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Mutual Image Impacts of Events and Host Destinations:
What We Know From Prior Research

Christian Dragin-Jensen
Mutual Image Impacts of Events and Host Destinations: What We Know From Prior Research

Christian Dragin-Jensen*

Abstract

In the highly competitive marketplace for tourists and talented citizens, events have become increasingly important in acting as image builders for their host destinations. Equivalently, the image of a destination can have an impact on event perceptions, resulting in careful considerations for event managers and destination stakeholders to make when pairing an event with a host destination. This has resulted in a significant increase in publishing activity of image impacts on events and host destinations in the past decade, eventuating in a wide array of theories, methods and results. As a contribution to event and destination image impact research, this paper systematically conducts a review process and identifies 37 peer-reviewed articles that fall within its established research criteria, thereby synthesizing and gaining new perspectives, as well as presenting new implications by conjoining aspects of destination and event image research not previously compared.

Keywords: Events, Image Impact, Event Tourism, Destination Image, Literature Review.

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1. Introduction

The study of event impacts with regards to sports and leisure (music & culture) has grown significantly over the past decades. The multi-faceted domain of event impacts has resulted in a wide array of areas being analyzed in order to further the understanding of events’ positive and negative impacts, usually in order to justify public spending (Faulkner et al., 2003). Events have taken on an elevated profile and are no longer only present to provide a host destination with tourists for a ‘cash injection’. Events have assumed a key role as urban and regional development strategies. With this elevated status, it is only all too clear that methods for measuring their impacts on host destinations have increased in complexity. In its broadest sense, the two main areas with which to examine events can be categorized into the tangible (economic) perspective, and the intangible perspective. To date, most event impact studies have been primarily focused on the former perspective (e.g. Burgan & Mules, 1992; Coates & Humphreys, 2003; Dwyer et al., 2000; Feddersen et al, 2009; Humphreys, 1994; Matheson & Baade, 2006; Porter, 1999). The latter perspective, can be divided into further strands of literature which include (but are not limited to): physical infrastructure and environmental impacts (e.g. Hensher & Brewer, 2002; Searle, 2002), social impacts (e.g. Arcodia & Whitford, 2006; Balduck et al.,2011; Burnett, 2001; Chalip, 2004; Delamere et al., 2001; Delamere, 2001; Kim & Walker, 2012), cultural impacts (e.g. Green, 2001; De Bres & Davis, 2001; Derret, 2003; Green & Chalip, 1998; Hinch & Higham, 2005), political impacts (e.g. Hall, 1989; Reid, 2006; Ritchie, 1984) , and image impacts (e.g. Bodet & Lacassagne, 2012; Brown et. al, 2004; Chalip & Costa, 2005; Deng & Li, 2013; Florek & Insch, 2011; Gibson et al., 2008; Hallmann & Breuer, 2011, 2010; Jago et. al, 2003; Lee et al., 2005; Xing & Chalip, 2006).

The last strand of literature, image impacts, has seen a significant increase in publishing activity in the past decade and has clearly marked itself as a noteworthy constituent when assessing events and is therefore of great academic and practical relevance. This is also evident with the events’ host destinations, as place marketers put more focus on establishing a city’s brand (Braun, 2008), since destination image is understood to be a critical determinant in a destination’s competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2000). Nonetheless, since the definition and scope of mutual image impacts on events and host destinations are varied, a literature review would clearly aid in condensing the research outcomes in order to map the current state of the field, as well as identify possible areas for future research (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). In contrast to Lai and Li (2014), this review will focus on image implications for both events and host destinations, as opposed to just image impacts from an event to a destination. As a contribution to event impact research, this review provides a concise overview of image impact studies of sports and leisure events on host destinations, synthesizing and gaining new perspectives (Randolph, 2009) and consigning the research in a historical framework to display familiarity with state-of-the-art developments (Hart, 1998). The review also reveals new implications for destination marketers by means of cross-sectional analyzing the existing literature in the field and linking aspects of destination and event image research not previously compared. Moreover, the review will highlight ambiguous and unambiguous findings, and ultimately provide useful insights to destination marketers when needing to evaluate their event portfolio for imaging strategies. The review will also aid event managers when selecting destinations to play host for their event.
2. Background

2.1 Destination Image

Destination marketers have understood the critical necessity of managing, measuring and improving their destination’s image in order to increase (re)visitation (Jago et al., 2003). Measuring a destination’s image and formation has therefore been researched extensively within an array of dimensions, but predominantly within the cognitive (beliefs), affective (emotions) and conative (behavioural) (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993) dimensions. These dimensions are conceptually distinct, but are formed jointly and are interdependent (Gartner, 1993). This interdependency is much aligned with a destination image as defined by Crompton (1979, p. 18): “the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination”. This sum of beliefs already forms prior to visitation and is therefore quintessential in an individual’s selection process of a destination (Gunn, 1972; LaPage & Cormier, 1977). A strong image is therefore critical for a destination’s competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2000). A destination aims for a unique brand that differentiates itself from others (Jago et al., 2003; Aaker, 1997), ultimately resulting in creating a distinctive and favourable memory for consumers. It is important to draw the connection between image and brand for a destination, in the sense that image is the reputation of the brand in the market (Upshaw, 1995). An imperative link, as D’Hauteserre (2001) advocates that in today’s highly competitive tourism market, destinations suffer more from ignorance of their existence from consumers as opposed to mismanagement. Raising awareness of the destination image, as well as understanding the measurement of it, is therefore critical for a destination’s tourism development.

2.2 Event Image

Event tourism has been defined as “the systematic planning, development and marketing of festivals and special events as tourist attractions, catalysts and image builders” (Getz & Wicks, 1993, p. 2). It is therefore intuitive that destination marketers wish to utilize events as building blocks for a destination’s image as events can contribute to the success of a destination in the long run by creating awareness, improving image with visitors and attracting tourism business to generate future inbound travel (Dimanche, 2003). In fact, a planned event is regarded as a key element in a destination branding strategy (Getz, 2005, 2008; Hall, 1987). Much like a destination’s image, an event image is also a sum of beliefs, or as Gwinner (1997, p. 147) defines it, a “cumulative interpretation of meanings or associations attributed by events to consumers”. It is therefore understandable that an “event image can have a parallel structure to the concept of destination image and can be processed holistically (i.e. overall)” (Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012, p. 6). This signifies that in accordance with destination image literature, an event image can be conceptualized in terms of cognitive, affective and conative dimensions that are associated with global perceptions of event image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Hallmann et al. (2010) adds to this by stating that event images bear similarities to the concept of destination images. It is then peculiar that there have been a very limited amount of studies regarding event image and just as few
studies linking them to host destinations’ images. Advocates of brand equity even state that should the event image not contribute to the overall branding strategy for the destination, then it should not be hosted (Jago et al., 2003).

2.3 Tying Event Image and Destination Image Together

Destinations aim to gain positive associations from the images of their planned events. Planned events have shown to change tourists’ perceptions of a destination (Brown et al., 2004; Jago et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2005; Xing & Chalip, 2006). This can be attributed to that consumers construct destination images by generalizing information from different products (i.e. events) of the same destination (Florek & Insch, 2011). More specifically, Kotler, Haider and Rein (1993) suggested that for successful destination marketing to occur, it is necessary for each element of a destination’s product mix to contribute to the total brand image by means of complementary styles, demographics or experiential values. Incorporating events into this mix will therefore establish a link between the two entities (event and destination). This link has been measured in a variety of different methods.

Studies show that by pairing images of events and host destinations together, a co-branding strategy, image congruence occurs which creates a common image capital (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010; Xing & Chalip, 2006). Subsequently, the concept of image fit, the result of common image associations between an event and a host destination bears great significance. Studies have suggested that the image of the event can positively influence destination image perceptions when the two entities are considered a strategically-sound fit (Florek & Insch, 2011; Jago et al., 2003; Rein & Shields, 2007; Xing & Chalip, 2006). Destinations can then leverage the benefits, in this case the image gains, that these brand alliances bring, particularly for long-term perspectives (Chalip, 2004, 2006; Green, 2001; O’Brien, 2007; Ziakas, 2014). Improving or building on to an existing destination brand may not always be the intended objective for destinations. For some destinations, more radical overhauls are necessary by means of a re-imaging strategy (Higham & Hinch, 2009; Smith, 2005), where studies have shown that a certain degree of dissimilarity between the two entities is quintessential for image change (Brown et. al, 2004). Ultimately, an event’s image impact on a destination image can affect a consumer’s intention to visit (Chalip et al., 2003; Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2012; Xing & Chalip, 2006) and intention to revisit (Deng & Li, 2013; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007).

Although planned events can affect the destination’s image, analogously, the image of a destination can affect a planned event. Destination images can influence event perceptions via various specific event features (e.g. organization capacity, safety of the event), acting as an overall dominant feature or as one of the features of the event (transferring characteristics to the event), and lastly, influencing perceptions of the event through stereotypic opinions of a destination (Florek & Insch, 2011). Frost (2008) also noted of the importance of a destination’s authenticity and heritage on the projected image when hosting an event. More specifically, different types of destinations will differently affect event perceptions and images (Hallmann et al., 2010), for example the type of destination (rural vs. urban) will have differing impacts on event’s cognitive image components (Hallmann et al., 2010), or the level of familiarity a destination has compared to an event (Xing & Chalip, 2006).
Destinations and events are in a relationship with regards to imaging, and as Tellström et al. (2006) argues, the geographical area is used to promote a product (i.e. an event), but the product also promotes the geographic area. This review will critically highlight the key outcomes in the different methods events link themselves to destination images, how destinations link themselves to event images, and present areas where future research should be conducted.

3. Literature Search

In order to systematically conduct the review process, Cooper’s (1988) taxonomy of literature reviews was used. The taxonomy classifies a literature review with several characteristics: focus, goal, coverage and organization.

The review focuses on research outcomes to “help identify a lack of information on a particular research outcome, thus establishing a justifiable need for an outcome study” (Randolph, 2009, p. 2). This allowed the review to distinguish methodological strengths and weaknesses, going hand-in-hand with the taxonomy’s second characteristic – goal: mapping the current research landscape by critically “analyzing the research, identifying central issues, and explicating arguments” (Randolph, 2009, p. 3).

The coverage characteristic is a critical component as this draws the boundaries upon how a review is to be conducted. In order to delimit the review to cope with a suitable and realistic amount of information, the type of coverage selected for this review was therefore an “exhaustive review with selective citation” (Cooper, 1988), whereby literature was only included based on specific criteria. The first criterion was thematic. More specifically, the review focuses on existing literature geared at sports and leisure events and the image impacts they have, particularly on their hosting destinations (and vice-versa). Leisure events for this review are classified as cultural and musical events, hereby excluding event types such as business events, technology fairs, etc. The literature includes both research outcome-based studies, as well as any theoretical or methodological literature pertinent to the theme (as stated in the focus characteristic). This therefore leads to the second criterion, namely the publication type and era. The review focuses on peer-reviewed articles based on primary data, with the exception of theoretical/methodological contributing peer-reviewed papers from academic journals as they provide an indicator of the direction and nature of research in a field (Reid & Andereck, 1989). This will also guarantee quality as well as quantity when reviewing state-of-the-art developments (Crawford-Welch & McCleary, 1992). Moreover, published book chapters pertinent to the review were used as a supplementary source for references.

No specific timeframe was created as image impact studies of events and their destinations does not span back numerous decades, (earliest came around 1991), and it was judged important not to forego any early seminal papers. Published articles and book chapters were only accepted in English for this review. For the last characteristic, organization, the review follows the conceptual approach, signifying that the review will be presented by means of central concepts and theories, as opposed to displaying the studies in the field chronologically.

The review has assembled a total of 37 articles pertinent to the theme of the interdependencies of events’ and destinations’ impacts on their respective images (see: Table 1).
### Table 1: Research Outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct Effect</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Intentions</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Time of study</th>
<th>Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +</td>
<td>Outcome</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Ahmed (1991)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>Various, USA</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>TF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Arellano (2011)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>L.</td>
<td>Quebec, Canada</td>
<td>During, Post</td>
<td>Qual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Berkowitz et al. (2007)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>S.</td>
<td>Beijing, China</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>TF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chalip &amp; Costa (2005)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>S.</td>
<td>Various</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>TF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Harris (2008)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>S.</td>
<td>Cardiff, Wales</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>TF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Jago et al. (2003)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>Various</td>
<td>Pre, Post</td>
<td>TF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Rein &amp; Shields (2007)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>S.</td>
<td>Beijing, China</td>
<td>Pre, Post</td>
<td>TF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +</td>
<td>Intent.Dest. 0</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Lee et al. (2005)</td>
<td>N = 412</td>
<td>S.</td>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>During</td>
<td>Quant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +/+</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td></td>
<td>Preuss &amp; Alfs (2011)</td>
<td>N = 740 News reports</td>
<td>S.</td>
<td>Beijing, China</td>
<td>Pre, During, Post</td>
<td>Quant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Inf. +/</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td></td>
<td>Whitelegg (2000)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>S.</td>
<td>Atlanta, USA</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>TF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

+ = *positive effect*  - = *negative effect*  0 = *no significant effect*

**Event.Inf.** = Event influenced perceptions of destination image  
**Intent.Event.** = Intentions to (re)visit event are affected by destination image impacts  
**Dest.Inf.** = Destination influenced perceptions of event image  
**Intent.Dest.** = Intentions to (re)visit destination are affected by event image impacts  
**TF:** Theoretical Framework  
**Quant.:** Quantitative  
**Qual.:** Qualitative  
**S.** = Sports Event  
**L.** = Leisure Event  
**M.** = Mixed Events  
**One-off** = event reoccurring in a different destination  
**Rep.** = event reoccurring in the same destination  
**Mega** = Mega-Events: Olympic Games, FIFA World Cup, World Expo
<table>
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<th>Direct Effect</th>
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<th>Event</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Time of study</th>
<th>Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dest.Inf.</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Florek &amp; Insch (2011)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>S.One-off Mega</td>
<td>Various</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>TF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Event.Inf. = Event influenced perceptions of destination image  
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Intent.Event = Intentions to (re)visit event are affected by destination image impacts  
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Rep. = event reoccurring in the same destination  
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4. Literature Analysis

4.1 Event Typology

The review focuses on sports and leisure (culture or music) events. It is, however, necessary to further discern different types of events by means of an event typology in order to identify if any differences in image impacts can be found between different types of events. The review further segments sports and leisure events into one-off events (reoccurring in a different destination) and repeat events (reoccurring in the same destination), as well as if they are mega events (FIFA World Cup, Olympic Games and the World Expo).

With different types of events, different types of (potential) attendants can be expected. In order to discern if there are any patterns to be found with regards to different types of (potential) event attendants, the following segmented groups have been considered: local attendants – active or passive (active meaning the attendant is participating in the event, passive meaning the attendant is spectating the event), non-local attendants – active or passive, local non-attendants, non-local non-attendants, and event organizers (see: Table 2).

Due to destination image’s origins in tourism and destination marketing, it is therefore unsurprising that the significant majority of the empirical studies focused on non-locals. In fact, every empirical paper bar one (Deng & Li, 2013) in this review includes one of the three types of non-locals for image impact assessment: non-attendants, active and passive attendants. The non-local passive attendants and the non-local non-attendants were the larger of the sub-groups. This is understandable due to the prominence of mega-events in image impact studies, particularly the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games (10 of the 11 sports one-off events were mega events).

Despite the focus on non-locals in empirical studies, it was interesting to see that very few studies even incorporated locals at all. In only four instances were passive local attendants found, and only once were active local attendants and local non-attendants included. With Jago et al. (2003), Berkowitz et al. (2007) and Nobili (2005) stating the importance of community support for an event to succeed in destination imaging, it is unexpected to see so few empirical studies involving locals in destination image impact studies with regards to events.
As a whole, the largest groups were the passive attendants and the non-attendants. With a significant amount of the studies evolving around mega events (especially sport mega events – where respondents are spectators) it is understandable that there were not many studies focusing on active event participants, an issue noted by Hallmann and Breuer (2010).

A critical issue for consideration was how few empirical studies compared the different types of event attendants with regards to image impacts, especially when the studies which did compare types of event attendants showed significant differences. Dongfeng and Gratton (2010) found that local residents tended to have a more positive image impact than non-local visitors (both international and domestic) due to an event being hosted. Richards and Wilson (2004) found differences between locals and non-local attendants as well with perceived destination image attributes such as ‘unsafe’, ‘modern architecture’ and ‘multicultural’. Differences between passive and active attendants has also been observed (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010, 2011). Possibly, due to a higher level of involvement of the event itself, active attendants will perceive events and destinations differently than passive attendants (Hallmann & Breuer, 2011). An example could be image dimensions such as ‘cheerfulness’ and ‘internationality’ were important indicators for passive attendants, while active attendants had indicators such as ‘nature’ and ‘social attributes with the event’ as important (Hallmann & Breuer, 2011). It is important to mention that although differences were found between the two types of attendants, similarities had also been found (Hallmann & Breuer, 2011). Although these empirical papers did find differences between the types of event attendants, it is hard to come with a general conclusion for this review due to there being so
few of them. An avenue of future research would most certainly be to assess destination and event image impacts by different types of (potential) event attendants.

All the seven types of event attendants had studies where the event revealed a positive impact on the destination image. The overall pattern was clear that the majority of the studies revealed a positive image impact on the destination. There are far fewer studies focusing on local types of attendants than non-locals, yet it was noteworthy to find that all the studies involving locals (active and passive attendants, non-attendants) resulted in positive event impacts on the destination’s image. It is also therefore reasonable that the one study which investigated if locals (passive attendants) intended to (re)visit the event, there was a positive effect. In addition, all the studies involving event organizers only had positive image impacts. It is understandable that event organizers perceived their events to have a positive image impacts on the host destination, possibly due to their high level of involvement with their own events.

The largest group, passive non-local attendants, also mostly displayed positive event influences on a destination’s image. The next-largest group, non-local non-attendants, however, showed more divisive results. Although there were seven instances of positive event impacts, there were four studies that revealed that the event had a negative influence and one study not finding a significant effect of an event on a destination’s image. A destination’s impact on an event’s image also revealed mixed results across the non-local groups, where only one study found a negative impact, but three studies found that there were no significant effects and four a positive impact. It is therefore intuitive that the results from the intention to (re)visit a destination also showed varied results with four studies finding no significant effects, and five finding a positive effect. Oppositely, for studies investigating an intention to (re)visit an event, only positive effects were found (four instances).

The specific types of positive and negative image impacts on destinations and events can be found in sections 4.3 and 4.4.

4.2 Methodology

There was high heterogeneity amongst the methods used in the thirty-seven articles (see: table 1). From theoretical frameworks (e.g. Chalip & Costa, 2005; Jago et al., 2003), qualitative (interviews) methods (e.g. Arellano, 2011; Reid, 2006), to a wide range in quantitative methods such as regressions (e.g. Dongfeng, 2013; Gibson et al., 2008; Hallmann & Breuer, 2010), MANCOVA (e.g. Kaplanidou, 2007; Xing & Chalip, 2006) and advanced methods such as structural equation modelling (e.g. Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007; Yu et al., 2012). An interesting find was that there are differences between the type of events (sports and leisure) and certain chosen methods. Almost all the regression studies were carried out for sports events, whereas leisure studies showed a preference for either interviews or SEM. Also, there were very few studies which focused on theoretical frameworks solely for leisure events (e.g. Frost, 2008), whereas several were available for sports events (e.g. Berkowitz et al., 2007; Chalip & Costa, 2005; Florek & Insch, 2011). If different image dimensions and expectations are held by, for example, active and passive attendants for events, then it would be intuitive to investigate if there are differences between leisure attendants and sports event attendants.
A method which could be considered for future research would be a content analysis in a similar fashion to Preuss and Alfs (2011). Due to the popularity of sport and music in media, it is surprising that few articles have assessed the media impact of a destination’s image with regards to sports and leisure events. Moreover, Preuss and Alfs’ (2011) study was the only one found for this review which was done pre-, during, and post-event. Most of the studies were conducted during (11), post-event (12) and pre- and post-event (7). Due to the short time-span of events, it is difficult to collect data before and after event attendants arrive, however, the advantages of being able to assess image impacts from events on a host destination (and vice-versa) pre-, during, and post-event are obvious. A consideration for future research would be studies which incorporate more than one time frame of an event, and ideally all three time scopes.

Xing and Chalip’s (2006) article was the only study which had constructed a fictitious scenario (between-subjects) for respondents to assess. Due to destination marketers and municipal decision makers attempting to find what types of events would be most suitable for their portfolio to strengthen the destination image, this method should be used for future research. Albeit dealing with hypothetical or fictitious scenarios, understanding what type of sports and leisure events would be most beneficial for a specific destination’s image (i.e. rural, cosmopolitan, new destination, old destination) and reveal intentions to visit, would be crucial for destination marketers and better justify public spending for events.

4.3 Event impacts on destination image and intentions to (re)visit a destination

4.3.1 Positive event impacts on a destination image

Increase in awareness and familiarity of destination through an event

D’Hauteserre (2001) advocated that destinations suffer more from ignorance of their existence from consumers as opposed to mismanagement. Raising awareness of a destination is therefore critical for impacting a destination’s image. With the growing popularity of events, their propensity for attracting (inter)national media has also increased (Dwyer et al., 2000; Getz & Fairley, 2004). Events therefore provide a natural platform by which destinations can increase their awareness and familiarity, and ultimately improve their destination image (Kim & Morrison, 2005; Richards & Wilson, 2004; Ritchie & Smith, 1991; Westerbeek & Linley, 2012).

An increase in awareness allows events to highlight certain aspects of a destination to (potential) visitors of an event which benefits the host destination’s image. Research has shown that events provide the ability to show the variety and uniqueness of a destination’s touristic resources (Kim & Morrison, 2005; Knott et al., 2013). These are resources that are not only limited to the event as (potential) visitors gain the ability to travel within the destination (Knott et al., 2013). It is therefore understandable that repeat visitors (familiarization) due to an event being hosted result in more concrete and clear image impacts than first-time visitors (Richards & Wilson, 2004). This is particularly relevant with image dimensions such as “nature” and “environment” (Ahmed, 1991; Knott et al., 2013; Ritchie & Smith, 1991), “local people” (Florek et al., 2008; Gibson et al., 2008), “history & culture” (Arellano, 2011; Gibson et al., 2008), and “service quality” (Heslop et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2005). Preuss and Alfs (2011) and Whitelegg (2000) also highlighted how the increase in awareness by events can result in destinations emphasizing future business and
investment opportunities in an effort to sustain the destination’s image well past the time scope of an event.

Finally, Westerbeek and Linley (2012) found that destinations who use an event-portfolio approach are more likely to have a positive impact on their brand and awareness, as opposed to destinations who only utilize a single-event approach. Furthermore, by building the destination’s personality by multiple-event association, this also showed that a destination would be far more likely to be seen as an attractive place to not only visit, but to live and work as well. Jago et al. (2003) and Chalip and Costa (2005) also highlighted the importance of a destination to have synergy with its event portfolio.

Reduction in negative images

Literature suggests that events are able to reduce negatively-held images of destinations (Ahmed, 1991; Rein & Shields, 2007). Destinations who suffer from fallacious images can with events attempt to reduce these negative perceptions by “destabilizing common stereotypes” (Knott et al., 2013, p. 571). This has been the case for destinations that have previously been in seemingly unsafe conditions, such as tensions for armed conflicts (Kim & Morrison, 2005), crime, poverty and lack of development (Knott et al., 2013), and overall perceived safety of a location (Florek et al., 2008). Destination perceptions that were thought of as expensive and not ‘good value for money’ had been changed post-event (Florek et al., 2008; Florek & Insch, 2011).

Events can provide believable associations and authenticity

Events that provide believable associations and authenticity can build stronger destination images (Arellano, 2011; Chalip & Costa, 2005; Frost, 2008). More specifically, when an event’s associations are in tune with those of a destination, this can aid in a symbiotic understanding leading to authenticity and ultimately, a more concise and stronger destination image. Frost’s (2008) display of two rural destinations used for filming western films in the USA since the 1920’s becoming host to western-themed film festivals, is a great example of harmonizing associations to assist the development of destination image tourism. Smith (2005) also pointed out that already existing destination associations would be the strongest and should be kept in mind when planning a destination’s event portfolio. This would also drive destination marketers to capitalize on the positive image components available (Ahmed, 1991). That is not to say that a destination cannot reinvent itself and can only ‘stick to its guns’. Cohen argued that authenticity is not “absolute”, but “negotiable” (1988, p. 374) as tourists have different criteria for authenticity, signifying that over time, attitudes could change. Cohen termed this as “emergent authenticity” (1988, pp. 379-380).

Despite authenticity being negotiable, it also needs to be believable. Chalip and Costa found that a destination hosting an IndyCar race ended up having a worse evaluation of its natural environment, a critical component for a destination known for its beaches and laid-back lifestyle, as “the event’s noisy and technological image was incompatible with the beneficent natural environment image that the Gold Coast seeks to project” (2005, p. 224). Perhaps this is why there has been a growing trend of destination’s focusing on tourists’ emotions, rather than physical aspects of a destination (Mendes et al., 2011; Westerbeek & Linley, 2012). More specifically, by depicting a destination’s brand with “human-like personality characteristics” (Westerbeek & Linley, 2012, p. 204), destinations have a broader scope with which to target (potential) visitors by means of events.
Moreover, Mendes et al. noted that the Algarve’s destination and event image program was aimed to deliver an image based on “lifestyle, glamour and a cosmopolitan atmosphere” (2011, p. 381).

Events can provide community support

Local community support is pivotal if an event is to strengthen a destination’s image (Jago et al., 2003). This is naturally obvious for events where the primary visitors expected are locals, but this is also the case where many tourists are expected. As Yu et al. (2012) pointed out, local support factors such as resident behaviour and services played an integral role in the host destination brand’s perceptions by tourists. By involving the local community, a sense of ownership and pride will occur for the event, which in turn will result in a sense of an excitement and a “feel-good impact” (Dongfeng & Gratton, 2010, p. 643) for the destination. When Genoa hosted the year-long European Capital of Culture event, Nobili (2005, p. 322) noted that “its citizens’ support was vital for the success (of the event)” by becoming the main ambassadors to increase image benefits and brand strength.

Berkowitz et al. (2007) highlighted that the local population play a significant role in influencing perceptions of a destination’s brand to non-locals. It is therefore understandable that destinations holding events wanting to enhance their image want to get the community’s full support by offering themes they can get behind. One of the main themes for the 2008 Beijing Olympics was that it was the ‘People’s Olympics’ (Berkowitz et al., 2007), whereas the MTV Music Awards and Edinburgh sought to raise the destination’s image by appealing to the ‘Scottishness’ and friendliness of the locals (Reid, 2006). Arellano suggests that hosting an event which appeals to the identity of an individual and community – in this case, celebrating the history of the destination – will “create a resonance with people, which stimulates a sense of belonging, and can contribute to a strong branding process” (2011, p. 1). Harris (2008) also reflects on this by stating how the dominance of rugby in Welsh society can give easier access to a national identity when (re)imaging a destination. Revisiting the western film festival destinations, many of the local establishments lived into the theme by adapting their businesses to a western theme (Frost, 2008).

Host destination gains positive associations from event

Sport events tend to have more positive images than destinations (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010) due to the high-involvement levels of event-goers. However, visitors of a destination who are primarily attending for an event are more positive of the destination than non-primary visitors (Knott et al., 2013). It is therefore understandable that destinations want to gain as many positive associations as an event receives. More specifically, by means of image transfer, destinations can improve their image with events (Deng & Li, 2013). Research has, however, amply annotated the importance and necessity of having a strategic and cultural fit when pairing an event with a destination(Harris, 2008; Jago et al., 2003; Nobili, 2005; Xing & Chalip, 2006; Yu et al., 2012), in order to avoid negative, or no associations being conveyed.

Measuring image fit and the transfer of associations has been conducted in a multitude of manners. Dongfeng & Gratton (2010) found that the better the evaluation of an event, the more likely there would be a positive overall image impact of the host destination. More specifically, associations important to an event can have a positive and amplified impact on its host destination if found in the destination as well – i.e. safety and a well-functioning infrastructure (Florek & Insch, 2011). Xing
and Chalip (2006) also found that destinations who were considered as an active sport destination, would be more positively evaluated when paired with a sport event also considered as active (NASCAR race was seen as active, and a Pro Golf tournament as leisurely). Jago et al. suggests that the longevity/tradition of an event is important in order to “reinforce the branding effect by adding saliency and profile” (2003, p. 9), which seems very much in line with Westerbeek and Linley’s (2012) train of thought of having an event portfolio with reoccurring events to increase awareness and brand strength.

Hallmann & Breuer (2011) found that destinations hosting sports events had received positive associations which were strongly influenced with sporting themes and organizational aspects from the events themselves, such as the venues/infrastructure used by the events. Several studies suggested that the venues or infrastructures used by events had a significant and positive impact on being associated with a host destination (Bodet & Lacassagne, 2012; Deng & Li, 2013; Yu et al., 2012). This is interesting as costly venue investments (particularly for mega-events) have come under much scrutiny due to not generating a net addition to economic activity (Baade & Dye, 1990; Coates & Humphreys, 2003; Lertwachara & Cochran, 2007).

Positive intentions to (re)visit a destination based on event impact

Knott et al. (2013) found that an improved destination image due to hosting an event appears to have a positive impact on consumer behaviour intent. Visitors who had a more positive perception of the destination after visiting were more likely to revisit. Furthermore, visitors whose primary reason for visiting was due to an event were more likely to revisit the destination to attend future events than visitors who considered the event as a secondary reason for visiting. In addition, if it were not for the destination hosting the event, then the majority of the respondents (77%) might not have travelled to the destination in the first place. Although visitors would want to revisit to attend future events, Knott et al. (2013) pointed out that the more generic touristic aspects played a significant role in the decision to revisit. Attributes such as the local people as well as the destination’s cultural and heritage features. Yu et al.’s (2012) findings also showed that favourable perceptions of the brand of an event had a positive impact on the loyalty to the destination (intent to revisit).

Hallmann and Breuer (2010) found that image fit (between event and destination) serves as a predictor for future behavioural intentions towards the destination, but not to the event. Similarly, Xing and Chalip’s (2006) findings displayed that intention to visit two different host destinations was affected by the evaluation of the destination, which in turn, was affected by the type of event being hosted: intent to visit a destination considered as active was present when paired with either an active or leisurely event, but intent to visit a leisurely destination was preferred when paired with a leisurely event.

Westerbeek and Linley’s (2012) findings show that the more events a destination had strong associations with, the more attractive the destination was seen to not only visit, but to live and work as well. This was the case both for current and past residents, as well as national residents who had never lived in the destination.
4.3.2 Negative or no significant event impacts on a destination image

Failing to beat the rate of decay

One of the seminal papers in the field, Ritchie & Smith (1991), identified that by hosting an event, there were increased levels of awareness and knowledge of the host destination. The downside to this was the event’s inability to beat the rate of decay. More specifically, over time the awareness of the host destination, as well as the mega-event it hosted had declined rather dramatically and rapidly – already within the first year it had been held. Ritchie & Smith’s (1991) results of levels of awareness did, however, appear to remain relatively constant one year after the event. This appears consistent with Chalip and Costa’s (2005) suggestion that a single event only has a passing effect on the destination brand. Richards and Wilson also questioned the durability of events’ image impacts on a destination, suggesting that “it is difficult to maintain such gains unless there is a structured programme of cultural development in subsequent years as well” (2004, p. 1947). This seems particularly to be the case for one-off mega events, where a new host destination is chosen each time, so destinations feel they only have one chance and focus too much on attempting a “knockout punch, and not enough on scoring points through jabs” (Whitelegg, 2000, p. 814). This is an issue for destinations to take as many events are bid for to ensure long-term image impacts (Chalip, 2004).

Awareness of events and familiarity with a destination not necessarily a benefit

Awareness by means of an event had been identified earlier as an important step in creating familiarity with a destination in order to ultimately improve the destination’s image. Although not as extensive as the positive outcomes, some studies revealed the negative aspects of awareness by events. Dongfeng (2013) found a strong awareness by recall of a destination’s individual sports events. This strong awareness, however, had a negative impact on the image of tourism atmosphere and service, as well as the overall destination image. Smith (2005) had also revealed a relatively strong awareness of sport initiatives and events held by various destinations, yet people found the concept of imaging a destination by sports as difficult to understand as they felt that by being recognized by a specific sport/event exclusively did not make sense. More specifically, respondents felt that sport was a universal feature for all destinations and not distinctive for some. Prentice and Andersen found that a cultural event had been successful of its positioning in its field to guarantee a core of serious repeat tourists, yet failed to modify the image of its destination as “if a particular focus of consumption is not seen as typical of a wider destination, familiarity with destination will not necessarily impel change in how it is imagined” (2003, p. 7). Ultimately, Lai (2010) had found that a supposedly global event had almost no brand awareness in the destination in which it was being hosted and would most likely have no significant influence on the destination’s image. Lai (2010) further reiterated that it was more likely the destination’s image could help uplift the event and should therefore be marketed as a brand extension or brand feature of the destination.

Attention on unwanted areas because of an event

Due to the popularity of events, particularly mega events, much focus is placed on the host destination. Although this allows the destination to display the variety and uniqueness in its touristic resources (Kim & Morrison, 2005; Knott et al., 2013), it also means that areas of unwanted attention can be brought to light, regardless if they are caused by the events or not. Host
destinations are put on the spotlight by (international) media and are accordingly dissected at both an event-level and non-event level. Although the strength of having autonomous agents aid in image formation of destinations with events is apparent, Smith (2005) argues that the downside is that host destinations cannot necessarily control in what way their own images are being formed. Bodet and Lacassagne (2012) found that a negative dimension in the social representation of a host destination had emerged relating to political and human rights issues, as well as environmental (pollution) issues. Issues of crime and safety concerns were also raised (Knott et al., 2013). Negative associations with a nation’s oppressive past regimes have also been found (Florek & Insch, 2011; Knott et al., 2013). Preuss and Alfs (2011) had also revealed that a significant amount of international media pertained to criticism of the destination’s governmental system, both prior, during and after the event.

Lastly, a paradoxical point arises for destinations whose management of an event has been ‘too perfect’, or “hyper-success”, as Heslop et al. (2010, p. 425) defines it. More specifically, a destination that faced concerns of democratic and environmental issues and then delivered a seemingly flawless mega-event was not well perceived by foreign (potential) visitors. That is to say, that the drive for ultra-perfection in hosting a mega-event, the destination became indicative of a controlling society (Heslop et al., 2010). Successful safety did not indicate security, but instead an oppressive presence of military. Flawless opening ceremonies were dishonestly manipulated and fully-packed stadiums with local supporters was by government decree. Whitelegg also stressed that hosts trying to ‘package’ the destination as positively as possible can end up highlighting the very areas they intended to hide, and “when cracks appear in the harmonious image, they are perhaps even more shocking” (2000, p. 809).

Recent initiatives become overshadowed by established connections

Smith (2005) pointed out that already existing destination event associations would be the strongest and should be kept in mind when planning a destination’s event portfolio. The downside to this, however, is that these established connections can overshadow any recent undertakings by the host destination with regards to events. Smith (2005) found that even though respondents were aware of recent initiatives by destinations, the strong, established connections would still supersede them. The prime example given was Manchester’s attempts to bid for the Olympic Games, hosting the Commonwealth Games and building numerous new venues, yet still being most strongly associated for its long-established football clubs. Prentice and Andersen’s findings corroborates with this where it was wished to draw associations from an urban and contemporary event, but the destination found itself a “victim of its past success in promoting a (distinctive) image” (2003, p. 25). Ultimately, even the destination’s physical attributes can overshadow initiatives. Richards and Wilson (2004) found that a destination had increased its cultural associations due to an event, yet a significant portion of associations was still to the destination’s distinctive skyscraper skyline and architectural feats.

Negative/No intentions to (re)visit a destination based on event impact

Dongfeng (2013) had found that despite a strong awareness of a host destination’s different events, this did not have a significant impact on intention to visit the destination. Along with the depressed tourism atmosphere and destination image, this failure to impact destination visitation could be attributed to the crowding-out factor, where (potential) visitors would cancel their visit to the
destination which they would have done had an event not taken place (Preuss, 2005). Secondary spillovers (Heslop et al., 2010) from an event can also result in decreased willingness to (re)visit a destination, with factors such as controversies and scandals occurring during an event (doping, bribes, manipulations and over-controlling regimes).

Kaplanidou (2007) found that affective event images played no significant impact in visitors’ future intention to visit the host destination, perhaps due to the emotions and perceptions of an event staying confined to within the event’s organization and services. Kaplanidou (2007) did postulate that there was a chance that the image of a destination was mediating the impact of the event image on the destination, and was therefore contributing indirectly. Gibson et al. (2008) also found similar results with destination image as a mediator. However, these results can also be drawn to results by Lee et al., whom found that the “affective aspect of onsite experiences is important in influencing subsequent behaviour and that onsite experiences are more relevant to evaluation of travel (satisfaction) than to future behavioural intentions” (2005, p. 853). This could signify that visitors are only there for the event and never had the intent of revisiting a destination.

4.4 Destination impacts on event image and intentions to (re)visit an event

4.4.1 Positive destination impacts on event image

Image components interact with event image perceptions

Hallmann et al. (2010) found that there were dissimilarities between similar types of events taking place in urban and rural destinations with regards to images. Hence, the type of destination can have an impact on visitors’ perception of an event, and further indicate that the necessity of understanding image interaction and fit is critical (Jago et al., 2003). For events in rural destinations, image perceptions were focused on environmental aspects. Oppositely for events in urban destinations, image perceptions were focused on destination sights and infrastructure, and organizational aspects. Although these are different themes, they both fall into the cognitive components of imaging and not the affective components, which are normally the more resounding factors in destination image research due to their relation to emotional experiences (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Frost (2008) pointed out that a destination’s cognitive components can add authenticity to an event (provided they are believable associations). Florek and Insch (2011) also highlighted the importance of a destination’s cognitive components in strengthening a prestigious event’s positive symbolic dimension and that a destination can create a ‘halo construct’ (Han, 1989), where a destination image is used to evaluate products - in this case, an event – about which people know little. Oppositely, Xing and Chalip stated that “if the event is relatively familiar and the destination is less familiar, then perceptions of the event will be assimilated to the destination, but perceptions of the destination will serve as a comparative context when marshalling perceptions of the event” (2006, p. 71).
Positive intentions to (re)visit an event based on destination impact

Hallmann and Breuer (2010), Gibson et al. (2008) and Dongfeng and Gratton (2010) found that a destination’s image had a positive impact on intentions to revisit an event. For the latter, a possible explanation for this was that the event would reoccur every year in the same destination, as well as a significant difference was found between locals, domestic visitors and foreign visitors: locals had the highest positive image change. This could be attributed to the feel-good impact or that locals could make a better “comparison of the previous perception with the actual exposures” (Dongfeng & Gratton, 2010, p. 644). Gibson et al. (2008), on the other hand, found intent to visit before an event (which does not reoccur in the same host destination). Destination image factors such as ‘people’ (friendliness of local population) and ‘attractions’ (culture & history) were identified as statistically significant contributors to the relationship between destination image and intent to attend the event. Furthermore, destination image acted as a mediator between the intention to visit the event and previous international travel experience.

4.4.2 Negative or no significant destination impacts on an event image

Events have more impact on destination image than the other way around

The literature revealed that there was in general an asymmetry of image impact studies between events and destinations, not only in quantity but also in results. Numerous studies found that an event had a significant (both positive and negative) impact on a destination’s image (Arellano, 2011; Deng & Li, 2013; Dongfeng & Gratton, 2010; Dongfeng, 2013; Kim & Morrison, 2005; Knott et al., 2013), to name a few. Few studies found positive destination impacts on event images (see: 4.4.1), and the remaining studies found that there were no significant impacts (Bodet & Lacassagne, 2012; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007; Yu et al., 2012) or a negative impact (Heslop et al., 2010). Kaplanidou and Vogt (2007) reasoned that if an event is hosted in a different destination each time, it clearly could hold implications about how much the destination can actually impact the image of an event. Yu et al. (2012) further adds to this by assuming that the type, size and frequency of an event may have different influences when measuring interdependencies of images with events and destinations. Moreover, it is important to bear in mind that when event-goers’ primary motivation is attending the event, the impact the destination can have on an event image is dependent not only on a strategic fit, but also on a match between the two entities’ missions and culture. A mismatch between these components can result in a diluted value of an event (Yu et al., 2012). Bodet & Lacassagne (2012) attributed that the timing of these studies could lead to a failure in capturing a destination’s impact on an event image, stating that most studies are conducted during or immediately after an event has taken place and that social representations are only slightly changed overtime.

Heslop et al. (2010) found a negative impact on the event image due to the unwanted attention of environmental issues, oppressive governmental regimes, etc. derived from the host destination (see: 4.3.2, Attention on unwanted areas because of an event).

Negative/No intentions to (re)visit an event based on destination impact

From the selected articles for this review, no significant impacts were found on either negative intentions to (re)visit or no intentions to (re)visit an event based on a destination’s impact.
5. Discussion and implications for future research

This section has identified several conclusions and topical issues from the 37 articles used in this study for identifying the image impacts events can have on their destination, and vice-versa, as well as what implications can be drawn from this with regards to future research. The paper had been structured in identifying both positive and negative image impacts, as well as identifying if there were any intentions to (re)visit a destination or an event. The following identified topical issues will contain both positive and negative image impacts in their discussion as these impacts are very much related and intertwined and most certainly may be on different sides of a coin, but on the same coin none-the-less.

Destinations and Events in a symbiotic but asymmetric relationship

The literature displayed that events, for the most part, play a positive role in impacting a destination’s image, whether by increasing awareness and familiarity, reducing negative images, providing believable associations and authenticity as well as community support, or ensuring the host gains positive associations from the event. Consequently, sports and leisure events offer destination marketers and policy makers an efficient strategy to enhance a destination’s image to both its internal and external markets and to ensure intentions to (re)visit. Due to the popularity of events, destinations can showcase their touristic resources (Knott et al., 2013) to (re)attract visitors, as well as harness community support (Arellano, 2011; Jago et al., 2003) and to ultimately deliver a stronger image by bringing a sense of authenticity to a destination (Frost, 2008). Events were not without their vices, either. The literature revealed that events can also have negative impacts on a destination’s image. By receiving additional attention through media and an influx of visitors, unwanted areas of focus may be diverted to the destination (Bodet & Lacassagne, 2012; Heslop et al., 2010; Preuss & Alfs, 2011). An increase in the awareness of sports events in a destination also revealed that this suppressed the overall tourism atmosphere and destination image (Dongfeng, 2013). Destinations trying to reimage themselves with events might also find it difficult to rid themselves of old associations and will find their recent initiatives overshadowed (Smith, 2005). This was also attributed to the issue that events only have a passing influence on a destination’s brand (Chalip & Costa, 2005) and few destinations fail to beat the rate of decay.

Destination impacts on events’ images were a far less researched area and therefore revealed a very sparse amount of results. It was interesting, however, to find that most of the literature in this area found that the cognitive components played a more significant role than affective components of a destination when positively impacting an event’s image (Hallmann & Breuer, 2011). Oppositely, the remaining studies mostly revealed that a destination had no significant impact on an event’s image at all. Bodet & Lacassagne (2012) noted that this could be due to the timing of the conducted studies, as most are conducted during or immediately after an event has taken place and that the image impacts may be hard to yet assess for a visitor.

Nonetheless, the limited amount of research pertained to assessing a destination’s impact on an event’s image is perplexing as it was apparent that much of the literature – particularly the theoretical framework studies – stressed the importance of achieving a strategic as well as cultural fit between the two entities in order to maximize benefits and create synergy (Dongfeng & Gratton, 2010; Florek & Insch, 2011; Jago et al., 2003). To date, much of the work has “focused on effects
for only one of the two partners in the brand alliance, but has not examined the bidirectional flow of effects. Clearly, the studies of events and host destinations need to consider the effect each partner has on the other” (Xing & Chalip, 2006, p. 71). The empirical studies in the literature which assessed the reciprocal image influences (Bodet & Lacassagne, 2012; Heslop et al., 2010; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007; Xing & Chalip, 2006; Yu et al., 2012) found mostly negative or not significant impacts of a destination on an event’s image, but not so the other way around. It appears that events and destinations do indeed have a symbiotic relationship, but it is a rather asymmetric one. Future research should investigate as to why and how this unbalanced relationship occurs, and, if this could be changed to create a more harmonious bidirectional flow. This would be of great benefit to the event management industry, particularly for events who select different host destinations each time as selecting the right destination could prove imperative for the event’s image.

**Determinants of Image Fit: What constitutes a fit?**

The literature revealed that there are links between an event and a destination (Gibson et al., 2008; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007; Xing & Chalip, 2006) and that, theoretically, these links should strategically fit to maximize image benefits (Florek & Insch, 2011; Jago et al., 2003). But what constitutes a fit? Hallmann & Breuer (2010) offered insights into what the determinants of image fit of a destination and event are by indirectly measuring assessing affective, cognitive, conative and macro-level components. When there was an image fit, this proved to be a predictor for future visit intentions to the destination, but not the event. Hallmann & Breuer (2010) raised a very interesting notion that despite there being an image fit, this did not necessarily result in both entities receiving the same treatment. Future research should build on this, understanding what constitutes a fit, and equally important, if this is something destination marketers and event managers want? Many destinations are attempting to reimage themselves and Brown et al. (2004) suggests that a certain degree of dissimilarity between two entities is quintessential for image change, so perhaps finding strategically and culturally fitting events is not the ideal solution. Correspondingly, Xing & Chalip (2006) also suggested that future research should examine the effects of relative familiarity and in what manners the event and host destination brands impact one another. Destination marketers are not alone here, as event managers also do not want to get caught in the crossfire of destination imaging strategies which could harm perceptions of the event and would surely want to know how a destination’s associations could affect an event.

**Event portfolio management and the destination image**

Jago et al. (2003) and Chalip and Costa’s (2004) theoretical frameworks highlighted the importance of a destination creating synergy with its event portfolio by means of integrated strategies. Westerbeek & Linley’s (2012) findings confirm this as destinations who use an event-portfolio approach are more likely to have a positive impact on their brand and awareness, as opposed to destinations who only utilize a single-event approach. Not only did this improve the attractiveness ratings of visiting a destination, but also the ratings to live and work at that destination. Most of the literature, however, assessed one event in one location (Bodet & Lacassagne, 2012; Heslop et al., 2010; Lai, 2010; Lee et. al, 2005), many of them being mega-events which have a different location each time. Other literature had multiple events in one study, yet in different locations (Hallmann & Breuer, 2010, 2011; Hallmann et. al, 2010; Nobili, 2005; Smith, 2005). There are apparent
advantages in these studies, yet future research should also investigate the reciprocal image effects of multiple events on one destination. Moreover, how is the image of a single event affected by a destination with an event portfolio (and vice-versa)? Do the other events in the portfolio also have an influence on an individual event’s image? Destination marketers must decide on which events to include in their portfolio and furthering an understanding on the interdependencies event portfolios and destinations have on their respective images would be an invaluable tool.

Longitudinal studies: Beating the rate of decay

One of the seminal papers in the field, Ritchie & Smith (1991), identified that events had a rate of decay – a decreasing effect on the destination awareness (and image) with time. Bodet & Lacassagne (2012) also attributed that the timing of studies could result in difficulties in measuring image impacts and changes as they are incremental. It is therefore interesting that very few of the empirical studies have been longitudinal (Florek et al., 2008; Heslop et al., 2010; Kim & Morrison, 2005; Preuss & Alfs, 2011). This is also understandable, as this makes the data collection process much more exhaustive and time-consuming. The benefits received, however, in furthering an understanding if an event or event portfolio is beating the rate of decay (or not) and, equally important, how, are of high academic and practical relevance.

Understanding different types of events and their attendants

Mega-events are always prone to be used in studies due to the amount of attraction they receive by media and visitor numbers, as well as the heavy investments necessary. From the literature in this review, more than half (58%) of all the studies used mega-events as cases. Unsurprisingly, sports event studies were also the most popular (73% of all studies), and the most popular events were the Olympic Games (26% of all studies) and the FIFA World Cup (14% of all studies). Due to the dominance of mega-events, it is also unsurprising that 70% of all the studies were reoccurring events but in different destinations. To further understand the reciprocal image impacts on destinations and events, future research should consider non-mega events as well as events which reoccur in the same destination. This particularly plays hand-in-hand with better understanding a destination’s event portfolio, as well as providing an opportunity for longitudinal studies. In addition, as mega events are usually only available to larger destinations, it would also be befitting to further our understanding of image impacts for medium-sized and small destinations with events.

With researching different types of events, it would also be possible to research on potential differences/similarities between attendant types, particularly between local and non-locals, a much under researched area in destination and event image impacts. Few studies had also looked at the difference between active and passive event attendants (e.g. Hallmann et al., 2010). To conduct studies within the same destination for different types of events and their respective attendants would not only be of great academic relevance, but also of high value for destination marketers and municipal decision makers.

Understanding negative impacts

The majority of the literature focuses on finding positive image impacts of events on their host destinations (and vice-versa). Several studies did find a lack of positive image impacts (e.g. Lai, 2010; Prentice & Andersen, 2003), and others negative impacts (e.g. Bodet & Lacassagne, 2012; Dongfeng, 2013), yet the main intent of the majority of the studies were to find positive impacts.
Future studies should investigate potential negative image impacts as the primary research objective. It is important to mention that several social impact studies of events on host destinations have investigated the negative impacts events can have from resident perspectives (e.g. Higham, 1999; Ohmann et al., 2006). However, it is important to stress that these have focused on perspectives of the events themselves and possibly by measuring psychic income (Kim & Walker, 2012) of local residents due to events. There is a clear research gap on focusing on whether residents and/or tourists believe that an event can have direct negative image impacts on a host destination on several dimensions (e.g. noise, crowding out, pollution, reputation).

Limitations of review

This literature analysis enables managers to frame their event portfolios more efficiently by compiling numerous image impacts which (un)favourably influence destination and/or event image. Although 37 empirical and conceptual studies are included in this literature review, guaranteeing an overview as comprehensive as possible, the analysis exhibits some limitations. Firstly, only articles in English are included, thus potentially relevant articles published in other languages are not considered. Secondly, only two types of events were considered – sports and leisure (culture, music). Although the dominant types of events in this field of research, papers with other types of events (i.e. business conference events, political events) could have been neglected. Thirdly, the review only covers an aspect of event impacts on a destination (and vice-versa), namely the image impacts. Other impacts are present, as mentioned in the introduction (political, cultural, infrastructure, etc.). Future reviews should verify these findings to provide a literature review encompassing all the different types of impacts. However, the author accomplishes an important contribution in systemizing previous literature regarding image impacts on events and host destinations. Based on the findings for each type of image impact and the intentions to (re)visit, destination marketers are enabled to optimize their previous performance in an increasingly important segment for destination imaging.
References


