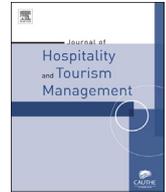




Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management

journal homepage: <http://www.journals.elsevier.com/journal-of-hospitality-and-tourism-management>

The impact of event advertising on attitudes and visit intentions

Sungsoo Kim ^{a,*}, Jongwoo Jun ^b^a Department of Economic Development & Tourism, College of Business, University of Southern Mississippi, Hattiesburg, MS, USA^b School of Communications, Dankook University, Yong-in, South Korea

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 25 August 2015

Received in revised form

10 April 2016

Accepted 11 April 2016

Keywords:

Attitude toward the city

Event advertising

Film festival

Image congruence

Intention to visit the city

ABSTRACT

This study examines the effects of event advertising on peoples' attitudes and visit intentions toward event-hosting cities. One hundred and ninety-two samples were collected for this study. A 2×2 factorial multivariate-analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to test the first and second set of hypotheses, whereas a separate univariate-analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test the last hypothesis. Event advertising was found to have a positive effect on people's attitude toward the hosting cities. Also, people's different levels of city recognition (well-know vs. unknown) significantly influence their attitudes toward the city. However, the effects of event advertising on peoples' attitude toward the city are greater if the city is relatively unknown. In this sense, an unknown city could benefit more than a well-known city by improving the image of the city using event advertising as a promotional tool. Lastly, image congruence affects peoples' attitude toward the event-hosting city.

© 2016 The Authors.

1. Introduction

Special events are one of the fastest growing sectors of tourism (Getz, 2008). Special events attract visitors to event-hosting cities and further induce more people to visit even after the event has passed (Backman, Backman, Uysal, & Mohr Sunshine, 1995; Getz, 1998, 2008). These events create a positive and distinctive image of the hosting city where a special event is held (Beeton, 2001). At the same time various media deliver specific images of the city and event to potential visitors, enabling them to make a rational choice or gain an emotional feel for new destinations to plan for an actual visit in the future (Butler, 1990; Connell, 2012; Iwashita, 2008; Lynch & Veal, 1996; O'Connor & Gilbert, 2008; Zhang, Xiaoxiao, Cai, & Lu, 2014). Chalip, Green, and Hill (2003) mentioned that exposure to media covering special events changes visitors' perceptions of the hosting city in a positive way, which may increase tourist traffic for many years following the event (Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis, & Mules, 2000; Ritchie & Smith, 1991). McDaniel (1999) also found that visitors' attitudes toward the city are more positive when various programs in the event are paired with the image of the hosting city. In this regard, the effective use of advertising for events is an undeniably key factor in fostering visitors' participation in the events (Getz, 2008; Witt, 1988). Moreover, media coverage of

an event is considered to boost the image of the hosting city (Dwyer et al., 2000; Ritchie, Sanders, & Mules, 2006; Ritchie & Smith, 1991).

Although much attention has been focused on the merits of attracting special events to a city (Chalip & Costa, 2006; Chan, 2007; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Hede, 2005; Laffont & Prigent, 2011; Ohmann, Jones, & Wilkes, 2006; Roche, 2006; Toohey & Veal, 2007), research in special events related to event advertising is relatively sparse in the tourism and hospitality fields. To fill this gap, this study seeks to examine the role of event advertising in building a city's image with a specific reference to international film festivals. International film festivals are one of the most popular tourist attractions, which have value as special events to attract visitors to the hosting city. Bassett, Griffiths, and Smith (2002) stated that the film industry's presence in a city or the hosting of a film festival has value in creating or improving the city's image through (event) advertising (see also Di Persio, Horvathm, & Wobbeking, 2008). Therefore, by revealing the critical role of event advertising's effects (e.g., delivering a positive image of a city) on event visitors and prospective tourists in their behavioral intentions, the city can promote event products and services and increase tourism to the destination. As Zhang et al. (2014) indicated, a destination (e.g., city) with a recognizable positive image has a greater chance of being selected by event-visitors or tourists. A favorable perception held by tourists can generate positive word of mouth and influence other potential tourists' behaviors (Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001).

In this regard, the findings of this study can enrich the body of

* Corresponding author. 118 College Drive, 5176, Hattiesburg, MS 39406, USA.
E-mail address: Sungsoo.kim@usm.edu (S. Kim).

knowledge in event tourism along with event advertising and also provide insights for event marketing practitioners and city image managers. In particular, for event-hosting cities that do not have the same cognitive levels (reputation), different advertising effects should be generated depending on the level of city recognition. Therefore, the objective of this study is twofold: first, to investigate the effects of event advertising on visitors' attitudes toward a city (well-know vs. unknown city), as well as their intentions to visit the city where an international film festival takes place, and second, to further investigate whether image congruence between international film festivals and hosting cities changes visitors' attitudes.

2. Literature review

2.1. Attitude toward the city

Special events are one of the main attractions that bring visitors to the hosting cities (Getz, 2008). Through special events, cities can improve their reputation and further enhance the public image of the city (Getz & Fairley, 2004; Hede, 2005; Giffani & Rivenburgh, 2000; Ritchie et al., 2006). Ritchie and Smith (1991) examined the impact of a mega-event (e.g., Olympics) on the hosting city (Calgary) over four years before and after the event. They found that the city's image was significantly improved for a period of time after the event. Hede (2005) also identified that people's attitudes toward the city are significantly improved as their vicarious experiences of the city (Athens) increase via consumption of a media telecast of the special event.

As Cornwell and Maignan (1998) indicated, event advertising is considered "advertising with events" or the practice of promoting the interests of a city and its brand by associating the city with a specific activity (special event). Although prior literature (Close, Krishen, & LaTour, 2006; Jun, 2010, Sneath, Finney, & Close, 2005) related to event advertising has primarily focused on event sponsorship, studies of event advertising have also dealt with the relationship between the city or product experience and special events, as well as the emotional association of events with brands or destinations (Wohlfeil and Wohlfeil, 2006; Wood & Masterman, 2007). Practically, event advertising is adopted to increase sales, brand awareness, and brand/city image (Sneath et al., 2005). Event advertising can also help attain these goals through the voluntary participation of visitors, and this factor can be applied to all event advertising regardless of the event type. The key elements of successful events are providing opportunities to participate in the event-object, the event-content, event advertising, and the social interaction considering tourists' interests (Wohlfeil & Whelan, 2006).

Previous research (Bassett et al., 2002; Gasher, 2002) noted that film industries are one of the significant event-sectors, creating a city image by combining various factors (e.g., photography, music, video, stagecraft, advertisement, and motion picture), which further influence potential visitors' attitudes toward the hosting city (Di Persio, Horvathm, & Wobbeking, 2008). Every year film festivals are organized internationally to provide an opportunity for event-participants to mingle with people from different countries and organizations and share their opinions about movies, the festival and hosting city, which may change their attitudes toward the city (Kamera, 2008). In particular, Prentice and Andersen (2003) pointed out that film festivals bring positive attitudes to the hosting city. As such, film festivals can build a favorable image, reputation and even cultural exchange for the cities hosting the special events (Prentice & Andersen, 2003; Kamera, 2008).

Green, Costa, and Fitzgerald (2003) also stated that increasing people's exposures to event advertising ameliorates the image of cities. What is shown or mentioned about the city in the advertising

has a significant effect on people's attitude toward the hosting city. Thus, an advertisement that covers an international film festival may increase people's positive attitude toward the city. Similarly, Xue, Chen, and Yu (2012) mentioned that the content of media reports is a critical determinant of visitors' image of the city, especially for those who have not visited the city. As such, the special events enable building an image of the city through positive media coverage (e.g., event advertising), which may change attitudes toward the event-hosting city (Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules, & Ali, 2003; Xue et al., 2012). This discussion leads to the following hypothesis:

H1: Attitudes toward the hosting city are more positive when film festival information is provided with city information in the event advertisement.

2.2. Intention to visit

Tourists' behavioral intentions are formed through a rational choice and decision process (Hennessey, Yun, MacDONALD, & MacEACHERN, 2010). As Vogt, Winter, and Fried (2005) indicated, intentions are assumed to accurately predict their actual behavior. Previous research on consumers' behavioral intentions shows a positive relationship between people's attitudes and their intentions or actual purchasing behaviors (Armitage & Conner, 2000; Petty & Krosnick, 1995; Vogt et al., 2005). This line of research supports the idea that tourists' actual behaviors are explained by their intentions to select the city as a tourism destination. Several researchers (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Choi, Tkachenko, & Sil, 2011; Hennessey et al., 2010, Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Woodside & MacDonald, 1994; Zhang et al., 2014) also mentioned such factors as travel stimuli (advertisement) and external variables (image of destination) that could play an important role in creating destination awareness, thus influencing tourists' intentions to visit a destination. For example, knowledge about the image of a destination (e.g., city) held by tourists may influence their intentions to visit the city (Zhang et al., 2014). Hennessey et al. (2010) also found that advertisements, as a part of total marketing campaigns, stimulate tourists' intentions to visit and actual visits to a destination. The components in the advertisements promoting their interest in visiting a destination include special events created by tourism industries, and destination's public and private sectors (Middleton, 1988).

As Riley and van Doren (1992) commented, films made at a destination are likened to events in terms of their appeal, uniqueness, status, and timely significance. Films (or movies), like an event, increase visitation to the filming location by about 19%–74% during the year following each movie release. Special events, such as film festivals can enhance visitors' experiences by providing various movie programs, and with these positive event experiences, visitors spend more time in the hosting city (Getz & Cheyne, 2002; Connell, 2012). Chalip et al. (2003) also indicated that event advertising has an effect on destination image, which in turn increases tourists' intention to visit a destination. Similarly, Barros (2012) mentioned that events have a positive and significant impact on the probability of a visitor returning to the city. In this regard, tourist's visit intention will increase by means of event advertising, which delineates a special event (e.g., film festival) along with the hosting city. As such, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H2-1: Intentions to visit the hosting city are higher when film festival information is provided with city information in the event advertisement.

Chalip et al. (2003) noted that event advertising has some effects on tourists' intentions to visit a destination. The pattern of effects of event advertising, however, differed in each destination. For example, event advertising, which covered the Indy Car rally on the Gold Coast in Australia, was more effective with people in the United States regarding their intention to visit than those who live in New Zealand. For the American, information in the event advertisement was relatively new and informative, and consequently had more effect on their intention to visit the Gold Coast. This result is explained by novel stimuli being more consistent with an arousal, which, in turn, has significant impact on people's behavioral intentions (Berlyne, Graw, Salapatek, & Lewis, 1963). No research, however, has been identified to examine an effect of event advertising on the hosting city, to which people have a different level of city recognition, well-known versus unknown city. Examples of well-known cities include famous tourist destinations, such as Orlando, New York City, and Cannes, which frequently hold different special events in the respective cities. Typically, well-known cities enjoy a high degree of exposure via media on a regular basis (Ritchie & Smith, 1991). To the contrary, various media do not often cover unknown cities, so that tourists' initial attitudes toward the unknown city may be relatively less favorable than the well-known city. Likewise, it is intuitive to infer that tourists' intentions to visit the well-known city are greater than the unknown city. This line of thought is supported by the research in consumer behavior. For example, Tucker and Zhang (2011) argued that popularity information more influences people to flock to major products (e.g., cities). Information about well-known cities can exert bigger effects for tourists, making them more likely to visit the city as a destination than information about unknown cities. Keller (2003) also indicated that strong, favorable, and unique brands should enjoy various marketing benefits, in particular, in the implementation step; for instance, popularity effects can be used as advertising message strategies. Among popularity claims, advertising by highly expert sources produces more favorable attitudes toward brands or images (Chiu, 2008). Adapting popularity effects of advertising, it can then be supported that information about well-known cities produces more positive attitudes toward the city and can further influence potential tourists' behavior intentions. Thus, based on this discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H2-2: Attitudes toward an event-hosting city are more favorable when the city is relatively well known than when the city is relatively unknown.

H2-3: Intentions to visit an event-hosting city are greater when the city is relatively well known than when the city is relatively unknown.

In addition, prior to testing the above hypotheses, initial attitudes, as well as initial intentions to visit the hosting city are examined along with different levels of city recognition (well-known vs. unknown city) through the following hypothesis:

H2-4: Initial attitudes toward the well-known city are more favorable than the unknown city.

H2-5: Initial intentions to visit the well-known city are greater than the unknown city.

2.3. Image congruence

Another important factor in examining tourists' attitudes is

image congruence between a special event and the hosting city. Although the main focus of this investigation is based on the image-congruity theory (Boksberger, Dolnicar, Laesser, & Randle, 2011; Sirgy & Su, 2000), it is intended to examine the special event and hosting city congruity effects on tourists' attitude toward the city. According to the theory, the greater the match between the special event and city image, the more likely that the tourist has a favorable attitude toward that city. In particular, city image is a multifaceted concept that includes traits of various products and services in a city. Choi, Chan, and Wu (1999) mentioned that city image is defined as individual's belief, idea, or impression about the city, and also conceptualized as visitors' perception of the city, which is formed by information from various media over time (Assael, 1984). The more the special event images conveyed by event advertisement are matched to the image held by tourists, the more likely their attitudes toward the city change in a positive way (Chalip et al., 2003). Leisen (2001) pointed out that tourists build a city's image by processing information about a destination from event advertisements. Qu, Kim, and Im (2011) also found that positive city image can be achieved through emphasizing strong, favorable, and unique city image by utilizing marketing campaigns via event advertisement (Mehta, 1994). More importantly, Jago et al. (2003) suggested that tourists' connective perceptions of city image with a special event at the hosting city are determined by how images associated with the event are transferred to the city. The transferred image from a special event to the hosting city is of significance because the conveyed image would dominate the city image (Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). As such, image congruence between special event and the city in the event advertisement leads to a positive or negative attitude toward the hosting city depending on the degree of match or mismatch between the two in the event advertisement. Thus, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H3: A high degree of image congruence between the special event and hosting city in event advertisement will lead to more favorable attitudes toward the city.

3. Methods

3.1. Research design and procedure

This study examines effects of advertising with the international film festival information (existent or non-existent) on attitudes and intentions to visit the hosting city where an international film festival is held. The event-hosting city is manipulated by two different types, well-known or unknown city according to people's different levels of city recognition. Lastly, effects of image congruence (low or high) on people's attitudes are further explored. For this experimental design, Campbell and Stanley (1963) suggested that random assignment, experimental treatment, and observation be required. As per random assignment, a coin toss was used to determine the group assignment for each participant. For the treatment group, information about the hosting city was presented to participants with international film festival information in the form of magazine advertisements. For the control group, only the hosting city information was provided. More specifically, when each participant walked into the classroom, those corresponding to a coin toss of "heads" were assigned to the treatment group, whereas those corresponding to "tails" were assigned to the control group. Once each participant was assigned to one of the groups, a coin was randomly flipped to determine an event advertisement of either Cannes or Busan for participants to fill out the relevant survey questionnaire. No subjects were exposed to both conditions.

In this regard, every participant had an equal chance of being assigned to any treatment conditions. [Keppel and Wickens \(2004\)](#) noted that the participants who are chosen to participate in an experiment would differ widely on a host of characteristics (e.g., attitude, behavioral intention). Through randomization, however, “there is a near equivalence of subjects across the different treatments” (p. 9), which would minimize or eliminate any possibility of confounding between the nuisance variable and the treatment. In addition, the participants were told that the experimenters were to examine people’s perceptions about the city in order to avoid any potential bias during the experiments.

After the experiments, however, participants were debriefed about the real purpose of this study. The survey procedure lasted about 18 min. Two hundred and five samples were randomly collected from three different classes at two large state universities in the United States. However, seven were discarded due to insufficient information in the survey, and six were removed because of filter checks, that is, whether or not participants had visited either the well-known (Cannes) or unknown city (Busan), resulting in one hundred and ninety-two samples being included in this study. Among the participants, 18.8% were male and 81.3% were female. Their race distributions showed that 76.9% were White, 13.5% were Hispanic, 6.2% were Black, and 3.4% were Asian, respectively.

3.2. Event advertisement

The event advertisement used for this study was print material in the form of magazine advertisements. Television advertising is not a primary marketing tool for events, and alternative methods are commonly used. Printed forms, such as magazines, are more commonly used in event advertising although outdoor advertising, such as posters and placards are additional printed forms, which can deliver information to the potential tourists ([Holy, 2012](#)). For this study, the event advertisement was presented on one page in a questionnaire packet. The information used for the film festival included two pictures, obtained from the official national tourism websites, but it was modified as an event advertisement. Each picture in the event advertisement represents the main characteristics of the international film festivals, displaying celebrities walking in the festival and fireworks during an opening ceremony. As [Connell \(2012\)](#) suggested, the history of international film festivals, different programs (e.g., films or movies), and other events were also presented in the event advertisement. Information regarding the hosting city was also obtained from the official website of each city. In particular, information for each city was summarized from the official website, modified, and used in the event advertisement. This information included tourist attractions, such as beaches and historical areas, and a brief history of each city.

3.3. Selection of well-known vs. unknown city

A pilot test was conducted to determine a well-known and unknown city. Ninety-two students from two large state universities in the northeastern regions of the United States were asked to rate six cities that previously hosted an international film festival. The level of city recognition of each city was measured on seven-point Likert scales, ranged from 1 (the least well-known city) to 7 (the most well-known city). A range of keyword searches was run to identify a list of cities via major search engines, such as Google, Bing, and Yahoo. [Nielsen \(2006\)](#) noted that searchers do not view search results beyond the first page. [Granka, Joachims, and Gay \(2004\)](#) also asserted that most searchers only look at the top two results with few scrolling down the page. In this sense, the first two pages of the search results were examined, and city names were counted as they appeared. In particular, two keywords - ‘famous

city’ and ‘international film festival’ - were jointly selected to identify cities that host a famous international film festival, whereas only one keyword (international film festival) was used to select unknown cities. The ten cities that previously hosted an international film festival were Peniscola (Spain), Cannes (France), Busan (S. Korea), Venice (Italy), Toronto (Canada), as well as Chicago, Seattle, Miami, and Cleveland (United States). However, the cities located in the United State were eliminated for this study because of participants’ familiarity with these cities. Additionally, to ensure that their past visit experience did not influence selection of well-known and unknown cities, five of the ninety-seven respondents were eliminated due to having previously visited one or more of ten cities, leaving ninety-two samples to be included in the pilot test. Among 6 cities, Cannes, France ($M = 5.27$) and Busan, the Republic of Korea ($M = 1.7$) were identified as the most well known and unknown city, respectively. In this study, therefore, Cannes is operationally defined as a well-known city, and Busan as an unknown city based on the pilot test, measuring the level of participants’ recognition of cities that previously hosted an international film festival.

3.4. Survey instrument and measurement

The survey questionnaire consisted of items measuring demographic variables (e.g., gender and ethnicity), attitude, visit intention, and image congruence, as well as filter checks. Those who had previously visited either city were removed from this study, in particular, to ensure that the potential effect of prior knowledge of the cities and/or film festivals should be disregarded. Variations in people’s city recognitions were coded as 1 (Cannes) and 0 (Busan). As an independent variable, film festival information included with the hosting city information was coded as 0, whereas hosting city information without the film festival information was coded as 1. In addition, each city was separately coded as described above. Also, image congruence was measured by one item ([Sirgy et al., 1997](#)) on a seven-point Likert scale, ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Each participant was asked to rate the consistency between international film festival image and image of the hosting city where the consistency was measured by the question, “my image of the international film festival is consistent with my image of the hosting city.” In this study, however, well-known and unknown city were not separated in measuring the image of the hosting-city due to lack of supporting research.

Attitude and visit intention, as dependent variables, were measured by multiple items with each item anchored on a seven-point semantic difference scale. [Kirmani, Sood, and Bridges \(1999\)](#) suggested that attitude hints at people’s evaluation of the comprehensive feeling about the hosting city as a product. Attitudes toward the hosting city were measured by four items - favorable, positive, like, and good feeling ([Holbrook & Bartra, 1987](#)). In addition, a three-item scale measuring visit intention was adapted from [Haley and Case \(1979\)](#), that is, likelihood, possibility, and probability of visiting the hosting city. For data analysis, the average mean of attitude and visit intention was computed separately, and further used for data analysis.

3.5. Data analysis

To establish reliability and validity of each measurement scale (dependent variable) in this study, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was first performed, and Cronbach’s alpha values were assessed. Then, a 2×2 factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to test the first and second set of hypotheses. Lastly, a separate one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to test the last hypothesis.

3.6. Findings

First, principal component analysis with varimax rotation was used to examine factor structure of dependent variables, attitude and visit intention. As Table 1 presents, the factor analysis resulted in two factors, which, as a group, explained 85.4% of the total variance. All the factors mapped up nicely with prior research (Haley & Case, 1979; Holbrook & Bartra, 1987; Kirmani et al., 1999). In addition, Cronbach's alpha value of two constructs was .936 and .927, respectively, indicating each dimension of two measurements held an excellent internal consistency.

As shown in Table 2, the results indicated that the effects of event advertising (*Hotelling's T* = .42, *F* = 413.56, *p* < .01) and city recognition (*Hotelling's T* = .26, *F* = 8.24, *p* < .01) were statistically significant. However, the interaction effect was of no significance (*Hotelling's T* = .04, *F* = 1.34, *p* > .05). Since there was no interaction effect, each individual effect of the independent variables was further examined. Only attitude toward the city (*F* = 26.96, *p* < .01) was statistically significant, but peoples' intention to visit the hosting city (*F* = .80, *p* > .05) was not statistically significant. In this regard, hypothesis 1 was supported, but hypothesis 2-1 was rejected. Interestingly, the inclusion of event information (inter-nationally contributed to the difference in peoples' attitudes toward the event-hosting cities. Also, the respondents showed a more positive attitude toward event-hosting cities when the event information was provided in the advertisement ($M_{event} = 5.76$; $M_{control} = 4.62$).

City recognition significantly contributed to the variations in peoples' attitudes (*F* = 4.48, *p* = .04) and intention to visit the hosting city (*F* = 23.33, *p* = .00). Table 2 indicated that the respondents showed a more positive attitude toward the well-known city, Cannes (*M* = 5.42), than the unknown city, Busan (*M* = 4.96). This result means that people who were exposed to event advertising have a more positive attitude toward the well-known city. Similarly, peoples' intention to visit Cannes (*M* = 5.52) was higher than Busan (*M* = 4.10). Thus, hypothesis 2-2 and hypothesis 2-3 both are supported.

To test each of hypotheses 2–4 and 2–5, MANOVA was also used. As seen in Table 3, peoples' initial attitudes toward Cannes (*M* = 4.91) were higher than Busan (*M* = 4.33) and statistically significant (*F* = 4.33, *p* < .05), so that hypothesis 2-4 was supported. But, after exposure to event advertisement (see Table 4), the difference of people's attitude toward the city lessened considerably. Interestingly it infers that event advertising was more effective for the relatively unknown city than the well-known city. However, peoples' attitudes toward Cannes (*M* = 5.93) were still higher than Busan (*M* = 5.58), which further supported hypothesis 1.

Similarly, Table 3 also showed that peoples' initial intentions to visit Cannes (*M* = 5.24) were higher than Busan (*M* = 4.12). Thus, hypothesis 2-5 was supported. However, peoples' intentions to visit

Table 1
Results of EFA and Cronbach's alpha.

Items	EFA		Eigen-values	Alpha ^a	% ^b
	F ₁	F ₂			
AT ₁	.914		4.13	.936	58.9
AT ₂	.896				
AT ₃	.893				
AT ₄	.887				
VI ₁		.942	1.85	.927	26.4
VI ₂		.921			
VI ₃		.889			

^a =Cronbach's alpha value.

^b =% of variance explained.

Table 2
Multivariate Results and MANOVA table.

	Attitude toward city			Visit intention		
	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N
Event group ^a	5.76	.16	92	4.94	.21	92
Control group ^b	4.62	.15	103	4.68	.20	103
Busan	4.96	.16	90	4.10	.21	90
Cannes	5.42	.15	105	5.52	.20	105
Effect	Dependent variables	df	M.S.	f-value	p	
Event advertising (EA)	Attitude toward city	1	32.22	26.96	.000	
	Intention to visit city	1	1.70	.80	.370	
City recognition (CR)	Attitude toward city	1	5.35	4.48	.040	
	Intention to visit city	1	49.73	23.33	.000	
EA*CR	Attitude toward city	1	.33	.28	.600	
	Intention to visit city	1	2.20	1.03	.310	

Hotelling's Trace (Event) = .42, *F* = 413.56, *p* < .01; Hotelling's Trace (City) = .26, *F* = 8.24, *p* < .01, Hotelling's Trace (event*City) = .04, *F* = 1.34, *p* > .05.

^a Event group was exposed to both film festival information and hosting city information.

^b Control group was exposed to only hosting city information.

Table 3
Multivariate results and MANOVA table – control group.

	Attitude toward city			Visit intention		
	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N
Busan	4.33	.20	49	4.12	.30	49
Cannes	4.91	.20	54	5.24	.29	54
Effect	Dependent variables	df	M.S.	f-value	p	
City recognition	Attitude toward city	1	4.46	4.33	.040	
	Intention to visit city	1	16.59	7.27	.010	

Hotelling's Trace = .24, *F* = 3.97, *p* < .05.

Table 4
Multivariate results and MANOVA table – event group.

	Attitude toward city			Visit intention		
	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N
Busan	5.58	.26	41	4.08	.31	41
Cannes	5.93	.23	51	5.80	.28	51
Effect	Dependent variables	df	M.S.	f-value	p	
City recognition	Attitude toward city	1	1.42	1.03	.320	
	Intention to visit city	1	34.19	17.44	.000	

Hotelling's Trace = .39, *F* = 5.62, *p* < .01.

Cannes (*M* = 5.80) were even higher than Busan (*M* = 4.08) when the respondents were exposed to event advertisement. This result implies that event advertising has a positive effect on peoples' attitude toward the hosting city, but does not increase their

intentions to visit the hosting city unless the event-hosting city is relatively unknown, which further rejected hypothesis 2-1.

Lastly, to test hypothesis 3: whether or not image congruence (IC) would affect peoples' attitudes toward the hosting city, a univariate ANOVA was used. Levene's test for homogeneity of variance with a significance value ($p < .05$) indicated that variances for attitudes toward the city for each of low vs. high group of image congruence differed significantly (see Table 5). As suggested by Chon (1992), the two groups were divided by taking a median split that had a high and low image congruence. In addition, the distributions for measures of normality were checked (skewness = .236 and kurtosis = .535), which showed the ANOVA result was valid. In this regard, the result proved that the group with high image congruence between international film festival and city image ($IC_{high} = 6.19$) showed a more positive attitude toward the hosting city than the group with low image congruence ($IC_{low} = 5.43$). As such, hypothesis 3 was supported.

4. Conclusion and discussion

There is little doubt that hosting a special event, such as an international film festival, in a city has an impact on people's attitudes toward the city (Green et al., 2003; Hede, 2005; Xue et al., 2012), their intentions to visit the city (Barros, 2012; Chalip et al., 2003; Connell, 2012; Hennessey et al., 2010), and the image of the city (Jago et al., 2003; Leisen, 2001; Qu et al., 2011). However, there has been no study that examines the impacts of event advertising on the hosting cities, for which people have different levels of city recognition (well known vs. unknown city). In this regard, this study examines the effects of event advertising and city recognition on peoples' attitudes and visit intentions to the event-hosting cities. As a special event, two international film festivals were chosen. In particular, Cannes in France and Busan in the Republic of Korea are selected as a relatively well-known and unknown city, respectively. Each city holds an international film festival that is festival De Cannes and Busan international film festival.

The results of this study reveal that those exposed to international film festival information in the advertisement of the hosting city showed a more positive attitude toward the event-hosting city than those not exposed to the festival information. In other words, event advertising has a positive effect on tourist's attitude toward the hosting city. This result is consistent with previous literature about marketing communication effects via event advertising on consumer's attitude (Bornstein, 1989; Giffani & Rivenburgh, 2000; Jago et al., 2003; Qu et al., 2011; Xue et al., 2012; Zajonc, 1968). For example, Qu et al. (2011) found that favorable city image can be achieved through marketing campaigns via event advertisement, which may change attitude toward the city in a positive way. Similarly, this study confirms that people's attitudes toward the hosting city are significantly improved as people's exposures to event advertising increase. According to Jun (2010), participating in special events can lessen cognitive barriers of visitors, and increase the effectiveness of advertising messages. For example, positive emotions of event participants make the evaluation of the event image more positively, and this favorable evaluation of the event's

image can lead to favorable brand image (city image) (Drengner, Gaus, & Jahn, 2008). In addition, favorable attitude toward the city can be built via an association with community-involved event advertising (Close et al., 2006; Mount & Niro, 1995). Although a direct effect of event advertising on visit intention was not found in this study, Yoon, Jun, and Park (2014) insisted that attitudes toward advertising influence attitudes toward the advertised brand (e.g., city), which in turn leads to re-visit intentions (Lutz, 1985). Therefore, given that event advertising is an effective marketing communication tool, city image-makers or brand managers need to consider its strategic uses to enhance the city image and further promote the special event in order to increase tourism demand.

Another significant managerial issue for city image marketers is related to people's different levels of city recognition (well known vs. unknown city), which significantly influences attitude toward the city. As Tucker and Zhang (2011) stated regarding the positive effect of popularity information on major products (e.g., cities), this study revealed that the effects of event advertising on peoples' attitude toward the city are larger if the city is relatively unknown. Needless to say, well-known cities that already have individual brand identity hold particular city images that cannot be changed easily (Keller, 2003). Although well-known cities can still enjoy image benefits from advertising messages, the effect of event advertising is relatively limited. However, unknown cities can get more distinctive image changes that might be either negative or positive dependent on the message of event advertisement. This study found that event advertising of international film festivals shows positive effects on people's attitude toward the hosting city, which, in turn, increases their intentions to visit the city. In this regard, it is worth hosting a special event in the relatively unknown city, in particular, to build and increase the image of the city, and to further raise tourist traffic in the hosting city. As the results of this study demonstrate, unknown cities could get more benefits from improving the image of the city when they use event or event advertising as a promotional tool.

Previous research has pointed to McCracken's (1989) meaning-transfer model as a foundation to explain customers' responses to (event) advertising. In the model, McCracken (1989) indicates that the use of celebrity endorsers is very effective because the celebrity is endowed with symbolic meaning that is transferred to the product via its association with the celebrity. Similarly, special events (e.g., international film festival) have symbolic meaning that can be passed on to the hosting city (Getz, 2008). For example, visitors may connect symbolic meaning from event advertising covering international film festivals and hosting cities to their interest in visiting the hosting city, which in turn influences attitudes (Pechmann & Shih, 1999) and visit intention (Russell, 2002). For well-known cities, however, there is very little improvement in peoples' attitude toward the city due to the high degree of exposure it already enjoys on a regular basis. It might suggest that well-known cities need to utilize a different marketing communication strategy to increase their city's image or sustain current favorable city images. As Kent and Allen (1994) indicated, (event) advertisements for well-known brands (e.g., city) enjoy higher levels of recall, and well-known cities are less affected by destination competitiveness. In this regard, event advertising for the well-known city still has value because the city can draw tourists' attention, enhancing the city image as a favorable tourism destination.

Lastly, it is worth noting that image congruence affects attitude toward the event-hosting city. This result suggests that the more people think the image of a hosting city is congruent with that of an international film festival, the more they have a favorable attitude toward the hosting city. In fact, this study found a positive effect of image congruence on attitudes toward

Table 5
Image congruence on attitude toward the city.

Image congruence	Mean	df	M.S	f-value	p
Low	5.43	1	5.111	6.736	.011
High	6.19				

Levene's test = 5.127, df_1 (between groups) = 1, $p < .05$.

the hosting city. Although it is not hypothesized in this study, interestingly, the group with higher levels of image congruity with the city is less likely to express their visit intention. However, no statistical significant difference is found between two groups in their intention to visit the city, which is consistent with previous studies (Boksberger et al., 2011; Choi & Rifon, 2012). Based on this result, this study can provide managerial implications for those who plan to host a new event or develop their own events in the city, such as destination marketing organizations (DMO) and city image marketers. In particular, for those who utilize special events as a medium to improve people's attitudes toward the city, it is critical that visitors' image of a city should strategically be congruent with the image of an event. Hosting a special event requires large marketing expenditures, so that they should carefully review their options to choose an event to build or enhance the city image.

4.1. Limitations and suggestions for future research

Although this study offers an understanding of the critical roles of event advertising on potential tourists' behavioral intentions toward cities with different recognition levels, based on the findings of this study, the following is proposed for future research. First, it would be valuable to conduct the experiment with actual visitors to an event-hosting city and further to include various cities where different types of special events take place. Additionally, the sample of this study is comprised of college students and the distribution of gender is skewed to female (82.3%), which is one of the primary limitations of this study. To overcome this limitation, consideration should be given to include a more diverse population from different geographic locations. Also, future research should examine negative effects of event advertising, which in turn can lead negative attitudes toward the hosting city. Lastly, additional formats of event advertisement, such as TV, radio, and social media should be considered in examining their effects on attitudes and visit intentions.

References

- Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2000). Attitudinal ambivalence: a test of three key hypotheses. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26(11), 1421–1433.
- Assael, H. (1984). *Consumer behavior and marketing action*. Boston, MA: Kent Publishing Co.
- Backman, K., Backman, S., Uysal, M., & Mohr Sunshine, K. (1995). Event tourism: an examination of motivations and activities. *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, 3(1), 15–24.
- Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 868–897.
- Barros, C. P. (2012). Analyzing tourism return intention to an urban destination. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 36(2), 216–231.
- Bassett, K., Griffiths, R., & Smith, I. (2002). Cultural industries, cultural clusters and the city: the example of natural history film-making in Bristol. *Geoforum*, 33(2), 165–177.
- Beeton, S. (2001). Smiling for the camera: the influence of film audiences on a budget tourism destination. *Tourism Culture and Communication*, 3(1), 15–26.
- Berlyne, D., Graw, M., Salapatek, P. H., & Lewis, J. (1963). Novelty, complexity, incongruity, extrinsic motivation and the GSR. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 66(6), 560–567.
- Bigne, J. E., Sanchez, M. I., & Sanchez, J. (2001). Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behavior: inter-relationship. *Tourism Management*, 22(6), 607–616.
- Boksberger, P., Dolnicar, S., Laesser, C., & Randle, M. (2011). Self-congruity theory: to what extent does it hold in tourism? *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(4), 454–464.
- Bornstein, R. F., & Pittman, T. S. (1989). Exposure and effect: overview and methodological research, 1968–1987. *Psychological Bulletin*, 105, 265–289.
- Butler, R. W. (1990). The influence of the media in shaping international tourist patterns. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 15(2), 46–53.
- Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. (1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Inc.
- Chalip, L., & Costa, C. (2006). Building sport event tourism into the destination brand: foundations for a general theory. In H. Gibson (Ed.), *Sport tourism: Concepts and theories* (pp. 86–105). London: Routledge.
- Chalip, L., Green, B. C., & Hill, B. (2003). Effects of sport event media on destination image and intention to visit. *Journal of Sport Management*, 17, 214–234.
- Chan, B. (2007). Film-induced tourism in Asia: a case study of Korean TV drama and female viewers' motivation to visit Korea. *Tourism, Culture and Communication*, 7(3), 207–224.
- Chiu, Y. Y. (2008). The persuasive effect of popularity claims in advertising: an informational social influence perspective. *The Journal of American Academy Business*, 14(1), 71–76.
- Choi, W. M., Chan, A., & Wu, J. (1999). A qualitative and quantitative assessment of Hong Kong's image as a tourist destination. *Tourism Management*, 20(3), 361–365.
- Choi, S. M., & Rifon, N. J. (2012). It is a match: the impact of congruence between celebrity image and consumer ideal self on endorsement effectiveness. *Psychology and Marketing*, 29(9), 639–650.
- Choi, J. G., Tkachenko, T., & Sil, S. (2011). On the destination image of Korea by Russian tourists. *Tourism Management*, 32(1), 192–194.
- Chon, K. (1992). Self-image/Destination image congruity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(2), 360–363.
- Close, A. G., Krishen, A., & LaTour, M. (2006). Engaging the consumer through event marketing: linking attendees with the sponsor, community, and brand. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 46(4), 420–433.
- Connell, J. (2012). Film tourism: evolution, progress and prospects. *Tourism Management*, 33, 1007–1029.
- Cornwell, T., & Maignan, B. I. (1998). An international review of sponsorship research. *Journal of Advertising*, 27(1), 1–22.
- Di Persio, C., Horvath, G., & Wobbeking, R. (2008). *The impact of the film industry on Colorado* [research paper on the internet]. 2003 June; [Retrieved on Jan 24, 2008]. Available from: <http://thecreativecoalition.org>.
- Drengner, J., Gaus, H., & Jahn, S. (2008). Does flow influence the brand image in event marketing? *Journal of Advertising Research*, 48(1), 138–147.
- Dwyer, L., Mellor, R., Mistilis, N., & Mules, T. (2000). A framework for assessing tangible and intangible impacts of events and conventions. *Event Management*, 6, 175–189.
- Gasher, M. (2002). *Hollywood North: The Feature Film Industry in British Columbia*. Vancouver, CA: UBC Press.
- Getz, D. (1998). Trends, strategies, and issues in sport-event tourism. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 7(2), 8–13.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29, 403–428.
- Getz, D., & Cheyne, J. (2002). Special event motives and behaviour. In C. Ryan (Ed.), *The tourist experience* (2nd ed., pp. 137–155). London: Continuum.
- Getz, D., & Fairley, S. (2004). Media management at sport events for destination promotion. *Event Management*, 8(3), 127–139.
- Giffani, A., & Rivenburgh, K. (2000). News agencies, national images, and global media events. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 77(1), 8–21.
- Granka, L., Joachims, T., & Gay, G. (2004). Eye-tracking analysis of user behavior in www-search. Poster Abstract. Sheffield, United Kingdom. In *Proceedings of the 27th annual international ACM SIGIR conference on research and development in information retrieval* (pp. 478–479).
- Green, B. C., Costa, C., & Fitzgerald, M. (2003). Marketing the host city: analyzing exposure generated by a sport event. In *International Journal of sports marketing and sponsorship december/january* (pp. 335–353).
- Gursoy, D., & Kendall, K. (2006). Hosting mega events: modelling locals' support. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(3), 603–623.
- Gwinner, K. P. (1997). A model of image creation and image transfer in event sponsorship. *International Marketing Review*, 14(3), 145–158.
- Gwinner, K. P., & Eaton, J. (1999). Building brand image through event sponsorship: the role of image transfer. *Journal of Advertising*, 28(4), 47–57.
- Haley, R. I., & Case, P. B. (1979). Testing thirteen attitude scales for agreement and brand Discrimination. *Journal of Marketing*, 43(3), 20–32.
- Hede, A. (2005). Sports-events, tourism and destination marketing strategies: an Australian case study of Athens 2004 and its media telecast. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 10(3), 187–200.
- Hennessey, S. M., Yun, D., MacDONALD, R., & MacEACHERN, M. (2010). The effects of advertising awareness and media form on travel intention. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 19, 217–243.
- Holbrook, M. B., & Bartra, R. (1987). Assessing the role of emotions as mediators of consumer responses to advertising. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(3), 404–420.
- Holy, L. H. (2012). *Event marketing: How to successfully promote events, festivals, conventions, and expositions*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Iwashita, C. (2008). Roles of films and television dramas in international tourism: the case of Japanese tourists to the UK. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 24(2/3), 139–151.
- Jago, L., Chalip, L., Brown, G., Mules, T., & Ali, S. (2003). Building events into destination branding: insight from experts. *Event Management*, 8, 3–14.
- Jun, J. W. (2010). The on-the-spot-effect model of event sponsorships: a focus on Beijing Olympic games. *The Korean Journal of Advertising*, 21(2), 227–244.
- Kamera A (2008) [Retrieved on Feb 27, 2008]. Available from: <http://www.kameraarkasi.org/festivaller.html>.
- Keller, K. L. (2003). *Strategic brand management: Building, measuring, and managing brand equity*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Kent, R. J., & Chris, T. A. (1994). Competitive interference effects in consumer memory for advertising: the role of brand familiarity. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(July), 97–105.
- Keppel, G., & Wickens, T. D. (2004). *Design and analysis: A researcher's handbook* (4th

- ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Kirmani, A., Sood, S., & Bridges, S. (1999). The ownership effect in consumer responses to brand line stretches. *Journal of Marketing*, 63, 88–101.
- Laffont, G. H., & Prigent, L. (2011). Paris transformed into an urban set: dangerous liaisons between tourism and cinema. *Teoros. Revue de Recherche en Tourisme*, 30(1), 108–118.
- Leisen, B. (2001). Image segmentation: the case of a tourism destination. *Journal of Service Marketing*, 15(1), 49–66.
- Lutz, R. J. (1985). Affective and cognitive antecedents of attitude toward the ad: a conceptual framework. In L. L. Alwitt, & A. Mitchell (Eds.), *Psychological processes and advertising effects: Theory, research and application* (pp. 45–63). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Lynch, R., & Veal, A. (1996). *Australian leisure*. South Melbourne: Addison Wesley Longman Australia Pty Ltd.
- McCracken, G. (1989). Who is the celebrity endorser? Cultural foundation of the endorsement process. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(3), 310–321.
- McDaniel, S. R. (1999). An investigation of match-up effects in sport sponsorship advertising: the implications of consumer advertising schemas. *Psychology and Marketing*, 16(2), 163–184.
- Mehta, A. (1994). How advertising response modeling (ARM) can increase Ad effectiveness. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 62–74. May/June.
- Middleton, V. T. C. (1988). *Marketing in travel and tourism*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Mount, J., & Niro, B. (1995). Sponsorship: an empirical study of its application to local business in a small town setting. *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 2(2), 167–175.
- Nielsen, J. (2006). *Prioritizing web usability*. Berkeley, CA: New Riders Press.
- Ohmann, S., Jones, I., & Wilkes, K. (2006). The perceived social impacts of the 2006 Football World Cup on Munich residents. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 11(2), 129–153.
- O'Connor, N. F. S., & Gilbert, D. (2008). The integration of film-induced tourism and destination branding in Yorkshire, UK. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10(5), 423–437.
- Pechmann, C., & Shih, C. F. (1999). Smoking in movies and anti-smoking ads before movies: effects on youth. *Journal of Marketing*, 63(July), 1–13.
- Petty, R. E., & Krosnick, J. A. (1995). *Attitude strength: Antecedents and consequences*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Prentice, R., & Andersen, V. (2003). Festival as creative destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(1), 7–30.
- Qu, H., Kim, H., & Im, H. (2011). A model of destination branding: integrating the concepts of the destination image. *Tourism Management*, 32, 465–476.
- Reisinger, Y., & Mavondo, F. (2005). Travel anxiety and intentions to travel internationally: implications of travel risk perception. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43, 212–225.
- Riley, R., & van Doren, C. S. (1992). Movies as tourism promotion: a full factor in a push location. *Tourism Management*, 13(3), 267–274.
- Ritchie, B., Sanders, D., & Mules, T. (2006). Televised events: shaping destination images and perceptions of capital cities from the couch. In M. Arcodia & C. Whitford, & C. Dickson (Eds.), *Global events congress proceedings* (pp. 286–299). Brisbane: University of Queensland.
- Ritchie, B., & Smith, B. (1991). The impact of mega-event on host region awareness: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(1), 3–10.
- Roche, M. (2006). Mega-events and modernity revisited: globalization and the case of the Olympics. *Sociological Review*, 54, 25–40.
- Russell, C. A. (2002). Investigating the effectiveness of product placements in television shows: the role of modality and plot connection congruence on brand memory and attitude. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29(3), 306–318.
- Sirgy, M. J., Grewal, D., Tamara, F., Park, J., Chon, K., Claiborne, C. B., et al. (1997). Assessing the predictive validity of two methods of measuring self-image congruence. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 25(3), 229–241.
- Sirgy, M. J., & Su, C. (2000). Destination image, self-congruity and travel behavior: toward an integrative model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(2), 340–352.
- Sneath, J. Z., Finney, R. Z., & Close, A. G. (2005). An IMC approach to event marketing: the effects of sponsorship and experience on consumer attitudes. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 45(4), 373–381.
- Toohy, K., & Veal, T. (2007). *The olympic games: A social science perspective*. Wallingford: CABI.
- Tucker, C., & Zhang, J. (2011). How does popularity information affect choices? A field experiment. *Management Science*, 57(5), 828–842.
- Vogt, C., Winter, G., & Fried, J. (2005). Predicting homeowner's approval of fuel management at the wildland–urban interface using the theory of reasoned action. *Society and Natural Resources*, 18(4), 337–354.
- Whelan, S., & Wohlfeil, M. (2006). Communication brands through engagement with 'lived' Experiences. *Journal of Brand Management*, 13(4/5), 313–329.
- Witt, S. (1998). Mega-events and mega-attractions. *Tourism Management*, 9(1), 76–77.
- Wohlfeil, M., & Whelan, S. (2006). Consumer motivations to participate in event-marketing strategies. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 22(5–6), 643–669.
- Wood, E. H., & Masterman, G. (2007). Event marketing: experience and exploitation," Paper Presented at the Extraordinary Experiences Conference: managing the consumer experience in hospitality, leisure, sport, tourism, retail and events. *Bournemouth University*. September 3–4, 2007.
- Woodside, A. G., & MacDonald, R. (1994). General system framework of customer choice processes of tourism services. In R. V. Gasser, & K. Weiermair (Eds.), *Spoilt for choice. Decision-making process and preference change of tourist: Intertemporal and intercountry perspectives*, kulturverlag, Germany (pp. 30–59).
- Xue, K., Chen, X., & Yu, M. (2012). Can the world expo change a city's image through foreign media reports? *Public Relations Review*, 38, 746–754.
- Yoon, J. W., Jun, J. W., & Park, G. S. (2014). Effects of font fit and familiarity on moviegoers' attitudes and intentions. *Media and Performing Art Research*, 9(1), 1–28.
- Zajonc, R. B. (1968). Attitudinal effects of mere exposure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology Monograph Supplement*, 9, 1–27.
- Zhang, H., Xiaoxiao, F., Cai, L. A., & Lu, L. (2014). Destination image and tourist loyalty: a meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, 40, 213–223.