



THE HONG KONG
POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY

香港理工大學

Pao Yue-kong Library

包玉剛圖書館

Copyright Undertaking

This thesis is protected by copyright, with all rights reserved.

By reading and using the thesis, the reader understands and agrees to the following terms:

1. The reader will abide by the rules and legal ordinances governing copyright regarding the use of the thesis.
2. The reader will use the thesis for the purpose of research or private study only and not for distribution or further reproduction or any other purpose.
3. The reader agrees to indemnify and hold the University harmless from and against any loss, damage, cost, liability or expenses arising from copyright infringement or unauthorized usage.

IMPORTANT

If you have reasons to believe that any materials in this thesis are deemed not suitable to be distributed in this form, or a copyright owner having difficulty with the material being included in our database, please contact lbsys@polyu.edu.hk providing details. The Library will look into your claim and consider taking remedial action upon receipt of the written requests.

**EXAMINING STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG
COGNITIVE DESTINATION IMAGE, DESTINATION
PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS:
THE CASE OF BEIJING**

KAREN LIJIA XIE

M.Phil

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY

2011

**THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF HOTEL AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT**

**EXAMINING STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS
AMONG COGNITIVE DESTINATION IMAGE,
DESTINATION PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOURAL
INTENTIONS: THE CASE OF BEIJING**

KAREN LIJIA XIE

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

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

MAY 2010

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.

KAREN LIJIA XIE

ABSTRACT

Abstract of the thesis entitled "Examining Structural Relationships among Cognitive Destination Image, Destination Personality and Behavioral Intentions: The Case of Beijing" submitted by Karen Lijia Xie for the degree of Master of Philosophy at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University in May, 2010.

There has been continuing concern internationally about how to brand destinations, either regional or national, to increasingly demanding tourists. Destination marketers are seeking effective positioning strategies to increase destination competitiveness when they are becoming highly substitutable (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006) and increasing parity (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002). Echoing the industrial efforts, a growing number of studies have been conducted to explore the most workable destination branding and marketing approaches (e.g., Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Chaudhary, 2000; Gallarza, Saura & Garcia, 2002; Petrick, 2002; Prayag, 2008; Waitt, 1996). For example, Blain, Levy and Ritchie (2005) investigated the use of logos and associated taglines in business cards, letterhead paper, and various types of merchandise promoting the destination. Richel, Piggott, Morgan and Pritchard (2002) spotlighted the value of media relations activities in destination brand building. However, the traditional promotion of destinations which use tangible attributes and

activity opportunities is a very narrow interpretation of destination branding. There is increased focus among scholars on destination differentiation through intangible and emotional appeal of the destination brand. In line with de Chernatony's (1993) assertion, tourists embrace the brand that could help express about their emotions, personalities and roles. Tourists' beliefs and feelings about the destination accounts for a large part of their decision making (Ekinci, 2003), and tourists hold favorable attitudes towards, and will most probably visit, those destination brands matching their own personality.

Destination personality, defined as "the set of human characteristics associated to a tourism destination" (Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal, 2006), is beyond physical, utilitarian, and experiential attributes, to carry significance as consumption symbols, stressing their capacity to fulfill symbolic or value expressive functions for the individuals (Shavitt, 1990; Sirgy, Johar, Samli & Claiborne, 1991). The compelling advantage of destination personality is to create a link to tourists' self-image and thus stimulate a set of congruent and favorable associations in tourists' memory, developing a strong emotional tie, trust and loyalty with the brand (Fournier, 1998). In particular, a unique and emotionally attractive destination personality could leverage tourists' perceived destination image and influence tourists' behavioral intentions (Crockett & Wood, 2002; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). According to Murphy, Benckendorff & Moscardo (2007), destination personality appears

to be emerging as a compelling tool to differentiate the destination from its rivals. The industrial practice also lends support to this assertion. Conejo (2006) documented that faced by strong competitive pressures, top tourism destinations are increasingly basing their brand identities on rich and distinct personalities. Successful implementations have been found in destinations of Spain (Gilmore, 2002), Wales (Pride, 2002) and Britain (Hall, 2004). In particular, using destination personality campaign to promote the premier nature-based tourist destination Western Australia harvested additional tourism demand. There are also a handful studies attempting to develop empirical studies to measure destination personality. The past decades have witnessed some international applicability of five-dimensional Aaker's (1997) Brand Personality Scales in Australia (Murphy et al, 2007), India (Vaidya et al, 2009), Turkey (Hosany et al, 2007), UK (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006), and it has continuously been taken as reference for laying the foundations for measuring destination personality (Pitt, Opoku, Hultman, Abratt & Spyropoulou, 2007).

Although the importance of destination personality at both theoretical and practical levels is fully acknowledged, much ambiguity exists in its conceptual meaning. The literature review indicated that the focus on destination personality research has still been confined to a very early stage of delineating the destination personality and destination image (Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal, 2006). Secondly, as destination personality is

prevailingly rooted in the concept of Aaker's (1997) brand personality, when generalized to cross-cultural contexts, its attributes appear to show uncertainties. For example, personalities of African countries are presented by the mix of Competence, Excitement, Ruggedness, Sincerity and Sophistication (Pitt, Opoku, Hultman, Avratt & Spyropoulou, 2007), and three UK cities embrace the personalities of sincerity, excitement and conviviality (Hosany et al., 2006). While considerable studies about destination personality of western destinations virtually exist, there is a dearth of both theoretical and empirical examination about destination personality of eastern destinations. Furthermore, there was no consistency in findings about its relationships with other key variables proposed in the destination branding and tourist choice framework. For example, Ekinci and Hosany (2006) contended that destination personality positively influences tourist choice behavior, specifically, tourists' intentions to recommend, whereas Muphy et al. (2007) argued that destination personality, even though associated with high levels of self-congruity, failed to indicate a strong intention of tourists to visit the destination. Also, the role of destination personality when associating with destination image and behavioral intentions is controversial. Ekinci and Hosany (2006) claimed the moderating effect of destination personality on the relationship between destination image and intentions to recommend. However, direct and positive influence of destination image on tourists' behavioral intentions are also found in previous literature (Milman & Pizam, 1995). Finally, even

though there is consensus about the importance of destination personality in determining tourists' retention, it is not clear which dimension of destination personality is more effective in affecting tourists' behavioral intentions.

Inspired to clear the above ambiguity and bridge knowledge gaps about destination personality, this study analyzes basic assumptions of destination branding in an integrative framework where destination personality is hypothesized to be the consequence of cognitive destination image and the antecedence of behavioral intentions. The reason to look at cognitive destination image, rather than affective destination image, is simply because it is directly observable, descriptive and measurable (Walmsley & Young, 1998), and thus may provide more concrete and interpretive meaning regarding uniqueness of a destination (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Dann, 1996; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). In terms of behavioral intentions, although the effectiveness of loyalty is often gauged only by the actual behavior (Baloglu, 2002), behavioral intentions are very accurate predictors of social behaviors (Fishbein & Manfredo, 1992) when properly measured. In view of research limits in previous literature, this study provides an in-depth understanding of the aforementioned structural relationships in the context of less studied eastern destination of Beijing, a spotlight city that recently hosted the 2008 Olympics. Firmly based on a structural equation model (SEM), this study addresses the research

questions of how cognitive destination image characterizes destination personality and how destination personality impacts behavioral intentions from foreign tourists' perspectives. The paper ends with some thorough managerial recommendations for destination branding and in particular to raise awareness about less noticed aspects as to elevate Beijing's destination status.

In particular, empirical findings revealed that Beijing mainly communicated a four-factor destination personality of competence, excitement, sophistication and ruggedness, missing the centric personality of sincerity desired in prior studies. The findings implied that foreign tourists were reluctant to portray Beijing as trustworthy and dependable. Local people is the direct antecedent of destination personalities of excitement, sophistication and competence. Although the effect is not quite as strong, socially responsible environment is found to be the direct input of the most important destination personalities of sophistication and competence. The findings echoed to Hosany et al.'s (2006) assertion that cognitive destination image and destination personality are related concepts. At least some dimensions of cognitive destination image exert significant effects on most destination personality dimensions. Accounting for most of the variance, competence and sophistication are overwhelming indicators of tourist' behavioral intentions. Competence directly encourages tourists' willingness to pay more, partially because tourists tend to embrace an

anticipation of paying more for the competent destination, while sophistication works better in driving tourists' positive comments. Excitement works well in driving word-of-mouth intentions, however, tourists are reluctant to pay more for the exciting experience. Of particular note is that there is no effect of ruggedness on behavioral intentions, implying the fact that destination that is strong, outdoorsy and rugged is less effective in attracting the majority of the tourists. The finding is important because it clarifies much confusion about the nature of the relationship between brand personality and the consequent behavioral intentions superficially discussed in previous studies (Aaker et al., 2001; Fournier, 1998; Kotler & Gertner, 2002). Overall, this study confirms that destination personality flourish in cognitive destination image. Mainly based on the directly perceived image of socially responsible environment and local people, tourists ascribe brand personality to destinations across four dimensions, among which competence and sophistication directly and strongly drive behavioral intentions towards the destination.

Identifying the role of destination personality as the bridge of situational variables of cognitive destination image and psychological outcomes of behavioral intentions makes this study of significant value. Although cognitive perceptions are important in forming tourists' future intentions (Milman & Pizam, 1995), emotionally congruent destination personality is a closer measure. Including personality trait makes

destinations more interesting to the tourists through greater texture, depth and complexity (Aaker, 1996). Destination personality reflects back on to the destination, allows tourists to identify and self express through the destination, and thus establishes an emotionally interactive relationship with tourists. Applying the concept of brand personalities in the setting of destination has a direct relevance to destination prosperity simply because it builds up a manageable link with the input of cognitive destination image and the output of behavioral intentions. Neglecting the integrated process with consequential variables of cognitive destination image, destination personality and behavioral intentions, inconsistent findings have been reported in quite a lot previous studies. Perhaps the most significant finding could therefore be concluded as a theoretically logical and empirically validated link: cognitive destination image --- destination personality --- behavioral intentions, which firmly develops the links of belief – attitude -- intentions and behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and cognition— affect --- conation (Bagozzi, 1978; Breckler, 1984) in our specific context of tourism destination.

Since the blueprint of Beijing is to become an internationally recognized destination, understanding what foreign tourists think about Beijing provides important and pertinent clues of destination branding and marketing. Quite a few managerial implications for destination marketers are readily available. First, local people is the key communicator of

destination personalities and play important role in attracting and retaining foreign tourists. As manifested in the model, it shows robust path magnitude on most significant paths with destination personality, and in turn influences the behavioral intention level. It is evident that an important motive for tourists going on a pleasure vacation is to meet local people and see their culture, even some travelling are people oriented rather than placed oriented (Crompton, 1979). Destination marketers could develop unique programs and events with elements of host-tourist interaction, which not only enrich the travel experience of foreign tourists, but also open an window to introduce the destination culture and spirit. However, considering the missing destination personality dimension of sincerity which is highly relevant to local people, destination marketers may wish to internally launch considerable educational campaigns to correct inappropriate public manners (e.g., jumping the queue, spitting or littering, jaywalking) especially at the time China is ambitious to host spotlighted mega-events such as Olympic Games and the World Expo. Second, the centric destination personalities of competency and sophistication that directly predict the behavioral intentions stem from tourists' perceived image of socially responsible environment. However, the rating of socially responsible environment remains extremely low compared to those of other cognitive destination image dimensions. It is suggested that paramount emphasis be placed on shaping the positive image of social fairness and environmentally friendly. As a Third World destination whose destination

image is shaped by conflicting ideological forces in western media's report, Beijing should resist those negative representations and make its own versions of the story to be told. It is recommended that Beijing use multiple information channels to construct a touristic promotion that highlights human care, political stability, respect for social justices and individual rights, safety and sanitation. Destination marketers should also boost the green image of Beijing by emphasizing the importance of various environmental issues to prospective tourists in the green promotion campaigns. In addition, destination marketers should seize the appropriate opportunities to promote the environmentally friendly image. For instance, destination marketers could advertise ecological practice in Beijing (e.g., recycling, control of emission, energy conservation) to prospective tourists using web-based communications. Thirdly, the results of the present study support the need to consider all elements of the destination image not just those related to the destination personality characteristics because they are implicitly correlated with each other and therefore could not be set apart. Importantly destination planners and marketers should strive to create a holistic positive experience for tourists. Branding efforts that lead to enhancing positive perceptions and eliminating negative perceptions will definitely pay off.

Key Words: Cognitive Destination Image, Destination Personality, Behavioral Intentions, Beijing

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My gratitude first and foremost goes to my Chief Supervisor, Dr. Jinsoo Lee. It was his thoughtful instructions, sagacious feedback and inspiring comments that guided me here. He not only helped me establish the research framework, guided me through steps necessary to design the proposal, but also promoted me to combat with obstacles and achieve continuing progress. He arranged frequent face-to-face meetings for progress report and idea exchange. With his helpful advice and comments I could mirror whether I was on the right track. Not only has Dr. Lee been an outstanding mentor, but he is a great friend. His caring advice and bondless encouragement were always the source of motivation and inspiration for my M.Phil. study. I have been in the abluton of essential academism with his caring guidance, and all his rigorous scholarship that once deeply influenced me now has turned the two year journey in SHTM a very pleasant and exciting experience.

I would also like to thank my Supervisory Committee and faculty members for their support throughout the M.Phil study. They are not only teachers who provided invaluable guidance to my study, but also spiritual mentors who witnessed and advised my growth. Their encouragement inspired me to explore the unknown world with passion and strength. Their love and care gave me much courage to face ups and downs in life. I wish

to follow these leading scholars and to prepare myself to be a qualified one following the role models they set to me. I also deeply acknowledge SHTM for providing the financial support and research opportunities that enable me to take up my M.Phil candidature and produce my thesis and subsequent publications. The School has sparked my passion for the life-long academic career in hospitality and tourism education. I feel honored to be a member of this big family and proud for her achievement. I will be always self-motivated to add assets to the School's reputation and prestige wherever I am.

My appreciation also extends to my lovely fellow research students, who offered unselfish and patient help in my thesis writing. It was great to go through these procedures with friends like them. It is their friendship that made Hong Kong a home to me. We have shared the journey in Hong Kong and the friendship will definitely last forever.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my parents, Mr. Zhihe Xie and Ms. Yuanjiang Qiu, for all their caring support those years. They have completely devoted themselves to their children. I owe a big loving thank you to them.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY	i
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	xiii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xv
LIST OF TABLES	xxv
LIST OF FIGURES	xxvii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xxix
CHAPTER 1	1
1.1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND.....	2
1.1.1 Tourism in the Deterioration of World Economy	2
1.1.2 China on the Global Tourism Stage.....	4
1.1.2a China's Inbound Tourism.....	4
1.1.2b Tourism as the Dynamo to Recession Recovery	7
1.1.3 Opportunities and Challenges for Beijing.....	8
1.1.3a Be Socially Responsible and Green	8
1.1.3b Beijing as a Rising Destination	12
1.1.4 Tourists' Destination Loyalty	14
1.2 PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES	16
1.3 POTENTIAL OUTCOME AND SIGNIFICANCE	20
1.4 DEFINITION OF TERMS	25

1.5 THESIS STRUCTURE	28
CHAPTER 2	31
2.1 DESTINATION PERSONALITY	32
2.1.1 Brand Personality.....	32
2.1.2 Applying Brand Personality in Destinations.....	35
2.1.3 Conceptualization of Destination Personality	38
2.1.4 Dimensions of Destination Personality.....	40
2.1.4a Dimensions of Human Personality	40
2.1.4b Dimensions of Brand Personality	43
2.1.4c Aaker’s BPS-based Destination Personality Dimensions	47
2.1.5 Section Summary.....	49
2.2 DESTINATION IMAGE.....	50
2.2.1 Definition of Tourist Destination Image	50
2.2.2 Components of Destination Image.....	52
2.2.3 Dimensions of Cognitive Destination Image.....	55
2.2.4 Section Summary.....	58
2.3 SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE ENVIRONMENT OF DESTINATION	60
2.3.1 Definition of Social Responsibility	60
2.3.2 Social Responsibility of Destination	61
2.3.3 Attributes of Socially Responsible Environment.....	63
2.3.3a Attributes of Green Image	63
2.3.3b Attributes of Destination Product Safety.....	66

2.3.3c Attributes of Local People	69
2.3.4 Summary of Socially Responsible Environment Attributes	70
2.3.5 Section Summary	72
2.4 BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS	73
2.4.1 Components of Loyalty	73
2.4.2 Importance of Behavioural Intentions.....	75
2.4.3 Dimensions of Behavioural Intentions.....	77
2.4.4 Section Summary	81
2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY	82
CHAPTER 3	85
3.1 ANTECEDENT OF DESTINATION PERSONALITY	85
3.1.1 Cognitive Destination Image and Destination Personality	85
3.1.2 Linking Cognitive Destination Image to Destination Personality .	88
3.2 CONSEQUENCE OF DESTINATION PERSONALITY	90
3.2.1 Destination Personality and Behavioural Intentions.....	90
3.2.2 Linking Destination Personality to Behavioural Intentions	95
3.3 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK.....	97
CHAPTER 4	101
4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN	102
4.1.1 Two Components.....	102
4.1.2 Integrated Approach	104

4.1.2a Qualitative Approach.....	104
4.1.2b Quantitative Approach.....	106
4.1.2c Limitations	107
4.1.3 Three-stage Research Procedures	108
4.2 INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT	110
4.2.1 Questionnaire Development.....	110
4.2.1a Literature Review	111
4.2.1b Word Association	113
4.2.1c In-depth Interviews	114
4.2.1d Delphi Techniques	115
4.2.2 Questionnaire Design Considerations.....	117
4.2.3 Pilot Test.....	119
4.2.4 Questionnaire Structure	122
4.3 DATA COLLECTION	124
4.3.1 Sampling Method	125
4.3.2 Survey Operationalization	127
4.3.3 Sampling Size	128
4.3.4 Data Entry.....	130
4.3.5 Data Cleansing	131
4.4 DATA ANALYSIS	132
4.4.1 Procedures of Data Analysis.....	133
4.4.2 Descriptive Analysis	135
4.4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis	135

4.4.4 Reliability Analysis	136
4.4.5 Structural Equation Modelling	136
4.4.5a Confirmatory Factor Analysis	137
4.4.5b Structural Model Testing	137
4.5 HUMAN ETHNICS AND CROSS-CULTURAL ISSUES	138
4.5.1 Human Ethics Issues	138
4.5.2 Cross-cultural Issues	139
4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY	142
CHAPTER 5	143
5.1 PRELIMINARY ITEMS	144
5.2 FINDINGS OF WORD ASSOCIATION	146
5.3 FINDINGS OF IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS	147
5.4 FINDINGS OF DELPHI PANEL	148
5.5 PILOT TEST	150
5.5.1 Operational Process	150
5.5.2 Questionnaire Assessment	153
5.5.3 Measures of Variables	155
5.5.3a Cognitive Destination Image	155
5.5.3b Destination Personality	156
5.5.3c Behavioural Intentions	156
5.5.3d Demographic Profile and Travel Information	157
5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY	157

CHAPTER 6	159
6.1 DATA SCREENING	160
6.1.1 Missing Value.....	161
6.1.2 Normality Test.....	163
6.1.3 Outlier Exclusion	168
6.1.4 Measurement Scale Purification	170
6.1.5 Descriptive Analysis of Measurement Scales	174
6.2 SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS	180
6.2.1 Demographic Profile	180
6.2.2 Trip Profile.....	184
6.3 THE TWO-STEP SEM ANALYSIS	185
6.3.1 Two-step Procedures	186
6.3.2 The Estimation Method	187
6.3.3 Model Fit Indices.....	188
6.3.4 Diagnostic Measures	191
6.4 MEASUREMENT MODEL ANALYSIS	192
6.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Cognitive Destination Image....	198
6.4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Destination Personality.....	201
6.4.3 Overall Measurement Model	204
6.5 OVERALL STRUCTURAL MODEL ANALYSIS	210
6.5.1 Profile of the Overall Structural Model	210
6.5.2 Path Analysis of the Overall Structural Model	212

6.5.3 Hypothesis Testing	217
6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY	224
CHAPTER 7	227
7.1 DIMENSIONALITY OF RESEARCH CONCEPTS.....	227
7.1.1 Cognitive Destination Image	228
7.1.2 Destination Personality	237
7.1.3 Behavioural Intentions	248
7.2 STRUCTURAL RELATIONS.....	251
7.2.1 Effects of Cognitive Destination Image on Destination Personality	251
7.2.2 Effects of Destination Personality on Behavioural Intentions	259
7.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY	264
CHAPTER 8	267
8.1 TAPPING THE FAVORABLE DESTINATION IMAGE	267
8.2 BRANDING THE UNIQUE DESTINATION PERSONALITY	276
8.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY	282
CHAPTER 9	285
9.1 RESEARCH OVERVIEW	285
9.2 RESPONSE TO RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.....	290

9.3 SIGNIFICANCE AND CONTRIBUTION	297
9.3.1 Academic Contribution	298
9.3.2 Managerial Contribution	301
9.4 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS	306
9.5 FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS	310
9.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY	315
APPENDICES.....	321
A. PRELIMINARY ITEMS OF COGNITIVE DESTINATION IMAGE	322
B. FINDINGS OF WORD ASSOCIATION ON COGNITIVE DESTINATION IMAGE...	324
C. TRANSCRIPTS OF IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS ON COGNITIVE DESTINATION IMAGE	325
D. FINDINGS OF THE DELPHI EXPERT PANEL ON COGNITIVE DESTINATION IMAGE	326
E. QUESTIONNAIRE OF THE PILOT TEST.....	328
F. QUESTIONNAIRE OF THE MAIN SURVEY	331
REFERENCE.....	333
A	333
B	335
C	340
D	343
E	345

F	347
G	348
H	351
I	354
J	355
K	356
L	358
M	360
N	364
O	365
P	366
Q	369
R	369
S	371
T	375
U	376
V	376
W	377
X	378
Y	378
Z	379

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 2

TABLE 2.1 FIVE FACTOR MODEL OF HUMAN PERSONALITY	42
TABLE 2.2 AAKER'S BRAND PERSONALITY SCALES	45
TABLE 2.3 A SUMMARY OF BRAND PERSONALITY STUDIES.....	48
TABLE 2.4 A SUMMARY OF DESTINATION PERSONALITY STUDIES .	50
TABLE 2.5 PROPOSED ATTRIBUTES OF NATURAL AND BUILT ENVIRONMENT	59
TABLE 2.6 PROPOSED ATTRIBUTES OF SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE ENVIRONMENT	72

CHAPTER 4

TABLE 4.1 TWO COMPONENTS OF RESEARCH DESIGN.....	102
--	-----

CHAPTER 6

TABLE 6.1 NORMALITY OF VARIABLES IN THE MAIN SURVEY	164
TABLE 6.2 ITEM-TOTAL CORRELATION AND COEFFICIENT ALPHA	172
TABLE 6.3 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF MEASUREMENT SCALES ..	175
TABLE 6.4 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS.....	182
TABLE 6.5 ORIGINS OF RESPONDENTS	182
TABLE 6.6 TRAVEL PATTERN OF RESPONDENTS.....	185

TABLE 6.7 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF COGNITIVE DESTINATION IMAGE	201
TABLE 6.8 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF DESTINATION PERSONALITY	203
TABLE 6.9 OVERALL MEASUREMENT MODEL.....	206
TABLE 6.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE OVERALL MEASUREMENT MODEL	208
TABLE 6.11 PATH ANALYSIS OF THE OVERALL STRUCTURAL MODEL	213
TABLE 6.12 RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS TESTING.....	223
TABLE 6.13 SUMMARY OF SUPPORTED RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	226
 CHAPTER 9	
TABLE 9.1 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS	295

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

FIGURE 1.1 2008 INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS CHANGE OVER SAME PERIOD OF THE PREVIOUS YEAR	3
FIGURE 1.2 OVERSEAS TOURISTS ARRIVALS IN CHINA, 1987-2008 (PERSON-TIME TH).....	5
FIGURE 1.3 INTERNATIONAL TOURISM REVENUE, 1995-2007 (USD MILLION).....	6
FIGURE 1.4 CHINA'S INBOUND ARRIVALS BY TRAVEL PURPOSE, 2007.....	6
FIGURE 1.5 INBOUND TOURIST ARRIVALS BY MAJOR COUNTRY TO CHINA, 2007	6

CHAPTER 3

FIGURE 3.1 HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COGNITIVE DESTINATION IMAGE DIMENSIONS AND DESTINATION PERSONALITY.....	90
FIGURE 3.2 HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN DESTINATION PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS	96
FIGURE 3.3 THE OVERALL FRAMEWORK.....	99

CHAPTER 4

FIGURE 4.1 RESEARCH PROCEDURES110

FIGURE 4.2 PROCEDURES OF DATA ANALYSIS134

CHAPTER 5

FIGURE 5.1 LANDMARK AND ATTRITIONS OF BEIJING.....153

CHAPTER 6

FIGURE 6.1 CONTINENTAL DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS.....184

FIGURE 6.2 ESTIMATES OF THE STRUCTURAL MODEL226

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BJEPB	Beijing Environmental Protection Bureau
BOCOG	Beijing Organizing Committee for the Olympic Games
CEA	Center for Environmental Assurance
CFS	Centre for Food Safety
CPC	Communist Party of China
FMECD	Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development
FSA	Food Standards Agency
IHEI	International Hotels Environment Initiative
IOC	International Olympic Committee
LISREL	Linear Structural Relationships
NICBO	National Information Centre of Beijing Olympics
NSC	National Sport Commission
OWBOG	Official Website of the BEIJING 2008 Olympic Games
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
UNBC	United Nations Brundtland Commission
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WHO	World Health Organization
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Despite the general deceleration of global economy in recent years, a glance at China's booming inbound tourism market reveals its important role as the dynamo to recession recovery. In the global tourism complex, Beijing as China's capital city and tourist gateway embraces both challenges and opportunities. On one hand, given the negative influence of recent incidents spotlighted by western media coverage (e.g., food safety issues of melamine-contaminated milk, environmental concern of sandy storms, social controversy of internet censorship, etc), there is still a long way to go before Beijing and its country behind are fully recognized as a responsible and green destination. On the other hand, the successful staging of the 2008 Olympic Games adds a highlight touch to the destination development and the long-term rise of international tourist flow is yet to come. Examining what this city is actually perceived by the outside world than what it claimed to be, this study makes an objective stance by inviting foreign tourists' opinions for core variables outlined in the tourist-host scenario of Beijing.

This chapter comprises several sections. Section 1.1 reports the setting and background of this study. Section 1.2 illuminates the research purposes and objectives. Section 1.3 describes the potential outcomes and

significance of this study. Section 1.4 provides definition for a list of terminologies in this study. Section 1.5 unveils the structure of the thesis.

1.1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

1.1.1 Tourism in the Deterioration of World Economy

In line with United Nations World Tourism Organization's recently released World Tourism Barometer, large parts of the world have suffered a decline in tourism business in the past months (UNWTO, 2009). Especially in the second half of the year, international tourist arrivals show an abrupt shift in trends with international tourist arrivals flat or showing negative growth (see FIGURE 1.1). The gloomy trend is confirmed by arrival estimates, air traffic data and hotel performance. The estimate for international arrivals is not optimistical, and the experience of past years suggests that in normal times the growth of receipts tends to follow fairly closely that of arrivals, and thus many countries have to endure a frustrating season. Air transport data reported by the International Air Transport Association (IATA) and various regional air transport associations reveals that market performance was deteriorated clearly in the last part of the year (IATA, 2009). Hotel performance data for the 11 months of the year, as reported by Deloitte, also corroborates the trend that overall occupancy was down in all regions, except for some small areas. The revenue per available room (revPAR) and average room rates correspondingly declined (Deloitte, 2009).

Principal factor affecting the region has understandably been attributed to the extremely volatile and unfavourable global economy in the backdrop of the credit crunch, the widening financial crisis, commodity and oil price rises, and massive exchange rate fluctuations (UNWTO, 2009). The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in a recent statement about the global economic situation commented “It seems that every corner of the world has at last been drawn into the cortex of recession.” The situation is expected to be worse than any other recession since 1929 (UNWTO, 2009). So it is hardly surprising that most of the forecasts for tourism are rather gloomy. The inevitable hit to tourism sector comes after undermining of both business and consumer confidence. This disturbing concern has also been reflected in the UNWTO Confidence Index, which is at its lowest level since its creation in 2003. There are no signs that this downward trend will soon be reversed.

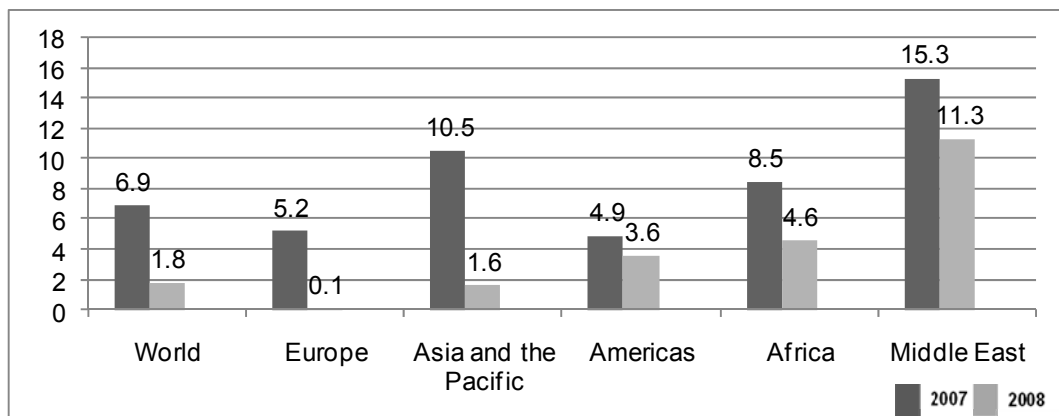


FIGURE 1.1 2008 International Tourist Arrivals Change over Same Period of the Previous Year

Source: UNWTO. The World Tourism Barometer, January 2009

1.1.2 China on the Global Tourism Stage

1.1.2a China's Inbound Tourism

Since the beginning of 1978 when the Communist Party of China held the Third Plenary Session of its eleventh Congress and declared to shift emphasis from political struggle to economic reconstruction, China entered an era of economic reform. Gradually and cautiously, the country opened the gate for international trade and tourism with the intention to drive China's economy in a direction that was guided by market forces (Lim & Pan, 2005). The subsequent political stability and increasing economic prosperity of China have triggered the increasing demand of inbound tourism. China in turn gave policy priority to inbound tourism market so as to make exchange earnings. Since 1978, the tourism industry in China has achieved remarkable growth, though there was a severe decline of international arrivals affected by particular events, for example, the 1989 Tiananmen Square Incident and the 2003 SARS. Anyhow, the inbound tourism of China rebounded immediately in the following years and still enjoyed continuous growth from a long-term perspective (see FIGURE 1.2).

Similarly, the booming development of China inbound tourism market is also evidenced by growing international tourism revenue (see FIGURE 1.3). Among international arrivals with diverse travel purposes, leisure tourists keep soaring in the past decades (see FIGURE 1.4). From the spatial angle, major tourist-generating countries concentrate in Asia

due to the geographical proximity, short-haul convenience and comparatively lower costs of travel (Dwyer, Forsyth, Madden, & Spurr, 2000). However, relatively remote countries such as U.S.A, U.K. and Australia also become important inbound tourist sources that account for large proportion of China's international arrivals (see FIGURE 1.5). Given the robust market figures, it is believed the topics of China tourism is worth research attention (Dwyer et al., 2000; Lim & Pan, 2005; Zhang, 2003). Externally international industrial practitioners may also want to deepen the understanding towards flagship destinations of China and make corresponding action, while internally destination marketers of China may also wish to ride the upward wave and make beneficial avenues for the destination's continuous growth.

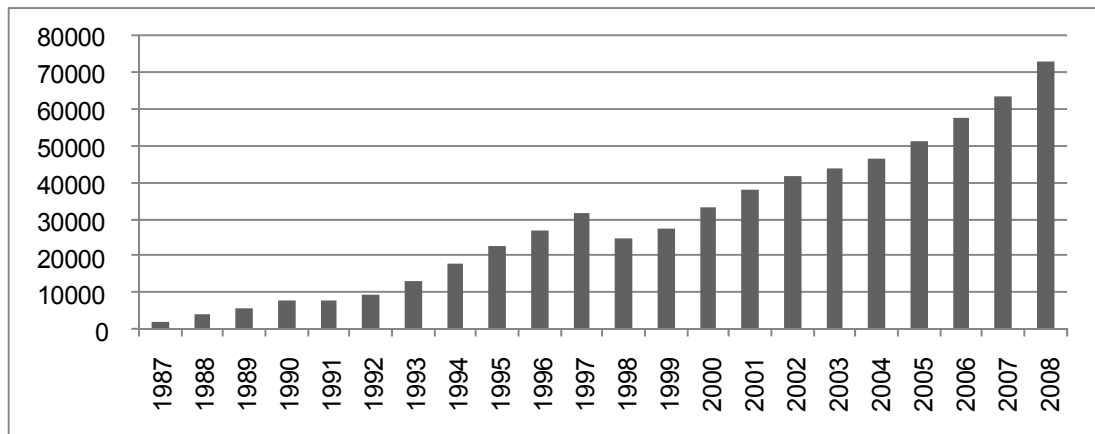


FIGURE 1.2 Overseas Tourists Arrivals in China, 1987-2008 (Person-Time th)

Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China. China Statistical Year Book, 2001-2009.

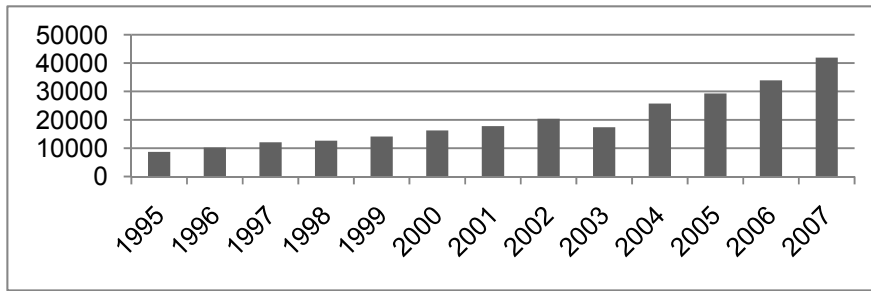


FIGURE 1.3 International Tourism Revenue, 1995-2007 (USD Million)

Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China. China Statistical Year Book, 2000-2008.

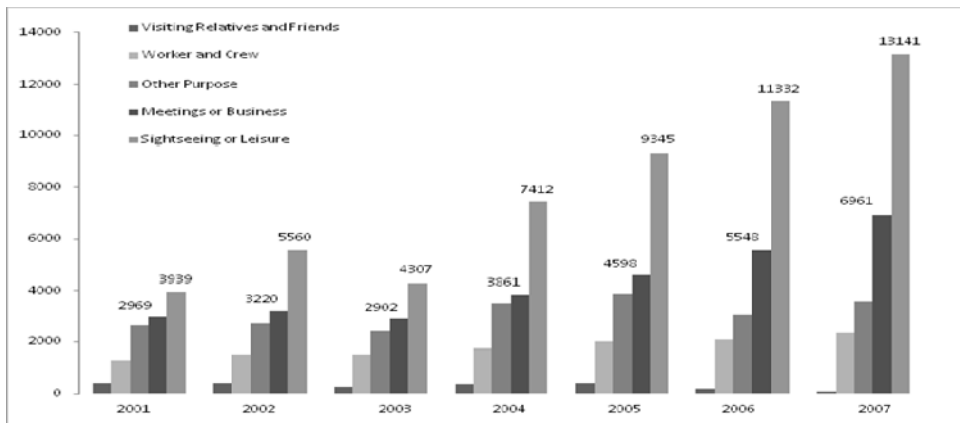


FIGURE 1.4 China's Inbound Arrivals by Travel Purpose, 2007

Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2008.

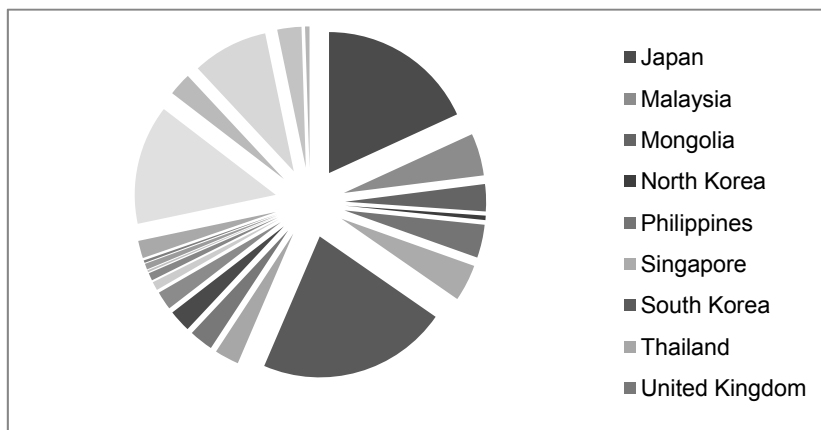


FIGURE 1.5 Inbound Tourist Arrivals by Major Country to China, 2007

Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2008.

1.1.2b Tourism as the Dynamo to Recession Recovery

In line with UNWTO's World Tourism Barometer issued in October 2008, China is seriously affected by special circumstances. A number of factors in China combine together during the past 2008 and influenced the trend of China's inbound tourist flow. There are the incidents of health and safety scare of melamine-contaminated milk and leady toys reported in China. Besides, natural disasters of spring snowfalls and summer floods in the southern China and earthquakes in Sichuan Province especially influence the international flow to China. Fortunately, the impact of respective incidents on tourism is largely localised and short-lived. Despite all the negative factors, there is a prestigious event, the 2008 Olympic Game that instils much positive strength to China inbound tourism. Olympic Games are supposed to have long term positive impact on the international arrivals (BBC, 2008). In this particular gloomy downturn, large parts of the world is suffering stagnation in arrivals. However, China's results are expected to be positive, although growth will continue to be slower compared to the region's performance in recent years (UNWTO, 2009).

In fact, China is certainly banking on continued growth in tourism. The Game host city of Beijing's authorities said the city has invested US\$147 million in the post-Game period of 2009-2010 in new and upgraded tourist attractions. They set growth targets 7% a year for international tourist arrivals, in 2009-2012, and to double its tourism

revenues to approximately US \$59 billion by 2012 (UNWTO, 2009). As might be expected, China and other emerging markets are to provide the engines that could pull the world out of recession.

1.1.3 Opportunities and Challenges for Beijing

According to Zhang, Pine and Zhang (2000), China is a large country and has abundant tourism resources pending to be developed. Especially for the international tourists, the Chinese cultural heritage holds the most attraction (Groot, 2007). As the capital city and the historical and cultural center of China, Beijing is a flagship tourism destination of China. The spotlight light of the 2008 Olympic Games not only unveils pearls of its long history and splendid culture, but also exposes perils of social issues of this destination and the country behind. It would be interesting to examine the destination related topics in the case of Beijing.

1.1.3a Be Socially Responsible and Green

Although there is a booming picture for future tourism development, special challenges still exist for Beijing. In the past decades, Beijing put much weight on economic development and sacrificed rights in other areas. Particularly, given a serial of socially responsible crises recently found in China, there is still a long way for Beijing to be recognized as a destination with favourable reputation among international tourists. It might be understandable that, in Beijing's situation, showcasing a respectful and

responsible personality is more essential than ever before. Pressures from the western media coverage primarily goes for sensitive issues that will specifically presented as below.

One of the negative consequences of Beijing's rapid industrial development is the increasing pollution and degradation of natural environment. The Chinese industrial economy increases rapidly and pollution grows serious, but the majority of Chinese are insensitive to this potential disaster. In past decades, environmental protection consciousness of Chinese government is actually very low. Much solid waste is not properly disposed of, water pollution is a source of health problems across the country, and air pollution causes up to 1,750,000 premature deaths each year (Liu & Nelson, 2008). In particular, the environmental impact in Beijing is even worse than that of other cities. Decline of the environment and over deforestation bring sandy storm to Beijing. Smoky days account for more than half year annually, which makes Beijing no green image at all (Hong, 2006). Therefore, Beijing in its bid has put forward "Green Olympics", referring to the implementation of advanced technology and management model to solve Beijing's environmental problems, as one of the three themes of the 2008 Olympic Games. The aim is to incorporate the concept of sustainable development into the staging of the Games, to protect the environment, to conserve resources and to maintain the ecological balance (Yu, 2004).

China has also suffered sharp blames from the world on its food safety and product quality issues. Although it is painful to mention, the severe offense of responsible destination image could attribute to the made-in-China toy recall. The Consumer Product Safety Commission (CPSC) of United States issued recalls targeting high lead for over 1 million toys, among which China manufactured every one of the 24 kinds toys recalled for safety reasons (Lipton & Barabozza, 2007). According to CPSC, the 2007 summer has seen a record number of recalls affecting millions of toys manufactured coated at factories and sweatshops in China with lead paint which can especially damage the health of children. Another similar case is found in China's milk industry. News about the contamination of milk with melamine in China first emerged on Sept 11, 2008. By Sept 22, the Chinese authorities had reported that 52,857 children had been treated for renal complications. At least four children have died as a direct result of feeding with melamine-contaminated milk (Food Standards Agency, 2008), and the situation has since become an international safety and health scare (Chan, Griffiths & Chan, 2009). International tourists' concern has been increasingly raised at these shocked scandals of product quality and safety issues, which has immediately impacted China's destination reputation, as food and catering is the daily interface of tourists when traveling in the destination and toys are usually shopped at the destination as gifts or souvenirs for tourists and their friends and family. As might be expected, these socially responsible crises directly influence tourists' decision making

towards the destination. No one would like to get involved in unsafe and irresponsible destination, and lacking social responsibility just ruins the reputation of the destination.

On top of those social scandals, human right issues also make Beijing's image a controversy. The emerging tip of the iceberg is the 1989 Tiananmen Square Conflict. The military crackdown on the demonstrations in Tiananmen Square led a dramatic drop of decline in touristic images of the country and subsequent inbound tourism (Gartner & Shen, 1992). Since the Tiananmen Square Conflict of 1989, human rights issue of China has come to the forefront (Zheng, Sym & Ross, 1996). Other controversial human rights issues in China are also spotlighted in the western media coverage. For example, government involvement in the media and restriction of speech freedom, control of workers' movement from the county to an urban area to take up non-agricultural work, the restrictions towards freedom to believe in religions such as Christianity and Tibetan Buddhism, and the one-child policy.

To some extent the criticism on human rights issues of China from the western countries are quite reasonable. However, there are counterarguments made by China based on its own rationale. China, together with a few Asian countries, puts priority on the idea of "Asian values" (Jiang, 2003) and the need to create a "harmonious society"

(People's Daily, 2005) where the welfare of the collective should always be put ahead of the rights of any individual whenever conflicts arise. A strong and stable authority would be required in order to regulate the potentially conflicting interests of the public and enforce a compromise (Ma, 1994). The Chinese authorities believe “Too much freedom is dangerous” (Inoguchi & Newman, 1997) and will directly result in problems of the alarmingly rising crime rates, family breakdown, number of industrial actions, the invasion of other country (e.g., Iraq), vandalism and political extremism in most Western societies. The Chinese government also argues that the notion of human rights should include economic standards of living and measures of health and economic prosperity (Inoguchi & Newman, 1997). On cultural grounds they argue that as the economic, cultural and political situations differ substantially across countries, a universal “one-size-fits-all” definition of human rights should not apply internationally (Inoguchi & Newman, 1997). Rounds of swordplay between China and the western countries have created a controversy but also an interesting catalogue.

1.1.3b Beijing as a Rising Destination

Beijing enjoys a distinct four seasons with dry, windy, sandy in spring. The comfortable natural environment is associated with the similar cozy built environment. As China’s capital, Beijing is the national politics and culture center. The Great Wall, amazing Hutong culture, splendid

palaces, beautiful gardens, old temples, a considerable variety of exhibitions and museums, and former residences of celebrities all showcase its glorious culture, history and civilization. Particularly by hosting the 2008 Olympic Games, Beijing did a good job in utilizing the rare mega-event chance and showcasing its distinctive beauty to worldwide tourists. As we may know, every Olympics provides a snapshot of the host cities at a point in time. The 2008 Beijing Olympic Games is more compelling than most, since China's rise and its ongoing transformation is the global story, not only of the moment, but likely of the foreseeable future (Business Standard, 2008). Although Derudder, Taylor, Witlox and Catalano (2003) classify Beijing in the second tier as a "major regional world city" along with cities such as Washington, Hamburg, and Cairo, China may see the Games as an opportunity for Beijing to join or even surpass other top-tier countries in the world (Owen, 2005).

Blueprint for Beijing is of course not only limited to being positioned as a mega-event destination, but also a highly competing tourism destination with multiple attractions and beauties. The 2008 Olympic Games is just a starting point and increasing flows of inbound tourists are expected to visit Beijing in the long run. Like what Choi, Chan and Wu (1999) claimed, the development of an appropriate perception towards a destination may enhance tourism development. Echtner and Ritchie (2003) also indicated that, to be successfully promoted in a particular market, "a

destination must be favorably differentiated from its competition, or positively positioned, in the minds of the tourists". In order to be more competitive in attracting inbound tourists to Beijing, all the marketing efforts should start from understanding what foreign tourists really think about Beijing. Whether this host city has positioned or re-positioned a unique identity to the global audience? What destination image they perceive? Do they deem Beijing as their spiritual partner and ascribe congruent personality to it? What intentions they may have for this destination? The dilemma for Beijing is, on one side it is the representation of the emerging global economic power and culturally attractive destination of China, on the other side it has been criticized for image distortion in many social aspects. Only based on the in-depth investigation, opportunities and challenges in branding a competitive tourism destinations could be identified. It is also hoped that putting Beijing as the case of destination branding based on foreign tourists' perception may assist in correcting the stereotypical image and maximizing the positive attractions. From this perspective, the success of China depends upon this.

1.1.4 Tourists' Destination Loyalty

Studies have shown that it costs six times more to attract new consumers than to retain the existing ones (Rosenberg & Czepiel, 1983). It has also been reported that the net increase of the present value of profits that results from a 5 percent increase in customer retention varies between

25 percent and 95 percent over different industries (Oliver, 1999). Conventional marketing wisdom suggests that, tourists' behavioural intentions, as the accurate indicator of emotional retention and loyalty, has a direct link with the company's profitability (Prayag, 2008). Considering the practical value of research on consumers' loyalty, multidimensional behavioural intentions have been proposed in the marketing literatures to capture the comprehensive nature. This notion could be well extended to tourist destinations' settings. A good understanding of tourists' behavioural intentions is actually of paramount importance for understanding the current pros and cons and anticipating the sustainability of the destination. Starting from the "buy side" perspectives, their destination loyalty may help answer several fundamental questions on the destination development: How tourists may respond to their favourable destinations? What leads to tourists' behavioural intentions of this destination? Are there any variables could be identified so as to result in the favourable behavioural intentions? How other variables work in diving the positive behavioural intentions? To answer these questions, this study, based on the case study of Beijing, offers a structural and integrative examination of tourists' retention towards the destination. That is, research efforts may be contributed to examining the ultimate outcomes of destination marketing by investigating the structural relationship of behavioural intentions with other key variables that may be of casual influence to behavioural intentions.

Examining foreign tourists' behavioural intentions toward Beijing in a dynamic formation process have a number of implications. It not only reveals additional strengths and weakens of destinations by receiving foreign tourists' intentional feedback (Kozak, 2001), but also provides better understanding of tourists' expectations for future patronage (Petrick, 2004). In this regard, capturing foreign tourists' behavioural intention represents an objective stance of critically evaluating what this country actually achieved rather than what it claimed to be in the setting of post-Olympics. Despite the positively supposed booming future of Beijing, a calm research attitude is much more needed than ever to conduct this objective study.

1.2 PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

Despite such important role of behavioural intentions in predicting the destination success, much ambiguity exists in understanding its formation. According to previous substantial research (e.g., Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Lin et al., 2007), behavioural intentions are in nature a conation concept as a function of perceived cognitive image and consumers' feelings. In general, cognitive image represents consumers' beliefs and knowledge about the object, whereas affect image refers to their emotional response (feelings, mood) towards the object (Bagozzi, 1978; Breckler, 1984), and cognitive knowledge induces affective responses (Weiner, 1986). Behavioural intentions, as the conation, are an outcome of cognitive image and affective feelings. The

logic could therefore be concluded in the notion that consumers first process cognitive information and then affective feelings before developing the behavioural intentions. That is, tourists start the behavioural intentions development process from perceiving cognitive destination image and then shaping affective feelings.

Destination personality has been conceived of as an affective concept because the definition of destination personality is consistent with the meaning of affect. For instance, Ekinci and Hosany (2006), stepping forward to Aaker's (1997) psychological definition of brand personality as human characteristics people associate with brands, defined destination personality as "the set of human characteristics associated with a destination". Destination personality serves as tourists' affective emotional attachment to the destination. For example,. A well-established destination personality influences tourists' preference and patronage (Malhotra, 1988; Sirgy, 1982), and develops stronger emotional ties (Biel, 1993), trust and loyalty with the destination (Fournier, 1998). Of particular significance is that, compared with affective destination image that only represents favorable, unfavorable, or neutral feelings (Fishbein, 1967), destination personality captures an individual's multi-dimensional affective perceptions towards destination (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006) and therefore usually becomes more operational and meaningful in the behavioral intentions formation process. Based on the above reasonable interpretation, the

causal link has been established among cognitive destination image, destination personality and behavioural intentions.

Since the conceptualization of destination personality has only recently galvanised some tourism scholarly attention, the effect of destination personality in the structural relationships with cognitive destination image and behavioural intentions could be described as a niche area in tourism literature. To the best of the author's knowledge, no studies to date have been carried out to specifically examine the multiple affective segments of destination personality and their roles in transforming the perceived destination image and in turn formulating behavioural intentions. Particularly, attempts to examine destination personality and relative variables should be extended to different destination settings so as to broaden our understanding of its effectiveness as an initiative destination branding technique (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). This study theoretically dissects the affective aspects of destination personality and empirically examines the relationships among cognitive destination image, destination personality and behavioural intentions, using the case of spotlighted Beijing. The potential implications are expected to shed light on Beijing's destination marketing and guide the practical implementation to effectively position and differentiate the destination from other rivals in the highly competitive environment.

In view of the knowledge gaps and practical demand, the research question of this study is depicted as: How cognitive destination image characterizes destination personality, and how destination personality impact behavioural intentions? In line with the research question, five research objectives have been generated to guide the entire study through:

- O1.** To capture the cognitive destination image of Beijing
- O2.** To identify the destination personality of Beijing
- O3.** To understand how cognitive destination image characterizes destination personality
- O4.** To identify which cognitive image dimensions are the most/least strongly related to destination personality
- O5.** To explore how destination personality impacts behavioural intentions
- O6.** To identify which destination personality dimensions are the most/least strongly related to behavioural intentions
- O7.** To derive implications for Beijing's destination development

The research questions provide specific plot for the entire study. In particular, the key words for the study are distilled to be *tourist destination image*, *destination personality* and *behavioural intentions*. These three key words identify specific themes and issues that need to be taken into considerations to answer the main research questions.

1.3 POTENTIAL OUTCOME AND SIGNIFICANCE

Exploratory in nature, this study is one of the few to set frontiers in the subject matter of destination branding and marketing. As such, several theoretical and practical implications are expected to be readily available from this study. First of all, the study consolidates existing body of knowledge in several aspects, such as destination image, destination branding and tourists' behaviour. Besides, it directly contributes to the newly emerging destination personality literature, theoretically and empirically. While brand personality has been well documented in the generic marketing literature, the application of brand personality to places, in particular to tourism destinations, is still in its infancy. With the advent of maturity of both conceptualization and operationalization of this theory in the context of consumer goods (Aaker, 1997), it is only until fairly recent years this type of research has started to be undertaken in a handful of tourist destination (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006; Hosany, Ekinici & Uysal, 2006). Destination personality, newly emerging and lagging behind practitioners' expectations particular as global destinations are competing to score well in the tourists' mark sheet, is in need of urgent development in terms theoretical validation and empirical investigation. Staying focused on destination personality of Beijing, the research adds depth and complements existing knowledge about destination branding. In this regards, the study is designed to pave the way for the emergence of further related studies.

Secondly, destination personality as an approach to explaining tourists' behavioural intentions differs from the conventional interpretations in economics where people are treated homogeneously in terms of their personality. In other words, behaviour research in general follows the thought of psychological cognition, and in this study tourists' behavior is therefore thought to be aroused from, or determined by, the congruence between individual's personality and that of the destination. However, we could not go too far to make our wishes realistic simply because the decision making is too complex to be accommodated within a personality framework. Also, it is still worthwhile, several years after Ekinci and Hosany's (2006) adaptation of destination personality, to trace back, discuss and rethink the original concepts and theories of brand personality established by Aaker (1997), and its original concepts and theories of Big-five human personalities in the psychological field. Many studies have followed this approach to discuss interactive relationship between tourist and destination. However we cannot say with full confidence that we have a good knowledge of how tourists act and how the destination system works without going back to the origins of the concepts. Since tourism has been discussed extensively on a multi disciplinary basis (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981) from an interdisciplinary perspective (Tribe, 1997), or even as a chaotic system (McKercher, 1999), the concept of destination personality has defined, from its own stand-points, the limits and scope within which we can talk about tourism as it currently stands.

Moreover, theoretically validating and empirically testing a structural model that explains the logically cohesive relationship with other key variables by making destination personality as the central hinge addresses a gap in the research. Although the main concentration of this study is on destination personality, the research explores the theoretical rationale from the supporting findings in previous studies for inputting two key concepts, cognitive destination image and destination behavioural intentions. Although many literature has reach the consensus that relationships between destination personality, cognitive destination image and behavioural intentions do exist, empirical testing remains extremely sparse. By assuming cognitive destination image as the antecedent and behavioural intentions as the consequences, the study makes dual-extensions of the overall destination branding and tourists choice framework. Looking at particular aspects of the relative concepts, e.g., socially responsible environment of the destination which starts to gain momentum awareness among tourists, this research further pioneers in responding to the real world concern and linking the public spotlighted concern to relative destination variables.

The creativeness and initiative of this study lie in its good command of the cross-disciplinary knowledge. Specifically, the development of destination personality research resembles many other areas and it borrows and adapts concepts developed in other subjects. Based on the

extensive literature available in relative subjects, this study deliberately expands the research scope, broadens the horizon, extracts the nutrition and apply ideas from other domain in the tourism context. For example, different from the cliché, this study applies product layers theory in marketing field to help segment and operationalize the concept of cognitive destination image. Application of the corporate social responsibility theory is also used to conceptualize and operationalize the socially responsible environment in this study. Moreover, the Big-five theory of personality in psychological domain and Aaker's BPS in business domain have explored new ground with the application of these theories as well as paved the way to the establishment of personality scaling for a regional destination. In turn, the research findings will test and consolidate the reliability and validity of these theories. Hopefully this study may serve as a ladder for future study and expand the research sequences into the future.

As any concept should be validated in multiple scenarios to guarantee its applicability in the real world, this study pioneers in testing the relevance of brand personality to tourist destinations, especially in eastern destination context. Since the appearance of brand personality theory in tourism research, there has been by now no study conducted in eastern destinations to demonstrate its generalizability given the arguably sensitivity of destination personality in cross-cultural settings (Aaker, 1997). This study serves as a modest window not only to introduce more useful

concepts in facilitating the development of tourism studies, but make sure it is fully tested in the less acknowledged case of the eastern destination.

Finally, managerial implications drawn from the current work could help destination marketers identify the particular aspects that may be worth their attention and endeavour. It is believed creating an adequate destination personality is a most important strategy of destination branding. Beijing's future as a favoured international tourist destination depends on this. In order to achieve this goal, destination marketers may wish to establish its own profile of distinctive destination personality and make it consistent with the perceived cognitive destination image. Hereby, corresponding marketing tools such as visual communication, advertising and direct marketing may be of help. In particular, using destination personality scales that have been fully validated in previous studies could make a comparison feasible. Destination marketers could understand the difference of psychological characteristics between their brand and that of their competitors and see which more effectively drives tourist behavioural intentions. For example, dimensions for particular destinations could be plotted and compared in the perceptual maps as presented in Pitt, Opoku, Hultman, Abratt and Spyropoulou (2007). It is hoped that the findings acquired from this study could help destination marketers to design and implement appropriate strategies and relocate limited resources more effectively and wisely.

1.4 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Destination

The World Tourism Organization (WTO) Think Tank in 2002 defined a tourism destination as a physical space in which a visitor spends at least one overnight. It includes tourism products such as support services and attractions, and tourism resources within one day's return travel time. It has physical and administrative boundaries defining its management, and images and perceptions defining its market competitiveness. Local destinations incorporate various stakeholders often including a host community, and can nest and network to form larger destinations.

Destination Image

Destination image is an individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings, and overall perception of a particular destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004). It is the cognitive and affective evaluation by tourists on the attractiveness of destination attributes and images formed through the information provided by information channels before travelling to the destination (Baloglu, 2001).

Cognitive Destination Image

Cognitive image and affective image are essential components of destination image (Burgess, 1978; Holbrook, 1978; Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997). Cognitive image is defined as the belief and knowledge about a

destination attributes while affective image is the emotional feeling of tourists towards the destination (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997, Walmsley & Young, 1998, Son & Pearce, 2005). Cognitive image is regarded as the antecedents of affective image (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

Natural Environment

Natural environment commonly refers to a term that encompasses all living and non-living things occurring naturally on Earth or some region thereof. In the current study, natural environment includes natural attractions, scenery, climate, wildlife, forests, beaches, mountains, lakes, and rivers (Botha, 1999; Calantone, Benedetto, Hakam & Bojanic, 1989; Chen, 2001; Crompton, Fakeye & Lue, 1992; Gartner, 1989; Haahti, 1986; Kim, 1998; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2006; Uysal, Chen & Williams, 2000).

Built Environment

Built environment refers to the human-intervened environment. It could be the cognitive geographically focused areas that people visit such as major attractions of the destination, say, stadiums, museums, galleries and entertainment venues (Choi, Lehto & Morrison, 2007; Govers, Go & Kumar, 2007; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008), which are constructed and controlled to provide tourists with predictable and consistent experiences.

Socially Responsible Environment

An entity, whether it is a government, corporation, organization or individual, has a responsibility to society (Kaliski, 2001; Carpenter, Bauer & Erdogan, 2009). Similarly, socially responsible environment of the destination refers to the responsibility of a whole of all destination stakeholders to the society in line with the ethical value. In the current study, socially responsible environment makes the destination extra credibility and contributes to tourists' belief and trustful feelings of the destination.

Human Personality

Human personality refers to a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations (Ryckman, 2004).

Brand Personality

Inanimate objects such as commercial brands can become associated with human characteristics (Plummer, 1985; Ogilvy, 1983), as any person has a personality. Brand personality refers to the set of human characteristics associated with a brand (Aaker, 1997).

Destination Personality

Destination personality refers to the set of human characteristics associated with a destination (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006).

Loyalty

Loyalty is the committed behaviour. Generally speaking, loyal tourists hold favourable attitudes towards the destination and are inclined to return if their situation allows. They also help to spread positive word-of-mouth, project positive images of the destination and bring in new tourists to the destination. Loyal tourists usually tend to be not that price sensitive and willing to pay more in their favoured destination.

Behavioural Intentions

Behavioural Intentions refer to an individual's intention to make the decision of engaging in a specified behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In the marketing context, once consumers are classified behaviourally (in terms of their loyalty patterns), it is possible to link these behavioural segments to the underlying attitudes towards the brands (Baldinger & Rubinson, 1996).

1.5 THESIS STRUCTURE

This thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter 1 is an introductory chapter, providing background information of the study and briefing readers on research questions and objects. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive review of prior literature in terms of their relevance to the current study. At least three goals are to be achieved: to fully understand the conceptualization of major concepts, to operationalize the measurement for each concept, and to explore the logic connection among concepts from an

integrative perspective. Hypotheses have been derived. Chapter 3 displays a conceptual model where major constructs and hypothesized relationships are included. Chapter 4 specifies the research methodology and present a rigorous research process with necessary procedures. Particularly, the integration of qualitative and quantitative instruments triangulates the reliability and validity of the study. Methodological limitations and ethics and cross-cultural issues are also discussed. Chapter 5 describes the instrument development and the pilot study experience. Chapter 6 reports the data analysis procedures and subsequent results. In particular, two-step structural equation modelling is adopted to examine the hypothesized relationships among three concepts of research interest. Chapter 7 discusses the empirical findings in a broad horizon. Dimensionalities and structural relationships of research constructs are presented, and reasonable interpretations are also provided. Based on the findings and clues, Chapter 8 elaborates the practical implications for destination planners and marketers. Chapter 9 is the concluding chapter of this study. The research significance and contribution to both academia and industry are presented. Despite its importance, this study has some limitations. As the research idea keeps evolving, there is a promising outlook of future research opportunities.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Nowadays destinations are fighting for increasingly discerning tourists in search of the impressive and interesting places to visit (Hosany et al., 2006). Tourist destinations are increasingly turning to be branded as branding is the ideal vehicle, likely the most powerful resource that they have, to differentiate and position the destinations away from competitors, to capture highly commoditized markets with desired attractions, and to satisfy the emotional and symbolic demand of today's tourists. A major trend is therefore available from the top destination brands: they are basing their unique identities on rich and distinct destination personality (Morgan & Pritchard, 2004) as it enhances tourists' perceived utility, desirability and quality (Kotler & Gertner, 2002), leverages the destination's cognitive image, and drives tourists' intention to recommend (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006), visits and repeat patronage (Douglas & Millsm, 2006). Particularly, destination branding is important for destinations of developing countries as they are struggling to attract inbound tourism, export and direct foreign investment (Papadopoulos, 2004). It might be noted destination branding related topics, such as destination image, destination personality and destination loyalty, are of major interest to destination marketers as they have immediate prediction to the success of destination marketing. Scholarly studies chasing this topics are therefore likely to be seen as

amongst the most relevant research for destination marketers (Pearce, 2005). Despite a growing body of literature on destination branding, at a regional level there has been little investigation of whether or not tourists do ascribe brand personality characteristics to tourism destinations, and if so, whether this practice positively impact the tourists' behavioral intentions.

This chapter consists of several sections. Section 2.1 elaborates the centric concept of destination personality. Section 2.2 conceptualizes and operationalize the concept of cognitive destination image. Socially responsible environment, a newly emerging dimension of cognitive destination image, is deliberately discussed in Section 2.3. Section 2.4 illustrates previous findings about behavioural intentions. Section 2.5 gives a short summary of this chapter.

2.1 DESTINATION PERSONALITY

2.1.1 Brand Personality

It is plausible the hypothesis that through their interactions with products and advertising, consumers come to personify brands as having personalities (Caprara et al., 2001). Considerable empirical evidence also supports the notion that inanimate objects such as commercial brands can become associated with human characteristics (Aaker, 1997; Ogilvy, 1983; Plummer, 1985), as any person has a personality. In fact consumers do perceive brands as having personality traits (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2004).

For instance, one may use the word masculine to describe Marlboro cigarettes; rugged to describe Levis jeans; feminine to describe Chanel perfumes; and intelligent to describe IBM computers (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006). When people speak of a brand's personality, it means the way in which a consumer perceives the brand on dimensions that typically capture a person's personality--extended to the domain of brands (Batra et al., 1993). Therefore, brand personality is deemed to consist of human characteristics people associate with brands (Aaker, 1997).

In any case of the research, in focus groups or in-depth interviewing, consumers have no difficulty answering metaphorical questions such as: suppose the brand is a person, what kind of person would he/she be, with what personality? Consumers also buy brands, among other reasons, to define how old or young they are, how masculine or feminine they are, and how upscale or downscale they are (Morschett et al., 2008). Psychology and marketing has also extensively shown that by purchasing and utilizing commercial brands, individuals are inclined to maintain, enhance, or seek social approval of certain aspects of their self-concept (Belk, 1988; Dolich, 1969; Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967; Levy, 1959; Sirgy, 1985, 1986). Brand personality tends to serve a symbolic or self-expressive function (Keller, 1993). Research on the symbolic use of commercial brands has shown that individuals prefer those brands matching their own personality (Bosnjak et al., 2007). Consumers easily can think about brands as if they were

celebrities or famous historical figures (Rook, 1985) and as they relate to one's own self (Fournier, 1994). The brand as a person perspective, including personality traits, made brands more interesting to the consumer through greater texture, depth and complexity.

Regarding the generation mechanism of brand personality, Plummer (1985) suggested that perceptions of brand personality traits can be formed and influenced by any direct or indirect contact that the consumers have with the brand. Aaker (1997) specifically explained the formation of brand personality traits. Personality traits come to be associated with a brand in a direct way by the people associated with the brand, for example, the brand's user imagery; the company's employees or CEO; and the brand's product endorsers. In this way, the personality traits of the people associated with the brand are transferred directly to the brand (McCracken, 1989). In addition, however, personality traits come to be associated with a brand in an indirect way through product-related attributes, product category associations, brand name, symbol or logo, advertising style, price, and distribution channel (Batra et al., 1993). Therefore, research in the consumer goods domain has flourish back to the early 1960s (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006), when Birdwell (1964) investigated the relationship between self-concept and perceived personality of cars, and Dolich (1969) examined the influence of perceived personality of cars on consumers' self-image. No matter direct or indirect generation, brand personality has been validated

by much previous literature. Its emergence indicates a brand new marketing approach that touches the inner self of consumers, and thus it has been discussed by both scholars and industrial practitioners in the past decades. All these studies provide strong logic that the theory of brand personality could be applied in business domain, including tourism and hospitality industry of course.

2.1.2 Applying Brand Personality in Destinations

In an increasingly competitive tourism market, tourist destinations are becoming highly substitutable (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). All the tourist destinations are increasingly competing for international tourists' attention and destination marketers are in a constant battle to attract travelers (Pike & Ryan, 2004), and face the challenge of attracting tourists through destination branding and destination personality building practices. National and local governments around the world are going beyond traditional promotion/marketing efforts and instead embracing the holistic place branding concept in order to successfully face heightened global competition (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). This has laid emphasis on the branding of places—a commitment to create a “brand equity” which sustains the community and attracts and engages people and institutions in the growth and development of the area and its beneficiaries (Vaidya et al., 2009). It has been further argued that, to be effective, destination brands need to establish a brand personality rather than traditional promotions that

use mostly physical attributes and activity opportunities (Murphy et al., 2007). Similar to brand personality, destination personality is widely acknowledged as an essential part of the destination that differentiates itself from rivals (Aaker, 1996; Kapferer, 1997). In order to become unique and distinctive, destination personality is therefore seen as a viable metaphor for crafting a destination's unique identity (Caprara et al., 2001; Crask & Henry, 1990; Morgan et al., 2003; Triplett, 1994) and emerging as one of the most compelling tools for destination marketers seeking a competitive advantage. For instance, Europe is traditional and sophisticated; Wales is honest, welcoming, romantic, down to earth; Spain is friendly and family oriented; London is open-minded, unorthodox, vibrant, creative; Paris is romantic (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002). Destination marketers are increasingly deemed to embrace branding initiatives to attract visitors and expenditures to their respective destinations (Blain et al., 2005). Even though destination branding is a difficult undertaking, its rewards may be enormous, potentially influencing a location's economic and social destiny (Anholt, 2005). Successful cases have been found in destinations of Spain (Gilmore, 2002), Wales (Pride, 2002), Oregon (Curtis, 2001), Louisiana (Slater, 2002) and Britain (Hall, 2004).

Tourist destination itself, as a comprehensive product, consists of a bundle of tangible and intangible components, and the hedonic holiday experience gives tourism destinations rich symbolic values (Ekinici &

Hoany, 2006). It is therefore believed that the concept of brand personality can be extended to destinations. Any destination could be personalized and branded (Vaidya et al., 2009). It might not be surprising that, based on the brand-as-person perspectives tourists can attribute a personality to a destination according to its perceived communication and "behaviors" (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2004) in exactly the same way. Specifically, perceptions of destination personality traits can be formed and influenced by the direct and/or indirect contact that the tourist may have had with the destination (Plummer, 1985). Tourists receive and interpret the various messages sent by destinations and build a representation of the "behaviour" of the destination. Personality traits can be associated with a destination in a direct way, through citizens of the country, hotel employees, restaurants and tourist attractions, or simply through the tourist's imagery, defined as the set of human characteristics associated with the typical visitor of a destination (Aaker, 1997). In an indirect manner, personality traits can be attributed to destinations through marketing programs such as cooperative advertising, value pricing, celebrities of the country, and media construction of destinations (e.g., Cai, 2002). Accordingly, we argue that, similar to consumer goods/brands, tourism destinations are rich in terms of symbolic values and personality traits, given that they consist of a bundle of tangible and intangible components (e.g., visitor attractions, hotels, people) associated with particular values, histories, events and feelings (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006).

2.1.3 Conceptualization of Destination Personality

By extending the concept of brand personality to destinations, the destination personality is therefore defined by Ekinci and Hosany (2006) as “the set of human characteristics associated with a destination” as perceived from a tourist rather than a local resident viewpoint, and which has gained considerable acceptance among practitioners, academics and research subjects (Aaker, 1996). While destination and human personality appear similar in their conceptualization, the two constructs vary in their antecedents and the distinct objectives which they serve. Contrary to people, destinations are inanimate objects and obviously do not in themselves “behave” in a consistent manner. According to Aaker’s definition, destinations are imbued by personality trait associations arising from person-related attributes (e.g., traits transferred from persons associated with the brand) and product-related trait inferences (e.g., stemming from logo design, performance characteristics, etc.). Sources to build up a destination personality are mainly awareness, performance, positioning, imagery/personality, judgment, feelings and resonance (Vaidya et al., 2009). Destination personality is any humanistic value that is imbibed in a destination. It is also a core dimension of destination identity (Aaker & Fournier, 1995). By associating character, imagery or personality with the brand, advertising plays an important role in creating brand personality, but for the destination, a special product, besides all those associations that establish personality, the actual perceptions of people for the destination is

more vital (Vaidya et al., 2009). Vaidya et al. (2009) therefore suggest destination personality establishment and place branding would involve a reinforcement of the existing image or an image makeover. It is argued that any branding exercise using destination personality should have the precursor of identification of the prevailing image connotations of the place to be “marketed” (Vaidya et al., 2009). Taking inventory of the place’s cognitive assets in order to identify the unique and compelling characteristics to be communicated to the tourists would also in turn enable the stakeholders in the destination personality enriching exercise.

Despite the significance of the cognitive destination image in identifying the destination personality, much ambiguity exists as to the relationship between brand image and brand personality (Aaker & Fournier, 1995). Patterson (1999) indicated that most studies fail to distinguish between the concepts of image and personality. Hosany et al. (2006) concluded two major issues as the definitional inconsistencies and the interchangeable use. For instance, brand image has been defined in terms of brand personality in studies conducted by Hendon and Williams (1985) and Upshaw (1995). These two concepts have also been interchangeably used in the literatures of Smothers (1993) and Graeff (1997). When brand personality is compared with other brand concepts, no consensus has been reached yet also. Patterson (1999) concluded that most studies fail to distinguish between the concepts of brand personality, brand identity, user

image and brand loyalty. For instance, Plummer (1985) and Patterson (1999) propose that the brand image is conceptualized as a more encapsulating concept and, as such, has a number of inherent characteristics or dimensions including brand personality, user image, product attributes and consumer benefits. Heylen et al. (1995) posit that brand personality and brand identity are two antecedents of brand image. While Kapferer's (1997) identity prism contrasts with this conceptualization. He suggests personality and self-image to be antecedents of brand identity, along with physical, relationship, reflection and culture dimensions. Brand image has also been identified as a key component of brand loyalty (Hosany et al., 2006). But to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has yet investigated these aforementioned relationships among brand image, brand personality and brand loyalty in the previous literatures, let alone in the tourism domain. The poor conceptualization and a lack of empirical studies have hampered progress in understanding these relationship among the cognitive destination image, destination personality and destination loyalty in the tourism context.

2.1.4 Dimensions of Destination Personality

2.1.4a Dimensions of Human Personality

By the 1990's psychology researchers were largely in agreement that human personality, defined as the innate characteristics of a person which generate consistent patterns of feeling, thinking and behaving, could

be effectively measured using a trait approach (Conejo, 2007). Systematic efforts to organize the taxonomy of personality began shortly after McDougall (1932) wrote that, “personality may to advantage be broadly analyzed into five distinguishable but separate factors”. The psycholexical tradition in personality psychology maintains that over time, languages develop a pool of adjectives that describe the most important personality differences between people (Goldberg, 1982). Factor analyses among the considerable personality attributes have revealed that, in many different languages, most adjectives describing individual personalities could be reliably categorized in terms of five broad bipolar dimensions, which is the so-called Big Five Model of human personality. The five dimensions are often (but not always) labeled O.C.E.A.N. (see TABLE 2.1).

It would be surprising that the large number of adjectives describing human personalities could be reduced to only five latent dimensions. (1) Extraversion. It indicates the preference for social interaction and for activity; (2) Agreeableness, the orientation toward compassion and caring about others, and away from antagonism; (3) Conscientiousness, the preference for goal-oriented activity (i.e., the degrees of organization); (4) Emotional Stability, the ability to cope effectively with negative emotions; and (5) Openness to Experience, the tolerance for new ideas and new ways of doing things, experientially oriented (Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1993; McCrae & John, 1992; Pervin et al., 2005; Wiggins & Pricus, 1992).

Specifically, some researchers have shown that the five dimensions could be represented by a small number of adjectives that are representative enough of the dimension they load on. In other words, those adjectives have a high loading on one dimension and a low (or close to 0) one on any other dimension. Those adjectives are named "markers" of the Big Five (Goldberg, 1993; Saucier, 1994). They have been developed in order to reduce the questionnaires length and to avoid respondents' fatigue. This method enables a psychologist to have a quick evaluation of an individual. Saucier's (1994) 40 mini-markers are therefore presented further in the above table.

TABLE 2.1 Five Factor Model of Human Personality

Dimensions	Items
Openness	Creative, imaginative, intellectual, philosophical; deep; complex; uncreative, un-intellectual.
Conscientiousness	Efficient, organized, systematic, practical, disorganized, inefficient, sloppy, careless.
Extraversion	Bold, extraverted, talkative, bashful, quiet, shy, withdrawn, energetic.
Agreeableness	Kind, sympathetic, warm, cooperative, cold, unsympathetic, harsh, rude.
Neuroticism (or Emotional Stability)	Unenvious, relaxed, fretful, envious, jealous, moody, touchy, temperamental.

Source: Saucier's (1994) 40 mini human personality markers

This model provides a consensual framework for classifying and organizing descriptors of human personality. The emergence of the 5-factor model has important implications for the field of personnel psychology. It

illustrates that personality consists of five relatively independent dimensions which provide a meaningful taxonomy for studying individual differences. In any field of science, the availability of such an orderly classification scheme is essential for the communication and accumulation of empirical findings (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Though brands are usually described with adjectives (Berry, 1988; Durgee, 1988; Plummer, 1984; Poiesz, 1989), it remains questionable whether the principal features of brands can be encoded as stable traits and expressed by single words. Since we consider that brands, just as individuals, can be described with adjectives, the approach used in psychology can be very interesting and relevant to account for a brand personality as perceived by consumers (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2004).

2.1.4b Dimensions of Brand Personality

The past decade has witnessed the development of the consensus among personality psychologists around the Big Five Model as a reference structure for the assessment and description of human personality, parallel research has not been conducted in consumer behavior on brand personality until the recent decades. And the application of this model to marketing settings suffered from a consensus on the dimensions of brand personality, which has hampered progress in measuring the consumer-based perceptions on the brands and products (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006). Only since 1997, the pioneering scale of brand personality proposed by

Aaker, a new stream of research was born. The brand-personality scale developed by Aaker (1997) breaks new ground in the sense that it emphasizes the direct measurement of brand personality rather than a focus on the personality of the individual. Previous studies examined the congruence between a brand and the personality of the consumer by taking the latter as the basis of the comparison. Aaker re-orientated the congruence from the perspective of the brand by seeking to explicitly measure the personality of the brand. This renewed interest for a rather old concept (brand personality) signals that the metaphor of brands as persons is held as more and more pertinent at a time when marketing stresses so much the importance of creating relationships with brands (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2004).

Aaker (1997) followed most of the time the psychologists' steps in their study of human personality. Particularly, she followed the studies conducted by researchers who contributed to unveil the existence of 5 dimensions of human personality. Drawing on the Big Five theory, Aaker (1997) made the first trial of exploring the brand personality through directly borrowing and somehow adapting the theory. She focused in a general cross-category framework, investigated brand personality dimensions underlying 114 traits used to describe 37 different brands that cover various product categories. After sorting a number of descriptors of brand personality, a five-factor solution was found. This was corroborated by both

exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, as well as by reliability analyses. Yet only three of these factors were those appearing in the Big Five Model (see TABLE 2.2).

TABLE 2.2 Aaker's Brand Personality Scales

Brand Personality Dimensions	Facet Name	Traits
Sincerity	Down-to-earth	down-to-earth, family-oriented, small-town
	Honest	honest, sincere, real
	Wholesome	wholesome, original
	Cheerful	cheerful, sentimental, friendly
Excitement	Daring	daring, trendy, exciting
	Spirited	spirited, cool, young
	Imaginative	imaginative, unique
	Up-to-date	up-to-date, independent, contemporary
Competence	Reliable	reliable, hard working, secure
	Intelligent	intelligent, technical, corporate
	Successful	successful, leader, confident
Sophistication	Upper class	upper class, glamorous, good looking
	Charming	charming, feminine, smooth
Ruggedness	Outdoorsy	outdoorsy, masculine, Western
	Tough	tough, rugged

Source: Aaker's (1997) Brand Personality Scales

According to Aaker's definition, brands are imbued by personality trait associations arising from person-related attributes (e.g., traits transferred from persons associated with the brand) and product-related trait inferences (e.g., stemming from logo design, performance characteristics, etc.). Aaker obtained five distinct personality dimensions (sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness). Aaker

(1997) further found 15 facets for these five dimensions: sincerity and excitement each have four, competence has three and both sophistication and ruggedness have two. Specifically drawing on consumers' perceptions, sincerity is represented by attributes such as down-to-earth, real, sincere and honest. Excitement is illustrated by traits such as daring, exciting, imaginative and contemporary. Competence is characterized by attributes such as intelligent, reliable, secure and confident. Sophistication is personified by attributes such as glamorous, upper class, good looking and charming. Finally, ruggedness is typified by tough, outdoorsy, masculine and western. These facets act as representative traits that provide both breadth and depth into every dimension. Since then, many marketing works have been conducted based in Aaker's Brand Personality Scales (Aaker et al., 2001; Caprara et al., 2001; Johar et al., 2005; Siguaw et al., 1999; Venable et al., 2005).

However, no scaling is not without critics. Many scholars have questioned Aaker's BPS as to its flaws. For instance, Azoulay and Kapferer (2004) argued Aaker's scale of brand personality becoming widespread in academic marketing circles, in fact does not measure brand personality but merges altogether a number of dimensions of a brand identity which need to be kept separate both on theoretical grounds and for practical use. They further pointed out that it is time to restrict the use of the concept of brand personality to the meaning it should never have lost: the unique set of

human personality traits both applicable and relevant to brands. Many scholars have also argued that uncertainties and cautions that should be noted when generalizing Aaker's BPS to different cultural context away from the North American cultural domain where it was produced and centralized. (Bosnjak et al., 2007; Ferrandi et al., 2000; Smit et al., 2003; Sung & Tinkham, 2005). The extent to which brand personality dimensions are cross culturally generalizable must be examined. Obviously, while the Big Five model of human personality is universal, brand personality attributions are partly culture-specific (Bosnjak et al., 2007).

2.1.4c Aaker's BPS-based Destination Personality Dimensions

Despite those critiques, Aaker's BPS has been widely accepted as the most stable, reliable and comprehensive measure to gauge products/brands (e.g., Aaker et al., 2001, for Japan and Spain; Bosnjak et al., 2007, for German; Ferrandi et al., 2000, for France; Smit et al., 2003 for Netherlands, and Sung & Tinkham, 2005, for Korea). However, to date, studies on the application of the BPS have been dominantly limited to consumer goods (e.g., Aaker, et al., 2001; Kim, 2000; Kim, Han & Park, 2001), restaurant settings (Siguaw et al., 1999) and to websites (Muller & Chandon, 2003) (see TABLE 2.3). The existing literature about the relationship between a tourist and a destination (Plog, 2001), about destination attachment or even about the view of a destination as a partner (Kastenholz, 2004), enables the researcher to acknowledge that,

destinations being personified in the same way of brands, Aaker's BPS can be extended to describe personality traits that tourists ascribe to destinations.

TABLE 2.3 A summary of Brand Personality Studies

Selected Reference	Scale Used	Dimensions	Number of Dimensions	Settings	Cultural Settings
Siguaw et al. (1999)	Aaker (1997)	5	5	Restaurants	USA
Aaker et al. (2001)	Aaker (1997)	5	5	Commercial brands	Japan and Spain
Davies et al. (2001)	Aaker (1997)	5	5	Corporate brands	UK
Venable et al. (2005)	Aaker (1997)	5	4	Non-profit organizations	USA
Supphellen and Gronhaug (2003)	Aaker (1997)	5	5	Commercial brands	Russia
Rojas-Méndez et al. (2004)	Aaker (1997)	5	4	Automobile brands	Chile
Austin, Siguaw et al. (2003)	Aaker (1997)	5	None	Restaurants	U.S.A
Murase and Bojanic (2004)	Aaker (1997)	5	5	Fast food restaurants	U.S.A and Japan
Opoku and Hinson (2006)	Aaker (1997)	5	5	Websites	Africa
Opoku et al. (2006)	Aaker (1997)	5	5	Websites	South Africa
Douglas and Mills (2006)	Aaker (1997)	5	5	Internet travel blog entries	Middle East and North Africa

Through destination personality is a relatively new concept, recently a handful of pioneering tourism studies made initial efforts on it. TABLE 2.4 provides a summary of studies measuring destination personality, where we could clearly perceive that Aaker's BPS has been used as a prevailing instrument to identify the destination personality in diverse cultural context. However, the five dimensions of Aaker's brand personality are not replicated. Maybe not all of them, destinations are attributed only some of the brand characteristics because of the cross-cultural difference. Since the adjectives used to describe brand personality may not be all relevant to destinations (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006), Aaker's (1997) BPS needs appropriate adaptation. Moreover, despite this growing body of literature on destination personality, there is little empirical evidence that tourists can and do associate brand personality characteristics with destinations, and that they can differentiate destinations on the basis of perceived personality. This is why an empirical test is required in the niche context of eastern China.

2.1.5 Section Summary

As tourism destinations become more substitutable due to increasing competition in global tourism market, destination personality is seen as the most effective way to establish the destinations' brand. Although the importance of destination personality has been acknowledged by both industry and academia, the investigation on this topic still remains vague. After well conceptualizing destination personality, this study takes

the initiative to theoretically illuminate and empirically tests its relationship with cognitive destination image. Especially, by adopting Aaker's brand personality scales, this study attempts to examine whether the proposed personality traits could be ascribed to post-Olympic Beijing or not.

TABLE 2.4 A Summary of Destination Personality Studies

Selected Reference	Scale Used	Dimensions	Number of Dimensions	Cultural Settings
Ekinci and Hosany (2006)	Aaker(1997)	5	3	UK
Vaidya et al. (2009)	Aaker(1997)	5	5	India
Hankinson (2004)	Own	3	3	UK
Ekinci et al. (2007)	Own	3	3	Turkey
Hosany et al. (2007)	Aaker's (1997)	5	3	UK
Vaidya et al. (2009)	Aaker's (1997)	5	4	Germany
Henderson (2000)	Own	6	6	Singapore
Santos (2004)	Own	4	4	Portugal
Morgan and Prichard (2002)	Own	6	6	England
Johansson (2007)	Aaker's (1997)	3	3	Europe
Murphy et al. (2007)	Aaker's (1997)	5	4	Australia

2.2 DESTINATION IMAGE

2.2.1 Definition of Tourist Destination Image

Nowadays, the topic of destination image has received substantial interest in tourism research (Oppermann, 1996), and it would be surprising to see that a considerable number of conceptual and empirical studies on tourists' destination image are emerging rapidly (Chen, 2001; Chen & Hsu, 2000; Choi et al., 1999; Court & Lupton, 1997; Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Gunn 1972; Lee et al., 2004; Oppermann, 1996; Reilly, 1990; Rittichainuwat et al.,

2001). The spectacular growing body of research on the tourism destination image should trace back to Hunt's (1971) work that made an initial attempt to investigate the destination image (Driscoll et al., 1994; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Embacher & Buttle, 1989; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Reilly, 1990; Witter, 1985). From the research line set by Hunt, there are more and more academic interest shed on this specific topic and the destination image is becoming one of the most explored fields in tourism research (Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000).

Although as an important topic destination image has received growing attention, due to its nature of complexity, subjectivity and elusiveness (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008), and different academic concentration in tourist destination image has put this interesting topic at a controversy setting, so far no consensus has reached about the definitions of tourist destination image (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993; Gallarza et al., 2002). However, at least the academia has a most frequently cited definition of image as "Image is believed to reflect the set of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a public has of an object" (Kotler et al., 1993). When the concept of image encounters the tourist destination, there are almost as many definitions of destination image as scholars devoted to that of image (Gallarza et al., 2002). Based on the concept of image, mounting agreement supports that the destination image represents the mental construct developed by a

potential tourist on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions (Baloglu, 1999; Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Crompton, 1979; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1993; Pearce, 2005; Walmsley & Young, 1998).

However, there is at least one widely acknowledged agreement that the importance of a positive image is needless to say. Both tourism researchers and industry practitioners regard the image as the key in the successful marketing of a tourist destination (Baloglu, 1999). In this sense, it should be emphasized that destinations mainly compete based on their perceived images relative to competitors in the marketplace (Baloglu & Mangalolu, 2001). Consequently, it is vital to develop a unique and positive impression of the tourist destination to achieve a real competitive advantage (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gartner, 1993). Positive image is an essential part of powerful brands (Hosany et al., 2006). It serves as the prerequisite for destination branding power (Govers, 2003). A strong image differentiates a product from its competitors (Lim & O'Cass, 2001), reduce search costs (Assael, 1995), minimize perceived risks (Berthon et al., 1999) and represent high quality from a tourist's perspective (Erdem, 1998).

2.2.2 Components of Destination Image

Complexity is one of the major characteristics of the TDI field outlined by Gallarza et al. (2002). It refers to the multiple components

involved in representing tourist destination image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Cai, 2002; Chon, 1990; Foster & Jones, 2000; Gartner, 1993; Kim & Yoon, 2003; Walmsley & Young, 1998). The notion that the destination image concept contains a multisensory component has gained academic acknowledgement. An increasing number of researchers support the view that destination image is a multidimensional construct comprising of two primary dimensions: cognitive and affective (Lawson & Band-Bovy, 1977; Marti'n & Bosque, 2008). While cognitive image relates to tourists' belief about the destination arising from the evaluation of attributes (Baloglu, 1999; Pike & Ryan, 2004), affective image comes from individuals' feeling toward the destination visited (Burgess, 1978; Chen & Uysal, 2002; Holbrook, 1978; Kim & Richardson, 2003; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993; Ward & Russell, 1981). It is therefore concluded that image is an overall phenomenon/impression to an individual as a result of both cognitive and affective evaluations of object's attributes (Dichter, 1985; Mazursky & Jacoby, 1986).

Although destination image has been acknowledged to consist of both affective and cognitive components, a central controversy is about the imbalance use of two components. Many researchers believes affective or emotional components are more important in measuring the image (Baloglu, 1997; Baloglu, 2001; Burgess, 1978; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chaudhary, 2000; Chen, 2001; Hunt, 1992; Leisen, 2001; Walmsley &

Jenkins, 1992; Zimmer & Golden, 1988). On the contrary, many researchers made swordplay that cognitive components are more important when measuring the destination image (Chen, 2001; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner & Hunt, 1987). They suggested, compared with affective components (e.g., pleasant, arousing) which are rather abstract and vague, descriptive cognitive attributes (e.g., friendly people, good highways) may provide more concrete and interpretive meaning regarding uniqueness of a destination and provides more applicable information for developing marketing strategies. In addition, cognitive components are directly observable or measurable, while affective/psychological images are less tangible and more difficult to observe or measure (Echner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993). What's more, using cognitive attributes is sketched to be able to represent the mentally stored information because cognitive knowledge, as the antecedent actually induces affective response (Pearce, 2005; Weiner, 1986). On top of all, at least researchers achieved the consensus that cognitive component based destination image is not problematic (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Dann, 1996; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991).

Considering the conceptual meaning, practical feasibility and generation sequence, the argument concludes with the priority on cognitive components. Therefore, the current work the current study tends to step ahead with the main stream and draws on a cautious employment of cognitive destination image as to assess the image of Beijing.

2.2.3 Dimensions of Cognitive Destination Image

Due to the fact that the characteristics of tourism products/services, such as its complexity (Smith, 1994), multidimensionality (Gartner, 1989), subjectivity (Calderon et al., 1998), and intangibility (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991), it is difficult to measure a well-integrated picture of cognitive destination image. Echtner and Ritchie (1991) lamented the rather one-dimensional approach to assessing destination images. The work they reviewed at that time demonstrated a dominance of text-based scales where respondents typically rated dimensions that described the location (Pearce, 2005). However, a focus on any dimension of destination image at the exclusion of the other dimensions would result in an incomplete measurement. Lee et al. (2005) claimed the earlier research on destination image has a shortage as they measured destination image without considering its widely suggested multidimensionality and thus did not address the concept of the cognitive destination image. The omission of any aspect will result in an incomplete measurement of the destination image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1989; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992). However, due to the diversity of the measurement system, it would appear not easy to capture various dimensions of a tourist destination image, for different respondents and different scenarios. A critical examination of cases in previous destination image studies also reveals an absence of a universally accepted valid and reliable scale leads to the proposition of incorporating all possible aspects

of a destination that are susceptible to use in one instrument to measure and interpret the perceived image of a place (Beerli & Martin, 2004).

In order to conceptualize and operationalize the cognitive destination image in specific Chinese culture context, this study intends to return to nature and simplicity of the destination as a product in the tourism market. Considerable destination marketing literature emerges from an empiricist tradition which commercializes place as a product (Hall, 1997). Within the tourism and marketing literature, the concepts of “place marketing” (e.g., Madsen, 1992) are often described as “selling places” (e.g., Burgess, 1982; Keams & Philo, 1993). At the theoretical level, quite often the tourism scholars identify a tourist destination as an amalgam (or even as a brand) of individual products and experience opportunities (Buhalis, 2000; Murphy et al., 1999), or further conceptualise it as “a package of tourism facilities and services, which like any other consumer product, is composed of a number of multi-dimensional attributes” (Hu & Ritchie, 1993). In real tourism business world, it is also understandable that destinations are produced as commodities to be promoted and sold to tourists. For instance, Burgess and Wood (1989) reported how the London dockland redevelopment and associated marketing places have become products offering emotional and economic benefits to their “consumers”. By creating the focus of the product-natured destination, this study avoids the repetition of earlier research in which various dimensions and measurements of

image have already been identified, provide a more in-depth understanding of particular under studied issues.

Therefore, similar to layers of a product (core benefits, actual product, and augmented aspects), it is believed that placement of components and attributes of the destination is determined by the extent of human intervention. In the context of destinations, the outer range represents the natural environment, including natural attractions, scenery, climate, wildlife, forests, beaches, mountains, lakes, and rivers (Botha, 1999; Calantone et al., 1989; Chen, 2001; Crompton et al., 1992; Gartner, 1989; Haahti, 1986; Kim, 1998; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2006; Uysal et al., 2000). The mid-range of the framework represents a more human-intervened environment. It could be the cognitive geographically focused areas that people visit such as major attractions of the destination, say, stadiums, museums, galleries and entertainment venues (Chi & Qu, 2008; Choi et al., 2007; Govers et al., 2007; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008), which are constructed and controlled to provide tourists with predictable and consistent experiences. In addition, the thread of all these rings is the people intervention. As might be expected, the core of the measurement among the four attributes is definitely the evaluations of the destination. Examples might be attributes such as satisfaction (Chon, 1990); quality of service (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993); and overall assessment (Reilly, 1990). In the context of Beijing, the evaluations is mainly pertaining to tourists beliefs

about the socially responsible environment, which especially responds to China's major social events in the past 2008, such as the green Olympics, milk scandal, human rights, the nationwide residents' cultural and ideological promotion campaign, or even China's intervene to prop up the market. Socially responsible environment is believed to reflect tourists' belief and trustful feelings about Beijing and makes extra credibility of this destination. This study specifically sets the stage for the following section to discuss specific components of social responsible environment, which is actually one of the niche areas in the tourism literature of destination image.

2.2.4 Section Summary

Few products could rival the complexity of destinations in the images they engender. The choice of the different attributes used in designing an instrument to measure perceived tourist destination image depends on the elements that a place has at its disposal, on its positioning as a tourist destination and on the objectives of the assessment of perceived image (Beerli & Martin, 2004). It is the destination itself that determines whether specific or more general attributes should be selected.

By applying the theory of product layer in business domain, it is believed that the destination as a special product can be categorized into four dimensions of "natural environment", "built environment", "socially responsible environment" plus "local people" as the overall linkage.

Particularly, the socially responsible environment is most relevant for the proposed research interests. The distilled four dimensions are based on extensive literatures that can cover the general aspects of destination image. And these derived themes are believed to embody the most relative concern of tourists towards the destination image. This dimensional cognitive image also enables the application of image attributes in an examination of effects on destination personality and touristic behaviours.

TABLE 2.5 Proposed Attributes of Natural and Built Environment

Potential Dimension	Attributes	Source
Natural Environment	Weather conditions	Echtner and Ritchie (2003)
	Distinctive sightseeing sites	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)
	Variety of natural resources	Botha (1999)
	Peaceful and quiet	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)
	Scenic beauty	Echtner and Ritchie (2003)
Built Environment	Variety of historic and cultural attractions	Calantone et al. (1989)
	Accommodation	Beerli and Martin (2004)
	Selection of restaurants	Choi et al. (2007)
	Shopping facilities	Chi and Qu (2008)
	Wide arrays of shows/exhibitions	Govers et al. (2007)
	Nightlife and entertainment	Crompton (1992)
Local People	Industriousness	Orbaiz and Papadopoulos (2003)
	Environmental awareness	Shuiying (2002)
	Willingness to help	Knight and Calantone (2000)

2.3 SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE ENVIRONMENT OF DESTINATION

2.3.1 Definition of Social Responsibility

More than the commonly acknowledged dimensions of natural and built environment, there is, however, one additional dimension of destination image that has been largely overlooked, or need to be deepened and elaborated: the socially responsible environment. At the theoretical level, academics and practitioners have been striving to establish an agreed-upon definition of social responsibility for many decades (Carroll, 1991). According to Kaliski (2001), a recent acknowledged definition ascribed to social responsibility is, "an ethical or ideological theory that an entity whether it is a government, corporation, organization or individual has a responsibility to society". He further elaborated that social responsibility can be "negative", meaning there is a responsibility to refrain from acting (resistance stance) or it can be "positive," meaning there is a responsibility to act (proactive stance).

There is a large inequality in the means and roles of different entities to fulfill their claimed responsibility. This would imply different entities have different responsibilities, in so much as states should ensure the civil rights of their citizens, that corporations should respect and encourage the human rights of their employees and that citizens should abide with written laws (Kaliski, 2001). But social responsibility can mean more than these examples. Many non-governmental organizations accept that their role and

the responsibility of their members as citizens is to help improve society by taking a proactive stance in their societal roles (Pride et al., 2008). It can also imply that corporations have an implicit obligation to give back to society (such as is claimed as part of corporate social responsibility and/or stakeholder theory).

2.3.2 Social Responsibility of Destination

Although the development of social responsibility has generally occurred in business domain and separately from the focus of tourism research, it is believed that social responsibility should also be fully identified in destination context, as tourists are becoming more responsibility conscious. They nowadays also tend to choose products and services from a responsible destination (Sunday Times online, 2009), and even pay relatively high prices to products and service from a responsible destination (Henriques & Sadorsky, 1996). The destination actually consists of various corporate and business entities and competition among destination products means tourist destinations must be conceived as a whole to be managed from a strategic point of view, like what the corporate always do (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Chaudhary, 2000; Gallarza et al., 2002; Morgan et al., 2003). Destination social responsibility has emerged as an inescapable priority for tourism industry practitioners in every country (Porter & Kramer, 2006). If not properly dealt with, the destination may suffer distorted reputation because in fact

governments, activists, and the media have become adept at holding destinations to account for the social consequences of their actions (Sunday Times online, 2009).

Socially responsibility and destination image, for a long time, exist as two domains of research focus that have evolved separately through distinct literatures and research communities, yet impact of the former can directly contributes the formation of the latter (Porter & Kramer, 2006). It is believed that socially responsible environment perceived by the tourists may affects their impressions about the destination image, which further trigger emotional attachment to the destination. As a complex of diverse entities and stakeholders, characteristics of socially responsible environment of the destination might be hard to capture, not only for the criticism of the doctrine of positive responsibility from libertarians, but also for the criteria to ensure what the destination is perceived in this manner (Kaliski, 2001b). Within the destination, each entity is trying to reach different goal, which is the “between discrepancy”; although all the entities bear the same mind to create a socially responsible environment of the destination, there is still “within discrepancy” where each entity embraces distinct benefit and self-interest which therefore induce different implementation. Therefore, identifying and measuring the socially responsible environment through reliable and operationalizable scale is relatively new, problematic and often subjective (Brown et al., 2006).

Even though empirically examining the socially responsible environment is a difficult undertaking, it is rewarding in terms of establishing the destination's long-term reputation, which finally makes this destination recognizable among a large group of rival destinations. Given knowledge about destination socially responsibility is sparse in the existing body of tourism literature, this study intends to search applicable measurements based on extensive literature review, not only in relative tourism literature, but also in disciplines such as environmental science, building and real estate, chemistry, social science, corporate ethnics and business management. Once developed and validated, this scale can help evaluate the socially responsibility of the destination that is definitely one of the crucial determinants for the destination's sustainable development.

2.3.3 Attributes of Socially Responsible Environment

2.3.3a Attributes of Green Image

The first stream of socially responsible environment of the destination should go to green destination image. Clean and green image is seen as a destination's icon (Gillberg, 1999). Chen (2008) also deems green image as the core competence of the market competitor. The term of "green" in the social responsibility context encompasses environmental issues, sustainable development concerns, green science and technology, safety and health issues and green movements. It is alternatively called "eco-friendly", "environmentally responsible", or "environmentally friendly"

(e.g., Han et al., 2009; Pizam, 2009). Green image in the destination context could find equivalent expressions such as responsible image, ethical image, eco-image. As consumers have been recognizing the importance of protecting the environment, environmentalism has become a prevailing topic in the marketplace (Han et al., 2009). Although the environmental practice just get started in the recent decades (Kotler et al., 1999), the practical benefit is amazing. It is believed, by using a green marketing strategy the organization can position itself as green orientated in people's minds and therefore attract the increasing green consumer segment (Gurău & Ranchhod, 2005). Dowling and Page (2002) even emphasized the claim that almost any term combined with "eco" will increase interest and sales. It is therefore not surprising that numerous advertisements within the travel industry refer to ecotour, ecotravel, ecoadventures, ecocruise, ecosafari, ecoexpedition and exotourism (Murphy et al., 2007).

Although green marketing has become an influential tool in the selling of holidays (Dowling & Page, 2002), at present, little research attention has been given to investigate the green image in tourism domain. There is little emerging academic effort in understanding the green hotel image (Butler, 2008; Han et al., 2009). But the picture is no better in the destination context. A review of published research articles even shows an absence of the widely acknowledged green destination image

measurement. Although it might be controversy, it is believed that a handful representative attributes of green image could still be derived from relative pioneering studies (Caswell & Mojduszka, 1996; Enz & Siguaw, 1999; Gupta, 1995; Han et al., 2009; Hassan, 2000; Laroche et al., 2001; Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007; Mecwilliams & Siegel, 2001; Mensah, 2004; Mensah, 2006; Mihalic, 2000; Penny, 2007; Woolley et al., 2001). Regarding the potential aspects of green image, the first one is proposed as environment protection effort, such as about saving energy or water, including use renewable clean power and fuel cells (such as geothermal power, hydro power, wind power, solar power, tidal power and wave power); employ fixtures and equipment that conserve water; use equipment that conserves energy and manages loads (Berry & Rondinelli, 1998; Chen, 2008). The second aspect is related to reducing pollution, for example, many of the chemicals inside the destination's domestic and commercial cleaning products used each day can harm the environment, children and residents. Green cleaning is better for the environment, people and can help save money; release minimal pollutants; block introduction, development, or spread of indoor contaminants; remove indoor pollutants; warn local people and external tourists of health hazards; improve light quality; noise control and enhance community well-being (Clarkson, 1995; Corrigan, 1996; Dew, 1999; Fleming, 2002). The third aspect mainly indicates avoiding toxic or other emissions. The criterion may include reduce greenhouse gas reduction; natural or minimally processed

emissions; use alternative to ozone-depleting substances; use alternative to hazardous components; reduce pesticide treatments; reduce storm water pollution; reduce impact from construction or demolition and reduce pollution or waste from business operations (Gendall et al., 2001; Gillberg, 1999). The fourth aspect of waste control mainly consists of measures like recycling and composting, which are viewed as more environmentally friendly forms of waste management than traditional burying or burning practices. Salvaged products, post-consumer recycled content, pre-consumer recycled content and agriculture waste materials could be further modified and reused in the business. Webb et al. (2008) further segments the recycling into: recycle cardboard, recycle plastic containers, recycle magazines, recycle aluminum cans, recycle steel/tin cans, and recycle paper (Hart, 1995, 1997). The fifth aspect is about conserve natural resources. Reduce material consumption; the popularity of natural conservation regions; the protection of wildlife habitat; no disturbance caused for local indigenous people from tourism; the footprint of the generating plant (Henriques & Sadorsky, 1996; Hu & Wall, 2005; Parker, 2000; Peattie, 1992; Porter & Linde, 1995).

2.3.3b Attributes of Destination Product Safety

Tourists with responsibility concern are increasing in the world nowadays, and thereby drive destinations to pay more attention to their product safety. Consumers are more willing to choose safety products and

even pay relatively high prices for products and service from a responsible destination, as they believe their consumption is the way to express their commitment and support for the social responsibility (Henriques & Sadorsky, 1996). Hence, destinations have no choice but to be responsible for their products to comply with international regulations of responsible consciousness of consumers (Berry & Rondinelli, 1998; Hart, 1995, 1997). As the direct reflection of social responsibility, destination products actually represent the local suppliers and business sectors behind. Safety of products of a destination (their performance, aesthetic, value and hence their desirability) are now seen as the derived component, resting on a foundation of socially responsible destination image (Nadeau et al., 2008). Webb et al. (2008) also lends support to this notion that product safety, as the important representativeness of the destination, also delivers the socially responsible image of the production destination behind.

The evaluation and perception on destination products may capture consumer responses to products made by companies that are also seen as more or less socially responsible. It also includes both consumer avoidance of irresponsible companies or products as well as preference purchasing of responsible products and products made by responsible companies (Webb et al., 2008). Furthermore, it serves as an effective indicator of tourists' satisfaction of the social responsibility of destination business entities and sectors. Therefore, perceptions of destination products themselves also

appear in the attribute loop of destinations' socially responsible environment. At empirical level, the products are gauged against two categories: the consumer goods and daily food. For consumer goods, measures may include reliable (Orbaiz & Papadopoulos, 2003), good quality (Caswell & Mojduszka, 1996), less leady goods (Hu & Wall, 2005), no poison (Adams, 2007; Zheng, Jiang, Yang & Pardo, 2008), with safety labels (Adams, 2007; Zheng et al., 2008), and goods without toxic heavy metals (Adams, 2007; Hu & Wall, 2005; Zheng et al., 2008). Regarding the measures for daily food safety, there are much more measures and criterions that should be noticed, such as organic (Heslop et al., 2004), no genetically modified foods (McLaughlin et al., 1999), not deleterious to human (McLaughlin et al., 1999), no contaminated food (Xiao, 2002; Zhao & Kent, 2004), satisfactory hygiene level (Kai, 2002; Shuiyin, 2002), correct producing processing (Kai, 2002; Zhao & Kent, 2004), with safety labels (Shuiying, 2002; Zhao & Kent, 2004), technical security (Knight & Calantone, 2000), original (Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 2002), inexpensive (Knight & Calantone, 2000), without food additives (Zhao & Kent, 2004), food with production license (Adams, 2007; Zhao & Kent, 2004), no agricultural chemicals (Adams, 2007; Shuiying, 2002; Zheng et al., 2008), high nutrition (Kai, 2002; Zhao & Kent, 2004), fresh (Xiao, 2002; Zhao & Kent, 2004), and within the length of the product warranty period (Shuiying, 2002).

In particular, this section is typically in response to the recent hazard events of products in China. From a practical stance, looking at foreign tourists' perception of product safety is very important in China's current context with security events being reported one after another. Facing growing demand for safer food, China is overhauling its product system to meet international food safety standards. Assessing foreign tourists' perceptions towards the product safety turns to be a helpful test of China's determination and action. Therefore, product safety is deemed to be another important predictor of socially responsible environment.

2.3.3c Attributes of Local People

As the intangible predictor of the socially responsible image, destination people's beliefs of the responsibility are directly perceived at tourists' first interaction with the destination. The belief and social responsibility of people in the destination actually can influence tourists' beliefs and evaluations (Nadeau et al., 2008). The interaction with destination people experienced by tourists directly influences their perceptions and understanding of the destination. In the socially responsible environment of destinations, people is such kind of vital element that best deliver the core value of unique destination responsibility.

The most thorough work on this topic has been done by Heslop et al. (2004), who summarizes sets of scale measuring people responsible

beliefs. The components may include characteristics, like education level (Nadeau, 2008), helpful and courteous (Nadeau et al., 2008), pride in achieving high standards (Lee & Ganesh, 1999), pursue individual rights and freedom (Heslop et al., 2004), creative (Knight & Calantone, 2000; Lee & Ganesh, 1999; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 2002), well-educated (Heslop et al., 2004; Knight & Calantone, 2000; Laroche et al., 2005; Lee & Ganesh, 1999; Orbaiz & Papadopoulos, 2003; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 2002), industrious (Heslop et al., 2004; Knight & Calantone, 2000; Lee & Ganesh, 1999; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 2002), technically skilled (Knight & Calantone, 2000; Lee & Ganesh, 1999; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 2002), individualism (Heslop et al., 2004), and high work ethic (Heslop et al., 2004; Knight & Calantone, 2000; Laroche et al., 2005; Lee & Ganesh, 1999; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 2002). These characteristics of people contribute to the establishment of socially responsible environment as a vital aspect. As might be expected, they may also influence tourists' decisions and evaluations about the destination.

2.3.4 Summary of Socially Responsible Environment Attributes

This study therefore identifies most of the items based on theoretical conceptualizations offered in the literature, prior work done by the authors, and marketplace observation. After consolidation of previous relative literature, the socially responsible environment constructs and attributes are therefore evaluated with proposed items that have been

verified in previous exploratory studies. In some cases this study may use or adapt items from prior scales (e.g., Webb et al., 2008; Nadeau et al., 2008). The scale for each construct used in this study is non-exhaustive of the destination socially responsible image but represents the majority of important components for them. For additional input, the researcher intends to meet with supervising committee several times to discuss the emerging scale. After adding, deleting and rewriting items, the item pool is sent to expert panel for comments and also tested within the pilot sample. The findings will be presented in the following chapters. The result of the literature review, the expert panel and the pilot study is then merged to produce a more complete set of attributes under socially responsible environment.

The development of the conceptual measurement for socially responsible environment represents a beneficial initiative. First, this version of the scale is leading to a complete coverage of the societal dimension, not heavily-weighted toward the single environmental dimension. Second, tapping multifaceted aspects that in relation to the concerns of environment, people, product and the overall country, proposed items include almost all the elements of direct interaction with tourists in the setting of traveling. As a result, the scales could capture a relatively full picture about a socially responsible environment. Third, the items serve as a prompt response to the focus events that attract public attention in recent time. While a healthy

body of research speaks too common attributes of destination image, the novel socially responsible image perceived from foreign tourists in the post-Olympic settings touches the core value of destination as a product. The significant innovation makes this study of pioneering value.

TABLE 2.6 Proposed Attributes of Socially Responsible Environment

	Attributes	Source
Socially	Save energy or water	Adams (2007)
Responsible	Reduce pollution	Parameswaran and Pisharodi (2002)
Environment	Avoid toxic or other emissions	Heslop et al. (2004)
	Waste control	Xiao (2002)
	Conserve natural resources.	Shuiying (2002)
	Recycling	Shuiying (2002)
	Food safety	Parameswaran and Pisharodi (2002)
	Satisfactory hygiene level	Knight and Calantone (2000)
	Rights and freedom	Knight and Calantone (2000)
	Work ethnic	Laroche et al. (2005)

2.3.5 Section Summary

It is the socially responsible environment perceived by tourists to lead their belief and trustful feelings about this destination where they visit. Building the socially responsible environment is also believed to make extra credibility of this destination and directly influence the post-visit behavior. The measurement of these multiple components of socially responsibility environment varies across different focus, but there is still some commonly mentioned categories could be indentified based on the extensive review of previous studies. This section explores the generic underpinnings to

assess the multidimensional nature of constructs involved in socially responsible environment from previous studies. The measurements may be reflective of socially responsible factors the destination should consider. However, the dynamic nature of socially responsible environment makes continual refinement of its measurement necessary as people's understanding of the domain evolves over time (Roberts, 1995).

2.4 BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

2.4.1 Components of Loyalty

Customer loyalty is viewed as the strength of the relationship between an individual's relative attitude and repeat patronage (Dick & Basu, 1994). Customer loyalty in service industries has received considerable attention in both marketing and management theory and practice. As customer loyalty may act as a barrier to customer switching behavior, it has an impact on the development of a sustainable competitive edge (Gremler & Brown, 1996; Keaveney, 1995). In marketing literature the term loyalty has often been used interchangeably with its operational definition to refer to repeat purchase (Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002; Ehrenberg, 1998), preference (Guest, 1994), commitment (Hawkes, 1994), retention (Hammond et al., 1996), and allegiance (Ehrenberg, 1998). In addition, loyalty has been referred to in a variety of market-specific contexts, for example, service, stores and destination loyalty (Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002). Indeed, loyalty constitutes an underlying objective for strategic

market planning (Kotler 1984) and represents an important basis for developing a sustainable competitive advantage--an advantage that can be realized through marketing efforts (Dick & Basu, 1994). In the present environment of increasing global competition with rapid market entry of innovative products, on the one hand, and maturity conditions in certain product markets, on the other, the task of managing loyalty has emerged as a focal managerial challenge (Dick & Basu, 1994).

In tourism studies, the term loyalty has been viewed as a multidimensional construct by several researchers (Backman & Crompton, 1991a, 1991b; Buchanan, 1985; Park, 1996; Pritchard, 1992). It is widely acknowledged that loyalty consists of two dimensions, namely behavioural loyalty and attitudinal loyalty (Baloglu, 2002; Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002; Park & Kim, 2000). While behavioural loyalty is considered as the degree to which a participant purchases a service or program repeatedly, whereas attitudinal loyalty refers to the process of attaching psychologically to a selected tourist destination (Park & Kim, 2000). In particular, attitudinal loyalty could be measured by capturing the individual's propensity to be loyalty (Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002). The similar view has been also preferred in assessing the behavior and behavioural intentions. Based on this ascertain, our conceptualization of behavioural intentions is therefore developed.

2.4.2 Importance of Behavioural Intentions

The effectiveness of loyalty is often gauged only by the level of actual behavior (Baloglu, 2002). However, researchers who have studied the two dimensions of loyalty suggested that behavior is proclivity towards the patronage, but alone it has been found to be an inadequate measure of loyalty (Backman & Crompton, 1991). To explain additional portions of variance not accounted for by behavioural measures, it is necessary to incorporate attitudinal behavioural intention measures that assess tourists' strength of affection toward a program or facility (Backman & Crompton, 1991). Moreover, simply focusing on behavior cannot capture the reasons behind the loyalty (Baloglu, 2002; Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002). That is, by simply looking at behavior, one does not know whether the patronage stem merely from (Park & Kim, 2000). An individual's decision to engage in a specified behavior is determined by their intention to perform the behavior (Bock et al., 2005). While behavior is the observable outcome of behavioural intention, without an understanding of the attitudinal propensity towards the act of patronage, it is difficult to know what exact behavior tourists would draw off.

In fact, it seems likely that attitudinal behavioural intentions will be important in the tourist destination context. As suggested in the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior, behavioural intentions signify motivational components of a behavior and represent the degree of

conscious effort that a person will exert in order to perform a behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein, 1967; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The empirical evidence is also found in many studies. Using meta-analytic techniques, Sheppard et al. (1988) extensively reviewed research literature that included 87 cases for the predictability of intention and behavior, and reported a mean correlation of 0.53 between intention and behavior. Putte (1991) conducted a more extensive meta-analysis based on 113 research papers and provided a mean correlation of 0.62, which indicated that behavior could be reasonably predicted from intention. Another meta-analysis by Quelette and Wood (1998) agreed that behavior is guided by intentions. It is concluded that behavioural intentions provide high attitudinal probability of the subsequent behaviors, they are likely to reflect consumer loyalty as accurate predictors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Fishbein & Manfredo, 1992; Swan & Oliver, 1989). Loyalty, for the most part, could be examined using the customer's behavioural intention (Swan & Oliver, 1989). Nowadays, building customers' positive intentions that eventually contribute to increasing customer retention rates and profits is already an important goal of every hospitality business (Lewis & Chambers, 2000; Yesawich, 1997). Given this, many industrial practitioners have studied the benefits of customer favorable behavioural intentions (e.g., Bowen & Shoemaker, 1998). Given the practical and theoretical requests, this study goes for examining foreign

tourists' behavioural intentions towards the destination rather than the exact behavioural intentions.

2.4.3 Dimensions of Behavioural Intentions

Although the concept of behavioural intentions has received robust professional emphasis and academic attention, the measure for behavioural intentions may warrant scrutiny. Previous studies dominantly use intention to repurchase or word-of-mouth as single behavioural intentions construct (Hutchinson et al., 2009). Epstein (1979, 1980), however, convincingly demonstrated that single-item measure has low test-retest reliabilities. If behavioural intention is measured on a single occasion, a measurement's stability or reliability can be low because of the situational uniqueness of a single occasion as well as because of true "measurement error." By applying the logic of multiple measures, behavioural intention measurement reliability increases because by measuring over several occasions, situational uniqueness cancels out. It therefore would be desirable to have a more robust multiple-item scale measuring the construct of behavioural intentions (Sparks, 2007). Therefore, behavioural intentions are thought of as a multifaceted construct rather as unidimensional (Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002). Understanding the multifaceted attitudinal loyalty construct helps to explain why some participants discontinue and why other participants stay in a particular activity.

The milestone of general interpretation of behavioural intentions is established by Zeithaml et al. (1996). Specifically, they suggest that favorable behavioural intentions are associated with a service provider's ability to get its customers to: (1) say positive things about them, (2) recommend them to other customers, (3) remain loyal to them (i.e., repurchase from them), (4) spend more with them, and (5) pay price premiums. Since then, a number of subsequent studies have used one or more of these five proposed constructs to examine the outcomes of successful business. For instance, Baker and Crompton (2000) used items adapted from the scale developed by Zeithaml et al. (1996) to operationalize behavioural intention in the exploration of its relationship with the perceived performance quality. Cronin et al. (2000) also developed a list of items used to measure behavioural intentions based on the underlying dimensions of Zeithaml et al. (1996) to assess the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on it. In a similar manner, Oliver (1997) conceptualized behavioural intentions that include plans or willingness to repurchase services or products from a company, to recommend the company and to pay premium prices for its products (Namkung & Jang, 2007).

However, a controversy surrounds the use of revisit intentions in the long-haul destination. For example, even though the higher congruent destination personality has been identified by the foreign tourists, they may

not revisit Beijing. Based on tourism data from most countries, the further the tourist travels intentionally, the more likely they are to be the first time tourist and the more likely they are to visit the place only once. A study for international repeat visits by Baloglue and Erickson (1998) reported a similar pattern in Mediterranean tourism destinations. The study showed that most international travelers to one destination are more likely to switch to another destination for their next trip. Focused on this switching behavior, Jang and Feng (2007) introduced the novelty seeking theory to help identify this phenomenon. According to Cohen (1979) modern man is interested in things, sights, customs, and cultures different from his own, simply because they are just different. A new value has gradually evolved: the appreciation of the experience of strangeness and novelty. In the behavioural science literature, novelty seeking is also referred to as a curiosity drive, sensation seeking, and an exploratory drive. Integrating this spirit in the context of tourism, novelty seeking may be defined as the difference in the degree and mode of touristic experience sought by the tourist to a destination as compared with his or her previous experience (Cohen, 1979). Novelty seeking is a central component of travel motivation and acts as the opposite of familiarity. It is often defined as the degree of contrast between present perception and past experience (Pearson, 1970). The novelty seeking theory became important in tourism decision making because seeking novelty is innate in travelers (Cohen, 1979), and seeking various types of novelty motivates many pleasure travelers or vacationers to travel

(Lee & Crompton, 1992). It is widely accepted that novelty seeking plays a role in tourist decision-making (Petrick, 2002). Regarding the role of novelty in travel experience seeking, four of Hirschman (1984) propositions are relevant in the tourist setting (Lee & Crompton, 1992). First, some may desire a high level of novelty on a vacation, while others may prefer a lower level of novelty. Second, the attitudes of tourists towards a destination may be influenced by their predispositions towards levels of novelty seeking. Third, different destinations may satisfy similar desires for novelty. Fourth, it may be possible to determine the types of destination that could satisfy an individual by understanding the relative level of novelty they desire. In such case, high novelty seekers may prefer not to revisit a destination, notwithstanding the congruent self-expression and emotional attachment that they may have with this destination. Due to the uncertainty of revisit intention in the specific context of destinations with international tourists, it might be controversy to include the revisit intentions in the current study.

Consistent with these previous studies, behavioural intentions would refer to foreign tourists' affirmed likelihoods of engaging in the positive word-of-mouth intentions and willingness to pay more intentions. These two most favorable dimensions are used to capture behavioural intentions since they reflect emotional commitment that could operationalize attitudinal loyalty (Yi & La, 2004). The two-measure behavioural intentions have been fully validated in previous tourism studies and services marketing literature

(e.g., Babakus & Boller, 1992; Cronin & Taylor, 1992). It also serves as an effective response to Backman and Shinenw's (1994) comment "The challenge to future research will be to develop the measures used to assess loyalty in a more parsimonious fashion".

2.4.4 Section Summary

Building tourists' positive intentions, which eventually contributes to increasing customer retention rates and profits, is an important goal of every destination. Oliver (1997) conceptualized behavioural intentions, which are surrogate indicators of behavior, as one's affirmed likelihood to perform a certain action. As the affective dimension of loyalty, behavioural intentions work well to indicate emotional bonds between tourists and the destination they visit. Although there is by far no consensus about the measurements of behavioural intentions, this study cites the most frequently used behavioural intention items originated by Zeithaml et al. (1996) and firmly tested by many previous researchers (e.g., Cronin et al., 2000; Han, Hsu & Lee, 2009; Yi & La, 2004). Intentions include plans or willingness to recommend the destination (or to say positive things about the destination) and to pay premium prices for its services and products (Namkung & Jang, 2007; Zeithaml et al., 1996). Two-dimensional behavioural intentions are finally applied in the tourist destination context. It is believed, when properly measured, they could well predict tourists' actual behavior.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This section places the study in a broad theoretical context. Based on the extensive review of literature, at least two goals are achieved. The first one is to know well about the major concepts of this study's research interest. Because of the quantitative nature of the study, the second goal is to conceptualize the measurement for each concept. It should be also emphasized that the study is an exploratory one in nature and its scope is limited to the localized context of Beijing, so applicability of the model is in great need to be tested.

This chapter gives a systematic review of the published work related to the research concern. Through critically reviewing previous destination literature, this chapter offers a conceptual frameworks and directions for further exploration and provided the theoretical underpinning of the study. The constructs of key interest in the study are destination image, destination personality and behavioural intentions. The first section of the chapter focuses on the concepts of destination personality and presents a clear picture of its scales of measurement based on pioneer works such as Big-Five theory and Aaker's Brand Personality Scale. The conceptualization of destination image is introduced in the second section, where the theory of layers of product is cited to help understand destination image structure of four dimensions. The novel idea of socially responsible environment is highlighted and discussed in the third section, where

exploration of the destination image is also established. The following section summarizes the conceptualization and measurement of behavioural intentions. In conclusion, the in-depth literature review provides theoretical support for the proposed constructs, identify the applicable measurements and illuminate the underlying relations between each other.

CHAPTER 3

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter includes three sections. Section 3.1 makes the first response to the research questions by linking the cognitive destination image to destination personality. Section 3.2 makes the second response to the research questions by linking destination personality to behavioural intentions. In closing, Section 3.3 reveals an overall framework with the integrated casual relationships. Firmly based on supporting citations from previous studies, the framework displays a full picture of the overall research model. Empirical effort will follow up and test the proposed hypotheses.

3.1 ANTECEDENT OF DESTINATION PERSONALITY

3.1.1 Cognitive Destination Image and Destination Personality

People are all very comfortable with the idea of personifying the destination, and a lot of scholars spend good proportion of the professional lives endeavoring to do just that. However, in treating destinations as if they are people, they have rarely taken the analogy to its logical conclusion. If they had, they would have noted that people do not just “perceive” each other; a person does more in processing information about the other’s deep characteristics and personality (Aaker & Biel, 1993). So this study goes

beyond simply capturing tourists' perceptions of the cognitive image of the destination and treat cognitive destination image in the function of characterizing the destination personality. Although some studies have attempted to provide explanations to explore the links between perceived cognitive destination image–destination personality, most discussions have remained only vague (e.g., Karande et al., 1997; Plummer, 1985). There is a missing explanation and interpretation of the explicit link between these two concepts and how they relate with each other, and to date much ambiguity also exists as to empirically identifying the relationship between the destination image and destination personality. The sparse empirical investigation have actually hampered progress in understanding this relationship, and resulted in much confusion that impedes the establishment of managerial implications. As depth is preferred over breadth in the social science (He, 2009), this study intends to dig out the greater depth of underpinning and mechanism to relate destination personality to the cognitive destination image.

As all may know, destination image is widely acknowledged to embrace two components: cognitive destination image and affective destination image (Gartner, 1993; Holbrook, 1978; Lynch, 1960). In line with the sequencing and ordering of the component parts of psychological attitudes, the perceived cognitive image is the antecedents of affective image. The majority of research acknowledged this notion and agree that

affective evaluation depends on cognitive assessment of objects and the affective responses are formed as a function of the cognitive ones (Reibstein et al., 1980; Russel & Pratt, 1980; Stern & Krakover, 1993). Such a casual effect is also advocated by seminal work in the social sciences (Weiner, 1986) that cognitive knowledge induces affective response. Similarly, the researcher therefore concludes that cognitive destination image is the antecedent of affective destination image.

According to Biel (1993), destination personality is actually affectively and emotionally nature. He interpreted the destination personality as the soft emotional attachment to the destination and refer to how visitors perceive the destination. And it is believed that a well-established brand personality develops strong emotional ties with tourists (Caprara et al., 2001). The proposition to support the emotional and affective nature of destination personality is also elaborated by Hosany et al. (2006). His empirically investigation suggests destination image and brand personality are directly correlated and at least affective and accessibility scale of destination image are significantly related to the three destination personality scales (sincerity, excitement and conviviality).

It is therefore natural to relate the affectively based destination personality to its antecedent, the cognitive destination image. The explicit relationship follows the path of cognitive destination image---affective

destination image --- destination personality. In fact, tracing back to the origination of destination personality, the cognitive destination image plays the vital role in destination personality formulation. According to Iso-Ahola (1980), personal observation and experiences on the cognitive destination image establish and modify one's perceived destination personality. That is, only by interacting with tangible cognitive destination attributes and perceiving observable cognitive destination image, tourists could form their rational knowledge and reasonable cognition about the destination. No affective and emotional feeling about the destination could avoid tracing its origination of the cognitive knowledge accumulated in the interaction of the observable attributes of the destination. In turn, a distinctive and emotionally attractive destination personality is shown to be reflected by perceived cognitive image of a place and in turn leverage it (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). It is therefore reasonable to draw the conclusion that the cognitive destination image is the theoretical antecedent of destination personality.

3.1.2 Linking Cognitive Destination Image to Destination Personality

Although the relationship between cognitive destination image and destination personality lacks sufficient empirical support in the literature (Hosany et al., 2007), the current study chooses to the affective nature of destination personality and trace back its origination of the cognitive destination image. Starting from here, the current study builds upon a

reasonable stance to empirically explore the link between cognitive destination image and destination personality. The interested focuses might be how the effect of personality characteristics to describe the cognitive destination image, the degree of congruity between the cognitive destination image and destination personality, and which cognitive image dimensions are the most/least strongly related to destination personality. Correspondingly, this study draws upon a group of hypotheses to perfectly respond to the research question “How cognitive destination image characterize destination personality?”, or “How cognitive destination image becomes an antecedent to destination personality?”

H1a: Natural Environment is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1b: Built Environment is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1c: Socially Responsible Environment is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1d: Local People is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

Accordingly, the hypothesized relationship between cognitive destination image dimensions on destination personality is illustrated as below:

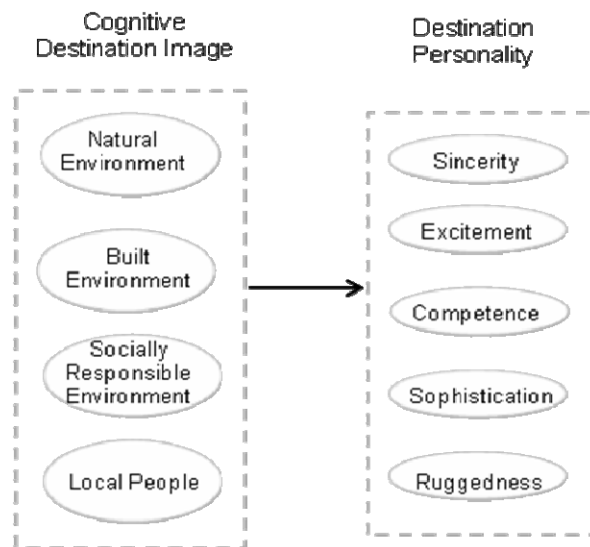


FIGURE 3.1 Hypothesized Relationship between Cognitive Destination Image Dimensions and Destination Personality

3.2 CONSEQUENCE OF DESTINATION PERSONALITY

3.2.1 Destination Personality and Behavioural Intentions

At both conceptual and empirical level, frequently the tourist decision-making process for destination is best modeled as a complex system that incorporates both direct and indirect effects on behavioural intentions (Cronin et al., 2000). To understand why tourists have behavioural intentions, the concentration has come along with an considerable interest in identifying the antecedents of behavioural intentions, including satisfaction (Mittal et al., 1999; Severt et al., 2007; Spreng et al., 1996; Tam, 2000), quality related constructs (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Jenkins, 1999), perceived value (Bojanic, 1996; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Petrick & Bachman, 2002ab) as the manipulated variables), past vacation experience (Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Kozak, 2001; Petrick et al., 2001), safety (Chen & Gursoy, 2001), image (Milman & Pizam, 1995;

Ross, 1993), attachment (Petrick, 2004), and cultural difference (Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Reisinger & Turner, 1998). In such encounters, the contribution of these factors to behavioural intentions is relatively high and dominant.

However, the aforementioned factors may not be the only contributor to behavioural intentions. Despite the substantial investment of effort on conceptualization of the behavioural intentions, taking a look into the destination context, an apparently overlooked idea is that there is a particular necessity to search for factors other than the above cliché which might also increase tourist behavioural intentions and provide guarantee of loyalty. Destination personality is one of those factors which present simple and powerful idea but are yet to be applied in tourism research (Foste & Cadogan, 2000). Destination personality, as a viable metaphor for understanding tourists' perceptions of destinations, is believed to influence tourists' preference and patronage (Malhotra, 1988; Sirgy, 1982). A well-established destination personality influences tourists' preference and patronage (Malhotra, 1988; Sirgy, 1982), develops stronger emotional ties (Biel, 1993), trust and loyalty with the destination (Fournier, 1998). That is, destination personality is supposed to be an excellent preceding variable that influenced behavioural intention. However, review articles have generally concluded that personality-behavior intention relationships have not been given sufficient empirically credit. Therefore,

understanding how personality dimensions translate into behavioural intentions that encourage consumptive behaviors appears to be a worthy area of pursuit. Greater depth of empirical examination is needed to characterize the nature of the destinations that are subject to differential behavior, and to explore the apparent linkages with destination personality. Accordingly, the currently study proposes that the destination personality should also be viewed as a determinant and causally prior to behavioural intentions. That is, it attempts to demonstrate that destination personality may help to get a good understanding of behavioural intentions in tourist destination settings.

An individual's personality is defined as "a set of points falling along several behavioural dimensions, each corresponding to a trait" (Madrigal, 1995). Ross (1994) suggested that as the study of personality is still evolving, there could be "no more appropriate or useful study than personality as it illuminates tourist behavior". Plog (1974, 1990, 1991) delineated personality types along a continuum ranging from allocentrism to psychocentrism. Ross (1994) noted that allocentric travelers prefer exotic destinations, while psychocentrics prefer familiar destinations (Plog, 1974, 1990, 1991). These claims all described the personality types in terms of destination preferences. In fact, this implicit linkage between the destination personality and formation of behavioural intentions is rooted in the mechanism of self expression (similar concepts are self-concept, self-

congruity, self-identification) (Aaker, 1997; Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004; Kim et al., 2001). A person's self-concept or "perception an individual has of him/herself, based not just on one's physical self but inclusive of the products and services consumed, and the people with whom that individual associates" (Todd, 2001) has received attention in consumer research and has been shown to be a relevant contribution to the understanding of tourism consumption (Sirgy & Su, 2000; Todd, 2001). In this context, product-self-congruity—the perceived match between a product's or its user's personality and the consumer's self-image—is assumed to correlate positively with brand preference and/or purchase (Sirgy, 1983). This phenomenon is often ignored in destination image research (Jenkins, 1999). In fact, tourists' personality types flourish in congruent environment, which suggest that the more an environmental pattern resembles a personality pattern, the more a person will find the environment reinforcing and satisfying. Since a congruent environment comprises, in part, people who have "similar interests, competencies, values, traits and perceptions" (Holland, 1985), there is a greater likelihood and probability that a person will have the intention to participate in those situations or have a greater interest in those environments, than in incongruent environments. A logical extension of this notion would appear to be that, if the perception of a tourist destination is that it has a congruent environment for certain types of people, then there will interest among people of those types to visit that destination (Frew & Shaw, 1999). Support for this

proposition is also lent from Kim et al. (2001) that when there is a fit between destination personality and a tourist's self-expression, the tourist may consider a destination as a person, or even a companion. The importance of destination personality of inducing behavioural intentions might be also understandable simply by casual observation of the practical case. That is, many destination marketing managers believe that tourists choose destinations congruent with their personalities (Lastovicka & Joachimsthaler, 1988).

Therefore, following the rationale elaborated it is argued that in case of relatively high levels of congruity, destination personality will be the most important determinant of behavioural intention. Starting from here, the researcher could safely develop our empirically stance of testing the directly relationship between destination personality and behavioural intentions. Moreover, it is worth our notice that, although the destination personality is deemed as a important drive of tourists' behavioural intentions, this effect should not be over-estimated. One empirical finding of Morschett et al. (2008) suggested that only certain personality dimensions, in particular sincerity, competence and excitement are shown to be influential in consumer' behavioural intentions, regardless of the congruity with the self-expression. Similarly, the predictive power from destination personality is lower with certain personality dimensions in specific destination context. Due to the controversy, again the cautions of

generalization should be kept in mind when using the proposed Aaker's brand personality traits to predict the behavioural intentions.

3.2.2 Linking Destination Personality to Behavioural Intentions

Although literature has suggested that destination personality serves as one predictor of behavioural intentions and provides the incentives to the behavioural intentions, the empirical a causal link of "destination personality-behavioural intentions" appears sparse in the literature. To justify the theoretically findings, it is therefore necessary to test the relationship at empirical level: Is there directional relationships between destination personality and behavioural intentions and the former one also serve as antecedents to the later? Do greater levels of perceived destination personality directly encourage behavioural intentions by increasing the congruity associated with a destination? Which of the destination personality variables have the most significant direct influence on tourists' behavioural intentions? To date, given that the investigation of relationship between destination personality and behavioural intentions is extremely sparse in academic arena and few scholars have given sufficient credit to it, this study has been purposefully designed to contribute to the literature by making the first attempt to operationlize the relationship of two concepts. That is, the study proposes that destination personality holds a great deal of relevance for tourists' behavioural intentions. And a central premise of the reported research is that, the researcher models behavioural

intention variables separately. The separation of behavioural intentions into three dimensions may have provided more insight into these behaviors. Therefore, drawing on prior supporting findings, the study comes up with the second set of hypotheses and makes response to the research question of “How destination personality impacts behavioural intentions”, or “How behavioural intentions are consequences to destination personality”.

H2a: Destination Personality dimensions are positively related to Word-of-Mouth Intention

H2b: Destination Personality dimensions are positively related to Willingness to Pay More

Accordingly, the effect of destination personality has on tourists' behavioural intentions is illustrated as:

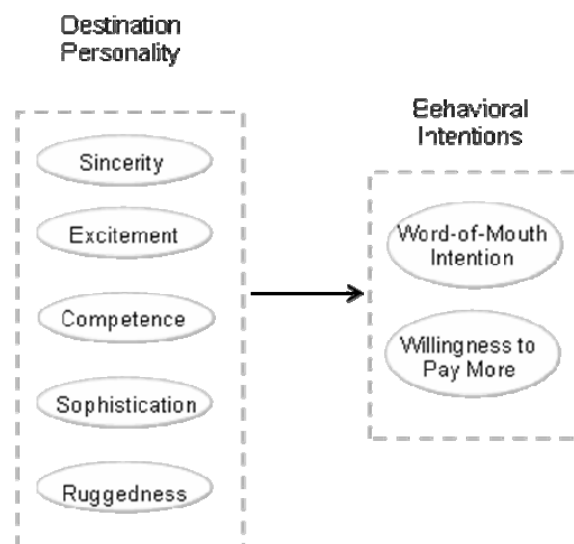


FIGURE 3.2 Hypothesized Relationships between Destination Personality and Behavioural Intentions

3.3 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

As mentioned above, surprisingly few studies have considered the relationship between cognitive destination image and destination personality, and destination personality and behavioural intentions. The present study has attempted to address that gap by testing two groups of casual relationship: 1) casual relationship between cognitive destination image and destination personality; and 2) casual relationship between destination personality and behavioural intentions. Inspired to delineate distinct perceptions of destination personality and image-loyalty transition relationship, this study aims to pinpoint the impelling destination personalities for foreign tourists to visit Beijing from a theoretical model in which structural relationships are explored among cognitive destination attributes, applicable dimensions of destination personality and the most indicative measures of behavioural intentions. Correspondingly, casual relationships are combined to show a full picture of the research framework.

To target the research question “How cognitive image characterise the destination personality?”, or “How cognitive image becomes an antecedent to personality?” the first set of hypotheses is developed as:

H1a: Natural Environment is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1b: Built Environment is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1c: Socially Responsible Environment is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1d: Local People is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

To target the research question “How destination personality impacts behavioural intentions”, or “How behavioural intentions are consequences to personality”, the second set of hypothesis is developed as:

H2a: Destination Personality dimensions are positively related to Word-of-Mouth Intentions.

H2b: Destination Personality dimensions are positively related to Willingness to Pay More.

Due to multidimensionality of Destination Personality, the above hypotheses are specified into sub-hypotheses testing the relationship between each identified Destination Personality dimension and its casual antecedents/consequents. Results from the exploratory factor analysis are used for this hypothesis specification.

The development of hypotheses presents a complete picture of the determinants for each interested concepts, thus getting closer to perfectly answering the research question: How cognitive destination image characterizes destination personality and how destination personality impacts behavioural intentions. An integrated model shown in FIGURE 3.3 is based on the previous discussion and describes the relationships. Cognitive destination image is hypothesized to have a direct effect on destination personality. Destination personality is hypothesized to have a direct effect on behavioural intention. Staying focused on answering the research questions, the proposed hypotheses are self-evident in the overall framework of this study.

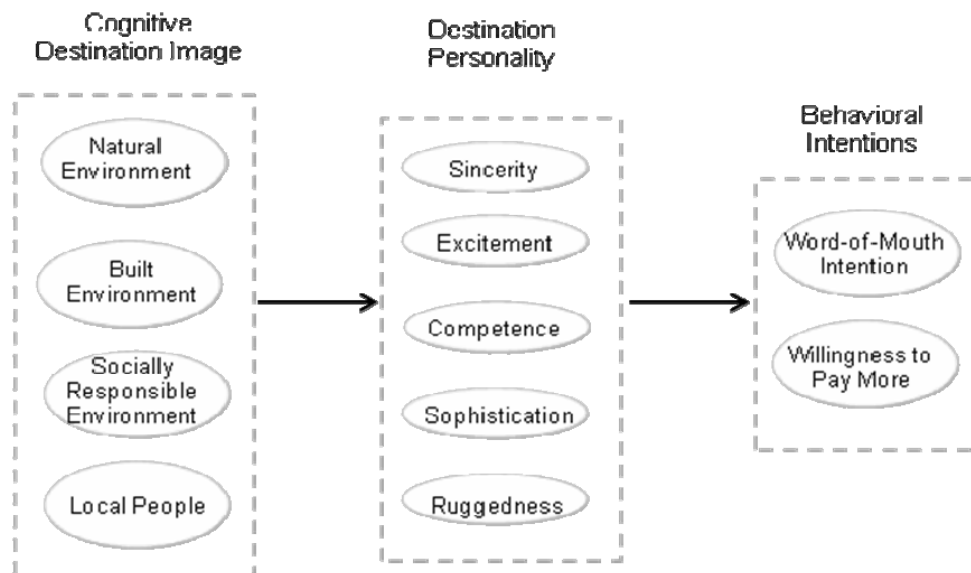


FIGURE 3.3 The Overall Framework

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

Research is supposed to involve a methodical process that begins with a desired end product and then follows a logical process of starting from nothing and working toward that goal (Finn et al., 2000). A suitable research method should be a logical, structured sequence for achieving the desired results of the research program. “It is not the research project itself, but is more akin to a flight plan that a pilot will lodge to indicate how he/ she will fly from point A to point B” (Neuman, 2000). Like a flight plan, there is scope for the pilot to modify the path chosen out of various kinds of possible routes. Similarly, various kinds of methods can be used according to the research objectives, and those will decide which is the suitable method under the consideration that the related attributes of the topic can be converted into quantitative variables, or they are descriptive and interpretive (Mahmood, 1988; Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Rea & Parker, 1997;)

Staying focused on answering the research questions, this section unfolds a clearly defined path with progressing stages to the implementation. Section 4.1 unveils the research design. Section 4.2 reports the instrument development issues. Section 4.3 depicts pragmatic considerations in the data collection. Section 4.4 unfolds the extensive data

analysis employed in this study. Ethics and cross-cultural issues are emphasized in Section 4.5. In light of knowledge accumulated from above sections, summary is made in Section 4.6.

4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1.1 Two Components

The proposed research consists of a theoretical and an empirical component. The theoretical portion would involve a literature review on destination image, destination personality, and behavioural intentions, each of these being a chapter. Combined, these would provide the context and become the foundations of the subsequent empirical effort.

TABLE 4.1 Two Components of Research Design

Theoretical Component	Empirical Component
Literature Review	Item Generation Item Reduction Data Collection Data Analysis

The empirical portion, based on the methodology of previous research, would roughly comprise the following steps: 1) Item generation: Initial lists of cognitive destination image items and personality items would be compiled from different tourism, psychology and marketing scales. These would then be complemented with input from both experienced academicians and student tourists. They are subjected to comment on a

bundle of literature-induced needs concerning their relevance to perceived experience. The results gained from the literature review, experienced academicians and student tourists are then merged to produce a more complete set of items. 2) Item reduction: Initial list of items may probably be extensive and require severe reduction to make it practical and valid. Reduction would be done by scholars' validation against item inventories, having a pilot survey and running a preliminary factor analysis. 3) Data collection: International leisure tourists would be conveniently intercepted at public locations foreign tourists would like to gather. They would be administered a questionnaire in which they would rate previously visited Beijing along Likert scales. The survey would also address variables of cognitive destination image, destination personality, behavioural intentions, and briefly touch demographics and other. 4) Analysis: Descriptive analysis (e.g., frequency and means) are used to profile the characteristics of the respondents and compile the descriptive information of their opinion. The measurement models of the major concepts in hypothesized model are validated by using exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis on split samples (Bagozzi, 1980; Bearden et al., 1989; Chin & Todd, 1995; MacCallum, 1986). After the latent variables in the major concepts are identified, the overall measurement model is assessed by using confirmatory factor analysis. According to Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach, the confirmatory factor analysis is followed by the structural equation modelling for assessing hypothesized structural

relationship. Based on the results of analysis, the research hypotheses are tested. 5) Discussion: results would then be discussed addressing implications and recommendations for researchers and practitioners. Limitations and further research opportunities would also be touched upon.

4.1.2 Integrated Approach

This study is quantitative in nature. However, without being obliged to the single-dimensional study, the current work attempts to employ a combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches as the tactical tools to achieve the research goals. As might be widely realized, choosing qualitative research involves relinquishing some formality, rigour and mathematical application, while choosing quantitative methods involves relinquishing insight, flexibility and intuition. However, according to Walle (1997), both qualitative and quantitative approaches have their applicability in a tourism setting. It would appear the mainstream that increasingly researchers are combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods. For instance, quantitative techniques are used to demonstrate the relationship between variables and qualitative techniques are used to gain insights into why and how the relationship exist (Zikmund, 1987).

4.1.2a Qualitative Approach

Qualitative approach is historically seen as a peripheral technique in comparison with the seeming more “verifiable” and “observable”

quantitative approach (Finn et al., 2000). However, in the recent decades, it is more and more acknowledged by researchers that, qualitative approach is non-substitutable in its utility in the conceptual stages that lead to the development of hypotheses to be tested. It is more suitable than quantitative approach to capture the subtleties of the human conditions and gain insights and it could play a vital role in all phases of research. It would be evident that quantitative research produce impressive numbers and so many researchers devote most of their energy to quantify their research outcomes, neglecting the fact that qualitative approach could actually well supplement the quantitative approach.

In the study, qualitative approach is used to generate the initial item pool. The variables are first derived from extensive literature review of the existing works, and further supplemented based on input from student tourists who have travel experience in Beijing and experienced academicians who have research relevance with tourist destinations. In order to make the developed instrument suit the maximum Beijing context, these derived items are again modified and finalized according to the discussion results of expert panel. In the process, qualitative techniques adopted tend to include word association, in-depth interviews, and Delphi techniques. That is, insight seeking and identification of the potential measurements by using qualitative approaches become the primary goals at the very beginning of this investigation, particularly in the process of

identifying reliable instrument development for Beijing as the tourist destination. What's more, based on the research findings, focus group approach is employed to invite destination marketers' insights on the potential implication.

4.1.2b Quantitative Approach

Quantitative approach involves the collection of data that can be analysed statistically, which determines that quantitative methods rely on numerical evidence to test hypotheses. With the aim to generalise widely, quantitative approach is particularly applied in large sample sizes to allow noise in the system to be covered. Quantitative techniques work best when appropriate data can be gathered and many informants are needed to tackle the research questions. According to Brunt (1997), key features of this techniques include: (1) identical questions and methods of recording answers are used in each respondent; (2) the sample is large and representative of the population being studied; (3) statistical analysis is used to draw conclusions; (4) "closed" questions are asked to get specific answers; and (5) opinions are measured by scoring and rating scales (for instance, a five-point Likert scale). Quantitative approach has been widely employed in the academic domains as decision making could be made easier as much information is quantitative and data are easily summarised and analyzed using computer, which save substantial human effort.

Consistent with the research objective, this study attempts to use the quantitative approach to achieve large, representative sample sizes and thus allow statement about the entire population to be made with confidence. Following the pilot study, the main survey is then approached based on a convenient sampling of foreign tourists who are currently enjoying a leisure travel in Beijing. After cleansing, final set of data is subjected to multiple statistical methods, namely, exploratory factor analysis, Anderson and Gerbing' s (1988) recommended two-step approach of structural equation modelling, and descriptive analysis. Staying focused on research questions, statistical methods serve to probe and examine the structural relationships among constructs of interest, and capture the respondents' characteristics.

4.1.2c Limitations

Quantitative techniques may have some limitation that should be paid attention in the ensuing investigation. Large sample is required, but still may not be representative of the target population. The quantitative methods often more impersonal than qualitative techniques, bias may still be caused by poor question design, poor sampling, poor interview techniques or a low response rate. On the contrast, qualitative techniques may normally involve small numbers of people, therefore it is dangerous to make broad generalisation about the results. The measure of the material often requires judgements to be made by the researcher, thus opening up

the issue of researcher bias. Walle (1997) further comments that the trade-off made by this technique involves a loss of rigour for the sake of attacking questions which formal methods cannot easily pursue.

4.1.3 Three-stage Research Procedures

The study is proposed to carry out through three stages, including qualitative-based instrument development, quantitative-based pilot testing, on-site questionnaire survey and statistical analysis, and the final qualitative-based implication reflections (see FIGURE 4.1). A mixed approach is adopted to ensure that results and findings are triangulated to present an accurate understanding of the destination perceptions.

The first stage commences from an extensive and thorough review of relevant literature to extract items for each targeted constructs. The initial item pool is then sent to experienced academicians and student tourists for opinion seeking. They individually comment on a bundle of literature-induced needs concerning their relevance to perceived experience. The results gained from literature review, experienced academicians and student tourists are then merged to produce a more complete set of items for each construct. The determination of the final item pool would invite the scholarly expert panel's insights and comments. Based on the determination of the expert panel, an initially questionnaire with the developed item pool is created.

In the second stage, preliminarily pilot study is conducted to make sure the questionnaire really works before carrying out the main survey. The research goes to Beijing and find a small group of foreign leisure tourists who are currently enjoying journey in Beijing. They participate in the pilot study and assess the questionnaire for suitability, readability and ambiguity (Dillman, 1999). The questionnaire is iteratively revised according to feedback received from these foreign tourists. The collected data is then tested on reliability and validity. Following the pilot study, the main survey is undertaken using the finalized questionnaire among a convenient sample selected from the foreign tourists who currently enjoy a leisure travel in Beijing. Data cleansing is conducted to refine the collected data and derive a qualified data set. To follow up, a series of rigorous statistical analysis methods is used to probe the relationship and characteristics of research interests.

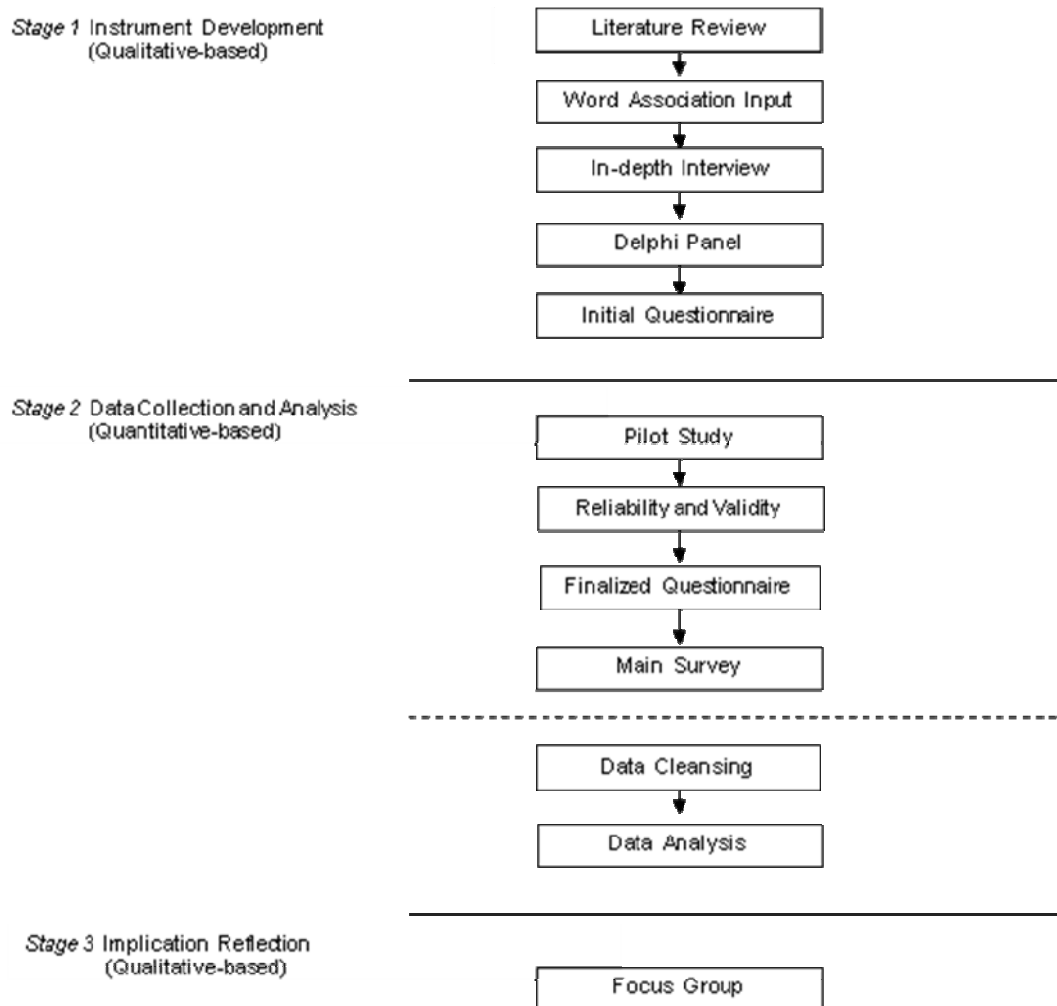


FIGURE 4.1 Research Procedures

4.2 INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

4.2.1 Questionnaire Development

As aforementioned, the instrument design procedure is mainly qualitative in nature. It starts from background and underlying information review in the extensive literatures. The initial idea about measurement indicators for each research construct is derived, for instance, by digging out the questionnaire items employed in prior studies. During the literature

review, the questionnaire items used in previous studies are recorded and grouped by the researcher into a “master list”. Word association test in a small group of student tourists, in-depth interview with experienced scholars serves to make additional input into the “master list”. The refined item pool is then sent to experienced expert panel for comments and insights. The Delphi technique is employed to facilitate this process. These qualitative research methods are triangulated to increase the content validity and trustworthiness of the instrument for the main survey. The developed questionnaire encounters a rehearsal in the pilot study, which is designed to make sure the questionnaire is truly respondent friendly.

4.2.1a Literature Review

Literature review is the most fundamental homework before the author conducts the actual research. Although talking about how to do a literature review is this sort of truism, it is necessary to mention some key point here for the young researchers, like the author, who just get started on the research path. Conducting a literature review is not an easy task. A good reviewer requires a lot of time, effort and a range of skills. According to Pyrczak and Bruce (1998), several guidelines that help the author avoid major pitfalls in evaluating and writing a literature review is highlighted as: 1) Start literature reviews with a paragraph that describes its organization, and use subheadings to guide readers. 2) The literature review should be presented in the form of an essay, not in the form of an annotated list. 3)

The literature review should emphasize the findings of previous research, not just the research methodologies and names of variables studied. 4) Point out trends and themes in the literature. 5) Point out gaps in the literature. 6) Point out how the study differs from previous studies. 7) Consider pointing out the number or percentage of people who are affected by the problem you are studying. Based on what Pycszak and Bruce (1998) elaborated about how to write good literature review, it is not surprising to find it is not a simple “copy” and “paste” task. Instead, it should summarize and show the author’s deep understanding of the literature.

In particular, an intensive study of the literature is conducted to identify valid measurements for the related constructs. Wherever possible, existing measures that had been used in previous studies are adopted. For selecting attributes and considering them, three rules are followed. One, in studies using information-reduction methods, the revised attributes are selected before the statistical procedure; so there are items but not factors or components. Two, given the variety of attributes and destination types, only the more universal attributes have been considered, ignoring those that correspond to the idiosyncrasies of a particular destination and those not applicable to Beijing’s situation (such as beautiful sea beach). Three, when the study listed various similar attributes (like fishing and rafting), these are regrouped into one category (sports activities). Although derived items are supported by previous recognized studies in top journals (refer to

Reference), quite a few components and factors influencing tourists' destination image are adapted directly from the aforementioned streams of research pertaining to destination image by slightly changing the words.

4.2.1b Word Association

This method belongs to the type of “projective techniques”, which are one aspects of qualitative research but are used relatively rarely in tourism research. Projective techniques involve motivating the participants to project their feelings or thinking onto the objectives (Finn et al., 2000; Trochim, 1997). The word association test starts from the researcher designing a prompt word or phrase related to the object. Then the researcher asks the respondents to give the first word or phrase that comes to mind. In the current work, a group of students at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University who have previous leisure travel experience in Beijing are invited to participate in the word association test. They are encouraged to talk about whatever first association they have with the phrase “Beijing as the tourist destination” given by the researcher. Word association is particularly useful “to test the top mind destination image that may provide valuable insights into how to play on a positive image or change a negative image” (Finn et al., 2000).

The merit of this method lies in relying on tourists and directly capturing their first-hit perception. Employing such a method to elicit salient

destination attributes from tourist' perceptions is believed to have some originality. Literature review reveals that the most common methods of attribute selection are literature review, content analysis of texts, and interviews with practitioners. No vigorous studies use such unstructured methods to elicit attributes from tourists in the questionnaire development. By combining the mental picture, or stereotypical impressions, most commonly mentioned descriptions are drawn for Beijing. In a nutshell, in addition to literature review, this method serves as a good means of capturing real-world perceptions and gathers firsthand input into the item pool.

4.2.1c In-depth Interviews

The purpose of the interview is to identify the most relevant attribute to measure each construct. In-depth interviews are carried out among trustful and experienced scholars in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management, the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. They are selected only if they are teaching or had taught a course or courses in tourism at the postgraduate level and have previous travelling experience in Beijing. Culturally and geographically mixed, they are from multiple countries and regions, including Australia, Germany, Netherland, U.S.A., Korea, China, Hong Kong and Taiwan, which guarantees that measurements are reviewed from a cross-cultural perspectives.

In such non-directive interviews, participants are given maximum freedom to respond on the statements measuring constructs of research interest. This qualitative research method is very useful to uncover a comprehensive list of attributes that are relevant and salient to Beijing's context. Besides, the interviewed scholars would not only respond within the bounds of measurement generation, but also provide opinions on how to carry on the present study. That is, this less structured though no less rigorous method not only helps identify and systematise the items for each research concept, but also introduces a range of facts that may emerge during the research. These helpful advice inspires the researcher's thinking of issues raised. The interview information is audio-recorded and transcribed into texts with the prior endorsements of the participants. The content relevant to measurement generation is carefully coded and summarized.

4.2.1d Delphi Techniques

The Delphi panel method is a systematic, interactive feedback mechanism (Briedenhann & Butts, 2006) which relies on a panel of independent experts (Rowe & Wright, 1999). This method is used in this study because it involves intensive feedback and opinions which serve to modify and finalize the measurement items. Participations are active scholars from a wide range of tourism schools home and abroad, including the researcher's previous schools, or other recognized tourism schools

where the researcher have contacts. They are carefully selected based on their acknowledged knowledge of the tourist destination research.

The panel members are first approached by invitation emails. If they agree to help in the Delphi panel, the researcher proceeds to distribute a list of measurement items generated from in-depth interview for their review. They respond and comment to the item list in several rounds. After each round, the researcher provides an anonymous summary of the panel members' feedback from the previous round as well as the reasons they provided for their judgments. After identifying the disagreed items among panel members, the researcher compile the individual opinion into clear and precise statements and email back to the panel member group. The panel members are asked to evaluate their earlier response and stick to or revise their earlier response versus the replies of other panel members. Panel members are asked to provide reasons why they change or do not change their response. The researcher then re-edits and summarises the results and their reasons for changing or not changing the response, and send out the new round of email again. The process is repeated a number of times, each round narrowing the range of responses. Using the Delphi panel method, the researcher settles down the disagreement on destination items and achieve the consensus of opinion after rounds of back-and-forth email communication. The measurements decreases and the group response finally converges towards a final list.

4.2.2 Questionnaire Design Considerations

The major factors in questionnaire design include: what should be asked? How should each question be phrased? In what sequence should the questions be arranged? What questionnaire layout will best serve the research objectives? How should the questionnaire be pretested? Does the questionnaire need to be revised? (Jennings, 2001; Mason, 1996; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

Due to the quantitative nature of this study, a questionnaire is employed to collect the firsthand data in Beijing. In order to maximize the response rate and make most of this interview opportunity, the instrument should be well prepared without mistakes such as poorly worded questions, poor question sequence, inappropriate questions or irrelevant questions. It is believed that a poor questionnaire or wasted questions means that the opportunity has been lost forever, resulting in greater costs, poor data and a poor report. The quality of the data collected is only as good as the quality of the questions asked. Finn et al. (2000) have concluded the baselines for good questions like outcome oriented, clear in the sequence, consistency and no ambiguous and double barrelled questions.

A street interceptive survey is conducted, also named on-site survey, which is conducted on the street, in tourist precincts, or at public attractions. The goal of this survey is to “capture” the tourists and it is completed by the

researcher. In consistence with the research objectives, the key research issues flowing from the research questions has been focused and contemplated by the researcher to ensure the questionnaire could be designed to acquire the maximum information the study needs and answer the question. Moreover, the respondent fatigue due to the long list of questions would make people stop responding, may not give the questions their full attention, or may simply pick the most convenient answer, which cause the risk that the quality of data will be poor. As street or on-site interviews desirably confines to “no more than 10 minutes” (Burns, 1994), this study mainly offers the respondents the closed-ended questions, which may range from a yes/no answer to selecting a number that best reflects their attitudes, or to selecting an item or items from a list of items. The benefit of using this closed-ended questions are considerable , such as quick, compact and easy to administer, easy to code and the results are easy to analyse, fast and inexpensive to allow the researcher to either ask more questions or to survey more people for the same time or financial allocation. On the other hand, when referring to questions with no upper limit to the response, for example, “How many times have you visited Beijing before?”. Open-ended questions are used to ease answering when there are many possible answers. The combination of two techniques serves to better explore the issue under study.

4.2.3 Pilot Test

Based on the item contribution from literature review, word-association-tested student tourists and interviewed academicians, the identified measures are further compiled and developed into an initial questionnaire. The questionnaire is constructed and pre-tested among selective students who have travelled to Beijing before to assess the feasibility of the survey approach. The pilot test is proposed to collect feedback for questionnaire refinement, to make sure the operationalization feasibility, and to check validity and reliability.

What tends to happen is that the researcher lives with his or her survey and gets to know it intimately, and because the researcher knows it, he or she assumes that others will be as familiar with it, its layout and the terms used as the researcher is. However, this is rarely the case and a pilot study is necessary to undertake before the main survey. Thus it is important to pre-test any questionnaire on a representative sample one or more times before administering it in the research. The pilot study provides the opportunity to identify potential difficulties with the questionnaire, including ambiguities, biases, missing attributes and coding problems (Lewis, 1984). The results of the pilot testing are used for the adjustment of the questionnaire design, wording, and measurement scales in order to ensure the provision of valid information. It has helped to identify problems with wording and layout that can cause misunderstanding. Jargons that interviewers are not conversant with have also been refined to more

colloquial. Through the pilot test, the researcher may also know whether the structure, length and flow of the survey are suitable, and if the length and time required to complete the questionnaire is well-controlled. It would appear ideal that most of the respondents in the pilot study show a willingness to get involved in the survey, indicating the likely response rate in the main survey and enhancing researchers' confidence.

Last but not least, two important and fundamental characteristics of any measurement procedure are reliability and validity (Kirk & Miller, 1986). First, reliability is concerned with estimates of the degree to which a measurement is free of random and unstable error (Cooper & Schindler, 1998). This study employs three measures to test the reliability, namely stability, equivalence and internal consistency (Cronbach, 1951). The first measure of stability is also named test-retest technique. The researcher first tests the questionnaire in a group of respondents and codes their response as the record. One week later, the researcher gives the same questionnaire to another group of respondents and also well-track their response for a comparison with the first group record. This measure serves to check whether there is significant deviation and discrepancy between the first and second response record and make sure the stability of the survey instrument. Equivalence indicates the parallel forms of the measurement, where two statements with similar key words have been checked by respondents based on their intuitionist understanding. The statement with

the less suitable and pertinent key word is excluded. The collected data have been further checked in aspect of internal consistency, which split the data sets into halves and using Cronbach's alpha to test the instrument reliability. Second, validity refers to whether the empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under study (Cooper & Schindler, 1998). It examines the extent to which differences found within the measuring tool reflect true differences among respondents. There are many different types of validity, including: content validity, face validity, criterion-related validity, construct validity, factorial validity, concurrent validity, convergent validity and divergent (or discriminant validity). In the pilot study, the instrument is only proposed to test the content and construct. The content validity is achieved by a rational analysis by expert panel members who are familiar with constructs under study. They review all of the items for readability, clarity and comprehensiveness and come to some level of agreement as to which items should be included in the final instrument; while the construct validity is mainly achieved by running a preliminary exploratory factor analysis.

In conclusion, the ability to answer the research question is only as good as the instruments the researcher develops or the data collection procedure (Kirk & Miller, 1986). It is deeply believed that a well-organized questionnaire could not only become attractive to the respondents, but also unveil the real situation of the studied issue to probe out the perceptions

towards Beijing.

4.2.4 Questionnaire Structure

The selection of measurement indicators are based on the review of literature for each research constructs, then additional input is made based on review of hospitality scholars and student tourists. They are bound to comment on a bundle of literature-induced needs concerning their relevance to perceived experience. The results gained from literature review, hospitality scholars and student tourists are then merged to produce a more complete set of items, which is then tested in the pilot study with a small sample. The accumulation of all these effort embody in the final questionnaire. The questionnaire is structured to achieve maximum response. With the clearly defined plot line running though, the structure of the questionnaire is logically organised to lead the respondents through it. The questionnaire may cover four pages in length.

Preamble: Hello note.

A Hello note is presented at the beginning of the questionnaire, which serves to orientate the respondents with the researcher's identity, the purpose of the current survey and the significance of the study. Respondents are invited to voluntarily participate and all the responses are kept as confidential and anonymous. Considerate reminder of 10-minutes' length to complete the questionnaire is also presented in the Hello note.

Part 1: Your perception of Beijing

In the first section, respondents are asked to indicate their perceptions of Beijing's destination image after the Olympics, their evaluation of Beijing's personality, and their intention to make referral and to pay-more. That is, this section focuses on questions that measure the following constructs—perceived cognitive destination image, destination personality and behavioural intentions.

Specifically, derived indicators about Beijing's natural environment, built environment and the socially responsible environment are rated within the cognitive destination image construct using a 7-point scale, with anchors (1) extremely poor and (7) extremely good. Destination personality is captured using Aaker's (1997) five dimensional brand personality scale (BPS). At a preliminary stage, the BPS 42 personality traits would be tested for content validity (Churchill, 1979). Some items may be redundant, because they are not suitable to define a tourism destination. A final set is then obtained. The items are measured using a 7-point Likert type scale, with anchors (1) not descriptive at all and (5) extremely descriptive, consistent with Aaker's (1997) study. Thirdly, willingness to pay more and intention of word-of-mouth are measured on a 7-point scale, anchored with (1) extremely unlikely and (7) extremely likely (Cronin & Taylor, 1992).

Part 2: Background Information

This section consists of questions designed to gather tourists' demographic information and travel behaviour. Demographic information proposed to obtain in this part includes gender, age, country / territory of residence, profession, income level and education. Frequency and purpose to visit Beijing and respondents' duration length are also asked.

Once the questionnaire is developed, it would be sent to experts with proficient language knowledge to ensure a high level of clarity. By utilizing the university's tailor-made EEPRS (Effective English for Postgraduate Research Student) program, the questionnaire is edited and revised by a group of professors at English department to guarantee the expression accuracy of statement and questions in the questionnaire. The professors are asked to clarify the items and comment on whether the statements are likely to be appropriate and native for this study. After comments are integrated, the researcher refines and develops the questionnaire accordingly. These efforts serve to make the questionnaire easily understood from the respondents' perspectives.

4.3 DATA COLLECTION

Data analysis is the art of examining, summarizing and drawing conclusions from data (Finn et al., 2000; Krathwohl, 1993). In line with the quantitative nature of this study, the data is collected through on-site

investigation. Specific methods of data collection have to be taken into considerations of morality, efficiently and suitability (Robinson, 1998; Som, 1995). Rather than surveying an entire population, it is believed selecting specific population to be more practical, cost and time effective. If conducted correctly, the sample can give a strong indication of characteristics of entire population. The vehicle for main data collection in the current work is the convenience sampling method, which is an efficient way to collect the desirable data from target respondents.

4.3.1 Sampling Method

The target respondents are foreign tourists travelling in Beijing for leisure. A non-probabilistic sampling procedure, convenience sampling, is adopted owing to the unavailability of a satisfactory sampling frame. The concept of convenience sampling is self-explanatory. It is widely used in roadsides or other easily accessible spots (Gruijter et al., 2006) with the advantage of time and cost effectiveness. In the on-site survey, foreign respondents are conveniently chosen, survey schedules are conveniently generated at various time points based on peak/off peak during weekdays and weekends, and survey locations are also conveniently selected.

However, not any on-site survey is without certain bias or error (Finn et al., 2000). The disadvantage of the convenience sampling is that the statistical properties are inferior to those of the other sampling modes

(Nelder, 1999). For instance, estimates from a convenience sample have to be regarded as biased unless one is willing to accept specific assumptions about the sampling process and the spatial and temporal variation. These assumptions are often debatable, and this may or may not be acceptable, depending on the context of the project. Moreover, as Visser et al. (2000) stated, convenience sampling can be a concern because the people who volunteer may be more interested in the survey topic than those who do not and the sample's potential lack of representativeness may affect the findings' generalizability. Therefore, in order to minimize the convenience sampling disadvantage, the current work pays attention to aspects, such as eliminating as much bias as possible from the sample, ensuring the size of the sample is appropriate for the study and matching the sampling technique used with the characteristics of the population and the quality of the data needed. Moreover, confidence tests are necessary to be conducted to see if the sample's reliability is statistically satisfactory. Questionnaire refinement, rigorous sampling frame and high response rate are important aspects worthy the research efforts in order to minimise the non-sampling errors. A valid sampling could generalises and reflect the behaviour and attitudes of a large population within acceptable confidence limits. Although many cautions for the on-site sampling method should be noted, the study is proposed to overcome the problems by relying on a large sample and thus the noise of the impact could be reduced to an acceptable level. Moreover, it is still advisable to test the survey results

against the known population norms to determine how closely it represents the profile of the population (Burns, 1994).

4.3.2 Survey Operationalization

The survey is grounded strongly in a cautious framework with the criteria of speed, amount of information obtained, cost, expected accuracy, acceptable level of non-response and representation of the sample. Since an on-site intercept procedure is employed, in order to reduce non-response error, some appropriate steps mentioned by Hsieh and Chang (2006) are adapted. First, six graduate students work in pairs when conducting the survey. Second, prior to the survey, the students are given training in street survey skills, courteous manner, etc., by the researcher. Finally, sequentially numbered questionnaires, as well as gifts (traditional Chinese knots), are distributed by the research team to thank respondents for completing the questionnaires.

The researchers intends to visit venues where many foreign tourists may gather, such as airport departure lounge, famous attractions and sightseeing resorts, busy public locations, densely populated urban locations, shopping complexes / malls, and the high street. In order to raise the efficiency of data collection, the screening process to identify the potential respondents is not set up in the questionnaire, rather, is personally conducted by asking the foreign tourists an initial filtering

question of whether they are currently enjoying a leisure travel in Beijing. Then the tourists whose answer to the question is positive are asked to complete the questionnaire and briefed about the research objectives and administrative procedure. On average, one out of five tourists who will be contacted and participate in the on-site investigation (Kim et al., 2006).

Moreover, before conducting the survey, the researcher contacts the administrative office of these places to get the permission. Testimonial and identity letter issued by the researcher's school are also be prepared to prove the legitimacy and validity of the survey. From the researcher's previous survey experience in the research project during undergraduate study in Shanghai, conducting survey for academic research purpose is welcome and permitted. So it is expected that Shanghai's generous favour given to the research projects could also be generalized to Beijing.

4.3.3 Sampling Size

Commonly acknowledged factors that determine the sample size are: the degree of precision desired, the level of confidence or error that can be tolerated, the type of information desired, the number of sub-groups, the type of statistical analysis used the variability of the population and cost and time considerations (Krahtwohl, 1993; Trochim, 1997). However, depending on the different research situation, the sample size varies. Yoo and Chon (2005) indicates that actually there is in general no correct

sample size in the absolute sense. Considering the theoretical aspect of the target research, the most important criterion in selecting sample is not to ensure that the sample is representative of a population but to increase validity of the collected data.

In the current work, the determination of the sample size largely depends on statistical estimating precision required for the data analysis. According to Gay (1996), 30 subjects are generally considered to be a minimally acceptable sample size for a correlation study. Some researchers recommend that the ratio of independent variables, or predictors, to sample size in multiple regressions should be at least 1:15, whereas others recommend 1:30 subjects per independent variables should be used in dealing with the shrinkage of R (Pedhazur, 1997). In addition, other researchers recommend that samples should be comprised of at least 400 (Pedhazur, 1997). Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) claimed that on less than 200 cases for factor analysis is as a general rule of thumb. Hair et al. (1998) suggested that a sample size between 200 and 400 is usually recommended and accepted as the critical sample size. Although Pedhazur (1997) suggested the use of statistical power analysis in determining sample size, he noted that the use of a large sample (approximately 500) is crucial when a number of predictors are to be selected from a large pool of predictors. As a conclusion of the argument, Charreire and Durieux (2001) claimed that larger samples are always

preferable. In particular, for the purpose of Structural Equation Modelling, no single criterion indicates the necessary sample size but a larger sample is desired (Hair et al., 1998). SEM usually requires large sample sizes although it is difficult to determine how large a sample is needed. The model complexity and the estimation methods are two factors affecting sample size requirements. More complex models require larger samples for the results to be stable because they contain more parameters to be estimated. Taking all these opinions into consideration, a sample size of 500 is regarded to be secure and ideal by the researcher. Hence, it is targeted for the main study. It is also worth noting that the research population yields the largest destination survey ever conducted in Beijing.

4.3.4 Data Entry

All usable responses are categorized and scaled after their collection and entered into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for statistical processing. All statistics and the results of statistical analysis are also generated using SPSS. The software is one of the most powerful statistical software packages available, which supports a broad range of capabilities for statistical and quantitative analysis. It removes the drudgery and tedium of manually calculating complex formulae and especially works fine in the research domain of humanities and social science. The employment of this statistical software as a database management tool helps the study organize the data conveniently.

4.3.5 Data Cleansing

Considering the fact that the quality of on-site questionnaire survey actually varies significantly, the researcher pays attention to guarantee the data quality as much as possible. First of all, the researcher conducts a daily check once the on-site questionnaires are gathered at the end of the survey day. To ensure a usable data set, questionnaires that are either uncompleted or clearly duplicated are excluded. The qualifying questionnaires are then be retained for coding. Also, in an attempt to eliminate quality error from the survey, data cleansing is performed to exclude the outliers, missing data, seriously inconsistent data, uncompleted data, and obviously duplicated data.

Specifically, analyses of outliers, missing data, normality and multicollinearity are performed to purify the data and reduce systematic errors in the descriptive data screening process. Outliers are collected data with extreme scores of more than three standard deviations away from the mean and are most often caused by entry mistakes. Hair et al. (1998) suggested that outliers should be checked from univariate, bivariate and multivariate perspectives, and the most commonly used methods for detecting outliers are standard scores, scatter plots, and the Mahalanobis D2 measure; Missing data are generally caused by systematic event external to the respondents, for example, data entry error and data collection problems. Action on the part of the respondents such as refusal

to cooperate may also result in missing data. A data imputation in the software AMOS is utilized to compile the cases with missing data; Normality is tested by using PRELIS. Kline (2005) suggests that normalize the variable using transformation and then use the transformed data in the estimation is the easiest practice to settle down the violation of multivariate normality assumption; multicollinearity occurs when the inter-correlations among some variables (either observed or latent) are so high (e.g., >0.85) that these variables are not distinct but redundant, and this results in unsolvable or unstable mathematical operations (Zikmund, 1987). Kline (2005) suggested two ways to deal with multicollinearity, eliminate redundant variables or combine them into a composite variable.

4.4 DATA ANALYSIS

The research questions are how Beijing might be characterised by destination personality and how destination personality impacts behavioural intentions. Constructs under study are cognitive destination image, destination personality and behavioural intentions. The criteria on selecting ideal analysis method from various options is how well it could answer the research questions and how powerful it could serve to explain relations rather than to predict relations. Making sense of the raw data by employing suitable statistic techniques helps to provide useful insights for the subsequent procedures.

4.4.1 Procedures of Data Analysis

The key to any successful research is to always keep the research questions in mind. The data analysis of a study should be designed according to the purpose and objectives of the study, and the design should be likely to produce certain types of explanation needed at the end of the study (Mason, 1996). This study is expected to demonstrate the employment of the extensive quantitative methodological approaches to inductively and holistically understand the basic assumptions around Beijing's destination personality in the setting of post-Olympics. Accordingly, the procedure summarizes the flow of data analysis in the. It presents the main flow of analysis from raw data to the final stage of analysis. (see FIGURE 4.2)

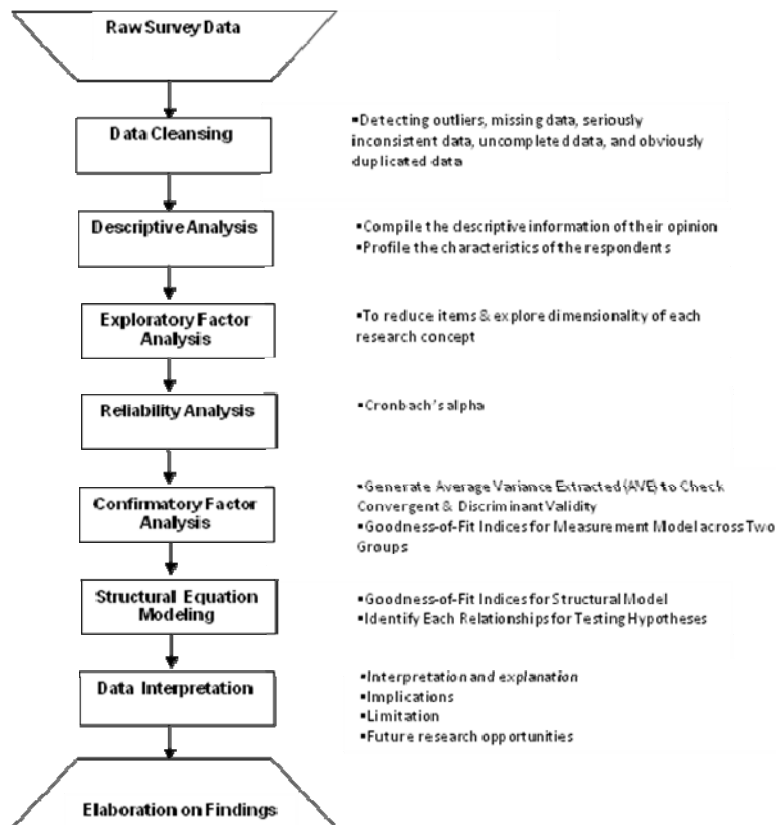


FIGURE 4.2 Procedures of Data Analysis

Specifically, data analysis is conducted using the SPSS and AMOS programs. Descriptive analysis (e.g., frequency and means) are used to profile the characteristics of the respondents and compile the descriptive information of their opinion. Data collected from questionnaire survey is subjected for EFA to reduce items and to identify the dimensionality of the concepts under study. The reliability analysis is run to test the reliability of the multi-item scales. Confirmatory factor analysis is conducted to test the goodness of fit of the overall measurement model and consolidate the identified latent variables in each concept. To follow up, the structural

model is run to test the hypothetical relationships between latent variables.

4.4.2 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis is the science of describing the important aspects of a set of measurements and accounts for mass of quantitative information (Burns, 1994; Finn et al., 2000). It provides an important basis for analysis in almost all academic disciplines including the hospitality and tourism. Preliminary analysis of the survey data includes calculating the frequency, mean and standard deviation. In this study, the descriptive analysis is used to portray a full picture of respondents' demographic profile and travel-related characteristics. Although the purpose of the study is not to understand the demographic characteristics of the respondents, demographic variables such as gender, education level and the length of stay could be used in market segmentation studies.

4.4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is used on the survey data to identify priori dimensionalities of the constructs. The appropriateness of the correlation matrices to exploratory factor analysis is confirmed by the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Barlett's test of sphericity (Hair et al., 1998). Any item not correlated at $>.30$ on any other item is removed (Hatcher, 1994). As the factors to be extracted are expected to correlate with one another, an oblique rotation is performed,

and only factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 are considered. Scree plots are also examined to confirm the factor number. The criterion for the significance of factor loadings is set at 0.4 (Hatcher, 1994). Items with loading of lower than .40, higher than .40 on more than one factor (cross-loading) are candidates for elimination until a clean and rigid factor structure is obtained (Hair et al., 1998). After eliminating unqualified items, the final measures could be determined. The modified factor solution of the total variance is expected to beyond 60% the construct validity of the scale (Churchill, 1979). Each factor is labelled, explaining respective percentage of the total variance.

4.4.4 Reliability Analysis

Before estimating the model, the reliability of the internal consistency of the constructs is examined using the Cronbach's alpha. The cut-off point of alpha coefficient at 0.7 (Nunally, 1978) indicates an acceptable level of reliability for each construct. That is, only items with high alpha reliability coefficients are considered internally consistent and reliable in gauging each construct.

4.4.5 Structural Equation Modelling

Structural equation modelling has been frequently used in psychology and social sciences because it enables researchers to assess and modify theoretical models (Bentler, 1983). In this study, the analysis of

the structural model delivers an understanding of what drives assessment of the touristic experience. According to Anderson and Gerbing's (1988), structural testing involves a two-stage process. The first stage ensures good measurement of the constructs while the second involves an assessment of the structural relationships. Therefore this study checks the measurement and structural model using SPSS and AMOS 4.

4.4.5a Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Measurement model testing indicates how well the observed indicators reflect the constructs (Jöreskog, Sörbom & Jhoreskog, 1998). The reliability and validity of the measurement model is necessary for securing the fit of the measurement model to the data. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 serves as the cut-off point for assessing reliability for multi-item scales (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). Average Variance Extracted (AVE) from a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is also used to assess convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 1998). When all the AVE exceeds 0.5, convergent validity is satisfied. When an AVE for each construct is greater than squared correlation coefficients for corresponding inter-constructs, discriminant validity is confirmed (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

4.4.5b Structural Model Testing

Structural model testing is used to confirm relationships among constructs under study, thereby testing proposed hypotheses. Goodness-

of-fit indices from SEM indicate whether data fits into the structural model.

4.5 HUMAN ETHNICS AND CROSS-CULTURAL ISSUES

4.5.1 Human Ethics Issues

In the simplest form, Homan (1991) describes ethics as a philosophical discipline primarily concerned with the evaluation and justification of norms and standards of personal and interpersonal behavior. Ethical practice involves more than simple compliance with the letters of the law. The truly ethical business acknowledges that it has a greater moral obligation to deal fairly and equitably with all people, business and organisations it contacts (Finn et al., 2000; Trochim, 1997).

The researcher is fully aware that utmost ethical standards must be maintained throughout the study. In the process of data collection, the respondents' permission is asked to get the informed consent (Maxwell, 2005) on the content and techniques of data collection, how the data is to be reported and used and what the purpose of the research. In line with Human Research Ethics standards, confidentiality and anonymity are confirmed before conducting the interview. The demographic information of respondents is guaranteed to be 100% confidential and there is no more access to respondents' private information beside the researcher. And how the private information is presented in the manuscript should also draw attention. The researcher also pays attention to establishing a cordial

relationship with the participants in advance. Nice smiles and gentle eastern greeting manner are of great help.

4.5.2 Cross-cultural Issues

Being culturally insensitive may influence the success of a research project (Finn et al., 2000; Neuman, 2000). There is quite a large amount of cross cultural literature highlighting that visitors from different destinations have different needs, wants, desires and behaviors (Parasyuraman, 1991; Payne & Dimanche, 1996; Smith & Quelch, 1993; Vallance, 1995; Yeh et al., 1998). These differences must be considered when doing survey and analysing results. In addition, tourists from different cultural or ethnic backgrounds participate in different activities at a destination and engage in different search patterns when deciding where to go. These differences affect how research can be conducted on different market segments.

First of all, cross-cultural issues of employing Aaker's (1997) approach of brand personality in this destination context are sensitive. Literature has proved that Aaker's brand personality scales actually has shown considerable differences if generalized to cross-cultural differences (Austin et al., 2003), with respect both to the number of dimensions extracted and their meaning (e.g., Aaker et al., 2001, for Japan and Spain; Ferrandi et al., 2000, for France; Smit et al., 2003; Sung & Tinkham, 2005, for Korea, and Smit et al., 2003, for Netherlands). Much caution should be

given in this first trial of applying Aaker's brand personality scale in eastern culture of China and attention should be drawn to certain items used in Aaker's study, which might not reflect the full gamut of traits associated with Chinese Beijing.

Another vital cultural issue highly noted as the cross-cultural issue in the current work is the language difference. The major problem in cross-cultural research is to determine whether or not the translation is equivalent to the original language (Dimanche, 1994). Cross-cultural researchers have indicated the difficulties of translating and evaluating the quality of the translation. Often, when faced with the task of ensuring proper equivalence of a research instrument across cultures and languages, researchers tend to deny the problem and pursue their research goals in a single language, English (Dimanche, 1994). Although English is the international language and many citizens of other language speak English, one cannot guard against different levels of ability to read and understand the questions. Often, even English words and phrases have different meanings according to the cultural group. Ahmed (1996) acknowledged that the non-English participants' responses "may be subject to response biases". Thus questions regarding international respondents' understanding of the questionnaires used in much contemporary. Translating the questionnaires into the subjects' native language should then be the preferred methodology. The research should show extreme concern about cultural

meaning differentials and use the primary language spoken by these populations. Although with more and more cultural tourism studies reported in the tourism literatures in the recent decades, most researchers tend to use translated instruments but unfortunately lack sufficient information concerning the validity and reliability of the question items in the various culture, therefore making the results suspect. An example of cross-cultural research conducted in tourism contexts with a multi-language survey instrument is Lee and Lee's (2009) comparison study on the image of Guam perceived by Korean and Japanese leisure travellers. A questionnaire was initially written in English and then translated into Japanese and Korean. Although they gave detail information regarding the translation procedures, the cultural equivalence and reliability issues of the research instrument has not been fully addressed. The lack of information causes readers to question that the results may have "cultural differences".

Although the study notes the bias caused by language, designing a multi-language survey questionnaire has practical implementation barriers. In the current study, respondents come from all over the world and the exact sample unit is not known. To make the survey feasible, the study compromises to still use the English questionnaire. It should be admitted that it is critical to have a minimum understanding of a foreign language because a language is the key to fully observe another culture. It is essential for tourism scholars to improve their cross cultural methodological

skills and to pay more attention to language and cultural equivalence issues in order to improve the quality of the studies conducted.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The researcher has assumed that readers know nothing about the study and provides enough details to let the readers know exactly how the research is carried out. In this chapter, the researcher first describes the method used to gather the information and also explain why the method is selected over other alternatives. The specifics of questionnaire design, data collection, and sampling technique are also discussed. Although this study is mainly based on the data from the questionnaire survey, qualitative information collected from the interviews and focus group is used to illuminate and enrich the quantitative findings. Following a logical sequence of data analysis, the researcher stays focused on answering the research questions. Without neglecting sensitive issues such as ethics and cross-cultural barriers, the researcher clearly notifies the readers of the potential research limitations and strongly demonstrates the humanistic nature of the current work.

CHAPTER 5

INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

The scale is designed through a standard scale development process (Bagozzi et al., 1991). 1) Conceptualization. 2) Generation of item pool. 3) Word association and in-depth interviews. 4) Delphi expert panel validation. 5) Item editing. 6) Pilot study to purify the measure. The qualitative research methods identify and validate the items used to measure the research constructs. The initially developed instrument is then modified in light of the pilot test results. The purpose of preliminary research is to collect information directly from the target population for developing a feasible research instrument. The development of the scale permits further study of the construct as well as its relationship with other key constructs in the context of post-Olympic destination assessment.

Since scales of destination personality and behavioural intentions are directly borrowed from existing studies, the emphasis of instrument development is to identify applicable measures for cognitive destination image. Items can be generated using inductive or deductive technique. If the inductive technique is used, the data would tell the construct/domain captured by the items; If the deductive technique is used, the researcher needs to establish the definition of the construct from literature and develop items to measure it. In this study, this study employs the deductive

technique and develops the definitions and items based on previous literature. Findings of scale development are presented in this chapter. Section 5.1 introduces the source of initial items that first come to the pool. Section 5.2 presents the results of word association. Section 5.3 reveals the findings of depth interview with experts of close research relevance. Section 5.5 reviews the comments and advice from Delphi Panel on the proposed measurements. Section 5.5 reports the stories about pilot test and comes up with a show of the final questionnaire. As a summary, Section 5.6 concludes the scale development procedure.

5.1 PRELIMINARY ITEMS

The concept of destination image has been a matter of discussion during the past decades. The increasing pressure of tourism on humanity and the natural environment have raised concerns among people all around the world considerably. Today, tourists expect more responsible use of increased destination image power. Although the expanding literature on the issue of destination image has provided a clearer understanding, it is still problematic to find a commonly accepted definition of the cognitive destination image. Another problem is to measure the cognitive destination image based on the emerging emphasis on the socially responsible and green concept. Despite the existence of various measurement methods in the literature, almost all of them have some limitations. In order to better understand and measure how cognitive destination image relates with

social responsibility, a new measurement of cognitive destination image is needed. The study is therefore to fill this void by providing a new scale to measure the cognitive destination image in terms of the expectations of tourists who become more and more aware of social responsibility.

The Three-layer Theory of the product provides a useful means of conceptualizing cognitive destination image (see Literature Review Section). Taking this understanding into account, the cognitive destination image can be further segmented as images towards natural environment, built environment and socially responsible environment. The Three-layer Theory of the product to specify domains of the construct was only used to build a ground for the concept of cognitive destination image dimensions. Therefore, this study has an exploratory structure, and does not attempt to confirm the Three-layer segmentation theory. Based on the proposed conceptual framework, the scale reflects the corresponding social responsibility of a destination, as well as covers other traditional research concerns about the destination image. A historical review of the literature creates an initial item pool with a list of 67 items derived from the previous scales from literature searches, Internet, brochures, articles in tourism business magazines, newspapers and public reports (see Appendix 1).

In spite of the prevailing items contributed to identify natural and built destination image, it should be noted that socially responsible

environment also consists of bulks of items compared with the other two. Although it is a newly developed concept, it is more and more frequently talked about in major information channels, either academic or commercial ones. Emerging public awareness towards this dimension provides sources where relevant items could be derived to supplement the item pool.

5.2 FINDINGS OF WORD ASSOCIATION

In the word association procedure, five tests are conducted on convenient samples chosen from a group of overseas students who have short-time summer camp experience in Beijing within two years. After indicating the research purpose, participants in the tests are given the probe phrase “Beijing as the tourist destination”. They respond to the probe phrase “off the top of their mind”. This qualitative method provides evidence for the validity of the research instrument, and also supplements the item pool via a free information channel. The word association tests are audio-recorded in the MP3 format and findings are presented in Appendix 2.

According to results of word association tests, 12 items have been identified to cover participants’ diverse concerns towards Beijing’s cognitive destination image. Particularly, the most frequently mentioned aspects about Beijing are local cuisine and the 2008 Olympic Games, which repute Beijing as a worldwide attractive destination; while other negative destination characteristics, though mentioned less frequently, for example,

“Control of environmental diseases (e.g., H1NI Swine Influenza)” and “Use of plastic bags”, also reveal the necessity of ensuring public safety and green destination image. Therefore, the valuable inspiration collected from participants in the word association tests are captured and used in enhancing the item pool.

5.3 FINDINGS OF IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

Participants in the in-depth interviews are three experienced academicians with close research relevance in the researcher’s faculty. All interviews incorporate the use of individual semi-structural protocol. They are audio-taped and subsequently transcribed. Academicians reviewed the existing items for Cognitive Destination Image and assess their applicability. The in-depth interviews begin with using the protocol for in-depth discussions that last a little more than 1 hour. After careful review of the existing items, participants provide their own perceptions towards the cognitive destination image items and share their insights on the scale development procedure (see Appendix 3).

Perception from participants consolidate the current item pool with 5 new items, namely, “political stability”, “rights and freedom” and “social harmony”. With a deeper insight, it might be possible to assign these three items to the built environment. This process leads to an enlarged item pool of 84 items. Far more than just helping with the item generation, based on

their research expertise all three participants orientate the researcher with a clear path of how to develop the scales. One participant comments on the scale development “you need to develop scale items specific to Beijing. Do not rely too much on the previous literature”. Another participant recommends prestigious textbooks he once used and his paper publications on scale development for the researcher to have a detailed perusal. It is therefore gratefully concluded that Information secured from in-depth interviews better equip the researcher for the unfolding research path.

5.4 FINDINGS OF DELPHI PANEL

Items accumulated from above procedures encounter the assessment by the Delphi panel members. 17 scholars with close research relevance are asked on board. After rounds of email communications, the current items have been reduced and purified into a smaller set of 47 items, optimized in terms of their semantic clarity, applicability to the destination, and redundancy, with aid of the Delphi expert panel’s validation. With their expertise, many scholars provide valuable insights on the item pool.

“There are pairs of the duplicated items, e.g., “Products with toxic heavy metals” and “Products that are harmful to people”; “Products that can be recycled” and “Products that cause less pollution”; Also several items are hard to measure for tourists may not know, e.g., “Mountains and hiking opportunities”, “Costs and price levels”, “Development of health services”, “Minimizing material consumption”, “Local people

with high ethical value”, and “Pride in achieving high standards”; And there are also double/triple-barreled items, say “Nightlife and entertainment opportunities”, “Water quality and supply”, “Nature conservation and sustainability”, “Environmental education, awareness and information”, and “rights and freedom”.”

-----Scholar A

“Is it necessary to separate products and food? And you may have included too many items to measure destination image alone. People may lose their patience if you are asking too much.”

-----Scholar B

“The item pool looks good in general and I do have some concerns regarding several items. For the items "Opportunity to increase knowledge and learn", "Uniqueness of culture/customs", "Individualism", and "Creative", I think they are more effective than cognitive. The perceived opportunity or uniqueness is quite subjective; for the items "Selection of restaurant, accommodation, local products (amount, quality, categories)", I think it is better to divide them into different questions, since they are asking different aspects. If you put them together, the respondents will get confused.”

-----Scholar C

“For items such as “Products without toxic heavy metals”, “Products packaged in reusable containers”, “Products with excessive packaging”, “Paper products made from recycled paper”, and “Products that are energy efficient”, do you intend to ask the respondents if their home come across or purchase products of the above characteristics? I think they might have purchased a number of products or come across a number of them with different characteristics. Therefore, respondents may be referring to different things”

-----Scholar D

“Food and products, do they really relate to Beijing’s destination image considering the flow of consumer goods from different corners of the world. If you would like to

look at the food and product, you may need to specify as, say, hotel food, restaurant food, street vendor food... / supermarket products, retail outlet products..."Put yourself in the shoes of foreign tourists, see how you would respond to these food and product questions if you are a tourist"

-----Scholar E

"Many items are hard to judge, like "food that with green labels? ", "Energy Efficient Consumptions", how could tourists tell?"

-----Scholar F

"The item is more than expected. I am very exhausted with such a long length of questionnaire. Rely on the EFA to reduce items will be more sensible for your current status."

-----Scholar G

Combining all replied comments collected from Delphi Expert Panel, this study finalizes the item pool for Cognitive Destination Image as Appendix 4 presents. Each item collected from above procedures is carefully reviewed to ensure that its wording is as precise as possible. Double-barreled statements have been split into two single-idea statements. If it is impossible to split the statement, some recast to be positively stated and others to be negatively stated to reduce "yea-" or "nay-" saying tendencies (Churchill, 1979). By now, the initial questionnaire is shaped and ready for the pilot empirical test (see Appendix 5).

5.5 PILOT TEST

5.5.1 Operational Process

After email consultation with tourism experts in the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) and local tourism professors at Beijing International Studies University, the researcher conducted the survey inside the famous sightseeing sites where foreign tourists would like to go. The relaxing atmospheres of these happy places equipped foreign tourists with a good mood, which facilitated the data collection. Experts and professors also orientated the researcher about sightseeing sites distribution and channels to seek permission at these sites. For the second half of the pilot study, the researcher put up a post looking for student helpers on BBS of Tsinghua University. Beside reasonable salary, incentives also included free admission tickets to these sightseeing sites and participation certificates with signature and stamp from the researcher's school. The subsequent response emails came in bulk and the researcher invited three students to join in the pilot study. Before the on-site survey, the researcher briefed through the pilot questionnaire line by line with student helpers. They were trained with proper words and deeds for the survey. Integrity and responsibility for the data quality have been emphasized throughout the training session. As student helpers wore unified T-shirts with a distinctive color, the researcher could easily observe and watched them. At the end of each day, the researcher held helpers for several minutes to exchange their experience. Many useful skills and hints were shared. For example, one student helper believed the best venue to intercept respondents was the large foyer, where many foreigners agreed

to take the survey while they took a breath. Another finding was the necessity to spend 10 seconds to check if there were some missing questions before respondents left.

Based on the teamwork of the survey group, a five-day pilot survey at seven major attractions along with the midfield axis from the north to the south, namely Summer Palace, Great Wall, Tiananmen Square, Forbidden City, Jingshan Park, Temple of Heaven, and Great Hall of the People achieved a fruitful set of 250 questionnaires, among which in all 210 effective ones were retained.

The pre-test also familiarized the researcher with particular on-site survey conditions. Putting together concerned factors of outcome efficiency, site administration offices' attitude, and distance between volunteers' home and the survey sites, the researcher finally decided three sites for the final main survey. They are: Jingshan Park, a famous royal landscape garden situated in the center of Beijing City; Summer Palace, a World Heritage listed masterpiece of natural landscape of hills, open water and artificial features such as pavilions, halls, palaces, temples and bridges that form a harmonious ensemble of outstanding aesthetic value; and Temple of Heaven, the complex of Taoist buildings which was visited by the Emperors of the Ming and Qing dynasties for annual ceremonies of prayer to Heaven for good harvest.

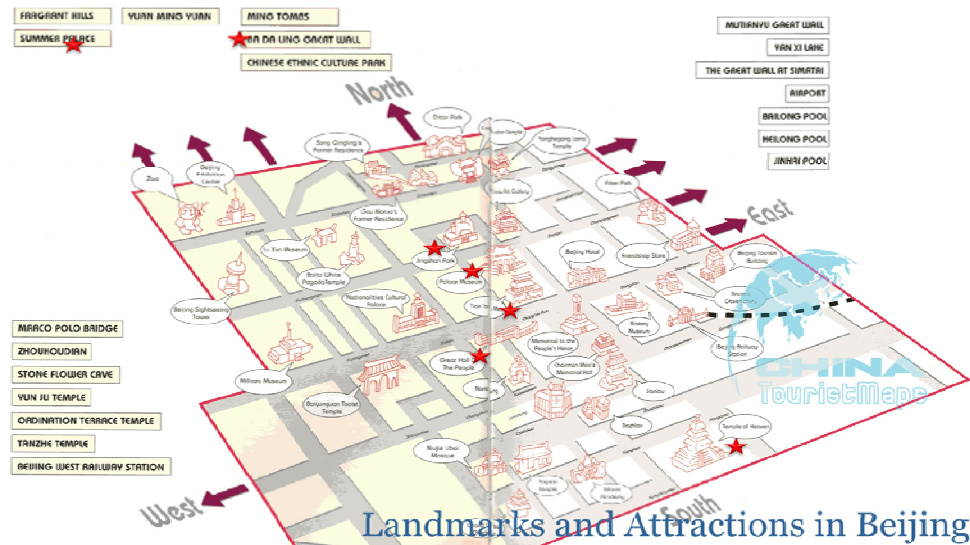


FIGURE 5.1 Landmark and Attritions of Beijing

Source: Beijing Tourism Administration 2009

5.5.2 Questionnaire Assessment

Since the pilot study is conducted on a limited number of respondents (N=210), this step is only seen as a preliminary assessment of the measurement scale and the overall questionnaire. In the assessment, the objective is to test the length, format, clarity and content validity of the research instrument. Qualitative review of the questionnaire by respondents helps to check the content validity and practical effectiveness of the research instrument. Existing problems have been detected based on comments and feedback gained from communication with respondents.

First of all, the three-page length is beyond tourists' patience, especially in the sightseeing sites with high-flow throngs. Although most of

the foreign tourists are easy-going and willing to help, the fatigue is caused after a 10-minute standing/sitting still.

Secondly, many respondents comment on the section of Destination Personality, where 42 descriptive items are very vague and brain-wracking to answer. At the end of the day, the rate of mindless checking or ticking is very high in this section, for respondents could not recall subtle perceptions toward destination personality of Beijing based on their initial travelling touch. Moreover, highly subjective descriptive words might mean different to respondents from different language-speaking countries, which also results in ineffective response.

Thirdly, items under the same dimension of behavioural intentions are hard to differentiate. Some respondents complain that they could not clearly tell the difference between “I will encourage friends and relatives to visit Beijing ”and “I will recommend Beijing to anyone who seeks my advice”, and “I am willing to pay more for visiting Beijing “ and “I will pay higher price to visit Beijing, despite other competing destinations’ price being lower”. Although theoretically these items are used in previous literature to measure different aspects of the latent variables, respondents fail to recognize the subtle difference but simply give the same rating to these “similar statements” in the behavioural intention section. Therefore, the researcher changes the order of items, separate them under the same

dimension and make the inter-dimensional items a mixture in the questionnaire.

Fourthly, some demographic questionnaires are found to be not applicable. For example, the income level of respondents varies according to the specific situation in different countries, so it seems meaningless to compare the incoming level of respondents. And the embarrassment is that, as the questionnaire uses the currency unit of US dollar to measure the incoming level, and some serious respondents even bring out their pocket calculators to exchange their local currency into US dollars in order to answer this question, while most respondents were tired to make this effort and simply skipped this question. Concerned with these problems, the study finally eliminates questions about respondents' income level. Also respondents comment that their ethnicity to some extent overlaps with the country of residence. All feedback is well received and corresponding revision has been made in the final main survey questionnaire.

5.5.3 Measures of Variables

5.5.3a Cognitive Destination Image

After conducting the full scale questionnaire survey with 210 foreign tourists in Beijing, measurement indicators have been validated and finalized. The cognitive destination image scale used in this study is non-exhaustive of the destination characteristics but represents the majority of

important perceptions from foreign tourists. Finally 47 items have been identified. A 7-point interval scale is used to evaluate the cognitive destination image attributes (1=extremely poor, 2=very poor, 3=somewhat poor, 4=neutral, 5=somewhat good, 6=very good, and 7=extremely good).

5.5.3b Destination Personality

Based on the pilot results and feedback from respondents, the study intends to condense the items into a smaller set by selecting the most representative and significant personality items in Aaker's Brand Personality Scale (Aaker, 1997). 20 items with highest Item-to-Total correlations are employed to measure the destination personality of Beijing. The shortened list of personality items convey clearer meaning and thus could be easily understood by the respondents. They not only represent the major concerns of the research interest, but also raise the response interest and reduced respondents' fatigue. Respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement with the destination personality attributes on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1= not descriptive at all, 2= not descriptive, 3=somewhat not descriptive, 4=neutral, 5=somewhat descriptive, 6=very descriptive, and 7=extremely descriptive.

5.5.3c Behavioural Intentions

Nine items are identified to measure the behavioural intentions of foreign tourists towards Beijing. This scale is modified according to the

loyalty scale developed by Zeithame et al. (1996) which exhibits a high reliability with Cronbach's alpha equaling to 0.9. The same scale has been recommended and used by many previous studies. Because of the nature of destination loyalty, the final result is likely to be either unidimensional or three-dimensional. The possible dimensions of behavioural intention scale are tourist intentions to pay more and make recommendations to the destination. Behavioural intentions are measured with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1=extremely unlikely to 7= extremely likely.

5.5.3d Demographic Profile and Travel Information

Cross-cultural issues are given careful considerations in this study. Not like the usual questionnaire, this study believes that it is quite plausible to exclude the inapplicable and privacy-sensitive questions like income levels and marital status. The final version of questionnaire mainly consists of seven questionnaires to capture respondents' demographic information and travel information: 1) Gender, 2) Age, 3) Country, 4) Education Level, 5) Times of visiting Beijing, and 6) Nights spent in Beijing. It is believed that this revision made to the questionnaire has increased the response rate and also caused no loss to obtaining information of research interests.

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter summarizes the procedures and results of the pilot study. Particularly, it is important to pretest any questionnaire on a

representative sample one or more times before administering it in the research. In order to ensure the provision of valid information, the results of the pilot testing serve as critical guidelines for the adjustment of the questionnaire design, wording, and measurement scales. The problems encountered during data collection are also explored and solved. Comments and feedback from respondents illuminate the research path ahead. Based on the findings of pilot test, the researcher can further refine the questionnaire before launching the main data collection on large sample size of foreign tourists in Beijing. The final questionnaire includes three constructs and 103 items, along with 7 questions for demographic information (see Appendix 6).

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the data analysis procedures and findings of the main survey. Using the instrument developed from the pilot study, the main survey collected a new set of data to test the hypotheses. Demographic information and travel characteristics of respondents are reported. Two-step modeling technique recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) is adopted in the data analysis, namely, measurement model for each construct is validated before testing the structural model. This method had the advantage of separating measurement modeling from structural modeling for ease of locating the source of poor model fit (Kline, 2005). Therefore, model testing adopts the following procedure in the present study. First, individual measurement model for each latent construct is established with both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) techniques. Then, the overall measurement model is tested with all latent constructs specified as correlated with each other. The structural model, as a hybrid of the measurement and path/structural models, is then tested. Given an acceptable measurement model fit, the simultaneous estimation of the measurement and structural models could provide evidence to the specific hypotheses postulated.

Section 6.1 summarizes the data screening procedures, including missing value exclusion, normality test, outlier exclusion, and measurement scale purification. Section 6.2 presents respondents' demographic profile and travel characteristics. Section 6.3 introduces the two-step SEM analysis procedures, the estimation method, model fit indices and diagnostic measures adopted in this study. Section 6.4 validates the measurement model of each concept. The measurement models are developed by running EFA. An overall measurement model with identified latent variables is established using CFA. Section 6.5 runs a structural model to test the hypothesized relations between latent variables. Section 6.6 is a summary of the entire chapter.

6.1 DATA SCREENING

The survey is conducted with the assistance of student helpers from Beijing local universities one week after the pilot study. During the summer, the researchers collaborated with the same group of student volunteers to conduct the questionnaire survey at the identified three sites. The questionnaires distributed are 600, among which 589 questionnaires are returned, which represent a response rate of 98.2%. Among the 589 returned questionnaires, 578 questionnaires are finished entirely. However, this is not the valid sample size for overall measurement and structural model testing. It is found that in some questionnaires, a group of items have all been doubtfully checked consecutively with the same point on the

scale. The researcher goes back to these dubious questionnaires and double checks the marking and handwriting. As a result, 34 dubious cases with too many consecutive checks have been eliminated. The remaining 544 cases are therefore subject to rigorous data screening. As a result, 497 cases are finally used as the validate dataset for the analysis.

6.1.1 Missing Value

Missing data can be the result of any systematic event external to the respondent (such as data entry errors or data collection problems) or action on the part of the respondent (such as refusal to answer) that leads to missing values. In the past decades, many methods for analyzing structural equation models with missing data have been used in the quantitative research, which differ in their assumptions about the missing data mechanism (Enders, 2006). Missing data techniques implemented mainly included two categories: deletion (listwise deletion and pairwise deletion) and imputation (mean imputation, regression imputation, hot deck imputation, and similar response pattern imputation) (Enders, 2006; Olinsky, Chen & Harlow, 2003).

For the former category, pairwise deletion is never recommended as it can substantially bias chi-square statistics, among other problems. Most researchers prefer listwise deletion where the case is dropped altogether if missing on any observed variable. This is recommended only where the

sample is fairly large and the number of cases to be dropped is small and the cases are MCAR (missing completely at random). However, this category of deletion methods has two major disadvantages: firstly, they could only be applied on the missing data that are either completely randomly distributed or randomly distributed expect for dependence on a few specified observed variables, and may lead to biased results when this assumption is violated; and secondly, in SEM study, a large sample size is crucial for complex models. If the deletion of the cases with missing data results in a serious reduction of effective sample size, utilizing a data imputation is recommended.

For the latter category, the missing values are estimated. In mean imputation, the mean of the variable is substituted. Regression imputation predicts the missing value based on other variables which are not missing. LISREL uses pattern matching imputation where the missing data is replaced by the response to that variable on a case whose values on all other variables match the given case. AMOS uses maximum likelihood imputation, which several studies show to have the least bias (Byrne, 2006). A major advance is made when expectation maximization (EM) estimation of missing data is introduced (Little & Rubin, 1987). The EM imputation algorithm (Dempster, Laird & Rubin, 1977) is a technique that finds maximum likelihood estimates in parametric models for incomplete data. It is an iterative method which alternates between performing an expectation

(E) step, which computes an expectation of the log likelihood with respect to the current estimate of the distribution for the latent variables, and a maximization (M) step, which computes the parameters which maximize the expected log likelihood found on the E step. These two steps are repeated until the iterations converge. The EM is less restrictive in missing data mechanism and also performs well under the missing at random mechanism. As it could impute missing data and result in a complete dataset that can be used as input data for SEM and other multivariate analyses (Dempster, Laird & Rubin, 1977), this study adopts the EM method to treat the missing data in existing samples of the main survey.

6.1.2 Normality Test

An important assumption of data distribution in SEM analysis is the data normality, particularly the departure from multivariate normality or a strong kurtosis (skewness) (Hair et al., 1998). Normality tests are therefore used to determine whether a data set is well-modeled by a normal distribution or not, or to compute how likely an underlying random variable is to be normally distributed. There are three indices typically used to evaluate variable distribution, namely univariate skewness, univariate kurtosis, and multivariate kurtosis (Finney & DiStefano, 2006).

TABLE 6.1 Normality of Variables in the Main Survey

Univariate Normality		
Construct / Item	Skewness	Kurtosis
<i>Cognitive Destination Image</i>		
1. Variety of wildlife	-.05	-.41
2. Climate condition	.02	-.60
3. Beauty of lakes	-.39	-.34
4. Charm of mountains	-.56	.15
5. Clearness of sky	1.01	.07
6. Overall scenic beauty	-.49	-.09
7. Availability of travel information	-.57	-.07
8. Shopping opportunities	-.71	-.39
9. Reasonableness of price	-.65	.06
10. Ability of local service (e.g., money exchanges, tourist centers) to meet tourist demand	-.55	.08
11. Accommodation (e.g., variety, quality)	-.40	-.53
12. Restaurant (e.g., variety, quality)	-.72	.27
13. Service quality of local employers	-.56	.00
14. Entertainment opportunities	-.42	-.42
15. Variety of heritage attractions	-.10	.86
16. Ease of communication with local people	.04	-.96
17. Local infrastructure (e.g., roads, foot bridges, telecommunication)	-.48	.06
18. Variety of cultural activities (e.g., festival, exhibition)	-.30	.04
19. Economic development	-.38	.05
20. Local transportation (e.g., variety, quality)	-.72	.45
21. Attraction of local crafts	-.16	-.18
22. Air quality	.79	-.21
23. Control of noise	.55	-.13
24. Overall environmental management	.28	-.47
25. Control of diseases (e.g., Swine Influenza, AIDS)	-.39	.06
26. Food safety	-.14	-.21
27. Waste and garbage disposal	-.28	-.60
28. Social harmony (e.g., small gap between the rich and the poor, few social conflicts)	-.06	-.52

29. Control of overcrowding at public areas	-.08	-.68
30. Hard-working attitude of local people	-.80	.52
31. Traffic condition	.26	-.61
32. Rights and freedom (e.g., speech freedom, no blocking of Internet info.)	.37	-.65
33. Energy conserving (e.g., electricity, oil, coal)	.05	-.11
34. Environmental awareness of local residents	.06	-.33
35. Political stability	.01	.16
36. Water quality	.27	-.38
37. Practice of using few plastic bags	-.17	-.37
38. Control of emissions (e.g., vehicle exhaust, greenhouse)	.25	-.64
39. Tourist safety	-.73	.14
40. Nature conservation	-.27	-.11
41. Obedience to social regulations (e.g., no crossing the road at red lights)	.29	-1.01
42. Honesty and trustworthiness of local people	-.44	-.36
43. Local people' willingness to help tourists	-.71	.21
44. Recycling practice	-.24	-.45
45. Ethics of fair trade (e.g., little chance of getting ripped off when shopping)	-.14	-.40
46. Friendliness and courteousness of local people	-.63	.02
47. Sanitation of public places	-.02	-.57
<i>Destination Personality</i>		
1. Domestic	-.13	.41
2. Honest	-.26	-.25
3. Genuine	-.24	-.40
4. Cheerful	-.45	.02
5. Daring	.01	-.19
6. Spirited	-.51	-.04
7. Imaginative	-.37	-.14
8. Up-to-date	-.44	-.25
9. Reliable	-.00	-.58
10. Responsible	-.08	-.42

11. Dependable	.14	.35
12. Efficient	-.29	-.15
13. Glamorous	-.03	-.41
14. Pretentious	-.07	-.18
15. Charming	-.44	-.07
16. Romantic	-.08	-.30
17. Tough	-.13	.18
18. Strong	-.24	-.15
19. Outdoorsy	-.23	.12
20. Rugged	-.12	1.43

Behavioural Intentions

1. I will encourage friends and relatives to visit Beijing	-1.19	1.48
2. I will pay higher price to visit Beijing, despite other competing destinations' price being lower	-.27	-.29
3. It is acceptable to pay more for travelling in Beijing	-.16	-.55
4. I will say positive things about Beijing to other people	-1.15	1.62
5. I will recommend Beijing to anyone who seeks my advice	-.98	.73
6. I am willing to pay more for visiting Beijing	.03	-.72

Multivariate Normality

Kurtosis Value	C.R.
146.160	36.13

The answer categories "1= Extremely poor", "4= Neutral", and "7= Extremely good" are for items in Cognitive Destination Image; "1= Not descriptive at all", "4=Neutral", and "7= Extremely descriptive" are for items in Destination Personality; and "1= Extremely unlikely", "4=Neutral", and "7= Extremely likely" are for items in Behavioural Intentions.

Although there is no generally accepted cut-off points for univariate normality, Kline (2005) suggests that absolute values of standardized skewness greater than 3 could be deemed as extremely skewed, and absolute values of standardized kurtosis greater than 8 may cause a problem. As the TABLE 6.1 presents, the majority of the variables are

negatively skewed. The skewness index of individual variables fall into the acceptable range from -1.19 to 1.01 and the absolute value of all variables are under 3. Particularly, the univariate standardized skewness statistics range from -1.00 to 1.01 for Cognitive Destination Image, from -0.51 to -0.14 for Destination Personality, and from -1.19 to 0.03 for Behavioural Intentions; while univariate standardized Kurtosis statistics reveal mainly positive kurtosis, ranging from -1.01 to 1.62 and the absolute value of all variables are under 10. Particularly, the univariate standardized Kurtosis statistics range from -1.01 to 0.86 for Cognitive Destination Image, from 0.58 to 1.43 for Destination Personality and from -0.72 to 1.62 for Behavioural Intentions. In sum, the univariate normality test is considered satisfactory in general.

The normality assumption of SEM also requires continuous data with multivariate normal distribution. Small samples or non-normally distributed variables can violate these critical assumptions. Violation of multivariate normality inflates the computed chi-square value. Recall the higher the chi-square, the more the difference of the model-estimated and actual covariance matrices, hence the worse the model fit. Inflated chi-square could lead researchers to think their models are more in need of modification than they actually are. Violation of multivariate normality also tends to deflate (underestimate) standard errors moderately to severely. These smaller-than-they-should-be standard errors mean that regression paths and factor/error covariances are found to be statistically significant

more often than they should be. Many previous SEM studies in the literature fail to concern themselves with this assumption in spite of its importance. The current study employ the SEM program to compute the Mardia's normalized estimate as a test for multivariate kurtosis, and values of greater than 5 are indicative of non-normality distributed data (Byrne, 2006). In the current study, the Mardia's coefficient (multivariate kurtosis value) is 146.16, over the cut-off value of significance 1.96, which confirms that the data are indeed non-normally distributed.

6.1.3 Outlier Exclusion

Grubbs (1969) defined an outlier as “an outlying observation, or outlier, which appears to deviate markedly from other members of the sample in which it occurs”. In larger samplings of data, some data points may be further away from the sample mean than what is deemed reasonable. This can be due to incidental systematic error or flaws in the theory that generated an assumed family of probability distributions, or it may be that some observations are far from the center of the data. Outlier points can therefore indicate faulty data, erroneous procedures, or areas where a certain theory might not be valid. However, in large samples, a small number of outliers is to be expected (and not due to any anomalous condition). Outliers should be retained unless they are absolutely aberrant and not representative of the population under study. Retaining outliers if they represent a segment of the population ensures generalizability to the

entire population (Hair et al., 1998). Hair et al. (1998) also suggests that outliers should be checked from univariate, bivariate and multivariate perspectives and the most commonly used methods for detecting the three types of outliers are standard scores, scatter plots, and the Mahalanobis D2 measure, respectively. In the current study, Mahalanobis D2 measure is adopted to identify the outliers.

Amos has the capacity to identify extreme cases by observing a listing of cases farthest away from the centroid (Mahalanobis distance) and this is automatically part of the output from any measurement or structural model testing. Mahalanobis distance is a distance measure introduced by Mahalanobis (1936). It is based on correlations between variables by which different patterns can be identified and analyzed. It is a useful way of determining similarity of an unknown sample set to a known one. It differs from Euclidean distance in that it takes into account the correlations of the data set and is scale-invariant, i.e. not dependent on the scale of measurements. Mahalanobis distance and leverage are often used to detect outliers, especially in the development of linear regression models. A point that has a greater Mahalanobis distance from the rest of the sample population of points is said to have higher leverage since it has a greater influence on the slope or coefficients of the regression equation. Mahalanobis distance is also used to determine multivariate outliers. Regression techniques can be used to determine if a specific case within a

sample population is an outlier via the combination of two or more variable scores. A point can be an multivariate outlier even if it is not a univariate outlier on any variable (Schinka, Velicer & Weiner, 2003). In the SEM output, the higher Malanobis d-squared distance for a case, the more it is improbably far from the solution centroid under assumptions of normality. The cases are listed in descending order of d-square. The cases with the highest d-squared are considered to be outliers and have been deleted from the analysis. This should be done with theoretical justification (e.g., rationale why the outlier cases need to be explained by a different model). After deletion, the data should also be found normal by Mardia's coefficient when model fit is re-run.

6.1.4 Measurement Scale Purification

As observed from the TABLE 6.2, the reliability test is conducted on 3 sub-scales to assess the scale reliability. The alpha scores for the subscales are 0.94 for Cognitive Destination Image, 0.88 for Destination Personality and 0.85 for Behavioural Intentions, which are all above the cut-off point of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). And a further look at the "Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted" identifies some redundant items with Cronbach's Alpha at 0.94 in Cognitive Destination Image. However, given the overall reliability for each subscale of Cognitive Destination Image is satisfactory, this study retains all the items for exploratory factor analysis. Similarly, two items of "Pretentious ($\alpha=0.89$)" and "Tough ($\alpha=0.89$)" are plausible to be

retained and subjected to the exploratory factor analysis rather than eliminated at this moment for gearing up the scale reliability since the overall reliability of Destination Personality reaches the expected level.

Multicollinearity occurs when the inter-correlations among some variables (either observed or latent) are so high (e.g., >0.85) that these variables are not distinct but redundant, and this results in unsolvable or unstable mathematical operations (Kline, 2005). Kline (2005) also suggested two ways to deal with multicollinearity, eliminate redundant variables or combine them into a composite variable. It could be also observed that the Item-Total Correlation coefficients of three sub-scales range from 0.28 to 0.64 for Cognitive Destination Image, from 0.21 to 0.63 for Destination Personality and from 0.58 to 0.68 for Behavioural Intentions, indicating items in the subscales are all considered to be moderately correlated.

TABLE 6.2 Item-Total Correlation and Coefficient Alpha

Items	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
<i>Cognitive Destination Image</i>	<i>0.94</i>	
1. Variety of wildlife	.35	.94
2. Climate condition	.40	.94
3. Beauty of lakes	.36	.94
4. Charm of mountains	.30	.94
5. Clearness of sky	.41	.94
6. Overall scenic beauty	.46	.94
7. Availability of travel information	.41	.94
8. Shopping opportunities	.28	.94
9. Reasonableness of price	.32	.94
10. Ability of local service (e.g., money exchanges, tourist centers) to meet tourist demand	.46	.94
11. Accommodation (e.g., variety, quality)	.43	.94
12. Restaurant (e.g., variety, quality)	.44	.94
13. Service quality of local employers	.56	.93
14. Entertainment opportunities	.41	.94
15. Variety of heritage attractions	.33	.94
16. Ease of communication with local people	.40	.94
17. Local infrastructure (e.g., roads, foot bridges, telecommunication)	.52	.94
18. Variety of cultural activities(e.g., festival, exhibition)	.44	.94
19. Economic development	.47	.94
20. Local transportation (e.g., variety, quality)	.41	.94
21. Attraction of local crafts	.50	.94
22. Air quality	.51	.94
23. Control of noise	.56	.93
24. Overall environmental management	.63	.93
25. Control of diseases (e.g., Swine Infuenza, AIDS)	.44	.94
26. Food safety	.64	.93
27. Waste and garbage disposal	.51	.94
28. Social harmony (e.g., small gap between the rich and the poor, few social conflicts)	.52	.93

29. Control of overcrowding at public areas	.49	.94
30. Hard-working attitude of local people	.42	.94
31. Traffic condition	.50	.94
32. Rights and freedom (e.g., speech freedom, no blocking of internet info.)	.44	.94
33. Energy conserving (e.g., electricity, oil, coal)	.54	.93
34. Environmental awareness of local residents	.63	.93
35. Political stability	.56	.93
36. Water quality	.55	.93
37. Practice of using few plastic bags	.49	.94
38. Control of emissions (e.g., vehicle exhaust, greenhouse)	.56	.93
39. Tourist safety	.40	.94
40. Nature conservation	.62	.93
41. Obedience to social regulations (e.g., no crossing the road at red lights)	.44	.94
42. Honesty and trustworthiness of local people	.53	.93
43. Local people' willingness to help tourists	.54	.93
44. Recycling practice	.55	.93
45. Ethics of fair trade (e.g., little chance of getting ripped off when shopping)	.53	.93
46. Friendliness and courteousness of local people	.55	.93
47. Sanitation of public places	.47	.94
<i>Destination Personality</i>	0.88	
1. Domestic	.50	.88
2. Honest	.58	.88
3. Genuine	.60	.88
4. Cheerful	.63	.88
5. Daring	.54	.89
6. Spirited	.55	.88
7. Imaginative	.59	.88
8. Up-to-date	.51	.88
9. Reliable	.62	.88
10. Responsible	.59	.88

11. Dependable	.49	.88
12. Efficient	.50	.88
13. Glamorous	.58	.88
14. Pretentious	.23	.89
15. Charming	.57	.88
16. Romantic	.51	.88
17. Tough	.21	.89
18. Strong	.37	.88
19. Outdoorsy	.42	.88
20. Rugged	.32	.88
Behavioural Intentions	0.85	
1. I will encourage friends and relatives to visit Beijing	.61	.83
2. I will pay higher price to visit Beijing, despite other competing destinations' price being lower	.68	.82
3. It is acceptable to pay more for travelling in Beijing	.58	.84
4. I will say positive things about Beijing to other people	.64	.82
5. I will recommend Beijing to anyone who seeks my advice	.67	.82
6. I am willing to pay more for visiting Beijing	.65	.82

The answer categories "1= Extremely poor", "4= Neutral", and "7= Extremely good" are for items in Cognitive Destination Image; "1= Not descriptive at all", "4=Neutral", and "7= Extremely descriptive" are for items in Destination Personality; and "1= Extremely unlikely", "4=Neutral", and "7= Extremely likely" are for items in Behavioural Intentions.

6.1.5 Descriptive Analysis of Measurement Scales

After purifying the measurement scales, it is necessary to pay attention to the mean value and standard deviation of items in the subscales of Cognitive Destination Image, Destination Personality and Behavioural. The descriptive analysis of measurement scales is of help to identify the characteristics of measurement profile and detect any unqualified items before exploratory factor analysis.

TABLE 6.3 Descriptive Analysis of Measurement Scales

Construct / Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
<i>Cognitive Destination Image</i>		
1. Variety of wildlife	3.80	1.48
2. Climate condition	3.74	1.37
3. Beauty of lakes	5.23	1.19
4. Charm of mountains	4.98	1.36
5. Clearness of sky	2.43	1.58
6. Overall scenic beauty	4.99	1.27
7. Availability of travel information	4.70	1.37
8. Shopping opportunities	5.81	1.13
9. Reasonableness of price	5.40	1.25
10. Ability of local service (e.g., money exchanges, tourist centers) to meet tourist demand	5.01	1.30
11. Accommodation (e.g., variety, quality)	5.48	1.08
12. Restaurant (e.g., variety, quality)	5.62	1.14
13. Service quality of local employers	5.22	1.27
14. Entertainment opportunities	5.43	1.15
15. Variety of heritage attractions	5.78	1.20
16. Ease of communication with local people	3.69	1.64
17. Local infrastructure (e.g., roads, foot bridges, telecommunication)	5.20	1.12
18. Variety of cultural activities(e.g., festival, exhibition)	5.21	1.14
19. Economic development	5.28	1.12
20. Local transportation (e.g., variety, quality)	5.33	1.22
21. Attraction of local crafts	5.00	1.13
22. Air quality	2.602	1.48
23. Control of noise	3.116	1.44
24. Overall environmental management	3.570	1.38
25. Control of diseases (e.g., Swine Infuenza, AIDS)	4.880	1.33
26. Food safety	4.379	1.28
27. Waste and garbage disposal	4.375	1.58
28. Social harmony (e.g., small gap between the rich and the poor, few social conflicts)	3.870	1.48

29. Control of overcrowding at public areas	3.701	1.54
30. Hard-working attitude of local people	5.427	1.22
31. Traffic condition	3.470	1.51
32. Rights and freedom (e.g., speech freedom, no blocking of internet info.)	3.027	1.56
33. Energy conserving (e.g., electricity, oil, coal)	3.723	1.37
34. Environmental awareness of local residents	3.639	1.37
35. Political stability	4.528	1.27
36. Water quality	3.481	1.48
37. Practice of using few plastic bags	4.171	1.51
38. Control of emissions (e.g., vehicle exhaust, greenhouse)	3.133	1.47
39. Tourist safety	5.505	1.14
40. Nature conservation	4.522	1.36
41. Obedience to social regulations (e.g., no crossing the road at red lights)	3.357	1.79
42. Honesty and trustworthiness of local people	4.899	1.41
43. Local people' willingness to help tourists	5.048	1.38
44. Recycling practice	4.237	1.45
45. Ethics of fair trade (e.g., little chance of getting ripped off when shopping)	3.833	1.40
46. Friendliness and courteousness of local people	5.245	1.31
47. Sanitation of public places	3.944	1.51
<i>Destination Personality</i>		
1. Domestic	4.41	1.21
2. Honest	4.68	1.29
3. Genuine	4.92	1.28
4. Cheerful	4.98	1.19
5. Daring	4.72	1.20
6. Spirited	5.15	1.24
7. Imaginative	4.89	1.34
8. Up-to-date	5.06	1.27
9. Reliable	4.88	1.15
10. Responsible	4.66	1.33

11. Dependable	4.47	1.14
12. Efficient	4.81	1.30
13. Glamorous	4.30	1.40
15. Charming	4.87	1.32
16. Romantic	4.09	1.41
18. Strong	4.90	1.19
19. Outdoorsy	4.42	1.33
20. Rugged	4.10	1.06

Behavioural Intentions

1. I will encourage friends and relatives to visit Beijing	5.76	1.29
2. I will pay higher price to visit Beijing, despite other competing destinations' price being lower	4.15	1.46
3. It is acceptable to pay more for travelling in Beijing	3.96	1.51
4. I will say positive things about Beijing to other people	5.71	1.25
5. I will recommend Beijing to anyone who seeks my advice	5.61	1.31
6. I am willing to pay more for visiting Beijing	3.80	1.66

Mean values based on a seven-point interval scale. For Cognitive Destination Image, "1= Extremely poor", "4= Neutral", and "7= Extremely good"; for Destination Personality, "1= Not descriptive at all", "4=Neutral", and "7= Extremely descriptive"; for Behavioural Intentions, "1= Extremely unlikely", "4=Neutral", and "7= Extremely likely".

As could be perceived from TABLE 6.3, the mean values of Cognitive Destination Image range from 2.43 to 5.81. Most of the items have mean value higher than four (4=Neutral), which means the overall cognitive destination image of Beijing is positively perceived by foreign tourists. Items with the high ranking of mean value (mean>5.50) include "Shopping opportunities (mean=5.81)", "Variety of heritage attractions (mean=5.78)", "Restaurant (e.g., variety, quality) (mean=5.622)", and "Tourist safety (mean=5.51)". Besides, "Accommodation (e.g., variety, quality) (mean=5.48)", "Entertainment opportunities (mean= 5.44)", "Hard-

working attitude of local people (mean= 5.43)", "Reasonableness of price (mean= 5.40)", and "Local transportation (e.g., variety, quality) (mean=5.33)" are also highly applauded by foreign tourists. It is interesting to find out that most of the highly perceived image items are related to the built environment of Beijing. On the other hand, the image items with lowest mean value mainly concentrate on natural environment items, such as "Clearness of sky (mean= 2.43)", and "Air quality (mean=2.60)". Right behind these two attributes, "Rights and freedom (e.g., speech freedom, no blocking of internet info.) (mean=3.03)" is also perceived as a low rating item, which reflects the unsatisfactory environmental problems and human rights situation in Beijing. The finding is not unexpected by the researcher. During the on-site communication with respondents in the survey, many of them already complain that after the Olympic Games visibility is still surprisingly low in Beijing due to poor air quality. They also experience difficulties when they check online for travel information at certain websites, especially on face book, due to China's internet censorship. Other lowly perceived items include "Control of noise (mean=3.12)", "Control of emissions (e.g., vehicle exhaust, greenhouse) (mean=3.13)", "Obedience to social regulations (e.g., no crossing the road at red lights) (mean=3.36)", "Traffic condition (mean=3.47)" and "Water quality (mean=3.48)". These items mainly drop in the category of socially responsible environment, indicating there are still some aspects that Beijing needs to fight for. There is a long road to go for Beijing before it is fully recognized as a socially

responsible destination. Generally speaking, items describing build environment are well acknowledged by foreign tourists as they receive above average mean scores, while items describing natural and socially responsible environments receive low ratings from foreign tourist. Foreign tourists believe the hardware standard of Beijing already satisfy their travel needs, but the deeper inside value of Beijing, such as social responsibility and green awareness, have not been recognized.

As for the Destination Personality, though personality descriptors are highly subjective, it is found that most of them have the mean value above four (4=Neutral), indicating foreign tourists hold affirmative attitude toward these personality attributes ascribed for Beijing and the application of Aaker's five-dimensional Brand Personality Scale works in Beijing's context. Particularly, items of "Up-to-date (mean=5.06)" and "Spirited (mean=5.15)" are top two items with highest mean value, which mainly describe the feeling of excitement that Beijing gave to foreign tourists. The two items than rank last are "Romantic (mean=4.09)" and "Rugged (mean=4.10)", both have mean value lower than four. It indicates that Beijing, though not that romantic, is not rugged with its sophisticated urban landscape.

In terms of the Behavioural Intention, positive perceptions are expressed to Word-of-Mouth Intentions with the mean value beyond five for

three subscales, “I will recommend Beijing to anyone who seeks my advice (mean=5.61)”, “I will say positive things about Beijing to other people (mean=5.71)”, and “I will encourage friends and relatives to visit Beijing (mean=5.76)”. While most respondents appear to be price sensitive, with two items of Willingness to Pay More reluctantly achieve the average mean value of four (4=Neutral), namely, “I am willing to pay more for visiting Beijing (mean=3.80)” and “It is acceptable to pay more for travelling in Beijing (mean=3.96). This result indicates, though Beijing is a worldwide competitive destination and most foreign tourists would like to spread the positive word-of-mouth recommendations to others, it still faces the challenge of attracting foreign tourists with their affordable budget. However, considering the demographic characteristics that most of the respondents are long-haul tourists, this study assume that the relatively expensive air tickets, to some extent, may account for this result.

6.2 SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

6.2.1 Demographic Profile

The visitor profile of 497 respondents is shown in TABLE 6.4. Respondents consist of more male tourists (51.3%) than female tourists (48.7%). The majority of the respondents are between the ages of 21-30, which accounts for 44.7% of the total respondents. The second largest group of respondents is those between 31–40 representing 20.7% of the total respondents. The age of these respondents are almost evenly

distributed among the age groups of 20 and under (10.3%), 41-50 (11.9%) and 51-60 (9.7%), with the least respondents in the group of 61 and above (2.8%). Regarding the education level, most of the respondents hold the degree of Bachelor (33.6%) and Master (30.6%). Respondents with the lowest education level High School or less (15.1%) and the highest Ph.D./doctoral (14.5%) are almost the same. Holders of Associate degree/technical certificate account for 6.2% among the total respondents. In light of all the information obtained in this section, this study could identify some major characteristics of the respondents: young and energetic people, receiving good education and would like to explore the external world.

Survey respondents are also asked to indicate where they are from. As TABLE 6.5 shows, respondents from long-haul countries accounts for large portions. U.S.A (12.9%) and U.K. (12.3%) are major tourist generating countries to Beijing, which are followed by Spain (11.9%) and France (10.9%). Generally speaking, more than half of the respondents originate from Europe (71%) and America (19.2%), which are geographically far away from Beijing. Short-haul countries of Oceania (2.4%), Asia (7.2%), and Africa (0.2%) have not reached 10% of the total respondents. It could be noted that, as gradually deepening of China's open and reform policy, Beijing is the emerging international destination

that is being more and more recognized by foreign tourists from the long-haul countries.

TABLE 6.4 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percent %
<i>Gender</i>		
Female	242	48.7
Male	255	51.3
<i>Age</i>		
20 and under	51	10.3
21 – 30	222	44.7
31 - 40	103	20.7
41 – 50	59	11.9
51 – 60	48	9.7
61 and above	14	2.8
<i>Education</i>		
High school or less	75	15.1
Associate degree/technical certificate	31	6.2
Bachelor's	167	33.6
Master's	152	30.6
Ph.D. /Doctoral	72	14.5

TABLE 6.5 Origins of Respondents

Country	Frequency	Percent %
USA	64	12.9
UK	61	12.3
Spain	59	11.9
France	54	10.9
Germany	44	8.9
Italy	26	5.2
Canada	21	4.2

Netherlands	19	3.8
Belgium	17	3.4
Poland	16	3.2
Finland	12	2.4
Australia	10	2.0
Korea	10	2.0
India	8	1.6
Pakistan	6	1.2
Portugal	6	1.2
Russia	6	1.2
Denmark	5	1.0
Switzerland	5	1.0
Venezuela	5	1.0
Czech Republic	4	0.8
Hungary	3	0.6
Japan	3	0.6
Slovenia	3	0.6
Sweden	3	0.6
Belarus	2	0.4
Brazil	2	0.4
Estonia	2	0.4
Israel	2	0.4
New Zealand	2	0.4
Norway	2	0.4
Philippines	2	0.4
Serbia	2	0.4
Singapore	2	0.4
Ukraine	2	0.4
Ethiopia	1	0.2
Iceland	1	0.2
Paraguay	1	0.2
Romania	1	0.2
Saudi Arabia	1	0.2
Thailand	1	0.2
The United Arab	1	0.2

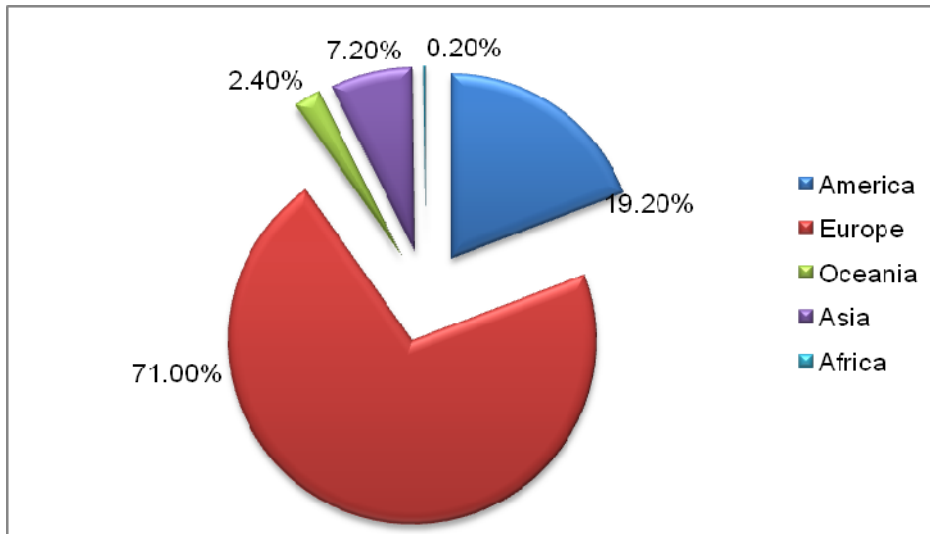


FIGURE 6.1 Continental Distribution of Respondents

6.2.2 Trip Profile

Besides the demographic information, this study also asks questions regarding tourists' trip features. Results are presented in TABLE 6.6. It could be observed that more than half of the respondents are first-time tourists and have no travel experience in Beijing (62.6%). There are 28.6% of the respondents travelling for 1-2 times and 5.4% of them travelling for 3-5 times. Respondents who have more than 5 times travelling experience in Beijing account for a small portion of 3.4%.

Regarding the length of stay, it is found that foreign tourists tend to spend around 3 nights (33.6%) to 1 week (34.8%) in Beijing. Since some of the respondents are group tourists, they may not have much liberty to decide the length of stay. Therefore, it is not surprising to find that their length of stay is within the time span of package tours to Beijing in the

current market. As the visa restraint is loosened after the Olympic Games, it could also be observed that foreign tourists could have longer length of stay than the time of Olympics. 12.1% of them could stay more than 8 nights and 16.7% of the foreign respondents even stay more than 10 nights in Beijing as to explore their interest and know more about this city.

TABLE 6.6 Travel Pattern of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent %
<i>Times to Beijing</i>		
0	311	62.6
1-2	142	28.6
3-5	27	5.4
More than 5	17	3.4
<i>Length of Stay</i>		
0	2	0.4
1-2	15	3.0
3-4	167	33.6
5-7	173	34.8
8-10	60	12.1
More than 10 nights	83	16.7

6.3 THE TWO-STEP SEM ANALYSIS

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a statistical technique for testing and estimating causal relations using a combination of statistical data and qualitative causal assumptions (Wright, 1921). It grows out of and serves purposes similar to multiple regression, but in a more powerful way which takes into account the modeling of interactions, nonlinearities,

correlated independents, measurement error, correlated error terms, multiple latent independents each measured by multiple indicators, and one or more latent dependents also each with multiple indicators (Bollen, 1989). SEM allows both exploratory and confirmatory modeling; thus it is suited to both theory testing and theory development. Modeling usually starts with a hypothesis, represents it as a model, operationalises the constructs of interest with a measurement instrument, and tests the fit of the model to the obtained measurement data. The causal assumptions embedded in the model often have falsifiable implications which can be tested against the data (Bollen & Long, 1993).

6.3.1 Two-step Procedures

This study adopts the two-step modeling techniques recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), namely, the measurement model for each construct is validated before testing the structural model. The overall measurement model is tested with all latent constructs specified as correlated with each other. Finally a hybrid of the measurement and path/structural models is tested in the structural model. Once an acceptable measurement model fit is achieved, the simultaneous estimation of the measurement and structural models could provide evidence to the specific hypotheses postulated. This method has the advantage of separating measurement modeling from structural modeling for convenience of locating the source of poor model fit (Kline, 2005). The CFA model fit

becomes a basis of comparison to assess the subsequent nested structural model fit.

It should be noted that this method is not universal practice. Similarly Mulaik and Millsap (2000) suggested a more stringent four-step approach to modeling: firstly, common factor analysis to establish the number of latent factors and secondly, confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the measurement model. As a further refinement, factor loadings can be constrained to 0 for any measured variable's cross-loadings on other latent variables, so every measured variable loads only on its latent. Schumacker and Jones (2004) note this could be a tough constraint, leading to model rejection. Thirdly, test the structural model. And fourthly, test nested models to get the most parsimonious one. Alternatively, test other research studies' findings or theory by constraining parameters as they suggest should be the case. Consider raising the alpha significant level from .05 to .01 to test for a more significant model.

6.3.2 The Estimation Method

The model's parameters are statistically estimated from data. Maximum likelihood estimation (ML or MLE) is by far the most common method used for fitting a statistical model to data, and providing estimates for the model's parameters (Pratt, 1976). ML makes estimates based on maximizing the probability (likelihood) that the observed covariances are

drawn from a population assumed to be the same as that reflected in the coefficient estimates. That is, ML picks estimates which have the greatest chance of reproducing the observed data, or picks the values of the model parameters that make the data "more likely" than any other values of the parameters would make them (Aldrich, 1997). Besides ML in Amos, some software packages support yet other estimation methods, such as weighted least squares (WLS), generalized least squares (GLS), Bayesian estimation, ordinary least squares (traditional regression (OLS), and unweighted least squares (ULS).

Key assumptions of ML are large samples (required for asymptotic unbiasedness); indicator variables with multivariate normal distribution; valid specification of the model; and continuous interval-level indicator variables ML is not robust when data are ordinal or non-normal (very skewed or kurtotic), though ordinal variables are widely used in practice if skew and kurtosis is within +/- 2.0 (Aldrich, 1997). In the current study, the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method for ordinal variable is adopted for the model estimation.

6.3.3 Model Fit Indices

Since there is no sole statistic that can be used independently to assess model fit to the data (Nadeau et al., 2007), the model fit of both measurement model and structural model is assessed with the multiple fit

indices. There are now literally hundreds of measures of fit. Recommended by Joreskog (1993), three major types of indices are adopted and reported in this study: absolute fit indices (χ^2), relative fit indices (NNFI/TLI) and noncentrality-based Indices (RMSEA and CFI). Particularly, absolute fit indices directly assess how well the specified model reproduces the observed data and do not compare the fit of a specified model with any other model; relative fit indices assess the relative fit of the specified model compared with an alternative baseline model; and the noncentrality parameter is calculated by subtracting the *df* of the model from the chi-square (χ^2-df) (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The Chi-square (χ^2) is the original fit index for the structural model because it is derived directly from the fit function [$f_{ML}(N-1)$]. Chi-square is not a very good fit index in practice under many situations because it is affected by the various factors. For instance, larger samples produce larger chi-squares that are more likely to be significant (Type I error). Small samples may be too likely to accept poor models (Type II error). Based on many researchers' experience, it is difficult to get a non-significant Chi-square when samples sizes are much over 200 or so, even when other indices suggest a decent fitting model; Moreover, model size also has an increasing effect on chi-square values. Models with more variables tend to have larger chi-squares; Chi-square is also affected by the distribution of variables. Highly skewed and kurtotic variables increase chi-square values.

This has to do with the multivariate normality assumption. Last but not least, there may be some lack of fit because of omitted variables. Omission of variables may make it difficult to reproduce the correlation (or covariance) matrix perfectly. As Chi-square is so sensitive that Jöreskog and Sörbom (1989) suggest that the model fit could be assessed by taking the ratio of the Chi-square and its degree of freedom. The acceptable ratio of approximately 3:1 is recommended (Marsh, Balla & McDonald, 1988). Some other researchers suggested that ratios of less than 5 indicate a good fit to the data (Kelloway, 1998).

According to Hu et al. (1999), NNFI (Tucker Lewis Index or Non-normed Fit Index, named as Tucker Lewis Index in Amos) compares the lack of fit of a target model to the lack of fit of a baseline model, usually the independence model. The NNFI value estimates the relative improvement per degree of freedom of the target model over a baseline model. NNFI values higher than 0.90 indicating a good fit. However, because the NNFI is not normed, it may result in a value outside of the 0 to 1 range (Kelloway, 1998).

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is based on the non-centrality parameter. It shows how well the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter values, would fit the population covariance matrix if it were available (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Its formula

can be shown to equal $\sqrt{[(\chi^2/df - 1)/(N - 1)]}$ where N is the sample size and *df* means the degrees of freedom of the model. If χ^2 is less than *df*, then RMSEA is set to zero. Good models have an RMSEA of .05 or less (Kline, 2005). Models whose RMSEA is 0.10 or more have poor fit (Rigdon, 1998).

The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) equals $[d(\text{Null Model}) - d(\text{Proposed Model})]/d(\text{Null Model})$. The CFI value varies between 0 and 1, with values exceeding 0.90 indicating a good fit to the data. If the CFI is less than one, then the CFI is always greater than the TLI. CFI pays a penalty of one for every parameter estimated. The CFI depends on the average size of the correlations in the data. If the average correlation between variables is not high, then the CFI tends not to be very high.

Nowadays, a relatively modern approach to model fit is to accept that models are only approximations, and too perfect fit may be too much to ask for. However, for a relatively complicated model with over 30 observed variables and a sample size of over 250, indices and the respective cut-off values should at least include a significant *p*-value for Chi-square, CFI above 0.90, TLI above 0.9 and RMSEA below 0.8 (Hair et al., 2006).

6.3.4 Diagnostic Measures

If the researcher observes some indication of misfit, diagnostic measures for model fitting, including standardized residuals, modification

indices, and parameter estimates, are worth the careful inspection. Firstly, examination of the residual covariance matrices is the most useful tool for diagnosing the sources of misspecification in multiple-indicator measurement model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Secondly, it has become common practice to modify the model, by deleting parameters that are not significant and adding parameters that improve the fit. To assist in this process, modification indices for each fixed parameter are worth a look. The modification indices estimate the change in Chi-square that results from freeing parameters that are previously fixed or constrained to the value of zero (Kline, 2005). They are assessed to identify which fixed parameters, if freely estimated, would lead to a significant drop in Chi-square and therefore a better-fitting model. Thirdly, the parameters estimates are assessed in terms of their magnitude and significance. Non-significant parameters and low loading values (less than 0.5) are suggested to be eliminated from the model (Byrne, 2006).

6.4 MEASUREMENT MODEL ANALYSIS

The measurement model describes the nature of the relation between latent variables and the observed variables that measured those latent variables. As Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggest, this study assesses the measurement model before testing the overall structural model. The data is subjected to a two-stage factor analysis on different data sets as to establish and confirm the factorial dimensionality. Moreover,

the internal consistency reliability is tested. An assessment of construct convergent validity and discriminant validity is also conducted, which work together to support the construct validity.

Exploratory factor analysis is performed prior to further analysis. According to the theoretical framework, there are three constructs in the study. For Cognitive Destination Image (CDI), the study follows the rigorous scale development procedures to establish the most applicable measurements based on conceptualization, generation of item pool from previous studies, word association test and in-depth interviews, Delphi expert panel validation and pilot assessment. For the purpose of establishing and confirming the dimensionality of the constructs of CDI, both EFA and CFA are applied on the subscales of CDI. Similarly, Destination Personality is measured using Aaker's (1997) five dimensional brand personality scale (BPS) and subjected to both EFA and CFA. This step is necessary since destination personality shows multiple dimensions (e.g., Ekinici & Hosany ,2006; Hosany et al., 2007; Johansson, 2007; Murphy et al., 2007; Vaidya et al., 2009) For Behavioural Intentions which has been firmly validated by studies since Zeithaml et al. (1996), it is appropriate to just use CFA to confirm its factor structures in this study.

Construct reliability, by convention, is an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable (Hair et al.,

1998). It could be revealed by the squared multiple correlations (SMC) of observed variables and the composite reliability (CR) of each latent variable. The R^2 for structural equations indicates the proportion of variance in an observed variable that is explained by its underlying latent variable (Diamantopoulos et al., 2000). It is not automatically computed by Amos but can be calculated manually by using the given information on the standardized loading and error variance by Amos output. The construct reliability is usually calculated by the formula devised by Fornell and Larcker (1981). CR values for each latent factor is similar to Cronbach's coefficients, measuring the internal consistency of the indicators for a given factor (Hatcher, 1994). Therefore, this study adopts Cronbach's reliability values as the criterion for internal consistency of each variable.

Convergent validity assesses the degree to which dimensional measures of the same concept are correlated. High correlations indicate that the scale instrument is measuring its intended construct. Thus, items of the scale instrument should load strongly on their common construct (Byrne, 1994). The convergent validity of the research instrument can be assessed by three measures: item reliability, construct reliability and average variance extracted (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Item reliability indicates the amount of variance in an item due to the underlying construct rather than to error and can be obtained by squaring the factor loading. Either an item reliability of at least .50, a significant t value, or both, observed for each

item is considered to be evidence of convergent validity. Construct reliability can be calculated as follows: $(\text{square of summation of factor loadings}) / (\text{square of summation of factor loadings} + \text{summation of error variances})$ (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Nunnally (1978) suggested a minimum of .80 for evidence of convergent validity. Finally, the "average variance extracted (AVE)" measures the amount of variance that is captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error and can be calculated using the following formula: $(\text{summation of squared factor loadings}) / (\text{summation of squared factor loadings} + \text{summation of error variances})$ (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). If the average variance extracted is less than .50, then the variance due to measurement error is greater than the variance due to the construct. In this case, the convergent validity of the construct is questionable. Discriminant validity is the degree to which conceptually similar concepts are distinct. Discriminant validity can be assessed by fixing the correlation between various constructs at 1.0, then reestimating the modified model (Segars & Grover, 1993). Significant difference of the chi-square statistics between the constrained and unconstrained models suggests high discriminant validity. Alternatively, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that discriminant validity can also be evaluated by comparing the squared correlation between two constructs with their respective average variance extracted.

Discriminant validity is demonstrated if the average extracted variances of both constructs are greater than the squared correlation (Byrne, 1994). Higher variance-extracted estimates compared with squared correlation estimates suggest good discriminant validity, meaning that the relation between a construct and its indicators is stronger than the relation between the construct and other constructs. Therefore, suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), the average variance extracted (AVE) is the key indicator in this study to assess both convergent validity and discriminant validity. In this way, the construct validity using convergent and discriminant validity is checked before the measurement model is evaluated and finalized.

Apparently AVE is important in determining both convergent and discriminant validity. However, experience shows that it may be lower than the conventional threshold in many cases (e.g., Byrne, 1994; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 1998). In regard of the low AVE value, Ping (2009) suggests it could be geared up either by dropping cases, or by dropping the item with the largest measurement error variance. Dropping an item will improve AVE, frequently by more than deleting cases will. However, the procedure for this should be very cautious, because the resulting set of higher AVE items can be less content or face valid than before items were dropped (e.g., the resulting set of items may match its conceptual and/or operational definitions less well). The results also may

be less internally consistent (e.g., the single construct measurement model of the resulting items may fit the data less well). Given limited items of each latent variable in this study, it is not a wise way to sacrifice the internal reliability and the explanation power of the item to simply serve the impressive AVE value (Bagozzi, 1978). Moreover, for latent variables with relatively low AVE, to say the least, if AVE of the resulting measure is within a few points of "acceptable" (0.50), this may not always be "fatal" to publishing a model test (Segars & Grover, 1993). Experience from previous studies (e.g., Byrne, 1994; Diamantopoulos et al., 2000; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 1998; Ping, 2009) suggests that not AVE is not accepted as the measure of convergent validity, some researchers prefer reliability. Thus, if a latent variable is reliable, that may be a sufficient demonstration of convergent validity for some reviewers. In addition, the logic for possibly ignoring low AVE might be that many "interesting" theoretical model-testing studies involve a "first-time" model, and an initial model test, that together should be viewed as largely "exploratory." This "first test" usually uses new measures in a new model tested for the first time, etc., and insisting that the new measures be "perfect" may be inappropriate because new knowledge would go unpublished until a "perfect" study is attained. AVE adherents of course might reply that concluding anything from measures that are more than 50% error is ill advised, because there are so few replication studies.

6.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Cognitive Destination Image

The study proposes four major dimensions of research interest to evaluate the Cognitive Destination Image, namely Natural Environment (NE), Built Environment (BE), Socially Responsible Environment (SRE) and Local People (LP). For each proposed dimensions, there are multiple items/indicators derived from previous literatures to explain the comprehensive and rich meaning of each dimension, specifically, NE includes 6 items, BE includes 15 items, SRE includes 26 items, and in all CDI includes 47 items. It is therefore quite necessary to identify the most indicative items to represent these constructs. In order to reduce redundant information, extract the most meaningful information, establish the factorial dimensionality, and confirm the validity of the factorial dimensionality, EFA is used to explore the underlying factor structure of the CDI, which is then confirmed in CFA.

EFA is conducted on 47 items of CDI. Principle component analysis with varimax rotation is used to extract factors. As there are many variables in CDI, to obtain a clearer structure, relatively strict criteria are used for item retention. Variables are deleted one at a time if their factor loadings are less than 0.50. Finally a four-factor solution emerges on the basis of the following criteria suggested by previous studies which employ EFA to analyze large amount of items (e.g., Aaker, 1997; Chu, 2008; Jang & Feng, 2007): 1) All the eigenvalues greater than one; 2) A significant dip in the

Scree Plot followed the fourth factors; 3) The first four factors are the most meaningful, rich and interpretable; and 4) The four-factor solution is the most stable and robust. After deleting items which have multiple loadings greater than 0.40 on two or more factors, the easily interpretable four-factor solution has clear loadings for each of the items. Ranging from 0.62 to 0.83, the factor loadings are reasonably robust to support the construct validity of the scales (Churchill, 1979). All the factors had relatively high reliability coefficients ranging from 0.65 to 0.82. The measurement of sampling adequacy is 0.83, a value higher than 0.50 indicates that the analysis is appropriate (Hair et. al, 1998). Bartlett's test of sphericity is used to test the overall significance of all correlation within a correlation matrix. The value of the test is 2162.57 and is statistically significant. Furthermore, the variance explained in each of the factors is relatively high and four factors in all account for 62.71% of the total variance. The EFA results of Cognitive Destination Image are shown in TABLE 6.7.

The first factor has four items, "Rights and freedom (e.g., speech freedom, no blocking of internet info.)", "Energy conserving (e.g., electricity, oil, coal)", "Environmental awareness of local residents" and "Control of emissions (e.g., vehicle exhaust, greenhouse)". This factor is named "Socially Responsible Environment" (SRE), which explains 18.74% of the total variance. The reliability coefficient is 0.82.

Four items are included in the second factor. They are “Local infrastructure (e.g., roads, foot bridges, telecommunication)”, “Variety of cultural activities (e.g., festival, exhibition)”, “Economic development”, and “Local transportation (e.g., variety, quality)”. Factor 2 is named “Built Environment” (BE). Its reliability coefficient is 0.73. Factor 2 accounts for 16.13% of the total variance.

Factor 3 has three items and it accounts for 15.15% of the total variance. These items are: “Honesty and trustworthiness of local people”, “Local people’ willingness to help tourists” and “Friendliness and courteousness of local people”. This factor is named “Local People” (LP) . The reliability coefficient is 0.79.

The last factor contains three items. These items are “Beauty of lakes”, “Charm of mountains”, and “Overall scenic beauty”. This factor is therefore labeled “Natural Environment”(NE), which explains 12.69% of the total variance and has a reliability coefficient 0.65, reaching the expected cut-off point of reliability test.

TABLE 6.7 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Cognitive Destination Image

		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
<i>Socially Responsible Environment</i>					
SRE1	Rights and freedom	0.80			
SRE2	Energy conserving	0.83			
SRE3	Environmental awareness of local residents	0.78			
SRE4	Control of emissions	0.74			
<i>Built Environment</i>					
BE1	Local infrastructure		0.69		
BE2	Variety of cultural activities		0.64		
BE3	Economic development		0.72		
BE4	Local transportation		0.77		
<i>Local People</i>					
LP1	Honesty and trustworthiness			0.79	
LP2	willingness to help tourists			0.80	
LP3	Friendliness and courteousness			0.79	
<i>Natural Environment</i>					
NE1	Beauty of lakes				0.62
NE2	Charm of mountains				0.82
NE3	Overall scenic beauty				0.75
Eigenvalue		2.62	2.26	2.12	1.78
% Variance		18.74	16.13	15.15	12.69
Cumulative % Variance		18.74	34.87	50.02	62.71
Cronbach Alpha		0.82	0.73	0.79	0.65

KMO 0.829

Bartlett's test: Chi-square = 2162.57, df=91, Sig.000

6.4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Destination Personality

This study is fully aware of the sensitive generalization of Aaker's brand personality scales. However, given its factor analytical method (Sweeney & Brandon, 2006) and generalizability have been questioned

and criticized (see Austin, Siguaw & Mattila, 2003; Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003), this study only uses the most relatively stable, reliable, and comprehensive measures to gauge brand personality in the destination context (Aaker, 1997). An exploratory factor analysis is done on 20 items of destination personality using principal component extraction with varimax rotation. Due to the moderate item amount, the criterion for the significance of factor loadings is set at the commonly acknowledged cut-off point of 0.4. Only factors with eigenvalue greater than 1 are retained. During the exploratory factor analysis, items cross-loading on two or more factors are deleted one by one until a clean and rigid factor structure emerges. As a result, several items are dropped from the theoretical constructs due to poor empirical support.

A four factor solution is finally retained for two reasons: first, the four factors explain most of the variance in the analysis; and second, four factors display sufficient reliability (alpha coefficient values is very close to or above 0.7) following the suggestion of Hosany et al. (2007) for factor retainment. Therefore, 13 items are retained, and these are grouped into four factors, explaining 61.99% of the total variance. TABLE 6.8 presents the findings of factor analysis for the Destination Personality. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO=0.82) and Barlett's test (Chi-square=1762.35, $df=78$) significant at the 0.00 level support the appropriateness of factor analysis to the data. The factor loadings are reasonably robust to support the construct

validity of the scales (Churchill, 1979). The four factors are respectively named “Competence”, “Excitement”, “Sophistication” and “Ruggedness” in accordance with their respective item. All the factors have acceptable reliability coefficients ranging from 0.58 to 0.78.

TABLE 6.8 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Destination Personality

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Competence				
C1 Reliable	0.76			
C2 Responsible	0.85			
C3 Dependable	0.65			
C4 Efficient	0.75			
Excitement				
E1 Daring		0.73		
E2 Spirited		0.78		
E3 Imaginative		0.76		
Sophistication				
S1 Glamorous			0.72	
S2 Charming			0.70	
S3 Romantic			0.83	
Ruggedness				
R1 Strong				0.54
R2 Outdoorsy				0.85
R3 Rugged				0.70
Eigenvalue	2.44	2.06	1.95	1.61
% Variance	18.80	15.86	14.98	12.36
Cumulative % Variance	18.80	34.65	49.63	61.99
Cronbach Alpha	0.78	0.75	0.71	0.58

KMO 0.82

Bartlett's test: Chi-square =1762.35, df=78, Sig .000

6.4.3 Overall Measurement Model

According to the EFA findings, Cronbach's alpha for Cognitive Destination Image and Destination Personality is well accepted during the analysis: Natural Environment ($\alpha=0.65$), Socially Responsible Environment ($\alpha=0.82$), Built Environment ($\alpha=0.73$), Local People ($\alpha=0.79$), Competence ($\alpha=0.78$), Excitement ($\alpha=0.75$), Sophistication ($\alpha=0.71$) and Ruggedness ($\alpha=0.58$), suggesting a satisfactory level of internal consistency for each construct. In spite of the conventional cut-off point 0.7 for Cronbach's alpha recommended by many statistic studies (e.g., Nunnally, 1978), the fact is that the reliability value will generally increase as the inter-correlation among test items increases. Field (2005) also lends support to this assertion that the value of reliability depends on the number of items in a scale. Because intercorrelations among test items are maximized when all items measure the same construct, reliability indirectly indicates the degree to which a set of items measures a single unidimensional latent construct. Therefore, reliability value for each construct is most appropriately used in the occasion that items measure different substantive areas within a single construct (Hair et al., 1998). That is to say, when a test has a multidimensional latent structure, reliability value and other internal consistency estimates of reliability will frequently be low. Thus, reliability value tends to be low for estimating the reliability of an intentionally heterogeneous instrument (Allen & Yen, 2002). There is a range of acceptability for the reliability statistic with 0.6 at the lower bound indicating

an ideal fit and 0.1 at the upper bound (Allen & Yen, 2002). Using the lower bound for this study is reasonable given the model's complexity and the reliability tends not to favor heterogeneous model where multiaspect information are embedded in the latent scales. Considering the positive relation between the reliability value and the number of items in scales, a close to 0.6-level reliability value should be well accepted since latent factors generally consist of few items. Therefore, the obtained construct reliability values are very satisfactory for this exploratory research.

Immediately after the EFA, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested a two-step technique where a measurement model including all constructs under study is then tested using CFA prior to the structural model. There are in all 10 constructs to be included in the overall measurement model, namely Natural Environment, Built Environment, Socially Responsible Environment, Local people, Competence, Sophistication, Excitement, Ruggedness, Word-of-Mouth Intentions, and Willingness to Pay More. The overall measurement model represents a baseline to assess the fit of the structural model, which is developed to explain relations between the constructs more simply and precisely than an overall measurement model (Hair et al., 2006). The overall measurement model based on a sample size of 497 reveals a robust goodness of fit to the data (χ^2 (824.0) =450, RMSEA=0.041, TLI=0.930, CFI=0.940). As could be perceived from the TABLE 6.9, all the standardized loadings of observed variables are

significant at 0.05 levels with *t*-value greater than 7. Standardized factor loadings range from 0.40 to 0.88, which are empirically acceptable. The finding indicates that the observed variables are reasonably successful as measures for the latent variables in the overall measurement model.

TABLE 6.9 Overall Measurement Model

	Latent and Observed Variables	Std. Factor Loading	<i>t</i>-Value
CDI1	Cognitive Destination Image Factor 1: Natural Environment		
NE2	Beauty of lakes	0.56	9.74
NE3	Charm of mountains	0.51	9.06
NE4	Overall scenic beauty	0.79	N/A
CDI2	Cognitive Destination Image Factor 2: Built Environment		
BE3	Local infrastructure	0.66	10.91
BE4	Variety of cultural activities	0.64	10.67
BE5	Economic development	0.63	10.58
BE6	Local transportation	0.62	N/A
CDI3	Cognitive Destination Image Factor 3: Socially Responsible Environment		
SRE1	Rights and freedom	0.66	11.86
SRE2	Energy conserving	0.82	13.78
SRE3	Environmental awareness of local residents	0.84	13.86
SRE4	Control of emissions	0.62	N/A
CDI4	Cognitive Destination Image Factor 4: Local People		
LP2	Honesty and trustworthiness of local people	0.70	15.03
LP3	Local people' willingness to help tourists	0.74	15.78
LP4	Friendliness and courteousness of local people	0.80	N/A
DP1	Destination Personality Factor 1: Competence		
C1	Reliable	0.76	N/A

C2	Responsible	0.81	16.68
C3	Dependable	0.55	11.37
C4	Efficient	0.64	13.32
DP2	Destination Personality Factor 2: Excitement		
E1	Daring	0.62	N/A
E2	Spirited	0.74	12.12
E3	Imaginative	0.75	12.17
DP3	Destination Personality Factor 3: Sophistication		
S1	Glamorous	0.61	N/A
S2	Charming	0.71	11.16
S3	Romantic	0.70	11.09
DP4	Destination Personality Factor 3: Ruggedness		
R2	Strong	0.40	6.61
R3	Outdoorsy	0.76	8.06
R4	Rugged	0.57	N/A
BI1	Behavioural Intentions Factor 1: Word-of-Mouth Intentions		
WOM1	I will encourage friends and relatives to visit Beijing	0.81	N/A
WOM2	I will say positive things about Beijing to other people	0.86	21.36
WOM3	I will recommend Beijing to anyone who seeks my advice	0.88	21.87
BI2	Behavioural Intentions Factor 2: Willingness to Pay More		
WPM1	I will pay higher price to visit Beijing, despite other competing destinations' price being lower	0.70	N/A
WPM2	It is acceptable to pay more for travelling in Beijing	0.82	15.99
WPM3	I am willing to pay more for visiting Beijing	0.88	16.37

Fit Statistics

$\chi^2=824.0$ ($df=450$, $p<0.000$.)

RMSEA =0.041, TLI=0.930, CFI=0.940

Parameter fixed at 1.0 for the maximum-likelihood estimation. Thus, t -values are not obtained for those fixed to 1 for identification purpose. All factor loadings are significant at $p<0.000$.

TABLE 6.10 Reliability and Validity of the Overall Measurement Model

	NE	BE	SRE	LP	E	C	S	R	WOM	WPM
NE	1									
BE	.31(.10)	1								
SRE	.26(.07)	.25(.06)	1							
LP	.30(.09)	.47(.22)	.34(.11)	1						
E	.34 (.11)	.45(.20)	.26(.07)	.41(.17)	1					
C	.29(.09)	.48(.23)	.43(.18)	.56(.31)	.39(.15)	1				
S	.36(.13)	.27(.07)	.33(.11)	.31(.10)	.45(.20)	.37(.14)	1			
R	.26(.07)	.15(.02)	.16(.03)	.19(.04)	.34(.12)	.20(.04)	.34(.12)	1		
WOM	.37(.14)	.32(.10)	.21(.04)	.51(.26)	.42(.18)	.41(.17)	.41(.17)	.22(.05)	1	
WPM	.13(.02)	.18(.03)	.29(.08)	.31(.10)	.30(.09)	.36(.13)	.30(.09)	.20(.04)	.45(.20)	1
AVE	0.40	0.41	0.55	0.56	0.50	0.48	0.46	0.36	0.72	0.64
Reliability	0.65	0.73	0.82	0.79	0.78	0.75	0.71	0.58	0.88	0.84
Mean	5.06	5.26	3.32	5.00	4.92	4.64	4.40	4.46	5.68	3.92
Std. Dev.	0.96	0.84	1.15	1.17	1.02	0.98	1.08	0.89	1.12	1.30

a. The figure in the parentheses denoted squared correlation estimations with robust *t*-value.

b. NE (Natural Environment), BE (Built Environment), SRE (Socially Responsible Environment), LP (Local People), C (Competence), E (Excitement), S (Sophistication), R (Ruggedness), WOM (Word-of-Mouth Intentions) and WPM (Willingness to Pay More)

c. All factors are significant at 0.01.

Convergent validity is, on one hand, gauged from the measurement model by determining if estimated maximum likelihood loading of each item is significantly loading on the underlying dimension (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). As could be observed in TABLE 6.9, all the standardized loadings of observed variables ranged from 0.40 to 0.88, positive and significant at 0.05 levels with *t*-value greater than 7. The finding indicates that the observed variables are reliable indicators in measuring the corresponding latent variables (Anderson and Gerbing, 1982). On the other hand, convergent validity could be address as the extent of the construct to explain more variance of its measurement indicators than does the error

item (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value is advised to be greater than .50 (Dillon & Goldstein., 1984), the value, however, often stays below .50 due to the conservative nature of AVE test (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) in terms of sample size and model complicity. Therefore, instead of engaging in modeling gymnastics to “push up” the AVE value for certain latent variables, with extreme care this study reports a transparent and workable convergent validity that is quite reasonably adequate for further analysis based on the statistical justification for the overall measurement model.

Discriminant validity is reflected by comparing the AVE values and the squared correlation estimates between pairs of constructs (Hair et al., 1998). According to TABLE 6.10, it is found that all AVE estimates are all beyond their corresponding inter-factor squared correlations. Therefore, the discriminant validity of all latent variables under study is well identified. Furthermore, composite reliability estimates of the constructs range from a low of 0.58 (Ruggedness) to a high of 0.88 (Word of Mouth Intentions). Although the conventional cut-off point 0.7 of composite reliability is recommended by Nunnally (1978), reliability value tends not to favor heterogeneous model where multiaspect information are tapped in the latent scales (Allen & Yen, 2002), and such is the case with the present study. Therefore, composite reliability estimates are reasonably acceptable in this study.

In terms of the general rating of variables, socially responsible environment with a mean value of 3.32 receives lowest rating from respondents, sharply distinct from those of other three cognitive destination image constructs. The past decades have witnessed Beijing's urbanization with a sole emphasis on economic growth, sacrificing the environment well-being. In spite of the motto of "Green Olympics", it would be overoptimistic for us to believe a prestigious event like Olympic Games could ultimately change the status quo and drive the destination into a fully recognized green one that is in reality worthy of the name. The mean values of destination personality variables average out to be around 4.6 across four dimensions, indicating even and stable descriptive power of four destination personality dimensions. Respondents' rating on word-of-mouth intentions outweighs that of willingness to pay more. Indeed, rather than paying more money for the destination, tourists might tend to have greater commitment to pass around the economical word-of-mouth as favorable emotional outlet for the destination they like. This might be also attributed to the fact that Beijing is becoming the world's expensive city as the Renminbi strengthens against other currencies and the overall soar of living cost compared to other major cities around the globe.

6.5 OVERALL STRUCTURAL MODEL ANALYSIS

6.5.1 Profile of the Overall Structural Model

Based on the acceptable fit for the overall measurement model, the study tests the conceptual research hypotheses proposed in previous sections by running the structural equation modeling (SEM). According to the research hypotheses established, two causal relations are tested in the structural model: 1) from Cognitive Destination Image (four dimensions) to Destination Personality (four dimensions) and 2) from Destination Personality (four dimensions) to Behavioural Intentions (two dimensions). In the first causal path, four CDI latent variables of Natural Environment, Built Environment, Socially Responsible Environment and Local People are exogenous variables which are specified to correlate with each other. Four DP latent variables of Competence, Sophistication, Excitement, and Ruggedness serve as endogenous variables. In the second causal path, these four DP latent variables are exogenous variables, and two BI latent variables of Word-of-Mouth Intentions and Willingness to Pay More are endogenous variables. In summary, this model includes eight exogenous variables and six endogenous variables. As some variables have the overlapping roles as both exogenous and endogenous variables, in all there are ten latent variables included in the model.

The structural model reveals a chi-square value per degree of difference 2.09 ($\chi^2=971.0/df=465$). The χ^2 statistic is significant as would be expected for a model of this complexity with the sample size. The overall evaluation of fit is completed using a separate incremental goodness of fit

index and a separate badness of fit index (Hair et al., 2006): RMSEA (0.047) is under the criterion of 0.06 for satisfactory model fit and CFI (0.919) and TLI (0.908) are over 0.90, indicating that the model fits the data well. Although generally model fit indices are sensitive to the sample size and model complexity (Hair et al., 1998), the overall model fit in this study is quite reasonably adequate for further analysis based on the statistical justification. Starting from here, the casual relationships could therefore be examined within the fully accepted model.

6.5.2 Path Analysis of the Overall Structural Model

Given the satisfactory overall model fit, the path coefficients are subsequently examined. The exogenous variables might exert their effects either directly or indirect on the endogenous variables (Diamantopoulos et al., 2000). However, staying focused on the research objectives and hypotheses, this study only examines direct effects exerted by exogenous variables on endogenous variables. For an easy grasp of the results of the overall structural model, TABLE 6.11 shows the standardized coefficients for the direct effects of exogenous variable on the endogenous variables. With *t*-value larger than 1.96, 15 out of 24 paths are significant at $p < 0.05$ level or better.

The sign and magnitude of the estimated parameter provide information regarding the direction and strength of the hypothesized

relationship. Both magnitude and sign of path parameters between the latent variables determine whether the hypothesized relation is supported by the data or not. According to Cohen (1988), path coefficients with absolute values less than 0.10 may indicated a small effect, values around 0.30 a medium effect, and values equaling to or greater than 0.50 a large effect. Besides the magnitude of the parameters, a close observation on signs reveals that all the significant paths are positively linked between exogenous variables and endogenous variables (Diamantopoulos et al., 2000). Therefore, the results of structural equation modeling indicate that 15 hypothesized relations are supported given their significant magnitude and positive signs.

TABLE 6.11 Path Analysis of the Overall Structural Model

Exogenous Variables	Path To	Endogenous Variables		Standardized Coefficient	t-value
NE	---->	Excitement	γ_{11}	0.37	5.03***
	---->	Competence	γ_{12}	0.03	0.57
	---->	Sophistication	γ_{13}	0.55	6.10***
	---->	Ruggedness	γ_{14}	0.50	4.95***
BE	---->	Excitement	γ_{21}	0.24	3.00***
	---->	Competence	γ_{22}	0.25	3.58***
	---->	Sophistication	γ_{23}	-0.11	-1.24
	---->	Ruggedness	γ_{24}	-0.14	-1.52
SRE	---->	Excitement	γ_{31}	0.00	-0.02
	---->	Competence	γ_{32}	0.26	5.13***
	---->	Sophistication	γ_{33}	0.14	2.29**
	---->	Ruggedness	γ_{34}	0.04	0.64
LP	---->	Excitement	γ_{41}	0.26	3.41***

	---->	Competence	γ_{42}	0.43	6.21***
	---->	Sophistication	γ_{43}	0.25	3.02***
	---->	Ruggedness	γ_{44}	0.14	1.58
Excitement	---->	WOM	γ_{51}	0.25	4.09***
	---->	WPM	γ_{52}	0.10	1.50
Competence	---->	WOM	γ_{61}	0.25	4.39***
	---->	WPM	γ_{62}	0.29	4.63***
Sophistication	---->	WOM	γ_{71}	0.31	4.83***
	---->	WPM	γ_{72}	0.18	2.69***
Ruggedness	---->	WOM	γ_{81}	0.02	0.42
	---->	WPM	γ_{82}	0.04	0.60

Fit Statistics

$\chi^2=971$ ($df=465$, $p<0.000$.)

RMSEA =0.047

TLI=0.908

CFI=0.919

SMC (R^2)

Excitement 0.51

Sophistication 0.50

Competence 0.61

Ruggedness 0.27

WOM 0.43

WPM 0.23

*** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.10$.

The first group of casual relations is between dimensions of Cognitive Destination Image and those of Destination Personality. Except for Competence, Natural Environment significantly impacts three Destination Personality dimensions: Excitement ($\gamma_{11}=0.37$, t -value=5.03, $p<0.01$), Sophistication ($\gamma_{13}=0.55$, t -value=6.10, $p<0.01$), and Ruggedness

($\gamma_{14}=0.50$, $t\text{-value}=4.95$, $p<0.01$). Sophistication tipping at the path coefficient of 0.55 is most strongly related to Natural Environment, followed by Ruggedness at 0.50 and Excitement at 0.37. Built Environment have two significant paths with Excitement ($\gamma_{21}=0.24$, $t\text{-value}=3.00$, $p<0.01$) and Competence ($\gamma_{22}=0.25$, $t\text{-value}=3.58$, $p<0.01$), sharing the similar path strength with these two dimensions. There are two significant paths between Socially Responsible Environment and Destination Personality: Competence ($\gamma_{32}=0.26$, $t\text{-value}=5.13$, $p<0.01$) and Sophistication ($\gamma_{33}=0.14$, $t\text{-value}=2.29$, $p<0.05$), where Socially Responsible Environment is more strongly linked to the former. Three paths from Local People to Destination Personality have been identified as significant. Path coefficients equal or above 0.25 are found between Local People and Excitement ($\gamma_{41}=0.26$, $t\text{-value}=3.41$, $p<0.01$), Competence ($\gamma_{42}=0.43$, $t\text{-value}=6.21$, $p<0.01$), and Sophistication ($\gamma_{43}=0.25$, $t\text{-value}=3.02$, $p<0.01$). The results indicate that partial hypotheses with moderate magnitude between Cognitive Destination Image and Destination Personality are supported.

The second group of casual relations is between dimensions of Destination Personality and those of Behavioural Intentions. First of all, Ruggedness is excluded from the discussion since it is found to have no impact on any endogenous variables of the Behavioural Intentions. Suggesting a positive causal impact, Excitement is only significantly and moderately related to Word-of-Mouth intention ($\gamma_{51}=0.25$, $t\text{-value}=4.09$,

$p < 0.01$). Competence exerts direct and positive impact on all Behavioural Intentions dimensions of Word-of-Mouth Intentions ($\gamma_{61} = 0.25$, $t\text{-value} = 4.39$, $p < 0.01$) and Willingness to Pay More ($\gamma_{62} = 0.29$, $t\text{-value} = 4.63$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, Sophistication is positively and significantly related to both Behavioural Intention dimensions: Word-of-Mouth Intentions ($\gamma_{71} = 0.31$, $t\text{-value} = 4.83$, $p < 0.01$) and Willingness to Pay More ($\gamma_{72} = 0.18$, $t\text{-value} = 2.69$, $p < 0.01$). Obviously, Competence and Sophistication largely dominate the effect of Destination Personality on Behavioural Intentions.

TABLE 6.11 also shows the squared multiple correlations (R^2) values associated with the endogenous variables. As the indicator of the amount of variance in each endogenous latent variable accounted for by the exogenous latent variables, the higher the R^2 value, the greater the joint explanatory power of the hypothesized antecedents. According to Cohen (1988), the R^2 value of 0.01, 0.09 and 0.25 respectively indicates low, moderate and strong explanatory power as a guideline in behavior science. In this study, values of squared multiple correlations (R^2) range from 0.23 to 0.60, meaning that 23% to 61% of the variance in endogenous variables is explained. Specifically, in the first group of casual relations, over half of the variance ($R^2 = 0.61$) in Competence is explained by the direct effects of Built Environment, Socially Responsible Environment and Local People. For Excitement ($R^2 = 0.51$), the variance is explained by the direct effects of Natural Environment, Built Environment and Local People.

For Sophistication ($R^2=0.50$), three variables of Cognitive Destination Image explain its variance: Natural Environment, Socially Responsible Environment and Local People. However, the variance for Ruggedness ($R^2=0.27$) explained by Natural Environment is not enough to be high. In the second group of casual relations, for Word-of-Mouth Intentions, 43% of the variance is explained by Destination Personality dimensions of Excitement, Sophistication and Competence, while 23% variance of Willingness to Pay More is explained by Destination Personality dimensions of Competence and Sophistication. In conclusion, the R^2 values for six endogenous variables in two groups of casual relations denote a moderate to strong explanatory power. Obviously, the R^2 for the structural equations for Excitement ($R^2 = 0.51$), Sophistication ($R^2 = 0.50$) and Competence ($R^2 = 0.61$) are found to be high, each with equal or more than half variance being explained.

6.5.3 Hypothesis Testing

Based on the results of the path analysis, the hypotheses proposed in the beginning chapters are scrutinized one by one to determine whether they are supported or rejected in the model. The first group of hypotheses examines the effects of Cognitive Destination Image on Destination Personality. The second group of hypotheses assesses the effects of Destination Personality on Behavioural Intentions. As aforementioned, Destination Personality is a multidimensional concept. Four dimensions are

identified to represent Destination Personality: Excitement, Sophistication, Competence and Ruggedness. Therefore, it is necessary to specify the original hypotheses into sub-hypotheses as:

H1a: Natural Environment is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1a_{.1}: Natural Environment is positively related to Excitement

H1a_{.2}: Natural Environment is positively related to Sophistication

H1a_{.3}: Natural Environment is positively related to Competence

H1a_{.4}: Natural Environment is positively related to Ruggedness

H1b: Built Environment is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1b_{.1}: Built Environment is positively related to Excitement

H1b_{.2}: Built Environment is positively related to Sophistication

H1b_{.3}: Built Environment is positively related to Competence

H1b_{.4}: Built Environment is positively related to Ruggedness

H1c: Socially Responsible Environment is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1c_{.1}: Socially Responsible Environment is positively related to Excitement

H1c_{.2}: Socially Responsible Environment is positively related to Sophistication

H1c_{.3}: Socially Responsible Environment is positively related to Competence

H1c_{.4}: Socially Responsible Environment is positively related to Ruggedness

H1d: Local People is positively related to Destination Personality dimensions

H1d_{.1}: Local People is positively related to Excitement

H1d_{.2}: Local People is positively related to Sophistication

H1d_{.3}: Local People is positively related to Competence

H1d_{.4}: Local People is positively related to Ruggedness

H2a: Destination Personality dimensions are positively related to Word-of-Mouth Intentions.

H2a₁: Excitement is positively related to Word-of-Mouth Intention

H2a₂: Sophistication is positively related to Word-of-Mouth Intention

H2a₃: Competence is positively related to Word-of-Mouth Intention

H2a₄: Ruggedness is positively related to Word-of-Mouth Intention

H2b: Destination Personality dimensions are positively related to Willingness to Pay More

H2b₁: Excitement is positively related to Willingness to Pay More

H2b₂: Sophistication is positively related to Willingness to Pay More

H2b₃: Competence is positively related to Willingness to Pay More

H2b₄: Ruggedness is positively related to Willingness to Pay More

The first group of hypotheses attempts to examine the effect of Cognitive Destination Image to Destination Personality. Specifically, relations between Natural Environment, Built Environment, Socially Responsible Environment of Cognitive Destination Image and Excitement, Sophistication, Competence and Ruggedness of Destination Personality are assessed.

Relation of Natural Environment to Destination Personality.

Hypotheses H1a₁ to H1a₄ posit that the Natural Environment is positively related to four Destination Personality dimensions. As shown in TABLE 6.11, the hypotheses between Natural Environment and Excitement ($\gamma_{11}=0.37$, $t\text{-value}=5.03$, $p<0.01$), Natural Environment and Sophistication ($\gamma_{13}=0.55$, $t\text{-value}=6.10$, $p<0.01$), Natural Environment and Ruggedness ($\gamma_{14}=0.50$, $t\text{-value}=4.95$, $p<0.01$) are supported. While the relationship

between Natural Environment and Competence ($\gamma_{12}=0.03$, $t\text{-value}=0.57$) is not supported by the data, therefore only H1a.3 is rejected.

Relation of Built Environment to Destination Personality. Hypotheses H1b.1 to H1b.4 that Built Environment has a positive effect on dimensions of Destination Personality. Excitement ($\gamma_{21}=0.24$, $t\text{-value}=3.00$, $p<0.01$) and Competence ($\gamma_{22}=0.25$, $t\text{-value}=3.58$, $p<0.01$) accept the positive effect exerted by the Natural Environment, supporting the Hypothesis H1b.1 and H1b.3. However, Hypothesis H1b.2 and H1b.4 are not supported by the non-significant paths from Natural Environment to Sophistication ($\gamma_{23}=-0.11$, $t\text{-value}=-1.24$) and Ruggedness ($\gamma_{24}=-0.14$, $t\text{-value}=-1.52$).

Relation of Socially Responsible Environment to Destination Personality. Hypothesis H1c.1 to H1c.4 states that the Socially Responsible Environment has positive direct effects on Destination Personality dimensions. Obviously the hypothesized relationships are only partially supported. Only two dimensions of Destination Personality, Competence ($\gamma_{32}=0.26$, $t\text{-value}=5.13$, $p<0.01$) and Sophistication ($\gamma_{33}=0.14$, $t\text{-value}=2.29$, $p<0.05$), are positively affected by Socially Responsible Environment, supporting Hypothesis H1c.2 and H1c.3. H1c.1 and H1c.4 are not supported by empirical evidence given Socially Responsible Environment is not significantly related to Excitement ($\gamma_{31}=0.00$, $t\text{-value}=-0.02$) and Ruggedness ($\gamma_{34}=0.04$, $t\text{-value}=0.64$).

Relation of Local People to Destination Personality. Hypothesis H1d.1 to H1d.4 posit that Local People has a direct positive effect on dimensions of Destination Personality. It is found from the analysis results that Local People exerts significant positive effect on Excitement ($\gamma_{41}=0.26$, $t\text{-value}=3.41$, $p<0.01$), Competence ($\gamma_{42}=0.43$, $t\text{-value}=6.21$, $p<0.01$) and Sophistication ($\gamma_{43}=0.25$, $t\text{-value}=3.02$, $p<0.01$). Therefore sub-hypotheses of H1d.1, H1d.2 and H1d.3 are supported. There is no significant path between Local People and Ruggedness ($\gamma_{44}=0.14$, $t\text{-value}=1.58$), suggesting the rejection of H1d.4.

The second group of hypotheses investigates the effect of Destination Personality on Behavioural Intentions. Specifically, four dimensions of Excitement, Sophistication, Competence and Ruggedness are hypothesized to be positively related to Behavioural Intentions which consists of two dimensions of Word-of-Mouth Intentions and Willingness to Pay More.

Relation of Destination Personality to Word-of-Mouth Intentions. H2a.1 to H2a.4 are hypothesized to test the positive direct relation between Destination Personality dimensions and Word-of-Mouth Intentions. The only dimension of Destination Personality found to not significantly related to Word-of-Mouth Intentions is Ruggedness ($\gamma_{81}=-0.02$, $t\text{-value}=-0.42$). Weighting almost the same path coefficients at or above 0.25, Excitement

($\gamma_{51}=0.25$, $t\text{-value}=4.09$, $p<0.01$), Competence ($\gamma_{61}=0.25$, $t\text{-value}=4.39$, $p<0.01$) and Sophistication ($\gamma_{71}=0.31$, $t\text{-value}=4.83$, $p<0.01$) significantly relate to Word-of-Mouth Intentions. As a result, H2a₋₁, H2a₋₂ and H2a₋₃ are supported, while H2a₋₄ is rejected.

Relation of Destination Personality to Willingness to Pay More. H2b₋₁ to H2b₋₄ predict that the Destination Personality would be positively associated with the Willingness to Pay More. Consistent with the hypotheses, the dimensions of Competence ($\gamma_{62}=0.29$, $t\text{-value}=4.63$, $p<0.01$) and Sophistication ($\gamma_{72}=0.18$, $t\text{-value}=2.69$, $p<0.01$) are significantly related to Willingness to Pay More. H2b₋₂ and H2b₋₃ are therefore supported. Meanwhile, the dimension of Excitement ($\gamma_{52}=0.10$, $t\text{-value}=1.50$) and Ruggedness ($\gamma_{82}=0.04$, $t\text{-value}=0.60$) do not have positive effect on Willingness to Pay More, rejecting H2b₋₁ and H2b₋₄.

As presented in TABLE 6.12, apparently the results indicate the important but complicated role of Destination Personality in mediating the Cognitive Destination Image and Behavioural Intentions. It is arbitrary to assert Cognitive Destination Image is positively and significantly related to Destination Personality as a whole because the effect of CDI varies across different dimensions of Destination Personality. Specifically, Natural Environment and Local People have more significant association with Destination Personality. In the meanwhile, Ruggedness is less identified as

significantly related to most of the Cognitive Destination Image dimensions. A further look at variance explained, it reveals that Competence, Excitement, Sophistication of the destination are strongly identified through tourists' perceptions of Cognitive Destination Image, while Ruggedness is less explained by Cognitive Destination Image dimensions.

TABLE 6.12 Results of Hypothesis Testing

Exogenous Variables	Endogenous			
	Excitement	Sophistication	Competence	Ruggedness
	H1a ₋₁	H1a ₋₂	H1a ₋₃	H1a ₋₄
NE	Y	Y	N	Y
	H1b ₋₁	H1b ₋₂	H1b ₋₃	H1b ₋₄
BE	Y	N	Y	N
	H1c ₋₁	H1c ₋₂	H1c ₋₃	H1c ₋₄
SRE	N	Y	Y	N
	H1d ₋₁	H1d ₋₂	H1d ₋₃	H1d ₋₄
LP	Y	Y	Y	N
<i>R</i> ²	0.51	0.50	0.61	0.27
	WOM		WPM	
	H2a ₋₁		H2b ₋₁	
Excitement	Y		N	
	H2a ₋₂		H2b ₋₂	
Sophistication	Y		Y	
	H2a ₋₃		H2b ₋₃	
Competence	Y		Y	
	H2a ₋₄		H2b ₋₄	
Ruggedness	N		N	
<i>R</i> ²	0.43		0.23	

Subsequently, Sophistication and Competence directly encourage respondents' positive behavioural intentions of Word-of-Mouth intentions

and Willingness to Pay More. Excitement only works on Word-of-Mouth intentions but fails to arouse tourists' Willingness to Pay More, while there is no effect of Ruggedness on Behavioural Intentions. Examining Behavioural Intentions as a whole, Word-of-Mouth is explained by Destination Personality and tourists tend to express their consequent retention to the destination when they have emotional congruence with the destination. The impact magnitude of Destination Personality on Word-of-Mouth doubles that of Willingness to Pay More. Reluctant to support all the hypothesized propositions, the model reveals the complex relationships with different magnitudes of impact within each casual path.

6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presents major findings of the study. This chapter first describes the dimensionality of concepts under study. Four dimensions representing Cognitive Destination Image (Natural Environment, Built Environment, Socially Responsible Environment and Local People), four dimensions indicating Destination Personality (Excitement, Sophistication, Competence and Ruggedness) and two dimensions composing Behavioural Intentions are identified. Integrating all the constructs and measurements in the overall measurement model, this study employs CFA to examine the model fit. Given the satisfactory fitness, structural relations are further test to answer the hypothesized effect exerted by exogenous variables on their causal endogenous variables. How Cognitive Destination

Image relates to Destination Personality and how Destination Personality effects Behavioural Intentions are examined in SEM.

As the TABLE 6.13 and FIGURE 6.2 present, there are in all 10 significant paths between Cognitive Destination Image and Destination Personality. The major factors of Cognitive Destination Image affecting the Destination Personality are Natural Environment (3 significant paths) and Local People (3 significant paths). Five significant paths have been found between Destination Personality and Behavioural Intentions. The major factors of Destination Personality affecting the Destination Personality are Sophistication and Competence. All the casual relations are positive with moderate to high coefficient magnitude.

Overall, the results indicate that destination personality emotionally links the destination to tourists, touching some corners deep inside of their inner self expression. Based on theories in psychology, the study supports an important role for destination personality in explaining loyal retention and attachment of tourists towards the destination, demonstrating that tourists judge a destination along four cognitive destination images and that these judgment drive subsequent recognition of congruent destination personality and behavioural intentions. The conclusion of analysis results and their implications are addressed in the following Chapter. Limitation and future research directions are also discussed.

TABLE 6.13 Summary of Supported Research Hypotheses

	Hypotheses		Std. Coefficient	t-value*
H1a-1	Positive Effect	NE → Excitement	0.37	5.03
H1a-2	Positive Effect	NE → Sophistication	0.55	6.10
H1a-4	Positive Effect	NE → Ruggedness	0.50	4.95
H1b-1	Positive Effect	BE → Excitement	0.24	3.00
H1b-3	Positive Effect	BE → Competence	0.25	3.58
H1c-3	Positive Effect	SRE → Competence	0.26	5.13
H1c-2	Positive Effect	SRE → Sophistication	0.14	2.29
H1d-1	Positive Effect	LP → Excitement	0.26	3.41
H1d-3	Positive Effect	LP → Competence	0.43	6.21
H1d-2	Positive Effect	LP → Sophistication	0.25	3.02
H2a-1	Positive Effect	Excitement → WOM	0.25	4.09
H2a-3	Positive Effect	Competence → WOM	0.25	4.39
H2b-3	Positive Effect	Competence → WPM	0.29	4.63
H2a-2	Positive Effect	Sophistication → WOM	0.31	4.83
H2b-2	Positive Effect	Sophistication → WPM	0.18	2.69

*All t test are significant as $p < 0.05$ or better

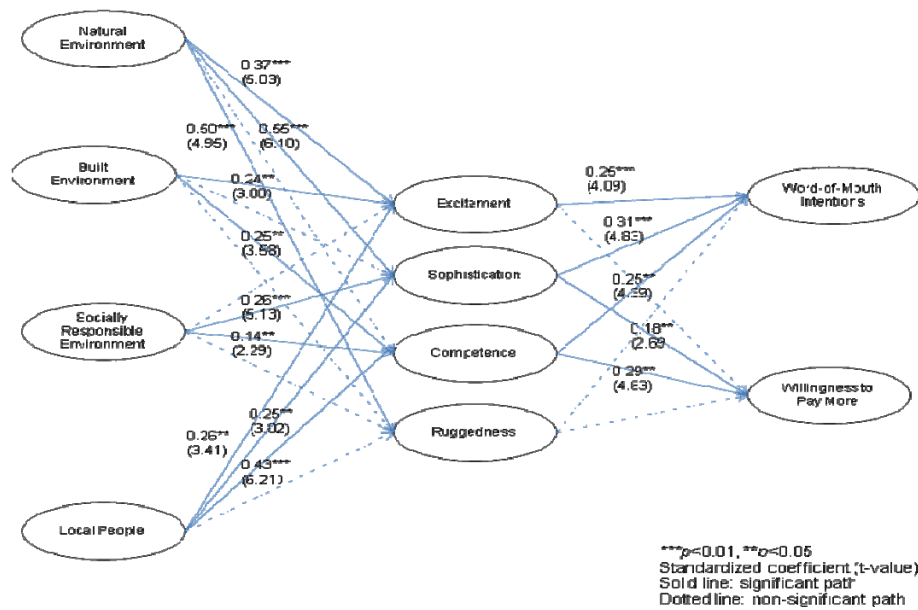


FIGURE 6.2 Estimates of the Structural Model

CHAPTER 7

THEORETICAL FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the empirical analysis results, this chapter systematically discusses the theoretical findings. The dimensionality of constructs under study and their interrelationship have been described. Furthermore, this chapter discusses the findings in a broad horizon by relating the findings to the research background, debating the findings with those in relevant tourism literature and interpreting realistic context behind the findings. The theoretical findings and discussions in this chapter directly generate corresponding practical implications as well as make response to research objectives and research questions.

Section 7.1 discusses the respective dimensionality of three concepts under study. Section 7.2 reports the structural relations as the results of hypothesis testing. Findings have been elaborated in a broad theoretical horizon and interpret from an insightful contextual perspective. Section 7.3 summarizes the findings and discussion in this chapter.

7.1 DIMENSIONALITY OF RESEARCH CONCEPTS

Guided by research objectives to understand the multidimensional research concepts, destination personality, cognitive destination image and

behavioural intentions, this study follows both qualitative and quantitative research methods in identifying the dimensionality of research concepts. The qualitative research methods include literature review, word association, in-depth interviews and Delphi panel and the quantitative research method is the interceptive questionnaire survey. The collected data is subjected to both exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. An overall measurement scale is finalized with 76 items, factorized into four dimensions of Cognitive Destination Image, four dimensions of Destination Personality and two dimensions of Behavioural Intentions.

7.1.1 Cognitive Destination Image

Destination image is a popular topic in the body of tourism literature in the past decades (e.g., Baloglu, 1999; Brinberg, 1997; Driscoll, 1994; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Gartner, 1989; Goodrich, 1978; Hunt, 1975; Leisen, 2001 etc.). The destination is not represented by the plain seat or the hotel bed, but a whole amalgam of elements, or by a package composed by tangible and intangible elements. It consists of two major components of cognitive destination image and affective destination image. The cognitive destination image is conceptualized to address tourists' recognition level embedded with emotional feeling towards the destination. Cognitive destination Image is a destination specific concept, which varies from destination to destination. Following the procedures of instrument

development proposed by Chuichill (1979), a measure with good reliability and validity for the cognitive destination image is developed. Four cognitive categories of environments actually influences tourists' potential perceptions of destination image - natural environment, built environment, socially responsible environment and local people, suggesting important dimensions of the destination that are not traditionally measured in tourism literature to date. These aspects are well perceived by foreign tourists from all over the world, representing a successful application of this four cell model that categorizes the destination image attributes according to the extent of human intervention.

Natural environment is tourist attractions based on the nature resources available in the destination. Most frequently, natural environment includes natural attractions, scenery, climate, wildlife, forests, beaches, mountains, lakes, and rivers (Botha, 1999; Calantone et al., 1989; Chen, 2001; Crompton et al., 1992; Gartner, 1989; Haahti, 1986; Kim, 1998; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2006; Uysal et al., 2000). In this study, three items (e.g., Beauty of lakes, Charm of mountains, Overall scenic beauty) of natural environment have been identified for Beijing. In fact, the rich nature tourism resources in Beijing are more than we could expect. The notable natural attractions and geographic diversity stretches across the city. Beautiful lakes scatter in green parks (e.g., Kunming Lake in Summer Palace), towering mountains with historical heritage and natural beauty

(e.g., Fragrant Hill, Great Wall) attract many foreign tourists to visit. Many UNESCO-recognized natural sites and agricultural eco-villages nestled in lush vegetation are open for visit, echoing tourists' environmental awareness nowadays. In sum, the eastern picturesque landscape which is featured by the harmonious match of mountains and waters presents a beautiful natural environment to foreign tourists.

Built environment indicates areas that people visit such as major attractions of the destination, say, buildings, museums and entertainment venues (Chi & Qu, 2008; Choi et al., 2007; Govers et al., 2007; Stepchenkova and Morrison, 2008), which are constructed and controlled to provide tourists with predictable and consistent experiences. Built environment matters a lot in tourist's perceptions of the cognitive destination image because it is most obviously observed in tourists' travel. The built environment of Beijing includes Local infrastructure (e.g., roads, foot bridges, telecommunication), Variety of cultural activities (e.g., festival, exhibition), Economic development and Local transportation (e.g., variety, quality). Generally speaking, tourism amenities are well established in Beijing. The city itself has good transportation facilities and the convenient commute subsystem turns out to convey tourists to wherever they want. The Metro is convenient to use within the city and being expanded. The road system is excellent and traffic runs relatively smoothly except during peak traffic hours in the morning and evening when people rush to and

from work. In fact, if you are the type of person who likes to explore on foot, some of the main areas could be visited on foot. The main shopping areas and most of the tourist attractions are easily reached by subway, taxi or bicycle.

Socially responsible environment of the destination refers to the responsibility as a whole of all destination stakeholders to the society in line with the ethical value, making extra credibility to the destinations from tourists' perspectives. Nowadays the purely economic rationale for destination development has been challenged (Haywood, 1988). Socially responsible environment is an important factor that induces favorable feelings of foreign tourists before visitation and influences their loyalty after visitation. Tourists now have increasing awareness of the socially responsible destinations towards which they have belief and trustful feelings. Destination management sectors are now being asked to be more responsive to a broader set of economic and social needs (Krippendorf, 1982). The socially responsible environment is mainly managed by the destination. If this is to occur local governments should recognize that they will have to become more responsible to the local residents and external tourists whose communities and lives may be affected by tourism (Haywood, 1988). In spite of the complexity of socially responsible environment, Beijing is basically measured with four items: Rights and freedom (e.g., speech freedom, no blocking of internet info.), Energy

conserving (e.g., electricity, oil, coal), Environmental awareness of local residents and Control of emissions (e.g., vehicle exhaust, greenhouse).

Beijing as the political center of China has its human rights are considered controversy by most western countries and human rights organizations (e.g., Human Rights Watch). For example, the most frequently cited evidence is China's extensive internet censorship. International Internet businesses such as Facebook, YouTube and Google came under pressure from the Chinese government in past years and are ordered to change the way they allow information disclosure. Recently, Google, the world's top search engine, has to filter many topics deemed sensitive in China, including the June 4, 1989 crackdown on democracy protesters (Reuters, 2010). Besides the human rights issues, it should be very cautious noted that green concerns and air quality also endangers Beijing's destination image in recent years (China Daily, 2009). In the past decade, Beijing solely emphasizes the economic development too much and sacrificed the cleanness of the sky. There are more cars per person in Beijing now than in any time before. The rapid urbanization and increasing living standards put much pressure on the air quality of Beijing. Even in the post-period of Olympics, Beijing still faces the fierce struggle over the penumbra of air pollution from dust, cars, and coal-fired industries that so often hangs over the city. This fact indicates that, despite the prodigious efforts of Chinese officials, the problem has not been largely alleviated after

the Games, if only temporarily. What will not be alleviated, however, is the overall environmental crisis that besets China. As one for the largest energy consumption cities, Beijing is expected to improve its energy consumption structure by exploring new energy resources such as geothermal power, solar energy, bio-energy and wind power to reduce the use of traditional energy resource like coal, gas and oil.

Finally, local people refer to local residents in the destination. External tourists interact with local people during their travel in the destination. What local people behave and communicate to the external tourists contributes as part of tourists' travel experience in the destination. Four types of characteristics of local people are perceived by foreign tourists travelling in Beijing. The first is the friendliness and courteousness of local people, which is the local people's effort to make foreign tourists feel welcome and treat them in a friendly, courteous manner. The more foreign tourists perceive this interpersonal style dimension, the more they would regard Beijing as a second home during the travel that foreign tourists are not made to feel inferior and do not report feeling discriminated against because of their language, race/ethnicity, income, educational level, or nature of their insurance. The willingness to help tourists is most appreciated attribute of local people, which has been the most commonly mentioned factor in previous studies (e.g., Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Chaudhary, 2000; Dimanche & Moody, 1998;

Dimanche & Moody,1998; Fakeye & Crompton,1991). With its welcoming cultures and attention to detail as a hallmark of service quality, the willingness to care and help foreign tourists makes foreign tourists feel welcome and treat them in a friendly manner. Honesty and trustworthiness of local people can help reduce tourists' doubts and boost their confidence about the potential trip in Beijing, resulting in a more satisfied experience at the destination, a willingness to stay longer or a repeat visit to the destination.

Although foreign tourists have high perceptions of honesty and trustworthiness of local people, some of them mentioned that, if not the frequent case, they have some unhappy experiences of being cheated or ripped off when shopping in Beijing. Some tourists complained that the price of a product varies across the places and the products sold in tourist sites are much expensive than those at other places. They have this feeling of being trapped when shopping in Beijing. Another irritating phenomenon is that more and more fake commodities with famous brand labels such as LV, Gucci and Adidas are sold in Beijing. Foreign tourists usually fail to identify the traps everywhere in the market of Beijing. Chinese people also have an international reputation of being queue jumpers (Xinhua News, 2010). Foreign tourists may have witnessed the scenes of lots of queue-jumpers on Beijing's roads waiting in front the buses. Even public bus drivers sometimes ignore traffic rules and jump the queue once there is an

opportunity. That's why before big international events, for example, the 2008 Beijing Olympics, training Chinese people to queue up has become an important job for organizers (Xinhua News, 2010). Besides, public manners of local people are sometimes disappointing (BBC, 2009). Spitting, littering and bad language could harm Beijing's image. Therefore a number of campaigns should be launched to improve the moral quality of the local people. Without a strong governmental intervention, those issues may prevail in the Beijing and finally lose foreign tourists' trust and prevent them in developing emotional attachment towards this destination.

In conclusion, the overall cognitive image of Beijing as a destination is positive as evidenced by the fact that most of mean responses to cognitive destination image are above the scale midpoint, reinforcing the view that a positive overall image exists and is one that encompasses multiaspects of the destination measured in the instrument. In particular, efficient infrastructures and cultural heritages lead the positive perceptions of Beijing as a destination based upon its developing built environment. The natural environment which ranks second showcases Beijing's attractive natural scenery. The high rating of local people also reveals a satisfactory tourist-local intercultural contact in Beijing with a positive assessment about the character of Beijing people: friendly, helpful and courteous, if neglecting the poor public manners. The descriptive results portray a positive picture of an attractive and unique destination experience

that exceeds tourists' expectations and one they are proud to have visited. The less positive aspect of this destination is related socially responsible environment. Indeed, it attains the lowest rating by foreign tourists. Foreign tourists view the rights and freedoms of the destination as low. This destination also scores below the scale mid-point on environment-friendly practice (e.g., energy conserving, environmental awareness of local residents, and control of emissions). The fact behind is, the environmental awareness and practice in Beijing are simply not compatible with the nation's economic strength and its growing international status.

While developing countries may have to deal with the significant disadvantage of having negative or less positive images (Kale & Weir, 1986), there is ambivalence about China in western countries, whether or not its influence is positive or negative. Like many destinations in the developing countries, Beijing has concentrated its efforts on the economic aspects of tourism at the expense of developing marketing programs to attract the Western tourists. However, what repels foreign travelers is the negative attributes of the destination (Kale & Weir, 1986). To establish the international recognition, it is very important that the destination must promote its positive attributes as perceived by prospective tourists, while also work to overcome its negative image (e.g., low moral quality of the local people, poor green management and irresponsible social practice)

among prospective travelers abroad. Only in this way can Beijing increase the flow of foreign tourists.

7.1.2 Destination Personality

According to Aaker's (1997) assertion, the basic argument is that attitude objects, such as brands, can be associated with personality traits through learning and experience, and this association with personality traits provides self-expressive or symbolic benefits for the consumer. Aaker claims that her five brand personality dimensions appear to best explain the way American consumers perceive brands across symbolic and utilitarian product and service categories. When applying this concept in the destination context, the researcher witnesses the fact that the destination personality as a human perspective, including personality traits, made destinations more interesting to the tourists through greater texture, depth and complexity (Aaker, 1996). Other advantages included 1) that the destination's personality often reflected back on to the destination, discreetly communicating its attributes and benefits, 2) it allowed tourists to identify and self express through the brand, and 3) that it had the potential to establish an emotional relationship with the tourists portraying the destination as a friend, expert adviser, etc. improving preference and long term loyalty. The results of the study indicate that tourists ascribe personality characteristics to destinations, and destination personality can be described in four dimensions for Beijing: competence, excitement,

sophistication and ruggedness. The dimensions are found to be reliable and valid, with competence found to be the most important characteristics of Beijing's destination personality.

The dimension that weighs most is Competence, including traits of responsible, dependable, reliable and efficient which are very specific to Beijing. The emergence of the competence dimension of Beijing may be explained by the fact that foreign tourists portray destinations as the core symbol of the rising China. The country recently hosted the 2008 Olympic Games, the high profile mega-event of global focus, and it also has by far the largest and most developed economy in Asia. After more than two decades' implementation of economic reform and open policy, China is now undergoing rapid development and stepping forward to build a stable, international and free market. The rise of China from a poor, stagnant country to a major economic power within a time span of only 28 years is often described by analysts as one of the greatest economic success stories in modern times. From 1979 (when economic reforms were first introduced) to 2006, China's real gross domestic product (GDP) grew at an average annual rate of 9.7%, the size of its economy increased over 11-fold, its real per capita GDP grew over 8-fold, and its world ranking for total trade rose from 27th to 3rd. By some measurements, China has become the world's second largest economy, and it could be the largest within a decade (Gertz, 2002). The fact that China's growth outpaces the rest of the

world is manifested in how it is trying to communicate competence in terms of tourism. Beijing is blessed with considerable resources such as human capital and low-cost commodities and will continuously enjoys the peaceful rise. So it should have the means to develop a viable tourist economy.

Excitement includes traits such as daring, spirited and imaginative. In general, destinations that are perceived to have excitement personality are considered attractive and are thus highly capable of generating visit interest (Altschiller, 2000). Tourists travel to destinations mostly for relaxation and leisure purposes, which may explain why tourists attach a sense of excitement to destinations (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006). Particularly, Beijing's excitement could be typically measured by its diversity of entertainment opportunities, in which this Chinese capital rivals any major city in Asia. Long time ago, Beijing's populace routinely tucked itself into bed under a blanket of Mao-inspired Puritanism shortly after nightfall, leaving foreign tourists with one of two tourist-approved options: Attend Beijing opera and acrobatic performances in a sterile theater, or wander listlessly around the hotel in search of a drink to make sleep come faster. As recently as a decade ago, the government has realized there is money to be made on both sides of the Earth's rotation. The resulting relaxation in nocturnal regulations, set against the backdrop of Beijing residents' historical affinity for cultural diversions, has helped remake the city's nightlife. Opera and acrobatics are still available, but now in more

interesting venues, and to them have been added an impressive range of other worthwhile cultural events: teahouse theater, puppet shows, intimate traditional music concerts and live jazz. This diversity continues with Beijing's drinking and dance establishments, of which there are scores. The tourists nowadays may not be afraid to bumble through language barriers and can often make fruitful contact with local people over a bottle or two of beer. The open mind of Beijing is fostering more and more opportunities for foreign tourists to enjoy the excitement, which lend support to the finding that this dimension is reasonable accurate and representative for Beijing.

Sophistication is the third strongest dimension to explain variances of destination personality. Three items are included in this factor: glamorous, charming and romantic. In Beijing's case the sophistication is very manifested in eastern value and the Chinese historical and culture context that shapes this value. The Confucius and socialism are known as the rich intangible heritage of Beijing that foreign tourists may encounter or feel during their travel in Beijing. Most foreign tourists have realized that many subtle aspects of culture are sophisticated and thus changed the way they usually think in the western thinking. Unlike linear logic of the west, the spiral logic of Beijing people is more roundabout and subtle. It is more difficult to say no even if one means no, and disagreement is expressed nonverbally (Charles, 2003). When foreigner tourists communicate information with people in the Beijing, they find their meaning in the explicit,

verbal message and direct language most of the time could not work out. People in Beijing prefer to use indirect language patterns and meaning is often implied or must be inferred. In terms of the honesty, people in Beijing prefer to express themselves in a subtle and nonverbal way rather than to get everything out on the table or speak their mind straightforward. People in Beijing usually hide themselves behind “we”, while foreign tourists may think one has rights and greater need for autonomy and individual achievement. The business practice in Beijing is also representative of that in eastern society: most important business cannot occur until relationship is sound, written agreement secondary to *guan xi*, hard to form, long lasting. When handling conflicts, people in Beijing tend to win-win, to lose is to win, and to lose in order to win, which is quite different from the black-or-white win or lose perceptions of western foreigners. It is therefore obvious that the dimension of sophistication is quite understandable in the context of Beijing where the Confucian philosophy has dominated thousands of years.

Ruggedness is the last personality dimension of Beijing, including four descriptive items tough, strong, outdoorsy and rugged. Foreign tourists who favor the adventure and novelty in rugged environment could still find their way as Beijing is also fully equipped with exotic nature of geographic spaces for them to explore. Diverse slopes, admirable scenic views and natural complexity could also be found in Beijing. However, Ruggedness is least applicable in Beijing compared to other three destination personality

dimensions. It is not very surprising, because Beijing does not emphasize the environment and wild nature as its destination highlights. Unlike destinations in Kenya which claims that it has boundless wilderness, natural wonders, unspoiled environment and adventure activities like water rafting, bungee jumping that could attract adventure seekers from all over the world (Pitt et al., 2007), Beijing's natural environment is more descriptive in its sophisticated eastern picturesque landscape. The Chinese consider natural environment as a serious art form and as with painting, sculpture and poetry aim to attain in their design the balance, harmony, proportion and variety that are considered essential to life. Given the close relationship of Ruggedness personality with the local environment well-being, another reason for the low application of Ruggedness in Beijing might be due to its decaying natural environment. As aforementioned, the past decades have witnessed that Beijing's urbanization with the sole emphasis on economic development has devoured its already limited natural resources. Even the heritage sites for which Beijing are prestigious have also been threatened by the decaying environment. The water pollution, air pollution, physical radiation, sandy storms, acid rain are dangerous factors that harm the sustainable well-being of built environment that includes heritage sites. The green destination concept should draw enough attention it deserves from the management sectors and citizens of Beijing. Without this prerequisite, Beijing will suffer from the failure of losing the increasingly emerging group of environmentally friendly tourists and

deteriorating its destination recognition in the world. Moreover, the findings of a less ruggedness destination personality, to some extent, alerts the down trend of destination environment in the setting of the Olympics Games, which shows that the claimed motto of “Green Olympics” actually fails to achieve the goal. It would be overoptimistic for us to believe a prestigious event of Olympic Games would drive the destination to a green one that is in reality worthy of the name.

The missing dimension of Sincerity in this study may be explained by the fact that foreign tourists are reluctant to portray Beijing as trustworthy and dependable. That is, Beijing is not known for its atmosphere in terms of honesty, domestic, cheerfulness, and genuine. This in turn increases their feelings of vulnerability and the risks associated with the new environment (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006). Robin, Caspi and Moffitt (2000) indicate that the dimension of sincerity is positively related to the relationship between the two parties, consumers and sellers. The sincerity dimension emphasizes the importance of good relationships between tourists and hosts in evaluating holiday experiences. However, Beijing is lacking in this dimension of Sincerity. The interpretations are identified in both respondents’ feedback in the survey and industry practitioners’ observations in the focus groups. For example, there are product quality and food safety issues (e.g., leady toys, melamine-contaminated milk, fake commodities sold at street vendors). Some respondents complain that the

price of a product varies across the places and the products sold in tourist sites are much expensive than those at other places. They have this feeling of being trapped when shopping in Beijing. Another irritating phenomenon is that more and more fake commodities with famous brand labels such as LV, Gucci and Adidas are sold in Beijing. Foreign tourists usually fail to identify the traps everywhere in the market of Beijing. Without a strong governmental intervention, the copyright issues may prevail in the Beijing market and finally lose foreign tourist' trust and repurchase intentions. Furthermore, the internet censorship crisis also exerts a negative impact on foreign tourists' perceptions towards Beijing's sincerity. China defends its extensive censorship and brushed aside hacking claims of the international society, telling companies not to buck state control of the Internet after U.S. search giant Google threatened to quit the country.

Instead of the five-dimensional structure originated by Aaker (1997) and replicated by many tourism scholars (e.g., Douglas & Mills, 2006; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Murphy & Moscardo, 2006), four dimensions (competence, sophistication, excitement and ruggedness) are identified for Beijing. The four-dimension structure of destination personality is found to be reliable and valid in the case of Beijing. Specifically, it seems that the most important destination personality of Beijing found in the study may be summarized by two dimensions of competence and sophistication. The results is not that in line with those found in previous research on the

application of the BPS, in which the sincerity is found to capture the majority of variance in brand personality ratings (Aaker, 1997). The findings of this study reveal that Aaker's "penta-factorial" BPS cannot, however, be fully replicated. Instead, the five-dimensional BPS needs adaptation when applied to tourism destinations. The evidence of a four-factor Beijing destination personality rather than a five-factor solution echoes with Caprara, Barbaranelli and Guido's (2001) claim that it may be possible to describe brand personalities using only a few factors. The influence of culture may be one plausible explanation for the emergence of dimensions that differ from those in Aaker's study (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006). In the case of destinations, some dimensions may be less relevant and other dimensions may emerge. The outcome of this study is consistent with the theories in the consumer behavior literature (McCracken, 1986) which indicate the fact that the creation of certain meanings relative to product personalities may be culturally specific. This finding further reinforces recent research in cultural psychology where the symbolic use of brand appears to differ considerably across cultures (Aaker & Schmitt, 1997), and the symbolic or value-expressive functions associated with a brand tend to vary to some degree because of the variation of individuals' needs and self-views and socialization (Sung & Tinkham, 2005). Also, cultural differences are linked with, and often motivate, variations in the strategies and tactics used to market consumer goods (McCracken, 1986). This bidirectional causality suggests that cultural differences should be

predictive of variations in the way even global brands are perceived, despite the fact that many are marketed with a standardized strategy. When these strategies are customized (adapted to known cultural characteristics), the extent of culture-related differences in brand perceptions should be even more evident.

The identified destination personality is the carrier of Chinese culture. The symbolic meaning embedded in brands can represent and institutionalize cultural values and beliefs (Aaker et al., 2001). The findings reveal the fact how foreign tourists associate with Chinese personality and which Chinese cultural values implicitly differentiate themselves from dominant values found in European American cultures. Most likely, the findings could refine the interpretations of differences between Western and East Asian cultures that have been considerably discussed but less characterized broadly in terms of general constructs by scholars in the past decades (Sung & Tinkham, 2005). Why sophistication of Beijing induces the absolute behavioural intentions among foreign tourists? Why exotic built culture and local people contact provide are most impressed by foreign tourists? When we trace reasons behind, the cultural difference stands out. The values, which are associated with the Confucian traditions of communalism and paternalism, shape the unique destination personality that shocks and attracts foreign tourists. Chinese people see themselves as inheritors of the Confucian heritage and Confucianism serves as a

national belief system and can be seen as central to Chinese thought. The continued presence of Confucianism in China can be found in the way that individuals respond to everything. Chinese people are under strong moral and, sometimes, political pressure to sacrifice their individual interests for unconditional family unity. Thus, in China, where the traditional Confucian order is greatly valued, harmony among humankind is the supreme goal. Other values beyond the immediate family structure —such as dependence, hierarchy, courtesy, affection, and old ways or traditions—reinforce collectivism within the traditional Chinese culture (Cha, 1994). Chinese culture tends to emphasize emotional dependence, group harmony, cohesion, and cooperation, and it values the collective over the individual. It favors attitudes that reflect interdependence, sociability, and family integrity. Therefore, Chinese collectivists are more likely than Western individualists to seek situations that produce harmonious interpersonal atmospheres (Sung & Tinkham, 2005).

In conclusion, brand personality is symbols that potentially carry cultural meaning (McCracken, 1986). The symbolic meaning of destination personality can represent the values and beliefs of a culture (Sung & Tinkham, 2005) and cultures are quite different in their values and needs (e.g., Western vs. East Asian cultures). An understanding of destination structure in Beijing might provide a more complete insight into the unique values of Chinese culture. Although the findings of Beijing has no

necessary generalization to characterizes Asian cultures in general, the findings have much implication to most of the Asian countries whose contemporary culture, for a long time, is significantly impacted by the Confucian tradition. In a broader view, it is possible that not only different values but also similar characteristics can be substantiated by destination personality structure. These differences and similarities may be evidenced not only in basic destination personality dimensions (e.g., structure) but also in the interrelatedness of the dimensions and the attribute evaluations within each. The overall pattern of the results supports a number of the assumptions that have been made about the destination and destination personality. In particular, the results support the importance of building a strong association between the destination and the destination personality. The present study however, supports the addition of a condition to this proposal as suggested by Hosany and Ekinci (2003) and Ekinci (2003) – that the perceived destination personality must also match the recognized cognitive destination image of the tourists. It is this matching that contributes to perceived self-congruity, which in turn is related to more positive outcomes, consistent with the claims of Surgy and Su (2000).

7.1.3 Behavioural Intentions

Behavioural intentions are a well-developed construct that has been measured with different items in previous studies (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Backman & Crompton, 1991; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Baloglu,

2002; Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002; Bock et al., 2005; Fishbein, 1967; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Park & Kim, 2000; Swan & Oliver, 1989). This study focuses on revisit intentions, word-of-mouth, and willingness to pay more as specific forms of behavioural intentions.

The first dimension is word-of-mouth intentions, which could be expressed in ways like encouraging friends and relatives to visit the destination, saying positive things about the destination to other people, and recommending the destination to anyone who seeks their advice. In service industry, word-of-mouth is one of the most powerful forms of communication. Tourists seek information and during the information-seeking process, tourists often see word-of-mouth information as more reliable because it is a third-party's opinion based on experiences (Ha & Jang, 2010). The individual are more inclined to believe word-of-mouth than more formal forms of promotion methods, the receiver of word-of-mouth referrals tends to believe that the communicator is speaking honestly and is unlikely to have an ulterior motive (Grewal, Cline & Davies, 2003).

The second dimension is willingness to pay more. This measure is important because price is a key element in the profit equation and therefore is directly linked to profitability. Among the factors that could influence the optimal intention for a destination loyalty is the trade-off

tourists make between feeling good about giving more and feeling bad about paying more (Strahilevitz, 1999). Willingness to pay more to be used in cost-benefit analyses can be obtained in two ways: direct and indirect measurements (Gafni, 1991). The first method involves direct questioning of persons about the amount they are willing to pay to reduce the risk of quality of product or service. This amount, usually expressed in dollar terms, represents how much of other goods and services a person is willing to give up. The second method involves inferring from a person's behavior what amount he or she is willing to pay for such gains. In this study, the researcher considers relevant questions to be asked when using the direct method to elicit preference in the context of tourists' decision-making about the destination. Accordingly two items are used in this study to measure the willingness to pay more: It is acceptable to pay more for travelling in Beijing and I am willing to pay more for visiting Beijing.

When asked about their behavioural intentions towards Beijing, the leading response outcome indicates an overall strong intent by foreign tourists to recommend the destination to others, surpassing the mean response of the intent to pay more. Indeed, this demonstrates that foreign tourists have the greatest commitment to pass around the positive comments of the destination. The less positive rating given to spending more in the destination may be attributed to the fact that Beijing is becoming the world's expensive city as the Renminbi strengthens against

other currencies and the subsequent overall soar in the cost of living compared to other major cities around the globe.

7.2 STRUCTURAL RELATIONS

According to the research objectives, two groups of causal relations have been proposed for the structural equation modeling: the relations between each latent variable in Cognitive Destination Image and that of Destination Personality, and the relations between each latent variable in Destination Personality and that of Behavioural Intentions. Based on the explained causalities, the explanatory power of the overall model, where final outcome is behavioural intentions, is strong. Primary causal variables have moderate explanatory power where destination personality is the dependent variable. To summarize the overall pattern of the proposed model and validate the role of variables in the path model, direct effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables are explored by regressing destination personality on all variables of cognitive destination image and behavioural intentions on all variables of destination personality preceding them in the model. The directions and magnitude of relations are examined in the structural equation modeling. The findings respond to the hypotheses of the study.

7.2.1 Effects of Cognitive Destination Image on Destination Personality

The topic of destination personality has become one of the most prevalent in the tourism literature (Pike, 2002). The impact of destination image on various variables is frequently hinted at in the literature. The most frequently explored positive relations are those between cognitive destination image and destination preferences (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Lin, Morais, Kerstetter & Hou, 2007), tourist behaviors (Bigne, Sanchez & Sanchez, 2001; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Lee, Lee & Lee, 2005), trip quality (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988; Bigne et al., 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007), overall satisfaction (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill, 1993), perceived value (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Lee et al., 2005) and the behavioural intention (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Mansfeld, 1992).

This study, however, argues how cognitive destination image explains the brand personality, which echoes Konecnik and Go's (2007) assertion that the investigations of tourism destination branding should primarily been conducted from a perceived image perspective. Research in this area is important because of the complex, vicarious and unpredictable process of destination branding in relation to tourism. The cognitive destination image is directly observed and perceived by tourist, and therefore enables researchers to capture the symbolic meanings of destination personality as if destinations are people. In this study, tourists' perceived cognitive destination image is the direct input in determining destination personality. This study identifies the structural relationship

between latent variables of cognitive destination image and those of destination personality. Causal relations are distinguished through structural equation modeling. The results indicate that cognitive destination image and destination personality are related concepts. At least some dimensions of cognitive destination image (e.g., local people) exert significant effects on most destination personality dimensions. The findings of this study partially complement Plummer (1985) and Patterson (1999) who claim that the brand image seems to be an encompassing concept and brand personality is more related to the affective components of brand image. While Plummer (1985) and Patterson (1999) took a conceptual approach, this study builds upon an empirical stance at delineating the relationship between brand image and brand personality. Rather than depicted the partial connections, this dynamic nature of destination personality is examined in a holistic picture by integrating variables in a path-analytic model. And most importantly, the clarification of theoretical connection between cognitive destination image and destination personality through the affectively emotional link surpasses the superficial explanations in previous literatures where image and brand personality are simply deemed as two key components of brand loyalty and brand positioning (Keller, 1998; Plummer, 1985), related concepts that serves as interchangeable terminologies (Graeff, 1997; Smothers, 1993;) or the carrier of conceptual meaning of each other (Hendon & Williams, 1985; Upshaw, 1995).

When considering the model results in the context of structural relationships, the importance of natural environment and local people are very apparent. The hypothesized model proposes that the strongest relations with destination personality are found (at least between natural environment and local people). According to the review of previous literature, it is generally accepted that the cognitive component of destination image is an antecedent of the affective congruity between tourists and the destination (Beerli et al., 2004; Hosany et al., 2006). The findings of this study provide consistent evidence. The “hardware” cognitive natural environment perceived by tourists shapes a profound impression that emotionally links to the destination personality perceived in the destination travel experience, while the “software” local people as the cultural ambassadors of the destination, strongly influences the formation of destination personality through the intercommunication and interfaces between foreign tourists and local people every now and then.

Specifically, the very strong relationship to the destination personality in the model coupled with the very high mean scores attributed to natural environment illustrates the dominant role of this environment on the image tourists hold about Beijing. The natural environment of Beijing positively relates to destination personality in terms of excitement, sophistication and ruggedness. Beautiful Beijing presents different features for its clear distinction of four seasons and geographic distribution of

natural attractions. Tourists have the opportunity to have a glimpse at Beijing's original inhabitants-- the flora, fauna and critters big and small in Shi Du Scenic Spot and Rear Lakes (Houhai). The beautiful natural scenery and charming landscape view reasonably convey the exciting feeling and joy to tourists. The romantic atmosphere embedded in the leisure walks in versatile parks and resorts definitely creates the sophisticated feature of Beijing. There is always a window to reconnect with the rugged wild. Not necessary a fitness guru, you can be free to itch for fresh air and open places in the natural wonders in Great Wall at Simatai and Beijing Botanical Garden.

Second to natural wonders, local people are also awarded high mean scale scores on its attributes of honesty, helpfulness and courteousness. The significant paths from local people construct in the model indicate its descriptive power for Beijing's personality as competence, excitement and sophistication. It is quite understandable that competence is the most obvious destination personality identified for Beijing. China's economic growth as one of the most important economic powers in the world and the successfully staged 2008 Olympics drew an outpouring of nationalistic fervor from Beijing local people, competent with the prosperous anticipation while sophisticated with struggles between traditional value and modern vanity. The eastern values, the Confucian wisdom and the passion for life constitute a very special human culturally

exciting and sophisticated landscape of Beijing. Destination attraction in the Beijing context relies on the interaction with its local people and this human intervention acts as an overlay to the natural one and exists to filter or sanitize tourists' interface with it (Nadeau et al., 2008).

The structural model places the built environment between natural environment and local people. Exerting moderate path strength, built environment congruently match with two personality dimensions of excitement and competence. On one hand, the variety and quality of local transportation, utilities and local infrastructure and economic prosperity are evidences of the rapid modernization and economic competency of Beijing. However, there is still much space for Beijing to improve its status quo. On the other hand, Beijing is viewed quite positively in terms of its cultural attractions (e.g., temples, hutongs, vernacular quadrangle courtyard) that make up part of the built environment. Beijing also boasts splendid world heritage sites (e.g., Forbidden City, Summer Palace and Prince Gong Mansion), great abundance of folk culture (e.g., scissor-cut arts, dough figurine, leather-silhouette show) and the modern entertainment complex (e.g., theme parks, Toys "R" Us, LinkClub). The built environment equips Beijing with the exciting atmosphere.

Socially responsible environment positively relates to competence and sophistication. Without the social commitment, the destination will

never be deemed as competently and sophisticatedly strong. It is therefore making sense that going socially responsible and moral is the direction of destination development. However, this very important image attribute of Beijing is not satisfactory by foreign tourists given its low rating. The descriptive result provides insight into the perceptions of foreign tourists that socially responsibility of the destination really sells (Font & Buckley, 2001). Going green is one of the criteria to be socially responsible. More and more tourists want to believe that their use of tourism facilities and their presence in destination will not damage the resources they visit and embrace the promise offered by destinations. Environmental concerns among the public and a growing number of tourists willing to choose greener destinations has made the socially responsible environment one of the key tools to gain competitive advantage, and a common element of tourism's segmenting, targeting and positioning strategies (Font & Buckley, 2001). On the other hand, the rights and freedoms should be guaranteed in spite of the sensitivity of political tension and human rights controversy in China.

From the destination personality side, excitement, sophistication, competence are found to be the destination personality dimensions that have most significant paths with cognitive designation image and therefore obtain the largest variance explained by the cognitive designation image. These three personality dimensions are highly related to the social,

economic, and cultural perspectives. Therefore, starting from the perspectives of foreign tourists, it is essential for Beijing or destinations in a similar position to direct resources toward those market segments whose motivation are linked to the green and social responsibility, utilitarian function of built facilities, cultural elements and local people education. Make cultural elements an example, development of cultural tourism with tourists' involvement in the two-way interactions with local Beijing people will be attractive to foreign tourists. A few aspects could be emphasized about Beijing. First, the culture diversity of Beijing could be exhibited to tourists through its variety of gastronomy. Second, Beijing has a unique aboriginal culture that is thousands of years old. Their folktales, handicrafts and arts provide foreign tourists with more understanding and respect of the long history and culture of the land. Again, the study uses Beijing people in the discussion. Most of the respondents indicated their desire to make friends and have intimate interaction with local Beijing people. The legendized Chinese Kongfu, the Mao socialism, the forbidden stories of dynasties, the dragon icon, the eastern Confucius value, and the national competency in global economic development all brand Beijing people with the mark of curiosity that attract foreign people. However, language barriers obviously exist when foreign tourists would like to communicate with local Beijing people. It is strongly suggested that the campaigns of learning English among Beijing residents, especially among those middle-aged people and service providers, should be widely and strongly promoted in

Beijing. It is suggested that Beijing people's fluent communication with an open mind will be the best showcase of China's opening up and the most important window to display the Chinese culture and value to the outside world.

7.2.2 Effects of Destination Personality on Behavioural Intentions

To understand why tourists have behavioural intentions, the concentration has come along with an considerable interest in identifying the antecedents of behavioural intentions, including satisfaction (Mittal et al., 1999; Severt et al., 2007; Spreng et al., 1996; Tam, 2000), quality related constructs (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Jenkins, 1999), perceived value (Bojanic, 1996; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Petrick & Bachman, 2002ab) as the manipulated variables, past vacation experience (Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Kozak, 2001; Petrick et al., 2001), safety (Chen & Gursoy, 2001), image (Milman & Pizam, 1995; Ross, 1993), attachment (Petrick, 2004), and cultural difference (Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Reisinger & Turner, 1998). In such occasions, the contribution of these factors to behavioural intentions prevailingly dominant the existing body of tourism literature. Destination personality is related to behavioural intentions because destination personality through emotions and affective congruency can be antecedents of behavior. A handful of business studies (e.g., Aaker et al., 2001; Fournier, 1998; Kotler & Gertner, 2002) take the initiative to deepen the understanding of brand personality that is congruent with consumers' self-

image and its consequent stimulation on intentional output of being loyal to the brand. In these generic marketing and business literature, several theoretical frameworks exist to understand brand personality and the consequent behavioural intentions but still, much confusion surrounds the nature of the relationship between these two concepts. Understanding the determinant of loyalty will allow destination management sectors to concentrate on the major influencing destination personalities that lead tourists' loyalty behavior (Oppermann, 2000). The study therefore echoes the assertion and empirically identifies the important factors influencing tourists' destination loyalty. It discovers that the two dimensions of behavioural intentions are applicable in the study to test the casual relationship with destination personality. They are word-of-mouth intentions and willingness to pay more intentions.

Overall, the structural equation modeling shows that destination personality is important in driving positive behavioural intentions. Of particular note is the strong direct relationship of both sophistication and competence personalities about the destination to word-of-mouth intentions and willingness to pay more. For excitement, foreign tourists tend to pass around the positive comments to other people when they find destination exciting. However, they are not willing to pay more for the exciting destination experience. It makes sense that word-of-mouth as a free loyalty expression outlet is cost-effective for tourists but also beneficial to

destination. Because of the personal nature of the communications between individuals, it is believed that destination information communicated in this way has an added layer of credibility, and thus the revenue impact and economic consequence could still be expected. In sum, excitement, sophistication and competence personalities of the destination are critical to behavioural intentions by exerting crucial influence on destination loyalty intentions. People who have a higher emotional preference and congruent recognition towards the personality type of competence and sophistication are more likely to be those who are expecting cultural encounters and fun opportunities in Beijing. This should be important information for Beijing destination planners and marketers in terms of providing a satisfactory experience to meet the expectation of foreign tourists.

Specifically, the pervasive impact of sophistication on the behavioural intentions is unlikely to be a coincidence. The exotic oriental sophistication of romantic, charming and glamorous inspires foreign tourists' intentions to be loyal to the destination. Driven by the novelty-seeking motivations, they are willing to check out the new things and intentionally jump out of the routine and find an escape in the destination. The sophisticated culture of oriental Beijing attracts their revisit and also inspires their intentions to introduce Beijing to other people. On the other hand, it is our common sense that in an unfamiliar place with the different

culture, we are excited and usually underestimate the value of money in the travelling. Tourists tend to consume more and pay more in the tourist destinations and Beijing is not an exception. People who can afford the time and expense to visit Beijing regard it as a place with lots of new things to see and learn. Visiting Beijing is a completely new experience for them.

The strength of the path between competence and behavioural intentions also reveals the importance of the competent destination personality on tourists' decision for this type of vacation experience. This is consistent with Beijing's image based on its economic development. Beijing is opened up as a destination city, and for most of the foreign tourists it is a land with extraordinarily rapid growth. Especially the successful staging of the 2008 Olympic Games has demonstrated the competence of Beijing. Subsequently a series of destination aspects (e.g., prosperity of economy, appreciation of the RMB, living standards) are represented through the competencies that are related to the anticipation of economic cost about the activities offered in Beijing. It is therefore quite understandable to tourists and they would like to pay more for the exciting experience in the destination. Although most tourists might not be really self-motivated to pay more, they would like to contribute to the reputation of Beijing as a destination by encouraging people they know to pay a visit to Beijing as demonstrated by the strong path between the competence destination personality and the word-of-mouth intentions. The reason might be that

tourism amenities usually come along with the economic competency of the destination. Therefore more travel opportunities and convenience become available and accessible to tourists and thus it is worthy to make this word-of-mouth.

However, while these three personalities of destination significantly and positively relate to tourists' behavioural intentions, ruggedness exerts no effect on behavioural intentions. This result seemingly suggests that when predicting the outcomes of causal relations between destination personality and behavioural intentions, it is the competency, sophistication and excitement that matter rather than the ruggedness. That is to say, when examining the impact of destination personality on the behavioural intentions, the key factors that come into play are competency, sophistication and excitement. Particularly, sophistication has overwhelming effect on all aspects of the behavioural intentions, with the largest variance explained in the three dimensions of behavioural intentions. The results indicate that foreign tourists who perceive the ruggedness personality of Beijing are less likely to develop attachment to the destination. The reason might be the fact that Beijing is not categorized as a rugged destination with much wild landscape and adventure experiences as Kenya. The major market Beijing should target is those tourists who seek cultural clues and social understandings of Beijing.

Personality types flourish in congruent destinations, which suggests that the more a destination pattern resembles a personality pattern, the more a tourist will find similar interests, competencies, values, traits and perceptions in the destination (Holland, 1985), and therefore they will find the destination reinforcing and satisfying. The findings reveal that tourists ascribe brand personality characteristics to destinations, and destination personality can be communicated by cognitive destination image and therefore induce behavioural intentions. This is also an important result because it situates tourists' intentions in the greater context of tourist-host dual emotional interaction. Therefore, applying Aaker's brand personality scales have a direct relevance to the tourism context simply because it finds the deep psychological connection between tourists' self-image and the destination affiliation. In other words, these results provide another strong evidence to support that tourism and psychology/business research areas can accommodate theoretical convergence using consumer behavior theory as the common thread. It suggests also that destination branding research should include a deeper set of underlying recognition and acknowledgement of a destination and its people to explain viewpoints about the destination and its attractiveness. A wider perspective is much more useful in understanding how to affect tourism recognition and behaviors.

7.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter follows up the previous chapters to present a detailed discussion on the research findings. Dimensionalities of constructs under study and their structural relations are presented. It reveals that a stable and valid four-dimensional cognitive destination image is identified for Beijing. The cognitive destination image including natural environment, built environment, socially responsible environment and local people covers multidimensional aspects of the destination and also communicates the recent concerns toward the particular events in China. The study also identifies the major components of destination personality that foreign tourists ascribe to Beijing in terms of sophistication and competence. This is another successful generalization of Aaker's BPS in the destination, though the significant personality dimensions identified in this eastern destination are quite different from those in the western destinations portrayed in the previous studies.

Furthermore, how cognitive image cues influence destination personalities and in turn drive behavioural intentions is examined. The results confirm that natural environment, socially responsible environment and local people are considered crucial factors that determine tourists' perceptions of destination personality. When considering the magnitude of path coefficients, built environment is not significant antecedents of destination personality. In the causal relations of destination personality and behavioural intentions, sophistication and competence are prevailing

predictors of behavioural intentions, while excitement exerts moderate impact and ruggedness is not that significantly influential on behavioural intentions in the context of Beijing. Similarly, the discussions are provided to guide the practical implementation of establishing the unique destination brand. Based on both literature and the social and cultural background, the rationales behind these findings are summarized into a salute to the culture.

The overall results demonstrate the applicability of the brand personality to eastern tourism destinations. Further to previous scholars' works in western destinations (e.g., Douglas & Mills, 2006; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Murphy & Moscardo, 2006), this study allows a test of the generalizability of these particular results obtained from the seldom mentioned destination of Beijing until the 2008 Olympics. The findings provide a good understanding of the image accents of foreign tourists when visiting a destination. The responsible atmosphere and interaction with local people further transfer to their destination personality identification. The study supports an important role for destination personality in reflecting tourists' understanding of cognitive destination image, demonstrating that tourists judge a destination along four cognitive destination image cues and that these judgments drive subsequent emotional attachment and behavioural intentions towards this destination. In turn, the congruent personalities drive emotional attachment and contribute to greater spending and positive recommendation for the destination.

CHAPTER 8

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The unique theoretical findings provide many unique clues for practical implications. From the standpoint of destination planners and marketers, this chapter discusses practical implications to destination management and marketing. Section 8.1 dissects implications to tap a holistic and integrated destination image along four cognitive aspects, minimizing the possible negative perceptions and maximizing the influence of positive image traits. Section 8.2 moves on to discuss the marketing implementations about establishing a unique destination personality, therefore differentiate the destination from its rival counterparts in this highly competitive environment. In sum, this chapter provides details tactics that could directly serves to the niche positioning of the destination. Section 8.3 makes a summary of this chapter.

8.1 TAPPING THE FAVORABLE DESTINATION IMAGE

In nowadays' competitive environment, creating and managing an appropriate destination image have become vital for effective destination marketing. Based on the "Big-five" consumer psychology theory, the study supports an important role for destination personalities in explaining destination tourist outcomes, demonstrating that foreign tourists judge the destination of Beijing along four environment cues and that these judgment

drive subsequent emotional congruent with destination personalities and behavioural intentions.

Overall, the results of the study show that socially responsible environment is the most portrayed environment, accounting most of the total variance of cognitive destination image. Tourists' perceptions about civil rights and green management demonstrate that these attributes have already captured their attention. Again, the leading cognitive image, social responsible environment, is very important in driving positive emotional congruence with the destination in terms of competence and sophistication, and in turn influences behavioural intentions. However, the socially responsible environment is perceived by foreign tourists at a very low level. Thus, the industry would find it useful to promote travel to the destination by building on the strong positive image about its social concern and responsibility. From the green management perspective, of course it is crucial for destination planners and marketers to implement environmentally friendly measures. It is also very necessary to boost the green image of the destination by emphasizing the importance of various environmental issues to current or prospective tourists in the green promotion campaigns. In addition, destination planners and marketers should seize the appropriate opportunities to promote the environmentally friendly image. For instance, destination planners and marketers could advertise their ecological practice (e.g., recycling, control of emission,

energy conservation) to prospective tourists using web-based communications.

Although civil rights is this kind of topic beyond the tourism industry's concern in boosting the international political image of the destination. It is still worthwhile for destination planners and marketers coupled with the local government to take interest in its international image, that is, eliminate negative media coverage due to political issues and human rights and develop its promotions to mitigate or take advantage where warranted. Of particular note is that, to make Third World destination more attractive for Western tourists, for example, tourism promotions, media, and popular literature tend to mystify such destinations as if they were devoid of problems (Britton 1979; Cohen 1993; Silver 1993). As a Third World destination whose destination image is shaped by conflicting ideological forces, for a long time Beijing has been portrayed by western media through a prism image of primitiveness and exoticism. The discrepancy between Beijing's touristic representations and reality is huge. It is therefore the right time to resist those representations with media campaigns of its own. It is recommended that Beijing should construct a touristic representation that highlights human care, political stability, respect for justices and individual rights, moral quality and a sanitized Asian city to the outside world using multiple information channels. These

efforts would to some extent pay off and effectively improve tourists' overall perceptions or images of a socially responsible destination.

In particular, as tourism changes from a purely economic to a socioeconomic instrument of a destination, destination management sectors now confront with the problem of reformulating a viable role for tourism within the destination. In other words, the socially responsibility may have to be strictly legitimized, and shown to be a socially responsible image of the destination. As a consequence, the risks of melamine-contaminated milk, the large-scale recall of made-in-China lead tools, the attacks of sandy storms, the eradication of emissions, the internet censorship and human rights issue could gain enough attention from all the destination stakeholders. This means that destination development as a process for designing the future, for committing and being responsible, for encouraging innovation, for learning, and for influencing must ultimately be integrated into a process of managing. A variety of representatives from interested community, business and governmental constituencies of the destination should get together in order to determine an ideal approach to managing tourism within the destination as a whole. In other words legislation, goal and objective determination, and strategy development should represent an ideal set of socially responsible outcomes. In sum, international recognition of the destination is increasingly being tested by the degree to which it enhances opportunity and reduces social, economic

and environmental disparities. Only by stakeholders' involvement and the legislation within the destination the socially responsible environment could be accomplished.

Echoing the socially responsible environment, natural environment also exerts strong effect on destination personality and behavioural intentions. The reality is that nowadays tourists tend to choose green ecotourism experience and moving away from metropolis travel. Given the criticized status quo of downtown Beijing with unclean blue-sky, poor air quality and frequently erupting sandy storms in the downtown Beijing (Reuters News, 2009), an suggestion for destination planners and marketers in this regard might be to think out of the urban box and attend the significant lacuna in satellite villages around Beijing. Destination planners and marketers could describe a vivid kaleidoscope of landscapes out of the central downtown. Destination planners and marketers could package the ample natural tourism resources there (e.g., beautiful mountains, nice lakes, great scenery, adventure activities, outdoorsy experience) to tourists. Marketing descriptions of the natural beauty could either be related to untouched and wild nature or some focus on state run reserves and parks. For example, destination planners and marketers could develop the Farm-house Enjoyment Tourism as a form of rural tourism, where tourists could see the beautiful region, explore the mountains and lakes or take part in the many activities and leisure sports

on offer in the farmland. The idyllic culture is a kind of ecological ethics which returns to nature and pursues simple romantic atmosphere (Acott, Trobe & Howard, 1998). Moreover, new travel patterns such self-guided tours to suburban forest parks and equestrian parks could also be developed and promoted to tourists by destination planners and marketers. Obviously, availing the natural scenery resources and develop tourist attractions on the outskirts demands an extending transportation (e.g., high-speed railway) in all directions to link the downtown Beijing to the urban areas. The built environment should also be included in considerations when planning the natural tourism stimuli.

Another strong effect on destination personalities is exerted by local people, which significantly drives destination personalities and behavioural intentions. It is evident that an important motive for tourists going on a pleasure vacation is to meet local people and see their culture, even some travelling are people oriented rather than place oriented (Crompton, 1979). The social interaction with local people consists of the most important perceptions of the destination. Therefore, the strong positive position on people aspects may differentiate Beijing from other destinations. According to the findings, Beijing is generally well liked, is seen to possess positive social and cultural traits, and foreign tourists enjoy being with local people. However, considering the missing dimension of sincerity which is identified to be the most relevant to local people, the findings reveal that Beijing is in

need of the favorable image about its citizens to the outside world. Internally and most importantly, educational campaigns of the social moral and public manners should be considerably arranged, particularly the this most appropriate time as China is ambitious to host mega-events such as Olympic Games and the World Expo; externally, the populace's cultivation should be effectively communicated. Destination planners and marketers should press the key words of the honest people who are not hidden from the authority or being afraid of being involved into serious problems, the highly civilized people with moral quality and awareness, the responsible people who treat tourists sincerely and friendly with high business ethical standards, the self-disciplined people aligned with appropriate public manners. It is believed that the growing but trustworthy media coverage towards the favorable quality of people could manipulate international perception and therefore imply more foreign arrivals to Beijing.

The built environment remains an important contributor to the image even when the perceptions are dominated by nature, socially responsibility and local people. This means that destination planners and marketers ignore the built environment at their peril. Although the effect is not quite as significant compared to that of socially responsible environment and local people, built environment also drives emotional congruence of excitement and competence and behavioural intentions. This suggests that built environment such as economic development, local infrastructure,

transportation convenience and cultural activities should be monitored for quality and variety in an effort to build good feelings and loyal appreciations. Thanks to the outstanding economic performance of China in the global downturn, the steady finance policy and monetary policy give many opportunities to guarantee the growth of the tertiary industry, where the star industry is tourism. Thus destination planners and marketers should stay focused to utilize the governmental funds in improving the hardware constructions of the destination, enhance the tourism amenity and facilitate the access of tourist attractions. Beijing is a geographically vast city with relatively scattering tourism sites and amenities, where the versatile transportation and infrastructure (e.g., foot-bridges, highways, metros, buses) could serve as threads to connect geographically scattering sites and make Beijing tourism industry a systematic and efficient network. This implementation, of course, involves reducing the use of private vehicles, directly benefiting the socially responsible environment (e.g., control of emissions, energy conserving, enhancing local residents' environmental awareness) and natural environment (e.g., overall scenic beauty, air quality), and therefore drive more congruent personality recognition from the foreign tourists and in turn inspire positive destination loyalty. In addition, the tangibly built environment, the intangible assets of the destination is another important aspect of destination image. Destination planners and marketers could consider highlighting Beijing's cultural richness and diversities in this regard. For example, the beautiful contrast

between modern urban areas and mysterious imperial red walls and golden roofs could be a fine selling point of assimilation of the ancient and modern, past and present, and the old and new. Furthermore, references to the innumerable historical buildings that documents Beijing's thousands of years old history and UNESCO declared world heritage sites, unparalleled architecture craft should also been embedded in the promotion press. Destination planners and marketers should also develop unique events with culturally relevant and interesting entertainment opportunities, experiences, and contests to attract the foreign tourists. The successfully staged Olympic Games are definitely one of these high-profile events which directly brand Beijing's tourism. Besides, tourism promotion events and thematic festivals such as Beijing International Tourism Fair, the Ditan Temple Fairs, Daxing Water Melon Festival, Cangping Carnivals and Beijing lantern shows are also idea examples that destination planners and mangers could consider in their strategic marketing plans to boost the incoming tourist flows.

The results of the present study support the need to consider all elements of the destination image not just those related to the destination personality characteristics because they are implicitly correlated with each other and therefore could not be set apart. Importantly destination planners and marketers should strive to create a holistic positive experience for tourists. Things that lead to positive perceptions or the avoidance of

negative perceptions will definitely pay off. Socially responsibility and local people, for example, come together to create a unique and recognizable destination image embodied with specific emotional ties of appreciated destination personality, thereby resulting in positive behavioural intentions. Representation of tourism destinations involves dynamic and at times aggressive disputes among groups that want their versions of the story to be told (Bruner 1996; Cohen 2001). Destination planners and marketers may therefore keep pursuing the neutral or unbiased representation of Beijing within the context of inequalities in global circuits of economic and cultural capitals.

8.2 BRANDING THE UNIQUE DESTINATION PERSONALITY

Destination personality has been increasingly accepted as being of central importance to the success of destination marketing (Hosany et al., 2006). Much management effort goes into establishing strategies and operating procedures which will lead to competitive advantage and to measuring performance against rival destinations through benchmarking initiatives. The present study provides evidence that personality traits are ubiquitous in tourists' evaluations of destinations. Thus it seems beyond doubt that destination planners and marketers should concern themselves with both the personality and the image of the destinations under their change if they are to differentiate themselves in today's competitive holiday market and influence tourists' intentions to be loyal. Also, destination

planners and marketers should stay focused on developing promotional campaigns that concentrate the unique personality of the destination based on the perceived cognitive destination image.

Applications of the proposed model in this study are expected to assist the destination in aligning important marketing strategies with its image and personality building and vice versa. For instance, the observation of the mismatch between the perceived and projected image at the emotional attachment levels points directly to the weakness of destination planners and marketers' strategies in positioning and target markets. Slogans in destination advertising as an example, they should communicate unique selling propositions of the destination possessing diverse entities both geographically and culturally like Beijing. Although many destinations plan to launch and promote a citywide theme as a unifying coordinating and reinforcing mechanism or strive for an overall consistent image of the city (e.g., Blending the east and the west for Hong Kong), there are obstacles for successful implementation due to geographic heterogeneity. Therefore the cooperative branding (Cai, 2002) emphasizing the importance of selecting a brand element or element mix to represent the brand identity sells in practice. In this regards, destination planners and marketers of Beijing should develop an appealing brand name supported by consistent image building and personality recognition to

allow communities to develop unique and distinct niche market in the competition.

According to Lohela (2008), the destination creates its brand personality by portraying the destination's personality throughout every step in the organization, for example, in marketing activities of tourism administrative sectors. A strong connection between the destination's core culture and destination personality can be identified. Surprisingly, by far Beijing does not have a particular tourist destination logo and slogan. These brand assets are recommended to be used by Beijing in order to highlight the destination personality. The administrative sectors should use image marketing in order to communicate the destinations brand personality to target markets. Particularly, several marketing activities are suggested to Beijing. For example, adverting message should be coherent, which means that every official channel of Beijing should communicate the overall destination message. Destination characteristics are embedded in metaphors, and in the case of cultural Beijing both metaphors and culture related words are used in advertising messages supported by imaginative pictures and themes. In addition, culture is also a part of the discussion of sustainable development and embedded into the advertising message.

Perhaps the most significant findings involve the role of destination personality, which directly, positively and strongly determines both word-of-

mouth intentions and willingness to pay more. The study empirically demonstrates that destination personalities congruent with foreign tourists' self recognitions serve as important facilitators, or mediators, of the effect of the cognitive destination images on tourists' reactions. Practically cognitive destination image mainly communicate the destination personalities of competence and sophistication, which in turn display significant direct relationships with behavioural intentions. Therefore, destination planners and marketers should also capitalize on these findings by devising an appropriate branding strategy that encompasses these two components in order to convey a favorable destination personality. More specifically, destination planners and marketers should concentrate on developing efficient communication methods to launch a distinctive and attractive personality for Beijing. In terms of facilitators, it has been suggested that destination personality could be boosted by a multitude of marketing variables, such as user imagery and media coverage (Plummer, 1985). Destination planners and marketers may also improve the positive impact of destination personalities on intentions to be loyal by destination management tactics (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006)

The results seemingly suggest that when predicting the outcomes of behavioural intentions, it is the affectively based destination personalities of sophistication and competence that matter rather than the other destination personality dimensions. In line with several studies which adopt the same

conceptualization for destination personality, the results suggest that destination personality is in nature a psychological complex, which is evidenced by the fact that the impact direction and magnitude of each dimension is quite different. That is, destination personality as a whole has an important influence on tourists' experiences in the destinations but individually the impacts varies among different destination personality dimensions. Just as thousands of people have thousand faces, the various destinations display diverse personality characteristics. Instead of positioning the destination in a single dimension, the current empirical findings support this belief of branding the destination in a colorful package to cater as many tourists as possible but the focus should be – and have to be- culture. When applying the research findings in practical destination management and promotion, it should be borne in mind that the most eye-catching destination personality measure, sophistication, is based on the profound Chinese culture. Chinese culture is old and very traditional. There is great potential in China for specialized tourism, focusing on ethnic groups and historic cultures. This assertion has gained support from many previous studies. For example, Beerli and Martin (2004) suggest that the growing market in ecotourism and authentic tourism in the developed world will find considerable opportunities.

Furthermore, since it is the underlying image congruence that drives tourists' identification of destination personality, to create a niche for itself

Beijing could consider implementing image congruence measures on ideal social images in positioning the destination to target image congruence. For example, destination planners and marketers could assess image congruence between typical tourists' image and self-images on ideal image and capture the current level of image congruence (Lee & Back, 2009). The gap is then located on the perceptual map between current image congruence and target image congruence in the dimensions of ideal self-image. Following this process, destination planners and marketers could position Beijing to target image congruence by filling in the gap through a marketing mix. The successful case could be found in Pitt et al. (2007), where a correspondence analysis plot is developed to communicate the brand personality of the African countries.

Last but not least, to keep up with extremely competitive environment, there are also more general practical implications of the study. For example, the vulnerability of destinations to certain risks (e.g., imperfect infrastructural, social scandals, political injustices, language barriers, natural deterioration and pollution) should be emphasized in establishing destination personality. The importance of destination and people to the image underlines these potential risks negatively affecting destination attachment. Therefore destination marketers should consider people and place as an integrated package to be projected to the tourists. Furthermore, Beijing should consider a "recommendation-based"

promotional program to encourage more arrivals. Current tourists indicated their willingness to recommend the destination to others. Indeed, this particular factor achieves the highest rating of all scales in this study. This would suggest there is considerable untapped promotional potential in the beliefs held by tourists.

8.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The destination planners and marketers may wish to consider several main research outcomes. First, the destination's message about socially responsible environment and green management should remain a focus. Second, the destination planners and marketers would find it useful to promote travel to the destination by building on the strong positive beliefs about its people. Thirdly, the Beijing government has the main stakeholder should take interest in its international image of political stability and social concern as well as launch some educational campaigns about the public manners and moral quality. Fourth, Beijing should consider a "recommendation-based" promotional program to encourage more international arrivals. There are also more general practical implications of the study could be made in terms of understanding potential risks to the destination image distortion.

Travel and tourism has become a strategic industry in Beijing's development toward a socialist market economy (Zhang & Lew, 2002). Two

decades of development have yielded both positive experiences and hard lessons. The destination is still probing better ways of developing a strong travel and tourism industry that can compete successfully in regional and global markets. Beijing faces many opportunities and challenges in developing its tourism in the increasingly competitive environment. China's tourism has a bright future, although arduous efforts will be required to develop it effectively. The compilation of this study presents the diverse opportunities and challenges that Beijing faces, as well as some of the strategies that help to bring about more successful future development. To look out upon, as Beijing seeks to adapt to global change and contested identities, it still has a long way to go to negotiate the challenges of updating its appeal to visitors and maintaining its distinctiveness in the face of pressures for standardisation and of reinterpreting complex histories as it represents itself to domestic and global audiences.

CHAPTER 9

RESEARCH CONCLUSION

This chapter starts with an overview of the present study in Section 9.1. Section 9.2 makes a careful examination of whether research questions have been answered and research objectives have been achieved or not. Contribution and significance to both theoretical development and managerial advancement are discussed in Section 9.3. Despite the importance of this study, some limitations are presented in Section 9.4. As this study evolves, future research directions are pinpointed in Section 9.5. Section 9.6 summarizes this chapter and concludes the entire thesis.

9.1 RESEARCH OVERVIEW

Beijing as the national capital is an important destination in its own right and makes a leading contribution to the image and representation of China, whilst its historic and political center is the important component of national heritage. As a result, it attracts large numbers of visitors, and exemplifies themes that apply in other cities and areas within China. Especially after the massive media coverage of Olympics, Beijing outstands as the most compelling destination in the Asian region. At a time of increasing city competition, Beijing is at the forefront of efforts to gain

competitive advantage for itself and its China, to project a distinctive and positive image and to score well in global city league tables. Since Beijing is China's focal point and the main tourist gateway, its success is inextricably linked with that of the nation. Although the tourism industry has been supported and emphasized in Beijing's strategic development in the past decades, there is surprisingly sparse attention and effort to establish the destination uniqueness and to promote a Very-China destination personality. It has often been commented that any discussion of tourism in China is never far removed from a consideration of government, and this is definitely true in this instance. From the work of Zhou and Ma (2008) and others, destination attachment can be connected with participation in local administration.

This study is undertaken with the backdrop of Beijing's rise as a viable tourism destination after the Olympic Games, through which it has experienced phenomenal growth of both domestic and inbound tourism. It is worthwhile to reflect the performance of Beijing and seek tourists' opinions on its sustainable growth in the competitive environment. Creating and managing an appropriate destination personality have become vital for effective product positioning. The study provides evidence that personality traits are ubiquitous in tourists' evaluations of tourism destinations. Based on the compelling components of cognitive destination image, destination

marketers should concentrate on developing promotional campaigns that emphasize the distinctive personality of the destination.

Specifically, this study starts from looking at the structural relationships of cognitive destination image, destination personality and behavioural intentions in the context of post-Olympic Beijing. Among cognitive natural environment, built environment, socially responsible environment and local people, built environment and local people are considered crucial factors that determine tourists' perceptions of destination personality. The outstandingly explained destination personality of Beijing is competency and sophistication. When considering the magnitude of standard coefficients, natural environment and local people are significant antecedents of destination personality. In the causal relations of destination personality and behavioural intentions, sophistication and competence are prevailing predictors of behavioural intentions, while ruggedness is not that significantly influential on behavioural intentions in the context of Beijing.

Overall, this study shows that Beijing has the unique cognitive destination image which exerts stronger effects on foreign tourists' congruent identification of destination personality. Particularly, the results indicate that socially responsible environment touches the bottom line of destinations, forcing them to be green and socially responsible and thus become internationally recognized. Given the unique features of Beijing as

a rising city colliding with eastern traditions and modern values under the curtain of Olympic Games, tourists are more attracted and have more positive behavioural intentions when their emotional self-image is attached to the cultural aspects such as destination personality characteristics of sophistication and competence. These findings suggest the possibility that foreign tourists consider unique cultural and utilitarian amenities when they choose the most favored destination. Among destination personality dimensions, sophistication and competency are found to be factors that best serve tourists' desire of being culturally immersed and amenity amused and therefore provides significant prediction in the behavioural intention model. This indicates that although excitement is important in tourists' destination travelling experience, foreign tourists may consider it a common and basic attribute that all destinations should have. The destination personality of ruggedness, a suppressed personality of Beijing by other destination personality dimensions, is not a strongly emphasized positioning of Beijing and therefore not a determinant factor to behavioural intentions. In terms of destination personality as the predictor for behavioural intentions, sophistication and competency account for much variance of behavioural intentions. Excitement does not affect the willingness to pay more and therefore directly relates to the economic effectiveness concern of the destination. Although ruggedness is a less explanatory variable and does not significantly work in predicting behavioural intentions compared with other destination personalities, it

illuminates the destination positioning with applicable emphasis. Thus, viewing Beijing's destination personality in a full picture provides much useful information about the strategic development of Beijing. The affective variables work dominantly in the behavioural intention formation in the destination, strongly relating to the cultural implications of the destination. Traditional Chinese cultural cues are a "gilded signboard" of Beijing in effective strategic development to appeal to foreign tourists.

The potential of Beijing to become an icon of international destinations has not been fully implemented due to lack of attention from government and municipal authorities. Positioning and differentiation of this city fulfills personality attributes given by the theoretical framework, for example, competence, sophistication and excitement. Crafting the destination with the unique destination personality requires a combination of the proper marketing tools and strategies implemented in the targeting markets. Traditionally recognized promotional tools (advertising, public relations, sales promotion, indirect marketing) and tourism-specific tools (brochures) have an important role in Beijing's marketing strategies in foreign market. Those tools should, due to the limited marketing budget, be optimally combined and developed with strategic aims for different foreign markets. Although advertising is recognized as the most important marketing tool in the destination brand implementation (Konecnik & Go, 2007), the importance of public relations and the internet should also be

stressed. On top of these experiences, the researcher considers the input of local Beijing residents a vital course of action. Their participation and assistance is seen as a means to support Beijing's tourism marketing campaign. Two actions are therefore suggested. First, Beijing people should understand the process of brand building as a complex process and capability to detect structural coherence in not only objects (e.g., visual identity, slogan and logo), but also persons. Secondly, securing consensus among stakeholders is also essential so as to bring about a systemic approach towards the process of brand -building implementation. The proposed framework in this study and suggested destination personality formation can serve as a departure point.

9.2 RESPONSE TO RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The present study has been successful in terms of accomplishing the research objectives and answering the research questions outlined in Chapter 1. The main purpose of this study is to examine and understand the causal relations that influence the formation and impact of destination personality. A conceptual framework is developed to understand destination personality perceived by tourists, the cognitive destination image observed in the destination, and the corresponding intentions to be loyal to the destination. The relations among constructs of research interest are examined to reach the major research objectives. Seven research objectives have been well achieved and two groups of hypothesized causal

relations are tested. The overall research findings are presented in the TABLE 9.1.

The first objective is to capture the cognitive destination image of Beijing. Cognitive image is defined as the belief and knowledge about a destination attributes while affective image is the emotional feeling of tourists towards the destination (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Son & Pearce, 2005; Walmsley & Young, 1998). The results indicate that a stable structure of four dimensions is identified for Beijing: nature environment, built environment, socially responsible environment and local people.

The second research objective is to identify the destination personality of Beijing. Destination personality originates from the concept of brand personality in the business domain, indicating the set of human characteristics associated to a tourism destination (Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal, 2006), bringing invaluable benefits to destinations by positioning a unique brand identity (Fournier 1998, 2001). Destination personality is empirically measured by five-dimensional Aaker's Brand Personality Scales. They are excitement, sophistication, ruggedness, competence and sincerity. There is an increasing application of brand personality to destinations in western context in the body of tourism literature. This study examines the eastern Beijing using Aaker's BPS. There are four dimensions of destination

personality, namely excitement, sophistication, competence and ruggedness.

The third research objective is to understand how cognitive destination image characterizes destination personality. A group of causal relations are hypothesized to examine the positive relations between cognitive destination image and destination personality. Among the total 24 hypotheses, 15 hypotheses are supported while nine fail to work. Natural environment associates to the destination personality of sophistication, excitement and competence. Built environment has positive impact on two dimensions of competence and excitement. Socially responsible environment positively affects two dimensions of competence and sophistication. Local people are positively related to three DP dimensions of sophistication, excitement and competence. The results suggest that foreign tourists establish their perception towards destination personality through observing cognitive destination image, especially the natural environment and local people.

The fourth research objective is to identify which cognitive image dimensions are the most/least strongly related to destination personality. Given the causal relations between cognitive destination image and destination personality, it is therefore reasonable to identify the strongest / least relations that are significant in the structural equation modelling.

According to magnitudes of path coefficients, local people strongly relates to competence, excitement and sophistication. Natural environment crafts Beijing's destination personalities as of excitement, sophistication and ruggedness. Socially responsible environment and natural environment are less strongly related to destination personality, each identifying two significant paths to destination personality.

The fifth research objective is to explore how destination personality impacts behavioural intentions. Correspondingly the second group of causal relations are hypothesized. The destination personality of ruggedness is not significantly related to behavioural intentions and therefore its hypothesized casual relationships with behavioural intentions are rejected. The research findings reveal that five hypotheses are supported, four out of them are between sophistication and competence with behavioural intentions. The one left is between excitement and word-of-mouth. The results indicate that willingness to pay more is not strongly expressed as consequence of destination personality congruence of foreign tourists. Most of the hypothesized relationships in this group are supported in casual paths between word-of-mouth intentions and destination personality by the empirical data.

The sixth research objective is to identify which destination personality dimensions are the most / least strongly related to behavioural

intentions. There is a prevailing positive effect of sophistication and competence on behavioural intentions, both strongly relates to word-of-mouth intentions and willingness to pay more. Excitement is significantly related to word-of-mouth intentions. It is noticed that ruggedness fails to casually relate to any behavioural intentions.

The seventh research objective is to derive marketing implications for enhancing Beijing's destination competency. A focus group method is adopted to explore the implications derived from the research findings. The participants are from hospitality industry. They are invited to discuss on the research findings and illuminate the researcher with their perspectives towards the destination marketing. The managerial insights and practical suggestions are made towards this objective.

TABLE 9.1 Summary of Research Findings

Research Objective	Research Hypotheses	Research Findings
To capture the cognitive destination image of Beijing	N/A	<p>Natural Environment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Beauty of lakes ○ Charm of mountains ○ Overall scenic beauty <p>Built Environment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Variety of cultural activities ○ Local transportation ○ Local infrastructure ○ Economic development <p>Socially Responsible Environment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Rights and freedom ○ Energy conserving ○ Environmental awareness of local residents ○ Control of emissions <p>Local People</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Friendliness and courteousness of local people ○ Local people' willingness to help tourists ○ Honesty and trustworthiness of local people
To identify the destination personality of Beijing	N/A	<p>Excitement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Daring ○ Spirited ○ Imaginative <p>Sophistication</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Glamorous ○ Charming ○ Romantic <p>Competence</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Responsible ○ Dependable ○ Reliable ○ Efficient <p>Ruggedness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Rugged ○ Tough ○ Strong ○ Outdoorsy
To understand how cognitive destination image characterizes destination personality	H1a to H1d	<p>NE→ Excitement (H1a.1): Supported</p> <p>NE→ Sophistication(H1a.2):Supported</p> <p>NE→ Competence (H1a-3): Not Supported</p>

		<p>NE→ Ruggedness(H1a-4): Supported</p> <p>BE→ Excitement(H1b.1):Supported</p> <p>BE → Sophistication (H1b.2):Not Supported</p> <p>BE → Competence(H1b.3):Supported</p> <p>BE → Ruggedness (H1b.4):Not Supported</p> <p>SRE → Excitement (H1c.1): Not Supported</p> <p>SRE → Sophistication (H1c.2): Supported</p> <p>SRE → Competence (H1c.3):Supported</p> <p>SRE → Ruggedness (H1c.4): Not Supported</p> <p>LP → Excitement (H1d.1): Supported</p> <p>LP → Sophistication (H1d.2): Supported</p> <p>LP → Competence (H1d.3): Supported</p> <p>LP → Ruggedness (H1d.4): Not Supported</p>
To identify which cognitive image dimensions are the most/least strongly related to destination personality	N/A	<p>Magnitude of Impact: ($p < 0.05$)</p> <p>NE→ Excitement: $\gamma_{11}=0.37$</p> <p>NE→ Sophistication: $\gamma_{13}=0.55$</p> <p>NE→ Ruggedness: $\gamma_{14}=0.46$</p> <p>BE→ Excitement: $\gamma_{21}=0.24$</p> <p>BE→ Competence: $\gamma_{22}=0.25$</p> <p>SRE→ Competence: $\gamma_{32}=0.26$</p> <p>SRE→ Sophistication: $\gamma_{33}=0.14$</p> <p>LP→ Excitement: $\gamma_{41}=0.26$</p> <p>LP→ Competence: $\gamma_{42}=0.43$</p> <p>LP→ Sophistication: $\gamma_{43}=0.25$</p>
To explore how destination personality impacts behavioural intentions	H2a to H2b	<p>Excitement→ WOM(H2a.1): Supported</p> <p>Excitement→ WPM(H2b.2): Not Supported</p> <p>Sophistication → WOM (H2a.2):Supported</p> <p>Sophistication → WPM (H2b.2):Supported</p> <p>Competence → WOM (H2a.3): Supported</p> <p>Competence → WPM (H2b.3): Supported</p> <p>Ruggedness → WOM (H2a.4):Not Supported</p> <p>Ruggedness → WPM (H2b.4):Not Supported</p>
To identify which destination personality dimensions are the most/least strongly related to behavioural intentions	N/A	<p>Magnitude of Impact: ($p < 0.05$)</p> <p>Excitement → WOM: $\gamma_{51}=0.26$</p> <p>Competence → WOM: $\gamma_{61}=0.25$</p> <p>Competence→ WPM: $\gamma_{62}=0.30$</p> <p>Sophistication → WOM: $\gamma_{71}=0.33$</p> <p>Sophistication → WPM: $\gamma_{72}=0.18$</p>
To derive implications for Beijing's destination development	N/A	Managerial Implications

9.3 SIGNIFICANCE AND CONTRIBUTION

In the marketing literature, the importance of the brand personality seems to be commonly accepted as an important perspective on brand investigation. In contrast, the tourism research publications have paid little attention to this topic. This observation presents a motive for this study, which provides both theoretical and empirical underpinning for the tourism destination brand concept from the tourists' perspective. When we draw our attention to the real world problem, it might be obvious that, faced by strong competitive pressures, top tourism destinations are increasingly basing their brand identities on rich and distinct personalities. Destination personality is increasingly viewed as a viable metaphor for understanding tourists' perceptions of destinations and crafting a unique identity (Ekinci, 2006). However, research on destination brand personality is extremely sparse. And even though scales do exist to measure (and subsequently manage) brand personality, none are specifically designed for destinations making these scale's application questionable. The current study sets out to resolve this need by developing a brand personality scale specifically designed for the tourism destination across different cultures to gauge tourists' symbolic consumptions and their effects on behavior. This will contribute both theoretically and practically to the academic literature and help destination marketers design and implement superior marketing strategies and tactics.

9.3.1 Academic Contribution

This study contributes to the academic literature from a number of perspectives. This study proposes and confirms the relationships among the cognitive destination image, destination personality and behavioural intentions. This study demonstrates that built environment and local people of the cognitive destination image are direct antecedents of destination personalities and sophistication is the major determinant of behavioural intentions in the cultural setting. This study is unique in that it proposes and tests the moderating role of destination personality for the relationships between tangible perceived cognitive destination image and the emotional behavioural intentions. Investigating the mediating effect could be very helpful toward gaining a deeper understanding of the relationship between perceived destination image and the desired outcomes of loyal intentions in the destination setting. The research findings directly contribute to the brand personality, destination branding, destination image and tourist behavior literature. Particularly, most of these areas which are barely emerging but already lagging behind practitioners are in need of further development and contributions. By focusing strictly on the personality dimensions of destination brands the research will add depth and complement existing knowledge within the branding and tourism literature.

Even through substantial amounts had been written on the subject of brand personality, most of it is conceptual. Empirical work is the rare

exception, as no reliable, valid and generalizable instrument had been developed. This is not only impacting theoretical development, but also having a detrimental effect on practitioners as the nature, strength and clarity of brand associations could not be scientifically measured and managed (Aaker, 1991). Since the publication of Aaker's BPS, empirical research on brand personality has increased with most efforts based on this instrument (Opoku & Hinson, 2006). However, brand personality research has been primarily in the context of consumer goods, with few efforts addressing the personality of destination brands. It is only until fairly recently, with the advent of place branding, that this type of research has started to be undertaken (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006). Only few such study have been undertaken to echo this request in the context of tourism destinations and that even though the destination personality construct has been acknowledged and is used by practitioners, its specific dimensions and traits, as well as their arrangement, still remain to be identified. Finally, D'Astous and Boujbel (2007) call for additional brand personality research in the context of specific country activities, such as tourism. The limitations of Aaker's BPS, coupled with the suggested future research by the place brand personality literature, provide the basis for the present study. The findings of this study provide the most compelling case of tourism destination, the rapidly developed post-Olympic Beijing, to test Aaker's brand personality concept. This framework established in this study

provides future research with a base orientation for investigating the tourism destination brands.

The study adopts Aaker's (1997) BPS and takes the initiative to test its generalization in eastern tourist destinations. It initially answers the following questions of what destination personality could be generalized across destinations and what dynamic nature of destination personality is in a holistic manner by integrating variables in a structural model. The clarification of theoretical connection between cognitive destination image and destination personality through the affectively emotional link surpasses the superficial explanations in previous literatures. The overall pattern of the results supports a number of the assumptions that have been made about the destination branding process. In particular, the results support the importance of building a strong association between the destination and a brand personality. The present study, however, supports the addition of a condition to this proposal as suggested by Hosany and Ekinci (2003) and Ekinci (2003) – that the perceived brand personality must also match the needs and observations of the tourists. It is this matching that contributes to perceived cognitive destination image and the consequent self-congruity, which in turn is related to more positive outcomes, consistent with the claims of Surgy and Su (2000). However, further developments in the measurement of destination personality in a tourism destination context is

needed, in particular the need to determine whether there exists a portion of the market for whom this concept does not apply.

Last but not least, the study is a good experiment of the application of SEM methods in behavior research. As SEM has no entirely satisfying solutions to some potential statistical predicaments at the moment, the researcher should be very cautious when interpreting the statistical results. However, SEM as a relatively new and rapidly developing methodology has already been more and more frequently used in multi-disciplinary studies. In the current study, SEM not only helps to test the hypothesized relationships between the latent variables that could not be directly observed, but also enables the researcher to simultaneously examine the multiple interrelated dependence relationships pre-specified in a research model. Applying SEM method contributes to the quantitative studies in the field of existing tourism literature.

9.3.2 Managerial Contribution

This study has practical implications as well. Overall, positioning destination with a proper cognitive destination image is effective in matching tourists with congruent destination personality and inducing positive behavioural intentions. Specifically, foreign tourists consider built environment and local people as the most important cognitive destination image in Beijing, suggesting that they enjoy the tourist amenities and

interaction experience with Beijing folks. The cognitive destination image of Beijing includes not only built environment, but also natural environment and socially environment that are relatively poor to attract foreign tourists. Therefore, the industry practitioners need to consider keep improving the tourism facilities. This study also identifies that foreign tourists enjoy the cultural aspects presented in Beijing. For example, foreign tourists think of wandering in Beijing hutong a unique and fun experience. They also enjoy staying in the vernacular houses representing a disappearing authentic pattern of life. In these respects, industrial practitioners should emphasize Chinese cultural characteristics for the layout and facilities aesthetics of the built environment in order to appeal to foreign tourists. The cultural awareness and English proficiency of local people could also be enhanced in a continuous education campaigns because local people are an important window to show off the Chinese culture.

Among the emotional personality aspects identified for Beijing, sophistication is a most important factor to foreign tourists' behavioural intentions. This finding echoes the cultural variables of built environment and local people identified in the first causal relationship. Thus, industrial practitioners of Beijing should, make an effort to understand what cultural and conceptual elements are the most attractive ones to foreign tourists and to consistently monitor how foreign tourists evaluate the destination personality. These findings also suggest that in order to attract foreign

tourists of the same type of personality and to encourage them to visit more, Beijing should conduct a market segmentation of the generating countries and develop a more diverse tourist amenities with the focus of Chinese culture.

This study also provides strong evidence that place can be branded. This entails the development of strong, favorable and unique associations (in that order) among geographic locations' different stakeholders (Keller, 2003). Nowadays national and local governments around the world are going beyond traditional promotion/marketing efforts and instead embracing the holistic place branding concept in order to successfully face heightened global competition (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). Destination branding is particularly important for developing countries in their struggle to attract tourism, export and obtain foreign direct investment, among others (Papadopoulos, 2004). Even though destination branding is a difficult undertaking, its rewards may be enormous, potentially influencing a location's economic and social destiny (Anholt, 2005). In the particular case of top destinations, they too are increasingly turning to branding as it is the ideal vehicle, likely the most powerful resource that they have to differentiate and position themselves away from competitors, overcome commoditized markets with high price pressures and satisfy the emotional and symbolic requirements of today's tourists. However, top destination brands are basing their identities on rich and distinct personalities (Morgan

& Pritchard, 2004) as this enhances perceived utility, desirability and quality (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). It also improves the destination's image, visitor's intentions to recommend (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006), revisits (Douglas & Mills, 2006).

Although Beijing has undertaken many valuable actions in the recent decades aimed at Beijing's destination brand building, a clearly specified personality identity for Beijing is yet to emerge. Therefore, this study might be regarded as a potential contribution towards the systematic and comprehensive destination personality formulation and implementation. The study identifies specific and strong destination personalities that for Beijing to clearly and distinctly position itself. This is done by consciously communicating strong destination personality dimensions, such as competence, sophistication, excitement and ruggedness. The unique destination personality identification could assist the destination in effectively outstanding the rival destination brands and attracting tourists of the congruent personalities. The research results suggest that Beijing should give attention to destination personality dimensions when developing the aspects of destination as a whole. The open policy of China welcomes foreign tourist arrivals but tourists are only attracted to those who show similar personality traits as themselves as this is emotionally rewarding. But more importantly, tourists are also more easily influenced by communications that show similar personality characteristics to their own

(Moon, 2002). The proposed destination personality scale will help destination marketers understand the psychological dimensions of their brand, those of their competitors and see which ones are driving tourist preference. This in turn will aid in the design and implementation superior marketing strategies and tactics, helping the destination competes more effectively. The rising Beijing is expected to keep surprising foreign tourists and changing their outdated stereotypes towards Beijing. The sustainable economic growth is the only way to guarantee the competency. The priority should be drawn to enhance the entertainment ability of tourism facilities in Beijing. The branding and promotion of Chinese culture and Confusions values will facilitate the dissemination of eastern sophistication that attracts foreign tourists' curiosity to explore. And since personality traits seem to be universal (Pervin, Cervone & Oliver, 2005), the brand personality constructs are ideally suited for national branding initiatives. It will be quite useful if the destination personality study is carried out across other emerging destinations in both China and eastern countries.

The present study is on a strategic branding area and source of equity, namely that of brand equity (Aaker, 1991). More specifically, it addresses one of brand identity's core components, brand personality, and which has gained considerable acceptance among practitioners, academics and research subjects (Aaker, 1996). In line with the 2007 ANZMAC theme and with the issues and challenges that marketing

currently faces, the study addresses a strategic branding issue applicable to markets in the context of eastern destinations: The brand personality of tourism destinations and the development of a scale to measure it. The concept of brand personality should be worthy the application in destinations, and it will definitely consolidate itself as advertising's main focus (Kapferer, 2004).

9.4 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

This study has been conditioned by the theoretical background as well as methodological issues. As previously mentioned, the research concepts of interest in this study have not been well-examined in previous literatures. The existing results from previous studies are mixed and sometimes contradictory. No agreement has been reach on the conceptualization and empirical validation of cognitive destination image, destination personality and behavioural intentions. Since studies on destination marketing and branding have mushroomed in recent years. More exploratory research is therefore needed to be conducted in order to validate the research concepts of proposed model. In short, as this research evolves, various limitations in the project become evident. Further improvements are needed on the theoretical and practical level.

The first limitation resides on the generalization of the research findings. Primarily, the proposed model in this study is theorized through

the SEM techniques, and with a cross-sectional sample of foreign tourists in Beijing. As such, the findings are not to be generalized to the entire tourist population. Nevertheless, it represents a concept step towards the understanding of what foreign tourists think and care about when it comes to leisure travel in Beijing. Future inquiries on this population are encouraged and needed due to the unique nature of these individuals' cultural difference. Because of the size of this population, their thoughts and behaviors could significantly influence the development of Beijing. The researcher welcomes other scholars to further the conceptual development of a destination personality model for cross-cultural tourists; empirical studies are also needed to test the validity and adequacy of the theoretical model developed.

Secondly, the study provides an initial contribution to developing a richer understanding of destination through inclusion of destination image and personality constructs. The focus of this investigation is on Beijing and it involves only one destination and one kind of destination context. Could the multi-faceted approach be applied to other cities within China, or those in developing countries or regions that have experienced dramatic changes in a social and cultural context? Could the research findings be necessarily replicable in other settings such as different destinations or tourists of other origins? Empirical replication tests of the study are therefore in order. Future research testing the model in additional destinations and their types

is recommended. Again, comparative studies among destinations with similar recent development may unearth a new understanding of the roles social and cultural environments play in forming the perceptions and behaviors of foreign tourists. The reality might be, additional research is necessary to produce multiple destination brand personality frameworks that capture meaningful dimensions and distinctions between destinations when the analysis focuses on narrower sets of destinations within the same geographical and cultural region than those examined differently by Aaker (1997).

The third limitation may be drawn from the convenient sampling technique used in this study. The response about actual travelling experiences could have some bias. The disadvantage of the convenience sampling is that the statistical properties are inferior to those of the other sampling modes (Nelder, 1999). For instance, estimates from a convenience sample have to be regarded as biased unless one is willing to accept specific assumptions about the sampling process and the spatial and temporal variation. These assumptions are often debatable, and this may or may not be acceptable, depending on the context of the project. Moreover, as Visser et al. (2000) stated, convenience sampling can be a concern because the people who volunteer may be more interested in the survey topic than those who do not and the sample's potential lack of representativeness may affect the findings' generalizability.

Moreover, this study mainly focuses on the interrelationship of a few research concepts, which could be operationalized by destinations in the process of destination branding, image building and loyalty formation. Other factors which are known to exist and which affect these research topics (such as several other psychographic variables like motivations, values, quality, satisfaction, trust, switching intentions) are not included in the research. For the individual construct under study, the questionnaire survey method adopted in this study also entails some limitations on the number of variables and scales to avoid making the survey discouragingly long. Therefore, it would be interesting to undertake further research that enriches the research framework or explore other research instruments.

Finally, destination personality as an approach to explaining travel behavior differs from the conventional interpretations in economics where people are treated homogeneously in terms of their personality. In other words, behavior research in general follows the thought of psychological cognition, and tourist behavior is therefore thought to be aroused from, or determined by, individual's psychological characters such as personality; while for the rational people in economic theories, the effect personality is held constant so as to identify aggregate patterns by focusing on exogenous variables such as financial or time constraints. However, we could not go too far to make our wishes realistic. Destination personality might be an analogy for the destination image that we talk of today, or the

concept of brand personality proposed in marketing, but the development, evolution, or life cycle of a destination is too complex to be accommodated within a personality framework. Also, it is still worthwhile, several years after Ekinçi and Hosany's (2006) adaptation of destination personality, to trace back, discuss and rethink the original concepts and theories of brand personality established by Aaker (1997). Numerous studies have followed this approach to discuss interactive relationship between tourist and destination as well as the phenomenon of destination development. However we cannot say with full confidence that we have a good knowledge of how tourists act and how the destination system works without going back to the origins of the concepts. Since tourism has been discussed extensively on a multi disciplinary basis (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981) from an interdisciplinary perspective (Tribe, 1997), or even as a chaotic system (McKercher, 1999), the concept of destination personality has defined, from its own stand-points, the limits and scope within which we can talk about tourism as it currently stands.

9.5 FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Destination branding is a relatively new concept and there would be much avenues for further research. Although "branding" has been, and continues to be, used by retail and service organizations, the concept has only recently been applied to destination marketing. Because destination branding is a new concept, little research has been done to date. As well,

the crucial method of communicating the destination personality to tourists in the destination branding process is not widely known and used. Given its importance and effectiveness in the destination branding and marketing, the findings and techniques described in this study provide a number of future research opportunities for international marketing and tourism scholars. Obviously at a simple level it would be possible to include more destinations, either within China or across countries, especially these non-western destinations, in order to improve the generalization of the results. It would also be interesting to look at this study in terms of regional destinations. This could help unearth the similarities and differences in terms of the brand personality dimensions that are associated with a given destination. For example, Putt et al. (2007) conducts the cross-destination study by showing a perceptual map generated by the correspondence analysis between the brand personality dimensions and destinations. The graphical output in the map provides information about how the destinations and dimensions are positioned interactively with each other. Adopting this method, it would be interesting to conduct corresponding comparison among destinations and see which destinations are clustered near to which destination personality that they mostly communicate to the tourists. Industrial practitioners will find the comparison useful, and can tie the cases of other destinations to the destination under study, or use them as external validation of the findings in the destination.

Future research could also replicate the study by surveying different interest groups of the destination. Not only the buy-side tourists, but also other destination groups such as inhabitants, tourism industry representatives, ethnologists (Meethan, 2001). By combining and comparing their responses towards the destination personality, the research could be able to collect a comprehensive overview constituting the destination's personality as a tourism destination in relation to other important perspectives on the destination branding. It would be challenging to incorporate an even more comprehensive approach to its development such as ethnography (Meethan, 2001) or some narrative analyses (Boje, 2001). It is believed the stakeholders' opinions, combined with those of foreign tourists, should be carefully considered in the in the destination marketing process.

Other opportunities in this regard might involve a longitudinal tracking of the data. SEM techniques described here can aid longitudinal research, so that the effects of any changes in the destination personality as communicated on other variables, such as cognitive destination image and of course behavioural intentions, can be tracked over time and conclusions drawn. The research techniques of SEM are reasonably easy to conduct at low cost, and the results are also quite easy to interpret. As research of this type is based on a tourist survey, and can therefore be claimed to be representatives of tourist perceptions, as is Aaker's (1997)

original intent, the approach has been constructed, all categorization and subsequent analysis is conducted by computer. The SEM approach permits international marketing and tourism scholars to understand the destination personality relative to others, especially the antecedent cognitive images and the consequent behavioural intentions. This could be important in a current market, in order to evaluate various destination personality strategies, but could also be a useful tool in the investigation of markets to be entered. By examining what is currently being perceived and emphasized in the target markets, the destination can better craft the destination personality to be portrayed by target markets, in a way that will permit the destination brand to stand out as something unique and be valued. Also obviously, the SEM method could track the data over time. The cross-sectional data analysis result in this study will be tested with a longitudinal view. The research findings might be updated.

It is also noted that respondents in this study has a cross-cultural demographic background. Given the cultural sensitivity of the destination personality, the congruence between the perceived destination personality and tourists' culturally associated self-image are mostly likely to vary across different demographic background. It might be interesting to examine the influence of demographic variables, e.g., originating countries, on tourists' perceptions of the destination personality and the consequent behavioural intentions. In the existing tourism literature, there have been a

number of studies that have examined demographic variables in leisure participation (e.g., Firestone & Shelton, 1994; Henderson, 1994; Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Shaw, 1994). However, only a small number of tourism researchers, have considered specific variables as a useful and powerful tool of for segmentation, in tourism destination market. For example, McGehee et al. (1996) examined the differences in push and pull motivational factors according to gender. Push factors can be viewed as a specific component of personality but it is one of an array of internal characteristics, being only a small component in the overall personality type of an individual. These studies highlight the importance of using demographic information as variables to identify not only what differences exist between different market segments, but also the degree of difference (Slavik & Shaw, 1996). Responding to this research call, the further analysis is needed to explore the relationship between destination personality and behavioural intentions intervened by the segmentation of respondents. One suggestion might be to develop a psychographic profile of foreign tourists using cluster analysis. The pattern of results may reveal different links between elements of demographic characteristics and the preferred destination personality and consequent behavioural intentions. Moreover, a single brand personality profile for a destination and consideration for destination branding in a limited range of market segments are not enough. Arguably most tourist destinations need more than one market to survive. This raises another question of whether or not

destinations should or could have multiple destination personalities. The result might also shed lights on how to effectively the allocation and utilization of limited marketing resources on those market segments and corresponding destination branding niches (Murphy et al., 2007).

Nowadays mega-events have been widely acknowledged as a strong catalyst for urban changes. However, little is known about the exact role of such large-scale events in transforming the host cities when defined as “touristic places”. As this study is solely conducted in the post-Olympic period, there is no clue to know whether or not the Games have helped transform Beijing into a better tourist destination, in terms of its tourism elements (e.g., attractions, facilities, infrastructure and transportation), their internal organization and the city’s external linkage with adjacent cities, and visitors’ subjective appraisal (such as destination image) of this city. The future research, therefore, may aim to narrow the knowledge gap by establishing the comparison model and examining the working hypotheses against the before and after perceptions of the destination. Starting from here, some suggestions on the “event-led destination-marketing strategy” could be made for both practitioners and academia.

9.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In conclusion, this study presents evidence that the destination context is important to the image of the destination and touristic outcomes.

Findings show destination personality, particular the competence and sophistication, plays an important role in tourists' loyalty formation process. Cognitive destination image works through the mediation of congruent destination personalities which finally determine tourists' behavioural intentions. Competency about the destination appears to directly impact the assessment or beliefs about the destination personality to deliver on its expected experiences, especially on social care and political freedom, green management and natural conservation. How the country and people are perceived will impact the emotional acknowledgement of the destination and therefore influence its tourism industry.

This study successfully bridges the gap between the effect of image perceptions, congruent personality identification and loyal attitudinal behavior of tourists towards tourist destination, and thus consolidate existing theories on tourist behavior. A conceptual model is developed to describe the interactive relationship between tourists and destinations during the finding of self-image and building the favored personality process. This study covers important concepts related to destination image, brand personality and loyalty. The results of this study are satisfactory and are supported by empirical evidence. The implications of the research findings are also provided to tourism industry for its improvement in future tourism practices. It is also recommended that replication of this study in the same or different destination and populations could be conducted in

order to consolidate the knowledge and form rigorous theories in tourism research. To learn and to apply, the next step would be to invite more industry representatives and stakeholders from different areas to discuss the effective implementation. Several research questions that are not fully addressed in the literature and in the present study appear to be worthwhile for future studies. This is, in the researcher's view, a long-term process and the current study is just a first step in further investigation of the destination personality related topics.

Looking out upon Beijing's future, the researcher has a strong faith in its international recognition as a culturally amazing and socially responsible destination. Versatile managerial recommendations have been made to support destination planners and marketers' decision-making. As a rising Third World destination, Beijing is going through its necessary stages to be fully known and appreciated by the outside world. The major recommendation for Beijing would be to break down the negative or distorted stereotyping image by internally promoting civilization and modernization as well as externally branding its destination competitiveness with media coverage and marketing campaigns of its own. The sooner instant stereotyping of Beijing is replaced by a wider understanding, the sooner we will be able to celebrate our diversity and build a stronger relationship based on understanding and respect. This

study would like to cite the speech by the respected Chinese ambassador to Britain, Ms. Fu Ying, to convey this appeal and conclude the thesis:

“Chinese painting is water color, fresh color, very light. If you put all the oil on it, you don’t see the painting anymore.”

APPENDICES

A. Preliminary Items of Cognitive Destination Image

Domain	Derived Items
Natural Environment	Variety of flora and fauna Weather condition Scenic beauty Lakes / water resources
Built Environment	Availability of tourist information Interesting local arts and crafts Uniqueness of culture/customs Selection of accommodation (amount, quality, categories) Selection of local products in the shops (amount, quality, categories) Shopping facilities Costs and price levels Quality of service Development of telecommunications Development of health services Development of infrastructure Convenience of local transportation Economic development Tourist safety
Socially Responsible Environment	Air quality Noise level Water quality and supply Nature conservation and sustainability Efficient energy consumption Minimizing material consumption Waste and garbage disposal Control of emissions (e.g. greenhouse gas, toxic gas) Recycling practice Cleanliness of public places Overcrowding / Crowdedness Traffic jams and congestion Products with good quality Products that are reliable Products with safety labels

Products without toxic heavy metals
Products made of scarce resources.
Products packaged in reusable containers
Products with excessive packaging
Paper products made from recycled paper
Products that are energy efficient
Products that can be recycled
Products that cause less pollution
Products from the company that is ecologically responsible
Food that is fresh
Food that is organic and natural
Food with satisfactory hygiene level
Food with production license
Food with safety labels
Food with green labels
Food without food additives
Food within the length of the warranty period
Food made from endangered animals
Cheating when shopping

Local People

Easy to communication
Honest and trustworthy
Living quality of people
Education level
Income levels and wealth
Individualism
Quality of life
Pride in achieving high standards
Creative
Skillful
Industriousness
Enjoying being with the tourists
Rich knowledge of their own city

B. Findings of Word Association on Cognitive Destination Image

Word Association Transcripts	Count*	Item Coded
"2008 Olympics"	4	Amount of cultural events (festival, fairs, exhibits and activities)
"Exciting"	1	Nightlife and entertainment opportunities
"I learn a lot about China by visiting Beijing"	3	Opportunity to increase knowledge and learn
"Sandy storm"	3	Blue sky & Air quality
"Great wall and historical attractions"	2	Amount of cultural attractions and heritage sites
"Terrific food! I like Peking duck"	5	Selection of restaurant (amount, quality, categories)
"Is milk still poisonous there?"	2	Risk of food hazards
"H1NI Swine Infuenza. I may not go to Beijing, at least for recent half year"	1	Control of environmental diseases (e.g. H1NI Swine Infuenza, Bird Flu, SARS, anthrax) Warning tourists of health hazards
"I am sorry to say this but Beijing people used to consume plenty of plastic bags. I am not sure if the situation is still like this now"	1	Use of plastic bags Environmental education, awareness and information Overall environmental management

Count * means the number of times being mentioned by different participants.

C. Transcripts of In-depth Interviews on Cognitive Destination Image

Selected Transcripts	Response
<p>A clearer differentiation of part one on natural Environment and part three on green destination, which may somehow confuse your research participants?</p>	<p>Specify item wording to differentiate these two parts</p>
<p>The items look ok to me. My only comment is that there are too few items in the natural environment subscale. I would suggest you add some more</p>	<p>Items added: Charm of mountains” and “Clearness of sky”</p>
<p>The tourist safety term/item appeals to me as vague, singular, and overtly generic. Beijing, being the centre of Chinese government and China politics, could be a destination visitors may associate with political instability (as was documented in Gartner and Shen for the 1989 event) or social unrest. But the way to write such items into the Delphi pool could be highly rhetoric, e.g., social harmony or harmonious society etc.</p>	<p>Items added: “Political stability”, “Rights and freedom”, and “Social harmony”.</p>

D. Findings of the Delphi Expert Panel on Cognitive Destination Image

Proposed Items

Natural Environment of Beijing

Variety of wildlife (e.g. plants and animals)

Climate condition

Scenic beauty

Lakes / water resources

Wonderful mountains

Blue sky

Built Environment of Beijing

Availability of tourist information

Amount of cultural and heritage attractions

Interesting local crafts

Amount of cultural events (e.g. festival, fairs, exhibits, activities)

Selection of accommodation (e.g. amount, quality, categories)

Selection of restaurant (e.g. amount ,quality, categories)

Price levels

Variety of shopping facilities

Entertainment opportunities

Service quality of employees at facilities

Development of infrastructure

Physical ability of local services (e.g. police, fire, medical.

telecommunications and utilities) to meet user demand

Economic development

Convenience of local transportation

Social harmony

Tourist safety

Political stability

Green Image of Beijing

Air quality

Noise level

Water quality

Nature conservation

Efficient energy consumption
Waste and garbage disposal
Control of emissions (e.g. vehicle exhaust, greenhouse / toxic gas)
Recycling practice
Cleanliness of public places
Overcrowding / Crowdedness
Level of traffic jam
Control of diseases (e.g. Swine Infuenza, Bird Flu, SARS)
Warning tourists of health hazards
Environmental awareness
Availability of environmental friendly signs
Overall environmental management
Food with satisfactory hygiene level
Products and food made of scarce resources
Risk of food hazards
Use of plastic bags

Beijing People

Friendly and courteous
Understanding of different people and cultures
Willingness to help
Probability of cheating when shopping
Easy to communicate
Honest and trustworthy
Education level
Income levels and wealth
Individualism
Rights and freedom
Creative
Skillful
Hard-working
Enjoying being with the tourists
Rich knowledge of their own city

**EXAMINING STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG COGNITIVE DESTINATION IMAGE,
DESTINATION PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION: THE CASE OF BEIJING**
Foreign Tourists Survey (Pilot test)

Questionnaire No.: _____

INTRODUCTION

The School of Hotel and Tourism Management at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University sincerely invites you to participate in a 5-10min' survey. This survey is a very important part of a M.Phil research project in purpose of understanding foreign tourists' perception of Beijing. The information collected will be used only for research purpose. All responses to the survey are confidential and anonymous.

Part 1. You perceived destination image of Beijing

Please rate following destination image attributes on a scale of 7, where 1= Extremely poor, 4= Neutral, and 7= Extremely good. If you can't tell, please tick "I don't know".

	Extremely Poor		Neutral			Extremely Good		I don't know
<i>Natural Environment of Beijing</i>								
1. Variety of wildlife (e.g. plants and animals)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Climate condition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Attractiveness of mountains	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Beauty of lakes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Clearness of sky	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Overall scenic beauty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>Built Environment of Beijing</i>								
1. Availability of tourist information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Variety of heritage attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Attraction of local crafts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Variety of cultural activities (e.g. festival, fairs, events, exhibitions)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Accommodation (e.g. variety, quality)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Restaurant (e.g. variety, quality)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Service quality of local employers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Entertainment opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Shopping opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Reasonableness of the price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Local transportation (e.g. variety, quality)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Local infrastructure (e.g. roads, foot bridges, telecommunication)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Physical ability of local services (e.g. police, fire, medical) to meet user demand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Economic development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Ease of communication with local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>Socially Responsible Environment & Local People of Beijing</i>								
1. Air quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Control of noise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Water quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Nature conservation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Food safety	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Waste and garbage disposal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. Control of emissions (e.g. vehicle exhaust, greenhouse/toxic gas)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Recycling practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Sanitation of public places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Control of overcrowding at public area	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Traffic condition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Energy conserving (e.g. electricity, oil, coal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Control of diseases (e.g. Swine Influenza, Bird Flu, SARS, AIDS)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Environmental awareness of local residents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Overall environmental management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Practice of using few plastic bags	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Social harmony (e.g. small gap between the rich and the poor, few social conflict and protest)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Tourist safety	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. Political stability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Rights and freedom (e.g. speech freedom, no blocking of internet information)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Ethics of fair trade (e.g. little chance of getting ripped off when shopping)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Obedience to social regulations (e.g. no crossing the road at red lights)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Honesty and trustworthiness of local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Local people' willingness to help tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Friendliness and courteousness of local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Hard-working attitude of local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>

Part 2. Your perceived destination personality of Beijing.

Imaging Beijing is a person, please rate Beijing with following personality attributes on a scale of 7, where 1= Not descriptive at all, 4=Neutral, and 7= Extremely descriptive. If you can't tell, please tick "I don't know".

	Not descriptive at all		Neutral		Extremely descriptive		I don't know			Not descriptive at all		Neutral		Extremely descriptive		I don't know	
Down-to-earth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Contemporary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Family-oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Small-town	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Hard working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Secure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Real	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Technical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Wholesome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Corporate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Original	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Successful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cheerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sentimental	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Upper class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Daring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Glamorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Trendy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Good looking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Charming	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Spirited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Feminine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cool	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Smooth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Young	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Imaginative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Masculine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Unique	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Western	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Tough	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>	Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<input type="checkbox"/>

Part 3. Your intention about the trip in Beijing.

Please indicate your intentions about the trip in Beijing on a scale of 7, where 1= Extremely unlikely, 4=Neutral, and 7= Extremely likely.

	Completely Disagree			Neutral		Completely Agree	
1. I will encourage friends and relatives to visit Beijing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I will say positive things about Beijing to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I will recommend Beijing to anyone who seeks my advice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It is acceptable to pay more for travelling in Beijing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am willing to pay more for visiting Beijing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I will pay higher price to visit Beijing, despite other competing destinations' price being lower	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 4. Background information

1. How many times have you visited Beijing before? _____

2. What is the main purpose of your visit to Beijing?

Visiting Friends & Relatives Pleasure Business Others _____

3. How many nights in total have you been in Beijing on this trip? _____

4. What is your country of residence? (Please provide the country name) _____

5. What ethnicity do you consider yourself?

Caucasian African Hispanic Asian Other (Please specify) _____

6. You are Female Male

7. What is the **HIGHEST** level of education you have completed?

High school or less Associate degree/technical certificate Bachelor's Master's Ph.D/doctoral

8. Approximately what is your monthly household income before taxes? (**US dollars**)

Less than \$2,000 \$2,001-\$4,000 \$4,001 – \$6,000 \$6,001 – \$8,000 More than \$8,000

9. What is your age?

20 and under 21 – 30 31 - 40 41 – 50 51 – 60 61 and above

10. Please provide any suggestions and comments you may have on any aspects of this questionnaire.

Thank you very much for your time and effort in completing this questionnaire!

Foreign Leisure Tourist Survey

INTRODUCTION: The School of Hotel and Tourism Management at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University sincerely invites you to participate in a 5 min' survey. This survey is an important part of a Master Thesis to understand foreign tourists' perception of Beijing. All responses to the survey are confidential and anonymous for research purpose.

Part 1. Please indicate your personally subjective view on the following attributes of Beijing as a tourist destination on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1= Extremely poor, 4= Neutral, and 7= Extremely good. Please select one answer per attribute.

Q1. Natural Environment of Beijing

	Extremely Poor		Neutral			Extremely Good			Extremely Poor		Neutral			Extremely Good	
1. Variety of wildlife	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	4. Charm of mountains	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Climate condition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	5. Cleanness of sky	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Beauty of lakes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	6. Overall scenic beauty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q2. Built Environment of Beijing

	Extremely Poor		Neutral			Extremely Good			Extremely Poor		Neutral			Extremely Good	
1. Availability of travel information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9. Variety of heritage attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Shopping opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	10. Ease of communication with local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Reasonableness of price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	11. Local infrastructure (e.g. roads, foot bridges, telecommunication)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Ability of local service (e.g. money exchanges, tourist centers) to meet tourist demand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	12. Variety of cultural activities(e.g. festival, exhibition)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Accommodation (e.g. variety, quality)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	13. Economic development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Restaurant (e.g. variety, quality)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	14. Local transportation (e.g. variety, quality)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Service quality of local employers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	15. Attraction of local crafts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Entertainment opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7								

Q3. Socially Responsible Environment of Beijing

	Extremely Poor		Neutral			Extremely Good			Extremely Poor		Neutral			Extremely Good	
1. Air quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	14. Political stability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Control of noise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	15. Water quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Overall environmental management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	16. Practice of using few plastic bags	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Control of diseases (e.g. Swine Influenza, AIDS)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	17. Control of emissions (e.g. vehicle exhaust, greenhouse)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Food safety	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	18. Tourist safety	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Waste and garbage disposal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	19. Nature conservation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Social harmony (e.g. small gap between the rich and the poor, few social conflicts)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	20. Obedience to social regulations (e.g. no crossing the road at red lights)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Control of overcrowding at public areas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	21. Honesty and trustworthiness of local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. Hard-working attitude of local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	22. Local people' willingness to help tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Traffic condition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	23. Recycling practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Rights and freedom (e.g. speech freedom, no blocking of internet info.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	24. Ethics of fair trade (e.g. little chance of getting ripped off when shopping)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Energy conserving (e.g. electricity, oil, coal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	25. Friendliness and courteousness of local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Environmental awareness of local residents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	26. Sanitation of public places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 2. Imaging Beijing is a person, please rate Beijing with following personality attributes on a scale of 7, where 1= Not descriptive at all, 4=Neutral, and 7= Extremely descriptive. Please select one answer per attribute.

	Not descriptive at all		Neutral			Extremely descriptive			Not descriptive at all		Neutral			Extremely descriptive	
1. Domestic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	11. Dependable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	12. Efficient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Genuine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	13. Glamorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Cheerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	14. Pretentious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Daring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	15. Charming	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Spirited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	16. Romantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Imaginative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	17. Tough	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	18. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	19. Outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Responsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	20. Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 3. Please indicate your intentions about the trip in Beijing on a scale of 7, where 1= Extremely unlikely, 4=Neutral, and 7= Extremely likely.

	Extremely Unlikely		Neutral			Extremely Likely	
1. I will encourage friends and relatives to visit Beijing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I will pay higher price to visit Beijing, despite other competing destinations' price being lower	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. It is acceptable to pay more for travelling in Beijing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I will say positive things about Beijing to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I will recommend Beijing to anyone who seeks my advice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am willing to pay more for visiting Beijing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 4. Basic Information

1. You are Female Male
2. Your age 20 and under 21 – 30 31 - 40
 41 – 50 51 – 60 61 and above
3. Which country are you from? _____
4. Your HIGHEST level of education
 High school or less
 Associate degree/technical certificate
 Bachelor's Master's Ph.D/doctoral
5. How many times have you visited Beijing before?
(Excluding this time)_____
6. How many nights would you spend in Beijing during this trip?_____
7. What is the main purpose of your visit to Beijing ?
 1.Pleasure/Sightseeing 2. Business 3. Education
 4. Visiting Friends & Relatives 5. Shopping
 6. Working 7. Others_____

Thank you very much for your time and effort in completing this questionnaire!

REFERENCE

A

- Aaker, D. A. (1991). *Managing Brand Equity - Capitalizing on the Value of a Brand Name*. New York: The Free Press.
- Aaker, D. A. (1996). *Building Strong Brands*. New York: Free Press.
- Aaker, D. A. & Biel, A. L. (1993). *Brand Equity & Advertising: Advertising's Role in Building Strong Brands*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of Brand Personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 34(3), 347-357.
- Aaker, J. L., Benet-Martínez, V., & Garolera, J. (2001). Consumption Symbols as Carriers of Culture: A Study of Japanese and Spanish Brand Personality Constructs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(3), 492–508.
- Aaker, J. L. & Fournier, S. (1995). A Brand as a Character, A Partner and a Person: Three Perspectives on the Question of Brand Personality. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 22 (1), 391-395.
- Aaker, J.L. & Schmitt, B. (1997). *The Influence of Culture on Self-expressive Use of Brands*. Working Paper no. 274. Los Angeles: UCLA Anderson Graduate School of Management.
- Acott, T. G., La Trobe, H. L. & Howard, S. H. (1998). An Evaluation of Deep Ecotourism and Shallow Ecotourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 6(3), 238-253.
- Adams, R. (2007). China – Workshop of the World – Vows to Improve Product Safety & Environmental Protection Standards. *Focus on Pigments*, 2007(9), 1-3.
- Ahmed, Z. U. (1996). The Need for the Identification of the Constituents of a Destination's Tourist Image: A Promotion Segmentation Perspective. *Journal of Professional Services Marketing*, 14(1), 37–60.
- Aish, A. M. (2004). *Structural Equation Modeling with LISREL: Introductory. Unpublished Course Handouts*, University of Louvain, Belgium, Karolinska Institute, Stockholm, Sweden, and University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The Theory of Planned Behavior. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179–211.

- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior Relations: A Theoretical Analysis and Review of Empirical Research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84(1), 888-918.
- Ajzen, I. & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior*. Engelwood Cliff. NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Aldrich, J.(1997). R.A. Fisher and the Making of Maximum Likelihood 1912–1922. *Statistical Science*, 12(3),162–176.
- Alexandris, K., Dimitriadis, N., & Markata, D. (2002). Can Perceptions of Service Quality Predict Behavioural Intentions? An Exploratory Study in the Hotel Sector in Greece. *Managing Service Quality*, 12(4), 224-231.
- Allen, J., O’Toole, W., McDonnell, I., & Harris, R. (2002). *Festival and Special Event Management (2nd ed.)*. Australia: Wiley.
- Allen, M. J., & Yen, W. M. (1979). *Introduction to Measurement Theory*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Altschiller, D. (2000). Do Dot-Coms’ Ads Reveal a More Basic Flaw? *Brand Week*, 41 (12): 32.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-Step Approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103 (3), 411-423.
- Anderson, E. W. & Sullivan, M. W. (1993). The Antecedents and Consequences of Customer Satisfaction for Firms. *Marketing Science*, 12(2), 125-143.
- Andreu, L., Bigne, J. E., & Cooper, C. (2000). Projected and Perceived Image of Spain as a Tourist Destination for British Travelers. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 9(4), 47–67.
- Anholt, S. (2005). *Brand New Justice*. Oxford, Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Ap, J., & Crompton, J. L. (1998). Developing and Testing a Tourism Impact Scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(1), 120-130.
- Ashworth, G. J. & Goodall, B. (1988). Tourist Images: Marketing Considerations. In Goodall, B. & Ashworth, G. (Eds.). *Marketing in the Tourism Industry: the Promotion of Destination Regions* (pp. 213–238). London: Croom Helm.
- Ashworth, G. J. & Voogd, H. (1990). *Selling the City, London*. New York: Belhaven Press.

Assael, H. (1995). *Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action*. Cincinnati: South Western College Publishing.

Austin, J. & Siguaw, J. (2003). A Re-examination of the Generalizability of the Aaker Brand Personality Measurement Framework. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 11(June), 77-92.

Austin, J. R., Siguaw, J. A., & Mattila, A. S. (2003). An Assessment of the Aaker Brand Personality Framework: Method, Measurement and Conceptual Issues. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 11(2), 77-92.

Azoulay, A. & Kapferer, J. N. (2004). Do Brand Personality Scales Really Measure Brand Personality? *Brand Management*, 11(2), 143-155.

B

Babakus, E. & Boller, G. W. (1992). An Empirical Assessment of the SERVQUAL Scale. *Journal of Business Research*, 24(3), 253–268.

Back, K, J. & Lee, J.S. (2009). Country Club Members' Perceptions of Value, Image Congruence, and Switching Costs: an Exploratory Study of Country Club Members' Loyalty. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(4), 528-546.

Backman, S. J. & Crompton, J. L. (1991a). Differentiating between High, Spurious, Latent, and Low Loyalty Participants in Two Leisure Activities. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 9(2), 1-17.

Backman, S. J. & Crompton, J. L. (1991b). The Usefulness of Selected Variables for Predicting Activity Loyalty. *Leisure Science*, 13(1), 205-220.

Backman, S. J. & Shinen, K. J. (1994). The Composition of Source and Activity Loyalty within a Public Agency's Golf Operation. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 12(3), 1-18.

Bagozzi, R. (1978). The Construct Validity of the Affective, Behavioural, and Cognitive Components of Attitude by Analysis of Covariance Structures. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 13, 9-31.

Bagozzi, R. P. (1980). *Causal Models in Marketing*. New York: Wiley.

Bagozzi, R. P., Yi, Y. & Phillips, L. W. (1991). Assessing Construct Validity in Organizational Research *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36(3), 421–458.

- Baker, D. & Crompton, J. (2000). Quality, Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(3), 785-804.
- Baldinger, A.L.& Rubinson, J.(1996). Brand Loyalty: the Link between Attitude and Behavior. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 36(6), 22–34.
- Baloglu, S. (1997). The Relationship between Destination Images and Socio-Demographic and Trip Characteristics of International Travelers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 3(3), 221–233.
- Baloglu, S. (1999). A Path Analytic Model of Visitation Intention Involving Information Sources, Socio-psychological Motivations, and Destination Image. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 8(3), 81–91.
- Baloglu, S. (2001). Image Variations of Turkey by Familiarity Index: Informational and Experiential Dimensions. *Tourism Management*, 22(2), 127–133.
- Baloglu, S. (2002). Dimensions of Customer Loyalty: Separating Friends from Well Wishers. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 43(1), 47-59.
- Baloglu, S. & Brinberg, D. (1997). Affective Images of Tourism Destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(4), 11-15.
- Baloglu, S., & Erickson, R. E. (1998). Destination Loyalty and Switching Behavior of Travelers: A Markov Analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, 2(1), 119–127.
- Baloglu, S. & Mangalolu, M. (2001). Tourism Destination Images of Turkey, Egypt, Greece, and Italy as Perceived by US-based Tour Operators and Travel Agents. *Tourism Management*, 22(1), 1-9.
- Baloglu, S. & McCleary, K. W. (1999a). A Model of Destination Image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 868–897.
- Baloglu, S. & McCleary, K. W. (1999b). U.S. International Pleasure Travelers' Images of Four Mediterranean Destinations: A Comparison of Visitors and Non-visitors. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(2), 144- 152.
- Baloglu, S., & Pekcan, Y. A. (2006). The Website Design and Internet Site Marketing Practices of Upscale and Luxury Hotels in Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 27(1), 171–176.
- Baron, R. M. & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The Moderator-mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 51(1), 1173-1182.

- Barrick, M. R. & Mount, M. K. (1991). The Big Five Personality Dimensions and Job Performance: A Meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44 (1), 1-26.
- Batra, R., Donald, R., L., & Dipinder, S. (1993). The Brand Personality Component of Brand Goodwill: Some Antecedents and Consequences. In Aaker, D. A., & Biel, A. (Eds.). *Brand Equity and Advertising*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G. & Teel, J. E. (1989). Measurement of Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19 (March): 473-481.
- Beerli, A. & Martin, J. (2004). Factors Influencing Destination Image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31 (3), 657-681.
- Belk, R. W. (1988). Possessions and the Extended Self. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15 (2), 139-168.
- Bennett, R. & Rundle-Thiele (2002). A Comparison of Attitudinal Loyalty Measurement Approaches. *Brand Management*, 9(3), 193-209.
- Bentler, P. M. (1983). Some Contributions to Efficient Statistics in Structural Models: Specification and Estimation of Moment Structures. *Psychometrika*, 48(1), 493-517.
- Berry, M. A. & Rondinelli, D. A. (1998). Proactive Corporate Environmental Management: A new Industrial. *Academy of Management Executive*, 12(2), 38-50.
- Berry, N.C.(1988). Revitalizing Brands. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 5(1), 15-20.
- Berthon, P., Hulbert, J. M., & Pitt, L.F. (1999). Brand Management Prognostications. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 40(2), 53-65.
- Biel, A. (1993). Converting Image into Equity. In Aaker, D. A., & Biel, A. (Eds.). *Brand Equity and Advertising*. Hillsdale. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bigne, J., Sanchez, M., & Sanchez, J. (2001). Tourism Image, Evaluation Variables and After Purchase Behavior: Inter-relationships. *Tourism Management*, 22(6), 607-616.
- Birdwell, E.A. (1964). Influence of Image Congruence on Consumer Choice. In Smith, L.G. (Eds.). *Reflections on Progress in Marketing*. Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.

- Blain, C., Levy, S. E. & Ritchie, B. (2005). Destination Branding: Insights and Practices from Destination Management Organizations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43 (4): 328-338.
- Bobbie, E. (1998). *The Practice of Social Research (8th ed.)*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Bock, G. W., Zmud, R. W., Kim, Y. G., & Lee, J.N. (2005). Behavioural Intention Formation in Knowledge Sharing: Examining the Roles of Extrinsic Motivators, Social-psychological Forces, and Organizational Climate. *MIS Quarterly*, 29(1), 87–111.
- Bojanic, D. (1996). Consumer Perceptions of Price, Value and Satisfaction in the Hotel Industry: An Exploratory Study. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 4(1), 5-22 .
- Boje , D . M . (2001). *Narrative Methods for Organizational & Communication Research*. London: Sage Publication.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989a). *Structural Equation with Latent Variables*. New York: Wiley.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989b). A New Incremental Fit Index for General Structural Models. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 17(1), 303-316.
- Bollen, K. A. & Long, S. J. (1993). *Testing Structural Equation Models*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Bosnjak, M., Bochmann, V., & Hufschmidt, T. (2007). Dimensions of Brand Personality Attributions: A Person-centric Approach in the German Cultural Context. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 35(3), 303-316
- Botha, C., Crompton, J. L., & Kim, S. (1999). Developing a Revised Competitive Position for Sun/Lost City, South Africa. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(4), 341–352.
- Boulding, W., Kalra, A., Staelin, R., & Zeithaml, V.A. (1993). A Dynamic Process Model of Service Quality: from Expectations to Behavioural Intentions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 30(1), 7-27.
- Bowen, J.T. & Shoemaker, S. (1998). Loyalty: strategic commitment. *Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 13 (1), 12–25.
- Bramwell, B. (1997). Strategic Planning Before and After a Mega-event. *Tourism Management*, 18(3), 167–176.
- Breckler, S.J.(1984). Empirical Validation of Affect, Behaviour, and Cognition as

- Distinct Components of Attitude. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47(6), 1191-1205.
- Briedenhann, J. & Butts, S. (2006). Application of the Delphi Technique to Rural Tourism Project Evaluation. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 9 (2), 15-23.
- Brown, D., Dillard, J. & Marshall, S. (2008). Triple Bottom Line: a Business Metaphor for a Social Construct. In Dillard, J., Dejon, V., & King, M. (Eds.). *Understanding the Social Dimension of Sustainability*. London: Routledge.
- Brown, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative Ways of Assessing Model Fit. In Bollen, K. A. & Long, J. S. (Eds.). *Testing Structural Equation Models*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Brunt, P. (1997). *Market Research in Travel and Tourism*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Britton, R.(1979). The Image of the Third World in Tourism Marketing. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(1), 318–329.
- Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing the Competitive Destination of the Future. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 97-116.
- Burgan, B. & Mules, T. (1992). Economic Impact of Sporting Events. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(4), 700-710.
- Burgess, J. (1982). Selling Places: Environmental Images for the Executive. *Regional Studies*, 16(1), 1-17.
- Burgess, J. A. (1978). Image and Identity. Occasional Papers in *Geography*, 23, University of Hull Publications: W.S. Maney & Son.
- Burgess, J. & Wood, P. (1989). Decoding Docklands: Place Advertising and Decision- making Strategies in the Small Firm. In Eyles, J. & Smith, D. M. (Eds.). *Qualitative Methods in Human Geography*. Oxford: Polity Press
- Burns, R. B. (1994). *Introduction to Research Methods*. Melbourne, Australia: Longman.
- Business Standard (2008). *Editorial: China After the Olympics*. Retrieved August 25, 2008 from <http://www.business-standard.com/india/storypage.php?autono=332438>
- Butler, J. (2008). The Compelling "Hard Case" for "Green" Hotel Development. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 49(3), 234-244.

Byrne, B.M. (1994). *Structural Equation Modeling with EQS and EQS/Windows*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Byrne, B. M. (1998). *Structural Equation Modeling with LISREL, PRELIS, and SIMPLIS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Byrne, M. B. (2006). *Structural Equation Modeling with EQS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming (2nd ed.)* Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Byrne, B. M. (2009). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming (Multivariate Applications Series)*. London: Psychology Press.

C

Cai, L. A. (2002). Cooperative Branding for Rural Destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 720-742.

Calantone, R. J., Benedetto, A., Hakam, A., & Bojanic, D. C. (1989). Multiple Multinational Tourism Positioning Using Correspondence Analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(2), 25-32.

Caprara G. V., Barbaranelli, C. & Guido, G. (1998). Personality as Metaphor: Extension of the Psychological Hypothesis and the Five Factor Model to Brand and Product Personality Description. In Englis, B. & Olafsson, A. (Eds). *European Advances in Consumer Research*. Provo, IT: Association for Consumer Research.

Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C. & Guido, G. (2001). Brand Personality: How to Make the Metaphor Fit? *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 22(3), 377-395.

Carpenter, M., Bauer, T. & Erdogan, B. (2009). *Principles of Management*. Nyack, NY: Flat World Knowledge.

Carroll, A. B. (1991). The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility: Toward the Moral Management of Organizational Stakeholders. *Business Horizons*, July-August 1991.

Caswell, J. A., & Mojduszka, E. M. (1996). Using Informational Labeling to Influence the Market for Quality in Food Products. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 78(4), 1248-1253.

- Cha, J. H. (1994). Changes in Value, Belief, Attitude, and Behavior of the Koreans over the Past 100 Years. *Korean Journal of Psychology Social*, 8(1), 40–58.
- Chan, E., Griffiths, S., & Chan, C. (2009). Public-health Risks of Melamine in Milk Products. *The Lancet*, 372 (9648), 1444-1445.
- Charreire, S. & Durieux, F. (2001). Exploring and Testing. In Thietart, R. (Eds.). *Doing Management Research: A Comprehensive Guide*. London: Sage Publications.
- Chaudhary, M. (2000). India's Image as a Tourist Destination: A Perspective of Foreign Tourists. *Tourism Management*, 21(3), 293–297.
- Chen, C. F. & Tsai D. C. (2007). How Destination Image and Evaluative Factors Affect Behavioural Intentions? *Tourism Management*, 28(4), 1115–1122.
- Chen, J. (2001). A Case Study of Korean Outbound Travelers' Destination Images by Using Correspondence Analysis. *Tourism Management*, 22 (4), 345–350.
- Chen, J. S., & Gursoy, D. (2001). An Investigation of Tourists' Destination Loyalty and Preferences. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(2), 79–85.
- Chen, J. S. & Hsu, C. H. C. (2000). Measurement of Korean Tourists' Perceived Images of Overseas Destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38 (4), 411–416.
- Chen J. S. & Uysal, M. (2002). Market Positioning Analysis: A Hybrid Approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(4), 987-1003.
- Chen, Y. S. (2008). The Driver of Green Innovation and Green Image – Green Core Competence. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81(1), 531–543.
- Cheung, G. W. & Lau, R. S. (2008). Testing Mediation and Suppression Effects of Latent Variables: Bootstrapping With Structural Equation Models. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11(2), 296-325.
- Chi, C. G. Q. & Qu, H. (2008). Examining the Structural Relationships of Destination Image, Tourist Satisfaction and Destination Loyalty: An Integrated Approach. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 624-636.
- Chin, W. & Todd, P. A. (1995). On the Use, Usefulness and Ease of Use of Structural Equation Modelling in MIS Research: A Note of Caution. *MIS Quarterly*, June, 237-246.

- Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2007). Destination Image Representation on the Web: Content Analysis of Macau Travel Related Websites. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 118-129.
- Choi, W. M., Chan, A. & Wu, J. (1999). Research Note: A Qualitative and Quantitative Assessment of Hong Kong's Image as a Tourist Destination. *Tourism Management*, 20 (1), 361-365.
- Chon, K. S. (1990). The Role of Destination Image in Tourism: A Review and Discussion. *Tourist Review*, 45(2), 2–9.
- Chon, K. S. (1991). Tourism Destination Image: Marketing Implications. *Tourism Management*, 12(1), 68–72.
- Chon, K. S. (1992). The Role of Destination Image in Tourism: *An Extension*. *Revue du Tourisme*, 1(1), 2-7.
- Chu, K. H. (2008). A Factorial Validation of Work Value Structure: Second-order Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Its Implications. *Tourism Management*, 29(1), 320–330.
- Churchill, G. A. (1979). A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 26(2), 64-73.
- Clarkson, M. E. (1995). A Stakeholder Framework for Analyzing and Evaluating Corporate Social Performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(1), 92–117.
- Cohen, E. (1993). The Study of Touristic Images of Native People: Mitigating the Stereotype of a Stereotype. In *Tourism Research*, Pearce, D. and Butler, R. (Eds.), pp. 36–69. London: Routledge.
- Cohen, E. (1979). Rethinking the Sociology of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(1), 18–35.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioural Sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Conejo, F. (2007). *The Tourism Destination Personality Scale*. Unpublished Thesis. Department of Marketing, University of Otago.
- Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Gilbert, D., & Wanhill, S. (1993). *Tourism: Principles and Practice*. UK: Pitman Publishing.
- Cooper, D. R. & Schindler, P. S. (1998). *Business Research Methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill College.

- Corrigan, J. (1996). How a Green Image Can Drive Irish Export Growth. *Greener Management International*, 16(2), 87–95.
- Court, B. C. & Lupton, R. A. (1997). Customer Portfolio Development: Modelling Destination Adopters, Inactives, and Rejecters. *Journal of Travel Research*, 36(1), 35-43.
- Crask, M. R. & Henry, A. L. (1990). A Positioning-based Decision Model for Selecting Advertising Messages. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 30(4), 32-38.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). An Assessment of the Image of Mexico as a Vacation Destination and the Influence of Geographical Location Upon That Image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 18(4), 18–23.
- Crompton, J. (1979). Motivations for Pleasure Vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Oct/Dec, 408-424.
- Crompton, J. L., Fakeye, P. C., & Lue, C. (1992). Positioning: the Example of the Lower Rio Grande Valley in the Winter Long Stay Destination Market. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(Fall), 20–26.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient Alpha and the Internal Structure of Tests. *Psychometrika*, 16(3), 297-334.
- Cronin, J. J. Jr, Brady, M. K., Hult, T. M. (2000). Assessing the Effects of Quality, Value, and Customer Satisfaction on Consumer Behavioural Intentions in Service Environments. *Journal of Retailing*, 76(2), 193–218.
- Cronin, J. J. Jr & Taylor, S. A. (1992). Measuring Service Quality: A Reexamination and Extension. *Journal of Marketing*, 56 (3), 55–68.
- Curtis, J. (2001). Branding a State: The Evolution of Brand Oregon. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 7(1), 75-82.

D

- Daniels, M. J. (2007). Central Place Theory and Sport Tourism Impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(2), 332-347.
- Dann, G. M. S. (1996). Tourists' Images of a Destination—An Alternative Analysis. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 5(1/2), 41–55.

- d'Astous, A. & Boujbel, L. (2007). Positioning Countries on Personality Dimensions: Scale Development and Implications for Country Marketing. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(1), 231-239.
- Davidow, M. (2003). Have You Heard the Word? The Effect of Word of Mouth on Perceived Justice, Satisfaction and Repurchase Intentions Following Complaint Handling. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 16(1), 67–83.
- Davies, F., Goode, M., Mazanec, J., & Moutinho, L. (1999). LISREL and Neural Network Modeling: Two Comparison Studies. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 6(1), 249-261.
- Davies, G., Chun, R. , Silva, R. V. da & Roper,S. (2001). The Personification Metaphor as a Measurement Approach for Corporate Reputation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 4 (2), 113-127.
- Deloitte (2009). *Deloitte Survey Finds Business Travellers Go Green on the Road, Have Specific Expectations of Hotels--Forty Percent Willing to Pay More for Green Lodging*. Retrieved May 20, 2008 from
http://www.deloitte.com/dtt/press_release/0,1014,sid%253D2283%2526cid%253D206870,00.html
- Dempster, A. P., Laird, N. M. Rubin, D. B. (1977). Maximum Likelihood from Incomplete Data via the EM Algorithm. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, B(39), 1-38.
- Derudder, B., Taylor, P. J., Witlox, F. & Catalano, G. (2003). Hierarchical Tendencies and Regional Patterns in the World City Network: A Global Urban Analysis of 234 Cities. *Regional Studies*, 37(9), 875-886.
- Dew, K. (1999). National Identity and Controversy: New Zealand's Clean Green Image and Pentachlorophenol. *Health and Place*, 5(1), 45– 57.
- Diamantopoulos, A., & Siguaw, J. A. (2000). *Introducing LISREL: A Guide for the Uninitiated*. London: Sage Publications.
- Dichter, E. (1985). What's in An Image. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 2 (1), 75-81.
- Dick, A. S. & Basu, K. (1994). Customer Loyalty: Toward an Integrated Conceptual Framework. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 22(2), 99-113.
- Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality Structure: Emergence of the Five Factors Model. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 41(1), 417-440.

- Dillman, D. R. (1999). *Mail and Internet Surveys: The Tailored Design Method*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Dimanche, F. (1994). Cross-cultural Tourism Marketing Research: An Assessment and Recommendations for Future Studies. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 6(3/4), 123-134.
- Dimanche, F. & Moody, M. (1998). Perceptions of Destination Image: A Study of Latin American Intermediary Travel Buyers. *Tourism Analysis*, 3(1), 173–180.
- Dolich, I. J. (1969). Congruence Relationship between Self Image and Product Brands. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 6(1), 80-84.
- Donovan, R.J. & Rossiter, J.R. (1982). Store Atmosphere: An Environmental Psychology Approach. *Journal of Retailing*, 58 (1), 34–57.
- Douglas, A. & Mills, J. (2006). Logging Brand Personality Online: Website Content Analysis of Middle Eastern and North African Destinations. *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2006*, Lausanne, Switzerland, Springer, Wien.
- Dowling, R. K. & Page, S. J. (2002). *Ecotourism*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Doyle, P. & Fenwick, I. (1974). How Store Images Affects Shopping Habits in Grocery Chains. *Journal of Retailing*, 50(Winter), 39-52.
- Driscoll, A., Lawson, R. & Niven, B. (1994). Measuring Tourists' Destination Perceptions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 499–511.
- Durgee, J.F. (1988). Commentary: Understanding Brand Personality. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 5(1), 21-25.
- Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P., Madden, J. & Spurr, R. (2000). Economic Impacts of Inbound Tourism under Different Assumptions Regarding the Macroeconomy, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 4(3), 325-363.

E

- Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The Psychology of Attitudes*. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.

- Echtner, C. M. & Ritchie, J. R. (1991). The Meaning and Measurement of Destination Image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2(2), 2–12.
- Echtner, C. M. & Ritchie, J. R. (1993). The Measurement of Destination Image: An Empirical Assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(4), 3–13.
- Echtner, C. M. & Ritchie, J. R. (2003). The Meaning and Measurement of Destination Image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 14(1), 37-48.
- Edwards, C., Heining-Boynton, D., & Huber, R. (1999). *Cornerstones of Psychology: Readings in the History of Psychology*. New York: Harcourt-Brace.
- Ehrenberg, A. (1998). *Repeat Buying: Theory and Applications*. London: Charles Griffin.
- Ekinci, Y. (2003). From Destination Image to Destination Branding: An Emerging Area of Research. *e-Review of Tourism Research (eRTR)*, 1(2), 1-4.
- Ekinci, Y. & Hosany, S. (2006). Destination Personality: An Application of Brand Personality to Tourism Destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(2), 127-139.
- Ekinci, Y., Sirakaya-Turk, E., & Baloglu, S. (2007). Host Image and Destination Personality. *Tourism Analysis*, 12(5/6), 433–446.
- Elwell, C.K., Labonte, M. & Morrison, W.M. (2007). *Is China a Threat to the U.S. Economy?* CRS Report for Congress. DC: Congressional Research Service.
- Embacher, J. & Buttle, F. (1989). A Repertory Grid Analysis of Austria's Image as a Summer Vacation Destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(3), 3–23.
- Enders, C. K. (2006b). Analyzing structural equation models with missing data. In G. R. Hancock & R. O. Mueller (Eds.), *Structural equation modeling: A second course* (pp. 313-342). Greenwich, CT: IAP.
- Enz, C. A. & Siguaw, J. (1999). Best Hotel Environmental Practices. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 40(5), 72-77.
- Erdem, T. (1998). An Empirical Analysis of Umbrella Branding. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 35(3), 339–51.

F

- Fakeye, P. C. & Crompton, J. L. (1991). Image Differences between Prospective, First-time, and Repeat Visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 10–16.
- Feng, R., & Jang, S. (2004). Temporal Destination Loyalty: A Structural Initiation. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 9(1), 207–221.
- Ferrandi, J. M., Valette-Florence, P., & Fine-Falcy, S. (2000). Aaker's Brand Personality Scale in a French Context: A Replication and Preliminary Test of Validity. *Developments in Marketing Science*, 23(4), 7-13.
- Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS (2nd ed.)*. London: Sage.
- Finn, M. , Elliott-White, M., & Walton, M. (2000). *Tourism and Leisure Research Methods: Data Collection, Analysis and Interpretation*. Essex, UK: Pearson Education Limited.
- Finney, S. J., & DiStefano, C. (2006). Non-normal and categorical data in structural equation modeling. In G. R. Hancock & R. O. Mueller (Eds.), *Structural equation modeling: A second course* (pp. 269-314). Greenwich, CT: IAP.
- Fishbein, M. (1967). Attitude and the Prediction of Behavior. In Fishbein, M. (Ed.), *Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement*. New York: Wiley.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fishbein, M. & Manfredo, M., J. (1992). A Theory of Behaviour Change. In Manfredo, M. J. (Eds.). *Influencing Human Behaviour: Theory and Applications in Recreation, Tourism, and Natural Resources Management*. Champaign, Illinois: Sagamore Publishing Inc.
- Fleming, G. (2002). Clean, Green Image under Threat. *The Dominion Post*, 5 (August), 22.
- Font, X. & Buckley, R. (2001). *Tourism Eco-labeling: Certification and Promotion of Sustainable Management*. Oxfordshire: CABI Publishing.
- Food Standards Agency (2009). *Chinese Milk Advice*. Retrieved Sept 25, 2008 from <http://www.food.gov.uk/news/newsarchive/2008/sep/melaminemilk>.
- Foster, B. D. & Cadogan, J. W.(2000). Relationship Selling and Customer Loyalty: An Empirical Investigation. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 18(4), 185.

- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(2), 39-50.
- Foster, N. & Jones, E. (2000). Image versus Identity: Representing and Comparing Destination Images across a Tourist System – The Case of Wales. In Robinson, M. N., Evans, P. L., Sharpley, R., & Swarbrooke, J. (Eds.). *Management, Marketing and the Political Economy of Travel and Tourism*. Sunderland: Center for Travel and Tourism and Business Education Publishers Ltd.
- Fournier, S. (1994). *A Consumer Brand Relationship Framework for Strategy Brand Management*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. University of Florida.
- Fournier, S. (1998). Consumers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(4), 343-373.
- Fredline, E. & Faulkner, B. (2000). Host Community Reactions--A Cluster Analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(3), 763-784.
- Frew, E. A. & Shaw, R. N. (1999). The Relationship between Personality, Gender, and Tourism Behavior. *Tourism Management*, 20(1), 193-202.
- Funk, D. C. & Bruun, T. (2007). The Role of Socio-psychological and Culture-Education Motives in Marketing International Sport Tourism: A Cross-cultural Perspective. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 806-819.

G

- Gafni, A. (1991). Willingness to Pay More as a Measure of Benefits: Relevant Questions in the Context of Public Decision-making about Health Care Programs. *Medical Care*, 29(12), 1246-1251.
- Gallarza, M. G., Saura, I. G. ,& Garcí'a, H. C. (2002). Destination Image: Towards a Conceptual Framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 56-78.
- Gamage, A. & Higgs, B. (1996). Economics of Venue Selection for Special Sporting Events: With Special Reference to the 1996 Melbourne Grand Prix. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(2), 15–26.

- Gardner, B. & Levy, S. J. (1955). The Product and the Brand. *Harvard Business Review*, 1(3), 33–39.
- Gartner, C. G. & Hunt, J. D. (1987). An Analysis of State Image Change over a Twelve-year Period (1971–1983). *Journal of Travel Research*, 26(2), 15–19.
- Gartner, W. C. (1989). Tourism Image: Attribute Measurement of State Tourism Products Using Multidimensional Scaling Techniques. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28 (2), 16–20.
- Gartner, W. C. (1993). Image Formation Process. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(2/3), 191-215.
- Gartner, W., & Konecnik, M. (2007). Customer – Based Brand Equity for a Destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34 (2), 400-421.
- Gartner, W. C. & Shen, J. (1992). The Impact of Tiananmen Square on China's Tourism Image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(1), 47–52.
- Gay, L. R. (1996). *Education Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application (5th ed.)*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill.
- Gendall, P. J., Healey, B., Robbie, P., Gendall, K., Patchett, S., & Bright, N. (2001). *New Zealanders and the Environment*. Massey University, New Zealand.
- Getz, B. (2002). *The China Threat: How the People's Republic Targets America*. Washington NW: Regnery Publishing.
- Getz, D. (1989). Special Events: Defining the Product. *Tourism Management*, 10(2), 125-137.
- Getz, D. (1991). *Festival, Special Event and Tourism*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Getz, D. (1997). *Event Management and Event Tourism*. New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.
- Gillberg, M. (1999). *From Green Image to Green Practice: Normative Action and Self-regulation*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Lund: Department of Sociology University.
- Gilmore, F. (2002). A Country—Can It Be Repositioned Spain—The Success Story of Country Branding. *Journal of Brand Management*, 9(4/5), 218-284.

- Goldberg, L.R. (1982). From Ace to Zombie: Some Exploration in the Language of Personality. In Spielberger, C. & Butcher, J. (Eds.). *Advances in Personality Assessment* (pp203-234). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1993). The Structure of Phenotypic Personality Traits. *American Psychologist*, 48(1), 26-34.
- Goodall, B. (1990). How Tourists Choose Their Holidays: An Analytical Framework. In Goodall, B. & Ashworth, G. (Eds.). *Marketing in the Tourism Industry: The Promotion of Destination Regions*. London: Routledge.
- Goodrich, J. N. (1977). Benefit Bundle Analysis: An Empirical Study of International Travellers. *Journal of Travel Research*, 16(1), 6–9.
- Goodrich, J. (1978). A New Approach to Image Analysis through Multi-Dimensional Scaling. *Journal of Travel Research*, 16(3), 3-7.
- Gotlieb, J. B., Grewal, D., & Brown, S. W. (1994). Consumer Satisfaction and Perceived Quality: Complementary or Divergent Constructs? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(6), 875-885.
- Govers, R. (2003). Destination Image Evaluation: Part II. *Eclipse: The Periodic Publication from Moonshine Travel Marketing for Destination Marketers*, 10(1), 1–12.
- Govers, R., Go, F. M. & Kumar, K. (2007). Virtual Destination Image a New Measurement Approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(4), 977-997.
- Graeff, T. R. (1997). Consumption Situations and the Effects of Brand Image on Consumers' Brand Evaluations. *Psychology and Marketing*, 14(1): 49-70.
- Green, B. & Chalip, L. (1998). Sport Tourism as the Celebration of Subculture. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 275–291.
- Gremler, D. D. & Brown, S.W. (1996). Service Loyalty; Its Nature, Importance and Implications. In Edvardsson B., Brown, S. W., Johnston, R., & Scheuing, E. (Eds). *QUIS V: Advancing Service Quality: A Global Perspective*. NY: ISQA.
- Grewal, D., Monroe, K. B., & Krishnan, R. (1998). The Effect of Price- Comparison Advertising on Buyers' Perception of Acquisition Value, Transaction Value, and Behavioural Intentions. *Journal of Marketing*, 62(2): 46-59.
- Grewal, R., Cline T. W., & Davies A. (2003). Early-entrant advantage, word-of-mouth communication, brand similarity, and the consumer decision-making process. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 13(3), 27-34.

- Groot, I (2007). *The Influence of Destination Quality and Service Aspects on Travel Satisfaction and Intentions: An Analysis of Taiwanese and Dutch Tourists*. Unpublished Master Thesis. National Cheng Kung University.
- Grubbs, F. E. (1969). Procedures for Detecting Outlying Observations in Samples. *Technometrics*, 11, 1–21.
- Grubb, E. & Grathwohl, H. (1967). Consumer Self-concept and Significant Others. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 8(1), 382-385.
- Guest, L. (1994). A Study of Brand Loyalty. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 28(1), 16-27.
- Gulliksen, H. (1950). *Theory of Mental Tests*. New York: Wiley.
- Gunn, C. (1972). *Vacations Cape*. Austin: Bureau of Business Research of University of Texas.
- Gupta, M. C. (1995). Environmental Management and Its Impact on the Operations Function. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 15(8), 34-51.
- Gurău, C. & Ranchhod, A. (2005). International Green Marketing. *International Marketing Review*, 22(5), 547-561.

H

- Ha, J. & Jang, S. (2010). Perceived Values, Satisfaction, and Behavioural Intentions: The Role of Familiarity in Korean Restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(1), 2–13.
- Haahti, A. J. (1986). Finland's Competitive Position as a Destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13(1), 11–35.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis (5th ed.)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J. F., Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis (6th ed.)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall
- Hall, C. M. (1987). The Effects of Hallmark Events on Cities. *Journal of Travel Research*, 26(2), 44–51.

- Hall, C. M. (1997). Geography, Marketing and the Selling of Places. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 6(3), 61-84.
- Hall, J. (2004). Branding Britain. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 10(2), 171-185.
- Hammond, K., East, R., & Ehrenberg, A. (1996). *Buying More and Buying Longer: Concepts and Applications of Consumer Loyalty*. London: London Business School.
- Han, H., Hsu, L.T., & Lee, J. S. (2009). Empirical Investigation of the Roles of Attitudes toward Green Behaviors, Overall Image, Gender, and Age in Hotel Customers' Eco-friendly Decision-making Process. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 519-528
- Hana, H., Hsub, J. & Lee. J.S. (2009). Empirical Investigation of the Roles of Attitudes toward Green Behaviors, Overall Image, Gender and Age in Hotel Customers' Eco-friendly Decision-making Process. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 519-528.
- Hankinson, G (2004). Relational Network Brands: Towards a Conceptual Model of Place Brands. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 10(2), 109-122.
- Hart, S. L. (1995). A Natural-resource-based View of the Firm. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(4), 986–1014.
- Hart, S. L. (1997). Beyond Greening: Strategies for a Sustainable World. *Harvard Business Review*, 75(1), 67-76.
- Hassan, S. S. (2000). Determinants of Market Competitiveness in An Environmentally Sustainable Tourism Industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(1), 239-245.
- Hatcher, L. (1994). *A Step-by-step Approach to Using the SAS(R) System for Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling*. Cary, NC: SAS Institute.
- Hawkes, P. (1994). Building Brand Loyalty and Commitment. *The Journal of Business Management*, 1(1), 337-347.
- Haywood, K.M. (1988). Responsible and Responsive Tourism Planning in the Community. *Tourism Management*, June, 105-118.
- He, Y. Q. (2009). *Who is Alfred Russel Wallace?* Retrieved on April 22, 2009 from http://www.sciencenet.cn/m/user_content.aspx?id=214887

- Helgeson, J. G. & Supphellen, M. (2004). A Conceptual and Measurement Comparison of Self-congruity and Brand Personality. *International Journal of Market Research*, 46(2), 205-233.
- Hendon D.W. & Williams, E.L. (1985). Winning the Battle for Your Customers. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 2(4), 65–75.
- Henderson, J. (2000). Uniquely Singapore? A Case Study in Destination Branding. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 13(3), 261-274.
- Henderson, J. C. (2000). Selling Places: The New Asia-Singapore brand. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 11 (1), 36-44.
- Henik, A., & Tzelgov, J. (1985). Control for Halo Error: A Multiple Regression Approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70(1), 577-580.
- Henriques, I. & Sadorsky, P. (1996). The determinants of an environmentally responsive firm: An empirical approach. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 30(3), 381–395.
- Heslop, L., Papadopoulos, N., Dowdles, M., Wall, M., & Compeau, D. (2004). Who controls the purse strings: A Study of Consumers' and Retail Buyers' Reactions in an America's FTA Environment. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(1), 1177–1188.
- Heylen, J. P., Dawson, B., & Sampson, P. (1995). An Implicit Model of Consumer behaviour. *Journal of Market Research Society*, 37(1), 51–67.
- Hirschman, E. C. (1984). Experience Seeking: A Subjectivist Perspective of Consumption. *Journal of Business Research*, 12(1), 115–136.
- Holbrook, M. B. (1978). Beyond attitude structure: Toward the informational determinants of attitude. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 15(November), 545-556.
- Holland, J. L. (1958). A personality inventory employing occupational titles. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 42(1), 336-342.
- Hong, M. (2006). *China battles pollution amid full-speed economic growth*. UK: Chinese Embassy.
- Hong, F. (2008). *China. In Comparative Elite Sport Development. Systems, structures and public policy*. Oxford: Butterworth- Heinemann.

- Hosany, S., Ekinci, Y., & Uysal, M. (2006). Destination image and destination personality: An application of branding theories to tourism places. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(5), 638–642.
- Hosany, S., Ekinci, Y. & Uysal, M. (2007) *Destination Image and Destination Personality*. International Journal of Culture. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 1 (1), 62-81.
- Hsieh, A., & Chang, J. (2006). Shopping and Tourist Night Markets in Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, 27(1), 138–145.
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1995). Evaluating model fit. In Hoyle, R. (Eds). *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and 390 application*. Thousand Oak, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indices in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1-55.
- Hu, W. & Wall, G. (2005). Environmental management, environmental image and the competitive tourist attraction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13(6), 617–635.
- Hu, Y. & Ritchie, J.R.B. (1993). Measuring Destination Attractiveness: A Contextual Approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(1), 25–34.
- Hunt, E. B. (1992). Why is it hard to improve mental competence: A cognitive science perspective. In Carlson (Eds.). *Cognition and Educational Practice*, Volume 1 Part A. Theoretical Issues: Intelligence, Cognition and Assessment. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, Inc.
- Hunt, J. D. (1975). Image as a Factor in Tourism Development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 13(1), 1-7.
- Hunt, J. D. (1971). *Image: A factor in tourism*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Colorado State University, Fort Collins.
- Hutchinson, J., Lai, F., & Wang, Y. (2009). Understanding the relationships of quality, value, equity, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions among golf travelers. *Tourism Management*, 30(1), 298–308.

I

- Inoguchi, T. & Newman, E. (1997). *Asian values and democracy in Asia*. First Shizuoka Asia-Pacific Forum: The Future of the Asia-Pacific Region.

International Air Transport Association (2009). *Industry Times-a monthly insight into the industry*. Retrieved March 20, 2009 from http://www.iata.org/pressroom/facts_figures/industry_times.htm

Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1980). *The Social Psychology of Leisure and Recreation*. Dubuque, Iowa: W. C. Brown Co. Publishers.

J

Jaap J., Gruijter, de, Marc, F. P., Bierkens, D. J., Brus & Martin K. (2006). *Modes of Sampling and Statistical Inference*. Germany: Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

James, D.L. & Durand, R.M. & Dreves, R.A.(1976). The Use of a Multi-attribute Attitude in a Store Image Study. *Journal of Retailing*, 52(Summer), 23-32.

Jang, S. & Feng, R. (2007). Temporal Destination Revisit Intention: The Effects of Novelty Seeking and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 580–590.

Jenkins, O. H. (1999). Understanding and measuring tourist destination images. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(1), 1-15.

Jennings, G. (2001). *Tourism research*. Brisbane: John Wiley.

Jiang, Q. (2003). *Political Confucianism – The re-orientation and development of contemporary Confucianism*. Peking: Sanlian shudian.

Johansson, J (2007). *Working with Events to Build a Destination Brand Identity - the DMO Perspective*. School of Business, Economics and Law, Goteborg, Tourism and Hospitality Management Master Thesis No. 2007:33.

Johar, G.V., Sengupta, J. & Aaker, J.L. (2005). Two Roads to Updating Brand Personality Impressions: Trait Versus Evaluative Inferencing. *Journal of Marketing Research*, XLII (Nov.), 458–469.

Jöreskog, K. G. (1993). Testing structural equation models. In Bollen, K. A. & Long, J. S. (Eds.). *Testing structural equation models*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Jöreskog, K. G. & Sörbom, D. (1984). *Lisrel VI: Analysis of linear structural relationships by the method of maximum likelihood*. Mooresville, IN: Scientific Software.

Joreskog, K. G., & Sorbom, D. (1996). *LISREL 8: User's reference guide*. Chicago, IL: Scientific Software International.

K

Kai, F. (2002). Food Safety: Ring the Alarm of Living Quality. *Development*, 10(1), 1-5.

Kale, S. H. & Weir, K. M.(1986). Marketing Third World Countries to the Western Traveler: The Case of India. *Journal of Travel Research*, 25(2), 2-7.

Kaliski, B. (2001). *Ethics in Management*. In *Encyclopedia of Business and Finance*. New York: Macmillan Reference.

Kaliski, B. (2001). *Social responsibility and organizational ethics*. In *Encyclopedia of Business and Finance*. New York: Macmillan Reference.

Kang, Y. S. & Perdue, R. (1994). Long-term Impact of a mega-event on international tourism to the host country: A conceptual model and the case of the 1988 Seoul Olympics. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 6(3/4),205-225

Kapferer, J. N. (1997). *Strategic brand management: Creating and sustaining brand equity long term*. (2nd ed.). London: Kogan Page Limited.

Kapferer, J. N. (2004). *The New Strategic Brand Management-Creating and Sustaining Brand Equity Long Term*. London: Kogan Page.

Karande, K., Zinkhan, G. M. & Lum, A. B. (1997). Brand personality and self concept: A replication and extension. *American Marketing Association Educators Proceedings*, 8 (Summer),165-171.

Kastenholz, E. (2004). Assessment and Role of Destination-Self-Congruity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 719-723.

Kearns, G., & Philo, C. (1993). Preface. In Kearns, G. & Philo, C. (Eds.). *Selling Places: The City as Cultural Capital, Past and Pment*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Keaveney, S. M. (1995). Customer switching behavior in service industries: An exploratory study. *Journal of Marketing*, 59 (4), 71-82.

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

- Keller, K.L. (1998). *Strategic Brand Management: Building, Measuring and Managing Brand Equity*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Keller, K. L. (2003). *Strategic Brand Management: Building, Measuring and Managing Brand Equity*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall/Pearson Education.
- Kelloway, E. K. (1998). *Using LISREL for structural equation modeling: A researcher's guide*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Kim, C. K., Han, D., & Park, S. B. (2001). The effect of brand personality and brand identification on brand loyalty: Applying the theory of social identification. *Japanese Psychological Research*, 43(4), 195-206.
- Kim, H. B. (1998). Perceived attractiveness of Korean destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(2), 340-361.
- Kim, H. J., Gursoya, D. & Lee, S. B. (2006). The impact of the 2002 World Cup on South Korea: comparisons of pre- and post-games. *Tourism Management*, 27(1), 86–96.
- Kim, H. & Richardson, S. L. (2003). Motion picture impacts on destination images. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(1), 216–237.
- Kim, K. (2000). Examination of Brand Personality and Brand Attitude within the Apparel Product Category. *Journal of Fashion and Marketing Management*, 4 (3), 223-242.
- Kim, N. S. & Chalip, L. (2004). Why travel to the FIFA World Cup? Effects of motives, background, interest, and constraints. *Tourism Management*, 25 (1), 695–707.
- Kim, S. S. & Morrision, A. M. (2005). Change of images of South Korea among foreign tourists after the 2002 FIFA World Cup. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 233–247.
- Kim, S. S. & Petrick, J. F. (2005). Residents' perceptions on impacts of the FIFA2002 World Cup: the case of Seoul as a host city. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 25–38.
- Kim, S. & Yoon, Y. (2003). The hierarchical effects of affective and cognitive components on tourism destination image. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 14(2):1–22.

- King, B. E. M. & Choi, H. J. (1997). The attributes and potential of 395 secondary Australian destinations through the eyes of Korean travel industry executives. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 3(4), 314-326.
- Kirk, J. & Miller, L. (1986). *Reliability and validity in qualitative research*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modelling (2nd Edition)*. New York: Guilford
- Knight, G. and Calantone, R. (2000). A flexible model of consumer country-of-origin perceptions: A cross-cultural investigation. *International Marketing Review*, 17(1), 127–145.
- Konecnik, M. & Frank, G. (2008). Tourism Destination Brand Identity: The Case of Slovenia. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(3), 177–189.
- Kotler P., Bowen J., & Makens J. (1999). *Marketing for hospitality and tourism*. NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Kotler, P. & Gertner, D. (2002). Country as Brand, Product and Beyond: A Place Marketing and Brand Management Perspective. *Journal of Brand Management*, 9(4/5), 249-262
- Kotler, P. D., Haider, H., & Rein. I. (1993). *Marketing places: Attracting investment, industry and tourism to cities, states and nations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Kozak, M. (2001). Repeaters' behavior at two distinct destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(3), 784–807.
- Krathwohl, D. R. (1993). *Methods of educational and social science research: an integrated approach*. New York; London: Longman.
- Krippendorf, J. (1982). Toward New Tourism Policies: The Importance of Environmental and Sociocultural Factors. *Tourism Management*, 3(3), September, 135-148.
- Kuder, G. F. & Richardson, M. W. (1937). The Theory of the Estimation of Test Reliability. *Psychometrika*, 2(1), 151-160.

L

- Laroche, M., Bergeron, J., & Barbaro-Forleo, G. (2001). Targeting consumers who are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 18(6), 503-520.

- Lastovicka, J. L. & Joachimsthaler, E. A. (1988). Improving the detection of personality-behavior relationships in consumer research. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 14 (March), 583-587.
- Lawson, F. & Band-Bovy, M. (1977). *Tourism and recreational development*. London: Architectural Press.
- Lee, C. (2003). *Cowboys and Dragons*. Dearborn: Kaplan Publishing.
- Lee, C., Lee, Y., & Lee, B. (2005). Korea's Destination Image Formed by the 2002 World Cup. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(4), 839–858.
- Lee, C. K. & Back, K. J. (2003). Pre-and-post-casino impact of residents' perception. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(4), 868–885.
- Lee, C. K. & Back, K. J. (2006). Examining structural relationships among perceived impact, benefit, and support for casino development based on 4 year longitudinal data. *Tourism Management*, 27 (1), 466–480.
- Lee, C. K, Kim, S. S., Kang, S. (2003). Perceptions of casino impacts—a Korean longitudinal study. *Tourism Management*, 24 (1), 45–55.
- Lee, C. K., Lee, Y. K., & Lee, B. K. (2005). Korea's destination image formed by the 2002 World Cup. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(4), 839–858.
- Lee, C. K. & Taylor, T. (2005). Critical reflections on the economic impact assessment of a mega-event: the case of 2002 FIFA World Cup. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 595–603.
- Lee, D. & Ganesh, G. (1999). Effects of partitioned country image in the context of brand image and familiarity. *International Marketing Review*, 16(1), 18–39.
- Lee, G. & Lee, C. K. (2009). Cross-cultural comparison of the image of Guam perceived by Korean and Japanese leisure travellers: Importance–performance analysis. *Tourism Management*, 30(6), 922-931
- Lee, T. H. & Crompton, J. (1992). Measuring Novelty Seeking in Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19, 732–751.
- Leisen, B. (2001). Image segmentation: The case of a tourism destination. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 15(1), 49-66.
- Levy, S. J. (1959). Symbols for sale. *Harvard Business Review*, 37(4), 117-124.

- Lewis, M. (1984). Errors made by Arab university students in the use of English prepositions. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17(1),47-64.
- Lewis, R.C. & Chambers, R.E. (2000). *Marketing Leadership in Hospitality* (third ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Lim, C. & Pan, G. W. (2005). Inbound tourism developments and patterns in China. *Mathematics and Computers in Simulation*, 68(1),499–507.
- Lim, K., O'Cass, A. (2001). Consumer brand classifications: an assessment of culture-of-origin versus country-of-origin. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 10(2), 120–36.
- Lin, C.H., Morais, D.B., Kerstetter, L. D.& Hou, J. S. (2007). Examining the Role of Cognitive and Affective Image in Predicting Choice Across Natural, Developed, and Theme-Park Destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(2), 183-194.
- Little, R. J., & Rubin, D. B. (1987). *Statistical analysis with missing data*. New York: John. Wiley.
- Liu, J. G. & Nelson, J.(2008). China's environment in a globalizing world. *Nature*, 434(1), 1179-1186.
- Lynch, K. (1960). *The image of the city*. Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

M

- Ma, Z.D. (1994). The Position of Confucianism in the Coming World Culture. *Renmin Ribao*, 19th September, 5.
- MacCallum, R. (1986). Specification searches in covariance structure modeling. *Psychological Bulletin*, 100 (1), 107-120.
- Madsen, H. (1992). Place-marketing in Liverpool: A review. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 16(1), 633-640.
- Madrigal, R. (1995). Personal values, traveler personality type, and leisure travel style. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 27(2), 125-142.
- Magin, S., Algesheimer, R., Huber, F. & Herrmann, A. (2003). The impact of brand personality and customer satisfaction on customer's loyalty: Theoretical approach and findings of a causal analytical study in the sector of internet service providers. *Electronic Markets*, 13(4), 294-308.

- Mahalanobis, P. C. (1936). On the Generalised Distance in Statistics. *Proceedings of the National Institute of Sciences of India*, 2(1), 49–55.
- Mahmood, A. (1998). Descriptive statistics. Statistical methods. *Geographical Studies. Ganj, D. (4th Ed)*. New Delhi: Rajesh Publications.
- Malhotra, N. K. (1988). Self-concept and product choice: An integrated perspective. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 9(1), 1-28.
- Manaktola, K. & Jauhari, V. (2007). Exploring consumer attitude and behavior towards green practices in the lodging industry in India. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 19(5), 364-377.
- Manrai, L., Lascu, D., & Manrai, A. (1998). Interactive effects of country of origin and product category on product evaluations. *International Business Review*, 7(1), 591–615.
- Mansfeld, Y. (1992). From Motivation to Actual Travel. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19, 399–419.
- Marsh, H. W., Balla, J. R., & McDonald, R. P. (1988). Goodness-of-fit indices in confirmatory factor analysis: The effect of sample size. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103, 391-410.
- Marshall, C. & Rossman, G.B. (1999). *Designing qualitative research (3rd Ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Martín, H. S. & Bosque, I. A. R. (2008). Exploring the cognitive–affective nature of destination image and the role of psychological factors in its formation. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 263-277.
- Mason, R. (1996). Large scale distance teaching and the convergence of telecommunications and multimedia. In McBeath, C. & Atkinson, R. (Eds.). *Proceedings of the Third International Interactive Multimedia Symposium*. Perth, Western Australia, 21-25 January. Promaco Conventions.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2005). *Business ethics - Ethics 101*. London: Little, Brown.
- May V. (1995). Environmental implications of the 1992 Winter Olympic Games. *Tourism Management*, 16(4), 269-275.
- Mazursky, D. & Jacoby, J. (1986). Exploring the development of store image. *Journal of Retailing*, 62(2), 145-165.

- McCracken, G. (1986). Culture and consumption: A Theoretical Account of the Structure and Movement of the Cultural Meaning of Consumer Goods. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13(1), 71–84.
- McCracken, G. (1989). Who is the celebrity endorser? Cultural foundations of the endorsement process. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16 (3), 310-321.
- McCrae, R. R. & John, O.P. (1992). An Introduction to Five Factor Model and Its Applications. *Journal of Personality*, 60(1), 175-215.
- McDougall, W. (1932). Of the Words Character and Personality. *Character Personality*, 1(1), 3-16.
- McLaughlina, M. J., Parker, D. R., & Clarke, J. M. (1999). Metals and micronutrients – food safety issues. *Field Crops Research*, 60(2), 143-163.
- McMullen, M. (2001). The green Olympics: boon or farce? *Colorado Journal of International Environmental Law and Policy*, 12(1), 119-127.
- Mecwilliams, A. & Siegel, D. (2001). Corporate social responsibility: a theory of the firm perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 117-127.
- Meethan , K . (2001). *Tourism in Global Society: Place, Culture, Consumption*. New York: Palgrave.
- Mensah, I. (2004). *Environmental management practice in US hotels*. Retrieved November 7, 2008 from

http://www.hotelonline.com/News/PR2004_2nd/May04_EnvironmentalPractices.html.
- Mensah, I. (2006). Environmental management practices among hotels in the greater Accra region. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25(3), 414-431.
- Michael J. M. (1985). Reliability and Validity. *RES 600: Graduate Research Methods*: Western International University.
- Mihalik, B. J. & Simonette, L. (1998). Resident perceptions of the 1996 Summer Olympic Games–Year II. *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, 5(1), 9–19.
- Mihalic, T. (2000). Environmental management of a tourist destination A factor of tourism competitiveness. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 65-78.

- Milman, A. & Pizam, A. (1995). The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination: the central Florida case. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33(3), 21–27.
- Mittal, P., Kumar, P., & Tsiros, M. (1999). Attribute-level performance, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions over time: A consumption system approach. *Journal of Marketing*, 63(2), 88–101.
- Moon, Y. (2002). Personalization and Personality: Some Effects of Customizing Message Style Based on Consumer Personality. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 12(4), 313-326.
- Morgan, N. J. & Pritchard, A. (2002). Contextualising destination branding. In Morgan, N., Pritchard, A. & Pride, R. (Eds). *Destination Branding - Creating the Unique Destination Proposition*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Morgan, N. & Pritchard, A. (2004). *Meeting the Destination Branding Challenge Destination Branding: Creating the Unique Destination Proposition*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth Heinemann.
- Morgan, N. J., Pritchard, A. & Piggott, R. (2003). Destination branding and the role of the stakeholders: The case of New Zealand. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 9(1), 285-299.
- Morgan, N. J., Pritchard, A. & Pride, R. (2004). *Meeting the Destination Branding Challenge Destination Branding: Creating the Unique Destination Proposition*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth Heinemann.
- Morschett, D., Hanna, S. K., Hälsig, F. & Jara, M. (2008). The Influence of self-congruity, brand personality and brand performance on store loyalty. *European Advances in Consumer Research*, 8(1), 417-418.
- Mulaik, S. A. & Millsap, R.E. (2000). Doing the Four-step Right. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 7(1), 36-73.
- Müller, B. & Chandon, J. L. (2003). The Impact of a Brand Website on Brand Personality. *Electronic Markets*, 13 (3), 210-221.
- Murase, H. & Bojanic, D. (2004). An Examination of the Differences in Restaurant Brand Personality across Cultures. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 11(2/3), 97 – 113.
- Murphy, L., Benckdorff, P., & Moscardo, G. (2007a). Destination Brand Personality: Visitor Perceptions of a Regional Tourism Destination. *Tourism Analysis*, 12(5/6), 419–432.

- Murphy, L., Benckendorff, P. & Moscardo, G. (2007b). Linking travel motivation, Tourist self-image and destination brand personality. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 22(2), 45-59.
- Murphy, L. & Moscardo, G.. (2006). Visitor and Stakeholder Perceptions of Destination Brand Personality: An Analysis of a Regional Australian Tourism Destination. *Travel and Tourism Research Association Annual Conference Proceedings*.
- Murphy, L., Moscardo, G. & Benckendorff, P. (2007). Using Brand Personality to Differentiate Regional Tourism Destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(8), 5–14.
- Murphy, P., Pritchard, M. P. & Smith, B. (2000). The Destination Product and Its Impact on Traveler Perceptions. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 43-52.
- Müller, B. & Chandon, J.L.(2003). The Impact of Visiting a Brand Website on Brand Personality. *Electronic Markets* ,13 (3): 210–221.

N

- Nachmias, D. & Chava, F. N. (1976). *Research methods in the social sciences*. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Nadeau, J., Heslop, L., O'Reilly, N. & Luk, P. (2008). Destination in a country image context. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(1), 84–106.
- Namkung, Y. & Jang, S. (2007). Does Food Quality Really Matter in Restaurant? Its Impact on Customer Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 31(3), 387–410.
- Nelder, J. A. (1999). From Statistics to Statistical Science. *The Statistician*, 48(2), 257-269.
- Neuman, W. L. (2000). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches (5th Edition)*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- New York Times (2007). *As more toys are recalled, trail ends in China*. *New York Times*. Retrieved June 19, 2007 from <http://www.nytimes.com/2007/06/19/business/worldbusiness/19toys.html>
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

O

Ogilvy, D. (1983). *Confessions of an advertising man*. New York: Dell

Olds, K. (1998). Urban mega-events, evictions and housing rights: The Canadian case. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1(1), 2–46.

Olinsky, A., Chen, S., & Harlow, L. (2003). The comparative efficacy of imputation methods for missing data in structural equation modeling. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 151, 53-79.

Oliver, R.L. (1997). *Satisfaction: A Behavioural Perspective on the Consumer*. NY: McGraw-Hill.

Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence Consumer Loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 63(1), 33-44.

Online News Hour (2008). *Olympics mark China's 'Coming of Age'*. Retrieved May 15, 2008 from

http://www.pbs.org/newshour/indepth_coverage/asia/china/2008/olympics.html

Opoku, R. & Abratt, R. (2006). Communicating Brand Personality: Are the Websites Doing the Talking for the Top South African Business Schools? *Journal of Brand Management*, 14(1/2), 20-39.

Opoku, R. & Hinson, R. (2006). Online Brand Personalities: An Exploratory Analysis of Selected African Countries. *Place Branding*, 2(2), 118-129.

Oppermann, M. (1996). Convention destination images: analysis of association meeting planners' perceptions. *Tourism Management*, 17(3), 175–182.

Orbaiz, L., & Papadopoulos, N. (2003). Toward a model of consumer receptivity of foreign and domestic products. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 15(3), 101–126.

Owen, J. G. (2005). Estimating the cost and benefit of hosting Olympic Games: What can Beijing expect from Its 2008 Games? *The Industrial Geographer*, 3(1), 1-18.

P

- Papadopoulos, N. (2004). Place Branding: Evolution, Meaning and Implications. *Place Branding*, 1(1), 36–49.
- Parameswaran, R., & Pisharodi, R. (2002). Assimilation effects in country Image research. *International Marketing Review*, 19(3), 259–278.
- Parasuraman, A., Leonard, B. L., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1991). Refinement and reassessment of the SERVQUAL scale. *Journal of Retailing*, 67(4), 420-450.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. & Berry, L. (1988). SERVQUAL: A multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. *Journal of Retailing*, 64(1), 12-40.
- Park, S. H. & Kim, Y. M. (2000). Conceptualizing and measuring the attitudinal loyalty construct in recreational sport contexts. *Journal of Sport Management*, 14(3), 197-207.
- Park, S. Y. & Lee, E. M. (2005). Congruence between brand personality and self-image, and the mediating roles of satisfaction and consumer brand relationship on brand loyalty. In Ha, Y. U. & Yi, Y. J. (Eds.). *Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research*. Duluth, MN: Association for Consumer Research.
- Parker, D. (2000). Saving NZ's clean green image. *The Daily News*, 26 (February), edition 1.
- Patterson M. (1999). Re-appraising the Concept of Brand Image. *Journal of Brand Management*, 6(6), 409–426.
- Patterson, P. G. & Spreng, R. A. (1997). Modeling the relationship between perceived value, satisfaction and repurchase intentions in a business-to-business, services context: An empirical examination. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8 (5), 414-434.
- Payne, D. & Dimanche, F. (1996). Towards a code of ethics for the tourism industry: An ethics model. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 15(9), 997-1007.
- Pearson, P. H. (1970). Relationship between Global and Specified Measures of Novelty Seeking. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 34, 199–204.
- Pearce, P. L. (1982a). Perceived changes in holiday destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(1), 145–164.

- Pearce, P. L. (1982b). *The social psychology of tourist behaviour*. Pergamon: Oxford.
- Pearce, P. L. (2005). *Tourist behaviour: Themes and conceptual schemes (Aspects of Tourism)*. Buffalo, Toronto: Channel view publications.
- Peattie, K. (1992). *Green marketing*. London: Pitman Publishing Corp.
- Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). *Multiple regression in behavioural research (3rd ed.)*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace.
- Penny, W. Y. K. (2007). The use of environmental management as a facilities management tool in the Macao hotel sector. *Facilities*, 25(7/8), 286-295.
- People's Daily (2005). *China to work for building harmonious society, vice-premier*. Retrieved May 31, 2005 from http://english.peopledaily.com.cn/200505/31/eng20050531_187595.html
- Pervin, L. A., Cervone, D. & Oliver, P. J. (2005). *Personality: Theory and Research*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons.
- Petrick, J. F. (2004). Are loyal visitors desired visitors? *Tourism Management*, 25, 463–470.
- Petrick, J.F. (2004). The Roles of Quality, Value, and Satisfaction in Predicting Cruise Passengers' Behavioural Intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(4), 397-407.
- Petrick, J. F. & Bachman, S. J. (2002a). An examination of the construct of perceived value for the prediction of golf travelers' intentions to revisit. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(1), 38–45.
- Petrick, J.F. & Bachman, S. J. (2002b). An examination of the determinants of golf travelers' satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(3), 252–258.
- Petrick, J. F., Morais, D. D., & Norman, W. (2001). An examination of the determinants of entertainment vacationers' intentions to revisit. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(August), 41–48.
- Phelps, A. (1986). Holiday destination image—the problem of assessment. *Tourism Management*, 7 (3), 168–180.
- Pike, S. (2002). Destination Image Analysis: A Review of 142 Papers from 1973 to 2000. *Tourism Management*, 23(1), 541–549.

- Pike, S. (2009). Destination Brand Positions of a Competitive Set of Near-home Destinations. *Tourism Management*, 30(6), 857-866.
- Pike, S. & Ryan, C. (2004). Destination positioning analysis Through a comparison of cognitive, affective, and conative perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42 (5), 333-342.
- Ping, R. A. (2009). Is there any way to improve Average Variance Extracted (AVE) in a Latent Variable (LV) X (Revised)? [on-line paper]. Retrieved from <http://home.att.net/~rpingjr/ImprovAVE1.doc> on February, 2010.
- Pitt, L.F., Opoku, R., Hultman, M., Abratt, R. & Spyropoulou, S. (2007). What I Say about Myself: Communication of Brand Personality by African Countries. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 835–844.
- Pizam, A. (2009). Green hotels: a fad, ploy or fact of life? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(1) (editorial).
- Plog, S. C. (1972). *Why destinations rise and fall in popularity*. Paper presented to the Travel Research Association Southern California Chapter, Los Angeles.
- Plog, S. C. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 14(4), 55-58.
- Plog, S. C. (1990). A carpenter's tools: An answer to Stephen L. J. Smith's review of psychocentrism / allocentrism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29(4), 43-45.
- Plog, S. C. (1991). *Leisure travel: Making it a growth market again!* New York: Wiley.
- Plog, S. C. (2001). Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity: An Update of a Cornell Quarterly Classic. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurants Quarterly*, 42(3), 13-24.
- Plummer, J.T. (1985). How Personality Makes a Difference. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 24 (6), 27–31.
- Poiesz, T.B.C.(1989). The Image Concept: Its Place in Consumer Psychology. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 10(1), 457-472.
- Porter, M. E. & Kramer, M. R. (2006). Strategy and society: the link between competitive advantage and corporate social responsibility. *Harvard Business Review*, 84(12), 78-92.
- Porter, M. E. & Linde, C. (1995). Green and competitive. *Harvard Business Review*, 73(5), 120–134.

- Pratt, J. W. (1976). F. Y. Edgeworth and R. A. Fisher on the Efficiency of Maximum Likelihood Estimation. *The Annals of Statistics*, 4 (3), 501–514.
- Prayag, G. (2008). Image, Satisfaction and Loyalty – The Case of Cape Town. *International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 19 (2), 205-224.
- Pride, R. (2002). Brand Wales: 'Natural Revival'. In Morgan, N. J., Pritchard, A. & Pride, R. (Eds.). *Destination branding: Creating the unique destination proposition*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Pride, W. M., Hughes, R. J., & Kapoor, J. R. (2008). *Business (9th ed.)*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Putte, B. (1991). *20 years of the theory of reasoned action of Fishbein and Ajzen: A meta-analysis*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Amsterdam, The Netherlands
- Pyo, S., Uysal, M., & Howell, R. (1988). Seoul Olympics visitor preferences. *Tourism Management*, 9(1), 68-78.
- Pyrczak, F. & Bruce, R. R. (1998). *Writing empirical research reports: A basic guide for students of the social and behavioural sciences (2nd ed.)*. Los Angeles: Pyrczak.

Q

- Quelette, J.A., & Wood, W., (1998). Habit and intention in everyday life: The multiple processes by which past behavior predicts future behavior. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124(1), 54–74.

R

- Rea, L. M. & Parker, R. A.(1997). *An overview of the sample survey process. In Designing and Conducting Survey Research: A Comprehensive Guide*. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Reibstein, D. J., Lovelock, C. H. & Dobson, R. P. (1980). The direction of causality between perceptions, affect, and behavior: An application to travel behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 6(1), 370-376.
- Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (1998). Cross-cultural differences in tourism: A strategy for tourism marketers. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 7(4), 79–106.

- Reilly, M. D. (1990). Free elicitation of descriptive adjectives for tourism image assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(4), 21–26.
- Ren, H. (2002). *China and the Olympic Movement: university lecture on the Olympics [online article]*. Barcelona: Centre d'Estudis Olímpics (UAB). International Chair in Olympism (IOC-UAB). Retrieved May, 2007 from <http://olympicstudies.uab.es/lectures/web/pdf/ren.pdf>
- Rigdon, E. (1998) Structural Equation Modeling. In *Modern Methods for Business Research*, Marcoulides, G. (Ed.), pp. 251–294. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ritchie, J. & Lewis, J. (2003). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London: Sage
- Ritchie, J. R. B. (1984). Assessing the impact of hallmark events: conceptual and research issues. *Journal of Travel Research*, 22(1), 2–11
- Ritchie, J. R. B. & Beliveau, D. (1974). Hallmark events: An evaluation of a strategic response to seasonality in the travel market. *Journal of Travel Research*, 13(1), 14-20.
- Ritchie, J. R. B., & Smith, B. (1991). The impact of a mega-event on host region awareness: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29(1), 3-10.
- Rittichainuwat, B. N., Qu, H., & Brown, T. J. (2001). Thailand's international travel image: mostly favorable. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42(2), 82-95.
- Roberts, J. A. (1995). Profiling levels of socially responsible consumer behavior: a cluster analytic approach and its implications for marketing. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 3(4), 97–117.
- Robins, R. W., Caspi, A. & Moffitt, T. E. (2000). Two Personalities, One Relationship. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79 (2): 251-259.
- Robinson, D. (1998). Nonlinear dependence, asymmetry and thresholds in Australian futures markets. Society of Computational Economics Conference, *Proceedings of the Society of Computational Economics Conference*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.
- Roche, M. (1994). Mega-events and Urban policy. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(1), 1-19.

- Roest, H. C. A. & Pieters, F. G. M. (1997). The nomological net of perceived service quality. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8(4), 336-351.
- Roger, H. (1991). *The ethics of social research*. Essex: Longman.
- Rojas-Méndez, J. I., I. Erenchun-Podlech, & Silva-Olave, E. (2004). The Ford Brand Personality in Chile. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 7(3), 232-251.
- Rongguang Z. & Kent, G. (2004). Human rights and the governance of food quality and safety in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Clinic Nutrition*, 13(2), 178-183.
- Rook, D. W. (1985). The ritual dimension of consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12(4), 251-264.
- Rosenberg, L. & Czepiel, J. (1983). A Marketing Approach for Consumer Retention. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 1(1), 45-51.
- Ross, G. F. (1993). Ideal and actual images of backpacker visitors to northern Australia. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(2), 54–57.
- Ross, G. F. (1994). *The psychology of tourism*. Elsternwick, Victoria: Hospitality Press.
- Rowe, J. E. & Wright, A. H. (1999). The Delphi technique as a forecasting tool: issues and analysis. *International Journal of Forecasting*, 15(4).
- Rowe, J. E. & Wright, A. H. (2001). Expert opinions in forecasting: Role of the Delphi technique. In Armstrong (Eds.). *Principles of Forecasting: A Handbook of Researchers and Practitioners*. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Russel, J. A., & Pratt, G. (1980). A description of affective quality attributed to environment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(1), 311-322.
- Ryan, C. (2002). *The tourist experience (2nd ed.)*. London: Continuum.
- Ryckman, R.M. (2004). *Theories of Personality (8th ed.)*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.

S

- Santos, C. A. (2004). Framing Portugal representational dynamics. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(1), 122-138.

- Saucier, G. (1994). Mini-markers: A brief version of Goldberg's unipolar Big-five markers. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 63(3), 506-516.
- Schinka, J. A., Velicer, W. F., & Weiner, I. B. (2003). *Research Methods in Psychology*. DC: Wiley.
- Schumacker, R.E. & Lomax, R.G. (2004). *Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modeling Book Description*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Segars, A.H. & Grover, V. (1993). Re-examining Ease of Use and Usefulness: A Confirmatory Factor Analysis. *MIS Quarterly*, 17(4), 517-527.
- Severt, D., Wang, Y. C., Chen, P. J. & Breiter, D. (2007). Examining the motivation, perceived performance, and behavioural intentions of convention attendees: Evidence from a regional conference. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 399-408.
- Seymour, E. (1979). The stability of behavior: I. on predicting most of the people much of the Time. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37 (July), 1097- 1126.
- Seymour, E. (1980). The stability of behavior: II. on predicting most of the people much of the time. *American Psychologist*, 35 (September), 790-806.
- Shapcott, M. (1998). Commentary on 'Urban mega-events, evictions and housing rights: The Canadian case' by Chris Olds. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1 (2), 195-196.
- Sheppard, B. H., Hartwick, J., & Warshaw, P. R. (1988). The theory of reasoned action: A meta-analysis of past research with recommendations for modifications and future research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15, 325-343.
- Shuiying, W. (2002). Analysis of 637 cases of administrative sanction of food sanitation. *Zhejiang Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 14 (10), 29.
- Shultis, J. D. (1989). Images and use of New Zealand's protected areas by domestic and international visitors. *Geo Journal*, 19, 329- 350.
- Siguaw, J. A., Mattila, A. & Austin, J.R. (1999). The Brand Personality Scale-An Application for Restaurants. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 40 (3), 48-55.
- Silver, I. (1993). Marketing Authenticity in Third World Countries. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(1), 302-318.

- Singha, N. & Hu, C. (2008). Understanding strategic alignment for destination marketing and the 2004 Athens Olympic Games: Implications from extracted tacit knowledge. *Tourism Management*, 29(1), 929–939.
- Sirgy, M. (1983). *Social Cognition and Consumer Behavior*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Sirgy, M. & Su, H.(2000). Destination Image, Self-Congruity and Travel Behavior: Toward an Integrated Model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(1), 340–352.
- Sirgy, M. J. (1982). Self-concept in consumer behaviour: A critical review. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(1), 287-300.
- Sirgy, M. J. (1985). Using self-congruity and ideal congruity to predict purchase motivation. *Journal of Business Research*, 13(1), 195-206.
- Sirgy, M. J. (1986). *Self-congruity: Toward a theory of personality and cybernetics*. New York: Praeger.
- Sirgy, M. J., & Su, C. (2000). Destination Image, Selfcongruity, and Travel Behaviour: Toward an Integrative Model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(4), 340-352.
- Slater, J. (2002). Brand Louisiana: 'Come as you are. Leave Different.'. In Morgan, N. J., Pritchard, A. & Pride, R. (Eds.). *Destination branding: Creating the unique destination proposition*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Small, B. H., Wilson, J. A., & Parminter, T. G. (2002). *Clean, green and healthy? Genetically engineered food: a perceived threat to New Zealand's brand image* .Paper presented at the Eighth Annual Conference of the New Zealand Agricultural and Resource Economics Society Blenheim, July 2002 AERU, discussion paper no 14996–100.
- Smit, E. G., Berge, E., & Franzen, G. (2003). Brands are just like real people! The development of SWOCC's Brand Personality Scale. In Hansen, F. & Christensen, L. B. (Eds.). *Branding and Advertising*. Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School Press.
- Smith, S. L. J.(1994). The tourism product. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 582–595.
- Smith, N. C. & Quelch, J. A. (1993). *Ethics in marketing*. Boston: Irwin.

- Smothers, N. (1993). Can Products and Brands Have Charisma? In: Aaker, D. A., Biel, A. (Eds.) *Brand Equity and Advertising* (pp. 97–111). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum Associates.
- Socher, K. & Tschurtschenthaler, P. (1987). The role and impact of mega-events: Economic perspectives - The case of the Winter Olympic Games 1964 and 1976. *AIEST Conference Report*, 28(1), 103-119.
- Som, R. K. (1995). *Basic concepts of sampling. Practical sampling techniques. (2nd Ed)*. New York: Marcel Dekker, Inc.
- Soutar, G. N. & McLeod, P. B. (1993). Residents' perceptions on impact of the America's Cup. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(1), 571-582.
- Son, A., & Pearce, P. (2005). Multi-faceted Image Assessment: International Students' View of Australia as a Tourist Destination. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 18(4), 21-35.
- Sparks, B. (2007). Planning a wine tourism vacation? Factors that help to predict tourist behavioural intentions. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 1180–1192.
- Sparrow, M. (1989). A tourism planning model for hallmark events. In Syme, G. J., Shaw, B. J., Fenton, D. M. & Mueller, W. S. (Eds.). *The Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events*. Aldershot: Avebury.
- Spreng, R. A., MacKenzie, S. B., & Olshavsky, R. W. (1996). A reexamination of the determinants of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(3), 15–32.
- Stepchenkova, S. & Morrison, A. M. (2006). The destination image of Russia : From the online induced perspective. *Tourism Management*, 27(5), 943-956.
- Stepchenkova, S. & Morrison, A. M. (2008). Russia's destination image among American pleasure travelers: Revisiting Echtner and Ritchie. *Tourism Management*, 29(1), 548–560
- Stern, E. & Krakover, S. (1993). The formation of composite urban image. *Geographical Analysis*, 25(2), 130-146.
- Stiger, J. H. (1990). Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 25(2), 173-180.
- Strahilevitz, M. (1999). The Effects of Product Type and Donation Magnitude on Willingness to Pay More for a Charity-Linked Brand. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 8(3), 215-241.

- Sunday Times Online (2009). *Sri Lanka tourism's new destination social responsibility project*. Retrieved August 5, 2007 from <http://sundaytimes.lk/070805/FinancialTimes/ft337.html>
- Sundberg, R. (2006). Small-sample and Selection Bias Effects in Multivariate Calibration, Exemplified for OLS and PLS Regressions. *Chemometrics and Intelligent Laboratory Systems*, 84(1-2), 21-25.
- Sung, Y. & Tinkham, S. F. (2005). Brand personality structures in the United States and Korea: Common and culture-specific factors. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 15 (4), 334-350.
- Supphellen, M., & Grønhaug, K. (2003). Building Foreign Brand Personalities in Russia: The Moderating Effect of Consumer Ethnocentrism. *International Journal of Advertising*, 22 (2), 203-226.
- Surgy, M.J. & Su, C. (2000). Destination Image, self-congruity, and travel behavior: Towards an integrated model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(4), 340-352.
- Swan, J. E. & Oliver, R. L. (1989). Post-purchase communication by consumers. *Journal of Retailing*, 65(1), 516–533.

T

- Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics (4th ed.)*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Tam, J. L. M. (2000). The effects of service quality, perceived value and customer satisfaction on behavioural intentions. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 6(4), 31-43.
- Tapachai, N., & Waryszak, R. (2000). An examination of the role of beneficial image in tourist destination selection. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(1), 37–44.
- Tassiopoulos, D. & Haydam, N. (2008). Golf tourists in South Africa: A demand-side study of a niche market in sports tourism. *Tourism Management*, 29(5), 870-882
- Taylor, S. A. (1997). Assessing regression-based importance weights for quality perceptions and satisfaction judgments in the presence of higher order and/or interaction effects. *Journal of Retailing*, 13(1), 135-159.

- Taylor, S. A. & Baker, T. L. (1994). An assessment of relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in the formation of consumer's behavior. *Journal of Retailing*, 70(2), 163-178.
- Todd, S. (2001). Self-Concept: A Tourism Application. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour: An International Research Review*, 1 (2), 184–196.
- Trauer, B. & Ryan, C. (2005). Destination image, romance and place experience—an application of intimacy theory in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 26(4), 481-491.
- Triplett, T. (1994). Brand personality must be managed or it will assume a life of its own. *Marketing News*, 28 (10), 9-9.
- Trochim, W. M. K (1997). *The research methods knowledge base*. Ithaca: Cornell University.
- Turker, D. (2009). Measuring Corporate Social Responsibility: A Scale Development Study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 85 (1), 411–427.
- Turner, L. W., & Reisinger, Y. (2001). Shopping satisfaction for domestic tourists. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 8(1), 15–27.

U

- United Nations World Tourism Organization (2009). International tourism challenged by deteriorating global economy. *World Tourism Barometer*, 7(1), 1-52.
- Upshaw, L. (1995). *Building Brand Identity: A Strategy for Success in a Hostile Market Place*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Uysal, M. (1994). Introduction. In Uysal, M.(Ed). *Global Tourist Behavior*. London: Routledge.
- Uysal, M., Chen, J. S., & Williams, D. R. (2000). Increasing state market share through a regional positioning. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 89–96.

V

- Vaidya, R., Gandhi, P. & Aagja, J. (2009). Brand Personality and Perception Measures of Two Cities: Surat and Ahmedabad. *Journal of Brand Management*, 6(1), 57-73.

Vallance, E. (1995). *Business ethics at work*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Venable, B. T., Rose, G. M. , Bush, D. & Gilbert, F. W. (2005).The Role of Brand Personality in Charitable Giving: An Assessment and Validation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 33 (3), 295-312.

Visser, P., Krosnick, J., & Lavrakas, P. (2000). Survey Research. In H. Reis & C. Judd (Eds.) *Handbook of Research Methods in Social and Personality Psychology* (pp. 223–252). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

W

Walle, A. H. (1997). Quantitative versus qualitative tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 524-536.

Walmsley, D. J. & Jenkins, J. M. (1992). Tourism cognitive mapping of unfamiliar environments. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(1), 168-186.

Walmsley, D.J. & Jenkins, J. M. (1993). Appraisive images of tourist areas: Application of personal construct. *Australian Geographer*, 24(2), 1-13.

Walmsley, D. J., & Young, M. (1998). Evaluative images and tourism: the use of personal constructs to describe the structure of destination images. *Journal of Travel Research*, 36(3), 65–69.

Wang, N. (1997). Vernacular House as an Attraction: Illustration from Hutong tourism in Beijing. *Tourism Management*, 18(8), 573-580.

Wangenheim, F. & Bayon, T. (2004). The effect of word of mouth on services switching: measurement and moderating variables. *European Journal of Marketing*, 38(9/10), 1173–1198.

Ward, L. M. & Russell, A. (1981). The psychological representation of molar physical environments. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 110(1), 121-152.

Webb, D. J., Mohr, L. A., & Harris, K. E. (2008). A re-examination of socially responsible consumption and its measurement. *Journal of Business Research* 61(1), 91–98.

Weiner, B.(1986) *An Attributional Theory of Motivation and Emotion*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.

- Wiggins, J. S. & Pricus, A.L. (1992). Personality: Structure and Measurement. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 43(1), 473-504.
- Williams, C. & Buswell, J. (2003). *Service quality in leisure and tourism*. London: CABI Publishing.
- Wind, Y., & Lerner, D. (1979). On the measurement of purchase data: Surveys versus purchase diaries. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16, 39–47.
- Witter, S. B. (1985). Attitudes about resort area a comparison of tourists and local retailers. *Journal of Travel Research*, 24(1), 14–19.
- Woolley, T., Kimmins, S., Harrison, P., & Harrison, R. (1997). *Green building handbook—a guide to building products and their impact on the environment*. London: E&FN Spon.
- Wright, S.S. (1921). Correlation of Causation. *Journal of Agricultural Research* 20(1), 557–585.

X

- Xiao, Y. (2002). Quality of agricultural environment and safety of agricultural products. In Jianrong, L. (eds). *Safety, nutrition and development of food*. Beijing: Agricultural technology and science publisher of China.

Y

- Yesawich, P.(1997). The myth of the loyal quest. *Lodging Hospitality* (1997), p. 18.
- Yeh, L. L., Kim, K. O., Chompreeda, P., Rimkeeree, H., Yau, N. J. N., & Lundhal, D. S.(1998). Comparison in use of the 9 point Hedonic scale between Americans, Chinese, Koreans and Thai. *Food Quality and Preference*, 9(6), 413-419.
- Yi, Y. & La, S. (2004). What influences the relationship between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention? Investigating the effects of adjusted expectations and customer loyalty. *Psychology and Marketing*, 21(5), 351-373.
- Yoo, J., & Chon, K. (2005). *Development of a measurement scale for attitude towards convention participation*. The 10th Annual Conference on Graduate Education and Graduate Student Research in Hospitality and Tourism, January 5-7 2005, South Carolina, USA, 1067-1072.

- Yoon, Y., Bursoy, D., & Chen, J. (2001). Validating a tourism development theory with structural equation modeling. *Tourism Management*, 22(4), 363-372.
- Yu, X. X. (2004). *Beijing and Green Olympic Games*. Retrieved September 14, 2004 from http://www.bj.xinhuanet.com/bjpd-zl/2004-09/14/content_2867230.htm,
- Yu'ksel, A., & Yu'ksel, F. (2007). Shopping risk perceptions: Effects on tourists' emotions, satisfaction and expressed loyalty intentions. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 703-713.

Z

- Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L. & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioural consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(2), 31-46.
- Zhang, G. R. & Lew, A. A. (2002). Chinese Tourism Destination Management—Issues and Examples. In Lew, A. A., Yu, L., Ap, J., Zhang, G.R. (Eds.). *Tourism in China*. The Haworth Hospitality Press: New York • London • Oxford.
- Zhang, G., Pine, R., & Zhang, Q. H. (2000). China's International Tourism Development: Present and Future. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 12(5), 282-290.
- Zheng, L., Jiang, Y. F., Yang, T. M., & Pardo, T. A. (2008). Sharing information for product quality and food safety in China: barriers and enablers. *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Theory and Practice of Electronic Governance*. NY: ACM.
- Zheng, Y., Sym, T. P., & Ross, T. (1996). *Scarlet Memorial: Tales of Cannibalism in modern China*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press.
- Zhou, Y. G. & Ma, E. (2008). Maintaining the Authenticity of Rural Tourism Experiences through Community Participation—the Case of Two Baiyang Lake Island Villages. In H. Gu, & C. Ryan (Eds.). *Chinese Tourism Destination Management—Issues and Examples*. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Zikmund, W. G. (1987). *Business research methods*. Cincinnati: South-Western
- Zikmund, W. G. (1991). *Exploring marketing research (4th ed.)*. Sydney: Dryden Press.
- Zimmer, M. R. & Golden, L. L. (1988). Impressions of retail stores: a content analysis of consumer images. *Journal of Retailing*, 64(3), 265-293.