PRINT: ISSN 0972-0073 ONLINE: ISSN 2456-6802
Anthropologist, 19(1): 249-258 (2015)
DOI: 10.31901/24566802.2015/19.01.27

Tourist Attractions and Tourist Loyalty to the 2013 World Baseball Classic in Taiwan

Tsai-Wan Chien[1] and Zheng- Sheng Lin[2]

[1]Department of Holistic Wellness, [2]Department of Business Innovation and Development, MinDao University, Taiwan
[1]E-mail: sheng@mdu.edu.tw

KEYWORDS 2013 World Baseball Classic. Motivation. Attraction. Loyalty

ABSTRACT Understanding the experiential outcomes of tourist support is becoming increasingly important for developing practicable marketing strategies for the 2013 World Baseball Classic. The present research paper proposes a conceptual framework to explicate the causal hypotheses regarding the relationship among experiential marketing, perceived experiential value, tourist satisfaction, and tourist loyalty. To collect the relevant data for the research, the questionnaires were sent to the respondents to collect and analyze the substantial material of the study and further to investigate tourist support for the 2013 World Baseball Classic. A structural equation modeling approach is used to test and validate the hypothesized relationships. The results show that tourist motivation had statistically significant effects on attractions, satisfaction and loyalty. Tourist attractions had a statistically significant effect on satisfaction. The present study provides an in-depth understanding of the repurchase decision-making intentions of tourists attending the 2013 World Baseball Classic. The findings can assist 2013 World Baseball Classic practitioners in developing more practical marketing strategies.

INTRODUCTION

The 2013 World Baseball Classic (WBC) was an international professional baseball competition held from March 2 to March 19, 2013. This event was the third iteration of the WBC, following the two previous tournaments held in 2006 and 2009. Unlike the two previous WBCs, which consisted of the same sixteen countries, only the twelve countries that won at least one game in the 2009 WBC were guaranteed a berth in the main tournament. The automatic qualifiers were Australia, China, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Italy, Japan, Mexico, the Netherlands, Puerto Rico, South Korea, the United States, and Venezuela. Japan entered as the defending champions.

Specifically, the 2013 WBC attracted a global audience, shaped world tourism patterns, and created lasting legacies for host cities/countries in Taiwan. This large sporting event is the fastest growing segment of the tourism industry. In fact, the 2008 Beijing Olympics was hailed as the most expensive Games held, with an estimated cost of more than $40 billion (Leeds et al. 2009). In 2004, Athens spent 13 billion Euros hosting the event, accounting for approximately 6% of Greece's gross national product (GNP). A large investment does not always justify the benefits drawn from an event (Holloway 2009). In fact, for large sporting events such as the FIFA World Cup, interest in the event and perceived constraints should derive from the level of fan motives, travel motivations, and potential attendees' backgrounds (Kim and Chalip 2004). The Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup attract a global audience, shape world tourism patterns, and create lasting legacies for host cities/countries (Fourie and Santana-Gallego 2011).

In fact, sports are the fastest growing segment of the tourism industry (Davies and Williment 2008; Prayag et al. 2013). In terms of national sporting pride and organizational success, the games were a resounding hit. The home team submitted its best performance to date, and organizers reported event attendance and visitor numbers exceeding all expectations. However, 2013 WBC marketing events depend on the media, sponsorship and participants. For the increasingly significant component of financial and tourism outcomes, destination marketers share with mega-event marketers the need to stimulate international visitation (Barker et al. 2002). Through media, international tourism can attract attention to Olympic events and interest in travel to attend the event (Ritchie and Smith 1991; Whitelegg 2000; Kim and Chalip 2004).

Furthermore, mega-events are one-time events that usually generate profound long-term effects, both positive and negative, on host communities (Mihalik and Cummings 1995; Mihalik and Simonette 1998; Ritchie and Aitken 1985). Although these events are one-time, short-term

events, they have positive long-term consequences for the cities and communities that stage them (Roche 1994), lead to opportunities for international publicity and recognition of the host community (Jeong and Faulkner 1996), and improve the host community's quality of life (Deccio and Baloglu 2002; Goeldner and Long 1987). Neal and Gursoy (2008) *provided empirical evidence that satisfaction with travel and tourism services is the result of satisfaction during various stages of the tourism experience.*

However, Xiang et al. (2009) presented *empirical evidence indicating that satisfaction with travel and tourism services is the result of satisfaction during various stages of the tourism experience. The findings indicate that tourists' level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction during various stages of travel affect their overall satisfaction with travel and tourism services.* Sirgy et al. (2011) showed that the model is based on the theoretical notion that travel influences life satisfaction through tourists' experiences of positive and negative affect associated with a recent tourist trip within various life domains (for example, social life, leisure life, family life, cultural life, health and safety, love life, work life, and financial life). The data provided support for the overall model, and helped identify specific sources of positive and negative effect that play a significant role in tourists' overall sense of well-being. Specific managerial recommendations were offered for tourist operators based on the study findings.

Thus, *most economic impact studies are commissioned to legitimize a political position rather than to search for economic truth. This intent often results in the use of questionable procedures that produce the large numbers that study sponsors seek to support a predetermined position. Examples are selected primarily from the reports of ostensibly expert consultants that illustrate 10 of these questionable procedures: including local residents, performing inappropriate aggregation, including time-switchers and casuals, abusing multipliers, ignoring costs borne by the local community, ignoring opportunity costs, ignoring displacement costs, expanding the project scope, exaggerating visitation numbers, and including a consumer surplus* (Crompton 2006).

Solberg and Press (2007) reported that hosting major sport events can generate positive shifts in tourism demand on a long-term basis, but the additional revenues may not counterbalance the investment costs that are required of the host destination. After 1994, the South African government undertook the target of making tourism one of the country's leading industries in terms of the creation of employment and in the generation of foreign income (WTTC 2002). Although tourism destinations are increasingly emphasizing the importance of sports tourism as part of their destination development strategies in South Africa, according to the Economic Review, Sheard and Veldtman (2003) noted that existing research is superficial and currently does not provide much detail relating to comparisons of sub-sector or niche markets within the sport tourism industry. The generality of the available information results in little feasible planning for niche markets by destination management organizations, that are based on empirical research. Sports tourism is considered a multibillion-dollar global business and is the fastest-growing sector of the US$4.5 trillion global travel and tourism industry.

Destinations are increasingly relying on the visiting golfer or rugby supporter, for example, with sports tourism in certain destinations possibly accounting for as much as 25% of all tourism receipts (Sportbusiness 2004). The importance of sports tourism as a target market is further emphasized by media statements of the World Tourism Organization (WTO) and the International Olympic Committee (IOC), which in 2004 announced their commitment to reinforce their partnerships to collaborate in the sports and tourism domain.

Weed and Bull (2004) reported that there are two types of sports-related tourism: first, sporting events are used by destinations seeking to develop their tourism profiles, and second, tourism has emerged spontaneously in some places as a result of sports activity. Globally, golf tourism is considered a major tourism activity both as a direct form of special interest travel and as an adjunct to other forms of travel (Hall 1992). One of two adult golfers play at least one round of golf while traveling for business or pleasure, with nearly 65% of all golf travelers having a household income of more than US$50,000 (Western 2004).

Kim et al. (2006) firmly acclaimed that local residents are likely to form their perceptions based on the expected value of an exchange before the actual exchange occurs. Most research-

ers who have examined residents' perceptions of tourism effects have utilized social exchange theory as their theoretical base (Ap 1990, 1992; Gursoy et al. 2002; Lindberg and Johnson 1997). After hosting the event, residents who feel that hosting the event damaged the environment are likely to oppose hosting future mega-events, whereas those who regard hosting a mega-event as an incentive to preserve and protect the natural area are likely to be more positive regarding the possibility of hosting future events (Liu and Var 1986). With regard to the perceived costs of mega-events, such events are likely to cause price inflation and increased local taxes to construct the facilities required to host the event, which results in financial burdens on locals (Deccio and Baloglu 2002). Sports tourism is considered a multibillion-dollar global business and is the fastest-growing sector of the US$ 4.5 trillion global travel and tourism industry (Tassiopoulos and Haydam 2007). Weed (2009) reported that although research on destination image and media exposure does not fall within the traditional framework of economic, social and environmental effects, the effective marketing of cities may have implications (both positive and negative) in each of these areas for both visitors and residents (Weed 2008).

Given these studies, a successful international sporting event generates many positive outcomes and greatly enhances the amount and rate of change in a host community, including image enhancement, unity within the host community, and more opportunities to enjoy sport matches and attract foreign travelers (Bramwell 1997; Kim and Petrick: 2005; Kim and Chalip 2004). Thus, the aim of the study is to investigate the relationship among tourists' motivation, attractions, satisfaction, and loyalty because these elements are crucial to successful international sports, such as WBC.

METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

A private research company collected the data for this study through a survey of tourist travelers. Respondents were recruited from previous research on tourists for the 2013 WBC Sport Tourism Tour. The initial sample consisted of 600 respondents, and 500 respondents completed the survey; the effective response rate was 90.9%.

Research Tools

The various scales used in this research are explained below:

Tourist Attraction Scale

Successful international sporting events generate many positive outcomes and greatly enhance the amount and rate of change in host communities, such as image enhancement, unity within the host community, and more opportunities to enjoy sporting matches and attract foreign travelers (Bramwell 1997; Kim and Petrick 2005; Kim and Chalip 2004). The tourist attraction scale was recompiled based on the sports attraction scale. The fifteen questions on this scale can all pass the internal uniform indicator method and relevant analysis test. Thus, all questions have identification strength. From the factor analysis results, four factors were obtained for a total of fifteen questions. The total interpretation variable value is 84.69%, and the Cronbach's á coefficient of the total scale is .95, revealing that the attraction scale is highly reliable.

Tourist Participation Motivation Scale

For large sporting events such as the FIFA World cup, interest in the event and perceived constraints should derive from the level of fan motives, travel motivations, and potential attendees' background (Kim and Chalip 2004).

The twenty questions on this scale can all pass the internal uniform indicator method and relevant analysis test. Thus, all questions have identification strength. From the factor analysis results, four factors were obtained for a total of fifteen questions. The total interpretation variable value is 65.76%, and the Cronbach's α coefficient of the total scale is .92, revealing that the participation level scale is highly reliable.

Tourist Participation Satisfaction Level Scale

Xiang et al. (2009) provided *empirical evidence indicating that satisfaction with travel and tourism services is the result of satisfaction during various stages of the tourism experience.*

The thirteen questions on this scale can all pass the internal uniform indicator method and

relevant analysis test. Thus, all questions have identification strength. From the factor analysis results, three factors are obtained for a total of thirteen questions. The total interpretation variable value is 73.93%, and the Cronbach's α coefficient of the total scale is .92, revealing that the participation level scale has a high level of reliability.

Tourist's Participation Loyalty Scale

The Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup attract a global audience, shape world tourism patterns, and create lasting legacies for host cities/countries (Fourie and Santana-Gallego 2011). Specifically, the 2008 Beijing Olympics was hailed as the most expensive Games held, with an estimated cost of more than $40 billion (Leeds et al. 2009).

This scale was recompiled based on the sport participation satisfaction level scale, with a total of five questions. The total interpretation variable value is 68.02%, and the Cronbach's α coefficient of the total scale is .84, revealing that the loyalty level scale has a high level of reliability.

Data Analysis

To present the current status of tourist satisfaction, the descriptive statistics for the aforementioned questionnaire respondents were analyzed and compared using SEM.

Hypotheses

Eight important directional hypotheses were presented as follows.

H1: Tourist attractions directly influenced tourists' motivation.
H2: Tourist attractions directly influenced tourists' satisfaction.
H3: Tourists' satisfaction directly influenced their loyalty.
H4: Tourists' motivation directly influenced their loyalty.
H5: Tourists' loyalty directly influenced their satisfaction.
H6: Tourists' motivation directly influenced their satisfaction.
H7: Tourists' exercise experience directly influenced their motivation.
H8: Tourists' viewing of sports programs experience directly influenced their motivation.

RESULTS

Demographic Characteristics

The demographic characteristics of the respondents included their gender, educational status, and place of origin (Table 1). The total sample of 500 tourists included 280 males (56%) and 220 females (44%). With regard to educational level, 20 persons (4%) had completed junior high school, 65 persons (13%) had completed senior high school, 395 persons (79%) had a college or university education, and 20 persons (4%) had completed graduate-level university work. With respect to age, 205 persons (41%) were under 25 years old, 230 persons (46%) were 26-40 years old, 40 persons (8%) were 41-55 years old, and 25 persons (5%) were over 56 years old. In terms of their residence district, 252 persons

Table 1: Basic information analysis (n=500)

Variable	*Group*	*No. of person*	*Percentage*
Gender	Male	280	56
	Female	220	44
Educational Level	Junior high school	20	4
	Senior high school	65	13
	College/university	395	79
	Graduate university	20	4
Age	Under 25	205	41
	26-40	230	46
	41-55	40	8
	Over 56	25	5
Residence District	Northern district	252	50.4
	Central district	180	36
	Southern district	46	9.2
	Eastern district	18	3.6
	other	4	8
Traveling Tour	Yes	320	64
	No	180	36

(50.4%) were from the northern district, 180 (36%) were from the central district, 46 persons (9.2%) were from the southern district, and 18 persons (3.6%) were from the eastern district. A total of 320 persons (64%) participated in the traveling tour, whereas 180 persons (36%) did not participate for this tour (Table 2). Variables in this study is defined in Table 3.

Table 2: Analysis on the level of importance on the local place recognized by the participants

Variables	*n*	*%*
Extremely important	240	48
Very important	180	36
Important	75	15
No important	3	6
Very not important	2	4
Extremely not important	0	0
Total	500	100.0

Screening for Offending Estimates in the Full Model

The commonest examples of offending estimates are the following: (1) negative error variance or non-significant error variances for any construct, (2) standardized coefficients exceeding or close to 1.0, or (3) large standard errors associated with any estimated coefficient. Table 4 shows the variables in the full model. The table shows that the standardized coefficients were between .91 and .57. These coefficients do not exceed 0.95, which means that they were not very close to 1.0. The values of the standard errors of the measured variables were between .13 and .03; thus, the standard errors were not very large. The measurement errors were also between .67 and .17 and were significant. These results indicate that there were no offending estimates. Therefore, the researcher was able to move forward in evaluating the overall model fit.

Model Evaluation

LISREL 8.80 was used for the estimation of the measurement model. The overall fit measures are presented in Table 4, and a path diagram with standardized parameter estimates is presented in Figure 1.

As shown in Table 5, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) had a value of 0.92, which is larger than the recommended level of 0.90 and is thus indicative of a good fit for this model. The RMSEA value was 0.06, which is indicative of a fair fit for the model. The value of SRMR was 0.05, which is less than the recommended value of 0.08 and is thus acceptable for the model. For the incre-

Table 3: Variables of the full SEM model

Latent variable	*Observed variables*	*Measurement errors*
Participate In Exercise Experience	Participate in the number of times 0 (X1) of the exercise experience every week on average	ä1
	Participate in the sport time (X2) averagely every time	ä2
Watching Sport Programs Experience	Admire sport program number of times every week (X3)	ä3
	Admire the time (X4) of the sport program averagely each time	ä4
	Watch the sport news time (X5) each time	ä5
Attraction Of Sport Tourism	Factor of quirky experiences ÿX6	ä6
	Factor of natural tourism ÿX7	ä7
	Artificial facilities tourism of the resource factor (X8)	ä8
	Factor of event and celebration tourism resourcesÿX9	ä9
Motivation Of Sport Tourism Participate	Factor of Curious and self-satisfaction (Y1)	å1
	Factor of social activity and leisure experience (Y2)	å2
	Culture has a partiality for the factor (Y3)	å3
	Exercise experience and challenge factor (Y4)	å4
Satisfactory Of Sport Tourism Participate	Service of facilities (Y5)	å5
	Accept the service (Y6)	å6
	Quality promising (Y7)	å7
Loyalty Of Sport Tourism Participate	Whether you will cross the activity to this 2013 WBC (Y8)	å8
	I will pay the utmost attention to the 2013 WBC to participate (Y9)	å9
	Whether you will participate in this 2013 WBC and cross the activity again next time (Y10)	å10
	You will recommend this 2012 WBC to relative and friends and cross the activity (Y11)	å11

Table 4: Parameter estimates of the full model

Parameter	*Non-standardized coefficient*	*Standard error*	*t value*	*Standardized coefficient*
λx_1	1.19	0.17	7.19*	0.59
λx_2	22.08	3.38	6.54*	0.44
λx_3	1.54	0.11	14.15*	0.62
λx_4	31.70	1.83	17.33*	0.76
λx_5	18.09	1.07	16.96*	0.75
λx_6	0.62	0.03	21.26*	0.78
λx_7	0.70	0.03	23.67*	0.84
λx_8	0.66	0.03	23.71*	0.84
λx_9	0.61	0.04	16.28*	0.64
λy_1	0.53	-	-	0.64
λy_2	0.63	0.04	14.07*	0.75
λy_3	0.60	0.04	14.41*	0.77
λy_4	0.67	0.05	13.82*	0.73
λy_5	0.68	-	-	0.88
λy_6	0.61	0.03	21.51*	0.77
λy_7	0.68	0.03	25.17*	0.87
λy_8	0.84	-	-	0.82
λy_9	0.86	0.03	25.52*	0.89
λy_{10}	0.87	0.04	22.86*	0.83
λy_{11}	0.82	0.04	22.32*	0.81
γ_1	0.23	0.08	2.98*	0.23
γ_2	-0.08	0.06	-1.26	-0.08
γ_3	0.86	0.06	11.07*	0.63
γ_4	0.57	0.06	8.63*	0.49
β_1	0.65	0.06	4.12*	0.24
β_2	0.54	0.05	6.72*	0.35
β_3	0.76	0.05	8.61*	0.42

Note: "—" means the variable is referent indicator; * present significant <.05

mental fit measures, the NNFI value was 0.97, which is larger than the recommended level of 0.90 and indicative of a good fit for this model. The CFI value was 0.98, which is larger than the recommended level of 0.90 and indicative of a good fit for this model. For the parsimonious fit measures, the PNFI value was 0.81, which is larger than the recommended level of 0.5. The normed chi-squared value was 2.88, which is less than the recommended upper threshold, the more liberal limit of 3.0, and the result indicates that the model can adequately represent the sample data. In summary, most of the overall fit measures indicated a good fit for this model; therefore, the model is acceptable, and this measurement model has demonstrated overall validity.

Figure 2 displays details regarding the parameter estimates for the model. In total, seven

Table 5: Overall fit measures of the full model

Fit indices	*Accept variable*	*Statistic*	*Results*
Absolute Fit Measures			
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	$\geq$ 0.9	0.92	Acceptable
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	$\leq$ 0.08	0.05	Acceptable
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	$\leq$ 0.08	0.06	Acceptable
Relative Fit Measures			
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	$\geq$ 0.9	0.97	Acceptable
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$\geq$ 0.9	0.98	Acceptable
Parsimonious Fit Measures			
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	$\geq$ 0.5	0.81	Acceptable
Critical N (CN)	$\geq$ 200	249.32	Acceptable
Normed chi-square ($\div^2$/df)	1~3	2.88	Acceptable

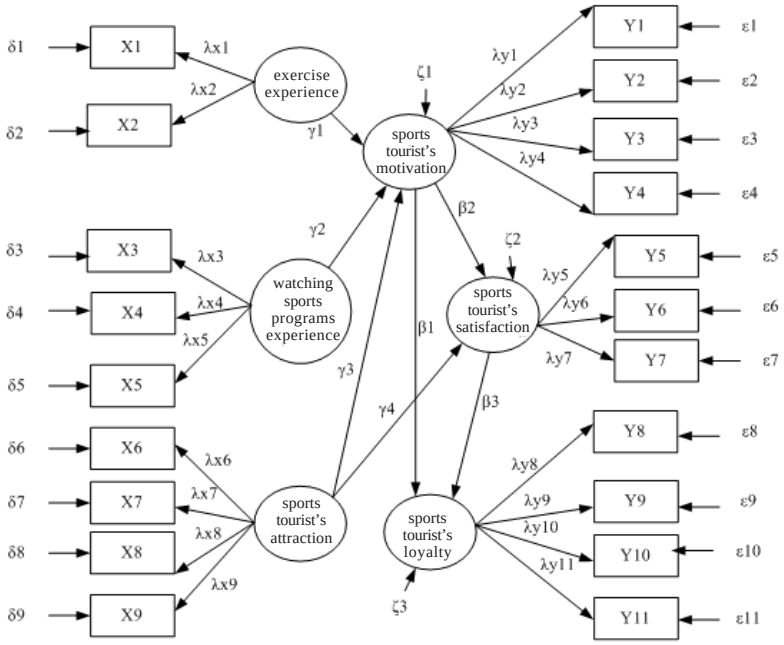

Fig. 1. The hypothesized model

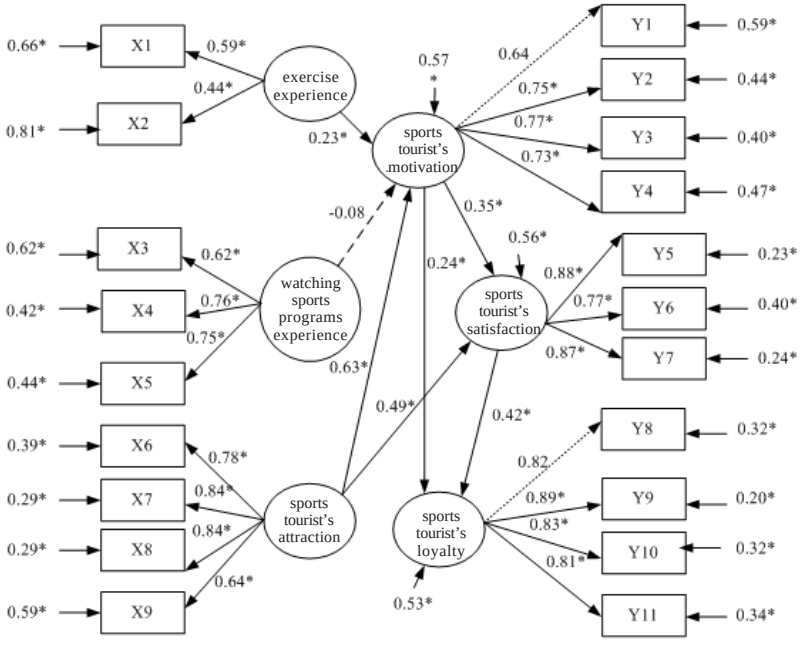

Fig. 2. Standardized parameter estimates for the full SEM model
Note: *p< .05

hypotheses were supported. The exercise experience of tourists had significant effects on the motivation for tourism participation (r1=0.23, t-value=2.98). Tourists' experience viewing sport programs did not have significant effects on the motivation for tourism participation (r2=-0.08, t-value=-1.26). The attractiveness of tourism participation had significant effects on the motivation for tourism participation (r3=0.63, t-value=11.07). The attractiveness of tourism participation had significant effects on the satisfaction of tourism participation (r4=0.49, t-value=8.63). The motivation for tourism participation had significant effects on sporting tourists' loyalty (B1=0.24, t-value=4.12). The motivation for tourism participation had significant effects on satisfaction with tourism participation (B2=0.35, t-value=6.72). Satisfaction with tourism participation had significant effects on sporting tourists' loyalty (B3=0.42, t-value=8.61).

DISCUSSION

Understanding the experiential outcomes of tourist support is becoming increasingly important for developing practicable marketing strategies based on the 2013 World Baseball Classic service economy. The results showed that participation motivation had statistically significant effects on satisfaction and loyalty. The attractiveness of tourist participation had a statistically significant effect on satisfaction. The desire to learn about the host city had direct effects on interest in the sporting event and the desire to attend the 2013 WBC in Taiwan.

From previous studies, sports represent the fastest-growing segment of the tourism industry (Davies and Williment 2008; Prayag et al. 2013). Successful international sporting events generate many positive outcomes and greatly enhance the amount and rate of change in host communities, including image enhancement, unity within the host community, and more opportunities to enjoy sporting matches and attract foreign travelers (Bramwell 1997; Kim and Petrick 2005; Kim and Chalip 2004). Specifically, the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup attract a global audience, shape world tourism patterns, and create lasting legacies for host cities/countries (Fourie and Santana-Gallego 2011).

The benefits of mega-events may be offset by detrimental sociocultural, economic, and ecological effects, which may result in opposition from local residents (Witt 1988). Travel motivation can be divided into push factors (attractions) and pull factors (the motives, needs and interests of travelers) (Kozak 2002; Uysal and Hagan 1993; Zhang and Lam 1999; Kim and Chalip 2004). Kim and Chalip (2004) found that push factors include fan motives (for example, aesthetics, vicarious achievements, eustress, interest in players and support for national teams) and travel motives (the desire to escape, learning about a host country, and socialization). Sirgy et al. (2011) showed that the model is based on the theoretical notion that travel influences life satisfaction through tourists' experiences of positive and negative affect associated with recent trips within various life domains (for example, social life, leisure life, family life, cultural life, health and safety, love life, work life, and financial life).

With regard to the perceived costs of mega-events, such events are likely to cause price inflation and increased local taxes to construct the facilities required to host these events, which place financial burdens on locals (Deccio and Baloglu 2002). Push and pull factors are thought to work together to determine travel intentions and destination choices (Kim and Chalip 2004).

Xiang et al. (2009) presented *empirical evidence indicating that satisfaction with travel and tourism services is the result of satisfaction during various stages of the tourism experience. The findings indicated that tourists' level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction during various stages of travel affect their overall satisfaction with travel and tourism services.* Neal and Gursoy (2008) accepted that *tourists' level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction during various stages of travel affect their overall satisfaction with travel and tourism services.* Sirgy et al. (2011) showed that the model is based on the theoretical notion that travel influences life satisfaction through tourists' experiences of positive and negative affect associated with a recent tourist trip within various life domains (for example, social life, leisure life, family life, cultural life, health and safety, love life, work life, and financial life). The data provided support for the overall model and helped identify specific sources of positive and negative effect that play a significant role in tourists' overall sense of well-being. Specific managerial recommendations were offered for tourist operators based on the study findings.

CONCLUSION

The present study provides an in-depth understanding of the repurchase decision-making intention of tourists attending the 2013 World Baseball Classic. The findings can assist 2013 World Baseball Classic practitioners to develop more practical marketing strategies. The relevant factors are affected by tourists' backgrounds, attractions, motivation, satisfaction and loyalty in their tourism participation and motives for travel for the 2013 WBC in Taiwan. The challenges for event marketing is to identify how to capitalize on motives and background to optimize event interest while minimizing the perception of constraints and then to convert event interest into travel and loyalty. Identifying the effective means of doing so will not only strengthen event marketing but also further our understanding of the 2013 WBC.

The 2013 WBC tourism authorities have a number of major tasks to consider in promoting the development of tourism. First, these marketing professionals should develop accurate, up-to-date market information on this tourism subsector and ensure that its distribution is targeted at the relevant travel trade and consumer markets. They must also ensure that quality tourism information is available in tourist guides at the local and regional levels. Second, these professionals should encourage complementary tourism offerings to enhance participation and improve product development among baseball, sports tourism and other cultural experiences at a provincial and/or inter-provincial level. Third, these professionals should seek to improve awareness of the tourism industry among 2013 WBC businesses and the relevance of tourism to their businesses.

REFERENCES

Ap J 1990. Resident's perceptions research on the social impacts of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 17(4): 610-616.

Ap J 1992. Resident's perceptions on tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 19(4): 665-690.

Barker M, Page SJ, Meyer D 2002. Evaluating the impact of the 2000 America's cup on Auckland, New Zealand. *Event Management*, 7: 79–92.

Bramwell B 1997.Strategic planning before and after a mega-event. *Tourism Management,*18: 167–176.

Crompton JL 2006. Economic impact studies: Instruments for political shenanigans? *Journal of Travel Research,* 45(1): 67-82.

Deccio C, Baloglu S 2002. Non-host community resident reactions to the 2002 Winter Olympics: The spill over impacts. *Journal of Travel Research,* 41(1): 46-56.

Davies J, Williment J 2008. Sport tourism grey sport tourists, all black and red experiences. *Journal of Sport and Tourism,* 13(3): 221-242.

Fourie J, Santana-Gallego M 2011. The impact of mega-sport events on tourist arrivals. *Tourism Management,* 32(6): 1364-1370.

Goeldner CR, Long PT 1987.The role and impact of mega-events and attractions on tourism development in North America. *Proceedings of the 37th Congress of AIEST*, 28:119-131.

Gursoy D, Jurowski C, Uysal M 2002. Residents attitudes: A structural modeling approach. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 29(1): 79-105.

Hall CM 1992. *Hallmark Tourist Events: Impact, Management, and Planning.* London: Belhaven Press.

Jeong G, Faulkner B 1996. Resident perceptions of mega-event impacts: The Taejon international exposition case. *Festival Management and Event Tourism,* 4(1): 3-11.

Kim HJ, Gursoy D Lee 2006. The impact of the 2002 World Cup on South Korea: comparisons of pre- and post-games. *Tourism Management,* 27(1): 86-96.

Kim NS, Chalip L 2004. Tourism management personal preferences as expressions of aesthetic sensitivity. *Journal of Personality*, 30: 496–512.

Kim NS, Chalip L 2004. Why travel to the FIFA World Cup? Effects of motives, background, interest, and constraints. *Tourism Management*, 25: 695-707.

Kim SS, Petrick JF 2005. Residents' perceptions on impacts of the FIFA 2002 World Cup: The case of Seoul as a host city. *Tourism Management*, 26: 25-38.

Leeds M, Mirikitani J, Tang D 2009. Rational exuberance: An event analysis of the 2008 Olympics announcement. *International Journal of Sport Finance,* 4(1): 5-15.

Lindberg K, Johnson RL 1997. Modeling resident attitudes toward tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(2): 402-424.

Liu JC, Var T 1986. *Residents Attitudes Toward Tourism Impacts in Hawaii. Annals of Tourism Research,* 13: 193-214.

Mihalik B J, Cummings P 1995. Host Perceptions of the 1996 Atlanta Olympics: Support, Attendance, Benefits and Liabilities. *Travel and Tourism Research Association 26th Annual Proceedings*, pp. 397-400.

Mihalik BJ, Simonette L 1998. Resident perceptions of the 1996 Summer Olympic Games. *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, 5(1): 9-19.

Neal JD Gursoy D 2008. A multifaceted analysis of tourism satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research,* 47(1): 53-62.

Prayag G, Hosany S, Nunkoo R, Alders T 2013. London residents' support for the 2012 Olympic Games: The mediating effect of overall attitude. *Tourism Management,* 36: 629-640.

Ritchie JR, Smith BH 1991. The impact of a mega-event on host region awareness: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Travel Research,* 30(1): 3–10.

Ritchie JRB, Aitken CE 1985. Olympus II: Evolving resident attitudes toward the 1988. Olympic Winter Games. *Journal of Travel Research*, 23(1): 28-33.

Roche M 1994. Mega-events and urban policy. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21: 1–19.

Sheard G, Veldtman, L 2003. *The Current and Future Potential Impact of Golf Tourism on the Economy of the Western Cape*. MBA Research Report. Graduate School of Business. University of Cape Town.

Sirgy MJ, Kruger PS, Lee DJ Yu 2011. How does a travel trip affect tourists' life satisfaction? *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(3): 261-275.

Solberg HA Press 2007. Major sport events and long-term tourism impacts. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21: 213-234.

Sportbusiness 2004. Sportbusiness.com: The Business of Sport Tourism (October). From </http://www.sportbusiness.com/reports/ 160251/the-business-of-sport-tourisms. 2004>

Tassiopoulos D, Haydam N 2007. Golf tourists in South Africa: A demand-side study of a niche market in sports tourism. *Tourism Management*, 29(5): 870-882.

Weed M 2008. *Sport and Tourism: A Reader.* London: Routledge.

Weed M 2009.Progress in sports tourism research? A meta-review and exploration of futures. *Tourism Management*, 30(5): 615-628.

Western C 2004. (Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning). Rapid Review of Golf Course and Polo Field Developments—*Draft Report,* Western Cape Province, South Africa. Western Cape1: Department of Environmental Affairs and Development.

Whitelegg D 2000. Going for gold: Atlanta's bid for fame. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 24: 801–817.

WTTC 2002. *South Africa: The Impact of Travel and Tourism on Jobs and the Economy*. UK: World Travel and Tourism Council.

Xiang Z, Gretzel U, Fesenaier DR 2009. Semantic representation of tourism on the Internet. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(4): 440-453.