Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management 49 (2021) 101–111

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jhtm

Impact of prior knowledge and psychological distance on tourist imagination of a promoted tourism event

Dung Le, Doctor [a,*], Noel Scott [b], Ying Wang [c]

[a] College of Business and Management, VinUniversity, Hanoi, Viet Nam
[b] Sustainability Research Centre, University of the Sunshine Coast, Queensland, Australia
[c] Department of Tourism, Hospitality and Event Management, Griffith University, Queensland, Australia

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Construal-level theory
Imagination imagery
Psychological distance
Emotion
Experiential marketing
Prior knowledge

ABSTRACT

Experiential marketing has emerged as an effective strategy to promote hedonic tourism and hospitality experiences through stimulating tourist imagination and positive emotions. This study aims to broaden the existing literature by exploring potential imagination facilitator and/or inhibitor in the context of a local tourism event, "The White Party" on the Gold Coast, with a sample of 655 participants. Structural equation model (SEM) using SmartPLS software and cluster analysis using SPSS were conducted to test research hypothesis and identify three audience groups (event dreamers, indecisive audience, and uninterested audience). Research outcomes demonstrate that video is more effective than poster in evoking tourist imagination and positive emotions, leading to stronger intentions to attend the promoted event. More importantly, prior knowledge is found as an imagination facilitator while psychological distance plays the role of an imagination inhibitor. This study provide valuable insights into how the effectiveness of experiential marketing varies depending on the audience characteristics. Therefore, event managers can optimize the effectiveness of experiential marketing by (1) targeting more receptive audience groups (i.e., event dreamers and indecisive audience); (2) adding more "psychologically close" details of the promoted event (e.g., similar age or cultural groups) and (3) enhancing message repetition.

1. Introduction

Special events have an important role in tourism destination development. A special event attracts visitors to destinations at specific times and fosters local economic development (Kim & Jun 2016; Lu, Zhu, & Wei, 2020; Thompson, 2020). Indeed, events can create substantial social impacts, including community, cultural and educational benefits (Jepson, Stadler, & Spencer, 2019; Kim, Park, & Kim, 2020). For example, cultural festivals enhance national emotions, covey local cultural identity and thus offer tourists authentic experiences (Wong, Ma, & Xiong, 2020; Zou, Meng, Bi, & Zhang, 2021). Hosting special events is a strategy to build destination branding (Ezeuduji, 2015; Van Niekerk, 2017), alter destination image (Deng & Li, 2014), contribute to the development of destination networks (Mackellar & Nisbet, 2017), improve destination competitiveness (Evans, 2012; Kruger & Heath, 2013) and reduce anti-tourism movements (Seraphin, Gowreesunkar, Zaman, & Bourliataux-Lajoinie, 2019). Also, event attributes and event quality lead to attendee satisfaction, form a positive attitude toward the host destination (Lee, Sung, Suh, & Zhao, 2017; Mainolfi & Marino, 2020) and thus increase their re-attendance intentions (i.e., loyalty) (Llopis-Amorós, Gil-Saura, Ruiz-Molina, & Fuentes-Blasco, 2019; Vesci & Botti, 2019).

As tourism events are bounded in time (i.e., limited duration) and space (i.e., a specific place), marketing is critical to ensure event brand equity (Llopis-Amorós et al., 2019), event profitability (Bojanic & Warnick, 2012), event longevity and event impacts (Masterman & Wood, 2006). Event marketing research to date has been developed mostly from the supply perspective with a heavy focus on selling space in venues and bidding capacities of cities/regions (Getz & Page, 2016). Less academic attention has been paid to the demand side or how to promote special events effectively. Only some studies investigate motivational factors of event participants (Kirkup & Sutherland, 2017; Lee & Hsu, 2013; Rittichainuwat & Mair, 2012) and use motives as segmentation criteria (Lyu & Han, 2017; Perić, Vitezić, & Badurina, 2019; Tkaczynski & Rundle-Thiele, 2011).

The limited volumed of event promotion research remains dominated by the traditional approach using rational arguments of event characteristics (e.g., venue, host destination, celebrities) (Frost & Laing,

* Corresponding author.
E-mail address: dung.ltp@vinuni.edu.vn (D. Le).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2021.09.001
Received 5 May 2021; Received in revised form 30 August 2021; Accepted 2 September 2021
Available online 12 September 2021
1447-6770/© 2021 The Authors.

2013; Getz, 2008; Kim & Jun 2016; Kim, Choe, & Petrick, 2018) or message framing (promotion focus versus prevention focus) (Zhang, Jeong, Olson, & Evans, 2020) to influence audience attitude and behavioral intentions. Even though the importance of imaginative and affective factors in influencing event attendee behavior has recently gained popularity (Boo & Busser, 2018; Ok, Park, Park, & Jeon, 2020), there is a noticeable lack of research in areas of experiential marketing as an alternative strategy for event promotion (Mair & Weber, 2019; Sel & Aktas, 2019).

Experiential marketing aims to pull on a tourist's heartstrings, stimulate their senses, generate imaginative prospection that elicits positive emotions of joy and happiness (Rather, 2020; Schmitt, 1999). Event marketers have just started using visual and sensory elements to evoke audience imagination and positive emotions related to future events (Sel & Aktas, 2019). Further exploration of experiential marketing for event promotion is necessary (Ok et al., 2020) because special events are experience production systems (Ferdinand & Williams, 2013). In fact, visitors seek experiential value and affective benefits (i.e., delight) when participating in tourism events (Hsu, Agyeiwaah, & Chen, 2021).

The effectiveness of these experiential marketing for event promotion may vary depending on receivers' characteristics such as prior knowledge about the promoted event (Le, Scott, & Lohmann, 2019), social-cultural backgrounds (Jung, Lee, Chung, & Dieck, 2018; Mikhailitchenko, Javalgi, Mikhailitchenko, & Laroche, 2009) or psychological distance (e.g., temporal or spatial distance) (Jeong, Crompton, & Hyun, 2020; Vilches-Montero & Spence, 2015). Further investigation of how these psychological factors influence audience perception of experiential marketing messages is needed to improve marketing effectiveness (Le et al., 2019; Ruzeviciute, Kamleitner, & Biswas, 2019) due to the temporal and spatial bounds of special events (Kim, Kim, Kim, & Magnini, 2016).

Against this background, the current research aims to explore how personal characteristics (prior knowledge and psychological distance) affect tourist perception of event promotion messages. First, this paper examines the effectiveness of experiential marketing designs (poster versus video) in eliciting audience imagination and positive emotions as a strategy to influence intentions to attend tourism events. Second, this study investigates how tourist imagination evoked by experiential marketing messages varies depending on receivers' characteristics (e.g., prior knowledge and psychological distance). Finally, cluster analysis is used to identify three audience groups based on personal characteristics and responses to experiential marketing messages.

The current research contributes to the existing literature on the application of experiential marketing for event promotion by raising the awareness of imagination facilitator (e.g., prior knowledge) and/or inhibitor (e.g., psychological distance). Video is a better tool to evoke tourist imagination, positive emotions, and intentions to attend the promoted event (compared to poster). However, the effectiveness of experiential marketing varies depending on the audience's prior knowledge of and psychological distance to the promoted event. Therefore, event manager could optimize the use of their limited marketing resources by targeting more receptive audience groups (i.e., event dreamers and indecisive audience). Indeed, designing experiential marketing messages that contain "psychologically close" details of the promoted event to the audience (e.g., similar social-cultural groups of event participants) would also improve audience's positive responses and behavioral intentions.

2. Literature review

2.1. Experiential marketing and tourist imagination

Experiential marketing aims to stimulate and generate thinking about affective (FEEL), sensory (SENSE), cognitive (THINK), behavior and lifestyles (ACT), or social-identity (RELATE) outcomes (Schmitt, 1999; Tasci & Milman, 2019; Tsaur, Chiu, & Wang, 2007). The experience concept has emerged as an influential school of thought in the tourism, hospitality, and service sectors, referring to subjective mental state (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). An experience is a subjective mental state. Experiential marketing uses various sensory stimuli to invoke imaginative thinking about future experiences (termed prospection) to encourage purchase (Rather, 2020; Scott, Laws, & Boksberger, 2009). Experiential marketing seeks to encourage prospection thinking about how tourism and hospitality offerings, including special events, can meet personal goals and provide enjoyment and fantasy (; Barnes, Mattsson, & Sørensen, 2016; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

The effectiveness of experiential marketing on tourist behavior is mediated by (mental) imagery processing (Le et al., 2019). Mental imagery is defined as "a process (not a structure) by which sensory information is represented in working memory" (MacInnis & Price, 1987, p. 473). In contrast with discursive/verbal processing devoted to textual or factual information (i.e., words or numbers); imagery processing is dedicated to non-verbal or sensory information (i.e., visual, haptic, olfactory, auditory cues) (Bogicevic, Seo, Kandampully, Liu, & Rudd, 2019; Ha, Huang, & Park, 2019). Hence, imagery is a mentally distinct way of representing information, which is "very like picturing and very unlike describing" (Fodor, 1981, p. 76). Mental imagery is superior to verbal processing in the digital age because we receive large volumes of visual and multisensory information in marketing communications (Petit, Velasco, & Spence, 2019; Thompson & Hamilton, 2006).

(Mental) Imagery processing is operationalized and measured by two dimensions (imagery quality and imagery elaboration) (Ha et al., 2019; Walters, Sparks, & Herington, 2012). Imagery quality refers to the vividness or clarity of mental images formed in the audience's mind (Walters, Sparks, & Herington, 2007). Indeed, imagery elaboration reflects the extent to which sensory information is processed in working memory and integrated with prior knowledge structure) (MacInnis & Price, 1987). Low-elaboration imagery processing leads to the construction of simple mental images of an event in a tourist's mind and perhaps some feelings used as inputs for decision-making (Pham, 1998). Through high-elaboration imagery processing, tourists can form imagination and fantasy of future event experiences (Laing & Crouch, 2009; Philips, 2017), experience feelings of being transported to the imagined event (Choi, Ok, & Choi, 2016; Tussyadiah, Wang, Jung, & Tom Dieck, 2018) and immerse themselves in flow experiences (Jeon, Ok, & Choi, 2017).

Experiential marketing messages such as pictures or videos are effective in influencing the audience's behavioral intentions by stimulating high-elaboration and vivid mental imagery such as imagination and fantasy (Cowan & Ketron, 2019; Philips, 2017). Research shows that the simple act of thinking positively about an action can increase one's intention to engage in that action (James, 1890). Hence, forming vivid, positively biased, idealized (fantasized) imagination imagery about future event experiences inspire attendance behavior (Bogicevic et al., 2019; Wong, Lee, & Lee, 2016). Moreover, imagining such hedonic/entertainment event experiences in a vivid manner elicit positive emotions of joy and happiness, which are also important influencing factors of consumer behavior (Kim, Kim, & Bolls, 2014; Lee, Bruwer, & Song, 2017; Walters et al., 2012; Yin, Poon, & Su, 2017). Therefore, the following hypotheses are established:

H1. Audience imagination imagery about future event experiences increases positive emotions

H2. Audience imagination imagery about future event experiences increases behavioral intentions.

H3. Positive emotions related to future event experiences increase behavioral intentions.

2.2. Designing imagination-inducing messages

In particular, sensory elements are core elements of experiential marketing to induce high-elaboration and vivid mental imagery such as imagination and fantasy (Lee, Gretzel, & Law, 2010; Walters et al., 2012). Many sensory-enabling technologies such as augmented reality and virtual reality are available (Kang, 2020; Kim, So, Mihalik, & Lopes, 2021). Still, these technologies are often too expensive for managers of local events who work with limited budgets. Instead, posters and videos are the two dominant marketing tools used by event managers on social media platforms to reach a mass audience (Munar & Jacobsen, 2014). In designing posters, marketers typically use visual images and congruent textual sensory cues (i.e., haptic, auditory, etc.) to show future event experiences and facilitate tourist imagination imagery (Ghosh & Sarkar, 2016; Krishna, Cian, & Sokolova, 2016; Lv, Li, & Xia, 2020). User-generated photos can also generate similar effects(An, Ma, Du, Xiang, & Fan, 2020).

Videos are also effective tools in generating imagery processing and positive emotions (Tussyadiah & Fesenmaier, 2009; Yim, Baek, & Sauer, 2018). Videos are better than audio-only advertisements in inducing imagination imagery (Kim et al., 2014; Kim & Youn, 2016). However, no previous empirical study has compared posters designed with static visual images and some textual information versus videos containing dynamic images for experiential marketing purpose. It is unclear which tool should be the focus of an event marketing campaign. Given that videos can provide more dynamic and multisensory details of future event experiences in a logical and (potentially) storytelling way, the following hypothesis is established:

H4. A video is more effective than a poster in stimulating the audience's imagination imagery of future event experiences

2.3. Prior knowledge and imagination imagery

As a high-elaboration form of mental imagery, imagination imagery involves a mixture of perceived marketing stimuli (e.g., poster, video) with relevant prior knowledge stored in their long-term memory (MacInnis & Price, 1987). For example, when the audience watches travel advertisements, they retrieve their travel memories and rely on their previous experiences to create their imagination about future travel experiences (Tussyadiah & Fesenmaier, 2009). Therefore, tourist imagination may be a function of the individual's familiarity and prior knowledge with the message content (Bone & Ellen, 1992; Le et al., 2019). This proposition is supported by neuroscience evidence that more robust activation of visual sensory brain areas in imagining familiar objects/events (Lacey, Flueckiger, Stilla, Lava, & Sathian, 2010). Empirical research in marketing also demonstrates that familiarity with promotion content (e.g., brand familiarity) can activate the retrieval of relevant information and knowledge in the production of consumer imagination of product/service consumption experiences (Mikhailitchenko et al., 2009; Yu, Cho, & Johnson, 2017). All things considered; the following hypothesis is established:

H5. Tourist's prior knowledge related to the promoted event increases the audience's imagination imagery.

2.4. Psychological distance and imagination imagery

A considerable volume of research has studied the influences of psychological distance on the audience's behavior using the Construal-level theory (Jeong et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2016; Sinha & Lu, 2019; Tseng & Hsieh, 2019). According to this theory, people mentally construct an event in their mind at multiple levels of abstractness (i.e., construal level) depending on the psychological distance between their point-of-reference (here and now) and this imagined event (Liberman, Trope, & Wakslak, 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2010).

There are four dimensions of psychological distance: time (short-term vs. long-term horizon), space (nearby vs. far away), social-cultural distance (ingroup vs. outgroup referent), and hypotheticality (probable vs. unlikely). Temporal distance reflects the gap between the time that a mental event is supposed to happen from one's point-of-reference (i.e., now). Spatial distance represents the distance between the place where an event is supposed to happen from one's point-of-reference (i.e., here). Social-cultural distance raises the question of whether an individual belongs to an event participant group (ingroup) or feel excluded from the group (outgroup) based on their social-cultural characteristics (e.g., age, cultural backgrounds, lifestyles). The less similar the typical event participants are to themselves, the more socially distant they typically seem. Hypothetical distance is related to one's perceived probability of an event to happen. An improbable event seems more distant than a probable event, and the lower the probability of the event, the greater its psychological distance (Trope, Liberman, & Wakslak, 2007).

Construal levels of future events (high versus low) might be related to the superiority of mental information processing (verbal versus imagery). Tourists are more engaged in imagination imagery to process proximal low-construal's events with concrete, sensory and perceptual details. In contrast, verbal/analytical processing may be superior when consumers consider distal high-construal events with abstract analysis (Rim et al., 2014; Wyer Jr, Hung, & Jiang, 2008). Some experimental studies suggest that people perceive pictures representing proximal events in a shorter time than pictures showing distal events. In contrast, participants process words representing distal events better than words describing proximal events (Amit, Algom, & Trope, 2009; Elder, Schlosser, Poor, & Xu, 2017; Yan, Sengupta, & Hong, 2016). Therefore, it can be hypothesized that the psychological distance of future events facilitates verbal processing and inhibits tourist imagination imagery.

H6. Psychological distance negatively influences tourist imagination imagery of future event experiences.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research context

The proposed hypotheses were tested in the context of a local tourism event, the White Party Gold Coast (http://whitepartynye.com.au), an annual two-day event organized on an island near Gold Coast City, Australia. This annual event attracts several thousand young people to celebrate New Year's Eve (based on event records provided by the event organizer). The tickets include cruise transfers, a boat party, a beach party, musical performances, and fireworks. This real tourism event enables measuring the audience's psychological distance in a real-life setting without using hypothetical scenarios. Due to the limited time scheme of the study, the temporal distance was excluded. The hypothetical distance (i.e., probability) was not studied because this event is indeed organized as planned (100% probability).

3.2. Survey design and measurement

The survey design followed previous guidance in the literature (Dolnicar, 2013). COARSE method (Construct definition, Object presentation, Attribute classification, Rater-entity identification, Scale selection and Enumeration/scoring) was applied to ensure measurement validity (Rossiter, 2011). Based on the discussion among the research team of three experts, psychological distance and participants' prior knowledge were concrete attribute constructs and thus measured by single items. Prior knowledge related to the promoted event was measured by one question (i.e., How much do you know about the White Party Gold Coast? Not at all/Know something about it). Spatial distance (nearby vs. far away) was measured by the participant's current residence place (i.e., Are you currently living on the Gold Coast? Yes/No). The event promotion messages (poster and video) showcased young people between 18 and 25 who attended previous events. Hence, the

respondent age was used as an indicator of social distance (ingroup vs. outgroup reference): the higher the respondent age was, the more socially distant they were from the event participant group. It is worth noting that no participant under 18 years old can attend this event because it involves alcohol consumption. Participants' nationality was used as an indicator for cultural distance: people from Australia were included in the close cultural distance, and people of other nationalities were classified in another group of far cultural distance.

Complex-attribute constructs (i.e., imagination imagery, positive emotions, and behavioral intentions) were measured by multiple items. Imagination imagery was measured by a two-dimension scale (imagery quality, imagery elaboration) adapted from Ha et al. (2019). Positive emotions were measured by three items adapted from the consumption emotion set (Richins, 1997). The measurement scale for behavioral intentions was developed using four items adapted from Walters et al. (2012) and one item indicating the respondent's intentions to attend the event. All questions were asked using a seven-point Likert-type scale.

After agreeing to participate in the survey, respondents were asked to complete three main sections of the questionnaire. In the first section, they answered questions related to prior knowledge and psychological distance of the promoted event (i.e., spatial distance, social distance, and cultural distance). Next, they were randomly distributed among two conditions: half of the sample was exposed to the event poster (n = 331), the other half was exposed to the event video (n = 324). The use of these promotional contents for research purpose was approved by the event organizer. In the last section, the respondent answered questions related to their imagination imagery, positive emotions, and behavioral intentions.

3.3. Data collection and data analysis

The questionnaire was made available online on the Qualtrics website. In total, 668 completed questionnaires were recorded. In the data cleaning process, 35 questionnaires were deleted because of incomplete or "straight-lining" responses (i.e., the variance for all items was equal to zero) (Moyle et al., 2017). A final sample of 655 questionnaires was used for data analysis. The profile of the respondents is given in Table 1.

Normality tests showed that all items were normally distributed ($Z_{skewness} < 3$ and $Z_{kutosis} < 3$) (Yap & Sim, 2011). Partial least squares (PLS) regression was used to verify the proposed hypotheses in a structural equation model (SEM) using SmartPLS software version 3.3.2. Cluster analysis was conducted using SPSS to identify the main tourist segments in the audience of event promotion messages.

Table 1
Profile of survey participants.

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Age (Social distance)		
Under 25 years old	229	35.0
From 25 to 35 years old	286	43.7
From 36 to 45 years old	92	14.0
Over 45 years old	48	7.3
Gender		
Male	213	32.5
Female	440	67.2
Other	2	0.3
Nationality (Cultural distance)		
Australians	280	42.8
Others	375	57.2
Place of residence (Spatial distance)		
Gold Coast	229	35
Outside Gold Coast	426	65
Prior knowledge about the promoted event		
Know nothing	387	59.1
Know something about the event	268	40.9
Total	**655**	**100%**

4. Results

4.1. Hypotheses testing

The convergent validity of all complex constructs was verified using significant outer loadings, *t* value, Cronbach alpha, maxR(H), average variance extracted (AVE) scores and composite R (Table 2). The evaluation of the individual reliability of each indicator was based on factor loadings above 0.70 and a bootstrapping significance test estimated from 5000 subsamples (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016). The discriminant validity was tested by comparing intercorrelations of factors with the square root of the average variance for each factor (Table 3). No convergent and discriminant validity issues were detected because the estimate for AVE for each factor was above 0.5, and the square root of AVE exceeded any of the intercorrelations of the factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Huang, Gursoy, & Xu, 2014).

The results of testing the structural model were introduced in Fig. 1. The predicting power of the model was evaluated based on the coefficient of determination (R) and effect size (f). Tourist imagination imagery and positive emotions explained 58.9% of the variance of the endogenous construct (i.e., behavioral intentions) ($R = 0.589$). Tourist imagination imagery also substantially impacted positive emotions ($\beta = 0.553$) and explained 30.6% of the variance of the measured construct ($R = 0.306$). The indirect impact of tourist imagination imagery on behavioral intentions through positive emotions was significant (β' =

Table 2
Convergent validity of measurement constructs.

Factor	Outer loadings	*t* value	α	AVE	CR
Imagery quality - When viewing the poster/video, the images come to my mind are …			0.940	0.848	0.957
Vague-Vivid	0.923	96.150			
Weak-Intense	0.934	119.577			
Unclear-Clear	0.920	92.435			
Dull-Sharp	0.906	81.046			
Imagery Elaboration			0.936	0.721	0.948
The poster/video makes me feel as though I'm actually participating in the party.	0.826	48.823			
It is easy for me to imagine myself at the party.	0.854	64.585			
I can form a series of events in my mind in which I'm a part of.	0.845	60.046			
I can easily construct a story about myself participating in the party based on the poster/video.	0.842	53.691			
I find myself daydreaming about the party.	0.844	72.44			
I can actually see myself at the party.	0.881	88.199			
The poster makes me fantasize about having the opportunity to attend the party.	0.852	61.273			
Positive emotions			0.947	0.904	0.66
Happy	0.957	182.171			
Joyful	0.956	151.210			
Pleased	0.940	136.741			
Behavioral intentions			0.946	0.822	0.958
I am curious about this party.	0.897	88.795			
I want more information about the party.	0.930	120/400			
I want to learn more about the party.	0.892	86/439			
I am intrigued by the party.	0.904	93.928			
I am willing to attend the party.	0.910	103.282			

Table 3
Discriminant validity: Fornell and Lacker criterion.

	Behavioral intentions	Imagery elaboration	Imagery quality	Positive emotions
Behavioral intentions	0.907			
Imagery elaboration	0.746	0.849		
Imagery quality	0.398	0.517	0.921	
Positive emotions	0.637	0.567	0.339	0.951

0.195, $p < 0.01$), supporting the partial mediating role of positive emotions (hypothesis 2).

Model robustness checks in the PLS-SEM model were conducted to verify the potential issues of collinearity, non-linear effects, endogeneity and unobserved heterogeneity (Sarstedt et al., 2020; Svensson et al., 2018). First, all (factor-level) VIFs resulting from a full collinearity test (see Appendix 1) are equal to or lower than 3.3, the model in this study can be considered free of common method bias (Kock, 2015). Second, insignificant results of all quadratic effects (see Appendix 2), it can be concluded that the relationships between imagery, joy and behavioral intentions are linear (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt, & Ringle, 2019). Third, the use of experimental conditions (video versus poster) would possibly eliminate the danger of endogeneity in the model and (Marder, Archer-Brown, Colliander, & Lambert, 2019). Also, previous studies did not raise any endogeneity issue between imagination, emotions and behavioral intentions (Loureiro, Roschk, Ali, & Friedmann, 2021; Walters et al., 2012). Finally, following Sarstedt et al. (2020)'s systematic procedure for identifying and treating unobserved heterogeneity in PLS path models, the FIMIX-PLS procedure on the data was run using the same settings as in the initial analysis, showing that unobserved heterogeneity does not significantly affect the data (see Appendix 3).

The proposed hypotheses were evaluated based on an examination of path coefficients (β) (see Table 4). Tourist imagination imagery had both significant impacts on positive emotions and behavioral intentions, supporting hypotheses 1 & 2. In turn, positive emotions also have positive effects on behavioral intentions, supporting hypothesis 3. The event promotional video was more effective than the poster in stimulating tourist imagination imagery ($\beta = 0.129$, $p < 0.01$), supporting hypothesis 4. Prior knowledge was found to increase tourist imagination imagery of future event experiences ($\beta = 0.093$, $p < 0.05$), supporting hypothesis 5. Psychological distance (spatial and socio-cultural distances) had negative influences on tourist imagination, supporting hypothesis 6.

Following hypothesis testing, cluster analysis was conducted to classify receivers of the event promotion messages into more or less receptive audience groups. In the initial step of a hierarchical cluster analysis, the agglomeration coefficient and dendrogram indicated a three-cluster solution and no significant outliers. As shown in Table 5, the K-means technique based on two imagination imagery dimensions (imagery quality and imagery elaboration) resulted in three final groups/clusters, labelled as (1) event dreamers (n = 289, 44.12%), (2) indecisive viewers (n = 231, 25.26%) and (3) uninterested viewers (n = 135, 20.61%).

The ANNOVA and chi-square tests indicated that three clusters significant differ in levels of imagination imagery, positive emotions, behavioral intentions, and psychological distance. Even though prior knowledge significantly influenced tourist imagination imagery (see Table 4), prior knowledge was not significantly different between the

Table 4
Results of hypotheses testing.

	Coefficient	*t*-value	*p*-value	Hypothesis tested
Imagination imagery - > Positive emotions	0.513	14.987	0.000	H1 supported
Imagination imagery - > Behavioral intentions	0.553	18.484	0.000	H2 supported
Positive emotions - > Behavioral intentions	0.352	10.136	0.000	H3 supported
Message format - > Imagination imagery	0.129	3.457	0.001	H4 supported
Prior knowledge - > Imagination imagery	0.093	2.387	0.017	H5 supported
Spatial distance - > Imagination imagery	−0.093	2.424	0.015	H6 supported
Social distance - > Imagination imagery	−0.136	3.501	0.000	
Cultural distance - > Imagination imagery	−0.134	3.363	0.001	

Tourist segmentation using cluster analysis.

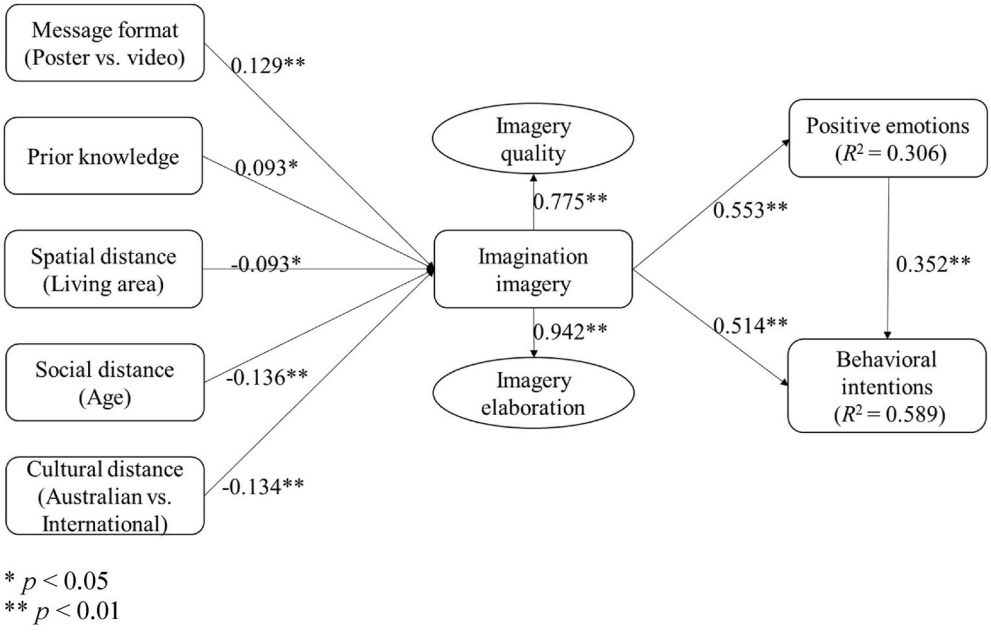

Fig. 1. Results of testing the structural model using SmartPLS. *$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$.

Table 5
Cluster analysis of event promotion audience.

Variables	Cluster 1 Event dreamers n = 289 (44.12%)	Cluster 2 Indecisive audience n = 231 (35.26%)	Cluster 3 Uninterested audience n = 135 (20.61%)	X^2/F statistics
Imagery quality	5.36	4.47	2.37	$F = 444.203$ $df = 2$ $p = 0.000$[b]
Imagery elaboration	5.36	3.34	2.54	$F = 588.876$ $df = 2$ $p = 0.000$
Positive emotions	5.65	4.30	3.93	$F = 93.820$ $df = 2$ $p = 0.000$[b]
Behavioral intentions	5.34	3.61	3.09	$F = 172.644$ $df = 2$ $p = 0.000$[b]
Prior knowledge				$X^2 = 4.498$
Know nothing	158	146	84	$df = 2$
Know something	131	85	51	$p = 0.105$
Spatial distance				$X^2 = 7.881$
Gold Coast residents	113	82	34	$df = 2$
Not GC residents	176	149	101	$p = 0.019$[a]
Social distance (age)				
Under 25 years old	113	76	40	
From 25 to 35 years old	131	91	64	$X^2 = 15.231$
From 36 to 45 years old	33	41	18	$df = 6$
Over 45 years old	12	23	13	$p = 0.019$[a]
Cultural distance (nationality)				$X^2 = 6.763$
Australians	182	128	68	$df = 2$
Not Australians	107	103	67	$p = 0.034$[a]

[a] $p < 0.05$.
[b] $p < 0.01$.

three clusters.

Compared to the two other clusters, "event dreamers" had higher levels of imagination imagery, positive emotions, intentions to attend the event (between 5.34 and 5.65 on a 7-point Likert scale) and significantly lower psychological distance (spatial and socio-cultural distances). The indecisive audience scored between 3.61 and 4.47 on a 7-point Likert scale, expressing moderate levels of imagination imagery, positive emotions, and intentions to attend after viewing the event poster/video. Finally, the uninterested audience rated the lowest levels of imagination, positive emotions, and behavioral intentions (between 2.37 and 3.93 on a 7-point Liker scale).

5. Discussion

This study expands the existing literature by providing further insights into tourist imagination facilitator/inhibitor when perceiving experiential marketing messages. Grounded on information processing theory (MacInnis & Price, 1987; Paivio, 2013) and construal-level theory (Liberman et al., 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2010), this study demonstrates that prior knowledge facilitates tourist imagination imagery of future event experiences while psychological distance inhibits imagination imagery. Therefore, tourists who have certain prior knowledge about and psychologically close distance to the promoted event (i.e., special, social-cultural groups) would be the most receptive audience of event promotion messages (i.e., event dreamers). Indeed, videos containing dynamic visual images are more effective for event promotion purpose than static visual images in the event poster, despite the audience's prior knowledge and psychological distance. Marketing implications are suggested based on research outcomes.

5.1. Theoretical contributions

This study broadens the current academic discussion on the application of experiential marketing for event promotion, which remains largely underexplored in the existing literature (Sel & Aktas, 2019). Most previous studies focused on designing posters/brochure/page with static visual images and textual information to stimulate the audience's imagination imagery and positive emotions (Chang, 2012; Yim & Yoo, 2020). Additional olfactory or haptic information in visual posters (Lv et al., 2020; Silva, Rocha, De Cicco, Galhanone, & Mattos, 2021) and/or storytelling techniques can also improve experiential marketing effectiveness (van Laer, Feiereisen, & Visconti, 2019). A limited number of studies justified the usefulness of videos in generating consumer imagination imagery (Chen, 2015; Yim et al., 2018), particularly in comparison with audio advertisements (Kim et al., 2014; Kim & Youn, 2016). This study provides further insights that promotional videos containing dynamic visual images generate more imagination, positive emotions and better persuasive outcomes than using posters with static images. It supports the view that incorporating more visual-audio elements in videos will lead to better experiential marketing outcomes (Simmonds, Bogomolova, Kennedy, Nenycz-Thiel, & Bellman, 2020).

It is also found that prior knowledge enhances, while psychological distance inhibits tourist imagination of future events. Hence, this study provides potential explanations why using familiar elements in marketing messages can increase tourist imagination imagery and consequently behavioral intentions as found in previous studies (Mikhailitchenko et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2017). Yet, the three audience clusters (event dreamers, indecisive audience, and uninterested audience) were not significantly different in prior knowledge about the promoted event (see Table 5). The use of the audience's prior knowledge as an event segmentation criterion needs to be applied with caution.

Meanwhile, psychological distance (including spatial and socio-cultural distances) inhibits the audience's imagination imagery and reduces the effectiveness of experiential marketing messages. In accordance with previous research, this study points out the difficulties of the audience to imagine a psychologically distal event with concrete sensory and perceptual details using (mental) imagery processing (Rim et al., 2014; Wyer Jr et al., 2008). Hence, when the psychological distance from tourist point-of-reference to the promoted event increase, tourists are less receptive to experiential marketing messages (see Table 5). Outcomes of other studies investigating spatial distance (Kim et al., 2016); socio-cultural distance (ingroup versus outgroup) (Line, Hanks,

& Zhang, 2016; So, Xie, & Wu, 2019; Stamolampros & Korfiatis, 2018) also support our research findings, demonstrating that consumers prefer verbal (versus visual) messages when the psychological distance of promoted experiences become distal (versus proximal).

5.2. Marketing implications

Research outcomes suggest some marketing tactics for event managers to optimize their promotion of local tourism events. First, videos should be used as an economic and more effective experiential marketing tool (compared to posters) to trigger tourist imagination and positive emotions related to the promoted event, in particular, in digital channels such as social media regardless the target audience. Second, marketing repetition may lead to better persuasive outcomes by improving the audience's prior knowledge about the promoted event (Martí-Parreño, Bermejo-Berros, & Aldá). The use of some key iconic images and/or symbols would increase tourist familiarity with the promoted event and facilitate their positive imagination, leading to intentions to attend (Kim, Kim, & Petrick, 2017; Zhang, Gursoy, & Xu, 2017).

Finally, event managers can optimize marketing efforts by design more "psychologically close" details in marketing messages to promote local tourism events more effectively. Hence, it becomes necessary to design different marketing messages when targeting different audience groups who have different levels of psychological distance to the promoted event such as long-haul spatial distance (versus short-haul market) (Dolnicar & Grün, 2016); distal (versus proximal versus) cultural distance (Funk & Bruun, 2007; Kastanakis & Voyer, 2014); different age groups (Brida, Disegna, & Osti, 2013; Llopis-Amorós et al., 2019), and gender groups (female versus males) (Joe, Choi, & Busser, 2021). For example, promoting and providing transportation and connection services in an inclusive festival package tour can reduce the audience perception of spatial distance and attract more tourists to local festival events (Lin & Chang, 2020). Using images of female customers could increase hotel booking intentions among female audience by enhancing perceived similarity between them (i.e., psychologically close social-cultural distance) (Joe et al., 2021).

6. Conclusion & future research direction

Grounded on information processing theory (MacInnis & Price, 1987; Paivio, 2013) and construal-level theory (Liberman et al., 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2010), this study provides further insights into tourist perception of experiential marketing messages and suggest practical ways to optimize event promotion budget. This study is subject to some limitations that should be addressed in future research. First, only spatial, and socio-cultural distances were examined here; other dimensions of psychological distance such as temporal and/or hypothetical distances should be tested. For example, the Covid-19 pandemic has made travel and mass events temporarily challenging and possibly widen tourist psychologically temporal and hypothetical distances to a future event (e.g., international conference, multinational sport competition). Future research might investigate the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on the audience' psychological distance to future events, and the effects of psychological distance on tourist perception of experiential marketing messages. Second, this study examines the presence or absence of prior knowledge related to the promoted event (know nothing versus know something) as an imagination barrier. It is possible that the valence tourists' prior knowledge about the promoted event/brand/destination (negative versus positive) causes more perception bias when tourists receive relevant marketing messages (Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007). Addressing this research question can advance the field. Third, tourist segmentation in this study was conducted based on cluster analysis. Other segmentation methods and techniques might be applied in future studies for better market segmentation and targeted marketing outcomes (Ernst & Dolnicar, 2018). Finally, advanced technologies such as virtual reality or augmented reality can reduce audience perception of psychological distance (i.e., hypothetical distance) (Kang, 2020), and thus enhance emotional responses and presence (Yung, Khoo-Lattimore, & Potter, 2021). Further investigation of virtual reality in influencing the audience perception of event marketing messages is beneficial (Lee, Lee, & Jeong, 2021).

APPENDIX 1. Collinearity test

The occurrence of a VIF greater than 3.3 is proposed as an indication of pathological collinearity and also as an indication that a model may be contaminated by common method bias (Kock, 2015). Given that all (factor-level) VIFs resulting from a full collinearity test (see Table 6) are equal to or lower than 3.3, the model in this study can be considered free of common method bias.

Table 6
Collinearity test based on VIF scores

	Behavioural intentions	Cultural distance	Imagery elaboration	Imagery quality	Joy	Message design	Prior knowledge	Social distance	Spatial distance
Behavioural intentions									
Cultural distance	1.093								
Imagery elaboration	2.053								
Imagery quality	1.481								
Joy	1.606								
Message design	1.056								
Prior knowledge	1.043								
Social distance	1.098								
Spatial distance	1.048								

APPENDIX 2. Testing non-linear effects

In order to test non-linear effects, quadratic effects were used. A significant test statistic in any of the partial regressions indicates a potential nonlinear effect. If the path is non-significant, it means that there is linearity in the relation (Hair et al., 2019). Based on the on the insignificant results of all quadratic effects in Table 7, it can be concluded that the relationships between imagery, joy and behavioral intentions are linear.

Table 7
Non-linear effects testing based on quadratic effects

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P-Values
Cultural distance - > imagery	−0.136	−0.135	0.039	3.48	0.001
Imagery - > behavioural intentions	0.521	0.521	0.035	15.024	0
Imagery - > imagery elaboration	0.942	0.942	0.003	282.296	0
Imagery - > imagery quality	0.775	0.774	0.023	33.677	0
Imagery - > joy	0.553	0.552	0.029	19.132	0
Joy - > behavioural intentions	0.304	0.304	0.039	7.857	0
Message design - > imagery	0.129	0.13	0.038	3.402	0.001
Prior knowledge - > imagery	0.091	0.092	0.038	2.388	0.017
Quadratic effect 1 (imagery) - > Behavioural intentions	**0.003**	**0.002**	**0.022**	**0.122**	**0.903**
Quadratic effect 2 (joy) - > Behavioural intentions	**−0.005**	**−0.005**	**0.022**	**0.924**	**0.103**
Quadratic effect 3 (imagery) - > Joy	**−0.003**	**−0.003**	**0.027**	**0.127**	**0.899**
Social distance - > imagery	−0.134	−0.134	0.038	3.474	0.001
Spatial distance - > imagery	−0.095	−0.095	0.038	2.467	0.015

APPENDIX 3. Testing unobserved heterogeneity

Following Sarstedt et al. (2020)'s systematic procedure for identifying and treating unobserved heterogeneity in PLS path models, the FIMIX-PLS procedure on the data was run using the same settings as in the initial analysis. The maximum 5 segments were decided based on the minimum sample size required to test the proposed model (n = 130) using the rule of thumb (Kock & Hadaya, 2018). Tables 8 and 9 report outcomes of FIMIX-PLS for five options of segmentation (from 1 to 5 segments). AIC3 and CAIC show inconsistent picture of the appropriate number of segments: AIC3 indicates a five-segment solution, whereas CAIC points to a one-segment solution. Based on AIC4 and BIC, which jointly and unambiguously point to the one-segment solution, it can be concluded that unobserved heterogeneity does not significantly affect the data.

Table 8
Fit indices for the one-to five-segment solutions

	1 segment	2 segments	3 segments	4 segments	5 segments
AIC (Akaike's Information Criterion)	5419.39	5372.732	5373.749	5363.751	5232.049
AIC3 (Modified AIC with Factor 3)	5464.39	5393.732	5370.749	5326.751	5311.049
AIC4 (Modified AIC with Factor 4)	5419.39	5434.732	5457.749	5469.751	5470.049
BIC (Bayesian Information Criteria)	5486.659	5511.756	5534.527	5546.283	5596.335
CAIC (Consistent AIC)	5401.659	5542.756	5551.527	5569.283	5665.335
HQ (Hannan Quinn Criterion)	5445.473	5426.637	5415.476	5403.3	5369.419
MDL5 (Minimum Description Length with Factor 5)	5815.737	5875.851	6103.638	6380.411	6635.479
LnL (LogLikelihood)	−3194.695	−2905.366	−2789.875	−2668.875	−2537.024
EN (Entropy Statistic (Normed))	**na**	**0.672**	**0.691**	**0.719**	**0.759**
NFI (Non-Fuzzy Index)	na	0.723	0.712	0.715	0.735
NEC (Normalized Entropy Criterion)	na	214.801	202.455	184.357	158.087

Table 9
Relative segment sizes (N = 655)

%	1 segment	2 segments	3 segments	4 segments	5 segments
1	1	0.536	0.436	0.392	0.223
2		0.464	0.36	0.221	0.212
3			0.204	0.209	0.21
4				0.177	0.192
5					0.164

References

Amit, E., Algom, D., & Trope, Y. (2009). Distance-dependent processing of pictures and words. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 138*(3), 400–415.

An, Q., Ma, Y., Du, Q., Xiang, Z., & Fan, W. (2020). Role of user-generated photos in online hotel reviews: An analytical approach. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 45*, 633–640. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.11.002.

Barnes, S., Mattsson, J., & Sørensen, F. (2016). Remembered experiences and revisit intentions: A longitudinal study of safari park visitors. *Tourism Management, 57*, 286–294.

Bogicevic, V., Seo, S., Kandampully, J., Liu, S. Q., & Rudd, N. A. (2019). Virtual reality presence as a preamble of tourism experience: The role of mental imagery. *Tourism Management, 74*, 55–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.02.009.

Bojanic, D., & Warnick, R. (2012). The role of purchase decision involvement in a special event. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(3), 357–366. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287511418364.

Bone, P., & Ellen, P. (1992). The generation and consequences of communication-evoked imagery. *Journal of Consumer Research, 19*(1), 93–104.

Boo, S., & Busser, J. A. (2018). Tourists' hotel event experience and satisfaction: An integrative approach. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 35*(7), 895–908. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2018.1445066.

Brida, J. G., Disegna, M., & Osti, L. (2013). The effect of authenticity on visitors' expenditure at cultural events. *Current Issues in Tourism, 16*(3), 266–285. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2012.674105.

Chang, C. (2012). The role of ad-evoked consumption visions in predicting brand attitudes: A relevancy principle model. *Psychology and Marketing, 29*(12), 956–967.

Chen, T. (2015). The persuasive effectiveness of mini-films: Narrative transportation and fantasy proneness. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 14*(1), 21–27.

Choi, J., Ok, C., & Choi, S. (2016). Outcomes of destination marketing organization website navigation: The role of telepresence. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 33*(1), 46–62. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2015.1024913.

Cowan, K., & Ketron, S. (2019). A dual model of product involvement for effective virtual reality: The roles of imagination, co-creation, telepresence, and interactivity. *Journal of Business Research, 100*, 483–492.
Deng, Q., & Li, M. (2014). A model of event–destination image transfer. *Journal of Travel Research, 53*(1), 69–82.
Dolnicar, S. (2013). Asking good survey questions. *Journal of Travel Research, 52*(5), 551–574. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513479842.
Dolnicar, S., & Grün, B. (2016). In a galaxy far, far away . . . Market yourself differently. *Journal of Travel Research, 56*(5), 593–598. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287516633529.
Elder, R., Schlosser, A., Poor, M., & Xu, L. (2017). So close I can almost sense it: The interplay between sensory imagery and psychological distance. *Journal of Consumer Research, 44*(4), 877–894.
Ernst, D., & Dolnicar, S. (2018). How to avoid random market segmentation solutions. *Journal of Travel Research, 57*(1), 69–82.
Evans, G. (2012). Hold back the night: Nuit Blanche and all-night events in capital cities. *Current Issues in Tourism, 15*(1–2), 35–49. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2011.634893.
Ezeuduji, I. O. (2015). Strategic event-based rural tourism development for sub-Saharan Africa. *Current Issues in Tourism, 18*(3), 212–228. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.787049.
Ferdinand, N., & Williams, N. L. (2013). International festivals as experience production systems. *Tourism Management, 34*, 202–210.
Fodor, J. (1981). Imagistic representation. In N. Block (Ed.), *Imagery* (pp. 63–86). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*, 39–50.
Frost, W., & Laing, J. (2013). Communicating persuasive messages through slow food festivals. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 19*(1), 67–74.
Funk, D. C., & Bruun, T. J. (2007). The role of socio-psychological and culture-education motives in marketing international sport tourism: A cross-cultural perspective. *Tourism Management, 28*(3), 806–819. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2006.05.011.
Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management, 29*(3), 403–428.
Getz, D., & Page, S. J. (2016). Progress and prospects for event tourism research. *Tourism Management, 52*, 593–631. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.03.007.
Ghosh, T., & Sarkar, A. (2016). "To feel a place of heaven": Examining the role of sensory reference cues and capacity for imagination in destination marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 33*, 25–37.
Ha, S., Huang, R., & Park, J.-S. (2019). Persuasive brand messages in social media: A mental imagery processing perspective. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 48*, 41–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2019.01.006.
Hair, J., Hult, T., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2016). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)*. Sage publications.
Hair, J. F., Risher, J. J., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C. M. (2019). *When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM. European business review*.
Holbrook, M., & Hirschman, E. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research, 9*(2), 132–140.
Hsu, F.-C., Agyeiwaah, E., & Chen, L. I. L. (2021). Examining food festival attendees' existential authenticity and experiential value on affective factors and loyalty: An application of stimulus-organism-response paradigm. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 48*, 264–274. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2021.06.014.
Huang, L., Gursoy, D., & Xu, H. (2014). Impact of personality traits and involvement on prior knowledge. *Annals of Tourism Research, 48*, 42–57. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2014.05.010.
James, W. (1890). *Principles of psychology*. New York: Holt.
Jeong, J. Y., Crompton, J. L., & Hyun, S. S. (2020). The influence of the compromise and travel temporal construal heuristics on a purchase decision. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 33*, Article 100583.
Jeon, H., Ok, C., & Choi, J. (2017). Destination marketing organization website visitors' flow experience: An application of plog's model of personality. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2017.1358234.
Jepson, A., Stadler, R., & Spencer, N. (2019). Making positive family memories together and improving quality-of-life through thick sociality and bonding at local community festivals and events. *Tourism Management, 75*, 34–50. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.05.001.
Joe, S., Choi, C., & Busser, J. (2021). The impact of virtual presence on willingness to book: The moderating role of self-construal and gender. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 98*, Article 103021. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.103021.
Jung, T. H., Lee, H., Chung, N., & Dieck, M. C.t. (2018). Cross-cultural differences in adopting mobile augmented reality at cultural heritage tourism sites. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 30*(3), 1621–1645. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-02-2017-0084.
Kang, H. (2020). Impact of VR on impulsive desire for a destination. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 42*, 244–255. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.02.003.
Kastanakis, M. N., & Voyer, B. G. (2014). The effect of culture on perception and cognition: A conceptual framework. *Journal of Business Research, 67*(4), 425–433. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.03.028.
Kim, S. S., Choe, J. Y. J., & Petrick, J. F. (2018). The effect of celebrity on brand awareness, perceived quality, brand image, brand loyalty, and destination attachment to a literary festival. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 9*, 320–329.
Kim, S., & Jun, J. (2016). The impact of event advertising on attitudes and visit intentions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 29*, 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2016.04.002.
Kim, S.-B., Kim, D.-Y., & Bolls, P. (2014). Tourist mental-imagery processing: Attention and arousal. *Annals of Tourism Research, 45*, 63–76. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2013.12.005.
Kim, J., Kim, P. B., Kim, J.-E., & Magnini, V. (2016). Application of construal-level theory to promotional strategies in the hotel industry. *Journal of Travel Research, 55*(3), 340–352. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287514550097.
Kim, S., Kim, S., & Petrick, J. F. (2017). The effect of film nostalgia on involvement, familiarity, and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, Article 0047287517746015.
Kim, M., Park, S., & Kim, S. (2020). The perceived impact of hosting mega-sports events in a developing region: The case of the PyeongChang 2018 Winter Olympic games. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1850652.
Kim, H., So, K. K. F., Mihalik, B. J., & Lopes, A. P. (2021). Millennials' virtual reality experiences pre- and post-COVID-19. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 48*, 200–209. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2021.06.008.
Kim, J.-H., & Youn, H. (2016). How to design and deliver stories about tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel Research, 56*(6), 808–820.
Kirkup, N., & Sutherland, M. (2017). Exploring the relationships between motivation, attachment and loyalty within sport event tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism, 20*(1), 7–14. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2015.1046819.
Kock, N. (2015). Common method bias in PLS-SEM: A full collinearity assessment approach. *International Journal of e-Collaboration, 11*(4), 1–10.
Kock, N., & Hadaya, P. (2018). Minimum sample size estimation in PLS-SEM: The inverse square root and gamma-exponential methods. *Information Systems Journal, 28*(1), 227–261.
Krishna, A., Cian, L., & Sokolova, T. (2016). The power of sensory marketing in advertising. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 10*, 142–147. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2016.01.007.
Kruger, E. A., & Heath, E. T. (2013). Along came a mega-event: Prospects of competitiveness for a 2010 FIFA world Cup™ host city. *Current Issues in Tourism, 16*(6), 570–590. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2012.714748.
Lacey, S., Flueckiger, P., Stilla, R., Lava, M., & Sathian, K. (2010). Object familiarity modulates the relationship between visual object imagery and haptic shape perception. *NeuroImage, 49*(3), 1977–1990.
van Laer, T., Feiereisen, S., & Visconti, L. (2019). Storytelling in the digital era: A meta-analysis of relevant moderators of the narrative transportation effect. *Journal of Business Research, 96*, 135–146.
Laing, J., & Crouch, G. (2009). Myth, adventure and fantasy at the frontier: Metaphors and imagery behind an extraordinary travel experience. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 11*(2), 127–141.
Lee, S., Bruwer, J., & Song, H. (2017). Experiential and involvement effects on the Korean wine tourist's decision-making process. *Current Issues in Tourism, 20*(12), 1215–1231. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2015.1050362.
Lee, W., Gretzel, U., & Law, R. (2010). Quasi-trial experiences through sensory information on destination websites. *Journal of Travel Research, 49*(3), 310–322. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509346991.
Lee, T. H., & Hsu, F. Y. (2013). Examining how attending motivation and satisfaction affects the loyalty for attendees at aboriginal festivals. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 15*(1), 18–34.
Lee, S. A., Lee, M., & Jeong, M. (2021). The role of virtual reality on information sharing and seeking behaviors. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 46*, 215–223. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.12.010.
Lee, W., Sung, H., Suh, E., & Zhao, J. (2017). The effects of festival attendees' experiential values and satisfaction on re-visit intention to the destination: The case of a food and wine festival. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 29*(3), 1005–1027. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2015-0559.
Le, D., Scott, N., & Lohmann, G. (2019). Applying experiential marketing in selling tourism dreams. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 36*(2), 220–235. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2018.1526158.
Liberman, N., Trope, Y., & Wakslak, C. (2007). Construal level theory and consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 17*(2), 113–117. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1057-7408(07)70017-7.
Lin, C.-L., & Chang, K.-C. (2020). Establishing the service evaluation and selection system for emerging culture festival events using the hybrid MCDM technique. *Current Issues in Tourism, 23*(18), 2240–2272. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2019.1665628.
Line, N. D., Hanks, L., & Zhang, L. (2016). Sustainability communication: The effect of message construals on consumers' attitudes towards green restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 57*, 143–151. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2016.07.001.
Llopis-Amorós, M.-P., Gil-Saura, I., Ruiz-Molina, M. E., & Fuentes-Blasco, M. (2019). Social media communications and festival brand equity: Millennials vs Centennials. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 40*, 134–144. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2019.08.002.
Loureiro, S. M. C., Roschk, H., Ali, F., & Friedmann, E. (2021). Cognitive image, mental imagery, and responses (CI-MI-R): Mediation and moderation effects. *Journal of Travel Research*, Article 00472875211004768.
Lu, S., Zhu, W., & Wei, J. (2020). Assessing the impacts of tourism events on city development in China: A perspective of event system. *Current Issues in Tourism, 23*(12), 1528–1541.
Lv, X., Li, H., & Xia, L. (2020). Effects of haptic cues on consumers' online hotel booking decisions: The mediating role of mental imagery. *Tourism Management, 77*, Article 104025. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.104025.

Lyu, S. O., & Han, J. H. (2017). Assessing preferences for mega sports event travel products: A choice experimental approach. *Current Issues in Tourism, 20*(7), 740–758. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2016.1214110.
MacInnis, D., & Price, L. (1987). The role of imagery in information processing: Review and extensions. *Journal of Consumer Research, 13*(4), 473–491.
Mackellar, J., & Nisbet, S. (2017). Sport events and integrated destination development. *Current Issues in Tourism, 20*(13), 1320–1335. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2014.959903.
Mainolfi, G., & Marino, V. (2020). Destination beliefs, event satisfaction and post-visit product receptivity in event marketing. Results from a tourism experience. *Journal of Business Research, 116*, 699–710. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.03.001.
Mair, J., & Weber, K. (2019). Event and festival research: A review and research directions. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management, 10*(3), 209–216. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEFM-10-2019-080.
Marder, B., Archer-Brown, C., Colliander, J., & Lambert, A. (2019). Vacation posts on facebook: A model for incidental vicarious travel consumption. *Journal of Travel Research, 58*(6), 1014–1033.
Martí-Parreño, J., Bermejo-Berros, J., & Aldás-Manzano, J. (2017). Product placement in video games: The effect of brand familiarity and repetition on consumers' memory. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 38*, 55–63.
Masterman, G., & Wood, E. H. (2006). *Innovative marketing communications: Strategies for the events industry*. US: Routledge.
Mikhailitchenko, A., Javalgi, R. G., Mikhailitchenko, G., & Laroche, M. (2009). Cross-cultural advertising communication: Visual imagery, brand familiarity, and brand recall. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(10), 931–938. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2007.11.019.
Moyle, B., Scherrer, P., Weiler, B., Wilson, E., Caldicott, R., & Nielsen, N. (2017). Assessing preferences of potential visitors for nature-based experiences in protected areas. *Tourism Management, 62*, 29–41.
Munar, A., & Jacobsen, J. (2014). Motivations for sharing tourism experiences through social media. *Tourism Management, 43*, 46–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.01.012.
Ok, C. M., Park, K., Park, S. B., & Jeon, H. H. (2020). Event participation and advocacy: Assessing the role of affective commitment and perceived benefits. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 37*(1), 128–140. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2020.1722783.
Paivio, A. (2013). *Imagery and verbal processes*. New York, NY, US: Psychology Press.
Perić, M., Vitezić, V., & Badurina, J.Đ. (2019). Business models for active outdoor sport event tourism experiences. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 32*, Article 100561. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.100561.
Petit, O., Velasco, C., & Spence, C. (2019). Digital sensory marketing: Integrating New technologies into multisensory online experience. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 45*, 42–61. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2018.07.004.
Pham, M. (1998). Representativeness, relevance, and the use of feelings in decision making. *Journal of Consumer Research, 25*(2), 144–159.
Philips, B. (2017). Consumer imagination in marketing: A theoretical framework. *European Journal of Marketing, 51*(11/12), 2138–2155.
Pine, J., & Gilmore, J. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review, 76*, 97–105.
Rather, R. A. (2020). Customer experience and engagement in tourism destinations: The experiential marketing perspective. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 37*(1), 15–32.
Richins, M. (1997). Measuring emotions in the consumption experience. *Journal of Consumer Research, 24*(2), 127–146.
Rim, S., Amit, E., Fujita, K., Trope, Y., Halbeisen, G., & Algom, D. (2014). How words transcend and pictures immerse: On the association between medium and level of construal. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 6*(2), 123–130. https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550614548728.
Rittichainuwat, B., & Mair, J. (2012). Visitor attendance motivations at consumer travel exhibitions. *Tourism Management, 33*(5), 1236–1244.
Rossiter, J. (2011). Marketing measurement revolution: The C-OAR-SE method and why it must replace psychometrics. *European Journal of Marketing, 45*(11), 1561–1588. https://doi.org/10.1108/03090561111167298.
Ruzeviciute, R., Kamleitner, B., & Biswas, D. (2019). Designed to S(m)ell: When scented advertising induces proximity and enhances appeal. *Journal of Marketing Research.* , Article 0022243719888474. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022243719888474.
Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., Cheah, J.-H., Ting, H., Moisescu, O. I., & Radomir, L. (2020). Structural model robustness checks in PLS-SEM. *Tourism Economics, 26*(4), 531–554.
Schmitt, B. (1999). Experiential marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management, 15*(1–3), 53–67.
Scott, N., Laws, E., & Boksberger, P. (2009). The marketing of hospitality and leisure experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 18*(2–3), 99–110. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368620802590126.
Sel, Z. G., & Aktas, G. (2019). Advertising events: Content and semiotic analyses of Cannes film festival posters. *Event Management, 23*(2), 207–221.
Seraphin, H., Gowreesunkar, V., Zaman, M., & Bourliataux-Lajoinie, S. (2019). Community based festivals as a tool to tackle tourismphobia and antitourism movements. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 39*, 219–223. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2018.12.001.
Silva, S. C., Rocha, T. V., De Cicco, R., Galhanone, R. F., & Mattos, L. T. M. F. (2021). Need for touch and haptic imagery: An investigation in online fashion shopping. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 59*, Article 102378.
Simmonds, L., Bogomolova, S., Kennedy, R., Nenycz-Thiel, M., & Bellman, S. (2020). A dual-process model of how incorporating audio-visual sensory cues in video advertising promotes active attention. *Psychology and Marketing, 37*(8), 1057–1067.
Sinha, J., & Lu, F.-C. (2019). Ignored or rejected: Retail exclusion effects on construal levels and consumer responses to compensation. *Journal of Consumer Research, 46*(4), 791–807.
So, K. K. F., Xie, K. L., & Wu, J. (2019). Peer-to-peer accommodation services in the sharing economy: Effects of psychological distances on guest loyalty. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 31*(8), 3212–3230. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-09-2018-0730.
Stamolampros, P., & Korfiatis, N. (2018). Exploring the behavioral drivers of review valence: The direct and indirect effects of multiple psychological distances. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 30*(10), 3083–3099.
Svensson, G., Ferro, C., Høgevold, N., Padin, C., Varela, J. C. S., & Sarstedt, M. (2018). Framing the triple bottom line approach: Direct and mediation effects between economic, social and environmental elements. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 197*, 972–991.
Tasci, A., Gartner, W., & Cavusgil, T. (2007). Measurement of destination brand bias using a quasi-experimental design. *Tourism Management, 28*(6), 1529–1540. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.02.009.
Tasci, A. D. A., & Milman, A. (2019). Exploring experiential consumption dimensions in the theme park context. *Current Issues in Tourism, 22*(7), 853–876. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2017.1321623.
Thompson, M. (2020). Farmers' markets and tourism: Identifying tensions that arise from balancing dual roles as community events and tourist attractions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 45*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.06.016.
Thompson, D., & Hamilton, R. (2006). The effects of information processing mode on consumers' responses to comparative advertising. *Journal of Consumer Research, 32*(4), 530–540.
Tkaczynski, A., & Rundle-Thiele, S. R. (2011). Event segmentation: A review and research agenda. *Tourism Management, 32*(2), 426–434.
Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. (2010). Construal-level theory of psychological distance. *Psychological Review, 117*(2), 440.
Trope, Y., Liberman, N., & Wakslak, C. (2007). Construal levels and psychological distance: Effects on representation, prediction, evaluation, and behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 17*(2), 83–95. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1057-7408(07)70013-X.
Tsaur, S.-H., Chiu, Y.-T., & Wang, C.-H. (2007). The visitors behavioral consequences of experiential marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 21*(1), 47–64. https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v21n01_04.
Tseng, T., & Hsieh, S. (2019). Determinants of emoticon usage in mobile instant messaging: A construal level theory perspective. *Behaviour & Information Technology, 38*(3), 289–301. https://doi.org/10.1080/0144929X.2018.1531927.
Tussyadiah, I., & Fesenmaier, D. (2009). Mediating tourist experiences: Access to places via shared videos. *Annals of Tourism Research, 36*(1), 24–40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.10.001.
Tussyadiah, I., Wang, D., Jung, T., & Tom Dieck, M. C. (2018). Virtual reality, presence, and attitude change: Empirical evidence from tourism. *Tourism Management, 66*, 140–154. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.12.003.
Van Niekerk, M. (2017). Contemporary issues in events, festivals and destination management. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 29*(3), 842–847. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-01-2017-0031.
Vesci, M., & Botti, A. (2019). Festival quality, theory of planned behavior and revisiting intention: Evidence from local and small Italian culinary festivals. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 38*, 5–15. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2018.10.003.
Vilches-Montero, S. N., & Spence, M. (2015). The effect of construal level on time perceptions, confidence in judgements and future preferences. *European Journal of Marketing, 49*(5/6), 782–805.
Walters, G., Sparks, B., & Herington, C. (2007). The effectiveness of print advertising stimuli in evoking elaborate consumption visions for potential travelers. *Journal of Travel Research, 46*(1), 24–34. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287507302376.
Walters, G., Sparks, B., & Herington, C. (2012). The impact of consumption vision and emotion on the tourism consumer's decision behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 36*(3), 366–389. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348010390815.
Wong, J.-Y., Lee, S.-J., & Lee, W.-H. (2016). 'Does it really affect me?' tourism destination narratives, destination image, and the intention to visit: Examining the moderating effect of narrative transportation. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 18*(5), 458–468. https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2063.
Wong, I. A., Ma, J., & Xiong, X. (2020). Touristic experience at a nomadic sporting event: Craving cultural connection, sacredness, authenticity, and nostalgia. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 44*, 70–78. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.05.003.
Wyer, R. S., Jr., Hung, I. W., & Jiang, Y. (2008). Visual and verbal processing strategies in comprehension and judgment. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 18*(4), 244–257.
Yan, D., Sengupta, J., & Hong, J. (2016). Why does psychological distance influence construal level? The role of processing mode. *Journal of Consumer Research, 43*(4), 598–613. https://doi.org/10.1093/jcr/ucw045.
Yap, B. W., & Sim, C. H. (2011). Comparisons of various types of normality tests. *Journal of Statistical Computation and Simulation, 81*(12), 2141–2155.
Yim, M. Y.-C., Baek, T. H., & Sauer, P. (2018). I see myself in service and product consumptions: Measuring self-transformative consumption vision (SCV) evoked by static and rich media. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 44*, 122–139. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2018.07.001.
Yim, M. Y.-C., & Yoo, C. Y. (2020). Are digital menus really better than traditional menus? The mediating role of consumption visions and menu enjoyment. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 50*, 65–80.

Yin, C.-Y., Poon, P., & Su, J.-L. (2017). Yesterday once more? Autobiographical memory evocation effects on tourists' post-travel purchase intentions toward destination products. *Tourism Management, 61*, 263–274.

Yu, U.-J., Cho, E., & Johnson, K. (2017). Effects of brand familiarity and brand loyalty on imagery elaboration in online apparel shopping. *Journal of Global Fashion Marketing, 8*(3), 193–206. https://doi.org/10.1080/20932685.2017.1284603.

Yung, R., Khoo-Lattimore, C., & Potter, L. E. (2021). VR the world: Experimenting with emotion and presence for tourism marketing. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 46*, 160–171. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.11.009.

Zhang, H., Gursoy, D., & Xu, H. (2017). The effects of associative slogans on tourists' attitudes and travel intention:the moderating effects of need for cognition and familiarity. *Journal of Travel Research, 56*(2), 206–220. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287515627029.

Zhang, X., Jeong, E., Olson, E. D., & Evans, G. (2020). Investigating the effect of message framing on event attendees' engagement with advertisement promoting food waste reduction practices. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 89*, Article 102589. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102589.

Zou, Y., Meng, F., Bi, J., & Zhang, Q. (2021). Evaluating sustainability of cultural festival tourism: From the perspective of ecological niche. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 48*, 191–199. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2021.06.009.