This is mainly due to their higher rating of perceived expertise and their matchup towards the destination. This is not unexpected and corresponds with pervious research that indicates satisfactory advertising effectiveness exists when congruence between the characteristics of the endorser and the endorsed product is present (Basil, 1996; Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Kamins et al., 1989, 1990; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; McCracken, 1989; Misra & Beatty, 1990; Mittelstaedt & Riesz, 2000; Pringle & Binet, 2005). It appears that there is a certain degree of effectiveness because the native celebrities in the advertisements for Hong Kong illustrate personal relevance towards the brand endorsed. Although the celebrities were rated positively the remaining construct *Attractiveness* is not a decisive factor for most respondents. In general, it appears that And Lau is the most appropriate celebrity endorser for Hong Kong in terms of his perceived expertise and association to Hong Kong. Selecting Britney Spears as the endorser for Hong Kong does not appear to go without risks. This is also confirmed by the interviewee who expressed concerns in appointing Britney Spears as an endorser for Hong Kong due to lack of relevance between the celebrity and the destination. Furthermore, the findings illustrate that the two native celebrity endorsers are probably more appropriate spokespeople for the destination than the two non-native celebrity endorsers. As a result, the model allows comparison of celebrity endorsers based upon the constructs in order to assist marketing managers in proficiently selecting their celebrity endorsers. The comparison of constructs may help marketing managers effectively select a celebrity endorser and position him or her in a promotional campaign to entice the potential visitors in a tailor made fashion. The marketing manager can use this information to develop advertising and promotion programs.

Applying the model to other media formats might help to select an appropriate endorser and facilitates decisions on required marketing expenditures and allocations (Fitzgibbon, 1987). In other words, destination marketing managers could integrate the model into their market analysis to predict whether their customers have a positive attitude towards the destination and the advertisement. This may lead to intentions to visit the destination which were generated by the endorsement claim made. The resulting data provide concrete, practical insights that may help researchers and practitioners in selecting an appropriate celebrity endorser to target prospective markets.

6.12 Win-win situation

Currently, it seems to be an unrealistic aim for a DMO to contract a world famous celebrity endorser simply due to resource constraints and the enormous investment required. In practice, the budget for the DMO is limited and does not allow any management or marketing activities to go beyond a basic level (Blumberg, 2005). Even though the industry contribution has been rising consistently as political authorities ask the travel industry to share the financial burden of destination marketing campaigns (Bonham & Mak, 1996; Bowes, 1988), it might not persist (Blumberg, 2005). For example, with the campaign 'Visit London', large sums were made available to 'make things happen' and have afforded a step change in marketing activity within London and a greater ability for the tourism authorities to retain a sense of control over how the destination is positioned and marketed (Fyall & Leask, 2006). However, not every destination or city is able to generate sufficient funds to appoint a celebrity endorser.

Cooperation (e.g., public-private partnerships) has been identified as the key factor in destination marketing in order to overcome both resource constraints and limited influence (Dickman, 1999; Horner & Swarbrooke, 1996). It seems that the migration from the traditional division that has always existed between the public and private sectors is beginning to change (Bennett, 1999), which might provide optimism for future destination endorsement campaigns. At this stage, the study follows the view of the interviewee from the HKTB. "*By appointing a local celebrity endorser one can create a win-win partnership for both the endorser and the destination. The destination can leverage on the values, popularity and image of the celebrity. The celebrity, as the ambassador or spokesperson of a destination, can benefit from the goodwill generated among the community by showing his or her love, commitment and passion to the destination. The partnership is appreciated by both the fans, visitors and other people with an interest in the destination*". The HKTB is already using celebrity endorsement to support their marketing efforts. Karen Mok, a famous entertainer in Hong Kong appeared in a special shopping guide distributed to visitors at stations and airports. During Christmas 2007, the popular singers Twins were appointed to promote the festival and shopping season in Hong Kong. Hence, at this moment it seems feasible to request a local celebrity endorser to promote his or her destination to the outside world voluntarily or for a reasonable fee. This might create a situation where both parties gain from the cooperation and hopefully with a favourable outcome. Many of the existing examples found and mentioned at the beginning of this study appear to be a result of this. Perhaps in the future, DMOs will be able to generate sufficient funds to contract a world famous celebrity. However, they have to ensure that the celebrity is perceived by the target market as matched to the destination endorsed.

6.13 Summary

This chapter reviews the study findings and indicates how they relate to previous studies. Previous results partially supported the proposed model as it only identified two celebrity endorsement constructs. The trustworthiness dimension is not identified. Nevertheless, the remaining dimensions were able to achieve most of the study's objectives. It was found that tourist attitude towards the advertisement and destination were predictors of visit intention, whilst at the same time playing a mediating role between the celebrity endorsement dimensions and visitation intentions. The structural model reports a strong statistical ability to predict mainland Chinese respondents' attitude towards the advertisement and Hong Kong, and to a lesser extent their visitation intentions based on the celebrity endorsed print destination advertisement. Both the constructs and their structural relationships were discussed separately focusing on the consistency and/or inconsistency between the study findings and those of previous studies. While attractiveness and trustworthiness are important factors in persuasive communication research, they appear to have a minimal impact on the present study. Theoretical and practical contributions of the study were addressed, and the practical implications were presented as specific marketing tools.

Chapter 7 Conclusions

7.1 Foreword

This chapter brings a close to the study. A general overview of the study is presented, followed by a review of the research question and objectives. The objectives are discussed separately in order to identify to what extent they were achieved. The last section illustrates the limitations, with recommendations for future research proposed.

7.2 Overview of the study

Chapter 1 introduced the background to the study, defined the research problem and identified specific research questions and objectives. In view of a lack of prior research and contributions, the importance of this research is discussed. Chapter 2 reviewed the literature pertaining to the phenomenon of celebrity destination endorsement. The definitions and assumptions were discussed on a conceptual and practical level to address the boundaries for the study's objectives. The merits and shortcomings of celebrity endorsement and its related complexity were discussed respectively. In addition, literature addressing the mediating dimensions of attitude is reviewed and the congruency concept for the moderator dimension is discussed. Chapter 3 presented the conceptual framework of the study and hypothesized relationships among the research dimensions. It identified how the theoretical framework explains celebrity endorsement effectiveness for print destination advertising and how it is modified by including two mediators and one moderator. Chapter 4 illustrated the experimental research design, the pre-test and the pilot study.

In addition, it elaborated on the questionnaire design, the measurement items and the translation procedure. The quota sampling technique, sample characteristics and data collection method were discussed. Chapter 4 concludes with results of the pilot study, specification of the moderator and discussed SEM as a method of data analysis for the main survey. Chapter 5 discussed the results of the main survey and related hypotheses. It discusses the demographic characteristics of the respondents, quota sampling technique and the data preparation process. It was followed by a description of the procedure for establishing a reliable and valid measurement model and the structural model was fitted to the data to test the hypotheses. The chapter also illustrated the celebrity endorsement effects based on mean structure invariance and specifies how the most appropriate celebrity endorser is selected. Chapter 6 assessed performance of the model, the constructs and their structural relationships. In addition, it served to compare and contrast the findings with previous literature to highlight similarities and differences. Lastly, theoretical and practical contributions of the study were addressed and the practical implications were presented as specific marketing tools. In this final chapter, conclusions are drawn about each of the research objectives. This chapter concludes with a discussion to the limitations of the research and recommendations for future research. The next section goes over the findings generated in response to the research question and the research objectives.

7.3 Achievement of Research Objectives

The research question is; "*Is the celebrity endorser able to generate positive impacts on tourists' attitude and would this lead to positive visitation intentions?*" The objectives leading from this are discussed individually.

- Identify the underlying structure of celebrity endorsement factors (*Attractiveness*, *Trustworthiness* and *Expertise*).

Results of the PCA and the CFA partially supported the proposed dimensions. This study only identified two celebrity endorsement constructs *Attractiveness* and *Expertise*. The *Trustworthiness* dimension is not identified. Therefore, the objective is only partially achieved. However, this finding highlights the insufficiency of *Trustworthiness* as a dimension to examine source credibility for a celebrity endorser.

- Identify the underlying structure of the Mainland Chinese tourists' attitude towards the advertisement and their attitude towards the destination leading to visitation intentions.

Results of the PCA and the CFA fully supported the proposed constructs. This study identified two attitude constructs and the *Visitation Intentions* construct. Therefore, the objective is achieved. A three-factor underlying structure is identified relating to the proposed constructs, *Attitude towards the Advertisement, Attitude towards the Destination* and *Visitation Intentions.*

- Investigate how the celebrity endorsement factors influences tourists' attitude towards the advertisement and destination and whether this leads to visitation intentions.

This study found a significant and positive relationship between perceived attractiveness and tourist's attitude towards a destination. However, it identified an insignificant relationship between the *Attractiveness* and the *Attitude towards the Advertisement*. This may be due to the destination portrayed in the advertisement, which is not directly related to the user's physical attractiveness. *Expertise* reported significant positive effects on the respondent's *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and significant positive effects on the respondent's *Attitude towards Hong Kong*. These findings coincide with previous research. In addition, *Attitude towards the Advertisement* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong* reported positive and significant effects on *Visitation Intentions*, which are also reported by previous studies. It appears that the perceived attractiveness positively influences' mainland Chinese tourist's attitude towards Hong Kong, and perceived expertise positively influence tourist's attitude towards the advertisement and tourist's attitude towards Hong Kong, which in turn impacts positively on intentions to visit Hong Kong. Therefore, it is believed the objective is achieved through clarification of the following; effects of celebrity endorsement on consumer's attitude towards a destination and advertisement, their visitation intentions and contribution to the understanding of celebrity endorsement from a tourism perspective.

- Investigate whether tourists' attitude towards both the advertisement and destination mediates the impact of celebrity endorsement factors on visitation intentions.

The objective is achieved because this study found that *Attitude towards Hong Kong* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement* are mediating variables between the celebrity endorsement factors and *Visitation Intentions*. The positive and significant indirect effect of attitude on visitation intentions corresponds with previous studies. Attitude seems to be one of the transporters of information for the subjective evaluation of visitation intentions and suggests it should be included in future endorsement frameworks.

- Investigate whether the Matchup construct moderates the impacts of celebrity endorsement credibility factors on tourists' attitude towards the advertisement and the destination.

The continuous moderating *Matchup* dimension only reported significant moderation effects on the relationship between *Expertise* and *Attitude towards Hong Kong*. However, no significant moderation effects were found for the relationship between *Expertise* and *Attitude towards the Advertisement*. Because moderating effects were found for all the celebrities it might be caused by the hedonic appeal of the celebrity endorser, which appeared to match the hedonic offering of the destination. Therefore, it is believed the objective is achieved as this study assists in clarifying the moderation effects.

- Would destination print advertisements employing a celebrity endorser generate a more positive tourist attitude towards the destination than a destination print advertisement without a celebrity endorser?

Regarding the *Attitude towards Hong Kong,* all treatment groups performed significantly better than the control group with the exception of Britney Spears. By excluding Britney Spears, it is believed the objective is achieved, as the results illustrate that celebrity endorsement is significantly better than none in order to influence the attitude towards a destination.

- Would destination print advertisements employing a celebrity endorser generate a more positive tourist attitude towards the advertisement than a destination print advertisement without a celebrity endorser?

Excluding Britney Spears, it appears that celebrity endorsement may be better than no celebrity endorsement in order to influence the *Attitude towards the Advertisement.* The objective is achieved as the results are explained by the significantly lower latent variable mean score difference for the groups of Andy Lau and Maggie Cheung when compared to the control group.

- Would a destination print advertisement employing a celebrity endorser generate a more positive tourist visitation intention than a destination print advertisement without a celebrity endorser?

Even though the mean vectors of independent variable scores are in the hypothesized direction, none of the values for *Visitation Intentions* are significantly different from the control group. This could mean that celebrity endorsement may not necessarily be better than no celebrity endorsement in order to influence tourists' visitation intentions. The objective is achieved as evidence shows that none of the celebrity endorsers influenced visitation intentions more positively than the control group.

- Would destination print advertisements with native celebrity endorsers generate a more positive tourist attitude towards the destination than destination print advertisements with non-native celebrity endorsers?

Andy Lau or Maggie Cheung are able to generate a more positive attitude towards Hong Kong than Britney Spears, however this does not apply to David Beckham as the differences in mean scores are not significant. Hence, the objective is achieved as evidence indicates that the native celebrity endorsers are not significantly better in influencing the attitude towards Hong Kong.

- Would destination print advertisements with native celebrity endorsers generate a more positive tourist attitude towards the advertisement than destination print advertisements with non-native celebrity endorsers?

Both Andy Lau and Maggie Cheung reported significant lower mean values than David Beckham and Britney Spears for the *Attitude towards the Advertisement* construct. This may indicate that the two native celebrity endorsers influence the *Attitude towards the Advertisement* more positively than the two non-native celebrity endorsers, thereby achieving the objective.

- Select the most appropriate celebrity endorser for a destination print advertisement for Hong Kong.

The objective is achieved, as the study is able to select Andy Lau as the most popular celebrity endorser and as the most appropriate celebrity endorser in terms of his perceived *Expertise* and *Matchup,* to Hong Kong. Britney Spears is found to be the least appropriate celebrity endorser for Hong Kong as she reported significant higher mean values on all major constructs and Q-rates.

All questions associated with the research objectives are satisfactorily answered. They provide assistance in answering the overall research question. It appears that the celebrity endorser is able to generate a positive impact on tourists' attitude and that this leads to positive visitation intentions. However, celebrity endorsement may not necessarily be better than no celebrity endorsement in order to influence the visitation intentions. Nevertheless, this study found that celebrity endorsement is able to generate a more positive evaluation to attitude towards the destination and towards the advertisement than the control group. Therefore, the proposed model may be of valuable use to DMOs in order to foresee respondents' attitude towards the advertisement and towards the destination and to a lesser extent their visitation intentions to the destination endorsed. Moreover, it is believed that the model may help assess the celebrity endorsement effectiveness using the proposed model. Marketing practitioners can also gain a more complete understanding of the impact that a certain celebrity endorser may have on tourist's attitude towards the destination, towards the advertisement, and their visitation intentions accordingly.

As a result, by including the two mediating attitude constructs and a continuous moderator in explaining celebrity endorser effectiveness on people's attitude, the current study puts forward a more comprehensive conceptual framework in reflecting the complicated phenomenon of celebrity endorsement. The next section further elaborates on the contributions of this study.

7.4 Contributions

This study contributes to the understanding of tourist responses to celebrity endorsement by modifying Ohanian's (1991) model. It has done so by integrating two attitude constructs and a moderator variable into the model and testing its relationship with the celebrity endorsement factors and visitation intentions. This contribution is relevant as it expands the knowledge by identifying the mediated and moderated relationships, which were previously not integrated in Ohanian's (1991) model. In addition, this study provided practical contributions in various areas. Celebrity endorsement factors are found to affect tourists' attitude more positively than the control group. Tourism marketers can arrange promotional activities by contracting those celebrity endorsers that positively influence the tourists' attitude. As such, Hong Kong could stimulate positive images and become more competitive in attracting visitors from Mainland China. Identifying the underlying structure of the celebrity endorsement factors could help marketers adopt proactive measures to minimize the risks and maximize the effects of the most influential celebrity endorser. Nevertheless, there is plenty of scope in refining the model and applying it to other samples in different contexts. The following sections present the limitations of this study and the opportunities for future research endeavours.

7.5 Limitations

The sample data were collected from a particular group of people, therefore the findings, implications and conclusions of the study may not be able to generalize to any other group of individuals. The respondents for this research were largely confined to 1) Guangzhou residents 2), novice travellers to Hong Kong, 3) 20 years and older, 4) financially independent, and 5) knowledgeable about the celebrity endorser. Hence, the results may not be readily transferable to any other group of people that may deviate from these characteristics. Despite these restrictions, the study employed a successful quota sampling procedure and therefore able to represent the Guangzhou visitor to Hong Kong as closely as possible. The selection of respondents was purposeful to represent potential tourists for the short break market and the strata were taken from the visitor profile of HKTB. Therefore, the respondents were not randomly sampled from the population as a non-probability technique was employed. Although the field experiment made it practically unfeasible to assign the respondents randomly to treatment conditions, it ensured interviewer bias was avoided by introducing a sampling interval. Nevertheless, caution is warranted when generalizing the results of this study to other populations of interest. The study displays the celebrity endorser in a print advertisement and this reflects only one promotional medium and stimulus. There are many communication vehicles and information sources that help tourists to gaze on destinations. Furthermore, there are a number of established promotional instruments available and used by DMOs in order to create a positive attitude towards visiting the destination. Some of these instruments or stimuli may be even more appropriate in achieving certain destination objectives other than celebrity endorsement in a print advertisement.

The responsibility is left with the marketer, who is the primary agent in establishing the basic lens when representing a destination. Nevertheless, the marketing manager could be more confident in launching celebrity endorsed communication campaigns by employing the proposed model and considering the experiential manipulation aspects, as well as the process by which the tourist can gain access to information (Dann, 1996, 2003). As previously mentioned, the communication medium is restricted to the print advertisement and other formats could lead to different results. Other formats such as radio, internet, television, or other multimedia formats may have a different effect as they are less static and more interactive with the audience. The interactive effect of the celebrity endorser may have different effects on consumer evaluations. On the other hand, this would require actual participation from the celebrity and obtaining the assistance of such a prominent figure can be rather complicated. Although it is not within the scope of this study, is it acknowledged that some of the extrinsic cues, such as the design of the advertisement, picture of Hong Kong, picture of the celebrity endorser and slogan, may interact separately with the dimensions and influence the tourist's evaluation. Respondents for this study were asked to closely pay attention to the advertisement and to evaluate it. In such a situation, an increased sense of awareness and involvement might exist. Immediately after being exposed to the advertisement, the respondents were requested to complete the questionnaire. In addition, results may have differed if respondents were exposed across a longer time span and more repeatedly. Furthermore, tourists exposed to the advertisements in a natural setting (e.g., magazine or billboard) are likely to exercise different behaviours and evaluations. Although the advertisements were developed with much care by a semi-professional, they may not have as much 'stopping power' if produced by a professional advertising agency with much more experience and

resources. The design of the advertisement may not have been as outstanding, attention grabbing or creative as in practice, which may limit the applicability of the results to real marketing campaigns. Hence, a real-life setting and production may produce different results. While findings reported in the present study might provide additional insights into the phenomenon of celebrity destination endorsement, the generalized findings appear to be limited to Hong Kong and the four celebrities examined. Hong Kong is the specific target destination; however, tourists rarely make destination decisions by considering only one option. Hence, a broader range of endorsers, promotional media and destination need to be explored. In an ideal situation, the alternative causes (extraneous variables) of rival explanations should be kept constant (Harris, 1998) and the independent variable should be the only item that changes in the experiment. Extraneous variables may confound the relationship of variables in the study or cause a false interpretation of the relationship. For example, Stayman and Batra (1991) demonstrated that viewers of an advertisement who were in a positive affective state more strongly evoked the affect when given the brand name as a subsequent retrieval cue than viewers exposed to the advertisement while not in a positive affected state. Emotions have been found to serve as moderators in their impact on attitude towards the brand (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Similar findings have been reported for mood effects (Batra & Stayman, 1990; Batra & Stephens, 1994; Worth & Mackie, 1987), and the rationale is that positive moods or a positive affective state suppress counter-argumentation and may lead to a more favourable attitude towards the brand. These and other confounding effects may have influenced the results and should be controlled in future studies.

This study also manipulated the congruency of the endorser with the destination by requesting two types of celebrities (native versus non-native). However, the influence of the *Matchup* dimension may be limited to additional explanation. Chao et al. (2005) suggest that consumer ethnocentrism may have caused their sample of German-speaking Austrians to prefer buying the product endorsed by a German/Austrian non-celebrity to a US celebrity. Consumer ethnocentrism may have played a role in the respondents' preference in this study. The contextual factors influencing the responses to celebrity endorsement in a tourism setting have been restricted to various factors. These boundaries may have overlooked some parts that would further enlighten the complexity of tourists' evaluations and behaviour in a celebrity endorsement destination setting. There may be several factors that could affect tourist evaluation such as destination type, endorser type, promotional instrument and background of the tourists. Hence, there seems to be scope for future research in this area and it would be interesting to examine these factors for comparative purposes. Although this study has some limitations, by understanding the effects of celebrity endorsements, it provides an initial step towards understanding consumers responses to celebrity endorsement employed for destination print advertising. The next section provides recommendations for future research.

7.6 Future research

As previously mentioned, there seems to be many opportunities for future research, which broadly encompasses further refinement of the proposed model and testing among different populations across different contexts. Although the sample of respondents is much more varied than earlier studies, other groups of tourists are

necessary to enhance the generalization of the model. Respondents of this study conceptualized their opinions from the individualistic standpoint and derived from a specific cultural, political and social context (Andsager & Drzewiecka, 2002). Future research could assess whether the findings of this research that drew upon consumers of Chinese origin might transfer to consumers with a different cultural background. More importantly, the misidentification of the *Trustworthiness* dimension could be context specific and should be examined further. There are a number of ways the model could be further analysed. Rather than drawing on celebrity endorsers only, future studies could consider the inclusion of other types of endorsers (e.g., cartoon figures or typical consumer) for comparison reasons. In addition, other types of promotional media should be considered and compared to the traditional print format employed for this study. Internet offers a plethora of multimedia opportunities in which to produce creative and interactive celebrity destination endorsement campaigns. Mainland Chinese tourists planning to visit other destinations than Hong Kong could exhibit different attitudes and/or visitation intentions. This is because consumer motivations differ among individuals and across one decision-making context to another (Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Witt & Wright, 1992). Hence, the model could be further tested across other destinations. Hong Kong is a typically urban destination and testing the model with other types of destinations may provide different results. A celebrity endorser is a composite of various attributes to which consumers react (McCracken, 1989). The model only assesses expertise and attractiveness, which may simplify the dynamic nature of the celebrity's symbolic and cultural meanings (DeSarbo & Harshman, 1985). As celebrity endorsers and destinations have various attributes and characteristics, it makes sense that congruency may exist on certain ones and mismatches on others.

Application of the model across different celebrities and/or endorser types to a number of different destinations and/or destination types would be greatly enhanced. When improvements are introduced to the model it may provide further insight into the complexity of celebrity destination endorsement. Additional research is required in respect to the relationship between testimonials and effectiveness of celebrity destination endorsement. Endorsement can be made in an explicit mode (I recommend this destination) or the implicit mode (I visited this destination). This study only looked at mere exposure, where the celebrity endorser simply appears with the destination. The effects of repetitive exposure to celebrity destination endorsement on attitude formation or change may also serve as an interesting future study. Repeated exposure has been found to strengthen attitudes over time (Grossman & Till, 1998) thus future research should examine the long-term effects of celebrity destination endorsement campaigns. Data could be collected at different points in time from the same sample of respondents. Although both constructs had a positive effect on tourist's attitude and visitation intentions, other research constructs may also have significant effects on visitation intention, or may influence visitation intention indirectly through their impact on tourist attitude. Therefore, future studies applying or modifying the model should also consider using other constructs and/or intervening variables. It appears that there is plenty of potential to further explore criterion-based models that are capable of selecting celebrity endorsers reflected by a set of descriptors (attractiveness and expertise) with respect to the criterion (attitude and intentions). The proposed model and other theories of buying behaviour, decision-making and communication behaviour frameworks, mainly focus on the level of the individual.

Tourism activities are intensively group-based (Filiatrault & Ritchie, 1980; Jenkins, 1978; Myers & Moncrief, 1978; Litvin, Xu, & Kang, 2004) and the family represents the predominant social group within which people spend leisure time (Nichols & Snepenger, 1988) and is the social structure of most importance for vacation travel (Crompton, 1981). Therefore, future models should attempt to incorporate a joint and syncratic decision-making process. Various scholars refer to the joint and syncratic decision-making process for destination selection (Crompton, 1992; Decrop, 1999; Dimanche & Havitz, 1994; Engel et al., 1995; Goodall, 1991; Holbrook, 1993; Hudson, 1999; Mansfeld, 1992; Mottiar & Quinn, 2004; Moutinho, 1987; Teare, 1992; van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Mäser & Weiermair, 1998; Zalatan, 1998). However, the great majority of tourism research continues to obtain data for the study of travel decisions by interviewing only one of the individuals involved in the choice process (Ritchie, 1994 as cited in Decrop & Snelders, 2004). It remains difficult to examine and involve all of those who participate in the decision-making process and who will actually go on vacation together (Decrop, 2005). "*The difficulty with treating households (or any other group) as a single unit is that the separate identities of the individuals that make up the household and the dynamics of how they influence the decision of the household are unobserved*" (Mottiar & Quinn, 2004: 151). Nevertheless, it is clear that ignoring the group is likely to significantly reduce the effectiveness of a tourism marketer's efforts when the family sits down to make its vacation purchase decision (Litvin et al., 2004). Future research should develop models that account for the role of joint decisions, as they are more generalizable than individual-based models in the destination selection process.

7.7 Summary

This chapter provides an overview of the study and discusses the achievement of the research objectives separately. This is followed by addressing the limitations of the study from which future research directions were suggested. It appears that findings from this research may not be directly transferable to other celebrity destination endorsement settings. Future research should validate the model in other settings, and cross-sectional and/or longitudinal studies would be valuable and meaningful to this line of inquiry. Limitations for the current study focus on issues regarding the generalization of findings.

From these limitations a number of opportunities were raised that could be addressed by future research. In summary, this study provides a conceptual framework for understanding tourist's responses to celebrity endorsement for a print destination advertisement and explores the impact of the celebrity endorser on these responses. The model contributes to knowledge, as it is a first thoroughly researched step towards understanding of tourists' responses to celebrity endorsement in a destination selection context. The model presented is built from both conceptual and empirical research, and provides a basis for further research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: PRE-TEST

Appendix A1: Asian Male Celebrities (English Version)

Please list down all the names of the active Asian male celebrities from Hong Kong you can remember, *other* than Jackie Chan. He should be a local and indigenous person from Hong Kong. There is no need to complete the list, just mention as many as you can remember. Either their Chinese or English name.

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

6_____

7_____

8_____

9_____

10_____

Appendix A2: Asian Female Celebrities (English Version)

Please list down all the names of the active Asian female celebrities from Hong Kong you can remember. She should be a local and indigenous person from Hong Kong. There is no need to complete the list, just mention as many as you can remember. Either their Chinese or English name.

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

6_____

7_____

8_____

9_____

10_____

Appendix A3: Non-Asian Male Celebrities (English Version)

Please list down all the names of the active non-Asian male celebrities outside Hong Kong you can remember. He should be international and non-indigenous person to Hong Kong. There is no need to complete the list, just mention as many as you can remember. Either their Chinese or English name.

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

6_____

7_____

8_____

9_____

10_____

Appendix A4: Non-Asian Female Celebrities (English Version)

Please list down all the names of the active non-Asian female celebrities outside Hong Kong you can remember. She should be international and non-indigenous person to Hong Kong. There is no need to complete the list, just mention as many as you can remember. Either their Chinese or English name.

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

6_____

7_____

8_____

9_____

10_____

Appendix A5: Asian Male Celebrities (Chinese Version)

请列出您能想到的所有香港男性名人的名字（除了成龙以外）。 他必须是土生土长的香港人并且现在仍然在世。这个调查没有数量的限制，您想到多少就写多少。您可以写下他们的中文或者英文名字。

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

6_____

7_____

8_____

9_____

10_____

Appendix A6: Asian Female Celebrities (Chinese Version)

请列出您能想到的所有香港女性名人的名字。 她必须是土生土长的香港人并且现在仍然在世。这个调查没有数量的限制，您想到多少就写多少。您可以写下他们的中文或者英文名字。

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

6_____

7_____

8_____

9_____

10_____

Appendix A7: Non-Asian Male Celebrities (Chinese Version)

请列出您能想到的所有国际男性名人的名字。 他不能是亚洲人，必须来自亚洲以外的其他国家并且现在仍然在世。这个调查没有数量的限制，您想到多少就写多少。您可以写下他们的中文或者英文名字。

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

6_____

7_____

8_____

9_____

10_____

Appendix A8: Non-Asian Female Celebrities (Chinese Version)

请列出您能想到的所有国际女性名人的名字。 她不能是亚洲人，必须来自亚洲以外的其他国家并且现在仍然在世。这个调查没有数量的限制，您想到多少就写多少。您可以写下他们的中文或者英文名字。

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

6_____

7_____

8_____

9_____

10_____

Appendix A9: Result Pre-test for Celebrity Endorser Selection

Total of 111 cases for Hong Kong Male:	Score
1) Andy Lau	74
2) Donald Tsang	59
3) Jacky Cheung	54
4) Leung Chiu Wai	44
5) Tung Chee Hwa	43

Total of 111 cases for Hong Kong Female:	
1) Maggie Cheung	42
2) Chen Wai Lam	40
3) Anson Chan	38
4) Joey Yung	36
5) Gillian Chung	33

Total of 106 cases for International Female:	
1) Hilary Clinton	64
2) Britney Spears	40
3) Condoleezza Rice	35
4) Queen Elizabeth	30
5) Madonna	29

Total of 113 cases for International Male:	
1) George W. Bush	63
2) David Beckham	61
3) Bill Clinton	51
4) Tony Blair	31
5) Michael Jordan	31

Appendix A10: Selection Sheet Moderator Indicators (English Version)

Carefully study all the 30 words below. Circle five words that would describe a suitable association between a celebrity and a tourism destination.

Fit	Identical
Belong to	Comparable
Congruent	Echoing
Appropriate	Mirroring
Combine	Akin
Similar	Equate
Alike	Affiliate
Analogous	Connect
Equal	Correlate
Link	Match
Relative	Relate
Correspond	Conformable
Resemble	Synonymous
Suitable	Homogeneous
Representative	Indistinguishable

Appendix A11: Selection Sheet Moderator Indicators (Chinese Version)

请仔细地考虑以下的 30 个词，然后用圆圈画出 5 个您认为最能准确地描述出名人和旅游目的地关系的词。

恰当的	相同的
属于	相当的
适合的	回响
适当的	对映
相结合的	近似的
相类似的	等同的
相似的	相关连的
类似的	连接的
平等	关连的
相连接的	相匹配的
有联系的	可联想的
相协调的	一致的
相像	同义的
匹配的	同类的
有代表性的	不可区别的

Appendix A12: Result Moderator Indicators

		Score
Relate	可联想的	80
Representative	有代表性的	79
Correspond	相协调的	38
Relative	有联系的	37
Echoing	回响	34
Combine	相结合的	32
Affiliate	相关连的	30

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRES

(Andy Lau Example)

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
香港理工大學

School of Hotel & Tourism Management
酒店及旅遊業管理學院

Approaching the respondent

Dear madam/sir, could I have 10 min of your precious time? You will be rewarded with a gift. I am entrusted by the School of Hotel and Tourism Management, the Hong Kong Polytechnic University to conduct a survey regarding Guangzhou citizen's intention to visit Hong Kong. In order to find out whether you fit our requested profile, may I ask you a few questions first?

Filter Questions:

1. Do you live in Guangzhou?

☐ Yes (continue)

☐ No (terminate)

2. Have you visited Hong Kong before?

☐ No (continue)

☐ Yes (terminate)

3. Are you financially independent?

☐ Yes (continue)

☐ No (terminate)

4. Do you know this person?

☐ Yes (continue)

☐ No (terminate)

5. Age

☐ 20-25 ☐ 26-35 ☐ 36-45
☐ 46-55 ☐ 56-65 ☐ 66 +

Terminate → Thank you, please return the questionnaire. Have a nice day!

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. Soon we will introduce new advertisements to promote Hong Kong. With your help we can make changes based on the preferences of those who count - visitors like you!

This questionnaire is completely voluntary. Your response will remain anonymous and strictly confidential, as only aggregate results will be reported in any following publications. If you would like to have more information regarding this research project or on the publications that arise from this research project please contact me.

Sincerely,

Robert van der Veen

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School of Hotel and Tourism Management
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Hung Hom, Kowloon
Hong Kong, SAR, China
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Please continue on next page →

Instructions

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the celebrity and the advertisement against a series of statements and a set of descriptive words. There are no right or wrong responses - only your opinion counts! Please make your judgements on the basis of what the words *mean to you.* Please use the following examples to complete the questionnaire.

If the statement is *very related* to one end of the scale, you should check as follows:

Fair ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Unfair

If the statement is *quite related* to one end of the scale, you should check as follows:

Unfair ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ Fair

If the statement is *slightly related* to one side, than you should check as follows:

Fair ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Unfair

If you feel the statement to be *neutral* on the scale, then you should check as follows:

Unfair ☐ ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ Fair

Do not try to remember or trace how you checked similar words earlier in the questionnaire. It is your first impressions, the immediate feelings about the words that we are looking for. Make for each item a separate and independent judgement. If you are *unable to answer* to the statement then check the box N/A at the very end of the scale. Completion time is approximately 10 minutes.

Please continue on next page →

Section I: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion towards Andy Lau as seen in the ad.

Would you say Andy Lau is...

									N/A
1. Attractive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unattractive	☐
2. Not classy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Classy	☐
3. Handsome/Beautiful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Ugly	☐
4. Plain	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Elegant	☐
5. Unfamiliar	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Familiar	☐
6. Sexy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not sexy	☐
7. Likable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Dislikeable	☐

Section II: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion towards Andy Lau promoting Hong Kong as seen in the advertisement.

As a spokesperson for Hong Kong, Andy Lau is...

									N/A
1. Dependable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Undependable	☐
2. Unreliable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Reliable	☐
3. Honest	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Dishonest	☐
4. Experienced	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Inexperienced	☐
5. Knowledgeable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unknowledgeable	☐
6. Insincere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Sincere	☐
7. Qualified	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unqualified	☐
8. Untrustworthy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Trustworthy	☐
9. Expert	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not an expert	☐
10. Skilled	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unskilled	☐

Please continue on next page →

Section III: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion about the association between Any Lau and Hong Kong as seen in the advertisement

How would you best describe the association between Any Lau and Hong Kong?

									N/A
1.	Relate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Disassociate	☐
2.	Differ	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Correspond	☐
3.	Echoing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not echoing	☐
4.	Representative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unrepresentative	☐
5.	Separate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Combine	☐
6.	Relative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Irrelevant	☐
7.	Effective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Ineffective	☐
8.	Compatible	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not compatible	☐
9.	Inconsistent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Consistent	☐

Section IV: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion towards Hong Kong as seen in the ad.

How would you describe your overall attitude towards Hong Kong?

									N/A
1.	Favourable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unfavourable	☐
2.	Bad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Good	☐
3.	Negative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Positive	☐
4.	Pleasant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unpleasant	☐
5.	Dislike	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Like	☐

Please continue on next page →

Section V: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion towards the advertisement.

How would you best describe this advertisement?

									N/A
1. Unbelievable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Believable	☐
2. Unpleasant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Pleasant	☐
3. Appealing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unappealing	☐
4. Good	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Bad	☐
5. Unpersuasive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Persuasive	☐
6. Like	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Dislike	☐
7. Ineffective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Effective	☐
8. Convincing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unconvincing	☐
9. Attractive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unattractive	☐
10. Uninformative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Informative	☐

Section VI: For the statement below, please reply to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your visitation intentions to Hong.

How likely is it that you will visit Hong Kong in the next 12 months?

									N/A
1. Improbable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Probable	☐
2. Not willing to visit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Willing to visit	☐
3. Likely	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unlikely	☐
4. Impossible	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Possible	☐
5. Willing to inquire	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not willing to inquire	☐
6. Willing to consider	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not willing to consider	☐

Please continue on next page →

Section VII: Your Current Personal Information

Please check (✓) only one box in front of the appropriate answer that applies to you.

1. Gender:

☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Marital status:

☐ Married ☐ Other

3. Occupation:

☐ Working ☐ Housewife ☐ Others
☐ Retired ☐ Student

4. Education level:

☐ No formal education ☐ College/university

☐ Primary/elementary school ☐ Postgraduate

☐ Secondary/high school

5. Your personal monthly income (in RMB):

☐ Less than 1,000 ☐ 1,001-3,000

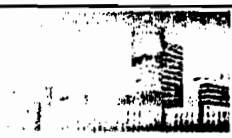
☐ 3,001-6,000 ☐ 6,001-9,000

☐ More than 9,001 ☐ No regular income

-End of Questionnaire. Thank you for taking the time to complete our survey.

Please kindly return the questionnaire. Your answers are important to us!-

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY 香港理工大學



School of Hotel & Tourism Management 酒店及旅遊業管理學院

问卷调查

您好！

我是香港理工大学酒店及旅游业管理学院博士生文俊仁(Robert van der Veen)。受学院委托，我想占用您宝贵的 10 分钟时间，就广州市民赴港观光的意愿进行一次问卷调查。问卷结束，您将得到一份价值 10 元的精美礼物，以示谢意。首先，为了确认您是否符合我们问卷的范畴，请您先回答下列几个过滤性问题。谢谢！

过滤性问题：

1. 您住在广州吗？

☐ 是 （继续）

☐ 否 （停止）

2. 您认识这个人吗？

☐ 是 （继续）

☐ 否 （停止）

3. 您经济独立吗？

☐ 是 （继续）

☐ 否 （停止）

4. 您以前到过香港吗？

☐ 否 （继续）

☐ 是 （停止）

5. 年龄：

☐20-25 ☐26-35 ☐36-45

☐46-55 ☐56-65 ☐66 +

好，请停下 → 请将问卷交给我们，谢谢。再见！

问卷介绍

感谢您参加此次问卷调查。我们即将推出新的广告以推介香港。有了您的参与，我们就能根据象您一样的香港观光者的意见把推介广告做得更好！

我们的问卷调查纯属自愿性：您的回答不记姓名并严格保密。问卷之后只公布问卷综合结果。若想进一步了解此次研究项目或此研究项目要公布的内容，请与我联系。

谢谢！

中国 香港
九龙 红磡
香港理工大学
酒店及旅游业管理学院
博士生
文俊仁（Robert van der Veen）
电话: + (852) 3400
电子邮件:hmrveen@

请接着看下页 →

答卷须知

本问卷调查旨在就一些陈述语句和一些描述性的词语对名人及广告作出评估。回答无对错之分。您的意见才是我们最需要的！请您按自己对这些词的理解做出判断。在做问卷时，请参照下面例子：

如果所述与分级选项一端***非常相关（本例：非常公平）***，则选：

公平 ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 不公平

如果所述与分级选项一端***比较相关（本例：比较公平）***，则选：

不公平 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ 公平

如果所述与分级选项一端***略微相关（本例：略微公平）***，则选：

公平 ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 不公平

如果所述在分级选项中属***中立***，则选：

不公平 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ 公平

在问卷过程中，请不要刻意回忆您对前面已答问题中类似用词的选择。我们需要的是您对这些词的第一印象即最初感觉。请对每一个问卷问题作出独立的判断。如果您觉得选项中的词不适用于所述语句，则在分级选项末端选上“无法作答”。问卷大约需要 10 分钟时间。

请接着看下页 →

第一部分：请您根据刘德华的广告，就以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

您觉得刘德华...

									无法作答
1. 有吸引力	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没吸引力	☐
2. 无品味	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	有品味	☐
3. 帅气	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	丑陋的	☐
4. 气质平平	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	气质优雅	☐
5. 不熟悉	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	熟悉	☐
6. 性感	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不性感	☐
7. 招人喜欢	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不招人喜欢	☐

第二部分:请您根据刘德华宣传香港的广告，就以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

作为香港代言人，您觉得刘德华...

									无法作答
1. 可靠	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不可靠	☐
2. 不可信赖	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	可信赖	☐
3. 诚实	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不诚实	☐
4. 有经验	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	无经验	☐
5. 了解香港	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不了解香港	☐
6. 不真诚	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	真诚	☐
7. 合格	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不合格	☐
8. 不可信	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	可信	☐
9. 是个内行	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不是内行	☐
10. 有技巧	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	无技巧	☐

请接着看下页 →

第三部分:请您根据广告，就刘德华与香港之间的联系对以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

您如何最准确地描述刘德华与香港之间的联系？

									无法作答
1. 相关	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不关联	☐
2. 相异	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	相符	☐
3. 相呼应	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	相对立	☐
4. 有代表性	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没代表性	☐
5. 分离的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	相连的	☐
6. 有关	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	无关	☐
7. 有效的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没效的	☐
8. 相适宜	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不相适宜	☐
9. 不一致的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	一致的	☐

第四部分:请您根据广告，就香港对以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

您对香港的总体看法如何?

									无法作答
1. 赞许	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不赞许	☐
2. 坏	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	好	☐
3. 负面的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	正面的	☐
4. 令人愉快	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	令人不愉快	☐
5. 不喜欢	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	喜欢	☐

请接着看下页 →

第五部分:请您就广告对以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

您怎么看这个广告?

									无法作答
1. 不可信	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	可信	☐
2. 令人愉快	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	令人不愉快	☐
3. 有感染力	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没有感染力	☐
4. 好	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	坏	☐
5. 没有说服力	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	有说服力	☐
6. 喜欢	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不喜欢	☐
7. 没效的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	有效的	☐
8. 令人信服	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不令人信服	☐
9. 吸引人	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不吸引人	☐
10. 提供了有用信息	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没有提供什麽信息	☐

第六部分:请您就观光香港的意愿对以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

在今后一年里您有多大可能会观光香港?

									无法作答
1. 不大可能	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	可能	☐
2. 不愿意去	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	愿意去	☐
3. 很可能	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不太可能	☐
4. 不会去的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	可能会去	☐
5. 愿意去问问	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不愿去问问	☐
6. 愿意考虑	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不愿考虑	☐

请接着看下页 →

第七部分：您的个人信息
请在一个适合的选项方块内划勾。

1. 性别：

☐ 男性　　☐ 女性

2. 婚姻状况：

☐ 已婚　　☐ 其他

3. 职业：

☐ 在职人士　　☐ 家庭主妇　　☐ 学生
☐ 退休　　☐ 其他

4. 教育程度：

☐ 无正式教育　　☐ 大学

☐ 小学　　☐ 研究生

☐ 中学

5. 您的月收入 (人民币元)：

☐ 1,000 以下　　☐ 1,001-3,000　　☐ 3,001-6,000
☐ 6,001-9,000　　☐ 9,001 以上　　☐ 无稳定收入

问卷结束！谢谢您完成我们的问卷。您的问卷回答对我们的研究很重要！请将问卷交还给我们。

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY 香港理工大學

School of Hotel & Tourism Management 酒店及旅遊業管理學院

Approaching the respondent

Dear madam/sir, could I have 10 min of your precious time? You will be rewarded with a gift. I am entrusted by the School of Hotel and Tourism Management, the Hong Kong Polytechnic University to conduct a survey regarding Guangzhou citizen's intention to visit Hong Kong. In order to find out whether you fit our requested profile, may I ask you a few questions first?

Filter Questions:

1. Do you live in Guangzhou?

☐ Yes (continue)

☐ No (terminate)

2. Have you visited Hong Kong before?

☐ No (continue)

☐ Yes (terminate)

3. Are you financially independent?

☐ Yes (continue)

☐ No (terminate)

4. Do you know this person?

☐ Yes (continue)

☐ No (terminate)

5. Age

☐ 20-25 ☐ 26-35 ☐ 36-45

☐ 46-55 ☐ 56-65 ☐ 66 +

Terminate → Thank you, please return the questionnaire. Have a nice day!

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. Soon we will introduce new advertisements to promote Hong Kong. With your help we can make changes based on the preferences of those who count - visitors like you!

This questionnaire is completely voluntary. Your response will remain anonymous and strictly confidential, as only aggregate results will be reported in any following publications. If you would like to have more information regarding this research project or on the publications that arise from this research project please contact me.

Sincerely,

Robert van der Veen

PhD Candidate
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Hung Hom, Kowloon
Hong Kong, SAR, China
Tel: + (852) 3400
Email:hmrveen@

Please continue on next page →

Instructions

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the celebrity and the advertisement against a series of statements and a set of descriptive words. There are no right or wrong responses - only your opinion counts! Please make your judgements on the basis of what the words *mean to you.* Please use the following examples to complete the questionnaire.

If the statement is *very related* to one end of the scale, you should check as follows:

Fair ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Unfair

If the statement is *quite related* to one end of the scale, you should check as follows:

Unfair ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ Fair

If the statement is *slightly related* to one side, than you should check as follows:

Fair ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Unfair

If you feel the statement to be *neutral* on the scale, then you should check as follows:

Unfair ☐ ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ Fair

Do not try to remember or trace how you checked similar words earlier in the questionnaire. It is your first impressions, the immediate feelings about the words that we are looking for. Make for each item a separate and independent judgement. If you are *unable to answer* to the statement then check the box N/A at the very end of the scale. Completion time is approximately 10 minutes.

Please continue on next page →

Section I: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion towards Andy Lau as seen in the ad.

Would you say Andy Lau is...

									N/A
1. Attractive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unattractive	☐
2. Not classy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Classy	☐
3. Handsome/Beautiful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Ugly	☐
4. Plain	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Elegant	☐
5. Unfamiliar	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Familiar	☐
6. Sexy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not sexy	☐
7. Likable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Dislikeable	☐

Section II: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion towards Andy Lau promoting Hong Kong as seen in the advertisement.

As a spokesperson for Hong Kong, Andy Lau is...

									N/A
1. Honest	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Dishonest	☐
2. Experienced	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Inexperienced	☐
3. Knowledgeable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unknowledgeable	☐
4. Qualified	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unqualified	☐
5. Untrustworthy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Trustworthy	☐
6. Expert	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not an expert	☐
7. Skilled	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unskilled	☐

Please continue on next page →

Section III: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion about the association between Any Lau and Hong Kong as seen in the advertisement

How would you best describe the association between Any Lau and Hong Kong?

									N/A
1. Relate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Disassociate	☐
2. Differ	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Correspond	☐
3. Representative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unrepresentative	☐
4. Separate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Combine	☐
5. Relative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Irrelevant	☐
6. Effective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Ineffective	☐
7. Inconsistent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Consistent	☐

Section IV: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion towards Hong Kong as seen in the ad.

How would you describe your overall attitude towards Hong Kong?

									N/A
1. Favourable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unfavourable	☐
2. Bad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Good	☐
3. Negative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Positive	☐
4. Pleasant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unpleasant	☐
5. Dislike	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Like	☐

Please continue on next page →

Section V: For the statement below, please respond to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your opinion towards the advertisement.

How would you best describe this advertisement?

									N/A
1. Unbelievable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Believable	☐
2. Unpleasant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Pleasant	☐
3. Appealing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unappealing	☐
4. Good	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Bad	☐
5. Unpersuasive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Persuasive	☐
6. Like	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Dislike	☐
7. Ineffective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Effective	☐
8. Convincing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unconvincing	☐
9. Attractive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unattractive	☐
10. Uninformative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Informative	☐

Section VI: For the statement below, please reply to each item by checking (✓) only one box that best reflects your visitation intentions to Hong.

How likely is it that you will visit Hong Kong in the next 12 months?

									N/A
1. Improbable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Probable	☐
2. Not willing to visit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Willing to visit	☐
3. Likely	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unlikely	☐
4. Impossible	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Possible	☐

Please continue on next page →

Section VII: Your Current Personal Information

Please check (✓) only one box in front of the appropriate answer that applies to you.

1. Gender:

☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Marital status:

☐ Married ☐ Other

3. Occupation:

☐ Working ☐ Housewife ☐ Others
☐ Retired ☐ Student

4. Education level:

☐ No formal education ☐ College/university

☐ Primary/elementary school ☐ Postgraduate

☐ Secondary/high school

5. Your personal monthly income (in RMB):

☐ Less than 1,000 ☐ 1,001-3,000

☐ 3,001-6,000 ☐ 6,001-9,000

☐ More than 9,001 ☐ No regular income

-End of Questionnaire. Thank you for taking the time to complete our survey. Please kindly return the questionnaire. Your answers are important to us!-

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
香港理工大學

School of Hotel & Tourism Management
酒店及旅遊業管理學院

问卷调查

您好！

我是香港理工大学酒店及旅游业管理学院博士生文俊仁(Robert van der Veen)。受学院委托，我想占用您宝贵的 10 分钟时间，就广州市民赴港观光的意愿进行一次问卷调查。问卷结束，您将得到一份价值 10 元的精美礼物，以示谢意。首先，为了确认您是否符合我们问卷的范畴，请您先回答下列几个过滤性问题。谢谢！

过滤性问题:

1. 您住在广州吗？

☐ 是 （继续）

☐ 否 （停止）

2. 您认识这个人吗？

☐ 是 （继续）

☐ 否 （停止）

3. 您经济独立吗？

☐ 是 （继续）

☐ 否 （停止）

4. 您以前到过香港吗？

☐ 否 （继续）

☐ 是 （停止）

5. 年龄：

☐20-25 ☐26-35 ☐36-45
☐46-55 ☐56-65 ☐66 +

好，请停下 → 请将问卷交给我们，谢谢。再见！

问卷介绍

感谢您参加此次问卷调查。我们即将推出新的广告以推介香港。有了您的参与，我们就能根据象您一样的香港观光者的意见把推介广告做得更好！

我们的问卷调查纯属自愿性：您的回答不记姓名并严格保密。问卷之后只公布问卷综合结果。若想进一步了解此次研究项目或此研究项目要公布的内容，请与我联系。

谢谢！

中国 香港
九龙 红磡
香港理工大学
酒店及旅游业管理学院
博士生
文俊仁（Robert van der Veen）
电话: + (852) 3400
电子邮件:hmrveen@

请接着看下页 →

答卷须知

本问卷调查旨在就一些陈述语句和一些描述性的词语对名人及广告作出评估。回答无对错之分。您的意见才是我们最需要的！请您按自己对这些词的理解做出判断。在做问卷时，请参照下面例子：

如果所述与分级选项一端*非常相关（本例：非常公平）*，则选：

公平 ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 不公平

如果所述与分级选项一端*比较相关（本例：比较公平）*，则选：

不公平 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ 公平

如果所述与分级选项一端*略微相关（本例：略微公平）*，则选：

公平 ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 不公平

如果所述在分级选项中属中立，则选：

不公平 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☑ ☐ ☐ ☐ 公平

在问卷过程中，请不要刻意回忆您对前面已答问题中类似用词的选择。我们需要的是您对这些词的第一印象即最初感觉。请对每一个问卷问题作出独立的判断。如果您觉得选项中的词不适用于所述语句，则在分级选项末端选上“无法作答”。问卷大约需要 10 分钟时间。

请接着看下页 →

第一部分：请您根据刘德华的广告，就以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

您觉得刘德华...

									无法作答
1.	有吸引力	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没吸引力 ☐
2.	无品味	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	有品味 ☐
3.	帅气	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	丑陋的 ☐
4.	气质平平	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	气质优雅 ☐
5.	不熟悉	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	熟悉 ☐
6.	性感	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不性感 ☐
7.	招人喜欢	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不招人喜欢 ☐

第二部分:请您根据刘德华宣传香港的广告，就以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

作为香港代言人，您觉得刘德华...

									无法作答
1.	诚实	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不诚实 ☐
2.	有经验	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	无经验 ☐
3.	了解香港	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不了解香港 ☐
4.	合格	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不合格 ☐
5.	不可信	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	可信 ☐
6.	是个内行	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不是内行 ☐
7.	有技巧	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	无技巧 ☐

请接着看下页 →

第三部分:请您根据广告，就刘德华与香港之间的联系对以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

您如何最准确地描述刘德华与香港之间的联系？

									无法作答
1. 相关	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不关联	☐
2. 相异	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	相符	☐
3. 有代表性	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没代表性	☐
4. 分离的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	相连的	☐
5. 有关	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	无关	☐
6. 有效的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没效的	☐
7. 不一致的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	一致的	☐

第四部分:请您根据广告，就香港对以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

您对香港的总体看法如何?

									无法作答
1. 赞许	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不赞许	☐
2. 坏	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	好	☐
3. 负面的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	正面的	☐
4. 令人愉快	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	令人不愉快	☐
5. 不喜欢	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	喜欢	☐

请接着看下页 →

第五部分:请您就广告对以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

您怎么看这个广告?

									无法作答
1. 不可信	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	可信	☐
2. 令人愉快	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	令人不愉快	☐
3. 有感染力	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没有感染力	☐
4. 好	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	坏	☐
5. 没有说服力	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	有说服力	☐
6. 喜欢	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不喜欢	☐
7. 没效的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	有效的	☐
8. 令人信服	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不令人信服	☐
9. 吸引人	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不吸引人	☐
10. 提供了有用信息	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	没有提供什麽信息	☐

第六部分:请您就观光香港的意愿对以下各分级选项在适当的方格内划勾(✓)，作出您的判断。

在今后一年里您有多大可能会观光香港?

									无法作答
1. 不大可能	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	可能	☐
2. 不愿意去	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	愿意去	☐
3. 很可能	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	不太可能	☐
4. 不会去的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	可能会去	☐

请接着看下页 →

第七部分：您的个人信息
请在一个适合的选项方块内划勾。

1. 性别：

☐男性　　☐女性

2. 婚姻状况：

☐已婚　　☐其他

3. 职业：

☐ 在职人士　　☐家庭主妇　　☐学生
☐ 退休　　☐其他

4. 教育程度：

☐无正式教育　　☐大学

☐小学　　☐研究生

☐中学

5. 您的月收入 (人民币元) ：

☐1,000 以下　　☐1,001-3,000　　☐3,001-6,000
☐6,001-9,000　　☐9,001 以上　　☐无稳定收入

问卷结束！谢谢您完成我们的问卷。您的问卷回答对我们的研究很重要！请将问卷交还给我们

APPENDIX C: QUOTAS & TRANSCRIPTION

Appendix C1: Overnight Visitor Arrivals from Mainland China

Mar 2007
HKTB Tourism Research

2006年中國內地過夜旅客來源地分析
Overnight Visitor Arrivals from MAINLAND CHINA - 2006
Sub-Market Analysis

		過夜旅客 Overnight Visitors				過夜旅客 Overnight Visitors	
		所有 All	度假 Vacation			所有 All	度假 Vacation
訪問人數	No. of Respondents	71,546	39,830	訪問人數	No. of Respondents	71,546	39,830
		%	%			%	%
安徽	Anhui	0.7	0.9	湖南	Hunan	1.1	1.3
北京	Beijing	5.6	6.0	長沙	*Changsa*	*0.5*	*0.6*
重慶	Chongqing	0.6	0.8	其他	*Others*	*0.5*	*0.6*
福建	Fujian	2.9	2.5	內蒙古	Inner Mongolia	0.2	0.3
福州	*Fuzhou*	*0.9*	*0.9*	江蘇	Jiangsu	3.1	4.3
泉州	*Quanzhou*	*0.7*	*0.5*	常州	*Changzhou*	*0.1*	*0.2*
廈門	*Xiamen*	*0.6*	*0.6*	南京	*Nanjing*	*1.0*	*1.2*
其他	*Others*	*0.7*	*0.5*	南通	*Nantong*	*0.2*	*0.3*
甘肅	Gansu	0.2	0.3	蘇州	*Suzhou*	*0.6*	*0.8*
廣東	Guangdong	62.4	55.6	泰州	*Taizhou (Jiangsu)*	*	*0.1*
潮州	*Chaozhou*	*0.2*	*0.2*	無錫	*Wuxi*	*0.5*	*0.7*
東莞	*Dongguan*	*6.0*	*5.7*	揚州	*Yangzhou*	*0.1*	*0.1*
佛山	*Foshan*	*6.6*	*6.6*	鎮江	*Zhenjiang*	*0.1*	*0.1*
廣州	*Guangzhou*	*19.7*	*19.4*	其他	*Others*	*0.6*	*0.9*
河源	*Heyuan*	*0.2*	*0.2*	江西	Jiangxi	0.6	0.7
惠州	*Huizhou*	*1.8*	*1.2*	吉林	Jilin	0.3	0.5
江門	*Jiangmen*	*2.6*	*2.3*	遼寧	Liaoning	0.9	1.3
揭陽	*Jieyang*	*0.1*	*0.1*	大連	*Dalian*	*0.4*	*0.5*
茂名	*Maoming*	*0.2*	*0.2*	瀋陽	*Shenyang*	*0.4*	*0.7*
梅州	*Meizhou*	*	-	其他	*Others*	*0.1*	*0.2*
清遠	*Qingyuan*	*0.5*	*0.4*	寧夏	Ningxia	0.1	0.1
汕頭	*Shantou*	*0.7*	*0.7*	青海	Qinghai	*	0.1
汕尾	*Shanwei*	*0.5*	*0.2*	陝西	Shaanxi	0.5	0.6
韶關	*Shaoguan*	*0.3*	*0.2*	山東	Shandong	1.0	1.3
深圳	*Shenzhen*	*15.2*	*11.4*	濟南	*Jinan*	*0.2*	*0.3*
陽江	*Yangjiang*	*0.2*	*0.2*	其他	*Others*	*0.8*	*1.0*
雲浮	*Yunfu*	*0.1*	*0.1*	上海	Shanghai	7.6	7.8
湛江	*Zhanjiang*	*0.4*	*0.3*	山西	Shanxi	0.6	1.0
肇慶	*Zhaoqing*	*0.9*	*0.9*	四川	Sichuan	1.1	1.4
中山	*Zhongshan*	*2.8*	*2.5*	成都	*Chengdu*	*0.9*	*1.2*
珠海	*Zhuhai*	*2.1*	*1.7*	其他	*Others*	*0.1*	*0.2*
其他	*Others*	*1.5*	*1.0*	天津	Tianjin	0.7	0.9
廣西	Guangxi	1.0	1.0	西藏	Tibet	*	*
南寧	*Nanning*	0.4	0.4	新疆	Xinjiang	0.2	0.3
其他	*Others*	*0.6*	*0.6*	雲南	Yunnan	0.6	0.8
貴州	Guizhou	0.4	0.6	浙江	Zhejiang	3.5	4.6
海南	Hainan	0.4	0.2	杭州	*Hangzhou*	*1.9*	*2.5*
河北	Hebei	0.4	0.6	湖州	*Huzhou*	*	*0.1*
黑龍江	Heilongjiang	0.5	0.7	嘉興	*Jiaxing*	*0.1*	*0.1*
哈爾濱	*Harbin*	*	-	寧波	*Ningbo*	*0.5*	*0.7*
其他	*Others*	*0.5*	*0.7*	紹興	*Shaoxing*	*0.1*	*0.1*
河南	Henan	0.6	0.8	台州	*Taizhou (Zhejiang)*	*0.1*	*0.1*
湖北	Hubei	1.6	2.2	舟山	*Zhoushan*	*0.1*	*0.1*
武漢	*Wuhan*	*1.2*	*1.7*	其他	*Others*	*0.8*	*1.0*
宜昌	*Yichang*	*	*				
其他	*Others*	*0.3*	*0.5*	未能區別	Unknown	0.7	0.7

資料來源 Source: 香港旅遊發展局離港旅客問卷調查 HKTB Departing Visitor Survey

註 Remarks:

1. *由於各省市或地區的抽樣訪問調查的訪問人數數量比較小，數據只代表顯得旅客來自這些省市或地區。The low sample base for smaller regional places/provinces made analysis of visitation trends from these places impossible and undesirable. The data can best be viewed as showing the occurrence of visitations by visitors from these places.*
2. *由於四捨五入關係，附錄中加起來不一定等於總數。Column totals and sub-totals may not add up due to rounding.*
3. ** 數字少於 Figures less than 0.05%*

Source: HKTB Visitor Profile Report-2006

Appendix C2: Quota

	2005*	2006*	Set Quota	Pilot	Main Survey
In Percentages (%)					
Gender					
Male	45	43	50	49.8	50
Female	55	57	50	50.2	50
Age					
20 - 25	20	21	30	38.2	44.7
26 - 35	39	37	30	40.4	34.6
36 - 45	23	24	20	14.2	16.3
46 - 55	11	11	10	4.9	3.7
56 - 65	5	5	5	1.9	0.5
66 +	2	2	5	0.4	0.1
Occupation					
Working	73	75	75	77.9	75.2
Housewife	13	10	10	6.7	4.7
Student	7	7	5	6.7	11.2
Retired	6	6	5	1.5	0.6
Other	-	2	5	7.1	8.2
Marital Status					
Married	71	70	70	47.2	56.5
Others	29	30	30	52.8	43.5
Education Level					
Postgraduate	5	4	5	1.6	3.8
College/University	52	60	60	80.9	72.7
Secondary/High School	36	33	30	15.4	21.2
Primary/Elementary	5	3	5	0.4	0.6
No formal education	2	1	0	1.6	1.6
Income					
Below 1000				6.4	8.8
1001-3000				50.6	46.9
3001-6000				27.7	45.5
6001-9000				4.9	4.6
Above 9001				0.7	1.7
No fixed income				9.7	12.4

Source: HKTB Visitor Profile Report-2006

Appendix C3: Transcription

Discussion with senior officer from the HKTB

Hong Kong Tourism Board

Website: www.DiscoverHongKong.com

Tuesday, November 20, 2007

The discussion took place at an office at the HKTB from 09:30 until 11:00. The interview was not structured and the following paragraphs provide a set of insights, opinions and propositions posed by interviewee regarding celebrity endorsement for destinations. The interviewee has a rich background in marketing and has guided various promotional campaigns with selected celebrities at various commercial organizations.

Each appointed celebrity endorser is closely monitored by the HKTB using various media sources. The celebrity has to sign a contract with the HKTB as he/she would at a commercial organization, however the conditions are less strict. This creates a win-win partnership for both the endorser and the destination. Both take advantage of the exposure without a considerable investment from both sides. The destination takes advantage of the values, popularity and generosity of the celebrity. The celebrity improves his/her image by showing his/her love, commitment and passion to the community and the destination. The joint venture will be appreciated by both the fans, visitors and other people with an interest in the destination.

A risk assessment is conducted first before selecting the celebrity endorser. Since, celebrity endorsers are human beings and sometimes they engage in unprofessional, unmannered or perhaps unethical behavior. For this reason, the interviewee would never choose Britney Spears, because she poses a risk at this moment. She is not relevant to Hong Kong and she is put in a negative light in the current media. The DMO should stay flexible even after the celebrity is appointed, because once the promotional campaign is planned and being carried out it is difficult to withdraw. It is likely that time, energy and resources are already spent on promotional activities and materials, and the DMO does not have enough resources pull out from the campaign. In such cases the interviewee suggests to downplay the celebrity by making the endorser less obvious. This may help avoid any negative influence that could carry over to the destination brand. They will try to avoid the negative image and not to increase the awareness that is surrounding the endorser.

It is not really a matter of who receives more exposure, the celebrity or the destination, it all depends on the creative idea. Another advantage of bringing in a celebrity endorser might enhance the tangibility of the destination. This has been mentioned in the literature as well. More importantly is the "stopping power", which means the power an advertisement has to stop people from what ever they are doing, and to focus their attention to the advertisement. Selecting the celebrity depends on the target market since it is unreasonable to choose a celebrity, which is unknown to the target market to endorse a destination, product or service. The consumers from a particular target market should be able to attach values to the endorser. Therefore, relevancy, values and image are important for selecting a celebrity endorser. More importantly is the creative idea of the promotional campaign combined with the celebrity endorser.

One can have the most popular celebrity, however, if one cannot execute the promotional campaign properly or creatively, the campaign might be ineffective. This of course relates to the bigger and overall picture of developing a promotional campaign and that appointing a celebrity does not guarantee success. Even tough the joint venture is voluntary, the HKTB would take the endorsement as serious as any other commercial business. The HKTB has to take it more serious as it has the responsibility to represent all the citizens of Hong Kong. This was illustrated by worried residents of Hong Kong calling the HKTB after a showcase where Jackie Chan behaved inappropriate on stage being drunk and using foul language. The residents held the celebrity responsible as he/she acts as the overall ambassador and should carry out his/her role appropriately. When a celebrity endorsers a soft drink, jewellery or any other product or service it seems the endorser has to represent the brand, company management and employees. In the case of a destination, the celebrity has a much wider audience to represent and they will keep him/her accountable.

The interviewee sees the local celebrity as an asset of the destination. For example, Jackie Chan was not born in Singapore or Taiwan. He belongs to Hong Kong and no other competitor can take the advantage of the relevancy of combining Hong Kong and Jackie Chan. The interviewee suggest that relevancy can be created. Referring to the example of Marlboro and the cowboys, which portrays a manly and tough image. As long as the company keeps investing in a certain image, people will believe it after a while. However, this does not seem to be an option for most DMOs as it needs considerable resources to convince the consumers.

APPENDIX D: LISREL OUTPUT

Appendix D1: Measurement Model - Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Sample Size = 353

Covariance Matrix

	D1_1	D1_2	D1_3	D1_4	D2_1	D2_2
D1_1	1.58					
D1_2	1.06	2.05				
D1_3	1.00	0.89	1.44			
D1_4	0.82	0.99	0.75	2.34		
D2_1	0.87	0.95	0.72	0.86	2.50	
D2_2	0.68	0.67	0.64	0.63	1.20	1.91
D2_3	0.62	0.88	0.60	0.93	1.43	1.23
D2_4	0.79	0.91	0.69	0.82	1.65	1.41
D2_5	0.68	1.07	0.66	0.87	1.46	0.86
D2_6	0.49	0.78	0.59	0.85	1.11	0.96
D2_7	0.53	0.79	0.59	0.83	1.10	1.09
D4_1	0.53	0.50	0.53	0.34	0.60	0.67
D4_2	0.23	0.29	0.23	0.17	0.25	0.28
D4_3	0.22	0.31	0.26	0.20	0.32	0.40
D4_4	0.38	0.40	0.46	0.39	0.31	0.44
D4_5	0.39	0.41	0.44	0.47	0.41	0.38
D5_1	0.41	0.53	0.32	0.54	0.89	0.62
D5_2	0.44	0.71	0.49	0.50	0.89	0.67
D5_3	0.54	0.59	0.65	0.61	0.86	0.81
D5_4	0.50	0.62	0.53	0.57	0.97	0.74
D5_5	0.38	0.81	0.32	0.67	0.86	0.53
D5_6	0.50	0.63	0.51	0.55	0.91	0.78
D5_7	0.48	0.64	0.40	0.67	1.01	0.65
D5_8	0.43	0.64	0.40	0.52	0.97	0.87
D5_9	0.55	0.53	0.54	0.46	0.78	0.75
D5_10	0.53	0.61	0.47	0.45	0.83	0.84
D6_1	0.30	0.35	0.10	0.01	0.31	0.26
D6_3	0.27	0.35	0.17	0.02	0.35	0.47
D6_4	0.30	0.26	0.23	-0.04	0.12	0.06

Covariance Matrix

	D2_3	D2_4	D2_5	D2_6	D2_7	D4_1
D2_3	3.46					
D2_4	1.81	2.64				
D2_5	1.43	1.36	2.39			
D2_6	1.32	1.25	1.01	2.34		
D2_7	1.21	1.20	0.97	1.32	1.96	
D4_1	0.69	0.66	0.53	0.59	0.68	1.41
D4_2	0.35	0.30	0.34	0.34	0.33	0.69
D4_3	0.49	0.35	0.47	0.48	0.42	0.71
D4_4	0.43	0.44	0.59	0.49	0.50	0.83
D4_5	0.33	0.38	0.55	0.42	0.44	0.78
D5_1	1.16	1.21	0.83	0.72	0.64	0.41
D5_2	1.00	1.14	0.87	0.71	0.76	0.62
D5_3	1.04	1.08	0.87	0.79	0.94	0.63
D5_4	0.99	1.15	0.95	0.72	0.82	0.61
D5_5	1.25	1.14	1.04	0.67	0.79	0.41
D5_6	0.98	1.12	0.98	0.72	1.01	0.56
D5_7	1.15	1.15	1.00	0.92	0.90	0.59
D5_8	1.10	1.14	1.02	0.64	0.87	0.53
D5_9	0.79	1.02	0.82	0.57	0.83	0.53
D5_10	1.19	1.06	0.85	0.69	0.89	0.46
D6_1	0.24	0.27	0.10	0.22	0.11	0.43
D6_3	0.40	0.43	0.20	0.26	0.37	0.60
D6_4	0.05	0.11	0.23	0.20	0.09	0.40

Covariance Matrix

	D4_2	D4_3	D4_4	D4_5	D5_1	D5_2
D4_2	0.87					
D4_3	0.69	1.18				
D4_4	0.50	0.69	1.72			
D4_5	0.61	0.76	0.77	1.30		
D5_1	0.29	0.21	0.29	0.43	2.60	
D5_2	0.35	0.35	0.57	0.48	1.55	2.21
D5_3	0.38	0.39	0.60	0.51	1.35	1.49
D5_4	0.45	0.36	0.47	0.56	1.32	1.26
D5_5	0.31	0.30	0.31	0.42	1.43	1.27
D5_6	0.39	0.39	0.59	0.54	1.44	1.46
D5_7	0.37	0.29	0.38	0.49	1.36	1.15
D5_8	0.32	0.28	0.49	0.37	1.48	1.56
D5_9	0.38	0.26	0.50	0.47	1.25	1.23
D5_10	0.36	0.37	0.48	0.48	1.08	1.15
D6_1	0.30	0.36	0.25	0.27	0.65	0.49
D6_3	0.42	0.46	0.53	0.35	0.58	0.66
D6_4	0.33	0.28	0.33	0.24	0.59	0.39

Covariance Matrix

	D5_3	D5_4	D5_5	D5_6	D5_7	D5_8
D5_3	2.48					
D5_4	1.52	1.92				
D5_5	1.30	1.17	2.73			
D5_6	1.64	1.50	1.39	2.38		
D5_7	1.31	1.24	1.72	1.46	2.45	
D5_8	1.60	1.53	1.48	1.71	1.51	2.36
D5_9	1.43	1.33	1.18	1.63	1.26	1.64
D5_10	1.56	1.31	1.40	1.66	1.38	1.66
D6_1	0.61	0.39	0.45	0.45	0.42	0.56
D6_3	0.77	0.58	0.45	0.72	0.47	0.76
D6_4	0.52	0.48	0.29	0.46	0.43	0.55

Covariance Matrix

	D5_9	D5_10	D6_1	D6_3	D6_4
D5_9	2.09				
D5_10	1.49	2.98			
D6_1	0.56	0.53	3.95		
D6_3	0.71	0.76	3.19	3.96	
D6_4	0.70	0.54	2.22	2.25	2.74

LISREL Estimates (Maximum Likelihood)

Measurement Equations

D1_1 = 1.01*attrac, Errorvar.= 0.55 , R^2 = 0.65
(0.060) (0.064)
16.89 8.67

D1_2 = 1.04*attrac, Errorvar.= 0.96 , R^2 = 0.53
(0.071) (0.092)
14.76 10.47

D1_3 = 0.92*attrac, Errorvar.= 0.59 , R^2 = 0.59
(0.058) (0.061)
15.80 9.70

D1_4 = 0.87*attrac, Errorvar.= 1.58 , R^2 = 0.33
(0.081) (0.13)
10.85 12.10

D2_1 = 1.20*expert, Errorvar.= 1.07 , R^2 = 0.57
(0.074) (0.094)
16.16 11.33

D2_2 = 0.99*expert, Errorvar.= 0.92 , R^2 = 0.52
(0.066) (0.079)
15.04 11.73

```
D2_3 = 1.27*expert, Errorvar.= 1.84 , R² = 0.47
      (0.090)                  (0.15)
       14.06                    12.00

D2_4 = 1.32*expert, Errorvar.= 0.88  , R² = 0.67
      (0.073)                  (0.085)
       18.03                    10.39

D2_5 = 1.06*expert, Errorvar.= 1.26 , R² = 0.47
      (0.075)                  (0.11)
       14.18                    11.97

D2_6 = 1.00*expert, Errorvar.= 1.34 , R² = 0.43
      (0.076)                  (0.11)
       13.24                    12.20

D2_7 = 1.00*expert, Errorvar.= 0.97  , R² = 0.51
      (0.067)                  (0.082)
       14.87                    11.78

D4_1 = 0.93*brand, Errorvar.= 0.55  , R² = 0.61
      (0.056)                 (0.054)
       16.58                   10.30

D4_2 = 0.73*brand, Errorvar.= 0.34  , R² = 0.62
      (0.044)                 (0.033)
       16.71                   10.21

D4_3 = 0.85*brand, Errorvar.= 0.46  , R² = 0.61
      (0.051)                 (0.045)
       16.64                   10.26

D4_4 = 0.82*brand, Errorvar.= 1.04  , R² = 0.39
      (0.066)                 (0.087)
       12.39                   12.04

D4_5 = 0.87*brand, Errorvar.= 0.54  , R² = 0.58
      (0.054)                 (0.051)
       16.03                   10.63

D5_1 = 1.13*ad, Errorvar.= 1.32 , R² = 0.49
      (0.076)              (0.11)
       14.88                12.51


D5_2 = 1.13*ad, Errorvar.= 0.94 , R² = 0.58
      (0.068)              (0.077)
       16.54                12.22

D5_3 = 1.24*ad, Errorvar.= 0.94 , R² = 0.62
      (0.071)              (0.078)
       17.50                12.00

D5_4 = 1.14*ad, Errorvar.= 0.61 , R² = 0.68
      (0.061)              (0.053)
       18.75                11.62
```

```
D5_5 = 1.11*ad, Errorvar.= 1.48 , R² = 0.46
      (0.079)              (0.12)
       14.11                12.62

D5_6 = 1.31*ad, Errorvar.= 0.67  , R² = 0.72
      (0.067)              (0.059)
       19.58                11.28

D5_7 = 1.13*ad, Errorvar.= 1.17  , R² = 0.52
      (0.073)              (0.094)
       15.48                12.42

D5_8 = 1.33*ad, Errorvar.= 0.59  , R² = 0.75
      (0.066)              (0.054)
       20.29                10.91

D5_9 = 1.17*ad, Errorvar.= 0.72  , R² = 0.66
      (0.064)              (0.061)
       18.21                11.79

D5_10 = 1.20*ad, Errorvar.= 1.54 , R² = 0.48
      (0.082)              (0.12)
       14.67                12.55

D6_1 = 1.76*intent, Errorvar.= 0.87 , R² = 0.78
      (0.088)                (0.12)
       20.02                  7.15

D6_3 = 1.81*intent, Errorvar.= 0.67 , R² = 0.83
      (0.086)                (0.12)
       20.96                  5.61

D6_4 = 1.26*intent, Errorvar.= 1.17 , R² = 0.57
      (0.078)                (0.10)
       16.20                  11.32
```

Correlation Matrix of Independent Variables

	attrac	expert	ad	brand	intent
attrac	1.00				
expert	0.66	1.00			
	(0.04)				
	16.57				
ad	0.44	0.67	1.00		
	(0.05)	(0.03)			
	8.76	19.09			
brand	0.43	0.46	0.42	1.00	
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)		
	7.99	9.22	8.61		
intent	0.14	0.14	0.28	0.28	1.00
	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)	
	2.25	2.42	5.32	4.95	

Goodness of Fit Statistics

Degrees of Freedom = 367
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 881.19 (P = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 908.78 (P = 0.0)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 541.78
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (456.99 ; 634.25)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 2.50
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 1.54
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (1.30 ; 1.80)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.065
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.059 ; 0.070)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.00

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 2.97
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (2.73 ; 3.23)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 2.47
ECVI for Independence Model = 53.02

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 406 Degrees of Freedom= 18606.62
Independence AIC = 18664.62
Model AIC = 1044.78
Saturated AIC = 870.00
Independence CAIC = 18805.74
Model CAIC = 1375.70
Saturated CAIC = 2986.91

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.95
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.97
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.86
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.97
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.97
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.95

Critical N (CN) = 173.95

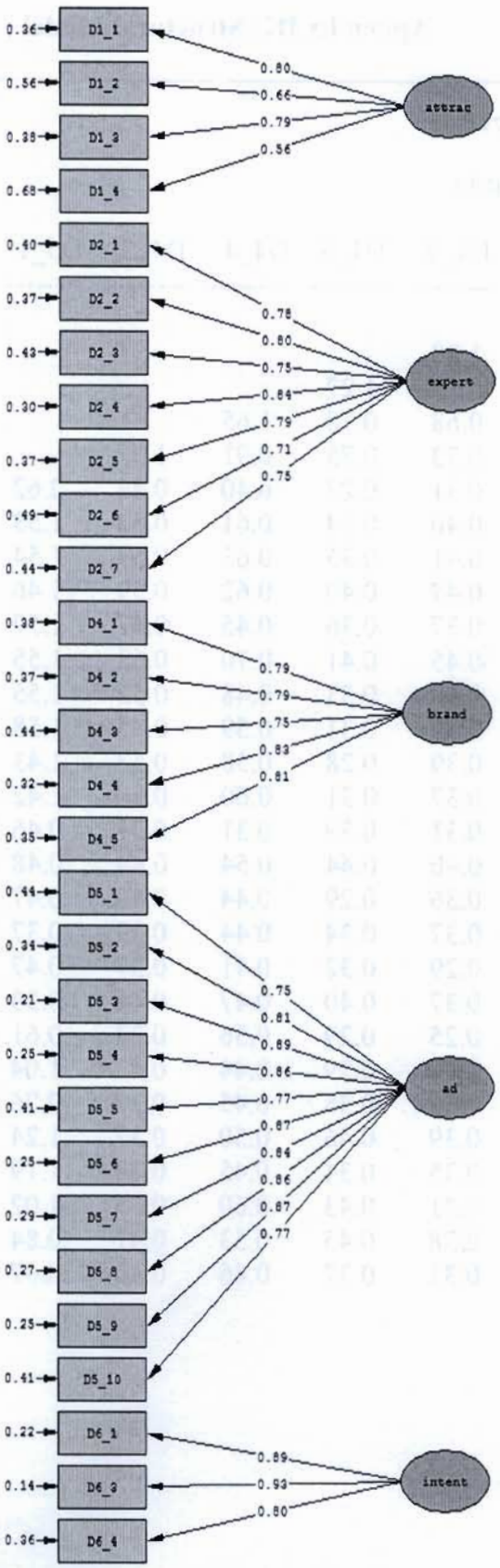
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.11
Standardized RMR = 0.049
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.85
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.82
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.72

The Modification Indices Suggest to Add the

Path to	from	Decrease in Chi-Square	New Estimate
D1_1	expert	8.3	-0.25
D1_4	expert	8.7	0.33
D4_1	attrac	15.3	0.22
D4_1	expert	18.3	0.24
D4_3	attrac	11.3	-0.17
D4_3	ad	10.0	-0.15
D5_8	brand	9.3	-0.17

The Modification Indices Suggest to Add an Error Covariance

Between	and	Decrease in Chi-Square	New Estimate
D1_3	D1_1	18.2	0.26
D2_5	D1_2	14.3	0.26
D2_5	D2_1	12.3	0.25
D2_5	D2_2	16.3	-0.27
D2_6	D1_1	8.7	-0.17
D2_7	D1_1	7.9	-0.14
D2_7	D2_4	9.9	-0.20
D2_7	D2_6	36.1	0.41
D4_1	D2_5	9.5	-0.16
D4_3	D4_1	16.5	-0.16
D4_3	D4_2	21.6	0.15
D4_4	D4_2	16.9	-0.16
D4_5	D1_4	8.3	0.16
D5_1	D2_4	10.0	0.21
D5_1	D2_7	9.5	-0.20
D5_2	D5_1	24.1	0.31
D5_3	D1_3	11.9	0.16
D5_5	D1_2	15.3	0.28
D5_5	D1_3	8.6	-0.17
D5_5	D2_2	12.3	-0.24
D5_5	D2_3	8.9	0.28
D5_6	D2_7	9.5	0.15
D5_7	D5_5	48.8	0.52
D5_9	D2_3	8.2	-0.19
D5_9	D5_6	9.6	0.14
D5_10	D5_1	15.4	-0.32
D5_10	D5_2	12.4	-0.24
D6_4	D5_9	13.7	0.20



Chi-Square=908.78, df=367, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.062

Sample Size = 706

Covariance Matrix

	D4_1	D4_2	D4_3	D4_4	D4_5	D5_1
D4_1	1.49					
D4_2	0.79	1.08				
D4_3	0.80	0.78	1.27			
D4_4	0.93	0.68	0.78	1.65		
D4_5	0.83	0.73	0.75	0.91	1.32	
D5_1	0.42	0.31	0.27	0.40	0.44	2.62
D5_2	0.56	0.40	0.34	0.61	0.52	1.53
D5_3	0.60	0.41	0.35	0.63	0.53	1.54
D5_4	0.64	0.47	0.40	0.62	0.59	1.46
D5_5	0.47	0.37	0.36	0.45	0.47	1.57
D5_6	0.63	0.45	0.41	0.70	0.62	1.55
D5_7	0.58	0.40	0.33	0.48	0.52	1.55
D5_8	0.57	0.39	0.31	0.59	0.45	1.58
D5_9	0.58	0.39	0.28	0.58	0.53	1.43
D5_10	0.51	0.37	0.31	0.60	0.50	1.42
D6_1	0.35	0.31	0.39	0.31	0.31	0.46
D6_3	0.52	0.40	0.44	0.54	0.44	0.48
D6_4	0.41	0.36	0.29	0.44	0.40	0.47
D1_1	0.53	0.37	0.34	0.44	0.39	0.37
D1_2	0.44	0.29	0.32	0.41	0.37	0.47
D1_3	0.55	0.37	0.40	0.47	0.44	0.33
D1_4	0.31	0.25	0.29	0.36	0.37	0.61
D2_1	0.63	0.30	0.29	0.44	0.43	1.04
D2_2	0.58	0.30	0.35	0.45	0.37	0.76
D2_3	0.67	0.39	0.46	0.50	0.37	1.24
D2_4	0.64	0.35	0.34	0.45	0.39	1.19
D2_5	0.54	0.41	0.43	0.60	0.55	1.02
D2_6	0.52	0.38	0.45	0.53	0.47	0.84
D2_7	0.56	0.33	0.37	0.46	0.40	0.67

Covariance Matrix

	D5_2	D5_3	D5_4	D5_5	D5_6	D5_7
D5_2	2.13					
D5_3	1.60	2.52				
D5_4	1.40	1.69	2.04			
D5_5	1.33	1.62	1.47	2.89		
D5_6	1.59	1.85	1.68	1.61	2.56	
D5_7	1.34	1.59	1.45	1.82	1.71	2.50
D5_8	1.61	1.78	1.60	1.73	1.89	1.70
D5_9	1.41	1.71	1.57	1.53	1.87	1.56
D5_10	1.32	1.75	1.51	1.63	1.82	1.72
D6_1	0.37	0.50	0.32	0.46	0.35	0.41
D6_3	0.64	0.71	0.53	0.54	0.62	0.57
D6_4	0.42	0.50	0.45	0.38	0.45	0.45
D1_1	0.47	0.62	0.53	0.39	0.58	0.51
D1_2	0.67	0.65	0.52	0.61	0.63	0.61
D1_3	0.50	0.66	0.52	0.35	0.56	0.45
D1_4	0.58	0.69	0.54	0.63	0.60	0.71
D2_1	1.02	1.10	1.04	1.04	1.02	1.07
D2_2	0.81	0.99	0.91	0.80	0.88	0.83
D2_3	1.07	1.23	1.12	1.35	1.15	1.26
D2_4	1.09	1.18	1.19	1.22	1.16	1.24
D2_5	0.94	1.06	1.01	1.19	1.08	1.12
D2_6	0.80	0.91	0.82	0.82	0.83	0.91
D2_7	0.74	1.01	0.84	0.87	0.92	0.86

Covariance Matrix

	D5_8	D5_9	D5_10	D6_1	D6_3	D6_4
D5_8	2.58					
D5_9	1.97	2.43				
D5_10	1.87	1.83	3.17			
D6_1	0.59	0.46	0.51	4.11		
D6_3	0.82	0.69	0.79	3.30	4.01	
D6_4	0.56	0.59	0.54	2.38	2.40	2.85
D1_1	0.53	0.61	0.53	0.33	0.40	0.27
D1_2	0.61	0.56	0.59	0.34	0.46	0.30
D1_3	0.46	0.59	0.51	0.15	0.28	0.17
D1_4	0.58	0.55	0.52	0.10	0.21	0.08
D2_1	1.16	1.05	1.01	0.35	0.51	0.30
D2_2	0.99	0.91	0.92	0.22	0.43	0.16
D2_3	1.32	1.06	1.31	0.45	0.64	0.32
D2_4	1.26	1.11	1.18	0.22	0.43	0.17
D2_5	1.12	0.96	1.08	0.21	0.38	0.27
D2_6	0.77	0.72	0.81	0.26	0.36	0.29
D2_7	0.89	0.89	0.92	0.17	0.42	0.21

Covariance Matrix

	D1_1	D1_2	D1_3	D1_4	D2_1	D2_2
D1_1	1.53					
D1_2	0.97	1.84				
D1_3	0.95	0.77	1.36			
D1_4	0.74	0.90	0.79	2.31		
D2_1	0.80	0.82	0.68	0.87	2.42	
D2_2	0.62	0.68	0.60	0.68	1.22	1.93
D2_3	0.56	0.73	0.58	0.87	1.61	1.37
D2_4	0.75	0.83	0.67	0.80	1.57	1.45
D2_5	0.70	0.95	0.67	0.91	1.51	1.12
D2_6	0.52	0.79	0.58	0.80	1.16	1.10
D2_7	0.60	0.72	0.61	0.78	1.12	1.12

Covariance Matrix

	D2_3	D2_4	D2_5	D2_6	D2_7
D2_3	3.47				
D2_4	1.90	2.53			
D2_5	1.56	1.50	2.42		
D2_6	1.42	1.29	1.19	2.37	
D2_7	1.27	1.23	1.04	1.38	1.88

```
Number of Iterations = 10

LISREL Estimates (Maximum Likelihood)

        Measurement Equations

    D4_1 = 1.18*brand, Errorvar.= 0.57  , R² = 0.62
          (0.054)                (0.039)
           21.69                  14.67

    D4_2 = 1.00*brand, Errorvar.= 0.41  , R² = 0.62
                                 (0.028)
                                  14.69

    D4_3 = 1.06*brand, Errorvar.= 0.52  , R² = 0.59
          (0.050)                (0.034)
           21.06                  15.19

    D4_4 = 1.14*brand, Errorvar.= 0.78  , R² = 0.53
          (0.058)                (0.049)
           19.72                  16.01

    D4_5 = 1.09*brand, Errorvar.= 0.52  , R² = 0.60
          (0.051)                (0.035)
           21.33                  14.97
```

```
D5_1 = 0.85*ad, Errorvar.= 1.24  , R² = 0.53
      (0.037)              (0.070)
       23.17                17.75

D5_2 = 0.82*ad, Errorvar.= 0.82  , R² = 0.61
      (0.032)              (0.048)
       26.13                17.31

D5_3 = 0.96*ad, Errorvar.= 0.74  , R² = 0.71
      (0.033)              (0.045)
       29.53                16.56

D5_4 = 0.87*ad, Errorvar.= 0.59  , R² = 0.71
      (0.029)              (0.036)
       29.76                16.49

D5_5 = 0.89*ad, Errorvar.= 1.36  , R² = 0.53
      (0.038)              (0.077)
       23.26                17.74

D5_6 = 0.99*ad, Errorvar.= 0.67  , R² = 0.74
      (0.032)              (0.041)
       30.78                16.17

D5_7 = 0.90*ad, Errorvar.= 0.96  , R² = 0.62
      (0.034)              (0.055)
       26.26                17.29

D5_8 = 1.00*ad, Errorvar.= 0.66  , R² = 0.75
                           (0.041)
                            16.07

D5_9 = 0.95*ad, Errorvar.= 0.70  , R² = 0.71
      (0.032)              (0.043)
       29.71                16.51

D5_10 = 0.94*ad, Errorvar.= 1.45  , R² = 0.54
      (0.040)              (0.082)
       23.68                17.69

D6_1 = 0.98*intent, Errorvar.= 0.89  , R² = 0.78
      (0.032)                 (0.085)
       30.58                   10.49

D6_3 = 1.00*intent, Errorvar.= 0.64  , R² = 0.84
                              (0.081)
                               7.88
 D6_4 = 0.72*intent, Errorvar.= 1.12  , R² = 0.61
      (0.028)                 (0.071)
       25.76                   15.77

D1_1 = 0.99*attrac, Errorvar.= 0.54  , R² = 0.65
      (0.042)                 (0.044)
       23.75                   12.24

D1_2 = 0.94*attrac, Errorvar.= 0.94  , R² = 0.49
      (0.048)                 (0.061)
       19.65                   15.44
```

```
D1_3 = 0.91*attrac, Errorvar.= 0.54  , R² = 0.61
       (0.040)                (0.040)
        22.74                  13.24

D1_4 = 0.86*attrac, Errorvar.= 1.57  , R² = 0.32
       (0.057)                (0.091)
        15.14                  17.15

D2_1 = 1.19*expert, Errorvar.= 1.00  , R² = 0.59
       (0.051)                (0.062)
        23.40                  16.22

D2_2 = 1.05*expert, Errorvar.= 0.83  , R² = 0.57
       (0.046)                (0.050)
        22.97                  16.37

D2_3 = 1.34*expert, Errorvar.= 1.67  , R² = 0.52
       (0.063)                (0.099)
        21.44                  16.84

D2_4 = 1.31*expert, Errorvar.= 0.81  , R² = 0.68
       (0.050)                (0.054)
        26.09                  14.95

D2_5 = 1.15*expert, Errorvar.= 1.09  , R² = 0.55
       (0.052)                (0.066)
        22.31                  16.59

D2_6 = 1.05*expert, Errorvar.= 1.26  , R² = 0.47
       (0.053)                (0.073)
        20.02                  17.20

D2_7 = 1.00*expert, Errorvar.= 0.88  , R² = 0.53
       (0.046)                (0.053)
        21.87                  16.72
```

Structural Equations

```
ad = 0.057*attrac + 0.92*expert, Errorvar.= 1.02  , R² = 0.47
       (0.064)       (0.068)                (0.077)
        0.89          13.47                  13.18

brand = 0.28*attrac + 0.18*expert, Errorvar.= 0.49  , R² = 0.26
       (0.046)       (0.044)                (0.043)
        6.01          4.16                   11.48

intent = 0.22*ad + 0.43*brand, Errorvar.= 3.07 , R² = 0.086
       (0.055)   (0.097)              (0.21)
        4.08      4.47                14.89
```

Goodness of Fit Statistics

Degrees of Freedom = 370
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 1208.53 (P = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 1291.49 (P = 0.0)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 921.49
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (815.81 ; 1034.74)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 1.71
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 1.31
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (1.16 ; 1.47)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.059
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.056 ; 0.063)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.00

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 2.02
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (1.87 ; 2.18)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 1.23
ECVI for Independence Model = 59.29

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 406 Degrees of Freedom=41744.71
Independence AIC = 41802.71
Model AIC = 1421.49
Saturated AIC = 870.00
Independence CAIC = 41963.94
Model CAIC = 1782.87
Saturated CAIC = 3288.43

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.97
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.98
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.88
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.98
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.98
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.97

Critical N (CN) = 255.46

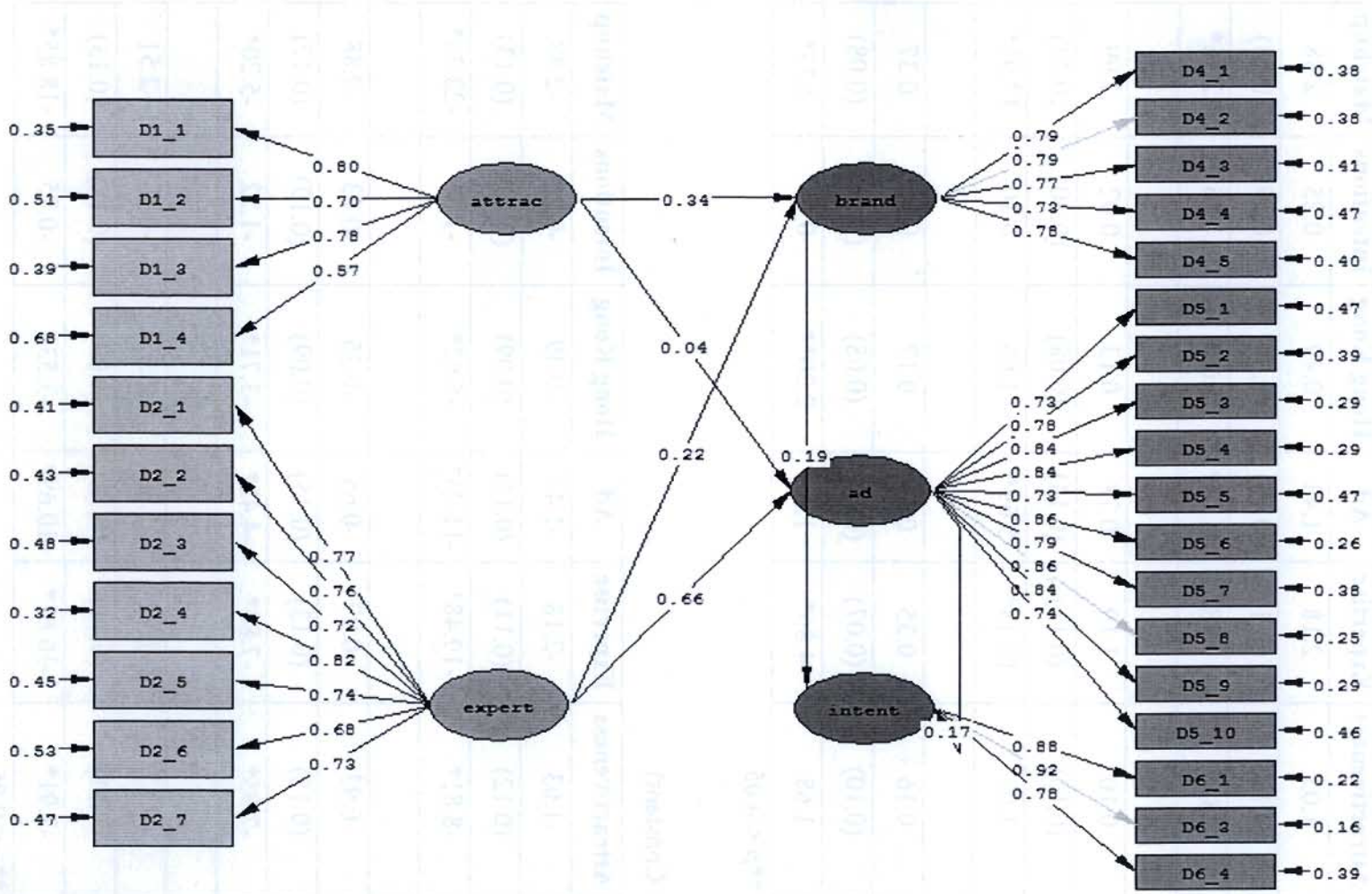
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.10
Standardized RMR = 0.047
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.89
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.87
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.76

The Modification Indices Suggest to Add the

Path to	from	Decrease in Chi-Square	New Estimate
D4_3	ad	11.7	-0.08
D5_4	brand	15.6	0.17
D6_1	ad	13.1	-0.12
D6_1	brand	11.3	-0.20
D1_1	expert	13.3	-0.21
D1_2	expert	9.5	0.19
D1_4	expert	17.4	0.31
D2_3	attrac	19.9	-0.36
ad	brand	18.5	0.28
brand	ad	18.5	0.14

The Modification Indices Suggest to Add an Error Covariance

Between	and	Decrease in Chi-Square	New Estimate
brand	ad	18.5	0.14
D4_3	D4_2	34.0	0.14
D4_4	D4_2	26.9	-0.15
D4_5	D4_4	17.2	0.13
D5_2	D5_1	30.0	0.22
D5_3	D5_2	8.9	0.10
D5_4	D5_3	16.2	0.12
D5_6	D5_5	7.9	-0.11
D5_7	D5_5	52.1	0.34
D5_8	D4_5	8.5	-0.08
D5_8	D5_3	8.5	-0.09
D5_8	D5_4	12.2	-0.10
D5_9	D5_1	12.6	-0.14
D5_9	D5_2	11.6	-0.11
D5_9	D5_6	9.0	0.09
D5_9	D5_8	48.7	0.21
D5_10	D5_2	22.8	-0.21
D5_10	D5_9	10.9	0.14
D6_1	D4_3	10.2	0.11
D6_1	D4_4	10.0	-0.13
D6_3	D5_1	11.0	-0.15
D6_4	D6_3	19.1	-0.89
D1_1	D5_9	8.3	0.08
D1_2	D5_2	11.1	0.12
D1_3	D5_3	13.0	0.10
D1_3	D5_5	11.2	-0.13
D1_3	D1_1	24.9	0.21
D1_3	D1_2	28.9	-0.23
D1_4	D4_1	8.6	-0.12
D1_4	D5_7	8.0	0.14
D1_4	D1_1	20.8	-0.22
D2_1	D1_1	8.6	0.10
D2_3	D4_5	9.7	-0.13
D2_3	D5_5	8.1	0.17
D2_3	D1_1	8.7	-0.13
D2_4	D2_2	8.1	0.11
D2_4	D2_3	16.1	0.22
D2_5	D4_1	13.9	-0.13
D2_5	D5_5	11.2	0.17
D2_5	D1_2	13.7	0.16
D2_5	D2_1	18.0	0.20
D2_5	D2_2	8.9	-0.13
D2_6	D5_8	12.4	-0.13
D2_6	D1_1	12.7	-0.14
D2_6	D2_4	8.4	-0.13
D2_7	D5_1	16.1	-0.17
D2_7	D5_3	10.4	0.11
D2_7	D2_4	10.0	-0.13
D2_7	D2_5	12.6	-0.15
D2_7	D2_6	86.2	0.41



Chi-Square=1291.49, df=370, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.059

Appendix D3: Latent Mean Differences among Treatment Groups

(Andy = Constant)

	Attractiveness	Expertise	Ad	Hong Kong	Intentions	Matchup
Britney	1.03	2.18	1.43	0.49	0.25	2.88
	(0.12)	(0.11)	(0.13)	(0.09)	(0.19)	(0.13)
	8.81*	19.48*	11.04*	5.62*	1.36	22.36*
David	0.10	1.19	0.78	0.13	0.02	1.99
	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.14)	(0.08)	(0.20)	(0.14)
	1.01	11.13*	5.69*	1.66	0.10	13.91*
Maggie	0.16	0.35	0.13	0.17	0.12	0.37
	(0.10)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.08)	(0.19)	(0.08)
	1.68	4.86*	1.29	2.20**	0.65	4.77*

*$p < 0.01$ **$p < 0.05$

(Britney = Constant)

	Attractiveness	Expertise	Ad	Hong Kong	Intentions	Matchup
Andy	-1.03	-2.18	-1.43	-0.49	-0.25	-2.88
	(0.12)	(0.11)	(0.13)	(0.09)	(0.19)	(0.13)
	-8.81*	-19.48*	-11.04*	-5.62*	-1.36	-22.36*
David	-0.93	-0.99	-0.65	-0.35	-0.23	-0.88
	(0.12)	(0.13)	(0.15)	(0.09)	(0.19)	(0.17)
	-7.95*	-7.84*	-4.42*	-3.71*	-1.22	-5.20*
Maggie	-0.87	-1.82	-1.30	-0.32	-0.13	-2.51
	(0.11)	(0.11)	(0.12)	(0.09)	(0.18)	(0.13)
	-7.91*	-16.61*	-10.69*	-3.53*	-0.75	-18.85*

*$p < 0.01$ **$p < 0.05$

(David = Constant)

	Attractiveness	Expertise	Ad	Hong Kong	Intentions	Matchup
Andy	-0.10	-1.19	-0.78	-0.13	-0.02	-1.99
	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.14)	(0.08)	(0.20)	(0.14)
	-1.01	-11.13*	-5.69*	-1.66	-0.10	-13.91*
Britney	0.93	0.99	0.65	0.35	0.23	0.88
	(0.12)	(0.13)	(0.15)	(0.09)	(0.19)	(0.17)
	7.95*	7.84*	4.42*	3.71*	1.22	5.20*
Maggie	0.06	-0.84	-0.64	0.03	0.10	-1.62
	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.13)	(0.09)	(0.19)	(0.15)
	0.59	-7.83*	-4.98*	0.38	0.53	-10.98*

*$p < 0.01$ **$p < 0.05$

(Maggie = Constant)

	Attractiveness	Expertise	Ad	Hong Kong	Intentions	Matchup
Andy	-0.16	-0.35	-0.13	-0.17	-0.12	-0.37
	(0.10)	(0.07)	(0.10)	(0.08)	(0.19)	(0.08)
	-1.68	-4.86*	-1.29	-2.20**	-0.65	-4.77*
Britney	0.87	1.82	1.30	0.32	0.13	2.51
	(0.11)	(0.11)	(0.12)	(0.09)	(0.18)	(0.13)
	7.91*	16.61*	10.69*	3.53*	0.75	18.85*
David	-0.06	0.84	0.64	-0.03	-0.10	1.62
	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.13)	(0.09)	(0.19)	(0.15)
	-0.59	7.83*	4.98*	-0.38	-0.53	10.98*

*$p < 0.01$ **$p < 0.05$