Antónia Correia
Metin Kozak
Juergen Gnoth
Alan Fyall   *Editors*

Co-Creation and Well-Being in Tourism

Springer

Tourism on the Verge

Series editors

Pauline J. Sheldon
University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA

Daniel R. Fesenmaier
University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, USA

More information about this series at http://www.springer.com/series/13605

Antónia Correia · Metin Kozak
Juergen Gnoth · Alan Fyall
Editors

Co-Creation and Well-Being in Tourism

Springer

Editors
Antónia Correia
CEFAGE, University of Algarve
Faro
Portugal

and

Universidade Europeia
Lisbon
Portugal

Metin Kozak
Dokuz Eylül University
Izmir
Turkey

Juergen Gnoth
University of Otago
Dunedin
New Zealand

Alan Fyall
University of Central Florida
Orlando, FL
USA

Preface

With a decade of academic experience and a significant presence in the international research community, the Advances in Tourism Marketing (ATMC) Conference launches a new topical theme in its book series: *Co-Creation and Well-Being in Tourism*. This new theme aligns with the overall mission of ATMC which is to co-create and share the knowledge and expertise that emerges from its conferences and community of international scholars.

ATMC aims to bring together researchers, Ph.D. candidates, policy makers, and practitioners to provide a forum for the discussion and dissemination of themes related to the marketing of travel and tourism and to critically evaluate how they can contribute to advancing knowledge and practice in the field. As a result of this mission, this conference has to date published five volumes of critical research after each of its five conferences.

The first conference, which was held in Turkey, led to the first volume edited by Metin Kozak and Luisa Andreu, entitled *Progress in Tourism Marketing* (Elsevier, 2006). Kozak, Gnoth, and Andreu then published the second volume *Advances in Destination Marketing* (Routledge, 2008) which was a direct response to papers presented at the Valencia Conference, Spain (2007). Fyall, Kozak, Andreu, Gnoth, and Lebe then worked on the third volume, *Marketing Innovations for Sustainable Destinations* (Goodfellow Publishers, 2009), with papers presented at the Bournemouth Conference, UK (2009). With the inclusion of a selected list of papers out of the Maribor Conference, Slovenia (2011), Kozak, Andreu, Gnoth, and Lebe edited the volume *Tourism Marketing: Both Sides of the Counter* (Cambridge Publishing Scholars, 2012). Finally, the editorial team of Correia, Kozak, Gnoth, and Fyall published the fifth volume entitled *Marketing Spaces and Places* which included papers presented at the Algarve Conference, Portugal, in 2013 (Emerald, 2015).

To date, the ATMC has accommodated more than 1000 authors, co-authors, scholars, and practitioners representing almost every continent of the world, to present their research. The conferences have also hosted over 25 internationally renowned scholars and practitioners as keynote speakers who contributed significantly to themed discussions either as panel members or as individual speakers. It is both gratifying and inspiring to see how the ATMC family has expanded both in quality and in quantity, how it has created new friendships and networks, and how it promises to continue to keep raising the standards of scholarship in the domain of tourism marketing.

The present book, *Co-Creation and Well-Being in Tourism*, is another step forward in consolidating the reputation of ATMC as a facilitator of knowledge exchange in tourism marketing and by promoting foruns of discussion. The present book is the result of the conference held in Joensuu, Finland (2015), with the theme, *Tourism Engagement: Co-creating Well-being*, discussing how tourism experiences can create well-being for all stakeholders.

The editors of this book, with the assistance of many colleagues who served as reviewers for papers submitted to the ATMC 2015, selected and edited the papers for the individual chapters in this book. The editors would like to acknowledge the contribution of the authors and reviewers to make this achievement possible.

The result is a true engagement in co-creating value. In this book, well-being is treated and discussed as "prosumption" which is the result of customers' participation in both the production and the consumption of the experience. Co-production starts with the integration and application of resources, contributed by service providers, and crosses over to invite tourists to participate in the co-production of tourism experiences. This book closes with a discussion around the co-creation of tourism atmosphere.

This book is divided into three parts. Each part contains between four and five chapters with 14 chapters featured in total. The chapters approach the co-creation of experiences in an integrative manner whereby the engagement of both tourists and hosts paves the way for tourists' overall well-being. This book comprises many chapters written by scholars recognized worldwide, from Asia to Europe. Part I refers to *Experience Prosumption*, involving tourists' engagement to co-create; Part II introduces *Experience Co-production* that involves tourists' and industry's engagement in co-creation; Part III explores *Co-creation of Experience Atmospheres* where tourists, hosts, places, and locals all engage in co-creation.

The broad approach of this book makes it useful to academic researchers, students, policy makers, and practitioners, and all those with an interest in the emerging field of co-creation and well-being. The interest of readers is also enhanced by the quality of the authors, many of whom are young emerging scholars who share chapter contributions with their academic mentors. This team approach to authorship is critical in opening new horizons for future generations of academia and industry and for the development of knowledge that is academically rich and professionally relevant.

This book thus covers most topical dimensions of tourism experiences and offers itself an innovative approach to co-creating tourism marketing research literature. As inspiring and enriching as the ATMC conferences, this book represents a compendium of worthy topics that the editors hope will inspire others to keep refueling the journey that is marketing tourism experiences.

Faro and Lisbon, Portugal	Antónia Correia
Izmir, Turkey	Metin Kozak
Dunedin, New Zealand	Juergen Gnoth
Orlando, FL, USA	Alan Fyall

Contents

Contributors

Fernando Almeida-García University of Malaga, Malaga, Spain

Maria Dolores Alvarez Boğaziçi University, Istanbul, Turkey

Marcello Atzeni University of Cagliari, Cagliari, Italy

Peter Björk HANKEN School of Economics, Vaasa, Finland

Valérie Boembeke University of Namur, Namur, Belgium

Sara Campo Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Madrid, Spain

Raquel Camprubí University of Girona, Girona, Spain

Teresa Cascais Universidade Europeia, Lisbon, Portugal

Hsuan Hsuan Chang Ming Chuan University, Taipei, Taiwan, ROC

Giacomo Del Chiappa University of Sassari, Sassari, Italy

Lluís Coromina University of Girona, Girona, Spain

Antónia Correia CEFAGE, University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal; Universidade Europeia, Lisbon, Portugal

Alain Decrop University of Namur, Namur, Belgium

Joana Afonso Dias Instituto Superior D. Afonso III, Loulé, Portugal

Janire Domínguez-Azcue University of Malaga, Malaga, Spain

Miia Grénman University of Turku, Turku, Finland

Rainer Lampl Green-Solutions GmbH&Co.KG, Murnau, Germany

Ninoslav Luk Institute of Agriculture and Tourism, Poreč, Croatia

Julie Masset University of Namur, Namur, Belgium

Giuseppe Melis University of Cagliari, Cagliari, Italy

Pere Mercadé-Mele University of Malaga, Malaga, Spain

Cristiana Oliveira Universidad Europea de Canarias, Santa Cruz de Tenerife, Spain

Çağıl Hale Özel Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey

Rosária Pereira University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal; Universidade Europeia, Lisbon, Portugal

Ulrike Pröbstl-Haider University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences, Vienna, Austria

Juulia Räikkönen University of Turku, Turku, Finland

Seda Sökmen Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey

Erose Sthapit University of Vaasa, Vaasa, Finland

Ana Težak Damijanić Institute of Agriculture and Tourism, Poreč, Croatia

Reviewers

Amparo Cervera, University of Valencia, Spain
Andreas Zins, MODUL University, Austria
Anna Kuikka, University of Eastern Finland, Finland
Anne-Mette Hjalager, University of Southern Denmark, Denmark
Antónia Correia, CEFAGE, University of Algarve & Universidade Europeia, Portugal
Antti Honkanen, University of Eastern Finland, Finland
Arja Lemmetyinen, University of Turku, Finland
Borut Milfelner, University of Maribor, Slovenia
Christian Laesser, University of St. Gallen, Switzerland
Frederic Dimanche, Ryerson University, Canada
Gunjan Saxena, University of Hull, India
Harald Pechlaner, Catholic University of Eichstaett-Ingolstadt, Germany
Helen Reijonen, University of Eastern Finland, Finland
Henna Konu, University of Eastern Finland, Finland
Hilkka Lassila, Savonia University of Applied Sciences, Finland
Jarkko Saarinen, University of Oulu, Finland
Jarno Suni, University of Eastern Finland, Finland
Juergen Gnoth, Otago University, New Zealand
Juulia Räikkönen, University of Turku, Finland
Luisa Andreu, University of Valencia, Spain
Marina Zanfardini, Universidad Nacional del Comahue, Argentina
Metin Kozak, Dokuz Eylul University, Turkey
Nina Prebensen, University College Southeast Norway, Norway
Pietro Beritelli, University of St. Gallen, Switzerland
Saku Hirvonen, University of Eastern Finland, Finland
Sanna-Mari Renfors, Satakunta University of Applied Sciences, Finland
Sonja Lebe, Maribor University, Slovenia
Szilvia Gyimothy, Aalborg University, Denmark
Tamara Ratz, Kodolanyi Janos University of Applied Sciences, Hungary

Introduction

This book on *Co-Creation and Well-Being in Tourism* explores the dimensions of co-creation and well-being, seeking to profile tourism experiences for the twenty-first century. Underpinning this book is the belief that an experience that engages hosts and guests creates the environment where true value can be created and shared among all involved.

This book comprises three parts and 14 chapters. Each part depicts different components of value co-creation in tourism experiences. Acknowledging the controversies around phenomenological and empirical approaches of experience research, this book covers both perspectives. Tourism experiences are assumed to reassure all tourists' well-being whether their rationale is cognitive or emotional.

Several chapters focus on experiences through engagement of all stakeholders. These contributions further our understanding of how to co-create tourism experiences to benefit the much-wanted welfare that human beings seek. Accordingly, this book explores the engagement of tourists in co-creating experiences, comprising the engagement of tourists with their hosts and the atmosphere of place. To cover the cornerstones of this engagement, this book is structured in three parts: Experience Prosumption, Experience Co-production, and Co-creation of Experience Atmospheres.

This volume boldly seeks to assemble arguments of two kinds:

- The well-being of tourists, destinations, and operators is paramount. The management of a destination's competitive advantage must become sustainable, while the tourist deserves the best memorable experiences possible;
- Tourists are maturing and becoming more assertive (e.g., Pearce and Packer 2013). They create their own experiences by activating their own networks and resources (Gnoth and Jaeger 2007). They easily find their way around to and from their destination and have become "savvy" decision makers. Smart and Internet technologies allow tourists to rebalance the traditional information asymmetry between operator and tourist. Instead, they now turn up at destinations and often know more than the operator, about opportunities, prices, facilities, and competitors.

The first challenge is to find answers for what is well-being and how is it constructed as a process and a state, for tourist, destination, and operator? How does it relate to quality, satisfaction, recreation, and happiness? And what does this mean for the development of sustainable practices in the development and management of comparative and competitive advantages?

The second challenge asks what can tourism operators do to assist tourists in their creation of experiences and how can they become co-creators of value? In other words, how can operators and destinations become a valuable and valued part of tourists' experiences? What are the challenges beyond merely functional facilitation? Although memorable experiences of recreation, self-consolidation, flow, learning, and happiness (Gnoth and Matteucci 2014) have been identified as the most important benefit of holiday tourism, what is the operator's role in their construction?

Bearing these questions in mind, this book is a collection of pioneering and inspiring chapters that explore tourism experience through the adoption of an integrated approach, where engagement is the way to value experiences.

Part I—Experience Prosumption

Co-creation of experiences, as a theoretical construct, refers to consumers as an active partner of their experience (Dabholkar 1990). Tourists are fully and deeply involved in the design of their experience. Their involvement is defined as a motivational state (Bloch 1982; Johnson and Eagly 1989; Zaichkowsky 1985).

Prosumption means that customers serve themselves (Meuter et al. 2000) and refers to tourist participation in production and consumption of experiences (Toffler 1980). Despite advances in research about the importance of the consumer in adding value to his/her final consumer experience (Payne et al. 2005), few have explored how the tourist adds value to their experience. The chapters of this part are thus organized to shed light on how tourists are involved in co-creation.

The paper by **Räikkönen and Grénman**, Chapter "The Experience Economy Logic in the Wellness Tourism Industry", reinforces that wellness experiences are a social experience. The authors suggest that further innovation within the wellness industry will leverage the value of these experiences.

Chapter "The Relationship Between Travel Motives and Customer Value Among Wellness Tourists", by **Damijanić and Luk**, focuses on wellness, tourists' values, and motives. Wellness tourists value relaxation, prestige, entertainment, and recreation, suggesting that wellness has a functional and social value. They find that social value is more significant than functional value and propose that wellness relies on the intangible aspects of the tourism experience.

The cultural side of tourism experiences often involves visiting museums. Chapter "Postmodern Museum Visitor Experience as a Leisure Activity", by **Ozel and Sökmen**, identifies how tourists perceive the museum experience. The authors suggest that escapism is one of the most important motives in the decision to visit a museum. However, other motives such as hyper-reality and technological facilities pave their decisions. This result suggests that tourists are willing to live experiences even if based on fiction.

Furthering the cultural theme of the tourism experience, Chapter "Driving First-Time and Repeat Spectators to Cultural Events", by **Del Chiappa, Melis, and Atzeni,** presents provide a refreshing look at experiencing cultural events—their focus is on carnival. Their results show once more that it is the relationship with the destination that reinforces the tourists' well-being.

Chapter "A Journey Inside Tourist Souvenirs", by **Decrop and Masset**, approaches the meanings of souvenirs through an interpretative naturalistic approach where interviews and observation are combined in videography. Souvenirs are found to contribute to enhancing social conformity of tourists with the Other, whether it be by connection, integration, socialization, self-expression, or sacralization. As it turns out, socializing is one of the best forms of achieving happiness. Souvenirs are also assumed as an extension of tourism experiences that is a way of making memories last.

Part II—Experience Co-production

Co-production refers to the integration of the resources provided guests with those of hosts (Vargo and Lusch 2004). The total engagement of tourists with service providers can go beyond the mundane co-production, to the incorporation of service offerings into tourists' lives (Vargo et al. 2008).

A rational approach to perceived value separates the object (experience) and the subject (tourist) if tourists receive what service providers deliver in a passive way, although tourists may be actively looking for constructing and manifesting their experiences (Jamal and Hollinshead 2000). They are social actors interpreting and personifying experiences; they provide their own meanings to experiences through their own participation. This part of this book approaches experience co-production and recognizes the active role of tourist in the co-creation of experiences. This dynamic approach considers that co-creation is a process of joint-value realization that occurs when tourists and hosts interact (Payne et al. 2005). This approach is still rare in tourism marketing research.

Chapter "From Conflict to Co-creation: Ski-Touring on Groomed Slopes in Austria", by **Ulrike Pröbstl-Haider and Rainer Lampl**, focuses on winter tourism in nature, on social values and bases of cooperation in wellness experiences. The innovative description of the value chain of this (re)emerging tourism product identifies the need for integrative approaches, where tourists have a dynamic and active role in delivering value to their winter experiences.

Chapter "The Importance of Quality Labels in Consumers' Preferences", by **Decrop and Boembeke**, suggests that despite long-standing research into tourism quality, the measurement of quality is still far from consensual. This chapter offers an innovative way to measure the influence of quality, through visible signs such as labels, hotel classifications, hotel brands, prices, convenience, and types of attractions available. This research uses conjoint analysis to show that classifications and labels reassure quality in a tangible way and assist tourists in alleviating decisions stress.

Chapter "Image Analysis of a Tourist Destination", by **Garcia, Azcue, and Mercadé-Mele**, emphasizes the affective dimension of destination images.

Furthermore, this study enlists repetition as the way to reinforce the affective ties with the destination.

Chapter "The Influence of Information Sources on Tourist Image Fragmentation", by *Raquel Camprubí and Lluís Coromina*, depicts how the reliability of information provided in different sources affects the tourists' decisions when choosing a destination highlighting that reliable information is critical to co-create a coherent meaning for the destination visited.

While most of the previous researchers dealt with positive experiences, Chapter "Consumer Animosity and Affective Country Image", by *Campo and Alvarez*, assesses the impact of animosity on destination image. This research is innovative as it deals with the adversities of tourists and place engagement in co-producing valuable experiences.

Part III—Co-creation of Experience Atmospheres

During the experience process, tourists interact with locals, with other tourists, and with their hosts (Ryan 2002; Zeithaml et al. 2006). Under the assumption that underpinning this book, tourists are social actors with an active and dynamic attitude toward all co-creation processes. Our last part deals with co-creating atmospheres and how it contributes to tourists' and others' well-being. The place and the Other create a scene, but it is the tourists' mood and involvement that creates the experience atmosphere (Pine and Gilmore 1999).

This part of this book acknowledges the guests and hosts as actors playing in different "scenes" (places) and aims to gain a deeper understanding of how tourists co-create valuable experiences in different contexts and within variable settings. Considering that all is variable, the chapters offer an inclusive, dynamic, and profound basis of research.

Chapter "Comparison Between Wayfinding Direction Descriptors of Local and Tourist Preferences", by *Chang*, presents locals' interaction with tourists that is very common at tourism destinations but is rarely researched, the way-finding information locals provide to tourists.

Chapter "Well-Being of Locals, Tourist Experiences and Destination Competitiveness", by *Peter Björk and Erose Sthapit*, is about well-being. It complements previous sections by reminding us that the attitude of locals is critical in achieving a positive experience.

Chapter "From Emotions to Place Attachment", by *Correia*, *Oliveira, and Pereira*, focuses on emotional states tourism experiences create for tourists. The authors suggest that the superlative value of their holidays strongly correlates with the duration of the relationship tourists have with the destination. This result reinforces that place-making is critical for tourist's well-being.

Chapter "Traits in Tourists' Experiences: Senses, Emotions and Memories", by *Dias*, *Correia, and Cascais*, approaches tourist experiences through a qualitative approach where photographs and comments posted in a blog are depicted. All the materials collected suggest that tourism experiences are sensorial and nostalgic, adding to the discussion on the emotional side of tourism experiences.

In conclusion, this innovative and critical book contributes to the advancement of knowledge in tourism marketing through a dynamic approach where all the actors, scenes, and moods are part of the co-creation process.

Antónia Correia
Metin Kozak
Juergen Gnoth
Alan Fyall

References

Bloch, P. H. (1982). Involvement beyond the purchase process: Conceptual issues and empirical investigation. *NA-Advances in Consumer Research, 09*, 413–417.

Dabholkar, P. (1990). How to improve perceived quality by improving customer participation. In B. J. Dunlap (Ed.), *Developments in marketing science* (pp. 483–487). Cullowhee, NC: Academy of Marketing Science.

Gnoth, J., & Matteucci, X. (2014). A phenomenological organisation of the tourism literature. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8, 1, 3–21.

Gnoth, J., & Jaeger, S. (2007). Destinations as networking virtual service firms. *International Journal of Excellence in Tourism, Hospitality and Catering, 1*(1), 1–18.

Jamal, T., & Hollinshead, K. (2000). Tourism and the forbidden zone: The underserved power of qualitative research. *Tourism Management, 22*, 63–82.

Johnson, B., & Eagly, A. H. (1989). Effects of involvement on persuasion: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 106, 290–314.

Meuter, M., Ostrom, A., Roundtree, R., & Bitner, M. (2000). Self-service technologies: understanding customer satisfaction with technology-based service encounters. *Journal of Marketing*, 64(July), 50–64.

Payne, A., & Frow, P. (2005). A strategic framework for customer relationship management. *Journal of Marketing*, 69, 167–176.

Pearce, P., & Packer, J. (2013). Minds on the move: New links from psychology to tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 40(1), 386–411.

Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). *The experience economy*: *Work is theatre and every business a stage*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Ryan, C. (2002). Stages, gazes and constructions of tourism. *Tourist Experience, 2*, 1–26.

Toffler, A. (1980). *The third wave*. New York, NY: Morrow.

Vargo, S. L., & Robert F. L. (2004). Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 68*, 1–17.

Vargo, S. L., Maglio, P. P., & Akaka, M. A. (2008). On value and value co-creation: A service systems and service logic perspective. *European Management Journal*, 26(3), 145–152.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12(3), 341–352.

Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J., & Gremler, D. D. (2006). *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus across the firm*. Boston: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Part I
Experience Prosumption

The Experience Economy Logic in the Wellness Tourism Industry

Juulia Räikkönen and Miia Grénman

Abstract The global tourism industry and the wellness industry are both undergoing a major growth phase fuelled by the consumers' ever-increasing desire for not only emotional experiences but also more permanent transformations and lifestyle changes. This chapter presents the wellness tourism industry as a model example of the experience industry and discusses wellness tourism experiences in the light of value creation and innovation. Through qualitative empirical data from the Finnish tourism industry, we examine the current wellness tourism offerings and analyse how the service providers are developing their offerings in order to respond to the expectations of future wellness tourists. The data reveals a certain understanding of the experience economy logic and emphasizes the strong pressure for constant innovation. However, it seems that the service providers mainly just try to develop new products and services instead of truly engaging consumers in the value creation processes. This highlights the strong product and service focus of the value creation and the lack of real customer centricity, which indeed forms the core of the entire wellness ideology.

1 Introduction

The tourism industry exists in order to provide consumers with various experiences, and is often described in relation to the dynamics of the current economy, in which pursuing experiences has become self-evident (Pizam 2010; Sundbo and Darmer 2008). The fundamental fact that tourists travel because they want to, and not because they have to, contrasts the experience industries (e.g. tourism) with other service-based industries (e.g. healthcare) and places the customer in the center of the value creation process (Konu 2015; Prebensen et al. 2013).

J. Räikkönen (✉) · M. Grénman
University of Turku, Turku, Finland
e-mail: juulia.raikkonen@utu.fi

M. Grénman
e-mail: miia.grenman@utu.fi

The tourism industry is currently undergoing extensive change due to the strong market growth and the demand for more experience-based products and services (Alsos et al. 2014; Sundbo et al. 2007). This transformation places great demands on tourism firms to adapt and develop new products, but also to involve tourists to partake in the innovation processes (e.g. Hjalager and Nordin 2011; Konu 2015; Konu and Komppula 2016). In tourism research, innovation is understood as something new that differs from business as usual or previous practice, and is considered extremely crucial to the performance of tourism firms and the entire tourism industry (Alsos et al. 2014; Hjalager 2010). Based on these fundamental ideas, the current chapter presents the wellness tourism industry as a model example of the experience industry and discusses wellness tourism experiences in the light of value creation and innovation. Then, a qualitative empirical data sample collected from the Finnish wellness tourism industry is used to reflect on this theoretical discussion.

Wellness tourism is one of the fastest growing tourism sectors with a market share of nearly USD500 billion (SRI International 2014). It is a part of the global multitrillion dollar wellness industry, which has developed as a response to consumers' ever increasing interest in pursuing and maintaining their own health and wellbeing (Pilzer 2007). The commercial wellness market branches out to various other industries, providing products and services mainly to healthy individuals who wish to feel healthier and be better-looking, slow down the effects of aging, and prevent illness (Pilzer 2007; SRI International 2010, 2014). Wellness is no longer a niche market, but has become mainstream (Mintel 2004), with offerings ranging from medical treatments to relaxation and enhancement of the body and mind (Bushell and Sheldon 2009; Hjalager et al. 2011; Smith and Puczkó 2009).

Wellness combines the pursuit of health and wellbeing with the experiential aspects of consumption (Grénman and Räikkönen 2015; cf. Hjalager et al. 2011). Through wellness consumption, individuals seek not only health benefits, but also enjoyment and indulgence, as well as to signify their status and construct their self-identity (Grénman and Räikkönen 2015). Furthermore, wellness consumption is all about self-responsibility (e.g. Müller and Lanz Kaufmann 2001) and requires consumers to actively participate in the experience creation (cf. Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004; Vargo and Lusch 2004).

Wellness has attracted the interest of scholars from different disciplines (see e.g. de Chavez et al. 2005; Miller and Fosters 2010) and the tourism researchers (e.g. Bushell and Sheldon 2009; Smith and Puczkó 2009) have significantly contributed to the overall understanding of wellness consumption. However, one of the profound problems of wellness research is the conceptual confusion related to the key terms *well-being* and *wellness* (Björk et al. 2011; Bushell and Sheldon 2009; Konu et al. 2010; Smith and Puczkó 2009). Another apparent research gap is the lack of studies that consider wellness as a significant part of the experience economy, indicating a general societal development (cf. Nielsen and Dale 2013) that places strong demands on the service providers to innovate in order to frequently introduce new and better experiences and adapt to constant market changes (Alsos et al. 2014; Konu 2015; Konu and Komppula 2016).

The current study is a part of a wider research project addressing these themes. The first study (Grénman and Räikkönen 2015) tackled the issue of conceptual confusion and revealed a weak conceptual understanding and inconsistent use of the terms well-being and wellness among the industry professionals. Here, in this second study, we continue with the same qualitative data set but concentrate on the future development of the wellness tourism industry. We examine what kind of tourism products, services, and experiences are offered to the current wellness tourists and, more importantly, how the service providers are developing their offerings in order to respond to the needs and expectations of future wellness tourists.

2 The Wellness Industry as an Example of the Experience Industry

The emergence of the experience economy has been fueled by the new technology, the more sophisticated and demanding consumer base, and the escalating competitive intensity (Knutson et al. 2007). It is considered as the current phase in the progression of economic value from the agrarian economy through the industrial and the service economies to the experience and even the transformation economy, in which consumer value is increasingly based on intangibles and value co-creation (Darmer and Sundbo 2008; Sundbo 2009; Pine and Gilmore 1999). In the experience economy, consumers are looking for more than mere products and services; they want to acquire an interesting life, to experience new places, be entertained and learn in an enjoyable way (Sundbo and Darmer 2008).

According to Nilsen and Dale (2013), the 'experience economy' needs to be distinguished from the 'experience industry'. The prior refers to a broad economic process in which the integration of experiences creates increased value to all kinds of goods and services, while the latter represents economic activities in which experience is the main product. The experience industry, including, e.g., tourism and hospitality, culture and entertainment, and sport and leisure, counts for 8–12% of the GNP being among the fastest growing industries of the Western countries (Darmer and Sundbo 2008; Nilsen and Dale 2013).

The wellness industry is an excellent example of the experience industry and, in fact, can even be viewed as a part of the transformation economy (Pine and Gilmore 1999), in which consumers do not only settle for emotional experiences but aspire for more permanent transformations, such as a healthier lifestyle. The wellness industry is here described with the framework of health-related consumption (Grénman and Räikkönen 2015). The framework (Fig. 1) is based on the illness–wellness continuum that emphasizes the differences between illness and wellness, highlighting the responsibility of the individual in achieving high-level wellness (SRI International 2010; Travis 1972).
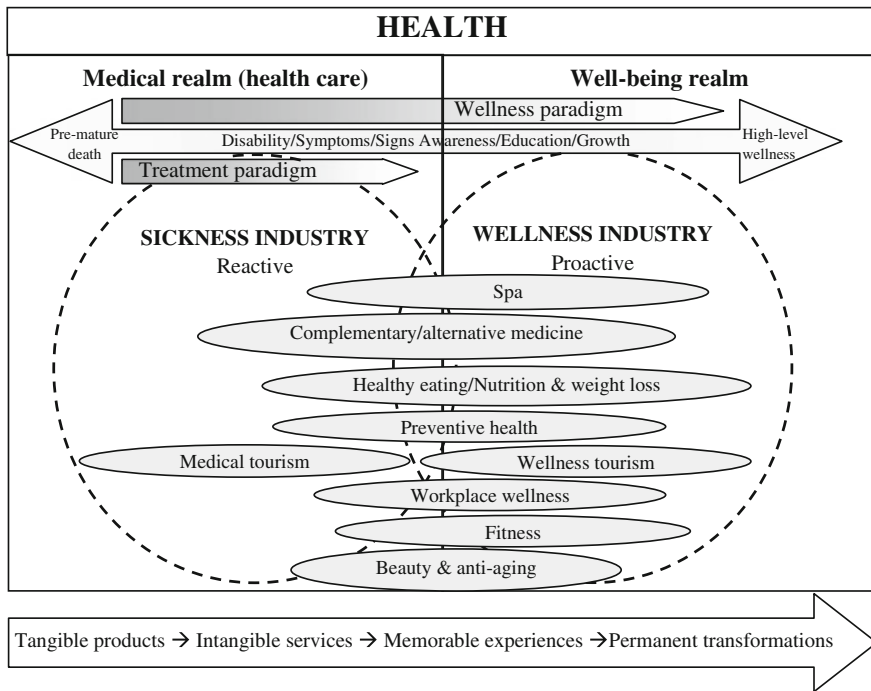
Fig. 1 The framework of health-related consumption. *Source* Grénman and Räikkönen (2015), SRI International (2010)

According to this dichotomy, health is divided into the medical realm and the well-being realm. The sickness and wellness industries, in turn, accentuate the commercial nature and market potential of these realms. The proactive wellness industry aims at improving health and well-being while the reactive sickness industry concentrates on treating diseases and curing illnesses (Pilzer 2007). Consumers voluntarily become customers of the wellness industry, while becoming a customer of the sickness industry is often a necessity. Drawing a sharp line between the sickness and the wellness industries is challenging, as they are strongly linked and even overlapping (Huijbens 2011; Konu et al. 2010). Furthermore, like the experience industries in general, also the wellness industry is connected to various other industries that center around health and well-being (SRI International 2010).

The lower part of the framework illustrates the experience economy logic that adds complexity to economic processes within the experience industries but, however, is crucial for the understanding of how experiences emerge and innovations can be developed (Alsos et al. 2014; Mossberg 2007; Pine and Gilmore 1999). The general societal and economic change illustrated by the experience economy affects all actors in the society. On the experience industry level, the focus is on the operations and offerings of the service providers, the needs and motives of the

consumers and, most importantly, in their mutual interactions and encounters where the value is created (Alsos et al. 2014; Konu 2015).

The 'products' of the experience industry, i.e. experiences and transformations, offer customers mental journeys through emotions and storytelling (Sundbo 2009; Jensen 1999; Pine and Gilmore 1999) in various 'experiencescapes' (Mossberg 2007). The experience is seen as a further development of the service; it is subjective in nature and takes place in the mind of the customer, thus requiring commitment and participation (Mossberg 2007; Sundbo 2009). Instead of being passive actors, customers are active co-creators of their experiences and, through personalized interaction, co-create unique value for themselves (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004; Vargo and Lusch 2004; Mossberg 2007; Prebensen et al. 2013).

This brings us to the focal paradigm shift of marketing: the development from a goods-dominant logic (G-D) to a service-dominant logic (S-D) and most recently to a customer-dominant logic (C-D) (e.g. Heinonen et al. 2010). According to this development, the value is no longer embedded in units of output and exchange (value-in-exchange), but rather realized through the experience of using the service provider's offerings and resources (value-in-use) (Grönroos and Ravald 2011). Furthermore, it suggested that through behavioral and mental processes, the customers interpret their experiences and reconstruct customer reality (value-in-experience) in which value is embedded (Heinonen et al. 2010).

This debate highlights the importance of value creation as a focal core of marketing and accentuates the need for its systematic consideration. In tourism literature, however, this discussion has not been as widely recognized as in mainstream marketing (Li and Petrick 2008), as the tourism industry is primarily based around the customer experience, implying that service providers and consumers interact more closely at all stages of their relationship (Dolnicar and Ring 2014).

In any case, innovation is vital in the experience economy, which deals with global, competitive, and changing markets, where customers often seek something new (Eide and Mossberg 2013). Consequently, the experience industries, such as the wellness tourism industry, need to respond to the increasing demand for experience-based products by constant innovations (Alsos et al. 2014). This does not only apply to new products and services, but also involves the physical, social, and symbolic aspects of the 'experiencescapes' as well as the various operations and processes before, during, and after the consumption experience (Eide and Mossberg 2013; Prebensen 2014). It seems that in the tourism literature, most studies follow the mainstream innovation theory, but there is an ongoing debate on whether it is also applicable in the experience industries (Alsos et al. 2014; Hjalager 2010).

Even though the service industry is generally considered as less innovative than the manufacturing- and technology-oriented industries, recent research has witnessed an increasing interest towards innovation within service and even experience contexts (Alsos et al. 2014; Eide and Mossberg 2013; Hjalager 2010; Prebensen 2014). Similarly, research on customer involvement and new service development has traditionally concentrated mainly on business-to-business context, but recently more studies have also addressed consumer services and experiences (e.g. Konu and Komppula 2016).

3   Wellness Tourism—Finland as a Source of Natural Well-Being

Health, well-being, and wellness are considered as focal themes of the product development and tourism marketing in the Nordic countries (e.g. Hjalager et al. 2011). By 2020, Finland, for example, aims to be the leading destination for natural well-being with offerings related to clean nature, Finnish sauna, traditional treatments, and local food (FTB 2014). The 'Nordic well-being' has also been addressed in the academic literature relating to research themes such as customer segmentation (e.g. Konu 2010; Pesonen et al. 2011), innovation and product development (e.g. Hjalager et al. 2011; Konu et al. 2010), and destination marketing (e.g. Björk et al. 2011; Huijbens 2011).

In Finland, the academic researchers have been closely involved in the national strategy work on wellbeing and wellness tourism. The strategies (FTB 2008, 2014) are based on the idea that health-related tourism (Fig. 2) is divided into medical/health care tourism and well-being tourism. The main motive for medical tourism is treating diseases and curing illnesses through medical procedures. The tourism related to occupational health care/workplace wellness is located between medical and well-being tourism, and can fall into either category depending on whether the aim is rehabilitation or prevention.

Well-being tourism, on the other hand, focuses on maintaining and enhancing health and well-being as well as on activities that offer pleasure, enjoyment, and pampering. It is divided into three product categories: Finrelax®, Health and fitness, and Pampering. *Finrelax*® includes elements of the getting away from everyday routines, relaxation, peace and nature as well as exploring Finnish culture through, e.g. retreats, Finnish sauna, and food. *Health and fitness* consists of different physical activities, professional training, and the use of Finnish wellness technology. *Pampering*, in turn, includes various traditional Finnish spa and beauty treatments and passive enjoyment which is closest to the international understanding of wellness tourism (Björk et al. 2011; FTB 2008, 2014).

As illustrated in Fig. 2, wellness is separated from well-being tourism as it goes beyond well-being and is firmly connected to high-quality service and luxury
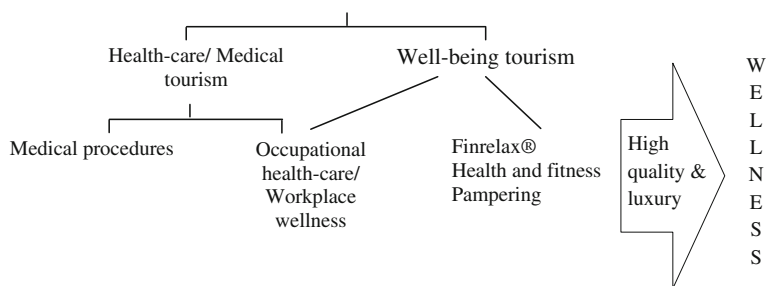

Fig. 2 Health-related tourism in Finland (FTB 2008, 2014)

settings (Konu et al. 2010). According to the Finnish Tourist Board (FTB 2008, 2014), the Finnish tourism products rarely meet the quality expectations of international wellness tourists and, therefore, the more wide-ranging term well-being is considered more appropriate when marketing Finnish tourism products. This conceptual confusion has also been widely discussed in the literature (Björk et al. 2011; Bushell and Sheldon 2009; Hjalager et al. 2011; Huijbens 2011; Konu et al. 2010; Smith and Puczkó 2009), in which the concepts of well-being and wellness are sometimes used synonymously, but most often distinguished from each other.

Based on the literature review of our previous study (Grénman and Räikkönen 2015), well-being and wellness both refer to the balance of physical, mental, and social well-being. Well-being, however, is frequently connected to material and economic factors (the standard of living, subsistence, education), more abstract aspects (freedom), and subjective facets (quality of life, happiness, life satisfaction). Tourism literature, in particular, emphasizes non-material well-being (getting away from the everyday routines, relaxation, peace, nature), but also refers to active enjoyment and indulgence (physical activity, professional training, technological equipment). Wellness, in turn, is understood as a lifestyle of self-discovery (self-responsibility, proactivity, conscious decision-making). Besides, it is often related to material well-being (concrete products and services, commerciality), and reflects hedonistic consumption and passive enjoyment (experiences, high-quality, pampering, indulgence, spa and beauty treatments). Interestingly, however, the results suggested that the tourism industry professionals were not able to differentiate between these concepts, but seemed to prefer wellness over well-being.

The conceptual debate might seem somewhat irrelevant for the wellness/well-being tourism industry. However, it is an important managerial issue because using wellness as a mere marketing gimmick and a fashionable catchword is likely to lead to false expectations and unsuccessful tourism experiences (Grénman and Räikkönen 2015; Mintel 2004). In other words, the concepts that are used in the tourism marketing, mediate meanings related to making, enabling, and keeping promises, which according to Grönroos (2006), play a key role in the value creation processes.

4 Method

Drawing on the theoretical discussion on experiential consumption and wellness tourism, the purpose of this study was to examine how tourism industry professionals view and prepare for the future of the wellness tourism industry. To answer this question, we first analyzed, what kind of tourism products, services, and experiences were currently offered to wellness tourists and, second, examined how the service providers were developing their offerings in order to respond to the needs and expectations of future wellness tourists.

The empirical data consisted of semi-structured interviews conducted at the Matka 2013 tourism fair in Helsinki (18 January 2013). The interviewees

(representing 19 organizations) were selected among the tourism fair exhibitors who, according to their own statement, operated in the wellness tourism sector. Additionally, three organizations were selected, as they were significant actors within the sector. From the total of 22 interviewees, 16 represented tourism businesses and 6 destination marketing organizations (DMOs). As acknowledged by Alsos et al. (2014), tourism innovation on firm- and destination-level is highly interdependent; firm-level innovation can be supported by activities at the destination-level, but destinations cannot succeed without successful firms.

The interviews were conducted by students taking the advanced level tourism research course at the Turku School of Economics. Some interviews were concise and strictly followed the predetermined structure, while others were more discursive, still covering all the themes. All interviews were recorded and transcribed. The interview questions were based on previous literature and encompassed themes related to the growing wellness tourism trend and its influence on the tourism business, the concepts used in wellness tourism marketing, current and future wellness tourism products and customer segments, the role of wellness tourism in the development and planning of business operations, and the support needed for developing wellness tourism in general.

Content analysis was applied to the data, and NVivo10 was used to index and coordinate the analysis. In order to avoid the potential research bias, we first, conducted two separate analyses, after which, the resulting themes were compared and combined in our common understanding.

5   Results

5.1   Classifying Wellness Tourism Offerings

In order to understand the current and future wellness tourism supply, we first classified the organizations according to the sector they operate in: Spas and hotels, Tour operators and travel agents, and DMOs. Second, we identified six product and service categories that emerged from the data: Spa and treatments (20 product references), Activities and fitness (19), Wellness tours and packages (11), Nature (10), Workplace wellness (4), Food (4), and Culture (4). These sectors and product and service categories are presented in Table 1.

The *Spas and hotels* included large spas and hotel chains, but also smaller actors, which offered accommodation and various treatments and activities in their own or their partners' spa-like facilities. The *Tour operators and travel agents* varied from large tour operators to small niche market actors offering different kinds of wellness tours and packages, mainly to the outbound tourism market. The *DMOs*, in turn, comprised of municipalities or larger tourism destination areas.

All spas and spa hotels offered somewhat similar wellness offerings but, interestingly, traditional spa and beauty treatments were rarely mentioned, while more creative offerings were emphasized. For example, the Finnish sauna and sauna

Table 1 Organizations according to the sectors and product and service categories

Sector	Organization	Product and service categories							Unique offerings e.g.
		Spa and treatments (20)	Activities andfitness (19)	Nature (10)	Workplace wellness (4)	Food (4)	Culture (4)	Wellness tours (11)	
Spas and hotels	Hotel Haikko Manor		X						Sleep products
	Kasnäs Archipelago Spa	X			X				Silent rooms
	Spa Hotel Päiväkumpu	X	X						Salt chambers
	Sunborn Group (Naantali and Ruissalo Spa)	X	X			X			Detox-packages
	Vanajanlinna	X	X			X			Golf, skiing, snowmobile safaris
	Imatra Spa	X	X	X	X				
	Koivuniemi Wellness Center	X	X	X	X		X		Natural treatments, sensory walks, celtic summer event
	Restel Hotel Group	X							
	Holiday Club	X		X	X				

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Sector	Organization	Product and service categories							Unique offerings
		Spa and treatments (20)	Activities and fitness (19)	Nature (10)	Workplace wellness (4)	Food (4)	Culture (4)	Wellness tours (11)	e.g.
Tour operators and travel agents	Oy Aurinkomatkat Suntours Ltd		X					X	Wellness package tours, spa hotels
	Matkavekka							X	Spa hotels
	Matkaseniorit/Blue Sky Travels							X	Senior wellness tours, yoga retreats
	Mr Travel							X	Spa hotels
	Oy Traveller Ab							X	China, trans-Siberian railway
	ATC Loistoristeilyt							X	Cruises
	Raya Group		X						Diving, snorkelling, fishing
DMOs	Loviisa								
	Somero		X				X		
	Vaasa	X		X			X		
	Parainen		X						
	Salla								
	Kaakko 135° (Porvoo)								

services were mentioned by only two respondents. The same applied to physical activities and fitness as, in addition to traditional fitness activities, new indoor activities were constantly introduced. Furthermore, nature was seen as a focal source of wellness experiences, which was illustrated by the wide variety of outdoor fitness activities, but also more passive nature-based products. This implies that the basic treatments and fitness offerings are indeed needed, but not sufficient on their own.

Also workplace wellness was an important product category for many spas, especially those that have grown out of the rehabilitation services. Surprisingly, only few respondents related food to wellness, even though healthy eating is one of the main sectors of the wellness industry and is also strongly emphasized in the Finnish tourism marketing (FTB 2014). Furthermore, culture in the form of historical events, museums, and concerts, was mentioned in some interviews.

The tour operators and travel agents offered wellness packages to traditional destinations, like Estonia, but also to more exotic destinations, like China. Some targeted wellness packages to a wide audience, while others concentrated on specific segments (e.g. senior travelers). Characteristically, the organizations relied on their partners for the supply of wellness products and services (e.g. spa hotels and cruise ships).

In contrast to the tourism firms, the ability of the DMOs to describe their wellness tourism offerings was surprisingly weak. They either understood wellness tourism from a very wide perspective, covering all kinds of activities and facilities, or could hardly name any wellness products or services within their destination. This result was somewhat confusing, as the organizations themselves had stated that they operated in the wellness tourism sector.

5.2 Constant Pressure for Future Innovation

Regarding the future wellness tourism market and competition, some interesting ideas emerged. First, wellness tourism was considered as a replacement for business tourism, which has been decreasing as the companies nowadays tend to have their own conference facilities and technologies. Second, the Russians were frequently mentioned and their potential was considered significant, especially in Eastern Finland. Interestingly, the Russians were also discussed in relation to workplace wellness as it seems that the domestic market is still in the early phases of development. Third, the increased supply of wellness tourism was well acknowledged, but not only in a positive light; it was stated that the number of tourists has even declined due to the fierce competition. Fourth, it was clear that mere spas were not sufficient anymore, as customers constantly require new experiences that stimulate both the body and the mind. Fifth, it seemed that innovation focused mainly on the level of single products and services, instead of wider processes or systems.

Most importantly, the results revealed the constant pressure for innovation. Nearly half of the respondents, all representing tourism businesses, emphasized the

requirement to develop something new, as described by the following quotes: '*It was small in the beginning, but we are increasing our supply and trying to come up with something new*' and '*We have to follow the global trends very carefully in order to keep up with the competition*'.

The pressure for innovation was even seen as a burden by many respondents, who questioned whether the service of their employees and the quality of their facilities were at an adequate level and felt pressure to invent something new and different: '*The customers are always asking, what new do you have for this year… You have to evolve all the time, all the time…Can't stay where you are. You need to find something new, otherwise someone else will overtake you.*' and '*We have to be the forerunner in what we offer, always one step ahead in knowing what the customers want. In a way, we have to be on our toes all the time.*' In sum, there is constant pressure to develop new products and services that meet the customers' expectations and offer them new experiences. At the same time, it should be noted that innovation is not an easy and straightforward process. In particular, the respondents expressed the need for assistance in understanding the future directions of the global wellness tourism industry.

6   Conclusion

In the current chapter, we have presented the wellness tourism industry as an example of the experience industry, and discussed wellness tourism experiences in the light of value creation and innovation. Through qualitative empirical data from the Finnish tourism industry, we first examined what kind of tourism offerings were offered to the current wellness tourists and, second, analyzed how the service providers were developing their offerings in order to respond to the needs and expectations of future wellness tourists.

The results can be summarized into two main themes, which also offer interesting managerial implications. First, the current supply of wellness tourism products and services seemed to follow the framework of health-related tourism (FTB 2014) as wellness offerings related to rest and relaxation, health and fitness as well as pampering were frequently addressed. In addition, wellness was related to the wider themes of nature, food, and culture highlighted by the current Finnish strategy of well-being and wellness tourism (FTB 2014). Interestingly, however, the specific characteristics of Finnish culture in terms of the Finnish sauna and treatments as well as local food were not described as the core of the wellness tourism offerings. This implies that in Finland, we seem to take our most valuable assets for granted and, thus, need to learn to better commodify and market e.g. the Finnish sauna tradition into concrete experience products. In addition, the results suggested that the current supply of wellness tourism offerings mainly emphasized physical and mental domains of wellness, largely ignoring the social domain. Yet, especially in tourism, the social dimension is central and offers various business opportunities as tourism is all about spending time with significant others.

In order to understand and fully benefit from the wellness trend, experience products need to originate from natural assets and local strengths, and also combine the physical, mental, and social aspects of wellness. To achieve this goal, collaboration between the tourism firms, DMOs, and research organizations is highly needed. As stated earlier, tourism destinations can support firm-level innovation, but not succeed without innovative tourism firms (Alsos et al. 2014). Accordingly, the valuable national and regional tourism development work becomes worthless if not communicated and executed properly at the industry level.

As regards the second theme, even though the theme of customer value was not directly addressed in the interviews, the 'experience economy logic' was frequently referred to indirectly. The societal macro-level change, described by the experience economy as a shift of value creation from the production and sale of mere physical products to the co-creation of experience value (Alsos et al. 2014), was probably best illustrated through the feeling of constant pressure for innovation. The needs and expectations of future wellness tourists, indeed, formed the basis of developing new products and services. However, innovation was discussed only in relation to the actual experiences, i.e. during, while the phases before and after the actual experience were totally ignored (Prebensen 2014). Furthermore, it seems that the firms tried to come up with new products and services to satisfy the customers' needs, instead of engaging them in the value creation processes through interaction and dialogue (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004; Vargo and Lusch 2004). This indicates a certain product (G-D logic) and service (S-D logic) focus instead of real customer centricity (C-D logic), which, in fact, is at the core of the entire wellness ideology. Notably, wellness is first and foremost about self-responsibility and proactive behavior towards a lifestyle of self-discovery, in which experiences and transformations emerge within the customers themselves.

Nevertheless, a certain understanding of the holistic wellness experience and the significance of the 'experiencescape' (Mossberg 2007) was identified as some respondents questioned whether their tourism businesses were able to mediate a specific 'spirit of wellness' through their personnel and environments. This accentuates the idea that tourism experiences are influenced by the physical and social surroundings and communicated by the story of the company. In the context of the wellness tourism industry, this story should reflect certain youthfulness, freshness, and proactivity towards a healthier lifestyle.

As with any study, there are certain limitations that need to be discussed. The sample of the study was rather small and limited to the Finnish context and, thus, the results as such cannot be applied to other contexts. In relation to the methodological limitations, the validity and reliability of the study were increased by the following actions: the interviewers were briefed in advance, structured interviews were used, all interviews were recorded and transcribed, and two researchers conducted the analysis. Additionally, although all interviewees may not have been the best candidates for a discussion on the future innovation of their organizations, they were, however, marketing their offerings at the tourism fair and were, thus, likely to possess adequate knowledge.

The current study emphasizes the significance of the experience economy logic in steering the value creation and innovation within the wellness tourism industry. Academically, this study increases the understanding on the booming wellness consumption trend in general, and especially in relation to the tourism industry, thus contributing to both the tourism and marketing literature. Additionally, it offers practical knowledge on the challenges related to developing new wellness tourism experience products. In addition to the increasing literature on customer involvement in value co-creation and innovation, we call for further research that integrates the holistic wellness ideology to the experience creation within tourism and other experience industries.

References

Alsos, G. A., Eide, D., & Madsen, E. L. (2014). Introduction: Innovation in tourism industries. In G. A. Alsos, D. Eide, & E. L. Madsen (Eds.), *Handbook of research on innovation in tourism industries* (pp. 1–24). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Björk, P., Tuohino, A., & Konu, H. (2011). Wellbeing tourism in Finland—A wide perspective. *The Finnish Journal of Tourism Research, 7*(2), 26–41.

Bushell, R., & Sheldon, P. (2009). *Wellness and tourism: Mind, body, spirit, place*. New York: Cognizant.

Darmer, P., & Sundbo, J. (2008). Introduction to experience creation. In J. Sundbo & P. Darmer (Eds.), *Creating experiences in the experience economy* (pp. 1–12). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

de Chavez, A., Backett-Milburn, K., Parry, O., & Platt, S. (2005). Understanding and researching wellbeing: Its usage in different disciplines and potential for health research and health promotion. *Health Education Journal, 64*(1), 70–87.

Dolnicar, S., & Ring, A. (2014). Tourism marketing research: Past, present and future. *Annals of Tourism Research, 47,* 31–47.

Eide, D., & Mossberg, L. (2013). Towards more intertwined innovation types: Innovation through experience design focusing on customer interactions. In J. Sundbo & F. Sørensen (Eds.), *Handbook on the experience economy* (pp. 248–268). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

FTB. (2008). Suomalaisen hyvinvointimatkailun kehittämisstrategia kansainvälisillä markkinoilla 2009–2013. http://www.visitfinland.fi/wpcontent/uploads/2013/04/2008-Hyvinvointimatkailun-kehitt%C3%A4misstrategia.pdf?dl. Accessed 4 Oct 2010.

FTB. (2014). Hyvinvointimatkailustrategia kansainvälisille markkinoille 2014–2018. http://www.visitfinland.fi/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/HYVINVOINTIMATKAILUSTRATEGIA-2014-2018_final1.pdf?dl. Accessed 2 Sep 2015.

Grénman, M., & Räikkönen, J. (2015). Well-being and wellness tourism—Same, same but different. Conceptual discussions and empirical evidence. *The Finnish Journal of Tourism Research, 11*(1), 7–25.

Grönroos, C. (2006). On defining marketing: Finding a new route map for marketing. *Marketing Theory, 6,* 395–417.

Grönroos, C., & Ravald, A. (2011). Service as business logic: Implications for value creation and marketing. *Journal of Service Management, 22*(1), 5–22.

Heinonen, K., Strandvik, T., Mickelsson, K.-J., Edvarsson, B., Sundström, E., & Andersson, P. (2010). A customer dominant logic of service. *Journal of Service Management, 21*(4), 531–548.

Hjalager, A. M. (2010). A review of innovation research in tourism. *Tourism Management, 31*(1), 1–12.

Hjalager, A.-M., Konu, H., Huijbens, E., Björk, P., Flagestad, A., Nordin, S., et al. (2011). *Innovating and re-branding Nordic wellbeing tourism*. Oslo: Nordic Innovation Centre.

Hjalager, A. M., & Nordin, S. (2011). User-driven innovation in tourism—A review of methodologies. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, 12*(4), 289–315.

Huijbens, E. (2011). Developing wellness in Iceland: Theming wellness destinations the Nordic way. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 11*(1), 20–41.

Jensen, R. (1999). *The dream society*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Knutson, B. J., Beck, J. A., Kim, S., & Cha, J. (2007). Identifying the dimensions of the experience construct. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 15*(3), 31–48.

Konu, H. (2015). Developing a forest-based wellbeing tourism product together with customers—An ethnographic approach. *Tourism Management, 49,* 1–16.

Konu, H. (2010). Identifying potential wellbeing tourism segments in Finland. *Tourism Review, 65*(2), 41–51.

Konu, H., & Komppula, R. (2016). Customer involvement in a new service development process: The case of "Feelgood in Lapland". *Anatolia,* 1–12.

Konu, H., Tuohino, A., & Komppula, R. (2010). Lake wellness: A practical example of a new service development (NSD) concept in tourism industries. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 16*(2), 125–139.

Li, X. R., & Petrick, J. F. (2008). Tourism marketing in an era of paradigm shift. *Journal of Travel Research, 46*(3), 235–244.

Miller, G., & Foster, L. (2010). Critical synthesis of wellness literature. http://www.geog.uvic.ca/wellness/Critical_Synthesis%20of%20Wellness%20Update.pdf. Accessed 4 Oct 2010.

Mintel. (2004). *Health and wellness tourism: Global travel & tourism analyst*. London: Mintel.

Mossberg, L. (2007). A marketing approach to tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(1), 59–74.

Müller, H., & Lanz Kaufmann, E. (2001). Wellness tourism: Market analysis of a special health tourism segment and implications for the hotel industry. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 7*(1), 5–17.

Nilsen, B. T., & Dale, B. E. (2013). Defining and categorizing experience industries. In J. Sundbo & F. Sørensen (Eds.), *Handbook on the experience economy* (pp. 65–97). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Pesonen, J., Laukkanen, T., & Komppula, R. (2011). Benefit segmentation of potential wellbeing tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 17*(4), 303–314.

Pilzer, P. (2007). *The new wellness revolution* (2nd ed.). Hoboken: Wiley.

Pine, J., & Gilmore, J. (1999). *The experience economy: Work is theatre every business a stage*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Pizam, A. (2010). Creating memorable experiences. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 29*(3), 343.

Prahalad, C. K., & Ramaswamy, V. (2004). *The future of competition: Co-creating unique value with customers*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Prebensen, N. K. (2014). Facilitating for enhanced experience value. In G. A. Alsos, D. Eide, & E. L. Madsen (Eds.), *Handbook of research on innovation in tourism industries* (pp. 154–180). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Prebensen, N. K., Vittersø, J., & Dahl, T. I. (2013). Value co-creation significance of tourist resources. *Annals of Tourism Research, 42,* 240–261.

Smith, M., & Puczkó, L. (2009). *Health and wellness tourism*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

SRI International. (2010). Global Spa Summit, Spas and the Global Wellness Market: Synergies and Opportunities. http://www.globalspasummit.org/images/stories/pdf/gss_sri_spasandwellnessreport_rev_82010.pdf. Accessed 4 Oct 2010.

SRI International. (2014). Global Wellness Institute, Global Spa & Wellness Economy Monitor, September 2014.

Sundbo, J. (2009). Innovation in the experience economy. A taxonomy of innovation organizations. *The Service Industries Journal, 29*(4), 431–455.

Sundbo, J., & Darmer, P. (2008). *Creating experiences in the experience economy*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Sundbo, J., Orfila-Sintes, F., & Sørensen, F. (2007). The innovative behaviour of tourism firms—Comparative studies of Denmark and Spain. *Research Policy, 36*(1), 88–106.

Travis, J. (1972). The Illness-Wellness Continuum. http://www.thewellspring.com/wellspring/introduction-to-wellness/357/key-concept-1-the-illnesswellness-continuum.cfm. Accessed 4 Oct 2010.

Vargo, S., & Lusch, R. (2004). Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 68*(1), 1–17.

The Relationship Between Travel Motives and Customer Value Among Wellness Tourists

Ana Težak Damijanić and Ninoslav Luk

Abstract The purpose of this chapter is to examine customer value in the context of travel motivations. The goal of this chapter is to determine the relationship between the dimensions of customer value amongst wellness tourists and push and pull motivation factors. Data was collected through self-complete questionnaire on a sample of tourists staying in one out of 15 wellness hotels situated in four wellness tourism regions of Republic of Croatia. Research was conducted from May through June in 2013. Data was processed using statistical methods consisting of univariate and multivariate statistics. Univariate statistics was used to provide a general description of the sample. Regression analysis was used for testing the relationship between travel motives and customer value. In general, travel motives were significant in relation to the dimensions of customer value. Some differences were determined between travel motives in regard to the dimensions of functional value, however, they are less significant compared with differences related to social value and travel motives. The results of the research highlight important issues regarding guests' perspective of customer value in wellness hotels in relation to their travel motives.

1   Introduction

Customer value presents an excellent concept for marketing in tourism. It is the foundation of all effective marketing activities (Holbrook 2006), so it is accordingly considered as one of the central marketing issues (Kotler and Keller 2006). The importance of the creation and delivery of customer value through marketing may present a basis for achieving competitive advantage (Woodruff 1997) because it enables a business entity to understand its customers' needs better than its competition does. This may result in the creation of a unique product offering. Achieving competitive advantage is becoming a very important requirement for

A. Težak Damijanić (✉) · N. Luk
Institute of Agriculture and Tourism, Poreč, Croatia
e-mail: tezak@iptpo.hr

tourism business entities. Therefore, tourism business entities must consider the desires, needs, expectations and behaviour of tourists (Hallab 2006) and focus their marketing efforts on providing superior customer value.

Customer value amongst tourists is usually researched either from a utilitarian point of view by focusing on the relationship among customer value and variables like satisfaction, quality, word-of-mouth and behavioural intentions (Chen 2008; Duman and Mattila 2005; Hutchinson et al. 2009; Kashyap and Bojanic 2000; Pandža Bajs 2015; Ruy et al. 2008) or as a multidimensional concept (Al-Sabbahy et al. 2004; Gallarza and Gil 2008; Holbrook 2006; Jamal et al. 2011; Lee et al. 2007; Nasution and Mavondo 2008; Petrick and Backman 2002; Petrick 2002, 2004a, b; Prebensen et al. 2012, 2013; Sánchez et al. 2006; Sweeney and Soutar 2001; Williams and Soutar 2000) that aims to overcome some of the problems of the first approach.

Research on the multidimensionality of customer value has been mostly focused on developing appropriate measurement scales that were based on different theoretical approaches. Some research focused on determining differences between first time and repeat visitors (Petrick 2004a) and determining antecedents of the customer value (Prebensen et al. 2012, 2013) where motivation was identified as an important variable. However, the latter research focused on the relationship between push motivation factors and customer value.

This research builds upon research by Prebensen et al. (2012, 2013) and the definition of customer value proposed by Woodruff (1997) in which customer value is linked to product attributes that are considered as motivation factors (Dunne et al. 2007; Jönsson and Devonish 2008; Kozak 2002; Lubbe 2003). The purpose of this chapter is to examine customer value in the context of travel motivation. The goal of this chapter is to determine the relationship between the dimensions of customer value amongst wellness tourists and push and pull motivation factors.

2   Literature Review

Customer value represents a trade-off between what a customer gives up or "sacrifices", e.g. price, time, effort and risk, and what the customer receives, e.g. benefit or quality (Kashyap and Bojanic 2000; Woodruff 1997; Zeithaml 1988). Thus, it may be defined in four different ways: (1) value is low price, (2) value is whatever I want in a product/service, (3) value is the quality I get for the price I pay and (4) value is what I get for what I give (Zeithaml 1988).

In the context of tourism, customer value is treated either as a unidimensional or a multidimensional construct, so that two main streams of customer value research in the tourism industry can be identified. The first group approaches customer value as an overall perceived value of a particular product/service (Chen 2008; Duman and Mattila 2005; Kashyap and Bojanic 2000; Ruy et al. 2008), while the second group adopts a multidimensional approach to customer value (Gallarza and Gil 2008;

Holbrook 2006; Petrick 2002; Sánchez et al. 2006; Sweeney and Soutar 2001; Williams and Soutar 2000), which is adopted in this research, as well.

The first approach defines customer value from the utilitarian point of view and focuses on the relationship among customer value and other variables. Satisfaction, quality, word-of-mouth and behavioural intentions (Chen 2008; Duman and Mattila 2005; Hutchinson et al. 2009; Kashyap and Bojanic 2000; Pandža Bajs 2015; Ruy et al. 2008) are usually the variables that are examined in relation to customer value. The second approach focuses on dimensions of customer value (Jamal et al. 2011; Nasution and Mavondo 2008; Petrick 2002; Sánchez et al. 2006), taking into account the characteristics of services and tourism. The latter approach to customer value was developed in order to overcome some of the problems of the first approach, particularly its excessive concentration on economic utility (Zeithaml 1988, from Sánchez et al. 2006) and to adapt to the new theoretical development in the area of customer behaviour (Sánchez et al. 2006).

Works on the dimensions of customer value can be divided into five categories based on the initial theoretical approach employed: (1) theory of consumption value (Prebensen et al. 2012, 2013; Sánchez et al. 2006; Sheth et al. 1991; Sweeney and Soutar 2001; Williams and Soutar 2000, 2009); (2) transaction and acquisition value (Al-Sabbahy et al. 2004; Petrick and Backman 2002); (3) scale for measuring the multidimensionality of customer value in the service context (Nasution and Mavondo 2008; Petrick 2002, 2004a, b); (4) consumption experience (Gallarza and Gil 2008; Holbrook 2006; Komppula and Gartner 2013) and (5) methods combining different previously mentioned approaches (Gallarza and Saura 2006; Jamal et al. 2011; Lee et al. 2007).

Customer value research in the tourism industry is mainly based on the concept of perceived value (Chen 2008; Petrick 2002; Ruy et al. 2008; Sánchez et al. 2006). There are different definitions of what perceived value is Holbrook (2006), Woodall (2003), Woodruff (1997), but three commonalities of the definition stand out (Woodruff 1997): it is inherent in or linked through the use of some product (service); it is perceived by the customers (tourists, guests); and perceptions usually involve some kind of trade-off between what is given and what is received. Furthermore, Woodruff (1997) links customer value to product attributes by defining customer value as:

> A customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those products attributes, attribute performances and consequences arising from use that facilitates achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situations (Woodruff 1997, p. 142).

The link between product attributes and motivation factors is also supported by Lubbe (2003), who linked tangible and intangible attributes of tourist products to push and pull motivation factors. Motivation as an antecedent of the customer value was also examined by Prebensen et al. (2012, 2013) who confirmed the existence of this link.

Motivations, in general, are considered as inner drives that cause people to take action to satisfy their needs (Hudson 2008). Motivations in the context of tourism

can be analysed through a behavioural marketing approach or as simple groupings of the reasons for different types of travel that share some common characteristics (Middleton and Clarke 2001). Within the behavioural approach, many theories have been proposed (Awaritefe 2004; Chang 2007; Hudson 2008), e.g. (1) behavioural theory of travel motivation that includes two theories, i.e. "sunlust" and "wanderlust", and Cohen's fourfold classification of tourists based on the traveller's role in terms of institutionalised/non-institutionalised behaviours and the mass organised/individually organised types of travel; (2) Dann's theory of classified purpose; (3) Iso-Ahola theory of personal and/or interpersonal experiences in destination settings; (4) McIntosh and Goeldner's theory of auto-definitions and meanings; (5) Pearce's Travel Careers Ladder based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, etc. However, the theory of push and pull motivations is the most widely applied motivation theory in tourism.

The theory of push and pull motivations distinguishes between two main groups of factors that motivate tourists to travel: push factors and pull factors. Push factors refer to internal forces that motivate or create a desire to satisfy a need to travel, while pull factors are recognised as destination attributes (Kozak 2002; Lubbe 2003). Both groups of motivation factors are delineated by various dimensions. Numerous researchers have determined different dimensions of push and pull motivation factors, e.g. escape (Crompton 1979; McGehee et al. 1996; Uysal and Jurowski 1993; Yoon and Uysal 2005), relaxation (Crompton 1979; Kozak 2002; McGehee et al. 1996), education (Crompton 1979; Yoon and Uysal 2005), heritage and culture (Kozak 2002; McGehee et al. 1996; Uysal and Jurowski 1993); and comfort (McGehee et al. 1996). This theory is also used for analysing the travel motives of wellness tourists (Bennett et al. 2004; Hallab 2006; Konu and Laukkanen 2009; Mak et al. 2009; Mueller and Lanz Kaufmann 2001).

In analysis of travel motives in wellness tourism, certain scholars have adopted the push and pull motives (Azman and Chan 2010; Hallab 2006), while others have been more interested in analysing only push motives (Konu and Laukkanen 2009; Mak et al. 2009). Some research has focused on e.g. benefits for wellness tourists (Voigt et al. 2011) that may serve to gain better insights into potential wellness travel motives. Hallab (2006) found five push motives, i.e. healthy living, excitement, education, indulgence and escape, and five pull motives, i.e. health and fitness, hygiene and the environment, history and nature, vigilance and health, and arts and urban luxury. Mak et al. (2009) found five push motives: friendship and kinship, health and beauty, self-reward and indulgence, relaxation and relief, and escape. Konu and Laukkanen (2009) determined seven motivational factors: self-development, healthy and physical activity, relation and escape, isolation and nostalgia, nature, autonomy and stimulation, and social status. Azman and Chan (2010) determined three push motives, i.e. escape—relay and pamper, distress/time out, and regeneration, and two pull motives, i.e. tangible resources and marketing image.

3   Method

The main research study was conducted from May through June in 2013. The target population included those tourists who visited hotels offering wellness as an additional tourist product. For the purpose of sampling, a list of hotels that were members of the Croatian Wellness Tourism Association was obtained. In 2012, a total of 65 hotels in Croatia were members of this Association (Wellness Tourism Association 2012), and Croatia was divided into 10 regions. Most of the hotels were situated in Istria and Kvarner regions (16 hotels in each region), while the Dubrovnik and Split regions were second (9 hotels in each region). Hotels were mostly categorised as four-star hotels (40 hotels), while only 17 hotels had five stars. Regional dispersion and hotel category were used in designing the sample. The hotels where the research was conducted were situated in the Istria, Kvarner, Split, and Dubrovnik regions. A minimum sample size of 300 responders was set. The survey was carried out in 15 hotels. Hotel guests were approached by the researcher and asked to participate in the survey. The researcher explained the purpose of the survey, stated that the survey was anonymous, and handed out a questionnaire in the appropriate language. In the process of onsite data collection, the researcher was stationary while the responders were mobile (Veal 2006). Data was collected through self-complete questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions that were divided into four sections: (1) attitudes regarding healthy lifestyle, (2) perceived value, (3) travel motives, and (4) respondents' characteristics. It was originally designed in Croatian and then back-translated into English, German, Italian, Russian, French, Spanish, and Slovenian.

Data was processed using statistical methods consisting of univariate and multivariate statistics. Univariate statistics was used to provide a general description of the sample. Regression analysis was used for testing the relationship between travel motives and customer value. Independent variables were nine travel motives and dependent variables were dimensions of customer value. Prior to the conduction regression analysis, factor analysis was done on items measuring customer value, and push and pull motivation factors using principal axis factor analysis and direct oblimin rotation with an eigenvalue of 1.00 or more being used to identify potential factors. Internal reliability was determined by computing Cronbach's alpha. Travel motivation a factors and dimensions of customer value were calculated as a mean value for each respondent (DiStefano et al. 2009). Appropriate regression diagnostics were performed (Baum 2006; Breusch and Pagan 1979; Parlow 2011; Ramsey 1969).

For measuring the travel motives and perceived customer value, a five-point Likert scale (1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree") was used. Items measuring travel motives were divided into two main groups based on the theory of push and pull motivation factors. A total of 18 items were used for measuring push factors (Bennett et al. 2004; Kim and Batra 2009; Koh et al. 2010; Konu and Laukkanen 2009; Mak et al. 2009; Monteson and Singer 2004; Pesonen et al. 2011; Voigt et al. 2011). Pull factors were divided into two sub-groups: wellness tourist

product and tourist destination. A total of 24 items were used for measuring the first group of pull factors (Andrijašević and Bartoluci 2004; Bennett et al. 2004; Mak et al. 2009; Mueller and Lanz Kaufmann 2001; Pesonen et al. 2011), while 20 items (Awaritefe 2004; Crompton 1979; Jönsson and Devonish 2008; Kozak 2002; McGehee et al. 1996; Yoon and Uysal 2005) were used for measuring the second group.

In measuring customer value, a multidimensional approach was used. The theory of the consumption value was used as a framework, and items used for measuring customer value were adopted from this theory. Customer value was examined through three main groups of value: functional value (hotel, personal, quality, and price); social value; and emotional value (Sánchez et al. 2006; Sheth et al. 1991; Sweeney and Soutar 2001; Williams and Soutar 2009). However, items used for measuring the customer value dimension used in other theories (Al-Sabbahy et al. 2004; Jamal et al. 2011; Lee et al. 2007; Nasution and Mavondo 2008; Petrick 2002, 2004a, b) were also taken into account during the selection of items representing this structure. Individual items were modified in order to better fit this target market. The modifications were based on the literature related to wellness tourism products. In this process, the guidelines for scale construction in tourism proposed by Hinkin et al. (1997) were used. This scale was tested through a pilot research study that was conducted from 23rd December 2011 to 6th January 2012 in five hotels. Wellness hotels were situated in Istria County and were open during the holidays. A minimal sample size was set at 150 acceptable questionnaires in total (Field 2005; Hinkin et al. 1997). The results obtained through pilot research were used for modifications on the scales measuring healthy lifestyle and customer value. Based on these results, four functional values and one social value were identified.

4 Results

A total of 548 responders were used in the analysis. On average, 37 questionnaires were collected per hotel. Most of the responders stayed in four-star hotels. The proportion of female responders (56%) was slightly higher than that of males (44%) (Table 1). The majority of responders were between 35 and 54 years of age (48%). Most of then had obtained higher education (68%). Generally, the responders were employees (45%), 16% were self-employed, and approximately 14% were managers. Most of them were from Austria (23%) and Germany (23%), almost 11% were from the UK, and about 10% originated from Italy. The most frequent monthly net income was between €1000 and €2000 (38%).

Three factors representing push motivation factors formed clear factor structures (Table 2). Jointly they accounted for 51.11% of accumulated variance and were labelled as health trend, relaxation and award, and novelty. Health trends included inner drivers like desire to improve one's fitness level, health, etc.; relaxation and award encompassed various items regarding one's desire to de-stress in a peaceful

Table 1 Sample characteristics

Characteristics	Percent (%)	Characteristics	Percent (%)
Age (M 44.4; SD 13.86)		*Country of origin*	
16–24	7.1	Austria	22.6
25–34	21.3	Croatia	6.8
35–44	22.4	Italy	10.3
45–54	25.2	Germany	22.6
55+	24.0	Russia	6.4
Education		Slovenia	8.6
Basic education	3.4	United Kingdom	10.7
Secondary education	28.5	Other	12.1
College	25.8	*Personal net monthly income*	
University	29.0	Up to €500	2.0
Masters	9.5	500–€1000	9.3
Ph.D.	3.8	1000–€2000	31.6
Profession		2000–€3000	19.7
Self-employed/freelance	16.0	3000–€4000	9.9
Manager	14.3	4000–€5000	3.1
Employee	45.4	Over €5000	7.6
Retired	11.0	Private (n/a)	16.8
Other	13.2	*Length of stay in hotel*	
Gender		Up to 3 days	19.8
Female	56.4	4–7 days	50.1
Male	43.6	8 days and more	30.1

Source Data processed by authors

place, a feeling of getting a reward for one's hard work back home, etc.; and novelty included inner drivers related to experiencing new things.

From the aspect of wellness as tourist products, three factors formed a clear factor structure (Table 2). They jointly accounted for 58.85% of accumulated variance and were labelled basic wellness, intangible wellness, and extra wellness. Basic wellness included aspects like massage, sauna; intangible wellness encompassed various items that correspond to intangible aspects of tourist products, e.g. atmosphere, interactions; and extra wellness included attributes like detoxification, Tai Chi, etc.

Three factors representing pull motivation factors on tourist destination level formed a clear factor structure (Table 2). Jointly they accounted for 53.95% of accumulated variance and were labelled as cultural and natural heritage, entertainment and recreation, and landscape. Cultural and natural heritage included items connected to different cultural places, e.g. museums, exhibitions, and natural sites like protected areas; entertainment and recreation encompassed different kinds of entertainment and recreation possibilities; and landscape covered different items like climate, picturesque landscape, etc.

Table 2 Results of exploratory factor analysis for travel motives and customer value

Composite variable	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha	% Accumulated variance
Push motivation factors			
Health trend	7	0.888	34.162
Relaxation and award	4	0.733	44.377
Novelty	3	0.759	51.113
Pull motivation factors—wellness tourist product			
Basic wellness	7	0.912	42.718
Intangible wellness	4	0.800	54.217
Extra wellness	6	0.881	58.852
Pull motivation factors—tourist destination			
Cultural and natural heritage	6	0.877	35.542
Entertainment and recreation	6	0.850	46.530
Landscape	4	0.767	53.948
Customer value			
Functional value: personnel	7	0.922	40.905
Social value: prestige	6	0.861	50.220
Functional value: value for money	7	0.922	56.598
Functional value: hotel quality	8	0.907	60.427

Source Data processed by authors

Four factors representing customer value formed clear factor structures (Table 2). Jointly they accounted for 64.43% of accumulated variance. They were labelled as personnel, prestige, value for money, and hotel quality. Personnel included various items related to interactions of hotel staff with guests and their knowledge about various services; value for money covered items like appropriateness of prices compared to the services; factor hotel quality focused on consistency and quality level of hotel; and prestige included items like status symbol and opinion regarding how other people perceive the guest.

The relationships between motivation factors and dimensions of customer value were tested using regression analysis (Table 3). Four models were analysed. All four models were significant, suggesting that travel motives were significant in relation to a particular dimension of customer value. However, regression models had rather low R-squared value, indicating a low representativeness of the independent variable. Regression diagnostics included test on multicollinearity (VIF), heteroscedasticity (Breusch–Pagan test), and specification errors (Ramsey RESET test). The VIF varied from 1.397 to 2.538, indicating some correlation, but it was not big enough to be overly concerned about multicollinearity (Baum 2006). The Breusch–Pagan test was significant in the first and the last model, so they were corrected using robust standard errors (Parlow 2011). The Ramsey RESET test was significant for the last model, suggesting that certain important variables had been omitted.

Table 3 Results of regression analysis

Variables	Model 1		Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	
	Original	Corrected			Original	Corrected
Constant	2.108***	2.108***	1.566***	1.506***	2.395***	2.395***
Health trend	0.024	0.024	0.360***	0.104*	0.043	0.043
Relaxation and award	0.085*	0.085*	0.011	0.096*	0.117**	0.117**
Novelty	0.093*	0.093*	0.086	0.053	−0.001	−0.001
Basic wellness	−0.046	−0.046	−0.002	0.043	0.009	0.009
Extra wellness	0.012	0.012	0.125*	−0.073	−0.060	−0.060
Intangible wellness	0.235***	0.235***	0.027	0.282***	0.171***	0.171**
Cultural and natural heritage	−0.025	−0.025	−0.116*	−0.078	−0.057	−0.057
Entertainment and recreation	0.150***	0.150***	0.174**	0.119**	0.152***	0.152***
Landscape	0.025	0.025	−0.177**	0.070	0.102*	0.102*
F statistics	15.59***	14.38***	24.14***	16.57***	15.68***	8.70***
R^2	0.207		0.288	0.217	0.208	
RESET test	1.94		2.47	2.48	9.01***	
Breusch–Pagan test	28.84***		1.84	0.94	57.50***	

Note *significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. **significant at $\alpha = 0.01$. ***significant at $\alpha = 0.001$
Source Data processed by authors

The first regression analysed the relationship between motivation factors and personnel. Four motivation factors were significant in relation to personnel as a functional dimension of customer value. Two of the factors were push motives (Relaxation and award, and Novelty) and two were pull motives (Intangible wellness, and Entertainment and recreation). The second regression considered the relationship between motivation factors and prestige. One push motive (Health trend) and three pull motives (Extra wellness, Cultural and natural heritage, Entertainment and recreation, and Landscape) were significant in relation to prestige. The relationship between motivation factors and value for money was analysed in the third regression. In relation to value for money, two push motives (Health trend, and Relaxation and award) and two pull motives (Intangible wellness, and Entertainment and recreation) were significant. In the fourth regression, the relationship between motivation factors and hotel quality was examined. One push motive (Relaxation and award) and three pull motives (Intangible wellness, Entertainment and recreation, and Landscape) were significant variables.

Through the analysis of the relation between travel motives and customer value, a few main implications emerged. Both groups of motivation factors, i.e. push and pull motives, were significant in relation to the dimensions of customer value. Relaxation and award as a push motivation factor was important in relation to functional dimensions of customer value, while health trend was significant in regard to prestige. Health trend was also significant in relation to value for money. Novelty was significant only in regard to personnel. Considering the wellness

tourist product as a part of the pull motivation factors, intangible wellness was a significant variable in relation to personnel, "value for money" feeling, and hotel quality, suggesting that those intangible aspects like atmosphere, host-guest interaction, etc. increase positive perception of value. Extra wellness was important in relation to prestige. Basic wellness as a base of the wellness tourist product was not a significant variable in relation to dimensions of customer value. However, this does not imply that the lack of basic elements of wellness like massage and sauna, may not have a negative impact on how customers perceive value.

Pull motivation factors on tourist destination level were also important factors especially in regard to prestige. Entertainment and recreation was a significant variable for all dimensions of customer value (functional and social dimensions), while cultural and natural heritage was only significant in the case of prestige as a form of the social dimension of customer value. Besides being an important factor for prestige, landscape was also a significant factor in regard to hotel quality, which suggests that aspects like tidiness and cleanliness of the hotel may also extend to the location where the hotel is situated. These findings confirm the importance of experience in the context of tourism (Gallarza and Gil 2008; Holbrook 2006). Considering motivation as an antecedent of customer value, the theory of push and pull motivators was used in testing its relation to the dimensions of customer value. Both groups of motivation factors (pull and push factors) were important in regard to dimensions of customer value, confirming the results obtained by Komppula and Gartner (2013) and Prebensen et al. (2012, 2013) as well as supporting assumptions made by Dunne et al. (2007), Jönsson and Devonish (2008), Kozak (2002), and Lubbe (2003) that link pull motivators as product attributes to customer value (Woodruff 1997).

5 Conclusion

Customer value as a foundation of effective marketing activities in tourism is an important tool of a particular tourism business entity or a tourist destination in achieving competitive advantage. Customer value is a complex process the consequences of which have been well determined. However, research on the antecedents of the customer value is still in its initial stages.

This research focuses on guests' perspective of customer value in wellness hotels in relation to travel motives, and the results highlight important issues in this relationship that may enable improvements in host-guest interactions. In general, push and pull travel motives are important factors in regard to customer value, suggesting that those two groups of motives are inseparable. This research examined two main dimensions of customer value, i.e. functional value (delineated by three values: personnel, value for money, and hotel quality) and social value (represented as prestige). Although there are some differences between travel motives in regard to the dimensions of functional value, they are less significant compared with differences related to social value and travel motives.

In the case of dimensions of functional value, intangible aspects of wellness tourism products stand out as very important attributes in wellness hotels, suggesting a need to maintain or improve those features in order to preserve or improve customer value. Relaxation and award as inner drivers that motivate tourists to take a vacation are also important factors for functional dimensions of customer value. This is probably due to the fact that this motive may be linked to intangible aspects of wellness. A pull motive on the level of tourism destination labelled Entertainment and recreation, is almost as significant for functional values as are intangible aspects of wellness tourism products. Although this motivation factor was measured on the level of tourism destination, it may also be considered on the level of a particular hotel. For prestige, as a form of social value, health trend as an inner driver is an extremely important motive. Significant motives for this value are also additional wellness services offered by the hotels and different attributes of the tourism destination.

Tourists staying in a particular tourism business entity, i.e. hotels offering wellness as an additional tourism product, were the main focus of this research. The research was conducted during preseason and included hotels situated in four wellness regions in the coastal part of the Republic of Croatia. Based on the previously mentioned limitations, the results may not be generalised to the overall tourist market, wellness tourism in general, or other seasons. The RESET test, as a general misspecification test, suggests that certain important variables related to hotel quality were omitted. Future research may focus on other facilities that offer wellness services, e.g. spas, or may be extended to include other seasons (primarily the main season). The relation between travel motives and customer value may be applied to other tourist segments based on the special interests of tourists. Since travel motives are only one of the antecedents of customer value, future research may include other important antecedents in order to improve the models analysed in this chapter.

References

Al-Sabbahy, H. Z., Ekinci, Y., & Riley, M. (2004). An investigation of perceived value dimension: Implication for hospitality research. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(3), 226–234.

Andrijašević, M., & Bartoluci, M. (2004). The role of wellness in contemporary tourism. *Acta Turistica, 16*(2), 125–142.

Awaritefe, O. D. (2004). Motivations and other considerations in tourism destination choice: A case study of nigeria. *Tourism Geographies, 6*(3), 303–330.

Azman, I., Chan, K. L. J. (2010). Health and Spa tourism business: Tourists' profiles and motivational factors. *Health, wellness and tourism: Healthy tourists, healthy business? Proceedings of the Travel and Tourism Research Association Europe 2010.* 9–24.

Baum, C. F. (2006). *An Introduction to modern econometrics using STATA.* College Station: Stata Press.

Bennett, M., King, B., & Milner, L. M. (2004). The health resort sector in Australia: A positioning study. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 10*(2), 122–137.

Breusch, T. S., & Pagan, A. R. (1979). A simple test for heteroscedasticity and random coefficient variation. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society, 47*(5), 1287–1294.

Chang, J. C. (2007). Travel motivation of package tour travellers. *Tourism., 55*(2), 159–176.

Chen, C. F. (2008). Investigating structural relationship between service quality, perceived value, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions for air passengers: Evidence from Taiwan. *Transport Research Part A: Policy and Practice., 42*(4), 709–717.

Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacations. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6*(4), 408–424.

DiStefano, C., Zhu, M., & Mîndrilă, D. (2009). Understanding and using factor scores: Considerations for the applied research. *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation, 14*(20), 1–11.

Duman, T., & Mattila, A. S. (2005). The role of affective factors on perceived cruise vacation value. *Tourism Management, 26*(3), 311–323.

Dunne, G., Buckley, J., & Flanagan, S. (2007). City break travel motivation—The case of Dublin-A successful national capital. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Research, 22*(3&4), 95–107.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publication Ltd.

Gallarza, M. G., & Gil, I. (2008). The concept of value and its dimensions: A tool for analysing tourism experiences. *Tourism Review, 63*(3), 4–20.

Gallarza, M. G., & Saura, I. G. (2006). Value dimensions, perceived value, satisfaction and loyalty: An Investigation of university students' travel behaviour. *Tourism Management, 27*(3), 437–452.

Hallab, Z. (2006). Catering to the healthy-living vacationer. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 12*(1), 71–91.

Hinkin, T. R., Tracey, J. B., & Enz, C. A. (1997). Scale construction: Developing reliable and valid measurement instruments. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 21*(1), 100–120.

Holbrook, M. B. (2006). Consumption experience, customer value, and subjective personal introspection: An illustrative photographic essay. *Journal of Business Research, 59*(6), 714–725.

Hudson, S. (2008). *Tourism and hospitality marketing: A global perspective*. London: Sage.

Hutchinson, J., Lai, F., & Wang, Y. (2009). Understanding the relationship of quality, value, equity, satisfaction and behavioral intentions among golf travelers. *Tourism Management, 30*(2), 298–308.

Jamal, S. A., Othnam, N. A., & Nik Muhamed, N. M. (2011). Tourist perceived value in a community-based home-stay visit: An investigation into functional and experiential aspect of value. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 17*(1), 5–15.

Jönsson, C., & Devonish, D. (2008). Does nationality, gender, and age affect travel motivations? A case of visitors to the Caribbean Island of Barbados. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 25*(3–4), 398–408.

Kashyap, R., & Bojanic, D. C. (2000). A structural analysis of value, Quality and price perceptions on business and leisure travellers. *Journal of Travel Research, 39*(1), 45–51.

Kim, B. H. & Batra, A. (2009). Healthy-living behavior status and motivational characteristics of foreign tourists to visit wellness facilities in Bangkok. In: The 2nd Annual PSU Phuket Research Conference Proceedings, 1–8, available at http://www.conference.phuket.psu.ac.th/PSU_OPEN_WEEK_2009/data/Hospltality/Paper6.pdf. Accessed: 4 June 2010.

Koh, S., Yoo, J. J. E., & Boger, C. A., Jr. (2010). Importance-performance analysis with benefit segmentation of spa goers. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 22*(5), 718–735.

Komppula, R., & Gartner, W. C. (2013). Hunting as a travel experience: An auto-ethnographic study of hunting tourism in Finland and the USA. *Tourism Management, 35*, 168–180.

Konu, H. & Laukkanen, T. (2009). Roles of motivation factors in predicting tourists' intentions to make wellbeing holidays—A finnish case. In: ANZMAC 2009, available at: http://www.duplication.net.au/ANZMAC09/Papers.html#K. Accessed 4 June 2010.

Kotler, P., & Keller, K. L. (2006). *Marketing management* (12th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Kozak, M. (2002). Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destination. *Tourism Management, 23*(3), 221–232.

Lee, C. K., Yoon, Y. S., & Lee, S. K. (2007). Investigating the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, and recommendations: The case of the Korean DMZ. *Tourism Management, 28*(1), 204–214.

Lubbe, B. A. (2003). *Tourism management in Southern Africa*. Cape Town: Pearson Education South Africa.

Mak, A. H. N., Wong, K. K. F., & Chang, R. C. Y. (2009). Health or self-indulgence? The motivations and characteristics of spa-goers. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 11*(2), 185–199.

McGehee, N. G., Loker-Murphy, L., & Uysal, M. (1996). The Australian international pleasure travel market: Motivations from a gendered perspective. *The Journal of Tourism Studies, 7*(1), 45–57.

Middleton, V. T. C., & Clarke, J. (2001). *Marketing in travel and tourism* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Monteson, P. A., & Singer, J. (2004). Marketing a resort-based spa. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 10*(3), 282–287.

Mueller, H., & Lanz Kaufmann, E. (2001). Wellness tourism: Market analysis of a special health tourism segment and implications for the hotel industry. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 7*(1), 5–17.

Nasution, H. N., & Mavondo, F. T. (2008). Customer value in the hotel industry: What managers believe they deliver and what customers experience. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27*(2), 204–213.

Pandža Bajs, I. (2015). Tourist perceived value, relationship to satisfaction, and behavioral intentions the example of the Croatian tourist destination Dubrovnik. *Journal of Travel Research, 54*(1), 122–134.

Parlow, A. (2011). Stata and the problem of heteroscedasticity. Available at https://pantherfile. uwm.edu/aparlow/www/papers/stata2.pdf. Accessed 2nd April 2013.

Pesonen, J., Laukkanen, T., & Komppula, R. (2011). Benefit segmentation of potential wellbeing tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 17*(4), 303–314.

Petrick, J. F. (2002). Development of a multi-dimensional scale for measuring the perceived value of a service. *Journal of Leisure Research, 34*(2), 119–134.

Petrick, J. F. (2004a). First timers' and repeaters' perceived value. *Journal of Travel Research, 43*(1), 29–38.

Petrick, J. F. (2004b). The roles of quality, value and satisfaction in predicting cruise passengers' behavioral intentions. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(4), 397–407.

Petrick, J. F., & Backman, S. J. (2002). An examination of the construct of perceived value for the prediction of golf travelers' intentions to revisit. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(1), 38–45.

Prebensen, N. K., Woo, E., & Uysal, M. (2012). Experience value: Antecedents and consequences. *Current Issues in Tourism, 17*(10), 910–928.

Prebensen, N. K., Woo, E., Chen, J. S., & Uysal, M. (2013). Motivation and involvement as antecedents of the perceived value of the destination experience. *Journal of Travel Research, 52,* 253–264.

Ramsey, J.B. (1969). Tests for specification errors in classical linear least-squares regression analysis. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series B (Methodological), 31*(2), 350–371.

Ruy, K., Han, H., & Kim, T. H. (2008). The relationship among overall quick-casual restaurant image, perceived value, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27*(3), 459–469.

Sánchez, J., Callarisa, L., Rodríguez, R. M., & Moliner, M. A. (2006). Perceived value of the purchase of a tourism product. *Tourism Management, 27*(3), 394–409.

Sheth, J. N., Newman, B. I., & Gross, B. L. (1991). Why we buy what we buy: A theory of consumption values. *Journal of Business Research, 22*(2), 159–170.

Sweeney, J. C., & Soutar, G. N. (2001). Consumer perceived value: The development of a multiple item scale. *Journal of Retailing, 77*(2), 203–220.

Uysal, M. & Jurowski, C. (1993). An empirical testing of the push and pull factors of tourist motivations (162–63.). *Proceedings of 1993 CHRIE Conference.* Chicago.

Veal, A. J. (2006). *Research methods for leisure and tourism: A practical guide*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Voigt, C., Brown, G., & Howat, G. (2011). Wellness tourists: In search of transformation. *Tourism Review, 66*(1/2), 6–30.

Wellness Tourism Association. (2012). List of members.

Williams, P., & Soutar, G. N. (2000). Dimensions of customer value and the tourism experience: An Exploratory Study. In: *ANZMAC 2000 Visionary Marketing for the 21st Century: Facin the Challenge..*, available at: http://www.anzmac.org/conference/2000/CDsite/papers/w/William3.pdf. Accessed: 4 June 2010, 1415–1421.

Williams, P., & Soutar, G. N. (2009). Value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions in an adventure tourism context. *Annals of Tourism Research, 36*(3), 413–438.

Woodall, T. (2003). Conceptualising "value for the customer": An attributional, structural and dispositional analysis. *Academy of marketing science review*, *2003*(12), 1–42.

Woodruff, R. B. (1997). Customer value: The next source for competitive advantage. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 25*(2), 139–153.

Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An Examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management, 26*(1), 45–56.

Zeithaml, V. A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: A means-ends model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing, 52*(3), 2–22.

Postmodern Museum Visitor Experience as a Leisure Activity

Çağıl Hale Özel and Seda Sökmen

Abstract Relationship between museum and tourism has become an important research field. But research on determining the characteristics of the postmodern museum visitors has not reached a satisfactory level in the area of tourism marketing. In this case study, authors focused on gaining insight into the characteristics of the visitor profile of Yılmaz Büyükerşen Wax Museum (YBWM) as a postmodern museum. The study also aims to discover whether there are market segments of visitors who are motivated by the conditions of postmodernism within YBWM's target market. Results underline the fact that motivations and behaviours of postmodern museum visitors acquire a different character. Based on these results, visitors' motivations can be explained under five different motivation dimensions, namely; "Escape", "Hyper Reality", "Technology Fondness", "Socialisation", and "Food and Beverage and Shopping". This study is noteworthy in terms of providing insight into the visitor motivations and visitor profiles of postmodern museums.

1 Introduction

Postmodernism has emerged after the 1960s, not only as a critique of modernism but also as a new philosophical and cultural movement (Fırat and Venkatesh 1995). Yet, the term *postmodern* is not well comprehended by many people, and this often results in resistance to postmodernism. One of the main reasons for this may be that scholars often disagree on a uniform and satisfactory definition of postmodernism, its dimensions, and even the consistent use of postmodern terms (Amine and Smith 2009). Moreover, postmodernists—contrary to the beliefs of critics like Kellner,

Ç.H. Özel (✉) · S. Sökmen
Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey
e-mail: chkayar@anadolu.edu.tr

S. Sökmen
e-mail: sedabuldu@anadolu.edu.tr

Heller, Giddens, and Gellner—never claim that postmodern conditions are totally new. Instead of this, these conditions have already been repressed by modernist metanarratives and rhetoric (Fırat 1992). These conditions gather the theories of postmodernists, including but not limited to Baudrillard, Featherstone, Lyotard, Jameson, etc. These conditions include *hyper reality*, *fragmentation*, *decentring of the subject*, *reversals of consumption and production*, and *juxtaposition of opposites* (Hamouda 2012), which all have reflections in postmodern consumer behaviour.

There are two approaches to postmodernism; the first one claims that postmodernism means a new phase starting in the late 1960s and early 1970s. The second one states that postmodernism is a condition, independent of time (Fırat and Venkatesh 1996). Contributions to postmodern thinking in marketing grow steadily since the early 1990s (Amine and Smith 2009). Postmodernism, associated with marketing and postmodern marketing, generates an enormous amount of academic knowledge and discussions. Particularly, researchers increasingly focus on determining the characteristics of the postmodern consumer (Brown 1993). Undoubtedly, the postmodern consumer of today is no longer the rational consumer of the past. Characteristics of the postmodern consumer may be explained with the help of postmodern conditions, which are studied by researchers, such as Fırat, Venkantesh, Shultz, Bouchet, Dholakia, Arias, and Acebron.

First, hyper reality (simulated reality) was propounded by Eco (2014) and Baudrillard (1994), and many indications of simulated reality have occurred regarding postmodern consumers. To illustrate this, postmodern theorists mention Disneyland, Las Vegas, IMAX theatres, theme parks, recreated urban spaces, a colossal man-made island called Palm Jumeirah in Dubai, and themed hotels (Fırat and Shultz 1997; Fırat and Venkatesh 1993). The second condition is the fragmentation of life, experience, society, and metanarratives of modernism. Fragmentation implies the acceptance of differences and the end to dominance as well as breaking up into parts. As pointed out by theorists, postmodern consumers do not commit or conform to any universalism. They also do not accept consistent and centred fields, ideas, systems, or narratives (Fırat and Shultz 1997; Fırat and Venkatesh 1995). Fırat and Venkatesh (1993) exemplify this condition with a ubiquitous shopping complex in which people lead fragmented lives for entertainment, interaction, and other types of excitement.

The third condition of postmodernism, concerning fragmentation of the self, is decentring of the subject. Postmodern consumers become products, consumed for the production of other objects. Thus, they tend to perceive themselves as marketable (Fırat and Venkatesh 1993, 1995, 1996). Examples of this condition are the online games, such as *Second Life*, where postmodern consumers are disguised under a false name and pretend to have a different physical appearance, and tour-guide robots, which take a more active role than individuals (Yakın 2011). The fourth condition is the reversal of consumption and production. For a postmodern consumer, consumption is not just a personal act, rather it is a social act including a symbolic meaning and a social code. In this regard, different consumption patterns

indicate different mentalities of postmodern consumers (Fırat and Venkatesh 1993, 1995). For instance, travellers who join in special interest events do not prefer package tours and demand personalised products/services in which they decide the content themselves as postmodern consumers. The final condition of postmodernism is the juxtaposition of opposites that indicates opposed emotions and cognitions can come together paradoxically. Irony, ambiguity, and pastiche are concepts that stand out in this condition. Ethnic restaurants can be an example of this since they offer a simulated experience in a theatrical society (Fırat and Venkatesh 1993).

Featherstone (2007) stresses that spaces, such as theme parks, shopping centres, malls, museums, and galleries show convergence with postmodern cities, which are the centre of consumption, play, and entertainment. As mentioned, museums, which have started to embrace postmodern conditions, are the main attractions of postmodern cities. Thus, visitors of postmodern museums, where consumption, games, and entertainment coexist, are thought to be different in behaviour from other museum visitors (Bruce 2006). This assumption stems from the transformation from the modern consumer to postmodern consumer. Postmodern consumers' patterns of consumption are extremely adaptable and easily changeable (Brown 1995). Therefore, motivations and behaviours of postmodern museum visitors or the issues they heed in their visits acquire a different character. Nevertheless, there is a neglected area of marketing research, as no scientific study has encompassed the characteristics of postmodern museum visitors. In other words, it is noteworthy to deduce the motivations of postmodern museum visitors together with modern museum visitors.

2 Literature Review

A postmodern museum may be any museum classified according to collection. Further, any museum can be assessed as a postmodern museum regardless of the units they belong to, the region they serve, the audiences they appeal to, or the methods of exhibiting their collections (Madran 1999). In other words, emphasis is on whether the museum contains postmodern conditions. Hence, the type of museum is not a meaningful determinant of a postmodern museum.

There are two dimensions of museum revaluation. On one hand, physical changes in design and style come into existence and obviously, contemporary museum buildings originate and replicate key features of the postmodern cultural landscape, such as the Guggenheim Bilbao Museum, Glass Pavilion (Prior 2011). Museum architecture becomes a critical factor in marketing a museum's image. Thus, additional spaces for cafes, museum shops, and visitor centres play a significant role in maintaining and expanding the visitor base and financial support of museums (Rectanus 2006). Similarly, Marstine (2006) explains the transformation of museum by exemplifying new museum facilities, which include reception and

orientation areas, restaurants, cafes, shops, bookstores, ATMs, cloakrooms, rest rooms, school group areas, education centres, theatres, etc. In other words, museums are perceived as an experiential consumption place for leisure (Kim Lian Chan 2009); therefore, they take on a commercial function with big retrospective exhibits, secondary activities, shopping malls, and theme parks. Therefore, museums indisputably become a part of the recreation industry (Stephen 2001). For instance, the Rijksmuseum, which was opened in 1800, now allows shopping from Rijks Studio by affiliating with the museum website. With this application, a historical artefact is initially chosen by visitors and then this is printed on t-shirts, phones, wallpapers, pillows, etc. This gives museums the opportunity to provide customised products for their visitors.

The most visible changes apparent in recent museum practices are the commercialisation of displays, the rise of blockbuster exhibitions, and the provision of spectacular or simulated experiences through high-tech virtual displays, audio animatronics, 3D imagining, and so on (Prior 2006). For example, the After Dark web app of the Tate Britain Museum provides a space-age tour to visitors. Museum visitors navigate their own journeys around the museum's historic building and collection by controlling a robot, which is fitted with a camera and bespoke lights for eyes with the ability to look up and down to view the full range of art on display. In addition to all these, museums often rely on corporate sponsorship in order to create and maintain these expensive exhibits and facilities (Marstine 2006), or leasing for various activities, including wedding ceremonies, cocktail parties, birthday parties, fashion shows, or corporate events. Uffizi Museum, which was leased for the Stefano Ricci Fashion Show in 2013, is an example of this situation.

Meaning-based changes as the second dimension become apparent in museum revaluation. According to modernist theory, the museum is a shrine—a ritual site influenced by church, palace, and ancient temple architecture (Marstine 2006). As Urry (1990) mentions, living museums replace dead museums, sound replaces hushed silence, and visitors are not separated from the exhibits by glass. In line with this view, it is possible to say that postmodern museums are heterotopias. Unlike utopias, heterotopias are real places of difference, in which ordinary cultural emplacements are brought together and represented, contested, and reversed. These museums engage in a double paradox; they contain infinite time in a finite space (Foucault and Miskowiec 1986).

Museums are classified in various ways (Duncan and Wallach 2004). A postmodern museum is any museum classified according to collection (history museums, art museums, etc.). Moreover, any museum can be assessed as a postmodern museum regardless of the units they belong to (university museums, military museums, etc.), the region they serve (national, regional, and local museums), the audiences they appeal to (science museums, specialised museums, etc.) or the methods of exhibiting their collections (open air museums, memorial museums, etc.) (Madran 1999; Ambrose and Paine 2006). In other words, the type of museum is not a meaningful determinant for a museum to be postmodern. For example, the California Academy of Sciences, which reflects both psychical and meaning-based changes is a science museum, featuring a living green roof with native plants.

The postmodern museum is a site from which to redress social inequalities. Instead of shying away from the difficult issues, it exposes conflict and contradiction. It asserts that the institution must show ambiguity and acknowledge multiple, ever-shifting identities. In some sense, it actively seeks to share power with the communities it serves. The postmodern museum gives them the opportunity to interact with other visitors; thus, visitors are not passive consumers, and their experiences are characterised by increased involvement. It listens to and responds sensitively, as it encourages diverse groups to become active participants in the museum discourse (Marstine 2006). Likewise, Lorente (2012) claims that instead of individually isolating each visitor in the handling of any given technological resource, visitors are expected to interact with other visitors. For instance, the American Museum of Natural History provides a self-guided tour—the Night at the Museum Tour—to its visitors who are the between six and 13 years old with their parents. Therefore, diverse groups experience an enjoyable adventure all together. As it appears, new museums differentiate themselves in two dimensions; physical changes and meaning-based changes.

Research on museum visitors generates a rapidly evolving, controversial, and dynamic field. Particularly, actual, potential, or virtual visitors challenge museums to make considerable changes in professional practices at the beginning of the twenty-first century (Hooper-Greenhill 2006). As Onur (2012) mentions, in spite of the superficiality of previous research, further studies focus on various psychographic factors, lifestyle values, and motivations about the new museology. According to Hooper-Greenhill (2006), museum visitor studies encompass a range of studies carried out for different purposes by different bodies and using different research paradigms. Nevertheless, reasons, motivations, and prompts for a visit, which are conceptually different, are mixed up in the question regarding 'why people visit'? and motivations to visit a museum are multiple and diverse (Kawashima 1998). Indeed, museums recognise the need to segment their markets today. This situation has led the authors of this study to examine how the market segments of visitors in putative postmodern museums can occur.

Kotler's four major categories—geographic, demographic, psychographic, and behaviouristic—are well accepted by modern marketing theorists in market segmentation studies. Recently, postmodern consumers are added as a new market segment to this segmentation (McDonald and Dunbar 2004). However, the debate still continues regarding whether postmodern customers can be segmented into different market segments. An explanation for this could be that postmodern customers evade being categorised into typical segments with modern segmentation techniques, which calls into the question of efficiency of these techniques. The complexity, multi-dimensionality, and changing nature of postmodern consumption and consumers are the main reasons for this situation. In connection with this, Amine and Smith (2009) claim that substitution of these modern segmentation techniques is quite necessary; otherwise it would be an 'oxymoron' to mention postmodern segmentation. On the other hand, there are intriguing research findings that assume that measurements of postmodern consumers' individual differences

would yield stable results. To exemplify this, Fırat and Shultz (2001) expect that measurement of postmodern consumers' orientations will be fairly stable over time since they reflect the consumer's overall approach to the meaning of life and existence. Parallel to the assumptions of Fırat and Shultz (2001), the authors of this study aim to gain insight into the characteristics of the visitor profile of Yılmaz Büyükerşen Wax Museum (YBWM).

3   Method

This study used a factor-cluster approach to identify the profile of the YBWM's visitors. The museum was opened in 2013; it has a collection of wax sculptures belonging to a total of 160 native or world-famous people from history and/or present time. In the museum, the wax sculptures of Atatürk and his family, leaders from Turkey and other countries, Hollywood stars, pop stars, sports stars, and TV stars are displayed with different decorations. Moreover, this museum's visitors can take photos with the sculptures with the help of the museum's professional photographers and shop from the museum souvenir shops. In addition, YBWM differs from other museums with its postmodern character, which makes it worth studying. Consequently, it is assumed that the behaviours and motivations of YBWM's visitors are distinct.

The questionnaire included a series of questions relating to museum visitors. In the questionnaire development stage, previous studies (Gürel 2013; Özgören 2007; Uysal 2005; Hsieh 2010) in the literature that examined the profiles of museum visitors have been referenced. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. In the first section, museum visitors in the sample were asked to indicate demographic data (gender, marital status, age, employment status, monthly income, educational level, and place of residence). In the second section, questions are related to travel behaviour (frequency of visits to museums, travel party, main transport used, and information source). The last section was developed to measure the motivations of museum visitors by means of a five-point Likert scale. A total of 21 motivational items were derived from the literature review.

The convenience sampling technique was beneficial for the selection of museum visitors in the context of the research. Since the total number of museum visitors in the population is not known, the authors aimed at reaching an adequate sample size. A sample of 225 respondents was found to be sufficient for further analysis, allowing for more than 10 respondents for each motivational item (Tinsley and Tinsley 1987). Researchers collected data from respondents in face-to-face interviews with the help of a data collection form. Interviews took place in restaurants and cafes in the Odunpazarı district and in the waiting area outside the museum. A total of 225 usable questionnaires were collected during May 2015, which were taken into consideration for further analysis.

4 Results

Demographic and travel behaviour characteristics of museum visitors were identified. Of the respondents, 56.4% were female while 43.6% were male. About 70.2% of the study sample stated that they were single, and the rest (28.4%) were married. The majority (48.4%) were between 25 and 44 years old. Of the respondents, 31.1% were students while 32.4% were government employees. In addition, a monthly income of up to 1000 liras represented 38.7% of the total. Most respondents (54%) had a bachelor degree. Moreover, most of the visitors (73.3%) came to the museum from Eskisehir. In terms of travel frequency, individuals who visited museums once a year represented approximately 43% of museum visitors. Additionally, 42.2% of visitors came here with a friend, while 25.8% came with family. Museum visitors preferred public transportation (40.4%) and private vehicles (28%) as the main transport method. Finally, respondents used recommendation of family/friends (36.9%) and the Internet (11.1%) as their information sources.

4.1 Museum Visitors' Motivations

In the first step, a principal component factor analysis was used to identify underlying motivational dimensions for museum visitors. For this aim, 21 motivational items were factor-analysed with a varimax rotation. First, the measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) was calculated in order to identify the applicability of factor analysis. The results showed an MSA of 0.758, which is at an acceptable level (Hair et al. 1998). Another measure to test the assumption of factor analysis was Bartlett's test of sphericity. The value of the test statistic was 802.614, and its significance level was 0.000. Out of 21 items, five were removed due to low factor loadings and complex structure, and the remaining 16 motivational items produced five factors with eigenvalues greater than one, explaining 59.642% of the variance. Internal consistency reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha for each of the factors. The results for each of the factors ranged from 0.722 to 0.605, suggesting acceptable reliability (Bagozzi and Yi 1988). The results of factor analysis are presented in Table 1. Identified factors were labelled based on higher loadings. Factors were labelled: escape, hyper reality, technology fondness, socialisation, and food and beverage and shopping.

4.2 YBWM's Visitor Clusters

Having identified the motivational factors, the study then applied a cluster analysis to divide museum visitors into market segments based on their motivations. Factor scores were used as inputs in the cluster analysis since factor scores are more

Table 1 Factor analysis of motivational items

Factors	Loadings	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cronbach's alpha
Factor 1: escape		3.857	24.108	0.687
I visit museums to get rid of stress/tension	0.740			
I visit museums to relax mentally	0.660			
I visit museums to increase my knowledge	0.633			
I visit museums to obtain a new museum experience	0.609			
I visit museums to change my daily routine or way of life	0.571			
Factor 2: hyper reality		1.897	11.854	0.722
I visit museums for the fun activities offered by museums	0.813			
I visit museums to watch filming sessions/film screenings	0.810			
I visit museums to listen to the invited speakers	0.582			
I visit museums to see the exhibitions	0.526			
Factor 3: technology fondness		1.450	9.066	0.624
I visit museums since exhibited objects are displayed as both tangible and intangible	0.780			
I visit museums to see the technological infrastructure that they have	0.713			
I visit museums since they allow visitors to participate in the exhibition	0.582			
Factor 4: socialisation		1.325	8.284	0.605
I visit museums to be with people who enjoy doing the same things as me	0.765			
I visit museums to make social interactions with new people	0.725			
Factor 5: food and beverage and shopping		1.013	6.329	0.647
I visit museums since they have qualified restaurants/cafes	0.839			
I visit museums to shop from souvenir shops	0.814			
Total variance explained = 59.642				
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy = 0.758				
Bartlett's test of sphericity = 802.614 significance = 0.000				

reliable than single variables (Jun and McCleary 1999). After the examination of the agglomeration schedule, group memberships, dendrogram, and group sizes, the optimum number of clusters was identified as four. Table 2 provides the results of the cluster analysis based on the motivational factors of museum visitors. In

Table 2 Cluster analysis for museum visitors

Factors	Clusters				F-ratio	p
	1	2	3	4		
Escape	0.28110	0.14387	−0.1.33960	0.51684	53.313	0.000
Hyper reality	−0.47330	0.66932	−0.47503	0.12575	23.644	0.000
Technology fondness	0.70328	0.33795	−0.23309	−1.13778	70.734	0.000
Socialisation	0.40413	−0.68833	−0.03341	0.38705	21.106	0.000
Food and beverage and shopping	−0.57005	0.45663	0.44268	−0.20508	18.741	0.000
N	66	66	41	52		
%	0.29	0.29	0.19	0.23		

addition, the importance of each factor for visitor clusters is summarised in this table. Briefly, five motivational factors were significant ($p < 0.05$) for four clusters.

As shown in the table, the motivational factors important to each cluster differentiated from each other. Table 2 indicates that Cluster I placed higher importance (0.70328) on the technology fondness factor than on the other four factors. Hyper reality (0.66932) was the most important motivation for Cluster II, while Cluster III was mainly motivated by food and beverage and shopping (0.044268). Finally, Cluster IV placed a higher value on the escape factor (0.051684). Based on the importance scores of each cluster for each motivation factor, the four clusters were termed technology lovers, hyper reality seekers, diners and shoppers, and escapists.

4.3 Differences Among Motivation-Based Clusters

After the segments were identified, segment characteristics were determined based on the differences among clusters. Chi-square was employed for the assessment of differences in terms of demographics and travel behaviour dimensions. As shown in Table 3, only visitors' ages showed significant difference among the four clusters. In other words, there was not a significant difference among visitors' clusters in terms of the rest of the demographics and travel behaviour dimensions. More specifically, technology lovers were more likely to be between 18 and 24, whereas hyper reality seekers were predominantly between 25 and 44 years old. Likewise, diners and shoppers typically comprised individuals who were 25 to 44 years old. Moreover, middle-aged (25 to 44) museum visitors are the majority in the escapists' segment, as well. In Table 3, the profiles of the four clusters of museum visitors are displayed.

Table 3 Demographics and travel behaviour differences among museum visitor clusters

Characteristics of clusters		Technology lovers	Hyper reality seekers	Diners and shoppers	Escapists
Sex	Female	57.6	60.6	48.8	55.8
	Male	42.4	39.4	51.2	44.2
Marital status	Married	24.6	24.6	37.5	32.7
	Single	75.4	75.4	62.5	67.3
Age*	0–17	0.0	10.6	2.4	5.8
	18–24	50.0	25.8	29.3	32.7
	25–44	39.4	57.6	56.1	42.3
	45–64	9.1	6.1	9.8	19.2
	65+	1.5	0.0	2.4	0.0
Employment status	Government employee	26.2	40.6	31.7	33.3
	Self-employed (owner)	3.1	10.9	4.9	5.9
	Merchant/industrialist	0.0	1.6	2.4	2.0
	Worker	13.8	6.2	12.2	13.7
	Retired	4.6	0.0	7.3	5.9
	Housewife	3.1	1.6	7.3	2.0
	Student	49.2	37.5	34.1	35.3
	Banker	0.0	1.6	0.0	2.0
Monthly income (Turkish Liras)	0–1000	46.9	36.9	35.0	37.3
	1001–2500	21.9	20.0	20.0	31.4
	2501+	31.2	43.1	45.0	31.4
Educational attainment	Primary school	0.0	3.1	2.5	2.0
	Secondary school	1.5	6.2	7.5	5.9
	High school	18.5	12.3	15.0	21.6
	Associate' degree	6.2	6.2	10.0	15.7
	Bachelor's degree	61.5	40.0	45.0	45.1
	Master's/doctorate degree	12.3	32.3	20.0	9.8
Place of residence	Eskisehir	75.8	76.9	75.0	67.3
	Outside Eskisehir	24.2	23.1	25.0	32.7
Frequency of visit to museums	Once in six months or more frequent	37.9	45.5	22.0	38.5
	Once a year	42.4	43.9	43.9	40.4
	Biennially	6.1	9.1	14.6	5.8
	Every three years or less frequent	13.6	1.5	19.5	15.4

(continued)

Table 3 (continued)

Characteristics of clusters		Technology lovers	Hyper reality seekers	Diners and shoppers	Escapists
Travel party	Alone	1.7	1.6	5.0	4.2
	Family	28.8	25.4	27.5	29.2
	Relative(s)	6.8	1.6	17.5	2.1
	Children	0.0	3.2	5.0	6.2
	Friend(s)	49.2	54.0	30.0	41.7
	Package tour	13.6	14.3	15.0	16.7
Main transport used	Private vehicle	30.8	23.4	35.9	26.9
	Public transportation	40.0	45.3	38.5	40.4
	By walking	29.2	25.0	23.1	32.7
	By taxi	0.0	6.2	2.6	0.0
Information source	Printed newspaper/magazine	11.1	8.2	13.5	7.8
	Radio/TV	3.2	6.6	5.4	9.8
	Printed leaflet/ad/catalogue	14.3	9.8	10.8	5.9
	Recommendation of family/friends	30.2	42.6	45.9	41.2
	Signs/signboards	11.1	13.1	13.5	7.8
	Printed posters	14.3	8.2	5.4	2.0
	Internet	12.7	8.2	5.4	19.6
	Tour Guide/programme	3.2	3.3	0.0	5.9

[*]$p < 0.05$

5 Conclusion

The main purpose of this study is to reveal YBWM's visitor profile with a descriptive research design. By this means, it will be possible to discover whether there are market segments of visitors who are motivated by the conditions of postmodernism within YBWM's target market. For this purpose, motivations of museum visitors were measured and it was found that visitors' motivations can be explained under five different motivation dimensions. Among the motivation dimensions, escape demonstrates the greatest share. Escape is an ascertained visitor motivation, which was confirmed by many other researchers in tourism and recreational literature. Therefore, results of this study support the previous studies in terms of determining escape as a basic motivational dimension. Additionally, YBWM's visitors are also motivated by hyper reality and technological facilities. Postmodern consumers are pleased with the ambiguity between reality and fiction. In fact, wax sculptures or dioramas provide postmodern museum visitors simulations instead of reality. As another motivational dimension, technology enables

active visitor involvement in museum experience with the help of digital guides and books, touch screens, applications for smartphones, simulators, layer holograms, etc. Therefore, it is possible to view the results of this study in the context of a reflection of postmodern conditions to the motivations of museum visitors.

Although the motivations of socialisation and food and beverage and shopping were also frequently highlighted in the previous tourist behaviour studies, the visits of postmodern museum visitors with these motivations might be a result of psychical and meaning-based changes in museums. Contemporarily, postmodern museums generally include many additional spaces, such as bookstores, cloakrooms, rest rooms, school group areas, education centres, and theatres where visitors can socialise with others as well as restaurants and souvenir shops. In the past, museum visitors did not interact with other visitors, and their experiences were limited with museum buildings. However, this is not the case today. Parallel to the increasing number of postmodern museums recently, postmodern museum visitors have begun to demand opportunities to recognise other visitors who have common interests with them, to socialise with other people in high class restaurants/cafes within the museum, and to shop in museum souvenir shops to remind them of the museum visit. The considerable variety of identified factors implies that postmodern museum visitors are motivated by many other dimensions, which are not pre-determined or well-known motivational dimensions, and this reveals that further studies are required regarding the behaviours of postmodern museum visitors.

The results of the cluster analysis, which used factor scores, indicated that YBWM's visitors can be classified into four clusters based on their motivations. These clusters were termed: technology lovers, hyper reality seekers, diners and shoppers, and escapists. Based on the results of this classification, there is not a single, stable prototype of postmodern museum visitors. Instead, visitor groups who have differentiating motivations constitute homogenous market segments. Moreover, identified visitor clusters show significant differences according to age as a demographic variable, whereas there is not a significant difference between clusters in terms of behavioural variables. More specifically, technology lovers are commonly between 18 and 24 years old. On the contrary, the 25 to 44 age group, which can be defined as middle-aged visitors, has the largest share among hyper reality seekers, diners and shoppers and escapists. Above all, it can be expected that such significant differences, which provide practical contributions to marketers for developing marketing mixes, may gradually increase when studied with larger sample sizes.

Like any other research, this study has some limitations, which should be taken into account when interpreting the results. First, the sample size, although sufficient, was low since museum management did not grant permission to collect data in the museum building, and as a result, this data was collected by researchers in several places in Odunpazarı. That should be taken into consideration while interpreting the results. Second, segmentation was made based on the unique variable, motivation. Yet, other segmentation criteria, such as expected benefits, may augment the delineation certainty of visitor clusters. Third, the limitation derives from the fact that visitors' self-reported perceptions were examined, not their actual behaviours.

For this reason, a visitor who strongly agreed that socialisation motivated him or her to visit museums may not have actually socialised with other visitors during the visit. Finally, it should be stated that the results of this study cannot be generalised to all museum visitors because museum visitors were selected on the basis of non-probability sampling methods. Still, the present study is believed to provide insight into the visitor motivations and visitor profiles of postmodern museums.

References

Ambrose, T., & Paine, C. (2006). *Museum basics*. London: Routledge.

Amine, L. S., & Smith, A. J. (2009). Challenges to modern consumer segmentation in a changing world: The need for a second step. *Multinational Business Review, 17*(3), 71–100.

Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 16*(1), 74–94.

Baudrillard, J. (1994). *Simulacra and simulation*. USA: University of Michigan Press.

Brown, S. (1993). Postmodern marketing? *European Journal of Marketing, 27*(4), 19–34.

Brown, S. (1995). *Postmodern marketing*. London: Routledge.

Bruce, C. (2006). Spectacle and democracy: Experience music project as a post-museum. In M. Janet (Ed.), *New museum theory and practice: An introduction* (1st ed., pp. 129–152). United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing.

Duncan C, Wallach, A, (2004), The universal survey museum. In: C. Bettina Messias (ed.), *Museum studies: An anthology of contexts, 1st edn. Blackwell Publishing*, (pp. 51–70). United Kingdom.

Eco, U. (2014). *Travels in hyperreality*. USA: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.

Featherstone, M. (2007). *Consumer culture and postmodernism*. London: Sage.

Fırat, A. F. (1992). Postmodernism and the marketing organization. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 5*(1), 79–83.

Fırat, A. F., & Shultz, C. J. (1997). From segmentation to fragmentation: Markets and marketing strategy in the postmodern era. *European Journal of Marketing, 31*(3/4), 183–207.

Fırat, A. F., & Shultz, C. J. (2001). Preliminary metric investigations into the nature of the 'postmodern consumer'. *Marketing Letters, 12*(2), 189–203.

Fırat, A. F., & Venkatesh, A. (1993). Postmodernity: The age of marketing. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 10*(3), 227–249.

Fırat, A. F., & Venkatesh, A. (1995). Liberatory postmodernism and the reenchantment of consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research, 22*(3), 239–267.

Fırat, A. F., & Venkatesh, A. (1996). Postmodern perspectives on consumption. In W. B. Russell, D. Nikhilesh, & V. Alladi (Eds.), *Consumption and marketing, macro dimensions* (pp. 234–265). USA: South-Western College Publishing.

Foucault, M., & Miskowiec, J. (1986). Of other spaces. *Diacritics, 16*(1), 22–27.

Gürel, E. (2013). Ankara'daki müzelerde ziyaretçi profillerinin ve motivasyonlarının değerlendirilmesi. *Ankara Araştırmaları Dergisi, 1*(2), 1–9.

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hamouda, M. (2012). Postmodernism and consumer psychology: Transformation or break? *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 2*(1), 96–117.

Hooper-Greenhill, E. (2006). Studying visitors. In M. Sharon (Ed.), *A companion to museum studies* (pp. 362–376). United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing.

Hsieh, C. M. (2010).Roles of motivations, past experience, perceptions of service quality, value and satisfaction in museum visitors' loyalty. Dissertation, Michigan State University.

Jun, J., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). Classifying US association meeting planners based on international destination selection criteria: A case study of South Korea. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 18*(2), 183–199.

Kawashima, N. (1998). Knowing the public. A review of museum marketing literature and research. *Museum Management and Curatorship, 17*(1), 21–39.

Kim Lian Chan, J. (2009). The consumption of museum service experiences: Benefits and value of museum experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 18*(2–3), 173–196.

Lorente, J. P. (2012). The development of museum studies in universities: From technical training to critical museology. *Museum Management and Curatorship, 27*(3), 237–252.

Madran, B. (1999). Müze türleri. In A. Tomur (Ed.), *Yeniden müzeciliği düşünmek* (1st ed., pp. 3–19). İstanbul: Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Basım Yayın Merkezi.

Marstine, J. (2006). Introduction. In M. Janet (Ed.), *New museum theory and practice: An introduction* (1st ed., pp. 1–36). United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing.

McDonald, M., & Dunbar, I. (2004). *Market segmentation: How to do it, how to profit from it.* Italy: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Onur, B. (2012). *Çağdaş müze eğitim ve gelişim müze psiklojisine giriş.* Ankara: İmge.

Özgören, F. (2007). Boş zaman pazarlaması ve müzecilikte bir uygulama. Dissertation, Marmara University.

Prior, N. (2006). Postmodern restructurings. In M. Sharon (Ed.), *A companion to museum studies* (pp. 509–524). United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing.

Prior, N. (2011). Speed, rhythm, and time-space: Museums and cities. *Space and Culture, 14*(2), 197–213.

Rectanus, M. W. (2006). Globalization: Incorporating the museum. In M. Sharon (Ed.), *A companion to museum studies* (pp. 381–397). United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing.

Stephen, A. (2001). The contemporary museum and leisure: Recreation as a museum function. *Museum Management and Curatorship, 19*(3), 297–308.

Tinsley, H. E., & Tinsley, D. J. (1987). Uses of factor analysis in counseling psychology research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 34*(4), 414–424.

Urry, J. (1990). *The tourist gaze.* London: Sage.

Uysal, C. K. (2005). Müze eğitimi ve müze ziyaretçilerinin Atatürk ve Kurtuluş Savaşı Müzesi ziyaretçi profili araçlığıyla incelenmesi. Dissertation, Ankara University.

Yakın, M. (2011). Postmodern pazarlama çağında reklam anlayışında meydana gelen değişim. Dissertation, Ege University.

Driving First-Time and Repeat Spectators to Cultural Events

Giacomo Del Chiappa, Giuseppe Melis and Marcello Atzeni

Abstract This chapter examines the differences in expenditure, satisfaction and behavioral intentions between first-time and repeat spectators to a cultural event. A structured questionnaire was developed and data were collected on-site during the "Sa Sartiglia" Carnival (Sardinia, Italy) via 262 interviews. A series of descriptive analyses, independent t-tests, and regression analysis were run for the purposes of the study. Findings show repeaters expressing higher satisfaction, more positive behavioral intentions and higher average economic expenditure than first-time spectators. However, repeaters scored significantly higher in term of intention to return to the event, intention to return to the destination and intention to recommend it to others. Findings add to the body of knowledge highlighting an inconsistent relationship between travel experience, travel expenditure and post-trip evaluation and behavioral intentions. Contributions to the body of knowledge and managerial implications are discussed and suggestions for further research are given.

1 Introduction

Events are an important motivator of tourism (Getz 2008) and play a highly relevant role for rural and peripheral destinations especially (Lee et al. 2012). To date, exiting studies (e.g., Getz 2008) have taken into consideration several types of events: cultural (festivals, carnivals, etc.), political and state (summits, political events, etc.), arts and entertainment (concerts, award ceremonies), business and

G. Del Chiappa (✉)
University of Sassari, Sassari, Italy
e-mail: gdelchiappa@uniss.it

G. Melis · M. Atzeni
University of Cagliari, Cagliari, Italy
e-mail: gemelis@unica.it

M. Atzeni
e-mail: marcelloatzeni@icloud.com

trade (meetings, conventions, etc.) educational and scientific (conferences, semi-nars, etc.), sport competitions (amateur/professional, spectator/participant), recre-ational (sport or games for fun), private events (weddings, parties, etc.).

A vast amount of literature has been devoted to the analysis of impact generated by events; these are usually categorized into economic, socio-cultural, environ-mental, physical, political, as well as touristic (e.g., Bowdin et al. 2006; Herrero et al. 2006; Warnick et al. 2013). Further, especially when rural and peripheral areas are considered, cultural events can (re)interpret the symbolic elements of the local community (Chang 2006), and favour the participation of residents in the event organization itself, which in turn strengthens their sense of belonging to the local community (Kim et al. 2006) and their work in co-creating the experience that visitors will experience during the event (Binkhorst and Den Dekker 2009). Further, within cultural events, carnivals provide opportunities to (re)interpret the symbols and rituals that shape and define the social existence of the hosting community and to let visitors actively experience the local identity and authenticity. This in turn contributes to visitors feeling attached and psychologically committed toward the hosting destination, thus ultimately favouring their positive behavioural intentions (Lee et al. 2012).

For destinations relying on cultural events and festivals to attract tourists, a deep understanding of consumer behaviours of first-time and repeat visitors is pivotal (Lee et al. 2009). The existing literature offers a mixed picture of similarities and differences between these two group, with findings that are sometimes contradic-tory. For example, several researchers have concluded that first-timers stay longer, spend more money per night per capita, and are more satisfied than repeaters (e.g., Anwar and Sohail 2004; Tang and Turco 2001). However, other research shows the opposite (e.g., Li et al. 2008; Oppermann 1997; Wang 2004). Little evidence has been provided on this topic pertaining specifically to cultural events (Shani et al. 2009; Lee et al. 2009; Kruger et al. 2010), and even in this case findings are sometimes contradictory.

The lack of consensus on the spending behaviours of first-time and repeat spectators, their level of satisfaction and behavioural intentions (intention to return and to recommend to others), paired with the little research that exists aimed at examining first-timers and repeaters to cultural events in Italy (Formica and Uysal 1998), drives this study. It was carried out specifically to assess and compare the consumer behaviours of first-time and repeat visitors to "Sa Sartiglia", a carnival event organized on Sardinia island (Italy). It presents an empirical analysis of data obtained from a sample of 262 subjects with the aim of investigating whether any significant differences exist between first-timers and repeat spectators in their spending behaviour, satisfaction towards selected event features, and their inten-tions to return and to recommend to others. A literature review of prior studies on first-time and repeat visitors is provided in our study. The research methodology is then described in detail and results of statistical analyses are presented. Finally, contributions to the body of knowledge and managerial implications are discussed, and suggestions for further research are given.

2 Literature Review

In the current literature devoted to event marketing and event tourism, short-term events and festivals are considered to be an important part of a destination's portfolio of tourism products and experiences (Akhoondnejad 2016), thus becoming an essential feature of cultural tourism (Getz 2008). Researchers currently concur that festivals and cultural events can be considered as a vehicle for economic development, a way to create and to develop destination brand awareness and image, a stimulator for tourism demand and/or an expander of tourism seasonality, a lever to enhance the life and pride of local residents and to reinforce the strength of social ties among them (e.g., Akhoondnejad 2016; Felsenstein and Fleischer 2003; Richards and Wilson 2004; Matheson et al. 2014).

That said, it is easy to understand why destination marketers and policymakers have widely recognized cultural events as integral tools in their destination marketing operations. A deep knowledge of visitors' satisfaction towards selected event features, their behavioural intentions (intention to return and to recommend to others), and their spending behaviour is particularly pivotal to gain knowledge on how to plan marketing strategies aimed at maximising the benefit of an event.

For destinations relying on recurring cultural events and festivals to attract tourists, understanding the consumer behaviours of first-time and repeat visitors is important for economic potential and target marketing. Tourism literature states that a deep understanding of the differences between first-time and repeat visitors, particularly in their pre-travel and post-trip characteristics (Oppermann 1997), is relevant in building travel motivation and decision-making theories (Li et al. 2008), developing effective tourism-marketing strategies (e.g., Del Chiappa et al. 2014; Lau and McKercher 2004), applying market segmentation (Formica and Uysal 1998), can be used as a basis to understand the development of loyalty (Fakeye and Crompton 1991) and to identify a destination's position in its life cycle (Oppermann 1998).

Based on existing literature, there are several reasons explaining why repeaters should be considered a desirable target (e.g., Lee et al. 2009; Kruger et al. 2010). Among these, we can cite the lower costs needed to attract repeat visitors than those required for first-timers (e.g., Tang and Turco 2001), the lower price elasticity (e.g., Shani et al. 2009), the fact that repeat visitation is an indicator of visitor satisfaction (e.g., Oppermann 2000) and the repeater's higher intention to return and to recommend (e.g., Li et al. 2008). On the other hand, other researchers (e.g., Petrick 2004) argue that it is not always true that repeat visitors are the most desired visitors. Further, an undersupply of new visitors is usually an indication of an event in decline (Lau and McKercher 2004), a key reason that explains why researchers often suggest that destination marketers should aim at achieving a fair balance between first-time and repeat visitors (e.g., Oppermann 1997).

In tourism literature, it has been widely recognized that first-time and repeat visitors differ from each other; however, little consensus still exists with regard to the variables that differentiate the two groups (Li et al. 2008). Differences between first-time and repeat spectators were found based on socio-demographic

characteristics (e.g., Lau and McKercher 2004), behavioural characteristics (e.g., Oppermann 1997), motivations (e.g., Gitelson and Crompton 1984; Kruger et al. 2010), destination perception and perceived value and tripographic characteristics (purpose of travel, mode of transportation, length of stay, distance of travel and individual daily expenditures).

Several factors can be considered able to influence spectators' spending patterns,; among them, economic constraints, socio-demographic characteristics, travel-related characteristics, (Sato et al. 2014). Income is usually noted to be a strong predictor of visitors' expenditure in all cases but day-visit and domestic tourists (e.g., Downward and Lumdson 2004). No common effect of socio-demographic characteristics (such as gender, age, level of education, professional and geographical status) has been observed in the existing literature. For example, in some studies age is positively correlated with the visitor's expenditure (e.g., Craggs and Schofield 2009), while in others it does not exert a significant influence (e.g., Bojanic 2011). Thrane's (2002) study on spectators at a jazz festival reported spectators working-full time spending more, thus suggesting that professional status exerts a relevant role in shaping visitors' overall expenditure. The same study suggested that males spent more than females.

While it has been argued that repeat visitors spend more money (Oppermann 2000), prior research into first-time and repeat visitation studies revealed findings that are not as consistent and conclusive as one might expect (e.g., Li et al. 2008). Consequently, the relationship between travel experience and travel expenditure appears to be inconsistent in the existing studies (e.g., Cho 2009). On the one hand, some researchers reported repeat visitors spending more than first-time visitors (Kruger et al. 2010; Wang 2004). This has been highlighted also when considering specifically visitors at cultural events (e.g., Shani et al. 2009). Overall, this circumstance could be explained based on the idea that prior travel experience is a proxy of foreign visitors' information and knowledge of a specific destination and event (Alegre and Cladera 2010). As a result, prior experience at the destination and related events would reduce asymmetric information problems and increase visitor and spectator expenditures (Alegre and Cladera 2010). Though this seems to be quite reasonable, other research reported repeat visitors spending less than first-time visitors (Kozak 2001; Oppermann 1997; Tang and Turco 2001). Researchers have found a positive effect between length of stay and per capita spending by tourists (Raya 2012; Saayman et al. 2007; Seiler et al. 2003; Thrane 2002), However, Saayman and Saayman (2008) observed the opposite, thus reconfirming the lack of consensus in research into first-time and repeat visitors/spectators' behaviours.

Researchers have begun quite recently to analyze the spending behaviour of first-time and repeat visitors by considering the subset of expenditure, and have provided findings that even in this case are contradictory. For example, Li et al. (2008) reported that first-time visitors spent significantly more than repeaters on transportation, lodging and entertainment, whereas repeaters were reported as spending more on food and beverage, shopping and gambling. On the other hand, Del Chiappa et al.'s (2014) study on spectators at a motor sport event found first-time spectators spending more on food and beverage, and explained this result

by arguing that first-timers are more willing to spend to taste the uniqueness of local food and beverages, given the higher inexperience that they have with the destination when compared to repeaters.

Other differences between first-timers and repeat visitors are usually reported in their post-trip evaluations. Tourists' post-trip evaluations are highly valued by destination marketers because such evaluations may directly influence tourists' repurchase behaviour (Petrick et al. 2001) and their intention to recommend to others both offline (e.g., Reid and Reid 1993) and online (e.g., Quick 2000). There is also a lack of consensus regarding first-time and repeat visitor studies using post-trip evaluations on which group is more receptive to satisfaction and more likely to return and to recommend. Some studies show that first-timers are more easily satisfied with a destination than are repeaters (Anwar and Sohail 2004), probably as some repeaters express higher expectations prior to their visitation that are not fulfilled during their stay (McKercher and Wong 2004). On the other hand, other studies report repeaters expressing a higher level of satisfaction than first-time visitors (Li et al. 2008; Mohr et al. 1993), thus explaining (in part) why repeaters usually report a stronger intention to return and a likeliness to give positive word-of-mouth (Kozak 2001; Li et al. 2008); similarly, Lee et al. (2009) showed a stronger value-loyalty relationship for repeaters than for first-timers. Why some first-time visitors are found to be less satisfied than repeaters could be explained by arguing that first-timers' pre-trip expectations rely heavily on external information (Assael 2004). As a consequence, an inconsistency between their expectations and actual experiences could occur if marketing and promotion operations overly exaggerate the experiences the destination can provide, thus resulting in consumers' dissatisfaction and negatively influencing their intention to return and to recommend (Oliver 1980). Based on this strand of research, it could seem that satisfaction might not be directly correlated with revisit intention. Further, it should be noted that the level of positive correlation between satisfaction and revisit intention might change. Indeed, Kozak (2001) found that this satisfaction-revisit intention relationship was weaker in less developed destinations than in mature destinations.

There remains a lack of consensus on first-time and repeat spectator spending behaviours and behavioural intentions. This study was therefore carried out to assess and compare the consumer behaviours of first-time and repeat visitors to "Sa Sartiglia" with the aim of investigating whether any significant differences exist between first-timers and repeat spectators in their spending behaviours, satisfaction towards selected event features and their intentions to return and to recommend visitation.

3 Method

"Sa Sartiglia" is the main carnival event in the Sardinia region. It occurs every year in the city of Oristano before Lent and attracts regional, national and international visitors. For the purposes of this study, an ad hoc survey was developed based on

prior literature. Further, several practitioners involved in the event organization were consulted to verify and redefine the questionnaire, thus allowing a theory-in-use approach (Zaltman et al. 1982). The survey instrument was divided into three sections. In the first section, respondents were asked to give some general socio-demographic information (gender, age, level of education, etc.) and to indicate whether they were first-time spectators or repeaters. The second section asked respondents to assess their level of agreement (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) with a list of items used to investigate their overall satisfaction and behavioural intentions (intention to return and to recommend both offline and online). The third section of the survey asked respondents to provide information on their average daily expenditure on accommodation and other services used during their stay (accommodation, local transport, food and beverage, souvenirs, car rental service, etc.).

The questionnaire was originally developed in Italian and then translated into English, French, Spanish and German by professional translators, using back-translation for quality assurance. The questionnaire was pilot-tested on the first day of the event by 20 spectators to verify the validity of its content and the comprehensibility of the questions. No concerns were reported in the pilot tests. Data were collected on-site during the days of the event (3–5 February 2014) with questionnaires administered face-to-face by 17 interviewers; at the end of the event a convenience sample of 262 complete responses was obtained. Data were coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 19), and a series of descriptive analyses, independent t-tests, and regression analyses were performed for the purpose of the study.

4   Results

The sample was well-balanced in terms of age of respondents; a slight majority (38.6%) of middle-aged people (36–56 years old) was found. On average, the respondents were 48.7 years old, mainly women (63.3%), with a high school diploma (42%) or bachelor degrees (40%) and an annual income lower than €28,000 (41.4%) or falling into the €28,000 to €55,000 bracket/range (28.5%). Respondents were mostly national (66.06%) or international visitors (17.94%) (mainly from France, Germany and Spain), whereas 16% were regional tourists; they were mostly travelling with a partner (39.6%), with friends (32.2%) or their family (18.8%), whereas a relatively small percentage were reported travelling alone (4%) or in an organized group (3.7%).

Table 1 shows that respondents perceived the event as highly unique (M = 4.72), were highly satisfied with their experience (M = 4.72), were willing to recommend both the event (M = 4.51) and the host destination (M = 4.25). Further, they seem relatively willing to share their experience over the web by uploading comments, reviews, photos and videos using social media (M = 3.53).

Table 1 First-time spectators' and repeaters' satisfaction, perceived uniqueness of the event and future intentions

Items	Total	First-timers		Repeaters		T-test	
	Mean	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	p-value
Overall, I'm very satisfied with the event	4.72	4.70	0.532	4.74	0.492	−0.618	0.537
This event is unique	4.72	4.69	0.648	4.76	0.579	−0.749	0.454
I will participate in the next edition of the event	3.67	3.27	1.361	4.07	1.163	−4.569	0.001[a]
I will recommend this event to friends and relatives	4.51	4.55	0.798	4.48	0.981	0.624	0.533
I will recommend this destination to friends and relatives	4.25	4.10	1.135	4.41	0.905	−2.106	0.036[b]
I would like to come back to this destination for a holiday	4.07	3.82	1.401	4.33	1.38	−2.856	0.005[a]
I will share my experience using social media	3.53	3.54	1.623	3.53	1.663	0.044	0.965

[a]significant at 0.01 level
[b]significant at 0.05 level
SD Standard Deviation

Deepening the discussion of descriptive statistics, Table 1 shows that repeaters ranked higher mean scores in all but one statement (intention to recommend the event) used to investigate the aforementioned variables. However, based on independent t-tests, first-time visitors and repeaters differ significantly just in terms of their intention to return to the event ($p = 0.001$) and in terms of intention to return to the destination ($p = 0.005$) and to recommend it to others ($p = 0.036$). No significant differences were found between the two groups based on their level of satisfaction, thus partially contradicting prior studies reporting first-time visitors as more receptive to satisfaction than repeaters (e.g., Anwar and Sohail 2004).

To investigate which variables are likely to influence visitors' total expenditure, a regression model was run with prior visitation, age, gender, level of education, professional status, family income and geographical status (Sardinian *vs.* national and international spectators) being the independent variables, and the total expenditure the dependent one (Table 2).

Results indicated that the model is significant (F = 2.466; $p < 0.01$) and summarized a total variance of 27.4%. Findings reveal that age (ß = 0.160; $p = 0.027$) and monthly family income (ß = 0.158; $p = 0.032$) exert a significant influence on visitors' total expenditure ($p < 0.05$). Contrariwise, the total expenditure is not

Table 2 Spectators spending behaviour: a regression analysis

	Std Beta	t	Sig.
Constant		−0.807	0.421
Gender	−0.036	-0.564	0.573
Age	0.160	2.219	0.027[a]
Level of education	0.038	0.563	0.574
Professional status	0.064	0.961	0.37
Geographical status	0.046	0.703	0.483
Monthly income	0.158	2.156	0.032[a]
Prior visitation	−0.064	−0.978	0.329
R-square	0.274		
Adj R-square	0.047		
F-test	2.670		0.01

[a]significant at 0.05 level

significantly influenced by gender (ß = −0.036; p = 0.573), level of education (ß = 0.038; p = 0.574), professional status (ß = 0.064; p = 0.37), geographical status (ß = 0.046 p = 0.483) or prior visitation (ß = −0.064; p = 0.329).

To obtain a deeper knowledge of visitors' spending behaviours, the mean value of total expenditure by product category was calculated for first-timers and repeaters (Table 3).

Repeaters were reported to have a higher average expenditure (M = 135.49) than first-time spectators (M = 129.8) and they appeared to spend more in all but one product category (B&B). However, when independent t-tests were run, the spending behaviours of first-time and repeaters did not differ significantly. This result seems to confirm the idea that prior travel experience (i.e. repeaters vs. first-timers) does not necessarily generate significant differences in visitors/spectators' preferences and consumption levels (Chang et al. 2013; Del Chiappa et al. 2014).

Table 3 Comparison of daily expenditure by first-time and repeat spectators: mean score (in euro) and t-test

Expenditure type	First-timers		Repeaters		T-test	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	sig
Hotel	64.47	41.112	70.3	64.812	−0.448	0.656
B&B	55.38	49.572	33.76	19.387	1.255	0.22
Food and beverage	43.33	42.99	47.07	67.03	−0.483	0.629
Souvenirs	39.81	56.74	41.8	55.37	−0.173	0.863
Books	11.33	7.361	18.44	27.678	−0.959	0.346
Museums	10.0	7.476	10.86	7.485	−0.38	0.706
Local transport	10.37	8.296	15.83	12.332	−0.906	0.384
Other	48.88	51.175	56.75	32.898	−0.289	0.776
Total expenditure	129.8	154.75	135.49	183.482	−0.265	0.792

SD Standard Deviation

5 Conclusion

Findings reported repeaters expressing higher satisfaction, more positive behavioural intentions and higher average economic expenditure than first-time spectators. However, repeaters scored significantly higher when intention to return to the event, intention to return to the destination and intention to recommend it to others were considered. The fact that first-timers and repeaters were not found to have a significantly different level of satisfaction seems to partially contradict prior studies reporting the former as being more receptive to satisfaction than are repeaters (e.g., Anwar and Sohail 2004). The fact that repeaters were reported to spend more that first-time visitors seems to suggest that repeaters are not necessarily engaged in fewer activities than first-timers, as was suggested by prior studies (e.g., Wang 2004). Further, results highlighting no significant differences in spending behaviour confirm prior studies, suggesting that previous travel experience does not necessarily affect visitors' preferences and expenditure (Del Chiappa et al. 2014; Kruger et al. 2010). The fact that no significant difference was found in the expenditure of first-timers and repeaters could be due to the budgets of visitors/spectators; it is rather obvious that an increase in travel budget would increase a visitor's expenditure (Chang et al. 2013) independently of status as a first-timer.

Finally, age and monthly family income were found to exert a significant influence on the visitors' total expenditure, thus confirming prior studies (e.g., Brida et al. 2013; Downward and Lumdson 2004). On the contrary, no significant differences were found based on gender, level of education, professional status, geographical status or prior visitation. This partially disconfirms the results of previous studies. For example, Brida et al. (2013) reported men spending more than women and showed that visitors' expenditure at a cultural event was higher for visitors with a higher travel distance. On the other hand, Thrane (2002) reported professional status as able to differentiate the average expenditure of spectators at events. That said, our findings add to the body of knowledge highlighting an inconsistent relationship between travel experience, travel expenditure and post-trip evaluation and behavioural intentions (e.g., Cho 2009). The fact that some inconsistencies exist in the findings of different studies into this tourism research area could be explained, as suggested in other studies (Williams and Lawson 2001), by referring to the different settings in which studies have been conducted, all of which are obviously highly site-specific (in terms of socio-demographic characteristics and personality of visitors, tourism offer, retail and commercial facilities, etc.) and, thus, hardly generalizable.

From a marketing perspective, our findings underline the need to achieve an effective visitors/spectators mix, in which the proportions of first-timers and repeaters are balanced so that the hosting destination can obtain the highest economic and marketing benefits. In an attempt to achieve this goal, policymakers, destination marketers and event organizers should plan and implement different marketing and communications strategies for first-time and repeat visitors and

should offer tailored event programs and activities to each group (e.g., Correia et al. 2008). For example, one could argue that the lower average expenditure of first-time spectators is due to their relatively poor knowledge and familiarity with the destination; hence, destination marketers should put more efforts into disseminating information related to their attractions, service providers and diverse entertainment opportunities (such as other local events and museums) to first-timers and attempt to facilitate contact. It is evident that there is a need to understand the most effective communication strategy to be used for different spectator/visitor segments (first-timers and repeaters).

This remains a challenge for destination marketers engaged in Internet, digital and social media marketing. For example, destination marketers may find it useful to dedicate portions of their websites or links to first-timers and repeaters and then characterize them with different content. To illustrate, for first-timers, who presumably know less about the destinations, they could emphasize information on the most-known attractions and the places to buy local and authentic souvenirs to bring home as mementoes of place and time. Further, event organizers could make use of social media (such as Facebook, Twitter, etc.) to proactively and directly promote tourism experiences to visitors who decided to use travel 2.0 application as a way to be easily informed (prior to and during their visitation) about all the activities and experiences that the destination is able to deliver to them during the event. Further, the fact that repeaters were reported to spend more seems to suggest that loyalty schemes could be offered to retain these types of visitors by offering them the possibility of a discount for experiencing certain shows, attractions and leisure activities. Finally, our findings suggest it could be useful to run cross-selling strategies and stronger incentives to encourage both first-timers and repeaters, but especially the former, to purchase multiple products simultaneously, thus contributing to an increase in total tourism revenue (Chang et al. 2013).

Aside from the theoretical and managerial contributions, this study is not free of limitations. First, we used a convenience sample and its size is rather small. Further, we introduced a concrete case study involving a carnival event in a specific tourism destination; the idiosyncratic characteristics of the destination could affect the spectators' decision-making and consumption levels and patterns. Thus, our findings cannot be generalized to other cultural/carnival events or destinations. The replication of our study at other carnival events would allow for wider generalizations to be made from the results obtained. Second, our study focused on the actual expenditure reported by visitors and did not consider the moderator effect that the economic budgets of spectators could exert on their spending behaviours; further, it is not able to capture whether spectators at the event spent less or more when compared to the budget that they planned in advance. Future studies should consider the role of mental budgets when investigating visitors' spending behaviours (e.g., Brida and Tokarchuk 2015) as related findings could add to the knowledge base on first-timers vs repeaters and could provide policymakers, destination marketers and event organizers with useful information to be used to refine their marketing strategies and service packages by providing products based more on visitors' varying travel budgets than on previous travel experience. In other

words, by comparing mental budgets with actual spending patterns of visitors, decision makers could evaluate the extent to which the overall portfolio of tourism attractions an experiences is able to allow visitors to spend as they would wish. Third, the study did not consider the travel histories of respondents. The fact that they are first-timers does not necessarily mean that they are inexperienced in traveling and in attending cultural events. Future studies should explicitly investigate the concept of travel/event career ladder and its role in mediating the first-timers' and repeaters' behaviours (Li et al. 2008). Forth, the fact that the study is based on data collected via a survey administered face-to-face might not have helped to capture the real expenditures of respondents and to identify the underlying causes of the differences, which could be embedded in the pre-trip decision-making and post-trip evaluation processes (Li et al. 2008). Future research would benefit from using a more sophisticated data collection method such as action-tracking technology (Della Lucia et al. 2011) or from merging it with traditional survey methods.

References

Akhoondnejad, A. (2016). Tourist loyalty to a local cultural event: The case of Turkmen handicrafts festival. *Tourism Management, 52,* 468–477.

Alegre, J., & Cladera, M. (2010). Tourist expenditure and quality: Why repeat tourists can spend less than first-timers. *Tourism Economics, 16*(3), 517–533.

Anwar, S. A., & Sohail, M. S. (2004). Festival tourism in the United Arab Emirates: First-time versus repeat visitor perceptions. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 10*(2), 161–170.

Assael, H. (2004). *Consumer behavior: A strategic approach*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Binkhorst, E., & Den Dekker, T. (2009). Agenda for co-creation tourism experience research. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 18*(2–3), 311–327.

Bojanic, D. C. (2011). The impact of age and family life experiences on Mexican visitor shopping expenditures. *Tourism Management, 32*(2), 406–414.

Bowdin, G., Allen, J., O'Toole, W., Harris, R., & McDonnel, I. (2006). *Events management* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Elsevier.

Brida, J. G., & Tokarchuk, O. (2015). Keeping mental budgets: Visitors' spending at a Christmas market. *Tourism Economics, 21*(1), 67–82.

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.

Chang, J. (2006). Segmenting tourists to aboriginal cultural festivals: An example in the Rukai tribal area. *Taiwan. Tourism Management, 27*(6), 1224–1234.

Chang, K. L., Chen, C. M., & Meyer, T. J. (2013). A comparison study of travel expenditure and consumption choices between first-time and repeat visitors. *Tourism Management, 35,* 275–277.

Cho, V. (2009). A study of non-economic determinants in tourism demand. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 12*(4), 307–320.

Correia, A., Oliveira, N., & Butler, R. (2008). First-time and repeat visitors to Cape Verde: The overall image. *Tourism Economics, 14*(1), 185–203.

Craggs, R., & Schofield, P. (2009). Expenditure-based segmentation of visitor profiling at The Quays in Salford. *UK Tourism Economics, 15*(1), 243–260.

Del Chiappa, G., Tinaz, C., & Michele Turco, D. (2014). Driving first-time and repeat spectators to a motor sport event. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 8*(4), 388–400.

Della Lucia, M., Zeni, N., Mich, L., & Franch, M. (2011). Assessing the economic impact of cultural events: A methodology based on applying action-tracking technologies. *Information Technology and Tourism, 12*(3), 249–267.

Downward, P., & Lumdson, L. (2004). Tourism transport and visitor spending: a study in the North York Moors National. *UK Journal of Travel Research, 42*(4), 415–420.

Fakeye, P. C., & Crompton, J. L. (1991). Image differences between prospective, first-time, and repeat visitors to the lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research, 30*(2), 10–16.

Felsenstein, D., & Fleischer, A. (2003). Local festivals and tourism promotion: The role of public assistance and visitor expenditure. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(4), 385–392.

Formica, S., & Uysal, M. (1998). Market segmentation of an international cultural-historical event in Italy. *Journal of Travel Research, 36*(4), 16–24.

Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management, 29*(3), 403–428.

Gitelson, R. J., & Crompton, J. L. (1984). Insights into the repeat vacation phenomenon. *Annals of Tourism Research, 11*(2), 199–217.

Herrero, L. C., Sanz, J. Á., Devesa, M., Bedate, A., & Del Barrio, M. J. (2006). The economic impact of cultural events a case-study of Salamanca 2002, European capital of culture. *European urban and regional studies, 13*(1), 41–57.

Kim, H. J., Gursoy, D., & Lee, S. B. (2006). The impact of the 2002 World Cup on South Korea: Comparisons of pre- and post-games. *Tourism Management, 27*(1), 86–96.

Kozak, M. (2001). Repeaters' behavior at two distinct destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research, 28*(3), 784–807.

Kruger, M., Saayman, M., & Ellis, S. M. (2010). Does loyalty pay? First-time versus repeat visitors at a national arts festival. *Southern African Business Review, 14*(1), 79–104.

Lau, A. L., & McKercher, B. (2004). Exploration versus acquisition: A comparison of first-time and repeat visitors. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(3), 279–285.

Lee, J. S., Lee, C. K., & Yoon, Y. (2009). Investigating differences in antecedents to value between first-time and repeat festival goers. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 26*(7), 688–702.

Lee, J., Kyle, G., & Scott, D. (2012). The mediating effect of place attachment on the relationship between festival satisfaction and loyalty to the festival hosting destination. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(6), 754–767.

Li, X., Cheng, C. K., Kim, H., & Petrick, J. F. (2008). A systematic comparison of first-time and repeat visitors via a two-phase online survey. *Tourism Management, 29*(2), 278–293.

Matheson, C. M., Rimmer, R., & Tinsley, R. (2014). Spiritual attitudes and visitor motivations at the Beltane Fire Festival, Edinburgh. *Tourism Management, 44,* 16–33.

McKercher, B., & Wong, D. Y. Y. (2004). Understanding tourism behavior: Examining the combined effects of prior visitation history and destination status. *Journal of Travel Research, 43*(2), 171–179.

Mohr, K., Backman, K. F., Gahan, L. W., & Backman, S. J. (1993). An investigation of festival motivations and event satisfaction by visitor type. *Festival Management and Event Tourism, 1*(3), 89–97.

Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research, 17*(4), 460–469.

Oppermann, M. (1997). First-time and repeat visitors to New Zealand. *Tourism Management, 18* (3), 177–181.

Oppermann, M. (1998). Destination threshold potential and the law of repeat visitation. *Journal of Travel Research, 37*(2), 131–137.

Oppermann, M. (2000). Tourism destination loyalty. *Journal of Travel Research, 39*(1), 78–84.

Petrick, J. F. (2004). First-timers' and repeaters' perceived value. *Journal of Travel Research, 43*(1), 29–38.

Petrick, J. F., Morais, D. D., & Norman, W. C. (2001). An examination of the determinants of entertainment vacationers' intentions to revisit. *Journal of Travel Research, 40*(1), 41–48.

Quick, S. (2000). Contemporary sport consumers: some implications of linking fan typology with key spectator variables. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 9*(3), 149–156.

Raya, M. J. (2012). Length of stay for triathlon participants in the challenge Maresme-Barcelona: A survival approach. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues, 36*(1), 86–105.

Reid, L. J., & Reid, S. D. (1993). Communicating tourism supplier services: Building repeat visitor relationships. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 2*(2/3), 3–19.

Richards, G., & Wilson, J. (2004). The impact of cultural events on city image: Rotterdam, cultural capital of Europe 2001. *Urban studies, 41*(10), 1931–1951.

Saayman, M., & Saayman, A. (2008). Socio-demographic and behavioural determinants of visitor spending at a national arts festival: A panel data analysis. *World Journal on Events, 1*(1), 28–33.

Saayman, M., Krugell, W., & van der Merwe, P. (2007). The determinants of spending by biltong hunters. *South African Journal of Economics and Management Sciences, 10*(2), 184–194.

Sato, M., Jordan, J. S., Kaplanidou, K., & Funk, D. C. (2014). Determinants of tourists' expenditure at mass participant sport events: A five-year analysis. *Current Issues in Tourism, 17*(9), 763–771.

Seiler, V. L., Hsieh, S., Seiler, M. J., & Hsieh, C. (2003). Modelling travel expenditures for Taiwanese tourism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 13*(4), 47–60.

Shani, A., Rivera, M. A., & Hara, T. (2009). Assessing the viability of repeat visitors to cultural events: Evidence from the Zora! Festival. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism, 10*(2), 89–104.

Tang, Q., & Turco, D. M. (2001). Spending behaviours of event tourists. *Journal of Convention and Exhibition Marketing, 3*(2), 33–40.

Thrane, C. (2002). Jazz festival visitors and their expenditures: Linking spending patterns to musical interest. *Journal of Travel Research, 40*(3), 281–286.

Wang, D. (2004). Tourist behaviour and repeat visitation to Hong Kong. *Tourism Geographies, 6*(1), 99–118.

Warnick, R. B., Bojanic, D. C., & Xu, F. (2013). Using a trade market analysis technique to refine measurements for economic impact analysis of special events. *Journal of Travel Research, 54*(1), 52–65.

Williams, J., & Lawson, R. (2001). Community issues and resident opinions of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 28*(2), 269–290.

Zaltman, G., LeMasters, K., & Heffring, M. (1982). *Theory construction in marketing. Some thoughts on thinking*. New York, NY: Wiley.

A Journey Inside Tourist Souvenirs

Alain Decrop and Julie Masset

Abstract Through a naturalistic interpretive approach, our videography conducted in tourism research invites to travel inside tourist souvenirs around the world. To bring back souvenirs is as old as travelling itself. Tourist souvenirs are often considered as special possessions that may convey deep meanings to consumers' lives and play a role in their identity construction. Through a grounded theory approach, the film presents the motives for buying and consuming souvenirs. Two major motives, that is, remembrance and enduring involvement, as well as more specific motivations (i.e., utility, hedonism, improvement of a collection, bargain hunting, gift-giving, or need to reciprocate a favor or a gift) are underlined. A typology of four types of symbolic souvenirs, that is, tourist trinkets, destination stereotypes, paper mementoes, and picked-up objects is also developed. Finally, it emphasizes five functions these souvenirs fulfil in terms of consumer identity construction, that is, connection, integration, socialization, self-expression, and sacralization.

1 Introduction

Souvenirs are as old as travelling itself. As soon as human beings started to travel far away from home, they brought material souvenirs back from their trips. For instance, in the late sixteenth century, art collections appeared as collectors wanted to immortalize their Grand Tour in the form of souvenirs such as guidebooks, illustrated maps, or minerals. The contemporary tourist makes no exception. Shopping is one of the prevailing contemporary tourist rituals (Belk 1997). It represents a major business for tourist destinations. In 2013, the U.S. Travel Association indicated that shopping was the primary leisure travel activity for

A. Decrop (✉) · J. Masset
University of Namur, Namur, Belgium
e-mail: alain.decrop@unamur.be

J. Masset
e-mail: julie.masset@unamur.be

overseas visitors travelling to the U.S., before sightseeing, fine dining, national parks/monuments, and art galleries/museums (U.S. Travel Association 2014). However, significant cultural differences exist in shopping behavior. Compared to American, European, or Australian tourists, Asian tourists usually devote a higher share of their total travel budget to shopping (up to 61%) (Timothy 2005). Such a difference may originate from traditions or cultural imperatives. For example, in Japan, buying an "*omiyage*" for family members, friends, and colleagues is highly valued when travelling. Gifts and souvenirs make up a substantial part of tourist expenditures (Lehto et al. 2004; Littrell et al. 1994). In 2013, 42.6% of international tourists visiting the UK purchased tourist souvenirs (i.e., food or alcoholic products, items for home, and other holiday souvenirs), while 40.7% bought clothes and shoes (VisitBritain 2014).

Our videography invites to travel around the world of tourist souvenirs, considering more specifically material souvenirs, i.e., all the objects that are bought, picked-up in the natural environment, or received from a significant person (e.g., a local) during the vacation experience. We excluded specialty goods (e.g., clothing, perfumes, or jewelry) bought by tourists from the scope of this research because our informants do not consider them as tourist souvenirs. Our research goal is to understand better and more deeply the motives and meanings associated with the purchase and consumption of souvenirs.

2 Literature Review

Consumers may feel a strong attachment towards their souvenirs and consider them as special possessions (McCracken 1988; Wallendorf and Arnould 1988; Wallendorf et al. 1988). According to Belk (1988) and McCracken (1988), consumers attribute importance to their possessions because they encompass a part of themselves, they belong to their self and reveal their identity. Possessions contribute to define who consumers are: "men and women make order in their selves (i.e., retrieve their identity) by first creating and then interacting with the material world. The nature of such a transaction will determine, to a great extent, the kind of person that emerges. Thus the things that surround us are inseparable from who we are" (Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton 1981, p. 16). Such a strong attachment may also stem from the sacred status of these special possessions as opposed to the profane status of other objects: "sacred objects are seen as mystical, powerful, and deserving of reverential behaviour, as opposed to the ordinary, common, and mundane behaviour accorded to profane commodities" (Wallendorf et al. 1988, p. 529). However, despite its importance for self-identity development, the field of tourist special possessions has been under-studied in consumer research. In addition, extant studies on tourist souvenirs lack depth (Swanson and Timothy 2012) and fail to explore both their functional and symbolic dimensions. They traditionally focus on the types, uses, and functionalities of souvenirs (Gordon 1986), rather than on the meanings given to them (Love and Sheldon 1998). The current

research aims at filling such gaps. Specifically, the following research questions are addressed through the film: What are the motives for buying and consuming souvenirs? Which meanings are associated with souvenirs? Which functions do souvenirs fulfil in terms of consumer identity construction?

3   Method

To address these questions, we chose a naturalistic interpretive approach. The goal of such approach is to understand the occurrence of natural phenomena in situ (Lincoln and Guba 1985). To get such an idiosyncratic understanding, immersing oneself in the field is needed to achieve *thick descriptions* (Geertz 1973). In total, 39 Belgian tourists were interviewed. Specifically, we interviewed 19 informants at home and we observed their souvenirs in the home context. Furthermore, we participated in a one-week package tour in Portugal during which we observed 42 Belgian tourists and their souvenir buying behavior and we interviewed 20 of them in depth. Non-participant observations were also conducted in other tourist destinations such as New York, Turkey and Egypt. The collected data included interview transcripts, field notes, and visual materials (i.e., pictures and videos). They were analyzed and interpreted through Grounded Theory, which is an inductive and systematic way to generate theoretical insights from empirical data through different layers of coding (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Strauss and Corbin 1990).

4   Results

The core of our film is built around emerging findings. These are supported with quotes, interview chunks, pictures, and videos and are divided in three sections. Firstly, the motives for buying and consuming souvenirs are considered. Two major motives, i.e., remembrance and enduring involvement, as well as more specific motivations (i.e., utility, hedonism, improvement of a collection, bargain hunting, gift-giving, or need to reciprocate a favor or a gift) are developed.

   Second, a typology of four types of symbolic souvenirs, including tourist trinkets, destination stereotypes, paper mementoes, and picked-up objects is presented. Tourist trinkets involve small trinkets or gadgets (e.g., mugs, key rings, and tee-shirts) that are bought for a cheap price in souvenir shops anywhere in the world. The second type, destination stereotypes, entails tourist objects depicted as "the specialty of the place" (e.g., Egyptian papyrus, Eiffel Towers, and Russian dolls). Although tourists are aware that such mass-produced objects are not unique, they still buy them because they stand for the destination. In addition, before and during the vacation experience, tourists collect and keep all types of paper

mementoes (e.g., city maps, entrance tickets, books, and leaflets). Finally, picked-up objects such as stones, sand, seeds, and coral are the type of souvenirs mentioned by tourists with the greatest enthusiasm. Tourists often bring back something for free from the natural environment in order to escape the market or simply to have something more typical and unique in their eyes. Rather than a monetary or intrinsic value, a strong affective or symbolic value is conferred to these objects.

Thirdly, our film examines the meanings given to souvenirs. In addition to the private/individual or public/cultural meanings attached to souvenirs, this final section emphasizes five functions souvenirs may fulfil in terms of consumer identity construction: connection, integration, socialization, self-expression, and sacralization. When purchasing and consuming souvenirs, tourists can be connected with a person, a particular destination, a memorable vacation event, or a significant anecdote. They can also tend to affirm their integration within a group of travellers or within the broader tourist sub-culture. Moreover, souvenirs may be a way to communicate and socialize with other people. In addition to the social functions, souvenirs may help consumers to express their personal taste and to affirm their status as tourists. In other words, they may fulfil self-expression and ego-enhancement functions. Finally, some souvenirs may become sacralized. Proofs of the sacred are found in collection rituals, commitment, objectification, symbolic contamination, and shrines made of souvenirs.

5 Conclusion

Tourist souvenirs are a typical example of special possessions that may convey deep meanings to tourists' lives. This film provides a deep understanding of the motives and meanings for buying and consuming such souvenirs. Therefore, it contributes to consumer research and tourism marketing. In contrast with previous research on souvenirs, our study explores the functional and symbolic dimensions of souvenirs through a naturalistic interpretive approach. It also underlines the power of souvenirs as messengers of deep meanings (Love and Sheldon, 1998). It shows that these meanings can be individual or cultural, private or public (Richins 1994). The significant role of tourist special possessions in consumer identity construction is emphasized as well. Finally, tourist souvenirs seem to be the perfect illustration of a hierophany (Belk et al. 1991) as the souvenir's sacredness is intrinsically related to the story of the object for his/her owner.

As material agents or messengers of meaning, tourist souvenirs can ease the transition from the tourist experience, which is often related to something extraordinary, sacred, and unique, to everyday life, often described as ordinary, profane, and mundane. Our videography concludes on the significance of souvenirs

in the tourist experience and their ubiquity in every corner of the world. "Souvenirs have existed for thousands of years, and as long as people continue to travel, they will continue to be an important element of the experience" (Swanson and Timothy 2012: 497).

Notes

You can find our videography on https://vimeo.com/144092450 (password: ATMC2015).

References

Belk, R. W. (1988). Possessions and the extended-self. *Journal of Consumer Research, 15*(2), 139–168.

Belk, R. W. (1997). Been there, done that, bought the souvenirs: Of journeys and boundary crossing. In S. Brown & D. Turley (Eds.), *Consumer research: Postcards from the edge* (pp. 22–45). London: Routledge.

Belk, R. W., Wallendorf, M., & Sherry, J. (1991). The sacred and the profane in consumer behaviour: Theodicy on the odyssey. In R. W. Belk (Ed.), *Highways and buyways: Naturalistic research from the consumer behaviour odyssey* (pp. 59–95). Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Rochberg-Halton, E. (1981). *The meaning of things: Domestic symbols and the self*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Geertz, C. (1973). Deep play: Notes on the Balinese cockfight. In C. Geertz (Ed.), *The interpretation of cultures* (pp. 412–453). New York: Basic Books.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for Qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine.

Gordon, B. (1986). The souvenir: Messenger of the extraordinary. *Journal of Popular Culture, 20* (3), 135–146.

Lehto, X. Y., Cai, L. A., O'Leary, J. T., & Huan, T.-C. (2004). Tourist shopping preferences and expenditure behaviours: The case of the Taiwanese outbound market. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 10*(4), 320–332.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Littrell, M. A., Baizerman, S., Kean, R., Gahring, S., Niemeyer, S., Reilly, R., et al. (1994). Souvenirs and tourism styles. *Journal of Travel Research, 33*(1), 3–11.

Love, L. L., & Sheldon, P. S. (1998). Souvenirs: Messengers of meaning. In J. W. Alba & J. Wesley (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research* (pp. 170–175), 25. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

McCracken, G. (1988). *Culture and consumption: New approaches to the symbolic character of consumption goods and activities*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Richins, M. L. (1994). Valuing things: The public and private meanings of possessions. *Journal of Consumer Research, 21*(3), 504–521.

Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park: Sage.

Swanson, K. K., & Timothy, D. J. (2012). Souvenirs: Icons of meaning, commercialization and commoditization. *Tourism Management, 33*(3), 489–499.

Timothy, D. J. (2005). *Shopping tourism, retailing, and leisure*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

U.S. Travel Association (2014). U.S. Travel Answer Sheet. Available from http://www.otia.info/docs/US_Travel_AnswerSheet_June_2014.pdf. Accessed on Jan 19 2017.

VisitBritain (2014). Inbound shopping research. Available from https://www.visitbritain.org/shopping. Accessed on Jan 19 2017.

Wallendorf, M., & Arnould, E. J. (1988). My favorite things: A cross-cultural inquiry into Object attachment, possessiveness, and social linkage. *Journal of Consumer Research, 14*(4), 531–547.

Wallendorf, M., Belk, R. W., & Heisley, D. (1988). Deep meaning in possessions: The paper. In M. J. Houston (Ed.), *Advances in consumer research* (pp. 528–530), 15. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Part II
Experience Co-production

From Conflict to Co-creation: Ski-Touring on Groomed Slopes in Austria

Ulrike Pröbstl-Haider and Rainer Lampl

Abstract The presented case study examines the co-creation of experiences, with the customer playing the role of an active agent, the reaction of the tourism branch and the start of a successful co-creation process in winter tourism. When ski-touring on groomed slopes emerged the tourism branch showed no openness to discuss this new emerging trend. Therefore, our research focuses on the values, motivation and desired experiences of this new user group. The research findings were used to develop a new offer with experts and managers of the "Ski Amadé" region in Austria, in order to use the information by the clients for the co-creation of new infrastructure. The research findings and the related case study in Ramsau/Styria (Austria) show that the development of a new product in co-creation with the clients leads to new opportunities and also to new guests and target groups—despite the fact that this potential had not been perceived by the established tourism industry beforehand, which was trying to prevent, or at least minimize and regulate this new request and demand.

1 Introduction

Ski-touring has always been a typical activity of winter tourists and recreationists in the alpine area. However, compared to downhill skiing or cross country skiing, ski-touring was always of minor relevance from a tourism perspective. These conditions have changed in the last years. In 2010, Austrian sports shops for the first time sold more skis for ski-touring purposes (43,000 pairs of skis) than for

U. Pröbstl-Haider (✉)
University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences, Vienna, Austria
e-mail: Ulrike.proebstl@boku.ac.at

R. Lampl
Green-Solutions GmbH&Co.KG, Murnau, Germany
e-mail: office@green-solutions.info

cross-country-skiing (37,000 pairs). According to the Austrian Alpine Club, between 600,000 and 700,000 people now participate in this activity in Austria and their numbers are still increasing (Haberfellner 2012). In the winter season 2013/2014, about four percent of all winter tourists in Austria stated that they had participated in this activity (Austria Tourism 2014).

One reason for these changes might be a new activity which has appeared in many Austrian and German ski resorts: ski-touring on groomed slopes. Instead of buying a ticket for the ski slopes from the cable car enterprises, an increasing number of tourists decides to ascend the mountains along the ski slopes with touring skis. This activity, which was traditionally carried out outside ski areas and off-piste, has suddenly appeared within the boundaries of the ski areas and is increasing in attractiveness and in the number of participants. The ski resort in Garmisch-Partenkirchen in Germany, which counted about 12,500 of these recreationists during the daytime over the whole season of 2012, perceived a significant increase up to 20,000 individuals in just two years. Since many tourists and outdoor recreationists also participate in this activity during the evenings and night time, experts roughly estimate that the real numbers exceed 30,000 participants (Süddeutsche Zeitung 2014). Resort managers in Austria report that, at peak times, more than 400 persons ascend the left and right sides of their slopes per day (ORF 2015).

The first reaction by the tourism entrepreneurs and industry was to combat this activity, calling these tourists "parasites" or a "nightmare for cable car enterprises" (Buttinger 2010; Rottenberg 2011; Rambauske and Haselböck 2010), combined with warnings of possible accidents on the slopes with downhill skiers or at night when the slopes are being groomed with snowcats.

An analysis of the current management of this new activity reveals two main models (Pröbstl-Haider and Lampl 2014):

- A total closure of the resort for this kind of activity (e.g. ski resorts in Flachau or at the Katschberg in Salzburg,) to ensure security for the downhill skiers and to avoid liability problems.
- A cluster-solution, where most of the resorts are closed, while some are open during the day and in the evenings. A special guide and announcement in the internet informs recreationists and tourists about the opening hours. This model is also called the Tyrolian-solution, named after 19 ski resorts around Innsbruck that cooperate in order to provide at least one resort per day or night in which ski-touring on groomed slopes is allowed.

Only some resorts discuss whether they can integrate this group into their offers and charge for services.

Our hypothesis was that, if we are able to understand the motives and the desired experiences by this new segment of winter guests, we would be able to co-create a new tourism product for winter tourism in Austria. Based on these findings, we developed a new product and discussed the precondition for a successful implementation.

2 Literature Review

Product development and the development of points of interest are of increasing relevance for destinations. Zwermann (2006, p. 16) underlines that, in the future, the destination itself will be less important, while the provided activities and the diversity of experiences will be crucial. Pechlaner and Döpfer (2009) highlight that product development should be embedded in a long term concept including ecological, social and economic sustainability.

The tourism literature considers right from the beginning that the clients are able to influence product development. However, the main role was always given the providers in combination with the transfer from offers by competitors and new offers created by applied research (Kotler et al. 1999). Current literature argues that the tourist not only has a passive role, but is actually a crucial participant in the value creation process (Carù and Cova 2007, p. 7; Prebensen et al. 2013, p. 241). Co-creation in tourism is defined as a development of tourism products in collaboration with the users. As indicated in Fig. 1, co-creation starts by including user feedback to improve the product and various services on the one hand and the satisfaction of future visitors on the other (Kim et al. 2012, p. 14).

In theory, co-creation experiences during a vacation often require interaction with other people (such as hosts and guests) and with products and services, and result in an altered experience value for the visitors themselves and for others (Prebensen et al. 2013). While the influence of customers through information technology is already large, the discussion on co-creation by other means is still
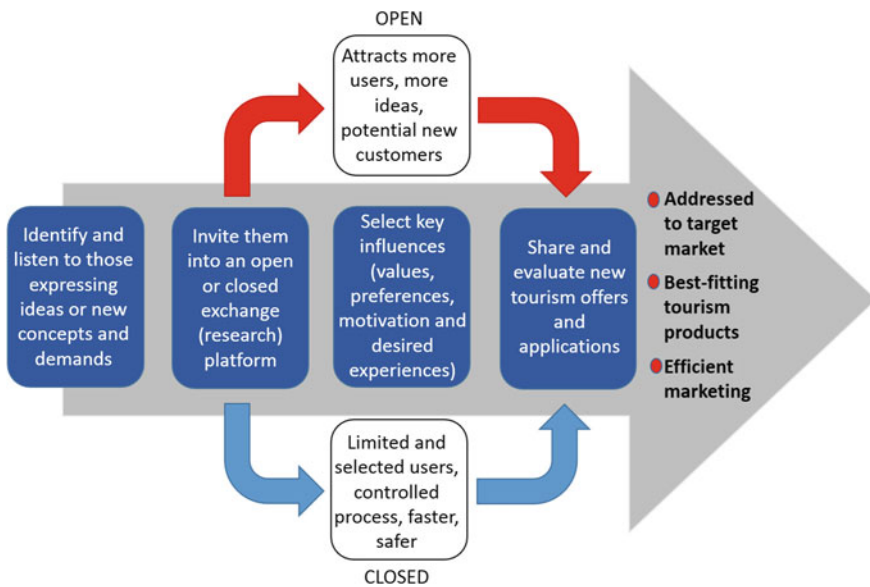
Fig. 1 Model for a successful co-creation

limited (Cabiddu et al. 2013). In order to be successful, co-creation in tourism requires a tourism supply which is open for new ideas, new experiences and new concepts proposed by its clients.

The presented case study examines the co-creation of experiences—with the customer playing the role of an active agent—the reaction of the tourism branch and the start of a successful co-creation process in winter tourism.

In our example, the tourism branch was confronted with "creative" clients developing and requesting new offers. The tourism branch showed no openness (see Fig. 1) to exchange new ideas, or demand to discuss this new emerging trend. Therefore our research focuses on the values, motivation and desired experiences of this new user group.

a. **Traditional ski-touring**

While the number of downhill skiers in Austria is decreasing (Zellmann and Mayrhofer 2010, p. 6), ski-touring is gaining in attractiveness. The main motivations to participate in this activity are the expected nature experiences on the one hand and positive health effects on the other (Dvorak 2003, p. 92). These findings are confirmed by a survey in the Nature Park Mürzer Oberland, where respondents stated that nature, fitness and being outdoors were of main importance to them (Pröbstl and Wirth 2011). A study by the Gesäuse National Park, in which ski-touring is a highly requested activity, again revealed the main motives as being nature experience, silence, being outdoors, recreation and being active (Sterl et al. 2010).

The positive health effects are confirmed by Schenk et al. (2011), Helmenstein et al. (2007, p. 7) and Arbesser et al. (2008, p. 14). They report that ski-touring is an effective training for the cardiovascular system and enhances physical fitness. The fact that the activity is performed in high mountainous areas has additional positive health effects. Oxygenation of body tissue and glucoregulation are increased, oxidative stress is reduced and coordination improved. The endurance training associated with alpine sports strengthens the immune system and helps prevent lifestyle diseases such as type 2 diabetes (Helmenstein et al. 2007, p. 7). Research findings by Arbesser et al. (2008, p. 14) even show positive neuro-psychological effects, such as improved sleep quality or a positive attitude towards life.

Lagerstrom and Liedtke (2004) describe ski-touring as an activity that is suitable for many different target groups, because extreme physical strain is easy to avoid. According to their findings, ski-touring can be perceived as a preventative and health improving outdoor recreation activity.

Although these positive effects are not new and are well described, ski-touring was not included in the overall product development of the main ski-resorts in the alpine area. The activity was grouped with those activities supposed to be attractive for a so-called "alternative" market not interested in down-hill skiing and mass tourism.

However, the interest in this activity is now so high that newspapers recently described the current situation at famous places not as a unique nature experience but as a case of "follow the masses" (Süddeutsche Zeitung 2014). These trends provide opportunities to discuss new product development in cooperation with the clients.

3 Method

In order to study the main motivation of this new user group, their desired experiences and also their criticism of the existing offers, we conducted an online survey in cooperation with German and Austrian Alpine Clubs. Overall, 520 tourists and recreationists filled in the questionnaire (respondents from Austria 342, respondents from Germany 178). Anybody interested in ski-touring on slopes could participate in this study. The analysis showed that the survey included potential beginners (about 5%) and experienced winter tourists (95%) who were attracted by this new activity. In the results section, we also highlight the differences between these two groups.

The research findings were used to discuss a new offer with experts and managers of the "Ski Amadé" region in Austria, in order to use the information by the clients for the co-creation of new infrastructure.

4 Results

The analysis of the online survey revealed detailed information about this new potential target group and their main motives (see Fig. 2). The group is dominated by experienced winter tourists, who are mainly middle aged (majority between 35 and 55), belong to higher income groups and have largely completed higher academic education.

For experienced ski-touring tourists and beginners alike, being outdoors, being active, being active in the mountains and improving health are the main motives. For the beginners, the social component (being out with friends, meeting other
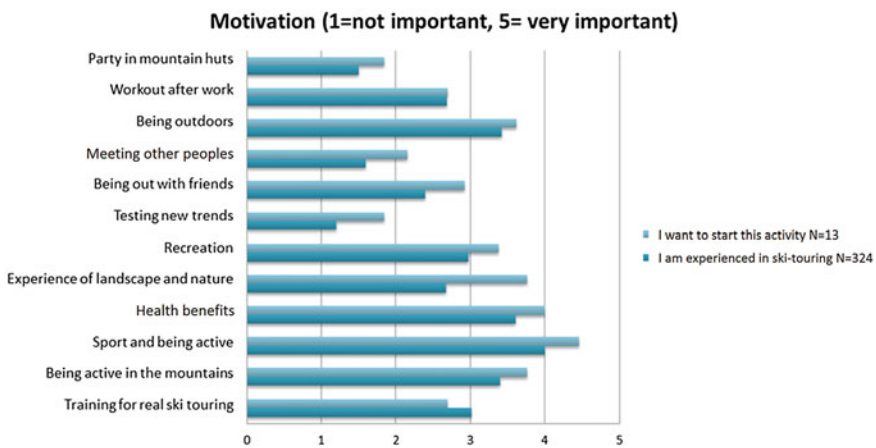
Fig. 2 Motivation of the new potential target group

people) as well as the nature experience and testing new trends are more important motivating factors than for the experienced ski-touring tourists. The reasons for pursuing this activity on groomed slopes rather than in backcountry are the following:

- no information about avalanches is required,
- only little time for preparation is needed and
- it is not necessary to find a suitable team.

The beginners underline that they hope to learn more about this activity on groomed slopes, that they can start this activity without experience, that the groomed slopes offer them good conditions for downhill skiing after the tour and that they have a guarantee for suitable and safe conditions on the slope. We did not find significant differences between guests from Germany or Austria.

Asked about the demand for a new product development and related offer, the respondents were very interested—requesting not only special infrastructure, but also additional signage, a training area for beginners and educational offers. For this new offer, including a special insurance, the majority was willing to pay about 5–8 Euro if parking is included.

The survey revealed excellent conditions for the establishment of a new product. The demand mirrors well-known trends in tourism, such as health precaution, fitness in nature and flexibility in planning an activity.

Against this background, a specific product development was discussed with the winter sports destination Ramsau in Styria. Similar to the trend of developing centres for running, nordic walking or hiking (Roth 2005) the development of a clear defined product seemed to be necessary to attract new clients and to create a competitive advantage in this market. In the sensitive alpine environment, it is necessary to combine infrastructure and new facilities on the one hand and to offer attractive nature experiences on the other. The promotion of the new product must also highlight the positive health effects to be successful.

Against this background and based on the cooperation with local experts, the development of a new tourism product was started and successfully implemented.

5 Preconditions for Successful Implementation

The first question to be discussed when developing a new product in co-creation is whether the product is in line with long-term trends in tourism and outdoor recreation. The interaction with the currently "illegal" clients—ski-touring tourists on groomed slopes—showed the high potential for the development of a new product for several reasons. Firstly, it is obvious that many tourists like to pursue this activity alone, secondly there is clearly a high demand to learn more about this sport without any risk and under controlled conditions, and thirdly it seems to be

important that the snow conditions for this activity are guaranteed and of good quality. Furthermore, the exchange with the tourists and interested sportspeople showed that the product asked for follows current trends such as high flexibility, spatial and temporal independence, activities for a limited budget of time, and health-precaution, well-being and fitness.

Overall, ski-touring is not a new, trendy activity but reflects long-term overall trends which are known from other outdoor recreation activities in tourism destinations. These long-term trends include a preference for activities which are easy to learn, but which can be taken to high levels of difficulty, which do not require partners or cooperation and preparation time, which offer a high degree of flexibility and organisational freedom, adventure and experiences without real danger. Many of these preconditions could be achieved by a new product based on ski-touring on slopes.

Our goal, rather than trying to prevent these new activities, was to use this new, unexpected demand—however disliked—for the creation of a new offer. Therefore, we selected a test region interested in this new product development. Here we set up an implementation process in seven steps, based on the previous experiences with our new target group and the survey findings.

1. **Interactive stakeholder workshops**: We started the process with workshops in the destination. In order to achieve a high acceptance of the new product development, we invited all those stakeholders who might be affected or interested in this subject. This included the cable car enterprise and the tourism board but also hotel owners, ski schools, mountain guides, hunters, forest management and representatives of the regional nature conservation administration. The first workshop was used to explain the opportunities in creating a new product, as well as the main interests and wishes stated by the respondents. Furthermore, the workshops offered each interest group the opportunity to explain possible conflicts or preconditions for a sustainable product development considering ecological, economic and social aspects. The workshops led to the conclusion that it is better to use this new demand for product development in a professional manner—considering restrictions by conservation, hunting and other stakeholder groups—than to try to prevent an increasing number of people from participating in this obviously highly requested activity. Tourism stakeholders agreed that we should start a planning process to develop a professional new product, including promotional material and links to other offers in the destination.

2. **Product development and planning**: In the next step we defined potential tours in cooperation with local stakeholders and tourists. Here, the main focus lay on the expectations of the new target group. The selection included tours of different degrees of difficulty, from easy beginners tours to advanced tours, and from a tour on slopes in and around the ski area to tours with a close to nature character.

3. **Assessment and definition of the tours**: The high number of possible tours was reduced in this step, based on an additional workshop. The final tour offer was defined in close cooperation with local stakeholders, landowners, the ski enterprise, hunters, forest managers and the nature conservation authorities. This step also included the exact positioning of the respective tours in the landscape.

4. **Marking and signposting of the selected tours**: In order to mark the selected tours, signposts were developed and produced. The signposts included detailed information regarding distance, difference in altitude, actual altitude, GPS-coordinates and direction. The concept also includes new tours on slopes and traditional tours outside the skiing area and combines both in an integrated much larger offer (see Fig. 3).

5. **Development of material for information and marketing**: As highlighted earlier, our survey showed that willingness to pay and acceptance of the new tours as a unique tourism offer depend strongly on whether the new product is promoted accordingly. This includes separate information and marketing material. In order to save cost, these brochures were co-financed or sponsored by companies producing outdoor recreation equipment. Part of the promotion material also consisted of a special website explaining the overall concept. Since newly developed products should be attractive for all tourists interested in this activity, the new product consists of a ski-touring park for beginners which is completely integrated into the ski area and requires no specific knowledge regarding climatic conditions, weather conditions, avalanche risk or other

Fig. 3 Example of a new signpost developed especially for ski-touring
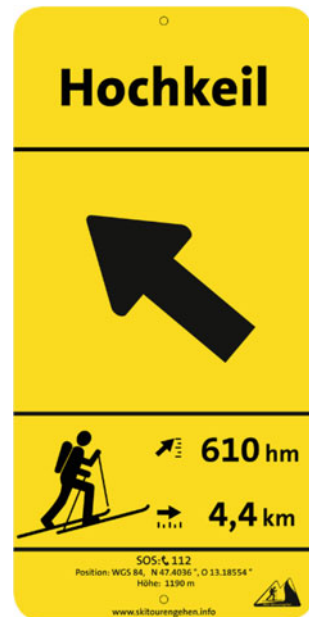
aspects. The tours for beginners can be experienced alone and without additional equipment. This offer is also addressed to tourists who are more interested in fitness and health aspects than in landscape experience, and to those who have only limited time available for this activity.

For the more advanced ski-touring tourists, and those who are more interested in landscape experience and who have more time, the concept provides a network of trails marked with the yellow sign in Fig. 3. These marked tours are also located in areas where natural hazards are very unlikely and where the tourist can concentrate on learning the activity under natural conditions outside slopes and groomed terrain.

Only once beginners are comfortable with these conditions, longer distances and natural snow conditions, should they then start to check out the traditional ski-touring network. The tours in this network require extra training and equipment (e.g. avalanche airbag, probe and shovel, etc.).

The website, a large board with QR-codes and a special brochure describe the overall offer in detail. Figures 4 and 5 show the professionally designed promotion material.

6. **Planning of events**: In order to promote the new concept combining a new demand and an old tradition, it is important to establish events in the destination addressed to the main target groups.
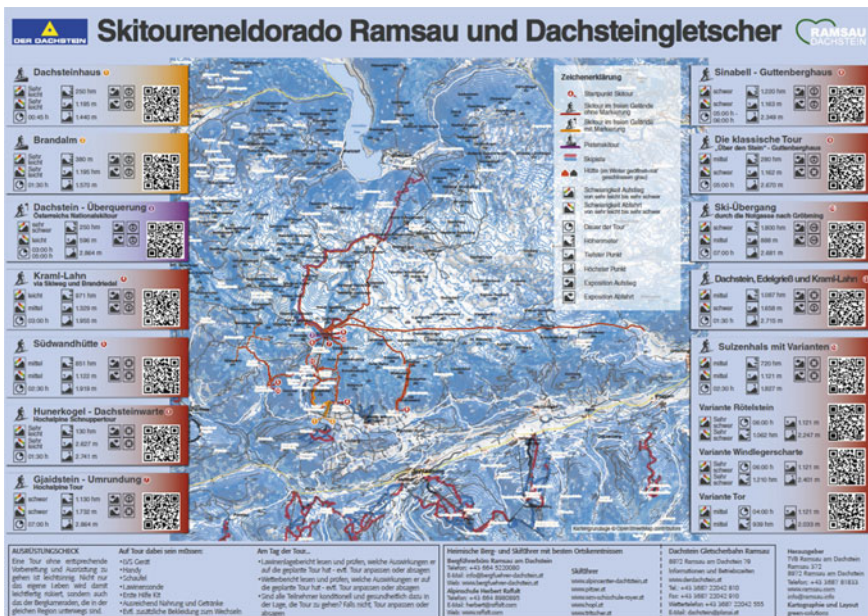
Fig. 4 Large board with all offers and QP-codes for each tour

7. **Development of packages and combi-tickets**: Finally, when the overall product is ready, it is again important to involve the hotel and destination management. The new outdoor recreation activity should be embedded in the local hotels' offers and become a part of their marketing. The contribution of the product development is high if the branch is willing and interested in compiling separate packages addressed to this target group, such as a long weekend for beginners or a mid-season touring special. These offers should be linked to new offers by the cable car enterprise managing the ski-touring-park. In our case study, the development of so-called combi-tickets was successful, combining various offers and opportunities in the resort. If the ski-touring offer is embedded into the overall program in the winter destination, it is also likely that the tourist will want to experience multiple activities and will switch between ski-touring, downhill skiing or snowshoeing.

As the survey showed beforehand, the ski-touring client is willing to pay a certain amount of money if the overall product is a professional one, including parking, signposting, guiding and booking.

Fig. 5 A special brochure illustrating the new concept

Fig. 5 (continued)

6 Conclusion

Currently the main reaction to those pursuing ski-touring on slopes for downhill skiing focusses on restrictions, regulations or a kind of a zoning system. In 2015, again, two ski resorts in the Salzburg region forbade this activity in their entire areas, arguing that this activity increased the risk for their main clientele—the downhill skiers (ORF 2015). The number of destinations with a participative and creative approach, seizing the opportunity to co-create a new product, is still small.

Only the small ski resort "Loipersbacher Höhe" near Faistenau illustrates that co-creation could also be a means for small ski resorts to find and define their own niche. This resort also invests in a learning trail for ski-touring beginners. The learning trail guides the tourist through a forested area to the peak. The tourist can ski-tour this trail alone because he or she knows that natural hazards are not to be expected. The trail explains the characteristic conditions on a ski-tour in the alpine environment and necessary safety regulations, and provides further recommendations.

The discussion about co-creation and ski-touring should also consider other trends. Guests in the alpine area are increasingly interested in products combining health, well-being and being in nature.

Co-creation could be used in the case of ski-touring

- To develop and define a new niche in winter tourism in the respective destination,
- To diversify the offers for outdoor recreation activities for tourists, beside downhill-skiing, snow-shoeing, and cross-country skiing
- To enhance the profile of existing offers through such elements as different trail profiles, nature experience, health and wellbeing to appeal to a more active target group,
- To present the destination as open-minded and active in adapting to new trends and requirements
- To attract additional target groups and/or to contribute to a longer duration of the stay.

The presented research findings and the related case study in Ramsau/Styria (Austria) show that the development of a new product in co-creation with the clients leads to new opportunities and also to new guests and target groups—despite the fact that this potential had not been perceived by the established tourism industry beforehand, which was trying to prevent, or at least minimise and regulate this new request and demand.

However, co-creation can only be a powerful tool if the provider is open for changes, adaptation and new concepts. Meanwhile, the new infrastructure has been implemented and the new concept will be used in other destinations as well. Those destinations that are first to provide services for these skiers might find themselves at a competitive advantage.

An implementation of the described product is easier if it can be built around existing offers or in a destination in which some traditional tours already exist.

From an environmental perspective, it is obvious that the trend towards using existing ski-resorts in an intensive manner is more sustainable than expanding the area used for outdoor recreation. Ski-touring on slopes and in a managed form attached to existing ski slopes is therefore seen as positive. However, if all those tourists using such areas for training and learning purposes would later begin ski-touring outside the managed ski areas, disturbance for the environment could increase. Negative effects for wildlife could be the consequence. Therefore, it is essential to develop the new product in close cooperation with hunters, land-owners and the nature conservation authorities. The new product development should include a monitoring of the overall development and the spatial distribution of all of ski-touring activities.

References

Arbesser, M., Borrmann, J., Felderer, B., Grohall, G., Helmenstein, C., Keissner, A., et al. (2008). *Die Bedeutung des Wintersports in Österreich*. Wien: Sports Econ Austria. Institut für Sportökonomie.

Austria Tourism/Österreich Werbung (2014). Skitouren Gehen https://www.austriatourism.com/tourismusforschung/t…/schitouren-gehen. Accessed 15 February 2016.

Buttinger, K. (2010). Böse, böse Pistenrandgeher! *OÖ Nachrichten, 23*(1), 2010.

Cabiddu, F., Lui, T., & Piccoli, G. (2013). Managing value co-creation in the tourism industry. *Annals of Tourism Research, 42,* 86–107.

Carù, A., & Cova, B. (2007). Consuming experiences: An introduction. In A. Carù & B. Cova (Eds.), *Consuming experience* (pp. 3–16). Abingdon, UK: Routledge.

Dvorak, S. (2003). Sportidentität und Motivation in der Sportart Touren- Skilauf. Ein ge-schlechtsspezifischer Vergleich österreichischer Touren-Skiläufer/innen. Diplomarbeit. University Vienna.

Haberfellner, L. (2012). *Pistenschitourengeher—Problem oder Chance*. Wien: Diplomarbeit am Institut für Landschaftsentwicklung Erholungs- und Naturschutzplanung.

Helmenstein, C., Kleissner, A., & Moser, B. (2007). Der Bergsport in Österreich. Studie im Auftrag des Bundeskanzleramtes, Sektion Sport. Retrieved Sept 10, 2015, from http://www.esce.at/speafile/0711%20BKA%20Bergsport%20Austria%20SpEA%20DE.pdf.

Kim, J. H., Brent Ritchie, J. R., & McCormick, B. (2012). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(1), 12–25.

Kotler, P., Asplund, C., Rein, I., & Heider, D. (1999). Marketing places Europe: Attracting investments, industries, residents and visitors to European cities, communities, regions and nations. London, UK: Pearson Education.

Lagerstrom, D., & Liedtke, G. (2004). Skiwandern- ein nordeuropäisches Wintervergnügen mit hohem Gesundheitswert. *B&G, 20*(5), 184–188.

ORF. (2015). Zweites Skigebiet verbietet Skitourengehen http://salzburg.orf.at/news/stories/2748023/. Accessed 15 February 2016.

Prebensen, N. K., Vittersø, J., & Dahl, T. (2013). Value co-creation significance of Tourist resources. *Annals of Tourism Research, 42,* 240–261.

Pechlaner, H., Döpfer, B.C. (2009). Strategische Produktentwicklung im Tourismus: durch systematisches Management zur Produktinnovation. In H. Pechlaner, E. Fischer (Hrsg.), *Strategische Produktentwicklung im Standortmanagement: Wettbewerbsvorteile für den Tourismus* (S. 153–176). Berlin: ESV-Verlag.

Pröbstl-Haider, U., Lampl, R. (2014). Skitourengeher auf Pisten - Überlegungen zur Produktentwicklung für eine neue touristische Zielgruppe? Kongress Tourismus und Sport - 18. Jahrestagung der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Tourismuswissenschaft e.V. (DGT), Nov 13-15, 2014, Köln, Deutschland.

Pröbstl, U., Wirth, V. (2011). Nachhaltige Waldbewirtschaftung im Naturpark Mürzer Oberland. Endbericht im Projekt "Modellregion für Nachhaltige Waldbewirtschaftung im Naturpark Mürzer Oberland". Universität für Bodenkultur. Wien.

Rambauske, T., Haselböck, K. (2010). Quo vadis, Pistengeher? In *Land der Berge*, 7/2010.

Roth, R. (2005). Nordic Walking im Naturpark Südschwarzwald. (eds.) Naturpark Südschwarzwald, 67p.

Rottenberg, T. (2011). Warnung vor Alpin Fundamentalismus. *Der Standard, 13*(1), 2011.

Schenk, K., Faulhaber, M., Gatterer, H., Burtscher, M., & Ferrari, M. (2011). Ski mountaineering competition: fit for it? *Clinical Journal of Sport Medicine, 21*(2), 114–118.

Süddeutsche Zeitung. (2014). http://www.sueddeutsche.de/reise/trend-skitourengehen-huegel-der-massen-1.2213823. vom 15.11.2014. Access 15 Feb 2016

Sterl, P., Eder, R., & Arnberger, A. (2010). Exploring factors influencing the attitude of ski tourers towards the ski touring management measures of the Gesäuse National Park. *Eco mont, 2*(1), 31–35.

Zellmann, P., Mayrhofer, S. (2010). Sportmonitor 2009. Forschungstelegramm 1/ 2010. IFT Institut für Freizeit—Tourismusforschung.

Zwermann, B. (2006). Zielgruppenmarketing: Es naht der "Silberne Revoluzzer", In ITB Tagungsbericht vom 11.03.2006, Berln, 2006, 15–16.

The Importance of Quality Labels in Consumers' Preferences

Alain Decrop and Valérie Boembeke

Abstract Quality is a determining attribute when consumers evaluate a tourist service. Due to its intangible nature, a service is difficult to observe and evaluate, which leads to uncertainty in consumers' mind. Therefore, quality signals, such as brands and labels, are used to reassure them. This research investigates the importance of quality labels in consumers' preferences. More specifically, we attempt to measure consumers' sensitivity to a quality label when they choose an accommodation or a tourist attraction. In order to reach these objectives, an experiment (conjoint task) was conducted among 193 respondents. Results namely show that the relative importance of the label "Wallonie Destination Qualité" is higher than the weight given to the brand and is lower than the importance of classification. Tourist organizations should promote such quality labels more extensively and operators should use them to develop new attractive deals.

1 Introduction

Service quality is defined as "*the consumer's judgment about a product's overall excellence or superiority*" (Zeithaml 1988, p. 3). It is characterized by both a technical and a functional dimension (Grönroos and Shostack 1983). Technical quality refers to the result of what is delivered to the consumer, while functional quality refers to the way in which the service is delivered. In recent decades, the functional dimension has become an issue of increasing importance, especially in a context of technological advance, growing competition and behavioral changes (Decrop 2010; Milea 2012; Ryglová et al. 2013; Talib and Rahman 2012; Tarí et al. 2012).

A. Decrop (✉) · V. Boembeke
University of Namur, Namur, Belgium
e-mail: alain.decrop@unamur.be

V. Boembeke
e-mail: valerie.boembeke@gmail.com

Quality is a determining attribute when consumers evaluate a tourism activity (Weiermair 2000; Wong and Kwong 2004). Due to its intangible nature, a service is difficult to observe and evaluate, leading to uncertainty in consumers' mind (Parasuraman et al. 1985). Therefore, quality signals, such as labels, are used to improve the perceived service quality (Akerlof 1970; Armstrong et al. 2010; Marcotte et al. 2012; Merasli 2004; Prim-Allaz et al. 2008). Over the past decade, a multiplication of quality labels has been observed across Europe, such as *Wallonie Destination Qualité* in Belgium.

This chapter's main objective is to study the importance of quality labels in consumers' preferences. More specifically, we attempt to measure consumers' sensitivity to a quality label when they choose an accommodation or a tourist attraction. In order to reach these objectives, a literature review of theories around consumer preferences and quality labels will be developed. Next, the methodology of the empirical research and the main results will be presented. Finally, we will discuss results and present the study's managerial implications, limitations and suggestions for future research.

2 Literature Review

During a decision-making process, consumers evaluate a series of choice alternatives, which are part of their consideration set (Engel et al. 1968). The evaluation can be performed according to a categorization process or follow a more analytical process, attribute by attribute and/or alternative by alternative. The evaluation can be internal or external. An internal evaluation is based on pre-existing evaluations resulting from direct or indirect past experiences with the product/service, whereas an external evaluation involves the construction of new evaluations resulting from the information stored in memory or gathered from commercial and non-commercial sources. Once the evaluation process is over, consumers should be able to identify their preferred alternative and to make a decision. So, preference is usually defined as the predisposition of choosing one product alternative over the other. It implies taking a position that is the result of a comparative process. Comparison may be explicit (ranking objects) or implicit (rating objects). Preference is a special case of a broader construct, i.e. attitudes, which has been one of the most popular topic in the consumer behavior literature so far (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975).

2.1 *Quality Labels*

A quality label is defined as *a sign that informs about specific quality dimensions, in any form whatsoever, of a product or a service and emanating from an organization different from the company that produces that product or service*

(Chameroy and Chandon 2010, p. 5). It is essential to make a distinction between a label and neighbour concepts such as brand, certification and classification. First, the brand emanates from the company itself, whereas the label stems from an independent third party. The brand is specific to the company, while more brands may be under the umbrella of one and the same label. Second, the certification is governed by more strict regulatory measures than the label. Most of the time certifications are mandatory, while labels are voluntary. Finally, the classification aims at categorizing a tourism activity in a series of groups or classes (i.e., stars or suns) according to criteria related to its importance, value or quality. It pertains to the technical dimension of service quality, whereas the label relates to its functional dimension.

2.2 Importance of Quality Labels in Consumers' Preferences

The major objective of this study is to compare the relative importance of three attributes that may be used as quality signals in tourism choices, i.e., label, brand and classification. Quality labels facilitate the decision-making process when consumers choose a tourism activity (Marcotte et al. 2012). An empirical study has shown that classification is valued above the brand and the label when consumers choose a tourism activity (Prim-Allaz et al. 2008), which leads to our first hypothesis:

H1: The relative importance of the C*lassification* attribute is higher than the *Label* attribute when consumers choose a tourism activity.
Of course, the brand is also a major quality signal involved in consumers' decision-making process, infering ideas of quality and consistency (Armstrong et al. 2010). However, the classification and the label are generally valued by consumers stronger than commercial information issued by the company, as they appear to be more neutral and credible because they emanate from an independent third party (Chameroy and Chandon 2010). Therefore, we suggest that:

H2: The relative importance of the *Label* attribute is higher than the *Brand* attribute when consumers choose a tourism activity.
In addition to comparing the relative importance of a quality label versus brand and classification, we also wanted to investigate how consumers' perception and attitude towards a quality label may influence its relative importance in a choice task. On the one hand, a specific quality label should be perceived as credible if it is to influence consumers' decision-making process (Courvoisier and Courvoisier 2005; CRIOC 2004; Larceneux 2004). A few studies demonstrated that the perceived credibility of a quality label has a positive influence on the perceived quality and the purchase intention of

a labeled product/service (Moussa and Touzani 2008), which leads to formulate the following:

H3: The relative importance of the *Label* attribute is higher when the quality label is perceived as more credible by consumers.
          On the other hand, the literature suggests that consumers have a positive attitude towards labels in general (Chameroy and Chandon 2010), which leads them spontaneously to limit their consideration of choice alternatives to labeled products/services (Blackwell et al. 2006; Decrop 2010). Therefore, we assume that:

H4: The relative importance of the *Label* attribute is higher when consumers have a positive attitude towards labels in general.
          Finally, the relative importance of quality labels may be influenced by moderating variables including the type of tourism activity, consumers' level of risk aversion, level of involvement and the purchase frequency of tourism services. Quality signals in the accommodation sector are used for a longer time than they are in the tourist attraction sector. Morever, accomodation choices are assumed to involve consumers more strongly than attraction choices due to a higher cost and the higher complexity of the purchase process (Blackwell et al. 2006; Sirakaya and Woodside 2005). This leads to these two hypotheses:

H5: The relative importance of the *Label* attribute is higher in the accommodation sector than in the tourist attraction sector.

H6: The relative importance of the *Label* attribute is higher when consumers are involved more strongly in the purchase decision of a tourism activity.
          A consumer who shows a strong risk aversion tends to reduce the perceived risk and to be more sensitive to quality labels in his/her choice (Larceneux 2004). A stronger risk aversion when purchasing a product/service leads to a stronger involvement, which may increase consumers' sensitivity to the quality label in the purchase decision (Rothschild 1984; Zaichkowsky 1985, 1986). Similarly, the unusual purchase of a product/service (low purchase frequency) increases consumers' perceived risk and level of involvement. According to these arguments, we assume that:

H7: The relative importance of the *Label* attribute is higher when consumers show a stronger risk aversion when purchasing a tourism service.

H8: The relative importance of the *Label* attribute is higher when consumers have a lower purchase frequency.

Figure 1 presents our full research model, including the eight hypotheses formulated above.
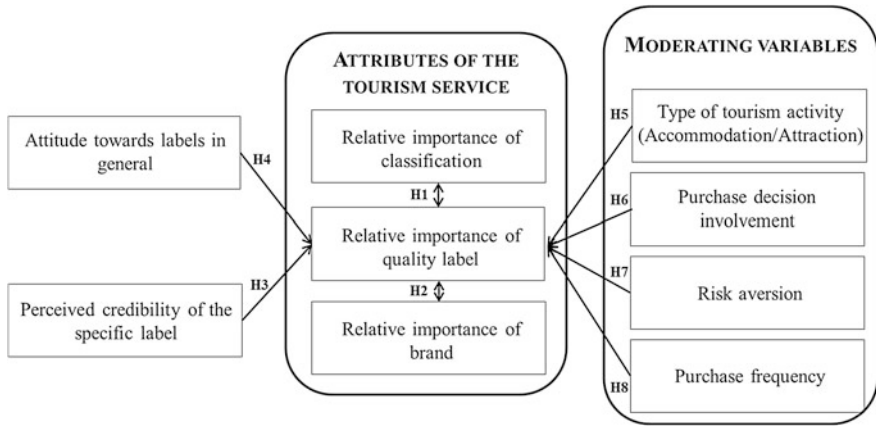
Fig. 1 Research model

3 Method

Two data collection techniques were used in a survey: a conjoint analysis task and a questionnaire. Conjoint analysis measures consumer preferences (Luce and Tukey 1964) through the estimation of partial utilities that helps to compute the relative importance of a product/service's attributes (Kemperman 2000). We designed prototypical hotel and tourist attraction deals based on combinations of determining attribute levels (Table 1). *Conjoint Designer* helped us generate two sets of 16 deals and we asked respondents to rank one of these two sets in a decreasing order of preference. In addition to the estimation of consumer preferences through the conjoint task, we designed a short survey in order to measure the independent and moderating variables of our research model.

The survey was administered electronically or in face-to-face to French-speaking Belgians living in the Walloon Region, who did stay or go for a recreational excursion. The non-random quota sampling technique was used in order to build up a sample representative of the target population as to accompaniment, province of residence and occupation. After cleaning the data, the final sample included 193 respondents, i.e., 96 in the accommodation sector and 97 in the tourist attraction sector. Data were analyzed with *Conjoint Linmap* and SPSS 16.0.

4 Results

In the accommodation sector, hotel classification results to be the attribute to which respondents give the highest importance, followed by price, convenience and label (Table 1). In contrast, brand is the attribute with the lowest relative weight. In the

Table 1 Utility function of choosing a hotel and a tourist attraction

Hotels		
Label	13.08%	
	Wallonie Destination Qualité	3.760
	No label	−3.760
Classification	32.07%	
	2 stars	−10.349
	3 stars	2.256
	4 stars	8.093
Brand	8.03%	
	Independent hotel	2.362
	Member of a hotel chain	−2.362
Price	31.32%	
	Linear	0.173
	Quadratic	−0.003
Convenience	15.50%	
	Close to a transport infrastructure	−5.262
	Close to the area visited	3.648
	Close to the downtown	1.614
Tourist attractions		
Label	26.61%	
	Wallonie Destination Qualité	4.551
	No label	−4.551
Classification	32.82%	
	2 suns	−6.183
	3 suns	1.139
	4 suns	5.044
Brand	3.84%	
	Independent tourist attraction	0.657
	Member of a tourist attraction chain	−0.657
Price	31.92%	
	Linear	3.037
	Quadratic	−0.137
Type of attraction	4.81%	
	Natural	−0.031
	Recreational	−0.807
	Cultural	0.838

tourist attraction sector, classification also appears to be the most important attribute, followed by price, label and the type of attraction. Again, brand is the least important attribute.

Based on paired samples t-tests, the difference between *Label* and *Classification* (t = −5.936, df = 192, p = 0.000) and between *Label* and *Brand* (t = 2.255,

df = 192, p = 0.025) are significant. The relative importance of the label attribute is lower than the classification attribute and higher than the brand attribute, confirming our hypotheses 1 and 2.

Based on a t-test on independent samples, the difference between *Hotels* and *Attractions* (t = 0.684, df = 191, p = 0.495) does not appear to be significant at the 0.05 level. The relative weight of the label attribute does not vary with the type of tourism activity, which does not support hypothesis 5.

A Principal Component Analysis was conducted in order to group items from the scales developed for measuring the two independent variables of our research model (i.e., credibility of the specific label and attitude towards labels in general). Second, a multiple linear regression was generated to estimate the effects of independent and moderating variables on the relative importance of the label attribute (dependent variable).

Bêta coefficients of the perceived credibility of a specific quality label and the attitude towards labels in general are positive and significant (Table 2). In the accommodation sector, only the attitude coefficient is positive and significant. In the tourist attraction sector, coefficients of the credibility, the attitude and the purchase frequency are positive and significant. These results confirm our hypotheses 3 and 4 but do not support hypotheses 7 and 8.

According to the correlation matrix, a significant relationship exists between the relative importance of the *Label* attribute and purchase decision involvement. A simple regression (due to a collinearity problem) shows that the involvement coefficient is positive and significant (n = 193, β = 0.229, p = 0.001). However, in the tourist attraction sector, the involvement level appears to positively influence the weight of the label (n = 96, β = 0.305, p = 0.002), whereas this is not such the case for the accommodation sector. So, hypothesis 6 is partially validated.

Table 2 Linear regression of independent and moderating variables on the relative importance of the label attribute

	Total	Accommodation	Tourist attraction
N	193	97	96
R-squared	0.375	0.451	0.373
Adjusted R-squared	0.358	0.420	0.339
Credibility_label	β = 0.126 p = 0.083	β = −0.015 p = 0.878	β = 0.256 p = 0.020
Attitude_label	β = 0.540 p = 0.000	β = 0.654 p = 0.000	β = 0.410 p = 0.001
Risk_aversion	β = 0.027 p = 0.644	β = 0.050 p = 0.539	β = 0.070 p = 0.429
Involvement_decision	β = −0.034 p = 0.611	β = 0.051 p = 0.543	β = −0.061 p = 0.545
Frequency_purchase	β = 0.013 p = 0.830	β = −0.097 p = 0.239	β = 0.153 p = 0.090

4.1 Conclusion

Quality label is a determining attribute when consumers choose a hotel and a tourist attraction. Whatever the sector, the relative importance of this attribute is higher than the weight given to the brand and is lower than the importance of classification. Such a result may be specific to tourism products for which novelty seeking is higher and loyalty is lower than for other products or services. As most of the time, tourists lack knowledge about brands on the market, they are likely to trust labels to a larger extent. Moreover, consumers' attitude towards labels in general and their perceived credibility of a specific quality label, such as *Wallonie Destination Qualité*, have a positive impact on the relative importance of the label attribute. Consumers' purchase decision involvement is a moderator that may also have a positive impact. However, quality labels are not so well known by consumers, regardless of the sector, and are confused with other similar notions, such as the classification.

These results lead to a few managerial and theoretical implications. On the one hand, the proven importance of labels may encourage labeled tourist operators to increase using this attribute in their positionning and marketing campaigns and encourage unlabeled tourist operators to enroll in such a quality approach. Tourist organizations should be educated to promote quality labels and to develop new attractive tourist deals. On the other hand, our results highlight the importance of labels in consumers' decision-making process. Classification and labeling seem to reassure consumers about the quality of a tourism product and to help them make a choice through a reduction of cognitive effort and emotional disruption, which are increasing in the current context of hyperchoice. Moreover, conjoint analysis proves to be a useful method for comparing the importance of different choice attributes related to quality.

Of course, our study shows limitations that lead to a few suggestions for future research. It would be interesting to increase sample size in order to ensure a better representation of the Belgian population. Next, it would be interesting to extend the target population to international tourists. Finally in this study, the brand attribute reflects the legal status of a tourism activity (independent/franchisee) rather than the signature of a company (e.g., Ibis, Novotel, etc.), which may explain why brand is not that important in tourists' preferences. Therefore, it would be interesting to test the influence of concrete brand names on consumer choices.

References

Akerlof, G. A. (1970). The market for 'lemons': Quality uncertainty and the market mechanism. *Quarterly Journal of Economics, 84,* 488–500.

Armstrong, G., Nagard-Assayag, E. L., Kotler, P., & Lardinoit, T. (2010). *Principes de Marketing*. Paris: Pearson.

Blackwell, R. D., Miniard, P. W., & Engel, J. F. (2006). *Consumer behavior*. Mason: Thomson South-Western.

Chameroy, F., & Chandon, J. L. (2010). *Les labels ont-ils des effets sur les attitudes du consommateur?*. Paper presented at the 9ème Congrès des Tendances du Marketing en Europe, Venise.

Courvoisier, F., & Courvoisier, F. (2005). *La jungle des labels de qualité et d'origine sur les produits alimentaires: Analyse de la situation en suisse francophone*. Paper presented at the 4ème Congres International sur les Tendances du Marketing, Paris.

CRIOC (2004) Label écologique européen: Quels impacts sur les choix de consommation? Bruxelles.

Decrop, A. (2010). *Le touriste consommateur: Comprendre les comportements pour améliorer son efficacité marketing*. Bruxelles: De Boeck.

Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D., & Kollat, D. T. (1968). *Consumer Behavior*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Ontario: Don Mills.

Grönroos, C., & Shostack, G. L. (1983). *Strategic management and marketing in the service sector*. Marketing Science Institute Cambridge.

Kemperman, A. (2000). *Temporal aspects of theme park choice behavior*. Eindhoven, The Netherlands: Technische Universiteit Eindhoven.

Larceneux, F. (2004). *Impacts des stratégies de labellisation sur le processus de décision des consommateurs: Le cas du label biologique*. Paper presented at the 20ème Congrès de l'AFM, St-Malo.

Luce, R. D., & Tukey, J. W. (1964). Simultaneous conjoint measurement: A new type of fundamental measurement. *Journal of Mathematical Psychology, 1,* 1–27.

Marcotte, P., Bourdeau, L., & Leroux, E. (2012). Branding et labels en tourisme: Réticences et défis. *Management and Avenir, 47,* 205–222.

Merasli, S. (2004). La qualité dans l'industrie du tourisme: Un impératif majeur pour un tourisme durable. *Téoros, 23,* 10–15.

Milea, O. M. (2012). Quality of products and services, factors with major impact on tourism activity. *Romanian Statistical Review*, 209–213.

Moussa, S., & Touzani, M. (2008). The perceived credibility of quality labels: A scale validation with refinement. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 32,* 526–533.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing, 49,* 41–50.

Prim-Allaz I, Ricard, L., Courvoisier, F., Dreyer, A., Khadir-Poggi, Y. (2008). *L'impact des signes de qualité dans le choix d'une destination touristique et dans les choix effectués une fois arrivé à destination*. Paper presented at the 13ème journées de recherche en marketing de Bourgogne, Université de Bourgogne, Dijon.

Rothschild, M. L. (1984). Perspectives on involvement: Current problems and future directions. *Advances in Consumer Research, 11,* 216–217.

Ryglová, K., Vajčnerová, I., & Šácha, J. (2013). Approaches to quality management in hotel industry. *Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis, 61,* 2693–2699.

Sirakaya, E., & Woodside, A. G. (2005). Building and testing theories of decision making by travelers. *Tourism Management, 26,* 815–832.

Talib, F., & Rahman, Z. (2012). Total quality management practices in manufacturing and service industries: A comparative study. *International Journal of Advanced Operations Management, 4,* 155–176.

Tarí, J. J., Heras-Saizarbitoria, I., Dick, G. (2012). Internal and external drivers for quality certification in the service industry: Do they have different impacts on success? *Service Business*, 1–18.

Weiermair, K. (2000). Tourists' perceptions towards and satisfaction with service quality in the cross-cultural service encounter: Implications for hospitality and tourism management. *An International Journal, 10,* 397–409.

Wong, C. K. S., & Kwong, W. Y. Y. (2004). Outbound tourists' selection criteria for choosing all-inclusive package tours. *Tourism Management, 25,* 581–592.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of Consumer Research, 12,* 341–352.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1986). Conceptualizing involvement. *Journal of Advertising, 15,* 4–34.

Zeithaml, V. A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing*, 2–22.

Image Analysis of a Tourist Destination

**Fernando Almeida-García, Janire Domínguez-Azcue
and Pere Mercadé-Mele**

Abstract This chapter tries to analyse the most relevant aspects of the target image and focuses on a specific case study to verify if the hypotheses that have been raised are true or not. Over the years there have been many studies that have assessed the target image and most agree that the target image is multidimensional in nature, so there are several factors to take into account when analysing it. Therefore, sources of information are essential when creating a target image. The fact of analysing the destination image can be fundamental for marketing and tourism location. Through the study of a concrete case the city of Malaga we verified that target image is formed by cognitive and affective components and that both are fundamental for its creation. At the same time, we saw that the destination image of the city of Malaga is more linked to "sun and sand" tourism than to cultural tourism, even if the latter is the image that the destination itself tries to or would like to display.

1 Introduction

The destination image is multidimensional in nature and the knowledge the individuals have of the destination and also their personal traits and opinions play an important role in it. Therefore, it is a complex construction in which the different sources of information are decisive. Thus, the destination image plays a key role in both marketing and tourism location.

The city of Malaga, located in Southern Spain, lies on the Costa del Sol (*Coast of the Sun*), a tourist area largely identified with seaside tourism. In recent years Malaga city has been trying to distance itself from the "sun and sand" tourism

F. Almeida-García (✉) · J. Domínguez-Azcue · P. Mercadé-Mele
University of Malaga, Malaga, Spain
e-mail: falmeida@uma.es

J. Domínguez-Azcue
e-mail: janire@uma.es

P. Mercadé-Mele
e-mail: pmercade@uma.es

segment and it has chosen to position itself as a cultural destination. In this regard, the effectiveness of the image of Malaga differentiated from a seaside destination image is analysed in the present study. Malaga is a Spanish municipality in Andalusia and it is located, as already mentioned, in the Costa del Sol, beside the Mediterranean Sea. The city has 566,913 inhabitants in 2014 in an area of 398 km^2. In 2013 Malaga city had an accommodation supply of 9598 bed places and 966,920 tourists lodged in the many hotels in the city. In recent years Malaga has created a wide range of cultural spaces and products in order to distance itself from image of the resort destination based just on "sun and sand" tourism.

The main objective of this research is to perform an analysis of the current image of the city and of the target one. A detailed study of the obtained results will enable us to take a close look at the tourists' attitudes towards Malaga city and it will provide us with information to improve or design new differentiation strategies. This is the first academic study on Malaga's destination image.

2   Literature Review

Destination image has been analysed from different approaches and in many different fields. Since mid-1970s destination image has been studied but it still remains open to a further study and debate. The assessment and analysis of the destination image has been studied in academic literature and it has contributed to the understanding of tourist behaviour (Beerli and Martin 2004). Hunt (1975) was one of the very first researches in proving its importance due to the ability it has to increase the number of tourists who visit a specific destination.

Destination image is a very complex construction which many researchers have tried to analyzed, each author with his or her specific approach. Consequently, actual researches have an extensive literature on which to build. The complexity of the destination image concept has been studied from diverse scientific fields, such as psychology (Hanyu 1993), anthropology, sociology, geography or marketing (Gallarza et al. 2002), besides tourism (Baloglu and McCleary 1999). Regarding to the latter case, Chon (1990) carried out an investigation of the 23 most cited studies and he observed that the most recurring topics were the role and influence of destination image on tourist's purchase behaviour and on his or her satisfaction. Most of these papers concluded that destination image plays a decisive role in individual's travel purchase choice and that the travel's satisfaction or dissatisfaction depend to a great extent on the comparison between his or her expectations before travelling or his or her preconceived destination image and his/her perception of it when being there. Echtner and Ritchie (1991) also conducted an investigation of 15 studies related to this field and they observed, on the one hand, that researches were not very successful when measuring the destination image and, on the other hand, that the vast majority of the studies were carried out following quantitative methods.

Pike (2002) has made a review of 142 studies on destination image carried out between 1973 and 2000. The author analysed the methodological model of these studies and concluded that even if there is a criticism to the use of lists of attributes when measuring the destination image, we do not yet have an accepted theory for replacing the multiple attributes' models. He also concluded that even if measuring destination image is very difficult, individuals' general perceptions of the destination could be either favourable or unfavourable. That is way every single studies on this field emphasize the necessity of the destination to create and develop a favourable image. And, eventually, Zhang et al. (2014) are the authors of one of the lasts literature reviews in this area, which studies 66 researches conducted between 1998 and 2012. These authors classify the studies in the research based on the cognitive image, affective image, global image, cognitive-affective image and self-consistency. This study shows that most of the research on destination image focus on the cognitive image, which measure bases on tourists' perceptions on multiple properties of the destination, such as tourist attractions, facilities, environment or quality of the service (Beerli and Martín 2004). But, at the same time, there is a growing awareness of the importance of affective image, in which the feeling and emotions tourists have for a destination play an important role when creating destination images.

At the same time, some authors (Bosque and Martín 2008; Morais and Lin 2010) think that both the cognitive and affective levels are equally important and influencer for creating destination images, so they have decided to carry out an investigation with a model which incorporates both levels. This is also the case of the current research.

On the other hand, and to focus not in the classification of the studies but on the creation of destination image itself, when observing the existing literature, it can be seen that most of the authors agree that there is a set of factors which have an influence in creating these images and that following a scheme created by Stern and Krakover (1993) it involves both individual's characteristics and the information obtained from different sources. With regard to the individual's characteristics, Um and Crompton (1990) consider that these characteristics have a decisive influence, since beliefs about the properties or attributes of a destination are formed of individuals who are exposed to external stimulus, but the nature of these beliefs could vary depending on the internal factors or individuals' own characteristics. In this way, the perceived image will be formed by the image projected by the destination and also by the own needs, motivations, prior knowledge, preferences and other personal characteristics of the individual (Beerli and Martín 2004). Among these personal characteristics we can find those of a psychological nature, such as motivation. In the same way, the experience may also have an influence on the perceived destination image after visiting it (Beerli and Martín 2004), which can cause the individual to have an image due to a previous visit but it could change in his second visit or it could have changed over time by several factors. And finally, most models of decision-making processes for the destination's choice show that personal characteristics such as age, gender, employment status or social class also

have an influence on the perception of places (Baloglu and McClearly 1999; Beerli and Martín 2004).

The other group of factors that have an influence on the formation of destination image, as stated previously, is the information obtained from different sources. These are the forces that have an influence on the formation of perceptions and evaluations (Beerli and Martin 2004) and they refer to the multiple sources of information of different nature to which individuals are exposed. Gartner (1993) argues that the process of image formation can be viewed as a continuum of different agents or source of information that act independently to form a single image in the mind of the individual. Gartner (1993) categorizes these sources of information in different groups, being the visit to the destination the end point of the continuous process of image formation and according to Phelps (1986) this would be the primary source, but often these sources of information are diverse and not necessarily the individual must visit destination to obtain them. These would be the ones that Phelps (1986) calls secondary images: the ones induced in an obvious way (information provided by tour operators, relevant institutions' destinations, conventional advertisements in the media), the ones induced covertly (celebrities in promotion of destinations, reports or articles on the destination), the organic ones (information obtained from family and friends) and the autonomous ones (news media, documentaries, TV shows, movies).

Mansfeld (1992) believes that secondary sources of information serve three basic functions in the choice of destination: they minimize the risk involved in the choice, they create a destination image and they serve as mechanisms for further justification of choice. All these secondary sources of information already mentioned, are part of the formation of the image of a particular destination made by the individual, inducing an image to each individual. However, it seems that lately the sources of information in a covert form and, above all, autonomous sources of information are the ones that most success are having when inducing images, and the number of destinations that make use of them to promote themselves is increasing more and more. In this case, one of the fastest growing source of information in recent years is the information obtained from films and television, because, according to experts, its success lies in the fact that individuals do not receive a persuasive advertising, unlike the advertisements that explicitly advertise a tourist destination (Avery and Ferraro 2000; Russell 2002; Kaikati and Kaikati 2004).

Taking into account the literature review stated above and the interests and goals when carrying out the current research, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: The preconceived image of the tourist destination is a multidimensional concept composed of several dimensions, including cognitive and affective assessments.

H2: Individuals who have been to Malaga have a more positive image of the city compared to those who have not travelled to Malaga.

H3: Rest and relaxation are the main reasons for travelling to Malaga city rather than cultural or social motivations.

H4: Malaga does not have a distinguished image from the "sun and sand" tourism segment associated with the Costa del Sol.

3 Method

In the current research a descriptive and inferential analysis of the results has been made, as well as a comparative analysis between two groups—nationals and foreigners—in order to enable a comparison of the different opinions among them. Moreover, a factor analysis of the cognitive and affective components of the destination image has been conducted.

This study is based on the questionnaires on the destination image previously developed by other authors (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; San Martín 2005). The survey is addressed to those who have visited Malaga before and to those who have never been to the city and, as stated previously, sample of foreign nationality has been collected: from America and from other European countries. These respondents have not been randomly selected but by incidental sampling. The surveys were undertaken over a short period of time—from 14 April to 28 April 2014—and were distributed both on paper and online for those geographically dispersed. 301 valid responses were achieved.

The questions in the survey were divided into four categories: (i) questions on socio-demographic variables, (ii) questions on the cognitive component of the destination image, (iii) on the affective component and (iv) on the motivational component. A 61-item self-report questionnaire has been designed and all items were measured by a five-point Likert-type scale. We have used SPSS v.20 to process and analyse the data collected. First, a descriptive analysis of the variables and the result has been contacted. After that, an inferential analysis has been carried out using the non-parametric test of Mann-Whitney and finally, a factorial analysis with VARIMAX rotation and Kaiser Normalization.

We decided to focus the research on Malaga city, on the Costal del Sol, Spain, a traditionally touristic place which in the recent years is trying to specialize in urban and cultural tourism.

To analyse whether destination image has multiple dimensions, a structural equation modeling (SEM) has been made. The SEM has become a powerful multivariate analysis and its use has spread among the social sciences (Fornell and Bookstein 1982). For the best estimate STATA14 software has been used. Both measurement models and casual relationships models have been estimated using the Robust Maximum Likelihood method, with the Satorra-Bentler adjustment, since its χ^2 statistical is robust to non-normality (Satorra and Bentler 1994).

4 Results

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

(i) *The visit to the city*. This question is important to create the profiles of the visitors and tourists and we found out that 49.5% of respondents have travelled to Malaga.

(ii) *The sources of information* from which respondents have obtained information about the city or about tourist products related to the city. Most respondents claim to have no information about the city of Malaga. This statement could respond to a weak positioning of the destination, especially in America (Fig. 1).

(iii) *Tourism products associated with Malaga*. Respondents associated the city of Malaga with the "sun and sand" tourism, followed some way behind by gastronomic and wine tourism and even further by cultural and heritage tourism. The comparative analysis (Mann-Whitney Test) only points out a statistically significant difference between those who have travelled to the city and those who have never been to Malaga, for the "sun and sand" segment: those who have been to the city associate even more the city with this segment than those who have never travelled to Malaga.

4.2 Analysis of the Components of the Image

The cognitive and affective components of the target image of the city of Malaga have been analysed. To that end, we have followed the steps used before: a comprehensive descriptive analysis and a comparative analysis (Mann-Whitney test).

(i) *Cognitive component*. The climate in Malaga is highly appreciated by respondents, as well as the nightlife and the hospitality of the residents. The lowest scores are for the non-polluted environment and for seeing Malaga as a city in fashion or a city which transmits modernity (Fig. 2).
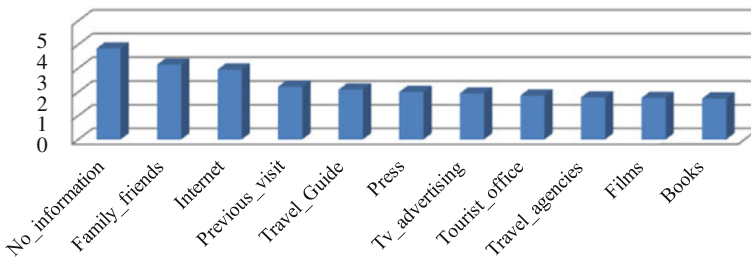
Fig. 1 Average rating for the sources of information
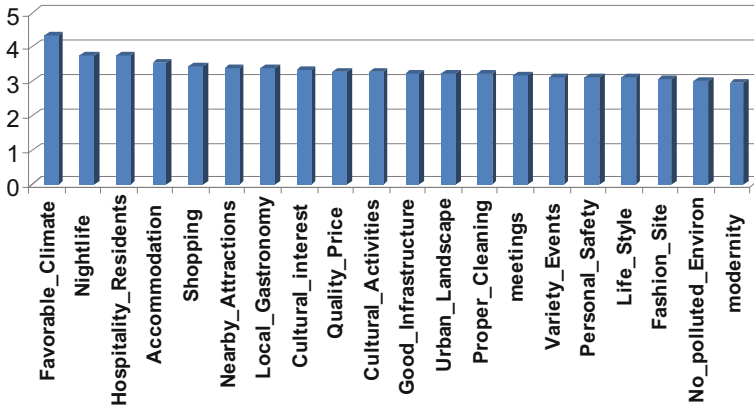
Fig. 2 Average rating for the attributes of the cognitive component. *Source* Own elaboration
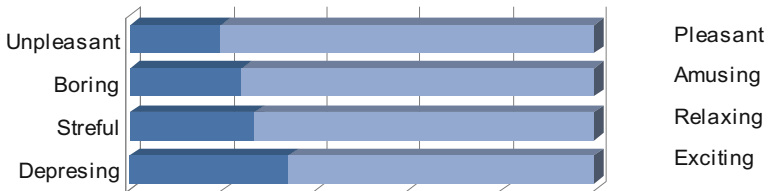
Fig. 3 Affective component. *Source* Own elaboration

After application of the Mann-Whitney test, statistically significant differences are revealed. Travellers who have visited Malaga have a more positive assessment of almost all the attributes of the city that those who have not travelled to the city before.

(ii) Regarding the *affective component*, measured by a semantic differential based on a five-point Likert-type scale, the results show that all factors are evaluated more positively than negatively. Malaga is considered, in the first place, as a pleasant destination and the consideration of Malaga as an exciting city has obtained the lowest results. The Mann-Whitney test has been applied again in order to verify the differences between the two groups already mentioned. A significant difference has been found in the "boring-amusing" variable and in the "unpleasant-pleasant" one. In both cases respondents who have already travelled to Malaga have given a higher score compared to those who have never been to the city (Fig. 3).

Then, a factor analysis of these components (cognitive and affective) has been conducted, in order to identify possible underlying dimensions of perception in the set of attributes. This factor analysis of the components is used to reduce the large amount of data, by grouping together those attributes related to each other under the same dimension. For this purpose, the VARIMAX method of rotation with Kaiser

Normalization has been used in the SPSS statistical programme. Once the rotation is completed, the significant factors which explain at least one variable have been selected. Thus, among the 24 displayed attributed, we have obtained five different factors which explain 53, 42% of variance using factor analysis (Table 1).

One the analysis has been conducted, we observe that the indicators that demonstrate the validity of the analysis (Bartlett test and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin coefficient) show satisfactory results. *Factor 1* groups the attributes associated with infrastructure and fashion, *Factor 2* brings together the attributes related to the cultural environment and the particularity of the destination, *Factor 3* is the one which includes the 4 attributes that form the affective image, *Factor 4* includes attributes related to lifestyle and day to day aspects and the last one, *Factor 5*, refers to the atmosphere of the destination that the individuals perceive. This shows that the destination image is multidimensional and that it is formed by a cognitive component, which can be divided into different dimensions and also by a clear affective component.

(iii) *Motivational component*. This component addressed the factors that would motivate respondents to travel to Malaga. In this latest analysis significant differences between the two groups are shown. According to the results obtained, people who have already visited Malaga would be more willing to return to the city than those who have never been there. The main reasons which would make them go back to the city would be for relaxing, for adventures or for social grounds. On the other hand, they would not be so willing to return due to reasons related to knowledge, adventure nor to attend special events.

Then, it is analyzed if the destination image is multidimensional in nature (H1). In particular, it seeks to ascertain whether there is a causal relationship between cognitive and cultural variables, infrastructure, atmosphere, lifestyle; affective variable and the motivational component. These variables were measured from multi-attribute scales that allow to obtain valuations for psychological variables. In this regard, Likert scales have been used.

Table 2 shows the standardized coefficients for the analysis of structural relationships that will allow to perform the hypothesis testing of the multidimensional nature of destination image. In this regard, a model where the cognitive dimensions-cultural, infrastructure, atmosphere, lifestyle, and the emotional dimension related to the motivational component has been estimated. As regards measures of goodness, RMSEA, which is the most robust index, presents a correct value as it is within the accepted limit (Steiger 1990).

The results of the analysis of the structural equation modelling suggest that all structural coefficients are significant, therefore H1 is accepted, and the multidimensional nature of destination image can be verified. In Fig. 4, the model with their respective structural coefficients is shown.

Table 1 Factor analysis of destination image

		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
C12	Malaga is a great place to go shopping	0.354				
C15	Malaga is the perfect place for hosting meetings or workshops	0.536				
C16	Malaga is a place that transmits modernity	0.750				
C17	Malaga has good accommodation infrastructures	0.594				
C18	Malaga is a trendy place	0.640				
C19	Malaga has a good development of the general infrastructures (transport, access roads, connections, health, security, etc.)	0.676				
C20	Malaga has a wide variety of scheduled events and activities	0.595				
C2	Malaga has an attractive local cuisine		0.737			
C3	Malaga has a diversity of attractions close to the city		0.601			
C4	Malaga has very interesting historical and cultural places		0.687			
C6	Malaga has an unique tradition and way of life		0.478			
C11	Malaga has an interesting urban landscape		0.515			
C14	Malaga offers cultural activities of great interest		0.674			
A1	Boring_amusing			0.561		
A2	Stressful_relaxing			0.695		
A3	Depressing_exciting			0.688		
A4	Unpleasnat_Pleasent			0.677		
C1	Residents in Malaga are hospitable and friendly				0.466	
C9	Malaga has an attractive nightlife and entertainment				0.648	
C10	Malaga has a good quality-to-price ratio				0.683	
C13	Malaga has a good weather				0.690	
C5	Malaga has an unpolluted/non-congested environment					0.686
C7	Malaga offers personal safety					0.548
C8	Malaga presents proper cleaning and general hygiene					0.646
	% Variance	13.293	13.256	9.483	9.384	8.359

Table 1 (continued)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
% Accumulated	13.293	26.549	36.032	45.416	53.416
α Cronbach	0.805	0.808	0.694	0.671	0.554
Number of items	7	6	4	4	3
Bartlett's Sphericity Test χ^2 (276) = 2,405,393 (p = 0.000)					
KMO Index = 0.877					
α Cronbach (24 items) = 0.832					

Source Own elaboration

Table 2 Hypothesis testing of the model

Hypotheses	Structural relationship	Stat. coeff.	t^* value	Contrast
H_{1a}	Cultural → Lifestyle	0.4921	11.56***	Accepted
H_{1b}	Infrastructure → Lifestyle	0.4024	8.95***	Accepted
H_{1c}	Atmosphere → Lifestyle	0.2074	3.29***	Accepted
H_{1d}	Lifestyle → Motivational component	0.1810	2.39**	Accepted
H_{1e}	Affective → Motivational Component	0.1953	3.03***	Accepted
Measures of goodness of fit				
S-Bχ^2 = 1282,01 (p = 0.000)		CFI	TLI	RMSEA
		0.62	0.58	0.08

Source Own elaboration
$^*p < 0.1$; $^{**}p < 0.05$; $^{***}p < 0.01$

Fig. 4 Destination image model
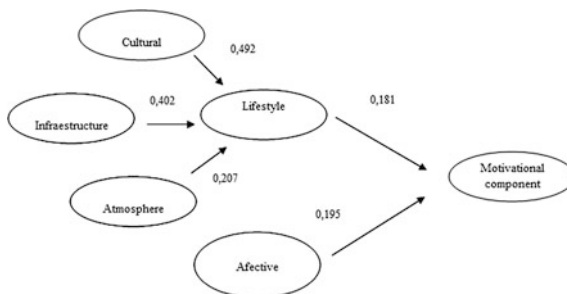
5 Conclusion

The results obtained in the current study show that the destination image is a multidimensional phenomenon composed of several dimensions. These dimensions are of a cognitive and affective nature, and even if it is the first one that contributes most to the generation of the overall image of the destination, the affective

component emerges clearly as a primary factor in the formation of the image, while the cognitive component also plays an important role when choosing a destination.

The analysis that has been performed to test the possible causal relationship between the different variables above-mentioned reinforces the hypothesis that destination image is multidimensional in nature, since the results indicate that all the structural components are significant.

Therefore, we can say that the perception of the destination is made by the cognitive assessments of the individuals on the characteristics of the destination and, at the same time, by their feelings and motivations for this place. These dimensions of perception will be used by tourists to discriminate between tourist destinations and to help them when choosing a place to visit. This statement is consistent with the opinion of those authors who opt for something more than the cognitive component concerning the destination image, since the perception of individuals plays a key role (Baloglu 2000).

References

Avery, R. J., & Ferraro, R. (2000). Verisimilitude or advertising? Brand appearances on prime-time television. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs, 34*(2), 217–244.

Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 26*(4), 868–897.

Baloglu, S. (2000). A path analytic model of visitation intention involving information sources, socio-psychological motivations, and destination image. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 8*(3), 81–90.

Beerli, A., & Martín, J. (2004). Tourists' characteristics and the perceived image of tourist destination: A quantitative analysis. A case study of Lanzarote, Spain. *Tourism Management, 25,* 623–636.

Bosque, I. R., & San Martín, H. (2008). Tourist satisfaction: A cognitive-affective model. *Annals of Tourism Research, 35*(2), 551–573.

Chon, K. S. (1990). The role of destination image in tourism: A review and discussion. *The Tourist Review, 45*(2), 2–9.

Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1991). the meaning and measurement of destination image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies, 2*(2), 2–12.

Fornell, C., & Bookstein, F. L. (1982). Two structural equation models: LISREL and PLS applied to consumer exit-voice theory. *Journal of Marketing Research, 19,* 440–452.

Gallarza, M. G., Gil, I., & Calderón, H. (2002). Destination image: Towards a conceptual framework. *Annals of Tourism Research, 29*(1), 56–78.

Gartner, W. C. (1993). Image formation process. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 2* (2/3), 191–215.

Hanyu, K. (1993). The affective meaning of Tokyo: verbal and nonverbal approaches. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 13*(2), 161–172.

Hunt, J. D. (1975). Images as a factor in tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research, 13*(3), 1–7.

Kaikati, A. M., & Kaikati, J. G. (2004). Stealth marketing: How to reach consumers surreptitiously. *California Management Review, 46*(4), 6–22.

Mansfeld, Y. (1992). From motivation to actual marketing. *Annals of Tourism Research, 19,* 399–419.

Morais, D. B., & Lin, C. H. (2010). Why do first-time and repeat visitors patronize a destination? *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 27*(2), 193–210.

Phelps, A. (1986). Holiday destination image—the problem of assessment: An example developed in Menorca. *Tourism Management, 7,* 168–180.

Pike, S. (2002). Destination image analysis—a review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000. *Tourism Management, 23*(5), 541–549.

Russell, J. A. (2002). Investigating the effectiveness of product placements in television shows: The role of modality and plot connection congruence in brand memory and attitude. *Journal of Consumer Research, 29*(3), 306–319.

San Martín, H. (2005). *Estudio de la imagen de destino turístico y el proceso global de satisfacción: Adopción de un enfoque integrador*. (Doctoral Thesis). University of Cantabria, Spain.

Satorra, A., & Bentler, P. (1994). Corrections to test statistics and standard errors in covariance structure analysis. In A. En von Eye & C. Clogg (Eds.), *Latent variable analysis: Applications for development research* (pp. 399–419). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Steiger, J. (1990). Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 25,* 173–180.

Stern, E., & Krakover, S. (1993). The formation of a composite urban image. *Geographical Analysis, 25*(2), 130–146.

Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research, 17,* 432–448.

Zhang, H., Fu, X., Cai, L., & Lu, L. (2014). Destination image and tourist loyalty: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management, 40,* 213–223.

The Influence of Information Sources on Tourist Image Fragmentation

Raquel Camprubí and Lluís Coromina

Abstract Information sources have been postulated as relevant for several reasons, and particularly to influence the decision-making process to travel and to generate images of places. Despite the fact that previous research detected the existence of possible gaps or incongruences on the promoted tourist image, there are no studies that prove the relationship between information sources and the fragmentation of the tourist image. In view of this context, this chapter aims to determine to what extent the information sources consulted influence the tourists' perceived image of a given destination, and to detect incongruences in the emitted image of the destination studied. Photo elicitation with a sample of 594 respondents was used to measure perceived image. Results reveal that emitted image fragmentation has effects on perceived tourist image of a destination; and it concludes that the number and type of information sources influence the degree of tourists' knowledge about a destination.

1 Introduction

Information sources are a key factor in the tourist's decision-making process (Dey and Sarma 2010), and these sources not only give tourists elements that help them decide which destination is the most appropriate according to their motivations, but they also create images in the mind of individuals (Alvarez and Campo 2011; Hanlan and Kelly 2005; Llodrà-Riera et al. 2015). Since the 1980s several studies have focused on determining the effectiveness of information sources (Fodness and Murray 1997; Gitelson and Crompton 1983). Nowadays, however, the Internet has

R. Camprubí (✉) · L. Coromina
University of Girona, Girona, Spain
e-mail: raquel.camprubi@udg.edu

L. Coromina
e-mail: lluis.coromina@udg.edu

revolutionised the search for information (Buhalis and Law 2008b), making it a significant factor in purchase decision-making (Frías et al. 2012; McCartney et al. 2008).

At the same time, research has demonstrated the relevance of tourist image as a factor in understanding tourist behaviour (Echtner and Ritchie 1993). In this context, information sources have been postulated as one of the most influential factors in tourist image formation during the decision-making process (Dey and Sarma 2010). Therefore, the tourist image is also an influencing factor in a destination's competitiveness, taking into account its strategic character in creating, maintaining or increasing tourism demand. For this reason, Govers and Go (2004) mention the need "to formulate a plan for projecting the 'right' image" as an essential part of a tourism development strategy. According to Gartner (1994), this strategy needs to be planned through the appropriate "image mix". Therefore, it is important to consider the complexity of the tourism system in a destination (Gunn 1972; Laws 1995; Pearce 1989), where multiple agents intervene in the process of marketing the destination. Gartner (1994) identified eight types of agents that participate in the image formation process, each representing one or more information sources. These information sources only show the attributes each of the agents wishes to highlight, therefore this can result in a fragmented image (Camprubí et al. 2014).

Consequently, tourism image is transmitted to both actual and potential tourists through these various online and offline sources of information; and are postulated as a factor that can increase knowledge of a destination. So, depending on the amount, and type, of information sources used, tourists can perceive images in substantially different ways. When dissonances arise, some authors point out their possible effects on the tourist image (Camprubí et al. 2014; Govers and Go 2004) and particularly, on cognitive evaluations.

Considering this background, previous research has given an insight into the relevance of various types of information sources and their effect on tourist behaviour (Fodness and Murray 1997) and image perception (Li et al. 2009). Academic literature identifies gaps in contributions to the analysis of image perception (Govers and Go 2004); and the image fragmentation of urban destinations in tourism brochures (Camprubí et al. 2014) and websites (Camprubí 2015). The possible effect of image fragmentation on perceived tourist image is pointed out in these studies. However, there are no studies analysing the relationship between the perceived tourist image of a destination, and information sources used, in order to find out incongruences among the various sources. When significant incongruences are detected, this is an indication that projected tourist image in the various information sources are different. This indicates, therefore, that tourist destination image is fragmented. Accordingly, this study aims to determine to what extent the number and type of information sources consulted influence the perceived image and cognitive evaluations made by tourists of a given destination, and to detect incongruences in the emitted image of the destination studied.

2 Literature Review

A tourist image is conceived as a mental construction, where the visual component comes second after tourists' previous knowledge, impressions and beliefs of the destination (Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Kotler et al. 1993). However, "the tourist image is, at the same time, a subjective construction (that varies from person to person), and a social construction, based on the idea of collective imagination" (Galí and Donaire 2005, p. 778). Therefore, any individual has images of tourism destinations in their mind, whether they have visited them or not (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Beerli and Martín 2004; Gunn 1988).

Academic literature agrees that tourism image can be differentiated between emitted and perceived images (Bramwell and Rawding 1996; Galí and Donaire 2005). The first are images that "reach the consumer by an image transmission or diffusion process through various channels of communication"; however perceived images "are formed from the interaction between these projected messages and the consumer's own needs, motivations, prior knowledge, experience, preferences, and other personal characteristics" (Bramwell and Rawding 1996).

The influential factors of these images are varied, and several studies have tried to explain the image formation process from the demand-side (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Beerli and Martín 2004), from the supply-side (Camprubí et al. 2009) and from both a supply and demand perspective (Tasci and Gartner 2007).

In particular, Baloglu and McClearly (1999) identified three main issues affecting the perceived image formation process: tourism motivations, socio-demographics, and various information sources. Numerous studies (Josiassen et al. 2015; Tasci et al. 2007) have highlighted all three factors as highly relevant for image perception, and more specifically for cognitive and affective evaluations. From among these factors, this study focuses on information sources and their relationship with perceived image.

2.1 Information Sources and Tourism Image Fragmentation

According to Li et al. (2009), information sources are the basis for tourism destination image. The information search process implies activating stored knowledge in the individual's mind, or acquiring new external knowledge. This process is essential to increasing knowledge about a destination for three main reasons (Gitelson and Crompton 1983): (a) vacations are considered as high-involvement purchases; (b) tourism products are intangible; and (c) there is a lack of knowledge about the destination. Thus, information sources represent an anticipation of how the destination can be consumed.

Gartner (1994), in his seminal contribution, identifies a continuum of agents contributing to image formation of a destination. Each of these agents represents one or more tourist information sources influencing visitors' perception of the destination. Tasci and Gartner (2007) observe the controllable and uncontrollable nature of these information sources in tourist image projections, and how tourists perceive an image. In this regard, Camprubí et al. (2014) mention that tourism images with substantial differences can be projected at the same time, having possible consequences on tourist satisfaction if this phenomenon is not well managed. Even though integrated marketing communication involves speaking with one voice, this does not mean that all the communication tools have to provide exactly the same information. Information can differ from one sourincluded 18 different typesce to another, if this information is directed to the right market segments. Subsequently, tourism image fragmentation is not a problem when segmented information is offered to each target and its particular interests.

Obviously, not all tourists have the same previous knowledge of a place, nor do they use the same information sources. It is for this reason that the level of knowledge from one individual to another can vary, taking as a reference both the number and type of information sources used (Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Schul and Crompton 1983) and previous experience of a destination (Letho et al. 2006). Various types of information sources have been detected in academic literature. For example, Bieger and Laesser (2004) included 18 different types of information sources in their study; Money and Crotts (2003) identified four categories (personal, marketer-dominated, neutral and experiential sources). More recent studies differentiate between online and offline information searches (Li et al. 2009; Llodrà-Riera et al. 2015; Luo et al. 2004).

Finding of previous research in this area show that both the amount and type of information sources used have a direct influence on the perceived image of a destination (Baloglu and McCleary 1999). More specifically, word-of-mouth is considered to be one of the most influential information sources (Fodness and Murray 1997; Llodrà-Riera et al. 2015) together with online information sources (McCartney et al. 2008; Frías et al. 2012), taking into account Information and Communication Technologies paradigm (Buhalis and Law 2008a). Considering the dichotomy between online and offline information sources, Baloglu and McClearly (1999) concluded that offline information sources influence cognitive evaluations in the image formation process; and later, Li et al. (2009, p. 55) found that "active online information search may change participants' destination image, particularly its affective aspects". Regarding the amount of information sources consulted, previous research has concluded that superficial knowledge about a destination can be associated with the use of a lower number of information sources (Baloglu 2000; Baloglu and McCleary 1999). In particular, Gitelson and Crompton (1983) found that tourists that most seek excitement tended to use more types of information that those not seeking excitement. In summary, information sources can generate an improved destination image (Li et al. 2009).

3   Method

A total of 594 tourists were interviewed in Palafrugell, Costa Brava (Spain), between April and September 2014. The sample was stratified for each month according to the number of tourists visiting the destination in each period, and data collection was carried out on tablet computers. The survey included questions about sources of information and perceived image.

Six pre-defined information sources were used in a multiple-choice question in the questionnaire. Information sources, three of them were online information sources (official website, tourism blogs, search engines), and three offline sources (brochures, mass media, and word-of-mouth).

Perceived image of a destination was measured through photo elicitation (Matteucci 2013) and pictures were classified in three categories (Dilley 1986; Santos 1998): culture, heritage, and landscape. The pictures included in each category were selected in agreement with the local Destination Marketing Organization. For each category, four pictures of the destination were shown to the respondents (Fig. 1) with the question: "From the following picture categories, which is the most representative picture of the municipality of Palafrugell?". Each
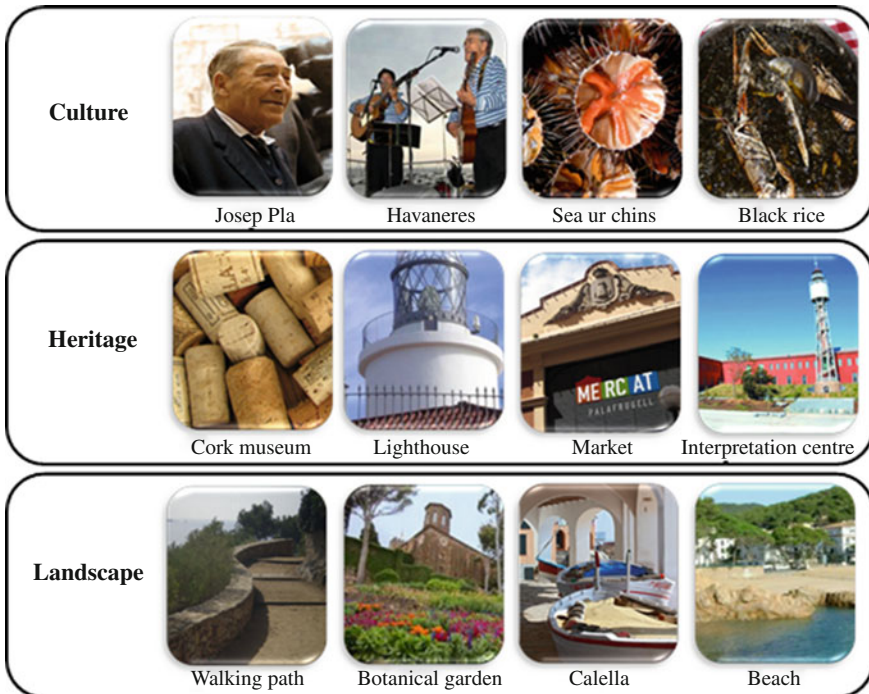
Fig. 1 Pictures by category

Table 1 Profile of respondents

	Frequency	%		Frequency	%
Gender			Education		
Male	243	41.3	Primary	35	5.9
Female	346	58.7	Secondary	216	36.7
			University	338	57.4
Age					
Less than 35	97	16.4	Place of		
35–44	151	25.5	Residence		
45–54	186	31.5	Nationals	222	37.6
55–64	101	17.1	Internationals	368	62.4
More than 64	56	9.5			

respondent selected the one picture in each category they thought was the most representative.

To identify whether information sources were determinants for image selection, the average number of sources of information used and their typology were analysed. Thus, differentiation between online and offline information sources, as well their average number, were considered. ANOVA-tests were carried out in order to detect whether the average number of information sources varies according to the typology of the images. Additionally, since more than two images for each category exist, Bonferroni post hoc tests were also carried out, in order to detect significant differences between each pair of items.

The sample respondents' profile (gender, age, education and place of residence) is shown in Table 1. Demographic information shows that there are slightly more females than males. The age range of most tourists is from 45 to 54 years old, followed by tourists between 35 and 44 years old, the majority having university studies. This is a destination with 37.6% national and 62.4% international tourists.

4 Results

Descriptive statistics (see Table 2) on online information sources show that 52% of tourists use search engines such as Google, 36% use the official website, and tourism blogs are used by 13%. Of the offline information sources, 42% use word-of-mouth, 12% use tourism brochures and 10% use mass media information (television, radio or newspaper). This means that tourists mainly use online information sources, as they may have more updated and wider range of information about the destination. However, word-of-mouth information is also relevant for deciding about the destination.

The number of individuals that selected the most representative picture for each category in Fig. 1 is classified in Table 3. For the landscape category, the most

Table 2 Information sources

Type	Information source	% used
Online	Search engines	52
Offline	Word-of-mouth	42
Online	Official website	36
Online	Tourism blogs	13
Offline	Tourism brochures	12
Offline	Mass media	10

selected image is "Beach", comprising almost 45% of respondents, followed by "Calella", chosen by one third of respondents, while "Walking path" and "Botanical Garden" are the least selected, and represent 14.5 and 7.3%, respectively.

Heritage is the most discriminative category, where 63.4% of tourists chose "Lighthouse". Secondly, "Market" was chosen by 31.2% of respondents, while 5.4% selected "Cork museum". No one chose "Interpretation centre" as the most heritage representative image for the destination. The fact that none chose this picture, and only 5.4% selected the cork museum, is representative of the new heritage nodes in the destination. These have been brought into communication messages more recently.

Concerning culture, more than a half of respondents selected "Haveneres", traditional music from the region, as the most representative image for this category. The second and third most selected images refer to gastronomy; while the least selected image was Josep Pla (1897–1981), a Catalan writer born in the analysed destination, by 7.3% of respondents.

Table 4 shows the most representative picture selected in each category and the average number of information sources used by the respondents. It shows the average number of online and offline information sources used for tourists who selected a specific image as the most representative for landscape, heritage and culture. Anova tests and their significances for both online and offline information sources in each category are shown at the bottom of Table 4.

Significant differences among the most representative selected images for online and offline information sources in the different categories are found; with the exception of online information sources in culture category. This means that the image selected as most representative depends on the number of information sources used. For instance, for landscape category, respondents who selected Botanical Garden used an average of 1.44 online information sources, while respondents who selected Calella used an average of 0.79 online information sources. Concerning offline information sources, respondents who selected Botanical Garden used an average of 1.35 offline information sources, while respondents who selected Calella used an average of 0.41 offline information sources. The same interpretation can be made for the remaining categories.

These results suggest that the number of information sources used influences picture selection, for both online and offline information sources. Therefore, this means that information sources have an effect on the perceived tourist image; with

Table 3 Selection of representative images for each category

Landscape			Heritage			Culture		
	n	%		n	%		n	%
Beach	264	44.8	Lighthouse	376	63.4	Havaneres	314	52.9
Calella	200	33.8	Market	185	31.2	Black rice	141	23.8
Walking path	85	14.5	Cork museum	32	5.4	Sea urchins	95	16.0
Botanical Garden	43	7.3	Interpretation centre	0	0	Josep Pla	43	7.3
Total	592	100	Total	593	100	Total	593	100

Table 4 Average number of information sources used for the most representative image selected

Landscape			Heritage			Culture		
	Online	Offline		Online	Offline		Online	Offline
Walking path	1.071	0.858	Cork museum	1.094	1.156	Josep Pla	1.326	1.326
Botanical Garden	1.442	1.349	Lighthouse	1.029	0.620	Havaneres	0.863	0.570
Calella	0.790	0.405	Market	0.935	0.611	Sea urchins	0.726	0.358
Beach	1.068	0.644	Interpretation	–	–	Black rice	1.404	0.801
Total	1.002	0.645	Total	1.004	0.646	Total	1.004	0.646
F-statistic	5.652	25.806	F-statistic	0.603	8.481	F-statistic	12.584	22.893
Eta (η)	0.167	0.341	Eta (η)	0.045	0.167	Eta (η)	0.245	0.323
p-value	0.001	0.001	p-value	0.548	0.000	p-value	0.000	0.000

the exception of online information sources for heritage, where no differences exist among the average number of online information sources used, taking into consideration the most representative image selected by tourists. In general, tourists who use less information sources, tend to select more pictures showing well-known destination attributes. For instance, in the case of landscape, a picture of Botanical garden was the image least selected (7.3%) and this corresponds to the highest average for the number of both online (1.442) and offline (1.349) information sources used.

Taking into consideration the influence of online and offline information sources on the decision-making process, correlations are studied to statically test whether the average number of information sources used influences picture selection. Results in Table 5 show that correlation coefficients between the number of on and offline information sources used, and the number of times a picture was selected as being the most representative are negative, for all three categories, corroborating the fact that tourists selecting pictures related to well-known destination attributes tend to use less online or offline information sources. This corroborates that the number

Table 5 Correlations among information sources used and pictures selected

	Landscape	Heritage	Culture
Online	−0.658	−0.324	−0.392
Offline	−0.813	−0.824	−0.144

of information sources used influences picture selection. Therefore, this means that information sources have an effect on the perceived tourist image. In this case, negative correlation coefficients mean that tourists, who use less information sources, tend to select more pictures showing well-known destination attributes.

Table 5 shows that the highest negative correlation coefficient is for offline information sources in landscape (−0.813) and heritage (−0.824) categories; while the correlation coefficient for offline information sources in culture (−0.144) is the lowest. Coefficients for landscape and heritage categories are the most similar for those using offline information sources; while for online information sources the similarities are between heritage and culture. There are notable differences, especially between the two types of information sources used for heritage category.

Comparing each pair of average number of information sources (online and offline) used for the most selected pictures in each category helps to detect homogeneity within online and offline information sources. This can be evaluated in order to identify which type of information sources, whether online or offline, use a more similar number of sources. In order to detect this information, multiple comparisons are made of the average number of online and offline information sources between each pair of images for all categories (landscape, heritage and culture), taking into account Bonferroni correction as a post hoc test.

Table 6a, b and c show the significant difference in Bonferroni post hoc tests among the averages for the number of online and offline information sources used (Table 4) in the landscape, heritage and culture categories, respectively. Values in the upper part of the table represent the difference in averages among pictures for online information sources, and differences in offline information sources averages are shown in the lower part.

As an example of interpretation, Table 6a shows that for offline information sources, those who selected Calella (0.790 in Table 4) used statistically significant more information sources that those who selected the Botanical Garden (1.442 in Table 4). Results in Table 6a, b and c detect more statistical differences among averages of offline information sources than among online information sources; meaning that more differentiation among offline information sources exists; while for online information sources, there are fewer differences among the average number of information sources. Specifically, Table 6b shows no differences among averages of online information sources for heritage, which was also detected in the Anova test (p = 0.548) in Table 4.

Online information source tourists use more similar or a more homogenous number of information sources compared to offline information source users, who consult a more disperse number of information sources. For instance, for the heritage category (Table 4), the variation in the number of online information sources

Table 6a Bonferroni post-hoc tests for landscape

Offline/Online	Walking path	Botanical Garden	Calella	Beach
Walking path	–	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Botanical Garden	***	–	***	n.s.
Calella	***	***	–	***
Beach	n.s.	***	***	–

***p-value < .05; n.s = not statistically significant

Table 6b Bonferroni post-hoc tests for heritage

Offline/Online	Cork museum	Lighthouse	Market	Interpretation
Cork museum	–	n.s	n.s	–
Lighthouse	***	–	.n.s.	–
Market	***	n.s	–	–

***p-value < .05; n.s = not statistically significant

Table 6c Bonferroni post-hoc tests for culture

Offline/Online	Josep pla	Havaneres	Sea urchins	Black rice
Josep Pla	–	***	***	n.s.
Havaneres	***	–	n.s.	***
Sea urchins	***	***	–	***
Black rice	***	***	***	–

***p-value < .05; n.s = not statistically significant

ranges between 0.94 and 1.09, while for offline it ranges from 0.611 and 1.156; the same pattern can be observed for the landscape and culture categories. It is also demonstrated by the Eta (η) comparison between online and offline information sources for landscape ($\eta_{online} = 167 < \eta_{offline} = 0.341$), heritage ($\eta_{online} = 0.045 < \eta_{offline} = 0.167$) and culture ($\eta_{online} = 0.245 < \eta_{offline} = 0.323$).

Thus, results suggest that the pictures for the offline information sources users are more fragmented. This indicates that they perceive more diverse images as being the most representative of the tourism destination.

Finally, in order to inspect whether the images most selected in one type of information source are also the most selected in the other, correlation coefficients (r) between online and offline information sources are carried out for each category.

Results show positive correlation coefficients of the averages between online and offline information sources used for landscape ($r = 0.973$), heritage ($r = 0.803$) and culture ($r = 0.678$). However, the degree to which it correlates varies. These findings are related to the concept of tourist image fragmentation (Camprubí et al. 2014), meaning that when online and offline information sources match (high correlation coefficients), more similar are the images induced through these sources,

and therefore perceived by tourists. In the opposite situation, when differences exist between online and offline sources (low correlation coefficients), there is a higher dissonance or fragmentation in projected images. This means that the images are differently perceived by tourists, depending on the information sources used.

Thus, the highest correlation is found in the landscape category, so selecting the most representative image of the destination i.e. landscape, is very similar whether using online or offline information sources. However, in the case of culture, where the correlation is the lowest, there are more differences in the selection of the most representative image between the types of information sources used. For instance, the image with the highest average of offline information sources used is Josep Pla, while for online information sources, it is 'black rice'.

5 Conclusion

Considering the relevance of information sources in the image formation process and as an influencing factor in decision-making, this study concludes that the real, perceived tourist image of a destination is affected by the fragmentation of tourism images transmitted through various information sources.

In particular, this study concludes that the number and types of information sources consulted influence cognitive evaluations on perceived tourist image. Consequently, a higher number of information sources means that the tourist has a deeper knowledge of the destination, and therefore he or she associates less well-known attributes to a destination, in contrast to tourists who have used a smaller number of information sources. At the same time, findings indicate that tourists perceive different tourist images depending on the information sources they have used. Online and offline information sources with various categories of pictures show different behaviour, concluding that, in these cases, a fragmentation among various projected images exists in the different information sources.

Therefore, fragmentation of emitted tourism images is widespread through information sources, which have effects on the images perceived by tourists. From the results of this study, it cannot be deduced that this fragmentation is a negative effect, as long as the attributes that are disseminated through various information sources and subsequently perceived by the tourists agree with the DMO's communication strategy. As Camprubí et al. (2014) point out; emitted tourism images can be purposely fragmented with the purpose of positioning tourism destinations in different market segments.

Consequently, for marketers in tourism destinations, it is particularly useful to know whether fragmentation of the tourism image exists or not. The reasons for this are twofold: firstly, to determine if the attributes transmitted by certain information sources are in accordance with the destination strategy; and secondly, to see whether it helps determine an appropriate image strategy and the composition of the "image mix". This refers to the continuum of factors that need to be taken into account to decide which agents will intervene in the formation of the tourist image,

as well as the amount of money budgeted for image development, characteristics of target markets, demographic characteristics and timing (Gartner 1994), as well as the adaptation of these issues to the new online information sources paradigm (Camprubí et al. 2013).

At the same time, this study deepens knowledge of the concept of tourism image fragmentation and its possible influence on tourist perceived image perception. However, this is only a first approximation and future research should analyse these phenomenon more deeply. In this case, picture elicitation has been used as a tool to assess the attributes attached to perceived image of the destination. Future research can use other methodological tools in order to measure cognitive evaluations.

Additionally, considering that knowledge about differences between the use of online and offline information search is scarce (Ho et al. 2012); this study considers the differentiation between these two types of information sources, expanding knowledge of the influencing character of online and offline information sources. Future research could consider each information source individually and expand the number of information sources considered for analysis.

References

Alvarez, M. D., & Campo, S. (2011). Controllable versus uncontrollable information sources: Effects on the image of Turkey. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 13,* 310–323.

Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 26,* 868–897.

Baloglu, S. (2000). A path analytic model of visitation intention involving information sources, socio-psychological motivations, and destination image. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 8*, 81–90.

Beerli, A., & Martín, J. D. (2004). Tourists' characteristics and the perceived image of tourist destinations: A quantitative analysis—A case study of Lanzarote, Spain. *Tourism Management, 25,* 623–636.

Bieger, T., & Laesser, C. (2004). Information sources for travel decisions: Toward a source process model. *Journal of Travel Research, 42,* 357–371.

Bramwell, B., & Rawding, L. (1996). Tourism marketing images of industrial cities. *Annals of Tourism Research, 23,* 201–221.

Buhalis, D., & Law, R. (2008a). Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet—The state of eTourism research. *Tourism Management, 29,* 609–623.

Buhalis, D., & Law, R. (2008b). Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet-The state of eTourism research. *Tourism Management, 29,* 609–623.

Camprubí, R. (2015). Capital cities tourism image: Is it fragmented? *European Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation, 6,* 57–74.

Camprubí, R., Guia, J., & Comas, J. (2014). analyzing image fragmentation in promotional brochures a case study of two urban destinations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 38,* 135–161.

Camprubí, R., Guia, J., & Comas, J. (2013). The new role of tourists in destination image formation. *Current Issues in Tourism, 16,* 203–209.

Camprubí, R., Guia, J., & Comas, J. (2009). La formación de la imagen turística inducida: Un modelo conceptual. *Pasos Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural, 7,* 255–270.

Dey, B., & Sarma, M. K. (2010). Information source usage among motive-based segments of travelers to newly emerging tourist destinations. *Tourism Management, 31,* 341–344.

Dilley, R. S. (1986). Tourist brochures and tourist images. *The Canadian Geographer/ Le Géographe Canadien, 30,* 59–65.

Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1993). The measurement of destination image: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research, 31,* 3–13.

Fodness, D., & Murray, B. (1997). Tourist information search. *Annals of Tourism Research, 24,* 503–523.

Frías, D. M., Rodríguez, M. A., Castañeda, A. J., et al. (2012). The Formation of a Tourist Destination's Image via information sources: The moderating effect of culture. *International Joronal of Tourism Research, 14,* 437–450.

Galí, N., & Donaire, J. A. (2005). The social construction of the image of Girona: A methodological approach. *Tourism Management, 26,* 777–785.

Gartner, W. C. (1994). Image formation process. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 2,* 191–212.

Gitelson, R. J., & Crompton, J. L. (1983). The planning horizons and sources of information used by pleasure vacationers. *Journal of Travel Research, 21,* 2–7.

Govers, R., & Go, F. M. (2004). Cultural identities constructed, imagined and experienced: A 3-gap tourism destination image model. *Tourism, 52,* 165–182.

Gunn, C. A. (1972). *Vacationscape*. Designing Tourist Regions: Taylor and Francis/University of Texas, Washington DC.

Gunn, C. A. (1988). *Vacationscape: Designing tourist regions*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Hanlan, J., & Kelly, S. (2005). Image formation, information sources and an iconic Australian tourist destination. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 11,* 163–177.

Ho, C. I., Lin, M. H., & Chen, H. M. (2012). Web users' behavioural patterns of tourism information search: From online to offline. *Tourism Management, 33,* 1468–1482.

Josiassen, A., Assaf, A. G., Woo, L., & Kock, F. (2015). The Imagery—image duality model: An integrative review and advocating for improved delimitation of concepts.

Kotler, P., Haider, D. H., & Rein, I. (1993). *Marketing places: Attracting investment, industry, and tourism to cities, states, and nations*. New York: Free Press.

Laws, E. (1995). *Destination management: Issues*. Routledge, London: Analysis and Policies.

Letho, X. R., Kim, D. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2006). The effect of prior destination experience on online information search behavior. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 6,* 160–178.

Li, X., Pan, B., Zhang, L., & Smith, W. W. (2009). The effect of online information search on image development: insights from a mixed-methods study. *Journal of Travel Research, 48,* 45–57.

Llodrà-Riera, I., Martínez-Ruiz, M. P., Jiménez-Zarco, A. I., & Izquierdo-Yusta, A. (2015). A multidimensional analysis of the information sources construct and its relevance for destination image formation. *Tourism Management, 48,* 319–328.

Luo, M., Feng, R., & Cai, L. A. (2004). Information search behavior and tourist characteristics: The internet vis-à-vis other information sources. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 17,* 269–293.

Matteucci, X. (2013). Photo elicitation: Exploring tourist experiences with researcher-found images. *Tourism Management, 35,* 190–197.

McCartney, G., Butler, R., & Bennett, M. (2008). A strategic use of the communication mix in the destination image-formation process. *Journal of Travel Research, 47,* 183–196.

Money, R. B., & Crotts, J. C. (2003). The effect of uncertainty avoidance on information search, planning, and purchases of international travel vacations. *Tourism Management, 24,* 191–202.

Pearce, D. (1989). *Tourist Development*. New York: Longman.

Santos, J. (1998). The role of tour operators' promotional material in the formation of destination image and consumer expectations: The case of the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 4,* 282–297.

Schul, P., & Crompton, J. L. (1983). Search behavior of international vacationers: Travel-specific lifiestyle and sociodemographic variables. *Journal of Travel Research, 22,* 25–30.

Tasci, A. D. A., & Gartner, W. C. (2007). Destination image and its functional relationships. *Journal of Travel Research, 45,* 413–425.

Tasci, A. D. A., Gartner, W. C., & Cavusgil, S. T. (2007). Conceptualization and operational-ization of destination image. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 31,* 194–223.

Consumer Animosity and Affective Country Image

Sara Campo and Maria Dolores Alvarez

Abstract Studies have established in different contexts the effect of consumer animosity on buying intentions of the products originating from the country towards which this hostility is directed. Despite the increasing number of investigations dealing with this topic within the international marketing literature, there is a lack of research concerning the influence of animosity on the purchase of tourism products. The current study aims to provide a greater understanding on this issue and propose a scale to measure the animosity construct in connection to the purchase of tourism products. While the findings support the idea that consumer animosity towards a country has a significant influence in the individual's decision to visit the place for tourism purposes, it determines that this effect is mediated by affective country evaluations. The study also contributes to a better understanding on how perceptions of places are constructed by individuals based on individual or national experiences, and how these in turn affect behavioural intentions.

1 Introduction

Globalization and an increased interconnection worldwide have rendered tourism highly dependent on both internal and external forces. Economic, political and other situational factors have a strong influence on tourism activities, whether they originate in the immediate vicinity of the destination or not (Ritchie 2004). In particular, the literature has determined the effect of specific events on tourism, establishing that political conflicts, terrorism acts or diseases and epidemics have a direct and negative impact on travel and visitation (Clements and Georgiou 1998; Hall 2010; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty 2009). Especially, the impact of such

S. Campo
Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Madrid, Spain
e-mail: sara.campo@uam.es

M.D. Alvarez (✉)
Boğaziçi University, Istanbul, Turkey
e-mail: alvarezm@boun.edu.tr

incidents on the image of a country has been the subject of numerous studies. According to previous research, specific events may provide additional information that influences perceptions regarding a place (Heslop et al. 2008).

In the international marketing literature, the effect of specific events on the image of a country has also been studied in connection to consumer animosity and its influence on the purchase of products originating from a specific country. Consumer animosity, introduced by Klein, Ettenson and Morris in 1998, refers to "the remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political or economic events" (Klein et al. 1998, p. 90) that affect the consumers' purchase behaviour. Indeed, several studies (Bahaee and Pisani 2009; Ettenson and Klein 2005; Huang et al. 2010; Nijssen and Douglas 2004) have established in different contexts the effect of animosity on buying intentions of the products originating from the country towards which this hostility is directed. Despite the increasing number of investigations dealing with this topic within the international marketing literature, there is a lack of research concerning the influence of animosity on the purchase of tourism products. While some studies (Alvarez and Campo 2014; Moufakkir 2014; Podoshen and Hunt 2009) have suggested that animosity affects the decision to visit a particular country, to date there is a lack of research that thoroughly examines this impact.

Therefore, the current study aims to contribute to the literature by investigating the consumer animosity construct in a tourism context. In this analysis, two streams of research are combined: the area of study concerning the influence of specific events on the image of the place and intention to visit it, and the consumer animosity field of investigation. Thus, the research attempts to determine the effect of animosity on the image of a particular country, and on the intention to visit it. Since recent investigations have also distinguished between the impact of a particular incident on cognitive versus affective perceptions, confirming the greater weight of the event on affective evaluations (Alvarez and Campo 2014), the current study also focuses on affective country evaluations and how they relate to the animosity construct.

2   Literature Review

Consumer animosity is a concept that has obtained an increasing attention in the marketing literature since its introduction by Klein et al. in 1998. Although the term animosity had already been used in previous research (for example Averill 1982) to signify feelings of enmity towards a country due to economic or political troubles, it was Klein et al. (1998) who first introduced this concept as affecting consumer behaviour. Several studies (Amine et al. 2005; Ang et al. 2004; Bahaee and Pisani 2009; Ettenson and Klein 2005; Huang et al. 2010; Nijssen and Douglas 2004; Shimp et al. 2004; Shoham et al. 2006) have confirmed the effect of animosity on the consumer's intention to purchase products from the country towards which such hostility is felt.

In the international marketing literature, the concept of consumer animosity has developed tied to that of the country-of-origin research. Studies under the country-of-origin field of inquiry have stressed the impact of the image that a country holds on the perceptions that consumers have of the products produced there, and on their subsequent purchase choices (Agarwal and Sikri 1996; Laroche et al. 2005; Lee and Ganesh 1999; Nebenzahl and Jaffe 1996; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). However, contrarily to the consumer animosity research, the effect of country-of-origin beliefs is on the product evaluation, and through it, on the ensuing buying decision. In contrast, under the consumer animosity stream of investigation, the perceived hostility towards the country does not necessarily result on a negative evaluation of the products produced in that country (Klein et al. 1998). Thus, in the words of Klein et al. (1998, p. 90), "a product's origin can affect consumer buying decisions independent of product judgements".

Nes et al. (2012) use affect to explain the impact of animosity on purchase decisions, despite cognitive product evaluations remaining the same. These authors follow earlier findings from Leong et al. (2008) concerning the greater impact of animosity on affective product evaluations, and confirm the mediating influence of affect in the relationship between country animosity and behavioural intentions. Nes et al. (2012) explain this influence of affect through congruity and cognitive dissonance theories, following research in social psychology that determines that feelings and emotions have a significant influence in the creation of stereotypes and attitudes (Macrae et al. 1996). In the tourism field, research has also confirmed that the affective component of image is more important than the cognitive one in determining the overall image of a place (Alvarez and Campo 2014; Campo and Alvarez 2010; Kim and Yoon 2003).

While consumer animosity has been the subject of numerous studies since its introduction as a new field of research, these investigations have mainly focused on the characteristics of the construct, in an attempt to measure it. In particular, the reasons behind this animosity are listed in the literature as including wars and military conflicts (Klein et al. 1998; Nijssen and Douglas 2004), political incidents (Ettenson and Klein 2005; Witkowski 2000), historical events (Nakos and Hajidimitriou 2007), economic disputes (Klein and Ettenson 1999) and interaction with the people from the country (Moufakkir 2014; Nes et al. 2012). Jung et al. (2002) also distinguish between different types of animosity based on two dimensions: stable—situational and personal—national. These authors stated that animosity could be due to a particular event (situational) or to the accumulation of incidents over time (stable). Furthermore, when the cause of the transgression is perceived as coming from an individual, animosity is not generated toward the country (personal); only when it is interpreted that a country has participated in the offense does this lead to a feeling of animosity (national) (Leong et al. 2008). Thus, country evaluations are based on personal or national experiences that may go back to the past or may be rooted in the present. However, authors such as Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007) have criticized the one-size-fits-all manner in which measuring instruments of animosity have been used. According to these authors, the construct is context-specific and requires an understanding of the motives inspiring

animosity, based on prior exploratory qualitative research. In addition, Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007) also suggest that the reasons underlying animosity judgements need to be distinguished from the feelings per se. Thus, they call for the inclusion of additional items that encompass a more general affective-based evaluation of animosity in the scales used to measure this construct.

Following Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007), other more recent studies (Nes et al. 2012) have also remarked on the need to continue the study of animosity in order to obtain a more thorough comprehension of the construct. Animosity needs to be investigated particularly within the context of tourism, since there is no research that has examined its influence on the evaluation and purchase of tourism products. In contrast, the tourism literature has concerned itself for several decades with the study of how particular events, including terrorist attacks, wars and international disputes, political conflicts, natural disasters and economic crises, may impact the image and tourism activities of the destination in which the incident occurs (see the literature review by Sönmez (1998) and Hall (2010). Some examples of studies in this field include the research from Clements and Georgiou (1998) that analyzes the effect of political instability on tourism; Coshall (2003) who considers the influence of various political and military events on airline passenger flows in the United Kingdom; Gartner and Shen (1992) who discuss the impact of internal political conflicts such as that of Tiananmen Square on the image of the country; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009) who investigate the effect of terrorism and endemic diseases on Thailand's tourism; and Steiner (2007) who studies the impact of the tourism industry in Tunisia Egypt and United Arab Emirates after the 9/11 terrorist attacks). Thus, the consumer animosity field of investigation within the international marketing literature needs to be combined with the existing knowledge in tourism research concerning conflicts and crises situations. This is the starting point for the current study, which attempts to understand the influence of animosity in tourism, drawing from existing research in and outside the tourism literature. In particular, the influence that animosity has on affective image evaluations and on the decision to visit a country is studied. Furthermore, the investigation seeks to provide a new measuring instrument of the animosity construct that addresses some of the issues raised by Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007) and is based on a greater understanding of the underlying reasons for animosity judgements.

3 Method

The current research is part of an ongoing investigation to create and test a comprehensive measure of consumer animosity in the tourism context, and to determine the effect of the construct on the image of the place and on the decision to visit the destination. First, an in-depth review of the literature was used to generate items for the animosity scale. This phase was supplemented with an initial structured interview to a convenience sample of 36 Turkish respondents who were asked to

provide three countries towards which they feel a greater animosity and the reasons behind it. Following this stage, an online survey to a convenience sample of 163 Turkish consumers was used to quantitatively pre-test the animosity scale for Israel, identified as one of the countries suffering from a greater animosity among the Turks. The study also aimed to investigate the influence of the animosity construct on the affective image of Israel and on the intention to visit this country. Following Nes et al. (2012), the investigation also examines in a tourism setting the mediating influence of affect in the relationship between consumer animosity and intention to visit a particular country.

The respondents were solicited by posting an invitation to participate in the research via social media networks and discussion forums on topics related to entertainment and leisure. The sample obtained in this fashion includes a high percentage of young people, with 59% of the respondents between the ages of 18 and 25, and 25% between 26 and 35 years old. While most of the participants are single (83%), there is a balanced distribution of males (53%) and females (47%). The average net income is high, since 39% of the sample earns more than 5000 TL per month, with 22% falling within the second highest category (between 3500 and 5000 TL per month).

In this study the animosity construct was measured based on five dimensions formed by the underlying causes of hostility—economic, people, political, religious, historical and military—followed by a general animosity component based on feelings towards the country. As explained above, this measure of animosity was created by generating items from the literature, and from the initial structured interviews, which shed information on additional causes of animosity towards a particular country. All the measures used in this research are shown in Table 1.

The items included in the questionnaire to reflect the different dimensions of animosity identified are measured using a 5-point Likert scale that includes 4 items for the economic dimension (Ang et al. 2004; Klein et al. 1998; Shin 2001), 4 items for the people dimension (Nes et al. 2012), 5 items for the political dimension (Russel 2004), 2 items for the religious dimension (Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2007), 2 items for the historical dimension (Cai et al. 2012) and 3 items for the military dimension (Klein et al. 1998; Nijssen and Douglas 2004). Following the recommendation from Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007), a dimension to measure the overall degree of animosity was also included in the scale.

Affective country image and intention to visit were evaluated using the scales utilized in Alvarez and Campo's (2014) research. Affective country image includes 6 items, measured using a 5-point semantic differential scale, while intention to visit is measured through 3 items using a 5-point Likert scale. The results obtained from this survey are discussed in this chapter and are used in order to support the subsequent stage of the research, a larger-scale online questionnaire-based study, which is still ongoing.

Table 1 Scale items

Dimensions	Items
Economic animosity	1. This country is out to exploit the economy of my country and other countries 2. This country is taking advantage of my country and other countries 3. This country has too much economic influence on my country and other countries 4. I dislike this country because it is a low cost/low quality producer
People animosity	1. I dislike the mentality of the people of this country 2. I feel that people in this country are hostile towards my country 3. I dislike that people from this country criticize my country's policies 4. My experiences with people from this country are negative
Political animosity	1. I dislike the policies of the government from this country 2. I dislike the political system in this country 3. I dislike the corruption in this country 4. I dislike this country because it does not respect human rights 5. I dislike this country because it does not respect women's rights
Religious animosity	1. This country does not respect other religions 2. I dislike the religious system in this country
Historical animosity	1. I dislike this country because of past historical events 2. I dislike this country because of its historic oppressing other countries
Military animosity	1. I believe that this country poses a huge military threat 2. I dislike this county's involvement in wars and conflicts 3. I dislike the military operations in this country
Overall animosity	1. Overall, I dislike this country 2. Overall, I feel annoyed by this country
Affective country image	1. Like—dislike 2. Trust—distrust 3. Gives me confidence—does not give me confidence 4. Admire—do not admire 5. Does not annoy me—annoys me 6. Arouses good feelings—bad feelings
Intention to visit	1. I intend to visit this country in the future 2. I would choose this country for my next holiday 3. I would prefer to visit this country rather than other similar destinations

4   Results

The descriptive statistics further provide information on the animosity of the Turks towards Israel. According to the findings, the Turkish respondents exhibit a high level of animosity towards Israel (refer to Table 2). Items related to political, military and religious animosity show higher means, indicating a greater level of animosity in relation to these aspects. In addition, the means for the affective country image and the intention to visit the destination are extremely low (lower than 2.0 on a 5-point Likert scale for all items).

Table 2 Descriptive statistics of the animosity, affective country image and intention to visit

Items	Means[a]	SD
Animosity		
Economic animosity		
Israel is out to exploit the economy of my country and other countries (EA1)	3.85	1.36
Israel is taking advantage of my country and other countries (EA2)	3.99	1.20
Israel has too much economic influence in my country and other countries (EA3)	3.83	1.22
People animosity		
I dislike the mentality of the people of Israel (PEA1)	3.83	1.37
I feel that the people in Israel are hostile towards my country (PEA2)	3.77	1.42
I dislike that people from Israel criticize my country's policies (PEA3)	3.63	1.46
My experiences with people from Israel are negative (PEA4)	2.36	1.56
Political animosity		
I dislike the policies of the government from Israel (POA1)	4.17	1.15
I dislike the political system in Israel (POA2)	3.75	1.27
I dislike the corruption in Israel (POA3)	3.25	1.30
I dislike Israel because it does not respect human rights (POA4)	3.96	1.25
I dislike Israel because it does not respect women's rights (POA5)	2.73	1.35
Religious animosity		
Israel does not respect other religions (RA1)	4.24	1.03
I dislike the religious system in Israel (RA2)	3.87	1.25
Historical animosity		
I dislike Israel because of past historical events (HA1)	3.91	1.29
I dislike Israel because of its history of oppressing other countries (HA2)	3.83	1.30
Military animosity		
I believe that Israel poses a huge military threat (MA1)	4.14	1.12
I dislike Israel's involvement in wars and conflicts (MA2)	4.45	0.94
I dislike the military operations in Israel (MA3)	4.50	0.90
Overall animosity		
Overall, I dislike Israel (A1)	3.71	1.42
Overall, I have negative feelings towards Israel (A2)	3.59	1.45
Affective country image		
Like—dislike (ACI1)	1.96	1.09
Trust—distrust (ACI2)	1.68	1.03
Gives me confidence—does not give me confidence (ACI3)	1.77	1.02
Admire—do not admire (ACI4)	1.77	1.11
Does not annoy me—annoys me (ACI5)	2.10	1.24
Arouses good feelings—bad feelings (ACI6)	1.68	0.97

Table 2 (continued)

Items	Means[a]	SD
Intention to visit		
I intend to visit Israel in the future (I1)	1.95	1.23
I would choose Israel for my next holiday (I2)	1.98	1.27
I would prefer to visit Israel rather than other similar destinations (I3)	2.00	1.27

SD Standard Deviation

[a]1 = Lowest level of animosity, most positive feelings and highest intention to visit

5 = Highest level of animosity, most negative feelings and lowest intention to visit

Exploratory factor analysis was first applied to refine the scale, resulting in the item "I dislike this country because it is a low cost/low quality produce" being eliminated from subsequent analyses because of its lack of fit with the rest of the animosity scale in the case of Israel. The reliability and validity of the scale is confirmed since the Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability indicators are greater than 0.70 for all variables and dimensions, and all the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values are close to or greater than the recommended standards of 0.50 (see Table 3).

Following this analysis, structural equation modelling (AMOS 22.0) was also used in order to obtain a more in-depth understanding of the dimensionality of the animosity scale and the relative weights of the various components on the overall construct (Chi-square = 588.05: df = 395; p = 0.00; CFI = 0.93; AGFI = 0.77; RMSEA = 0.05). According to the research, in the case of Israel a variety of underlying reasons determine the high level of animosity that the Turks suffer against this country. In particular, political (0.92), people (0.91), and historical animosity (0.91) have a greater weight in the overall animosity component. The model of estimated relationships and the relative weights of the various animosity components on the overall animosity construct are shown in Table 3 and Fig. 1.

The findings also support the influencing role of animosity towards a country such as Israel on the individual's intention to visit the place, as seen in Fig. 1. However, this influence is found to be indirect, mediated by affective country evaluations. Thus, this research confirms the importance of the affective country image on the intention to visit a place that had already emerged in previous investigations (Alvarez and Campo 2014; Campo and Alvarez 2010). The present research determines that the affective country image has a strong, significant and positive effect (0.61) on the intention to visit the destination. In addition, the influence of animosity on the affective country image of Israel is found to be strong and negative (−0.71), and therefore the impact of animosity on the intention to visit is negative, albeit indirect, mediated by the affective country image component (total effect = −0.43). Thus, this study confirms in the tourism context Nes et al.'s (2012) model of the influence of animosity on purchase intentions through the mediating role of affective country evaluations.

Table 3 Estimation of the relationship model

Item		Construct	Standardized coefficient
EA1	<—	Economic animosity	0.88*
EA2	<—	Economic animosity	0.78*
EA3	<—	Economic animosity	0.69*
PEA1	<—	People animosity	0.79*
PEA2	<—	People animosity	0.74*
PEA3	<—	People animosity	0.65*
PEA4	<—	People animosity	0.47*
POA1	<—	Political animosity	0.74*
POA2	<—	Political animosity	0.71*
POA3	<—	Political animosity	0.51*
POA4	<—	Political animosity	0.74*
POA5	<—	Political animosity	0.45*
RA1	<—	Religious animosity	0.83*
RA2	<—	Religious animosity	0.72*
MA1	<—	Military animosity	0.69*
MA2	<—	Military animosity	0.60*
MA3	<—	Military animosity	0.79*
OA1	<—	Overall animosity	0.72*
OA2	<—	Overall animosity	0.69*
HA1	<—	Historical animosity	0.76*
HA2	<—	Historical animosity	0.80*
ACI1	<—	Affective country	0.81*
ACI2	<—	Affective country	0.70*
ACI3	<—	Affective country	0.79*
ACI4	<—	Affective country	0.76*
ACI5	<—	Affective country	0.66*
ACI6	<—	Affective country	0.81*
I1	<—	Intention to visit	0.78*
I2	<—	Intention to visit	0.93*
I3	<—	Intention to visit	0.92*
Dimensions	**Alpha**	**Composite reliability**	**AVE**
Economic animosity	0.80	0.83	0.62
People animosity	0.76	0.76	0.46
Political animosity	0.76	0.77	0.41
Religious animosity	0.74	0.75	0.61
Historical animosity	0.76	0.76	0.61
Military animosity	0.72	0.74	0.49
Overall animosity	0.88	0.67	0.50
Affective country image	0.89	0.86	0.56
Intention to visit	0.91	0.91	0.78

AVE Average variance extracted
*$p < 0.001$
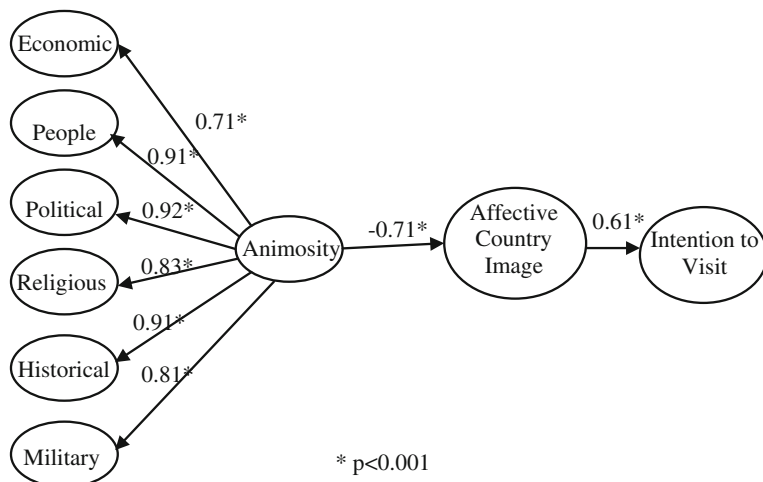
Fig. 1 Model of estimated relationships (standardized coefficients)

5 Conclusion

The study confirms the multidimensionality of the animosity construct and provides a greater understanding of its underlying components. In particular, in the case of Israel, the people, political and historical dimensions appear to have the highest weight in the formation of the overall animosity of the Turks towards this country. Thus, the investigation contributes to a better grasp on how perceptions of places are constructed based on individual or national experiences. In addition, the research may provide practical implications, helping national decision makers better comprehend the reasons for hostility towards the country, thus allowing these issues to be addressed within a comprehensive national strategy. Within this context, the animosity construct also needs to be better understood as it may provide a useful basis for tourism segmentation, determining those individuals that are likely to be more receptive of the country's marketing and promotional campaigns.

The research also determines the impact of animosity on behavioural intentions to purchase tourism products. While the results support the idea that consumer animosity towards a country has a significant influence in the individual's decision to visit the place for tourism purposes, it determines that the effect of animosity on the intention to visit is indirect, mediated by affective country image evaluations. Thus, the investigation extends the application of existing animosity related findings to tourism, confirming the importance of the construct for subsequent analyses in destination and place research. The study also confirms the applicability of Nes et al.'s (2012) model to tourism, highlighting the need to better identify through further studies the mediating influence of affect in the relationship between animosity and intention to visit a destination. Therefore, the vital role of affective

country evaluations is also highlighted in this research, in support of previous tourism studies on the topic (Alvarez and Campo 2014; Campo and Alvarez 2010; Kim and Yoon 2003).

Despite the interest of the results obtained in this research, this still remains a preliminary study based on a convenience sample and a relatively low sample size. The findings obtained need to be further assessed through subsequent studies that will provide a thorough understanding of the dimensions of animosity for various countries. These future investigations may also examine to what extent different components of animosity may have diverse impacts on the evaluation of destinations and visitation intentions. In addition, while the research addressed some of the concerns regarding the measurement of animosity expressed in previous studies (Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2007), such as the need for preliminary research to provide context specific data on the reasons inspiring animosity and the need to separate these motives from the feelings of animosity per se, clearly more comprehensive investigations are warranted. In this regard, several questions that may lead future research emerge. To what extents do the various dimensions of animosity play different roles in determining overall animosity? Is the influence of economic animosity different to that of political animosity? Is the effect of animosity on intention to visit a destination always mediated by affect, or does this mediating influence vary for diverse countries with different characteristics? These and other questions corroborate the fact that consumer animosity is still a largely unknown construct, not only in tourism, but also in international marketing.

References

Agarwal, S., & Sikri, S. (1996). Country image: Consumer evaluation of product category extensions. *International Marketing Review, 13*(4), 23–39.

Alvarez, M. D., & Campo, S. (2014). The influence of political conflicts on country image and intention to visit: A study of Israel's image. *Tourism Management, 40*(1), 70–78.

Amine, L. S., Chao, M. C., & Arnold, M. J. (2005). Executive insights: Exploring the practical effects of country of origin, animosity, and price–quality issues: Two case studies of Taiwan and Acer in China. *Journal of International Marketing, 13*(2), 114–150.

Ang, S., Jung, K., Kau, A., Leong, S., Pompitakpan, C., & Tan, S. (2004). Animosity towards economic giants: What the little guys think. *The Journal of International Marketing, 13*(2), 190–207.

Averill, J. (1982). *Anger and aggression: An essay on emotion*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Bahaee, M., & Pisani, M. (2009). Iranian consumer animosity and U.S. products: A witch's brew or elixir? *International Business Review, 18*(2), 199–210.

Cai, H., Fang, X., Yang, Z., & Song, H. (2012). Implicit consumer animosity: A primary validation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 42*(7), 1651–1674.

Campo, S., & Alvarez, M. D. (2010). Country versus destination image in a developing country. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *27*(7), 749–765.

Clements, M. A., & Georgiou, A. (1998). The impact of political instability on a fragile tourism product. *Tourism Management, 19*(3), 283–288.

Coshall, J. T. (2003). The threat of terrorism as an intervention on international travel flows. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(1), 4–12.

Ettenson, R., & Klein, J. G. (2005). The fallout from French nuclear testing in the South Pacific: A longitudinal study of consumer boycotts. *International Marketing Review, 22*(2), 199–224.

Gartner, W. C., & Shen, J. (1992). The impact of Tiananmen square on china's tourism image. *Journal of Travel Research, 30*(4), 47–52.

Hall, C. M. (2010). Crisis events in tourism: Subjects of crisis in tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism, 13*(5), 401–417.

Heslop, L. A., Lu, I. R., & Cray, D. (2008). Modeling country image effects through an international crisis. *International Marketing Review, 25*(4), 354–378.

Huang, Y., Phau, I., & Lin, C. (2010). Consumer animosity, economic hardship, and normative influence: How do they affect consumers' purchase intention? *European Journal of Marketing, 44*(7–8), 909–937.

Jung, K., Ang, S. H., Leong, S. M., Tan, S. J., Pornpitakpan, C., & Kau, A. K. (2002). A typology of animosity and its cross-national validation. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 33*(6), 529–539.

Kim, S., & Yoon, Y. (2003). The hierarchical effects of affective and cognitive components on tourism destination image. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 14*(2), 1–22.

Klein, J. G., & Ettenson, R. (1999). Consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism: An analysis of unique antecedents. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 11*(4), 5–24.

Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R., & Morris, M. D. (1998). The animosity model of foreign product purchase: An empirical test in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Marketing, 62*(1), 89–100.

Laroche, M., Papadopoulos, N., Heslop, L. A., & Mourali, M. (2005). The influence of country image structure on consumer evaluations of foreign products. *International Marketing Review, 16*(1), 18–39.

Lee, D., & Ganesh, G. (1999). Effects of partitioned country image in the context of brand image and familiarity. *International Marketing Review, 16*(1), 18–39.

Leong, S. M., Cote, J. A., Ang, S. H., Tan, S. J., Jung, K., Kau, A., et al. (2008). Understanding consumer animosity in an international crisis: Nature, antecedents, and consequences. *Journal of International Business Studies, 39*, 996–1009.

Macrae, C. N., Stangor, C., & Hewstone, M. (1996). *Stereotypes and stereotyping*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Moufakkir, O. (2014). What's immigration got to do with it? Immigrant animosity and its effects on tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 49*, 108–121.

Nakos, G. E., & Hajidimitriou, Y. A. (2007). The impact of national animosity on consumer purchases: The modifying factor of personal characteristics. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 19*(3), 53–72.

Nebenzahl, I. D., & Jaffe, E. D. (1996). Measuring the joint effect of brand and country image in consumer evaluation of global products. *International Marketing Review, 13*(4), 5–22.

Nes, E. B., Yelkur, R., & Silkoset, R. (2012). Exploring the animosity domain and the role of affect in a cross-national context. *International Business Review, 21*, 751–765.

Nijssen, E. J., & Douglas, S. P. (2004). Examining the animosity model in a country with a high level of foreign trade. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 21*(1), 23–38.

Podoshen, J. S., & Hunt, J. M. (2009). Animosity, collective memory, rumor and equity restoration: Consumer reactions to the Holocaust. *Consumption Markets & Culture, 12*(4), 301–332.

Riefler, P., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2007). Consumer animosity: A literature review and a reconsideration of its measurement. *International Marketing Review, 24*(1), 87–119.

Ritchie, B. W. (2004). Chaos, crises and disasters: A strategic approach to crisis management in the tourism industry. *Tourism Management, 25*, 669–683.

Rittichainuwat, B. N., & Chakraborty, G. (2009). Perceived travel risks regarding terrorism and disease: The case of Thailand. *Tourism Management, 30*(3), 410–418.

Russel, C. A. (2004). Now showing: Global motives crossing cultural lines. Is this resistance futile? CIBER Working Paper Series. San Diego University: San Diego.

Shimp, T. A., Dunn, T. H., & Klein, J. G. (2004). Remnants of the U.S. Civil War and modern consumer behavior. *Psychology & Marketing, 21*(2), 75–91.

Shin, M. (2001). The animosity model of foreign product purchase revisited: Does it work in Korea? *Journal of Empirical Generalizations in Marketing Science*, *6*, 6–14.

Shoham, A., Davidow, M., Klein, J. G., & Ruvio, A. (2006). Animosity on the home front: The Intifada in Israel and its impact on consumer behavior. *Journal of International Marketing, 14* (3), 92–114.

Sönmez, S. (1998). Tourism, terrorism and political instability. *Annals of Tourism Research, 25* (2), 416–456.

Steiner, C. (2007). Political instability, transnational tourist companies and destination recovery in the Middle East after 9/11. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning and Development, 4*(3), 169–196.

Verlegh, P. W. J., & Steenkamp, J. B. E. M. (1999). A review and meta-analysis of country-of-origin research. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 20*(5), 521–546.

Witkowski, T. (2000). Effects of animosity toward China on willingness to buy Chinese products. In G. McClean, E. Kaynak, & O. A. Aliago (Eds.), *Managing in a turbulent international business environment* (pp. 470–477). Hummelstown: The International Management Development Associations.

Part III
Co-creation of Experience Atmospheres

Comparison Between Wayfinding Direction Descriptors of Local and Tourist Preferences

Hsuan Hsuan Chang

Abstract Tourists sometimes would seek the wayfinding information from the local while traveling in unfamiliar countries to decrease the possibility of being lost. However, the wayfinding information provided by the local might end up the tourists with the confusing because people have different way to express their spatial information. The study wants to investigate a tourist's preferences for different types of wayfinding direction descriptors provided by the local for their overseas wayfinding to unfamiliar destination and examine any difference on preference for direction descriptors by culture and gender. According to the study results, the international tourists with different wayfinding strategy preferences, gender and culture background would have different preference towards wayfinding direction information. The international tourists have different preferences towards wayfinding direction information when they are information providers and receivers.

1 Introduction

People are generally aware of their surroundings and know their way around in their daily lives. However, when people travel to new places, they can easily feel lost in the strange surroundings and unfamiliar environments, requiring them to ask for directions to find their way around. This does not only happen to local residents traveling within their own country but also to international travelers who are visiting a country for the first time or on repeated visits. When the tourists travel in unfamiliar countries, they might acquire the help from other local people to decrease the chances of getting lost. However, doing this might make themselves feel more confused. People have different ways and used different descriptors to express their idea, and spatial information such as landmarks, distance, directions, walking minutes, turning right or left and etc. (Denis et al. 1999; Golding et al. 1996;

H.H. Chang (✉)
Ming Chuan University, Taipei, Taiwan, ROC
e-mail: changtzu@mail.mcu.edu.tw

Mark and Gould 1995; Vanetti and Allen 1988; Wright et al. 1995). Hund et al. (2012) investigated the preference of wayfinding information descriptors of Americans. The result showed that some people prefer using the third party to express their thoughts by using the information such as east, west, south and north, and others would have favor of using right or left turns to help others. Individual differences in wayfinding details are widespread, with some people providing detailed and specific descriptions (Devlin 2003).

Often people rely on verbal directions to facilitate wayfinding, particularly when searching for unfamiliar destinations such as tourist sites. What sort of descriptive language do people use when giving directions? In what ways might these features vary across cultures? Do they depend on the characteristics of the information receivers? The aim of this study is to investigate what international tourists need when they ask local people for directions to unfamiliar destinations. This study will also investigate whether the tourists' gender, cultural backgrounds and wayfinding strategy preferences affect their preference for direction descriptors.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Wayfinding

Researchers have studied how humans react in geographic space. This research is from a cognitive perspective with an emphasis on how individuals think about and behave in geographic space to process information (Golledge and Stimson 1997; Kitchin and Blades 2002). Wayfinding is a purposeful, directed and motivated means of moving from the point of origin to a given destination (Xia et al. 2008). The ability to find one's orientation while in an open area varies among individuals (Hirtle and Hudson 1991; Kozlowski and Bryant 1977; Montello and Pick 1993). Allen (1999) identified three types of wayfinding tasks: "commute, explore and quest," depending on the purpose for traveling. The third type of wayfinding task is called "quest," which involves traveling from the familiar place of origin to an unfamiliar destination. This destination is known to exist but is one that the traveler has not previously visited. Without stored knowledge, the traveler might need a map, visual references or a verbal description to find their way to their destination.

2.2 Wayfinding Direction

Sometimes, directions are helpful because there are adequate details to effectively guide a person to travel from place to place. At other times, directions that may have originally appeared to be good are actually misleading or have too many details to remember, especially for tourists experiencing language barriers. According to previous studies, everyone has different ways of using spatial information and also

have different preferences for how information is given. They may like to be given landmarks, distances, directions, left or right turns, cues, walking distance, etc. (Golding et al. 1996; Mark and Gould 1995; Wright et al. 1995; Denis et al. 1999; Klein 1982; Vanetti and Allen 1988). In giving directions, some people provide only the most basic instructions, such as "right at the last section", whereas others provide more information, such as distances, landmarks, or clear street names. Directions could be different for different communicators as a function of frames of reference (Levinson et al. 2002).

2.3 Differences in Direction Preferences

The effectiveness of wayfinding descriptions could be possibly affected by different variables such as environmental features (for example, landmarks, pathway, choice points), delimiters (such as distance, cardinal and left-right directions), verbs of movement (such as turn, go, continue), and also state-of-being verbs (how people use the verbs) (Allen 1997). The issue of gender differences in wayfinding and spatial abilities is still controversial (Voyer et al. 1995). Some research has found that men are more efficient than women at finding locations (Astur et al. 1998; Lawton and Kallai 2002; Malinowski and Gillespie 2001). However, other studies have found no gender differences in wayfinding abilities, especially when landmarks were used as references (Sandstrom et al. 1998). Previous studies have also confirmed that the quality of directions given and received would be affected by the receiver's culture, wayfinding strategy, sense of direction, familiarity with the local environment, gender and age, etc. These factors might influence how efficiently directions are given in the service of wayfinding (Hund and Minarik 2006; Saucier et al. 2002).

Wayfinding strategies are also related to wayfinding efficiency. People use various strategies in their wayfinding behaviors (Lawton 1994; Passini 1984; Rovine and Weisman 1989). Lawton (1994) identified two types of wayfinding strategies, route and orientation, equally functional in most wayfinding situations. Hund and Minarik's study (2006) divided wayfinding strategies into the landmark and cardinal descriptors, also used in earlier research (Jansen-Osmann 2002; Lawton 1994, 1996; Lawton and Kallai 2002; Pazzaglia and DeBeni 2001; Saucier et al. 2002). The route strategy focuses on information about the route to be followed, such as instructions about where to turn, relational directions, landmarks, and specific instructions for getting from place to place. The orientation strategy focuses on the use of global reference points, such as compass directions and the position of the sun (Lawton 1996). When using an orientation strategy, a person thinks of his own position with respect to reference points and integrates information about places and the relations between them.

There are marked individual differences in the frequency with which each cue is given (Denis et al. 1999; Vanetti and Allen 1988). Previous research has found that there are striking cultural differences in frames of reference and associated spatial

terms used to describe geographical locations (Levinson 2003). Ito and Sano (2011) found the differences between Japanese and American subjects in the usefulness of spatial information tools, the use of the tools in wayfinding, and the timing of their wayfinding actions. That study found that Japanese subjects were more certain about their location and their way when they used only the map than when using only the directions. In contrast, American subjects were more certain about their location and their way when they used the directions than when using the map. That study also claimed that the map was a more helpful spatial information tool for Japanese subjects' wayfinding whereas the usage of directions were a more helpful spatial information tool for American subjects. American participants need to match the spatial information with the real world frequently and are too busy to enjoy viewing things along the route when they use the map alone. Ito and Sano (2011) concluded that more real world searches, tool searches and hesitation are observed when Japanese subjects used only the directions than when they had the other sets of tools, though looking at a spatial information tool while walking was an exception (quite confusing, should be paraphrased). They also gazed at nearby features less when using the directions than when using the other sets of tools. With regard to differences within western societies, most psychological research on wayfinding generally proceeds from the assumption that western societies do not differ in spatial perception (Eysenck and Keane 2005). However, differences in preference for spatial perspective and spatial descriptors have been found among western societies. Lawton and Kallai (2002) demonstrated individual differences in wayfinding strategies among participants from different countries. Until now, the subject of cultural differences in describing spatial factors has been ignored (Hund et al. 2008; Pazzaglia et al. 2010). Thus, this study will examine two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Significant differences in preferences for how directions are given (such as orientation, left/right turns, distance, landmark, etc.) exist between tourists and local people.
Hypothesis 2: tourists who have different wayfinding strategies (route/orientation strategy), gender (male/female) and cultural background (Eastern/Western) would have different preferences for how directions (such as orientation, left/right turns, distance, landmarks, etc.) are given.

3 Method

The data was collect in major tourism attractions, Taipei, Taiwan. The 287 study participants included 154 international tourists who never visited Taipei before and 133 local residents who had experiences of helping international tourists find the way to the attraction sites. They participated in the survey voluntarily and must have certain understanding of English. Of the participants, 57.5% were female and 42.5% were male. Further, 53.7% were international tourists and 46.3% were local Taiwanese people. The average age was 32 years. In terms of cultural backgrounds,

52% claimed to have been brought up in an Eastern culture and 48% had a Western background. Being able to speak the same language is essential for interaction to take place between tourists and locals. English is considered to be the most widely used foreign language in Taiwan. The average score for English proficiency is 8.49 out of ten for international tourists; 5.13 for local Taiwanese people. The criteria used to identify participants in this survey was whether local Taiwanese people had had any previous experience of helping foreigners find their way to tourist destinations in English.

The study used a four-page closed-ended survey. The questionnaire collected information about socio-economic and cultural backgrounds, nationality, English and Chinese proficiency. Then items used to measure their wayfinding strategy came from the questions designed in the study of Lawton and Kallai (2002). Four items are related to route strategy and the other three items about survey strategy. The seven items were designed by seven-point Likert scale. Scores on these items were generated by asking participants to rate on a 7-point scale of how likely they would be to engage in various behaviors while trying to find their way around unfamiliar surroundings. The scale ranged from Extremely disagree (1) to Extremely agree (7).

The survey also designed a set of questions to understand their preferred methods for receiving directions when they need the wayfinding direction information from the local people. This set of question is displayed with a hand-made map with two appointed spots: A and B. Then the study participants must read the following sentences before answering the question; that is, "Suppose you were a tourist and experienced trying to find your way from Wonder land to the Dream world. If some local people offered you wayfinding information, which one of the following statements would help you the most from your own perspective. Please read through the following wayfinding direction information. Then rank the statements from 1 to 7 to express your preference (7 refers to the most preferable/helpful; 1 refers to the least preferable/helpful.)". The sever statements were designed according to the literature reviews and then discussed with 30 professional English native speakers in the way they would use in order to help others. Those statements include one or multiple direction descriptors such as landmarks, cardinal points (north/east/south/west); left/right turns, time taken to walk the distance, actual distance, or various methods. All data were analyzed by the SPSS software.

4 Results

4.1 The Wayfinding Direction Descriptors

The main study purpose is to understand what type of wayfinding direction descriptors the international tourists would prefer to receive from the local people and furthermore to examine whether or not there is any difference on wayfinding

Table 1 The cross-tab result for direction descriptors preferred by locals and tourists

Items	Mean	Local	Tourist	t value
After leaving Wonder land, you can walk straight ahead, and then you can see Dream world	3.82	3.70	3.92	−0.625
After leaving Wonder land, walk straight. When you see the fountain, keep walking straight until you see a castle; Dream world is beside that Landmarks	4.92	5.07	4.78	1.448
After leaving Wonder land, walk 900 m south; then you can see Dream world Cardinal + Distance	3.66	3.65	3.68	−0.252
After leaving Wonder land, please head to the south. Walk about 500 m, you will pass a block and the fountain is on the right-hand side. Please keep heading to south 400 m, and you will see Dream world next to the castle Cardinal + Distance	*4.06**	4.43	3.73	**2.362***
After leaving Wonder land, please walk South, and you can see Dream world Cardinal	*3.56*^*	3.35	3.75	**−2.000**^*
After leaving Wonder land, please head south, walking about 500 m you can see the fountain is on your right-hand side. Keep heading south, beside the castle is Dream world Cardinal + Distance	4.25	4.34	4.18	0.569
After leaving Wonder land walk straight. After passing two blocks, you can see Dream world Landmarks	4.37	4.26	4.47	−0.921

*$p < 0.05$

direction descriptors existing between the local and the tourists. Table 1 lists the result of mean value on seven statements scored by the local people when they need to provide the wayfinding direction descriptors and also by the tourists when they need to receive the information from the local as well as the result of T value on the comparison between two parties.

The first and second most helpful statements both use the "landmark" descriptor only rather than multiple information for the local and tourists. It is a very simple method. Landmark helps people form a picture of an area. People could link key landmarks in a logical way, improving a person's ability to traverse locations. On the opposite, two items listed as the least help statement use the "cardinal" and "distance" as the descriptors, not the "landmark." The previous studies also found that the orientation and cardinal widely used in the maps, and it takes efforts to create mental images from different perspectives (Roskos-Ewoldsen et al. 1998; Sholl 1988; Thorndyke and Hayes-Roth 1982). Sometimes, it is difficult for children or adults to read maps with cardinal information because they need to understand the relationships among the map, the represented space, and their self(?) (Liben et al. 2002).

According to the T test, the local people and the tourists are significantly different on two statements. The first statement is the usage of "cardinal and

landmark" (t value = 2.362). The local people actually preferred to use the combination of cardinal and landmark to help tourists to find their way to the destination. However, the tourists rated this method as the second least helpful. The local people might think it more helpful with more information. On the contrary, the tourists might not be able to memorize so much information at one time. Lippman (1992) found a negative relationship between age and route wayfinding preferences. Memory always weakens with age, and being old would definitely affect one's ability to use route wayfinding.

4.2 The Comparison of Direction Descriptors Between Locals and Tourists

Then the seven statements were recorded into three types of wayfinding information descriptors. Three types are the usages of "landmark" (Statement 1, 2, and 7), "cardinal" (Statement 5), and "cardinal and distance" (Statement 3, 4, and 6). Then the most preferable among the three types of wayfinding descriptors would be decided based on the average score of the study participants marking on the items. According to the data transformation, 40% of all study participants preferred the usage of "cardinal and distance"; 36% is the usage of "landmark" and the rest 24% is for "cardinal" information only.

In this study, the hypothesis #1 was examined by using χ^2 analysis. Table 2 showed that the three most widely used types of information are cardinal points (north/east/south/west) and distance (40%), landmarks (36%), and cardinal points (north/east/south/west) only (24%). The results of this study confirm the findings of many previous studies that the most common reference frames involve cardinal point directions and precise distances/names of streets (Lawson 1996; Taylor and Tversky 1996). Landmarks are the second most favorable descriptors that tourists would like to use in wayfinding directions. Landmarks are very useful because they provide environmental features as points of reference and keep people connected to the point of origin and the destination along the route (Allen 2000). They also provide a visual model of the environment (Tom and Denis 2004). According to the results of the cross-tab analysis ($\chi^2 = 12.978$, $p = 0.002$), the local Taiwanese people preferred the direction descriptors together with cardinal points and distances when they require the help from others. The international tourists in Taiwan actually prefer the information to include landmarks when they need the assistance of local people (Table 2). From the perspective of the international tourist,

Table 2 The cross-tab result for direction descriptors preferred by locals and tourists (%)

Direction descriptors	Local people	Tourists	Total
Cardinal + Distance	**51**	31	40
Cardinal only	17	30	24
Landmarks	32	**39**	36
Total	100	100	100

consideration should be given to the fact that directions including information about landmarks would be easier to follow than cardinal points. For example, in Taiwan, most street names have yet given information about cardinal points. It would be very challenging for people to identify cardinal points if they were not familiar with the local road planning system. However, some studies mentioned the possible risk of using landmark information to give directions to destinations. It was claimed that people who performed frequent use of landmarks for wayfinding had a better memory, especially for remembering details given for the end of the routes (what does it mean by the end of the routes?).

4.3 The Difference on Direction Descriptor Preference by Different Variables

Participants rated the seven items to express how they used each of the wayfinding strategies while traveling abroad. The participants' responses to the seven items were combined and subjected to a principle component analysis with two factor solutions specified. The KMO value was 0.895, the Bartlett's Chi-Square value was 2021.729, and the p value was less than 0.05. Two domains were identified for the factor analysis, the route and survey wayfinding strategies. All factors had eigenvalues greater than one, the reliability bigger than 0.7, and explained 55.32% of the total variance. Moreover, the correlation between the two factors was 0.10, showing that they were relatively independent. Then the preference of wayfinding strategy is decided according to their mean score on route and survey strategies. Of all study participants, 77% is considered to have a preference of using route wayfinding strategy and 20% is identified as the user of survey strategy. Another 3% has no preference and then is excluded from the study of the hypothesis #2.

The result of the hypothesis 2 is shown in Table 3. The tourists with different wayfinding-strategy preferences, gender and cultural backgrounds showed a significant preference for wayfinding direction descriptors provided by the local people. The tourists who used a route strategy for wayfinding showed a strong preference for receiving information about landmarks from the local people, but the tourists who used a survey strategy more often liked information that included cardinal points and distances. A route wayfinding-strategy perspective normally

Table 3 The cross table result of direction descriptors by different variables (%)

Direction descriptors	Wayfinding strategy		Gender		Culture	
	Route	Survey	Male	Female	Eastern	Western
Cardinal + Distance	29	**42**	**40**	25	**48**	29
Cardinal only	23	30	21	27	20	33
Landmark	**48**	28	**39**	**48**	32	**38**
χ^2	6.781		6.916		13.500	

involves using a first-person spatial perspective as the frame of reference and includes left and right turns and also landmark descriptions to navigate the environment (Hund et al. 2012). On the other hand, a survey perspective involves adapting a third-person spatial perspective to identify the entire environment. The person using this strategy prefers to know the whole layout of wayfinding environment and likes to know the cardinal points along with precise distances. My study results were consistent with previous studies.

With reference to gender differences in preferences of wayfinding information, the results indicate that males prefer to be given both cardinal points and exact distances; females show a strong preference for landmark information. Previous studies have found gender differences in wayfinding strategies (e.g., Honda and Nihei 2004; Lawton and Kallai 2002; Saucier et al. 2002). More men than women prefer survey strategies that provide more cardinal descriptions; more women than men prefer route strategies that provide more landmark information (Honda and Nihei 2004; Hund and Minarik 2006; Hund et al. 2008; Lawton and Kallai 2002).

Tourists from an Eastern background prefer cardinal points and distance information; tourists from a Western background like to be given information that includes landmarks. This study found major difference between Eastern and Western tourists in the use of spatial terms. Again, some studies explained this difference by addressing a person's wayfinding perspective (like route or survey), but other studies focused on people's experiences in their daily environment, such as the street layout. For example, people from the USA Midwest/West provided cardinal directions more frequently. This is because, due to the grid system, the property boundaries and road systems are very regular. This could explain the results in this study. Most of the major cities in Asia such as Tokyo, Seoul, Beijing and Taipei use a grid system for their street design. In many parts of Europe and in certain areas of the USA, the property boundaries and roads have less regular patterns (Hund et al. 2012). This explains why tourists with a Western cultural background would be more comfortable with landmark direction descriptors.

5   Conclusion

This study has important implications for the international tourism industry, especially for first-time visitors in unfamiliar cities or countries. The first study purpose is to investigate what kind of information descriptor international tourists need when they ask local people for directions to unfamiliar destinations. According to the study result, three most important ways the tourists might need for the wayfinding to the destination are "cardinal and distance," "cardinal" and "landmark". The international tourists almost have similar preferences towards three ways, but the local people prefer to use "cardinal and distance" and "landmark," rather than "cardinal." Some previous studies found that cardinal and distance are very helpful but others consider cardinal information could make people feel more confused (Allen 2000; Hund and Minarik 2006; Saucier et al. 2002).

Allen (2000) found that it is easier to get lost with the cardinal information compared to the information such as landmark and landmark that could be very useful in the middle and in the end of wayfinding process. Saucier et al. (2002) concluded that cardinal information can help people find their way to their destination in more effective and efficient ways. Each type of wayfinding descriptors has its strength and also weakness and could be useful and beneficial in different conditions. The main key point is whether the user would be able to take advantage of the wayfinding information provided by others.

According to this study result, study participants with different wayfinding strategy preferences, gender and cultural backgrounds would have different preferences towards wayfinding information descriptors. For example, if the individual preferred to use the route strategy to find their way, he or she would prefer to be provided with "landmark" as the wayfinding descriptors from others rather than cardinal information. For people who like to use survey strategy, they would like to have information such as east, west, south and north if they need the help from others. From this study result, inbound tourists to Taiwan would prefer to be told with the descriptors such as landmark. The majority of inbound tourists in this study do not have enough ability to read Chinese or communicate in Chinese. It would be easier for inbound tourists to recognize or memorize the landmarks. Just like other previous studies, this study would also conclude that the effectiveness of wayfinding information descriptors should be examined from the information receiver. Different cultural backgrounds of information receivers would also affect how the information is used and understood (Golledge 1999; Pazzaglia and DeBeni 2001; Shelton and McNamara 2004).

The conclusion of this study is listed with three points. Firstly, due to unfamiliar environments and foreign languages, tourists might have a greater need for assistance from the local people. The information about what descriptors are most effective for wayfinding can be used to develop more effective GPS navigation systems, paper-based travel maps, internet-based map/rout-planning services and also the local signage system. Secondly, some tourists prefer local people to use landmarks as direction descriptors. However, the local people should pay attention to the number of landmarks used when they give directions because tourists may not be able to remember too many landmark descriptors, especially those given for the end of the wayfinding routes (vague). It would be better for the locals to write down the landmark information for the international tourists in order to decrease the need to memorize too many landmarks. Thirdly, the local people should be educated to be more flexible when providing help for others. For example, Hund et al. (2012) found that US participants provided more cardinal descriptors when addressing listeners adopting a survey perspective rather than a route perspective. However, they gave more landmark and left-right descriptors when addressing listeners who adopted a route perspective rather than a survey perspective. Hund et al.'s study revealed remarkable flexibility in people's spatial descriptors.

In summary, the present findings reveal that tourists with different cultural backgrounds, wayfinding perspectives and gender have different preferences for descriptive features of the wayfinding route. Again, giving and receiving directions are dynamic processes that are dependent on complex interactions between the local people and tourists.

References

Allen, G. L. (1997, October). From knowledge to words to wayfinding: Issues in the production and comprehension of route directions. In *International Conference on Spatial Information Theory* (pp. 363–372). Berlin: Springer.

Allen, G. L. (1999). Spatial abilities, cognitive maps, and wayfinding. *Wayfinding Behavior: Cognitive Mapping and Other Spatial Processes*, 46–80.

Allen, G. L. (2000). Principles and practices for communicating route knowledge. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 14*(4), 333–359.

Astur, R. S., Ortiz, M. L., & Sutherland, R. J. (1998). A characterization of performance by men and women in a virtual Morris water task: A large and reliable sex difference. *Behavioural Brain Research, 93*(1), 185–190.

Denis, M., Pazzaglia, F., Cornoldi, C., & Bertolo, L. (1999). Spatial discourse and navigation: An analysis of route directions in the city of Venice. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 13*(2), 145–174.

Devlin, J. (2003). Brand architecture in services: The example of retail financial services. *Journal of Marketing Management, 19*(9–10), 1043–1065.

Eysenck, W. M., & Keane, T. M. (2005). Cognitive Psychology. Hove (UK): Psychology Press.

Golding, J. M., Graesser, A. C., & Hauselt, J. (1996). The process of answering direction-giving questions when someone is lost on a university campus: The role of pragmatics. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 10*(1), 23–39.

Golledge, R. G. (1999). Human wayfinding and cognitive maps. *Wayfinding Behavior: Cognitive Mapping and Other Spatial Processes*, 5–45.

Golledge, R. G., & Stimson, R. J. (1997) *Spatial behaviour: A geographic perspective*. New York.

Hirtle, S. C., & Hudson, J. (1991). Acquisition of spatial knowledge for routes. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 11*(4), 335–345.

Honda, A., & Nihei, Y. (2004). Sex differences in wayfinding behavior using well-or poorly-written route descriptions. *Tohoku Psychologica Folia, 63*, 15–24.

Hund, A. M., Haney, K. H., & Seanor, B. D. (2008). The role of recipient perspective in giving and following wayfinding directions. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 22*(7), 896–916.

Hund, A. M., & Minarik, J. L. (2006). Getting from here to there: Spatial anxiety, wayfinding strategies, direction type, and wayfinding efficiency. *Spatial Cognition and Computation, 6*(3), 179–201.

Hund, A. M., Schmettow, M., & Noordzij, M. L. (2012). The impact of culture and recipient perspective on direction giving in the service of wayfinding. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 32*(4), 327–336.

Ito, S., & Sano, M. (2011). Effects of error on fluctuations under feedback control. *Physical Review E, 84*(2), 021123.

Jansen-Osmann, P. (2002). Using desktop virtual environments to investigate the role of landmarks. *Computers in Human Behavior, 18*(4), 427–436.

Kitchin, R., & Blades, M. (2002). *The cognition of geographic space* (Vol. 4). Ib Tauris.

Klein, W. (1982). Local Deixis in Route Directions1.

Kozlowski, L. T., & Bryant, K. J. (1977). Sense of direction, spatial orientation, and cognitive maps. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 3*(4), 590.

Lawson, L. D. (1996). The composition and chemistry of garlic cloves and processed garlic. *Garlic: The science and therapeutic application of Allium sativum L., Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore* (pp. 37–108).

Lawton, J. H. (1994). What do species do in ecosystems? *Oikos, 71*, 367–374.

Lawton, C. A. (1996). Strategies for indoor wayfinding: The role of orientation. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 16*(2), 137–145.

Lawton, C. A., & Kallai, J. (2002). Gender differences in wayfinding strategies and anxiety about wayfinding: A cross-cultural comparison. *Sex Roles, 47*(9–10), 389–401.

Levinson, S. C. (2003). *Space in language and cognition: Explorations in cognitive diversity* (Vol. 5). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Levinson, S. C., Kita, S., Haun, D. B., & Rasch, B. H. (2002). Returning the tables: Language affects spatial reasoning. *Cognition, 84*(2), 155–188.

Liben, L. S., Kastens, K. A., & Stevenson, L. M. (2002). Real-world knowledge through real-world maps: A developmental guide for navigating the educational terrain. *Developmental Review, 22*(2), 267–322.

Lippman, A. (1992). Led (astray) by genetic maps: The cartography of the human genome and health care. *Social Science and Medicine, 35*(12), 1469–1476.

Malinowski, J. C., & Gillespie, W. T. (2001). Individual differences in performance on a large-scale, real-world wayfinding task. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 21*(1), 73–82.

Mark, D. M., & Gould, M. D. (1995). Wayfinding directions as discourse: Verbal directions in English and Spanish. *Deixis in Narrative: A Cognitive Science Perspective*, 387–405.

Montello, D. R., & Pick, H. L. (1993). Integrating knowledge of vertically aligned large-scale spaces. *Environment and Behavior, 25*(3), 457–484.

Passini, R. (1984). Spatial representations, a wayfinding perspective. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 4*(2), 153–164.

Pazzaglia, F., & DeBeni, R. (2001). Strategies of processing spatial information in survey and landmark-centered individuals. *Europeaan Journal of Psychology, 13,* 493–508.

Pazzaglia, F., Meneghetti, C., De Beni, R., & Gyselinck, V. (2010). Working memory components in survey and route spatial text processing. *Cognitive Processing, 11*(4), 359–369.

Roskos-Ewoldsen, B., McNamara, T. P., Shelton, A. L., & Carr, W. (1998). Mental representations of large and small spatial layouts are orientation dependent. *Journal of Experimental Psychology. Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 24*(1), 215.

Rovine, M. J., & Weisman, G. D. (1989). Sketch-map variables as predictors of way-finding performance. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 9*(3), 217–232.

Sandstrom, N. J., Kaufman, J., & Huettel, S. A. (1998). Males and females use different distal cues in a virtual environment navigation task. *Cognitive Brain Research, 6*(4), 351–360.

Saucier, D. M., Green, S. M., Leason, J., MacFadden, A., Bell, S., & Elias, L. J. (2002). Are sex differences in navigation caused by sexually dimorphic strategies or by differences in the ability to use the strategies? *Behavioral Neuroscience, 116*(3), 403.

Shelton, A. L., & McNamara, T. P. (2004). Orientation and perspective dependence in route and survey learning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 30*(1), 158.

Sholl, M. J. (1988). The relation between sense of direction and mental geographic updating. *Intelligence, 12*(3), 299–314.

Taylor, H. A., & Tversky, B. (1996). Perspective in spatial descriptions. *Journal of Memory and Language, 35*(3), 371–391.

Thorndyke, P. W., & Hayes-Roth, B. (1982). Differences in spatial knowledge acquired from maps and navigation. *Cognitive Psychology, 14*(4), 560–589.

Tom, A., & Denis, M. (2004). Language and spatial cognition: Comparing the roles of landmarks and street names in route instructions. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 18*, 1213–1230.

Vanetti, E. J., & Allen, G. L. (1988). Communicating environmental knowledge, the impact of verbal and spatial abilities on the production and comprehension of route directions. *Environment and Behavior, 20*(6), 667–682.

Voyer, D., Voyer, S., & Bryden, M. P. (1995). Magnitude of sex differences in spatial abilities: a meta-analysis and consideration of critical variables. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*(2), 250.

Wright, P., Lickorish, A., Hull, A., & Ummelen, N. (1995). Graphics in written directions: Appreciated by readers but not writers. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 9*(1), 41–59.

Xia, J. C., Arrowsmith, C., Jackson, M., & Cartwright, W. (2008). The wayfinding process relationships between decision-making and landmark utility. *Tourism Management, 29*(3), 445–457.

Well-Being of Locals, Tourist Experiences and Destination Competitiveness

Peter Björk and Erose Sthapit

Abstract For destinations, local residents are important part-time marketers. As an inherent part of a destination they add to tourist experiences. Previous research has documented how important a welcoming attitude is for tourists and how tourist experiences command the competitiveness of destinations. To this formula, the current study adds the well-being component of the locals by the argument that happy people with high level of social well-being tend to be more open minded and social and by that more welcoming. This study examines destination competitiveness through the lens of tourist experiences and well-being and attitudes of local residents. To accomplish this, three objectives are set: (1) to present a local society oriented model of destination competitiveness; (2) to develop instruments for measuring the selected key success factors in determining destination competitiveness: (3) and to empirically test and display findings arising from a study of both locals, living in, and tourists visiting the city of Vaasa in Ostrobothnia, Finland. The findings indicate that well-being of locals had a significant impact on the social attitude dimensions of local's attitude towards tourists, and the tourists considered their encounter with locals as positive and nice. Thus, a significant link between the social attitude dimension and well-being of the locals were also found. Also, there is a strong link between tourist experiences and the destination competitiveness dimension, particularly the educational dimensions, while the other dimensions, esthetic, entertainment, and escapist, were not significant. Future research topics are discussed at the end of the chapter.

P. Björk (✉)
HANKEN School of Economics, Vaasa, Finland
e-mail: peter.bjork@hanken.fi

E. Sthapit
University of Vaasa, Vaasa, Finland
e-mail: esthapit@uva.fi

1 Introduction

The importance of host-guest interactions for customer satisfaction and loyalty is well documented in service marketing (Seth et al. 2005) and tourism literature (Eraqi 2006) leaving activities and events, which take places in between service encounters on a destination, out of a marketing perspective, most unexplored in terms of both existence (which are they) and importance (how they affect tourists' experiences). For analyzing these blank spots, the mundane life of locals and their living environment, tourism research has examined regional culture as, an endowed tourism resource (MacDobald and Jolliffe 2003), a branding dimension (O'Dell and Billing 2010), and as an aspect to be discussed in relation to destination management (Dwyer et al. 2004) and sustainable tourism development (Istoc 2012). There are some studies portraying a more complex picture of the amalgamation of place generating tourist experiences. Long (2004), for example, who analyzed the "Foodscape" of Asheville, NC, describes how visitors meet the Appalachian cuisine and food habits in restaurants and festivals, special events, but also in local grocery stores, alongside and in contact with the locals. In this context, the question how to market tourism to local residents is still unanswered.

There is an abundance of research explaining the positive effects of friendly treatments in service encounters on customer satisfaction, and the link there is between service oriented organizations, well-being of the staff, and internal marketing (Kuskuvan et al. 2010). However, less studied is the influence of well-being of locals (residents) reflected in a welcoming attitude, on tourist experiences although they, in terms of marketing, can be categorized as part-time marketers (Grönroos 1990). Hospitality, "the general feeling of welcome that tourists receive while visiting the area", is most often what is remembered after returning home (Mill et al. 1990, p. 28).

Tourist experiences, satisfaction, and travel behavior are interlinked. On an aggregated, destination level positive tourist experiences are a source of competitive advantage. To this end, bringing the well-being and attitudes of locals, tourist experiences, and destination competitiveness together a positive relationship is assumed. Falling back on the notion that this structural model has not been tested in previous research the aim of this study is to explain destination competitiveness through the lens of tourist experiences and well-being and attitudes of local residents. To accomplish this, three objectives are set: (1) to present a local society oriented model of destination competitiveness; (2) to develop instruments for measuring the selected key success factors in determining destination competitiveness: (3) and to empirically test and display findings arising from a study of international visitors and local residents in the city of Vaasa, Finland.
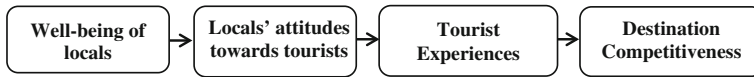
Fig. 1 Local society based destination competitiveness model

2 Literature Review

Departing from service and tourism marketing literature this study devolves into the destination competitiveness literature emphasizing the role of locals for tourist experiences (Fig. 1).

The theoretical framework in use defines four key concepts, well-being and attitudes of local residents, tourist experiences, and destination competitiveness.

2.1 *Well-Being of Locals*

Well-being, defined as 'an individual's sense that his\her life overall is going well' (Moscardo 2009, p. 162), is a state of mind. Well-being is a personal, holistic state of mind including aspects of self-development regarding life fulfillment (Gilbert and Abdullah 2004). It is an inner process, not 'out there', a personal experience to be lived throughout our daily life; work, leisure time, social relationships, achievements, growth, freedom, etc. (Björk 2014). Doxey's (1975) irritation index explains the close link there is between the locals and the tourists, and how residents' well-being determines their attitude towards tourists (Ritchie and Crouch 2003; Brunt and Courtney 1999; Diedrich and García-Buades 2008). Well-being of locals can be viewed in terms of subjective well-being (SWB). SWB deals with residents' overall sense of well-being that can be captured through a variety of concepts such as life satisfaction, positive\negative affect, and overall happiness (Sirgy 2010). Well-being is often described in terms of happiness and is used in different meanings. In classical philosophy, it is typically used as an umbrella term for various aspects of the good life. Social scientists used the word happiness as a synonym for subjective enjoyment of life. Psychologists formally refer to this construct as SWB while economists term it experienced utility (Kahneman et al. 1997).

Happiness has been recognized as an important goal of society, and there has been a growing interest in understanding what makes people happy (Lyubomirsky and Lepper 1999). Happiness is sometimes more broadly defined as SWB since improvements in objective circumstances have proven to yield limited increases in happiness (Layard 2006). Happiness is most commonly measured by a variant of Bradburn's (1969) Affect Balance Scale, which measures the extent of positive emotions and the absence of negative emotions to determine levels of happiness. Happiness, therefore, can be considered to contribute to emotional (affective) SWB,

whereas cognitive SWB is largely measured through inventories of satisfaction with life and positive functioning (McCabe and Johnson 2013).

2.2 Locals' Attitudes Towards Tourism

Local residents are the local population and the key stakeholders of tourism developments (Dwyer and Kim 2003). Tourism brings changes that affect local resident's traditional way of life, family relations, and the nature of the local structures functioning. Tourism can develop and grow when local residents have a positive attitude toward it (Puczko and Ratz 2000). Local community support for tourism is, therefore, necessary to ensure the commercial, socio-cultural, physiological, political and economic sustainability of the industry (Dwyer and Kim 2003). Also, local communities play a vital role in demonstrating the level of friendliness to visitors (McCool et al. 2001), which determines the success of tourism in any community (Gursoy and Rutherford 2004) and subsequently offers better tourist's satisfaction (Chandralal 2010). Tourist's experiences are constantly mediated through the interaction with the locals (Selstad 2007; Auld and Case 1997) and are considered as one of the most memorable aspect of tourism experience (Morgan and Xu 2009). In the similar vein, friendly interaction between host-guest in a destination is an important variable in facilitating higher quality tourism experiences and visitor satisfaction (Kusluvan 2003). Conceptually, resident attitudes toward tourism development are often explained from a social exchange theory perspective (Sirakaya et al. 2002). Nawijn and Mitas (2012) argue that recent studies link Quality of Life indictors to perceptions of tourism among residents, rather than how the respondents felt or how satisfied they were with their lives, subjective well-being (SWB). Here this chapter contributes by making an empirical examination of the link between the effects of well-being of locals and their attitude towards tourism.

2.3 Tourist Experiences

Tourist experiences are individual, subjective, and relative; they depart in some way from everyday experiences (Uriely 2005), and are made up of series of events or activities (Smith, 1994; Xu, 2010). A tourist experience is "the subjective mental state felt by participants during a service encounter" (Otto and Ritchie 1996, p. 166). The popularity of Pine and Gilmore's (1998, 1999, 2011) experience economy model has stood out among the various applications of the experiential view of consumer behavior. The model describes four stages of economic progression from commodities to goods to services and finally to experiences with the last stage requiring businesses to create memorable experiences for customers. The model conceptualizes the multi-dimensional nature of consumer experiences and

delineates the four realms of consumer experience: entertainment, educational, escapist, and aesthetic experiences, which they have coined, the '4Es' (Quadri-Felitti and Fiore 2012). Entertainment is passively absorbed through one's senses, generally when viewing, reading or listening for pleasure. Educational experiences involve active participation from the customer by mind or body to increase the knowledge and skills of the customer, for example, ski lessons. Escapist experiences are the opposite of purely entertaining experiences; the participant in an escapist experience is active and completely immersed in it, for example, when visiting a theme park. The last realm is aesthetic experiences that immerse the customers into an environment, for example, visiting a museum (Pine and Gilmore 1999).

2.4 Destination Competitiveness

Destination competitiveness refers to the ability of the destination to attract and satisfy tourists (Enright and Newton 2004) and to deliver goods and services that perform better than those offered at other destinations (Dwyer and Kim 2003). Both comparative advantage (natural and artificial resources) and competitive advantage (tourism infrastructure) are used to explain the overall competitiveness model (Crouch and Ritchie 1999). Destination competitiveness is also associated with the long-term economic prosperity of the residents of an area (Ritchie and Crouch 2003), the ultimate goal of competitiveness being to maintain and increase the real income of the inhabitants (Dwyer and Kim 2003). Tourism thrives on the pleasant attitudes of hosts towards tourism, which contributes to satisfying memorable tourism experiences (Morgan and Xu 2009), and it is necessary to attempt to sustain that congenial social ambiance. Without, it, the goals of developing tourism will be either not realized or will be accomplished at tremendous social costs. Indeed, friendly hosts may command even higher popularity through the dissemination of positive image through word of mouth (Sirgy and Samli 1995). Thus, clear friendliness and a spirit of hospitality enhance a destination's competitiveness (Ritchie and Crouch 2003).

3 Method

Guided by the theoretical framework two instruments for data collection was constructed for piloting. This study aims for a two-pronged data-sampling procedure, one directed at the locals in designated destination and one to measure tourist experiences and perceived destination competitiveness in the same area. Taking inspiration from previous studies on human well-being, attitudes, tourist experiences and perception of destination competitiveness four sets of questions were developed. A cross-sectional survey design using a questionnaire was employed.

The final local resident questionnaire was organized into two sections. The first section gathered the socio-demographic information of the respondents (eight demographic variables: age, gender, mother tongue, number of years lived in Vaasa, education level, current family situation, field of occupation and net monthly income). The second section consisted of 11 measurement items exploring subjective well-being (happiness and life satisfaction) and 12 items measuring local residents' attitude towards tourism. This study merges two types of scales measuring subjective well-being (Bradburn's Scale of Psychology Well-being 1969; Lyubomirsky Subjective Happiness Scale for happiness 1999; Diener et al. Satisfaction with Life Scale 1985) and adapts the scale items to be useful in a Finnish context. Questions about local residents' attitude were included to assess whether there is a link between tourism and local residents SWB. Twelve items representing four dimensions of attitudes towards tourism (social, economic, cultural, and natural) were adapted from Brunt and Courtney (1999) and Diedrich and García-Buades (2008).

The final tourist questionnaire contained three socio-demographic variables (age, gender, and nationality), seven travel-trip characteristics (purpose of visit, main tourist destination in Finland, length of stay, travelling companion, number of previous visits to Vaasa, type of accommodation, primary transportation, and number of people in the travel party), 12 items measuring tourist experiences, and 3 items measuring destination competitiveness. The 4Es (tourist experiences) were measured by 12 items adapted from Oh et al. (2007) study, which was previously adapted successfully by Hosany and Witham (2010) and Quadri-Felitti and Fiore (2013). Likewise, the 3-item scale measuring destination competitiveness was drawn from Meng's (2006) study. All items measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The questionnaire was in English, Finnish and Swedish. Special attention was paid to the process of translating the proposed items from the original English into Finnish and Swedish, to adapt them to the Finnish context and to seek meaningful equivalences as regards meaning, nuances, and connotations. The final questionnaire was concluded after a pilot test with ten local residents and ten tourists visiting Vaasa. Changes in item wording were made to enhance face validity. The validity of the content was guaranteed, thanks to the three-phase pre-test process: working out the questionnaire from the theory and the previous literature, double revision and correction, and the pilot test.

Two doctoral students were involved in distributing the self-administered questionnaires at random to locals and visitors in various tourist sites in Vaasa. They had received information and precise instructions about the aim of the study and how to select the interviewees and gather the data. Convenience sampling technique was justified as the study's population required individuals to have lived and visited the destination. The respondents were briefly introduced and were kindly asked for their (anonymous) participation. Respondents filled out a self-report questionnaire, the contents of which are discussed above. The sampling frame included locals and tourists visiting Vaasa. The city of Vaasa is located on the west coast of Finland. Vaasa has over 65,000 inhabitants, and it is today the

educational, cultural, and tourist center of Western Finland (City of Vaasa 2016). The data was collected in summer 2015 for analysis.

4 Results

Findings from two studies are summed up and discussed simultaneously in this section. The profile of the local residents and visitors to Vaasa is first presented. Then local residents' well-being and attitude towards tourism and the tourists' experience of Vaasa is discussed. Finally, the path model discussed in the theoretical section is tested.

A total of 50 local and 50 tourist responses were collected and used in the data analysis (Table 1). The profile of the local sample included somewhat more females

Table 1 Mean scores for statements (local sample)

Statement	M	SD
Subjective well-being (Bradburn 1969; Diener et al. 1985; Lyubomirsky and Lepper 1999)		
In general, I consider myself very happy	5.58	1.12
Compared to my friends, I consider myself happier	4.58	1.05
During the last weeks I have		
Felt please as I accomplished something	5.20	1.14
I am on top of the world (been over the moon)	3.90	1.38
Felt that things are going my way	4.68	1.23
Felt bored	2.62	1.72
Felt depressed	2.32	1.72
I am satisfied with my life	5.66	1.59
If I could live my life over, I would change nothing	3.52	0.74
The city where I live is a perfect place for me	5.22	1.72
My physical health is near-perfect	5.00	1.29
Attitudes towards tourism (Brunt and Courtney 1999; Diedrich and García-Buades 2008)		
Tourism brings opportunities for local people	6.08	1.17
Tourism positively influences community life	6.02	0.97
Tourism in my community disrupts my quality of life	2.02	1.64
Tourism brings more jobs to the region	6.00	0.96
Tourism is a strong contributor to my community	5.22	1.25
Tourism benefits other industries in my community	5.24	1.45
Tourism contributes to the preservation of old buildings	5.20	0.94
Tourism has made me aware of my own culture	4.96	1.27
My community's cultural resources are being overused by tourists	2.30	1.23
Tourism poses a threat to my community's natural resources	2.18	1.17
Tourism promotes conservation of wildlife and natural resources	4.60	1.26
Tourism in my community is developed in harmony with nature	4.36	0.94

than males (56 vs. 44%). The largest age group was above 42 years old (46%), and the biggest groups of respondents were Swedish-speaking Finns (56%), followed by Finnish-speaking Finns (36%) and other (8%). In response to the question, number of years that the respondent has lived in Vaasa, majority belonged to more than ten years category (48%), between 5 and 10 years (32%) and less than five years (20%). The majority of the respondents stated that they had attained a university degree (72%). Regarding current family situation, 62% were married, single (24%), co-habiting (14%) and widowed (0%). For occupation, 66% were employed in the public sector, 14% in the private sector, and 20% were students. None of the respondents reported being unemployed or retired. Also, only 2% work in the tourism sector. As for income level, majority belonged to the category 1500–2499€ (66%).

In comparison to statistics from the main population, people living in the city of Vaasa and neighboring counties, the sample of local residents is representative.

A majority of the respondents in the tourist sample were male (58 vs. 42%). 74% belonged to the age group 42 and above, 14% (26–33), and 12% (34–41). They come from 7 different countries. The biggest groups of respondents were Finnish (32%), followed by German (24%), Dutch (22%), Swedish (8%), Norwegian (6%), Danish (6%), and Australian (2%). The majority traveled to Vaasa for pleasure purpose (98%) while visiting friends and relatives was not an important reason to travel to Vaasa (2%). Only 42% mentioned Vaasa as their main tourist destination in Finland. 58% spent 1–2 days in Vaasa, 3–4 days (30%), and more than 5 days (12%). Regarding travel companion, 74% traveled to Vaasa with their husband or wife, 16% were family with children, 8% with friends, and 2% alone. Half of the respondents had traveled to Vaasa for the first time, 22% had visited Vaasa 1–2 times previously, 20% more than times, and 8% 3–4 times. 96% had stayed in tent, caravan, camper or cottage during their visit, and 4% mentioned hotel. 96% traveled to Vaasa by car, 2% by boat, and 2% by other modes of transportation.

The residents of Vaasa that we sampled were fairly happy and satisfied with their life (Table 1). Average positive affect is higher than negative affect; most respondents were satisfied with their lives in general. Regarding attitudes towards tourism, many considered tourism as a source of job opportunity, had a positive impact on community life, and contributed to more jobs in the region. The received perceived impacts of tourism and their mean score indicate that residents generally perceive tourism to have positive impacts.

The sampled tourists to Vaasa considered their encounter with locals as positive and nice (Table 2). Also, tourists stated that they would recommend Vaasa to their friends and were willing to make a repeat visit in near future.

Given the limited sample size (50), multiple linear regression (MLR) was conducted using SPSS. MLR was chosen to explore the relation between well-being of locals and local's attitude towards tourists (H1), interaction with locals towards tourists and destination competitiveness (H2) and tourist experience and destination competitiveness (H3). Variables with higher regression coefficients were considered more important. Estimation of the multiple regression models was determined through the overall explanatory power of all the independent variables.

Table 2 Mean scores for statements (tourist sample)

Statement	M	SD
Tourist experiences (Oh et al. 2007)		
The locals I met in Vaasa are welcoming	5.06	1.10
To interact with locals is nice	5.04	1.13
Vaasa as a tourist destination is ordinary	3.80	1.14
Vaasa as a tourist destination is very exciting	4.29	1.25
I really enjoyed watching activities and what others are doing	3.82	1.51
Watching others perform in Vaasa is captivating	3.71	1.25
Being in Vaasa I feel completely escaped from reality	3.51	1.80
I felt that I am different person in Vaasa	3.04	1.49
When I think of Vaasa, I get a positive feeling	4.84	1.17
I have learned a lot during my stay here in Vaasa	3.86	1.12
Destination competitiveness (Meng 2006)		
In comparison to destinations I have visited, Vaasa is attractive	4.51	1.02
I will have may good experiences from my visit here in Vaasa	4.71	1.22
I would recommend Vaasa to my friends	5.27	1.32
I would like to come back to Vaasa in near future	5.27	1.12
Hospitality experienced in Vaasa is a competitive advantage	4.59	1.15

Table 3 Effect of well-being of locals on local's attitude towards tourists (n = 50)

	Model 1 Beta (t-values)
H1: Well-being-attitude	$0.26^{N.S.}$ (1.80)
H1a: Well-being-social (attitude dimension)	0.32^{*} (1.89)
H1b: Well-being-economic (attitude dimension)	$0.04^{N.S.}$ (0.29)
H1c: Well-being-cultural (attitude dimension)	$0.18^{N.S.}$ (1.28)
H1d: Well-being-natural (attitude dimension)	$0.08^{N.S.}$ (0.60)

$^{*}p < 0.05$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{***}p < 0.001$; *N.S.* Non significant

In the first model (Table 3) well-being of locals had a significant impact on only the social attitude dimension of local's attitude towards tourists ($\beta = 0.32$; $p < 0.05$), which at the same time indicates that well-being of locals had no significant impact on other dimensions of local's attitude towards tourists (economic, cultural, and natural) ($p > 0.05$).

In Model 2 (Table 4) welcoming attitude and interaction between locals and tourists (statements 1 and 2 from Table 2) had a significant impact on destination competitiveness ($\beta = 0.49$; $p < 0.001$).

In the last model (Table 5), only the educational dimension of the tourist experience had a significant impact on destination competitiveness ($\beta = 0.43$; $p < 0.01$). Out of a destination management perspective, this clearly indicates how important it is to facilitate and involve tourists in learning processes on destinations,

Table 4 Effect of interaction with locals and destination competitiveness (n = 50)

	Model 2 Beta (t-values)
H2: Interaction with locals-destination competitiveness	0.49*** (4.02)

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$; *N.S.* Non significant

Table 5 Effect of tourist experience on destination competitiveness (n = 50)

	Model 3 Beta (t-values)
H3: Tourist experience-destination competitiveness	0.40** (2.94)
H3a: Esthetic (TE)-destination competitiveness	0.05^N.S. (0.37)
H3b: Entertainment (TE)-destination competitiveness	0.16^N.S. (0.15)
H3c: Escapist (TE)-destination competitiveness	0.08^N.S. (0.60)
H3d: Educational (TE)-destination competitiveness	0.43** (2.23)

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$; *N.S.* Non significant

and to foster an atmosphere of hospitality. For this to take place a welcoming attitude of the locals is deemed critical.

5 Conclusion

Previous studies on subjective well-being and tourism addressed the perspective of tourist only. Our study adds to the existing literature on subjective well-being and tourism by examining the effects of well-being of locals on their attitude towards tourism, as a dimension to strengthen destination competitiveness. The results indicate that Vaasa residents in our sample are relatively happy and satisfied with their life, and tourism impacts are viewed positively. The well-being of locals had a significant impact on the social attitude dimensions of local's attitude towards tourists, and the tourists considered their encounter with locals as positive and nice. Also, tourists stated that they would recommend Vaasa to their friends and were willing to make a repeat visit in near future. On the contrary, if residents in a community perceive the effects of tourism as negative, these residents may communicate a negative attitude towards tourists. Therefore, all destinations need a welcoming attitude, and should recognize local residents as a key resource, which is not in focus in all tourism marketing strategies.

This chapter promotes local residents as part-time marketers. In term of tourist experience, the 4Es were not of equal importance to tourists, and only the educational dimension weighs heavily in their evaluation of tourism experience and impacts destination competitiveness. Today, there is a shift from active holidays to holidays as an experience that provides "new knowledge" and individuals wish to participate in many different activities, especially those in which they explore their talents and capabilities (Otto and Ritchie 1996). Travel experiences offer a myriad

of unique learning opportunities for the tourist that comes in the form of practical skills and knowledge (Chen et al. 2014) acquired through interacting with locals to taking an interpretive tour of a historic site (McKercher and du Cros 2002).

Mathieson and Wall (1982) assert that the nature of planning tourism destinations is complex. Destination managers are often confronted with paradoxical effects when assessing alternative policies. Questions arise concerning how to maximize benefits and at the same time minimize the cost for residents in the tourism destination. The findings of this study are of importance to destination managers in the tourism community. The results show that well-being of locals had a significant impact on the social attitude, that is, positive-negative feelings, towards tourists. Also, visitors mention welcoming attitude of locals and positive feeling while interacting with them, although locals' attitude had no significant impact on the tourists' experiences. Moreover, the study also reveals that as residents' perception of the economic impact of tourism increases, it is more likely to influence their overall subjective well-being and attitude towards tourists. Therefore, an optimal satisfaction of tourists needs should be balanced with the health of the local economy, the local environment, and finally the subjective well-being of local communities. Lastly, given that 'satisfying memorable experiences' and 'destination resident well-being' are claimed as a condition for destination competitiveness (Ritchie and Crouch 2003), tourism developers and marketers should know how resident perceive tourism and how it affects their subjective well-being, to influence attitudes of residents towards tourists, on the other hand, focus on the educational dimension, to enhance the destination's competitiveness, within the context of this study.

Recent studies indicate that those involved in the tourism industry are likely to report a favorable attitude towards tourism (Chhabra 2008). Future studies should analyze and compare the link between attitudes of locals (both, those involved and not involved in the tourism industry) and tourist experience. Residents perceiving more positive (benefits) than negative (costs) effects arising from tourism are likely to support further tourism development and be involved in social exchange (Gursoy et al. 2002). Like most resident attitude studies (e.g., Sirakaya et al. 2002), this study is a cross-sectional study. Longitudinal studies are required to offer better understanding of the influence of tourist experiences and well-being and attitudes of local residents on destination competitiveness. The findings of this study show that residents of Vaasa hold positive attitudes towards tourism, although the city is less dependent on tourism economically and/or have different seasonal fluctuations in tourism arrivals. Sheldon and Abenoja (2001) assert that residents at a mature destination have mostly positive attitudes toward tourism. Future studies should study local residents attitude towards tourism in a mature destination and those in the development stage or depend less on tourism economically as a comparative study in terms of cause and effect.

References

Auld, C., & Case, A. (1997). Social exchange processes in leisure and non-leisure settings. *Journal of Leisure Research, 29,* 183–200.

Björk, P. (2014). Tourist experience value: Tourist experience and life satisfaction. In N. Prebensen, J. Chen, & M. Uysal (Eds.), *Creating experience value in tourism* (pp. 21–33). UK: CABI.

Bradburn, N. (1969). *The structure of psychological well-being*. Chicago: Aldine.

Brunt, P., & Courtney, P. (1999). Host perceptions of sociocultural impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research, 26*(3), 493–515.

Chhabra, D. (2008). Social exchange theory in resort and non-resort casino settings. *Anatolia, 19* (1), 155–160.

Chandralal, K. P. (2010). Impacts of tourism and community attitude towards tourism: A case study in Sri Lanka. *South Asian Journal of Tourism and Heritage, 3*(2), 41–49.

Chen, G., Bao, J., & Huang, S. S. (2014). Developing a scale to measure backpackers' personal development. *Journal of Travel Research, 53*(4), 522–536.

City of Vaasa. (2016). Vaasa. http://www.vaasa.fi/en. Accessed August 2015.

Crouch, G., & Ritchie, B. (1999). Tourism. Competitiveness, and Social Prosperity. *Journal of Business Reserach, 44*, 137–152

Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 49,* 71–75.

Diedrich, A., & García-Buades, E. (2008). Locals perceptions of tourism as indicators of destination decline. *Tourism Management, 30,* 1–10.

Doxey, G. (1975). A causation theory of visitor-resident irritants: Methodology and research inferences. In *Proceedings of the 6th Annual Conference of the Travel Research Association* (pp. 195–198). Travel Research Association: San Diego.

Dwyer, L., & Kim, C. (2003). Destination competitiveness: Determinants and indicators. *Current Issues in Tourism, 6*(5), 369–414.

Dwyer, L., Mellor, R., Liaic, Z., Edwards, D., & Kim, C. (2004). Attributes of destination competitiveness: A factor analysis. *Tourism Analysis, 9*(1/2), 91–101.

Enright, M. J., & Newton, J. (2004). Tourism destination competitiveness: A quantitative approach. *Tourism Management, 25*(6), 777–788.

Eraqi, M. (2006). Tourism service quality (TourServQual) in Egypt. The viewpoints of External and internal customers. *Benchmarking: An International Journal, 13*(4), 469–492.

Gilbert, D., & Abdullah, J. (2004). Holiday taking and the sense of wellbeing. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(1), 103–121.

Grönroos, C. (1990). *Service management and marketing*. Massachusetts: Lexington Books.

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

Gursoy, D., & Rutherford, D. (2004). Host attitudes towards tourism: An improved structural modeling approach. *Annals of Tourism research, 31*(3), 495–516.

Hosany, S., & Witham, M. (2010). Dimensions of cruisers' experiences, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research, 49*(3), 351–364.

Istoc, E. M. (2012). Urban cultural tourism and sustainable development. *International Journal for Responsible Tourism, 1,* 38–57.

Kahneman, D., Wakker, P. P., & Sarin, R. (1997). Back to Bentham? Explorations of experienced utility. *Quarterly Journal of Economics, 112*(2), 375–405.

Kusluvan, S., Kusluvan, Z., Ilhan, I., & Buyruk, L. (2010). The human dimension. A review of human resources management issues in the tourism and hospitality industry. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *51*(2), 171–214.

Kusluvan, S. (2003). *Managing employee attitudes and behaviors in the tourism and hospitality industry*. Hauppauge: Nova Science Publishers.

Layard, R. (2006). *Happiness—lessons from a new science*. London: The Penguin Press.

Long, L. M. (2004). *Culinary tourism*. Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky.

Lyubomirsky, S., & Lepper, H. (1999). A measure of subjective happiness: Preliminary reliability and construct validation. *Social Indicators Research, 5,* 37–155.

MacDobald, R., & Jolliffe, L. (2003). Cultural rural tourism. Evidence from Canada. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*(2), 307–322.

McCabe, S., & Johnson, S. (2013). The happiness factor in tourism: Subjective well-being and social tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research, 41,* 42–65.

McCool, S., Moisey, R., & Nickerson, N. (2001). What should tourism sustain? The disconnect with industry perceptions of useful indicators. *Journal of Travel Research, 40*(2), 124–132.

McKercher, B., & du Cros, H. (2002). *Cultural tourism*. New York: Haworth Press.

Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism, economic, physical and social impacts*. London: Longman.

Meng, F. (2006). *An examination of destination competitiveness from the tourists' perspective: The relationship between quality of tourism experience and perceived destination competitiveness*. Virginia: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Mill, R. C. (1990). *Tourism: The international business*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Morgan, M., & Xu, F. (2009). Student travel experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 18*(2), 216–236.

Moscardo, G. (2009). Tourism and quality of life: Towards a more critical approach. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 9*(2), 159–170.

Nawijn, J., & Mitas, O. (2012). Resident attitudes to tourism and their effect on subjective well-being: The case of palma de mallorca. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(5), 531–541.

O'Dell, T., & Billing, P. (2010). *Experience-scape. Tourism, culture, and economy*. Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School Press.

Oh, H., Fiore, A. M., & Jeoung, M. (2007). Measuring experience economy concepts: Tourism applications. *Journal of Travel research, 46*(29), 119–132.

Otto, J. E., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1996). The service experience in tourism. *Tourism Management, 17*(3), 165–174.

Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review, 76*(4), 97–105.

Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). *The experience economy: Work is theatre & every business a stage*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (2011). *The experience economy: Work is theatre & every business a stage*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Puczko, L., & Ratz, T. (2000). Tourist and resident perceptions of the physical impacts of tourism at Lake Balaton, Hungary: Issues for sustainable tourism management. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 8*(6), 458–479.

Quadri-Felitti, D., & Fiore, A. M. (2012). Experience economy constructs as a framework for understanding wine tourism. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 18*(1), 3–15.

Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, G. L. (2003). *The competitive destination. A sustainable tourism perspective*. London: CABI Publishing.

Selstad, L. (2007). The social anthropology of the tourist experience. Exploring the middle road. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(1), 19–33.

Seth, N., Deshmukh, S. G., & Virat, P. (2005). Service quality models: A review. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management, 2,* 913–949.

Sheldon, P. J., & Abenoja, T. (2001). Resident attitudes in a mature destination: The case of Waikiki. *Tourism Management, 22*(5), 435–443.

Sirakaya, E., Teye, V., & Sonmez, S. M. (2002). Understanding resident's support for tourism development in the central region of Ghana. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(1), 57–67.

Sirgy, M. J. (2010). Toward a quality-of-life theory of leisure travel satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research, 49,* 246–260.

Sirgy, M. J., & Samli, C. (1995). *New dimensions in marketing/quality-of-life research*. Westport: Quorum Book.

Smith, S. (1994). The tourism porduct. *Annals of Tourism Research, 21*(3), 582–595.

Uriely, N. (2005). The tourist experience: Conceptual developments. *Annals of Tourism Research, 32*(1), 199–216.

Xu, J. (2010). Perceptions of tourism products. *Tourism Management, 31*, 607–610

From Emotions to Place Attachment

Antónia Correia, Cristiana Oliveira and Rosária Pereira

Abstract Tourism is all about places and people. Tourism and places are a relation to be explained under the tenets of sociology and psychology. This void the present research, that aims to assess place attachment as an emotional state. As the discussion is positing only on domestic tourists, the cultural attachment is engrained. Hence the only dimension that remains to explain is the relation within people and places, i.e. emotions. This chapter based on a sample of 1358 domestic tourists with a relation with the south of Portugal of more than 25 years, explores the role of emotions in place attachment. Grounded on pleasure-arousal model of Russell (Plato on pleasure and the good life, Oxford University Press, 2005), 12 emotional states were regressed throughout an order probit model to explain the long lasting relation with the Algarve. The results suggest that relation with the Algarve will keep on if the place will be able to delight, fascinate and surprise tourists that feel also nostalgic when their holidays are over. These results put a great pressure in tourism authorities, retain tourists is overwhelming their expectations.

1 Introduction

One of the most difficult but imperative challenges that destination marketers and all the tourism stakeholders have to face is to understand the emotions that tourism experiences can cause on destinations' visitors (Gretzel et al. 2006). Emotional

A. Correia (✉) · R. Pereira
CEFAGE, University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal
e-mail: ahcorreia@gmail.com

R. Pereira
e-mail: rosaria.pereira@europeia.pt

A. Correia · R. Pereira
Universidade Europeia, Lisbon, Portugal

C. Oliveira
Universidad Europea de Canarias, Santa Cruz de Tenerife, Spain
e-mail: cristiana.oliveira@universidadeuropea.es

arousal is a major motivation for the purchase and consumption of products such as sports, shows and travels (Bloch et al. 1986; Goossens 2000), therefore, tourism appears as the major producer of hedonic consumption experiences (Alistair 2006), involving adventure, challenge, escape, fun (Otto and Ritchie 1996), happiness (Gretzel et al. 2006) and pleasure (Floyd 1997). According to Holbrook (2006), fantasy, feelings and fun are a central part of hedonic experiences. Tung and Ritchie (2011) suggested that positive and pleasurable emotions and feelings are important components of tourism experiences. In this context, it is clearly important for both academia and industry managers to better understand the vital role of emotion in tourism customer experiences.

Theory on emotions and place attachment helps us to understand the nature of the relationships between individuals and place. Place attachment is a result of a combination of emotional, cognitive, social, cultural and behavioral factors (Pruneau et al. 1999), putting the discussion on a multidisciplinary field. This is particularly relevant in domestic tourism, as it represents a form of valuing a destination that incorporates both functional and emotional meanings. Several researchers present sounded research about place attachment, correlating this with satisfaction and quality of service, but not with emotions (Caldwell 2002; De Ruyter et al. 1997; Harrison and Shaw 2004). It is under the acknowledge of the need for further research in place attachment (Gu and Ryan 2008) and the role of emotions in relation with the place that this research arouses.

Grounded on pleasure, Russell (2005, p. 13) "Distinguishes pleasure as sensation from pleasure as emotion, where the latter is a content-full intentional state. Pleasures as emotions entail attitudes, priorities, and values; and so the pleasures we have reveal the persons we are". Hence this study aims to assess how emotions are related to and influence the attachment with a destination. The empirical study took place in the Algarve region, one of the most important tourist destinations in Portugal representing 22% of the national guests (31,477.2 million in 2014), both nationals and foreigners, since it attracts every year an increasing number of tourists (Turismo de Portugal 2014). This research focus on domestic tourists more prone to be engrained with the holiday destination, as demonstrated by Stedman and Jorgensen (2006, p. 318) "individuals who have resided longer in a place are more likely to have developed significant relationships with other residents as well as with physical attributes of the place".

The survey was applied in the summer of 2011 in August, considered to be the high season in Portugal and the highest rates of domestic tourism demand; therefore, it increases the questionnaire response rate. The sample is representative as it comprises 1538 data, make feasible generalizations. An order probit model was estimated to depict the role of 12 emotional states in the relation with the Algarve; socio-demographic characteristics are also included as a predictor of the relation with the destination.

The contributions of this research rely on theoretical, methodological and empirical level. At theoretical level this is one of the first studies to introduce

emotions to explain place attachment. Further this research explains place attachment from an observed variable instead of introducing declared statements about place attachment, avoiding the problems that revealed preference may attained. One of the most common is the unconformity between what individuals say and what they do (Correia et al. 2014). In this research the duration of the relation with the Algarve are assumed as a proxy of place attachment.

At the methodological level this is one of the first researchers to estimate the moderator role of intangible variables with an order probit model more robust in its fits. At the empirical level this drove the discussion of the policy strategies of the destination to the immaterial side of the tourism experiences.

2 Literature Review

When planning a holiday, tourists are believed to experience a series of positive emotions that play a pivotal role in the decision-making process and final choice of destination (Walters and Sparks 2012) and involve fantasy and considerable pleasure (Kwortnik and Ross 2007). During the holiday, emotions experienced are an indispensable component of a memorable destination experience (Aho 2001; Mcintosh and Siggs 2005), and the intensity of emotions vary during the whole experience (Kyle and Lee 2012). Therefore, it is necessary to consider the definition of the construct of emotion and thus the methodological implications for measuring this construct.

In tourism research, emotions appears as an antecedent or consequent of affect and mood, (Bagozzi et al. 1999; Cohen et al. 2008). Mood is associated to deep affective feeling as opposed to emotions that are provoked by events, objects or persons. Mood normally refers to an affective state with a low level of intensity, emotions are often described as more intense affective feelings (Cohen et al. 2008; Hosany and Prayag 2013). Mood is also generally unrelated to any particular event or situation and is pervasive feeling state (Gardner 1985), while affect is commonly regarded as an umbrella term that covers emotion, mood and feeling (Bagozzi et al. 1999; Cohen et al. 2008). In 1980, Russel defined affect as emotion expressed in language, and affective quality of a molar physical environment (or more simply expressed, a place), as the emotion-inducing quality that persons verbally attribute to that place. On the other hand, emotions are elicited by a specific referent (e.g., person, event, and situation). Positive and negative expressions of feelings may occur for example when a tourist visits a destroyed heritage site or when he experiences a warm welcome by the residents of a specific destination.

The dimensional approach of emotions is an instinctive and simple way to distinguish emotions (Huang 2001; Larsen and Diener 1992). It outlines a group of affect dimensions to be used in order to distinguish from one another particular emotions. Affective valence and arousal are the two primal dimensions used within this approach.

Arousal symbolizes an internal state that is activated with either periods of "excitement" and "quietness". Moreover valence is described as the "pleasant" and "unpleasant" experience undertaken. This approach grounds in Pleasure Arousal Dominance (P-A-D) (Russel 1980) being this model one of the utmost common model used in consumer behavior research, and in tourism. The model outline 12 emotional states, within 3 dimensions such as, Pleasure (Happy/Unhappy; Melancholic/Contented; Annoyed/Pleased; Unsatisfied/Satisfied), Arousal (Sluggish/Frenzied; Calm/Excited; Unaroused/Aroused) and Dominance (Controlled/Controlling; Guided/Autonomous; Influenced/Influential; Submissive/Dominant).

2.1 From Emotions to Place Attachment

Place attachment can be defined as "the environmental settings to which people are emotionally and culturally attached" (Altman and Low 1992, p. 5). It often refers to the link that people create with places (Raymond et al. 2010; Scannell and Gifford 2010) and it frequently arises from the idea that people will value a place as they get to know it. Different dimensions of place attachment are outlined: place identity (Prohansky 1978; Prohansky et al. 1983), place attachment (Altman and Low 1992) and dependence (Stokols and Shumaker 1981). Research about this topic has not been consensual with some authors stating that these different dimensions of place are included in the concept of "sense of Place" (Shamai 1991) and other arguing that these dimensions are actually part of place attachment. This lack of consensus were put forward by Hernández et al. (2010) that attributes this to the imprecise definitions and measurement of this construct. Place identity is considered as the set of beliefs, perceptions or thoughts that an individual draws about a spatial environment and their symbolic connections (Prohansky et al. 1983; Williams et al. 1992). Whereas place dependence refers to the dynamic connections related to a physical setting as a result of the conditions provided to a specific purpose (Schreyer et al. 1981; Williams et al. 1992). Whether it would be place attachment measurement model adopted the most important issue is the level of attachment tourists demonstrate with the place (Scannell and Gifford 2010), and this may be measured by a quantitative variable—the duration of the relation with a certain place, as it is the case of this research Stdeman and Jorgensen (2006).

Place attachment is also explained by emotional traits (Altman and Low 1992). Emotions are frequently conceptualized as the consequence of the appraisal of events or objects concerning the individual or groups' goal (Niedenthal and Brauer 2012), and are often marked by a behavioral reaction as an expression of, positive or negative, feelings (Hosany and Prayag 2013). Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) posits that the definition of emotion is not consentaneous, most of the produced research validate that emotions are divided in: subjective experience, expressive component and physiological arousal.

2.2 Measuring Emotions in Tourism

The most common method used to capture tourists' emotional responses is the self-report method. Self-report methods emphasize introspective reflections about emotions that indicate an individual's subjective feelings (Poels and Dewitte 2006). Emotions are measured by open-ended questions or a battery of emotion items using Likert scales. In tourism, self-report scales emerging from both the basic emotion and dimensional approaches have been adapted to capture tourists' emotional responses in the tourism context. Tourism researchers usually adapt measures from emotion theorists to fit the specific study context (Hosany and Gilbert 2010).

The basic emotion approach is linked to the Consumption Emotion Scale. In one study, eighteen emotional items derived from the Consumption Emotion Scale were used to examine tourist' emotions and the links amongst travel motivations, activities, emotions and satisfaction levels (Pearce and Coghlan 2010). Specifically, the respondents were asked to rate both the type and intensity of emotions they feel on an 18-items affective scale (e.g., happy, pleased, irritated, worried, depressed, sad and lonely etc.). The results showed that the overall satisfaction can only reflect part of the emotional variability. Another study using the Consumption Emotion Scale to measure the intensity of consumption emotion found that the intensity of emotion, particularly positive emotion, varied during the course of a festival (Kyle and Lee 2012). Similarly, by adopting a 24-items affective scale, the respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they were feeling each adjective using a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 = not at all through 5 = extremely much. Izard (1977)'s categorization of emotions is also adapted by tourism researchers to measure consumers' emotional experiences. for example, Jang and Namkung (2009) incorporated four positive emotions (i.e., joy, excitement, peacefulness and refreshment) and five negative emotions (i.e., anger, distress, disgust, fear and shame) into their emotion measurement items, and found that emotion mediated between perceived quality and behavioral intention in a restaurant setting.

Hosany and Gilbert (2010, p. 513) noted that "existing emotion scales are problematic as they fail to take into account tourists' and destinations' specific characteristics" and as a result developed the 'Destination Emotion Scale' (joy, love and positive surprise) representing tourists' emotional experiences toward destinations. The authors also found that tourist's emotions are correlated with satisfactions, which in turns, influences their consumption behaviors. The Destination Emotion Scale (DES) was then used to investigate appraisal determinants of tourists' emotional reactions (Hosany 2012) and relationships between visitors' emotional patterns and their post-consumption evaluations (Hosany and Prayag 2013). They suggested tourists' emotional responses can be generally divided into five patterns (delighted, unemotional, negatives, mixed, and passionate) and further validated the DES scale.

Amongst the dimensional models, the Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (P-A-D) model is most frequently used in the tourism and hospitality literature, and focuses on emotional response to environmental stimuli (Russell and Mehrabian 1974).

P-A-D uses the three dimensions of pleasure-displeasure, arousal-non-arousal and dominance-submissiveness and is used to measure feelings, moods and other related concepts (Russell 1980). For example, respondents are often asked to indicate to what extent they feel pleasant or aroused. Sometimes 'pleasure' is measured by positive adjectives such as happy, pleased and satisfied, whereas individuals' level of arousal is indicated by items such as relaxed, calm and excited (Yuksel 2007).

In the tourism and hospitality fields, the P-A-D model has been employed to capture tourists' emotional response and explore how tourists' emotions affect satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Bigné et al. 2005), destination visitation intentions in various nationalities (White and Scandale 2005), recreation satisfaction among hunters (Floyd 1997), destination image (Baloglu and Brinberg 1997) and shopping behaviors (Robert and Donovan 1994; Machleita and Eroglub 2000; Yuksel 2007). Specifically, the dimension of pleasure has been positively linked to both satisfaction and loyalty behaviors more so than arousal and dominance dimensions (Bigné et al. 2008; Floyd 1997). The P-A-D model is useful for predicting behavioral responses at a holiday destination or wilderness area (Ma et al. 2013), and is better applied to determine tourists' perception of environmental stimuli (Chebat and Michon 2003). More specifically, the P-A-D model is useful when the research focuses on the possible underlying dimensions of the emotion experienced by the customers rather than what specific emotion is evoked by external stimulus (Chamberlain and Broderick 2007), as it is the case of this research.

3 Method

Given the importance of emotions in tourism, the measurement of emotional responses to visitor experiences is a crucial issue as well as being acknowledged as a complex research task (Mauss and Robinson 2009). In the past measurement tools used to capture individuals' emotional outcomes in a tourism context have relied entirely on affective reports. In this method, respondents are asked to express their emotional reactions through open-ended questions or rate their emotional state on a set of affective items (Hosany and Gilbert 2010; Hosany and Prayag 2013; Kyle and Lee 2012; Pearce and Coghlan 2010; Walters and Sparks 2012), an approach collectively termed 'self-report' method (Chamberlain and Broderick 2007; Mauss and Robinson 2009; Poels and Dewitte 2006; Ravaja 2004; Wang and Minor 2008). While useful, such self-report methods may involve cognitive bias (Paulhus 2002), elicit socially acceptable answers (Wiles and Cornwell 1991), or seek responses where respondents may not remember or be aware of the emotions they have experienced (Poels and Dewitte 2006).

In other disciplines, researchers have sought to overcome the problems of using self-report data when measuring emotions by using alternative methods. In particular, psychophysiological methods have been used to provide a more objective

and unbiased approach to track individuals' emotional responses (Morin 2011; Ravaja 2004). Psychophysiology is the branch of psychology that assesses the variations in the activity of physiological systems evoked by internal autonomic responses (Vögele and Florin 1995). Such measures can be more objective in reflecting individual's emotional responses compared to traditional self-report methods (Ravaja 2004). As autonomic responses are not under voluntary control, they can provide unbiased portrayals of people's initial emotional reactions to a situation or event (Stewart and Furse 1982).

This research intends to analyze how the emotions of domestic tourists arise from their relationship with the place influencing their attachment with a destination like the Algarve. The Self-report tourist emotion model assesses tourists' emotional reactions, based on subjective feelings. Positive and negative emotions were included in the questionnaire throughout a dichotomous scale, derived from the literature. The ordinal scale comprises 12 emotional states from: Happy/Unhappy; Melancholic/Contented; Annoyed/Pleased; Unsatisfied/Satisfied; Sluggish/Frenzied; Calm/Excited; Unaroused/Aroused; Controlled/Controlling; Guided/Autonomous; Influenced/Influential; Submissive/Dominant. These emotional states were converted in dummy variables and incorporated in an order probit model to explain the duration of the relation with the Algarve together with socio-demographic variables.

The hypotheses were defined as follows:

H1: The positive emotional states influence positively the duration of the relation with the Algarve
H2: The negative emotional states influence negatively the duration of the relation with the Algarve
H3: Socio-demographic characteristics of the tourists influence the duration of the relation with the Algarve.

This study uses a quantitative approach with non-experimental design for which a questionnaire-based approach was considered adequate. The instrument consists of 60 items, using precoded factual, likert scales, and numerical uncoded questions. The following variables were considered: gender, age, income, employment status. The questionnaire was pilot tested by a panel of 50 domestic tourists visiting the Algarve Region, in order to ascertain its validity and coherence. Results showed that the respondents deemed the items included in the final survey relevant. The final version of the survey was applied to a total of 1500 domestic tourists spending their vacation in the Algarve during the summer of 2014, from which 1358 were considered valid. The data collection was obtained with the support of the principal municipalities of this region linked to the major tourism areas and with no stratification arranged. Tourists were invited to answer voluntarily in the course of their stay both on the beach and in the city centre. The selection criteria was a minimum of two prior visits with the purpose to engage in leisure activities.

An order probit model was estimated to test effects of each of the emotional states over the duration of the relation with the Algarve. This model is the most

appropriated to test these effects, when data is of ordinal type (Ben-Akiva et al. 1997). Order probit model allows to estimate relationships between an ordinal dependent variable and a set of independent variables, as it is the case. In ordered probit, an underlying score is estimated as a linear function of the independent variables and a set of cutpoints. The probability of observing outcome i corresponds to the probability that the estimated linear function, plus random error, is within the range of the cutpoints estimated for the outcome. The cutoff of the model was set for the last category that means the superlative emotional state. The variables were recategorized accordingly with the number of nodes they presented in this original form. This means that a variable with only one category comprises only negative emotional state or positive one.

Stata 7 was used to estimate the model through a maximum likelihood function. The analysis is to examine the influence of the twelve emotional states comments over the duration of the relation with the destinations as a proxy of place attachment, depicting the effect of emotions and socio-demographic variables over the relation with the destination.

4   Results

The sample under research follows the structure of the domestic tourists in Portugal living out of the Algarve. Table 1 presents the characterization of the sample.

Table 1 Sample characterization

Gender		Age groups	
Male	43.0	Less than 30 years old	26.8
Female	57.0	31–50 years old	55.1
Education		Above 51 years old	18.1
Basic	13.8	*Frequency of spending holidays in Algarve*	
Secondary	30.6	Occasionally	4.5
Superior	55.6	Once a year	45.0
Employment status		Twice a year	20.9
Unemployed	2.1	Three or more times a year	25.2
Retired	7.1	This is my last visit	4.4
Students	11.3	*Intention of return for holidays to Algarve*	
Employed	79.4	Definitely	80.3
Marital status		Maybe	15.3
Single	23.9	No	4.4
Married	69.6		
Widowed/divorced	6.6		

Females 57% with high education 55.6 or secondary 30.6%, employed (79.4%) and married (69.6%), in between 30 and 50 years old (55.1%) or youngers (less than 30–26.8%) represents the profile of the domestics tourists in Algarve (INE 2014). Their relation with the Algarve is a long lasting relation as they travel to there at least once a year (45.0%) or more than once a year (46.1%). Only very few are about to cease their relation with Algarve as tourists (4.4%). This relation seems to be to keep on as their intentions is to return (80.3%), which give path for this research.

Table 2 summarizes the results of the order probit model estimated to measure the effects of emotional states and socio-demographic features over the relation with the destination. All the variables with non-significant beta weights or collinearity were eliminated to improve the model estimated. As it is illustrates, the results of the regression of the twelve variables accounted for 17.06% of the variance of the model, the likelihood-ratio test with 12° of freedom for the model is 185.65 ($p < 0.05$). All the variables retained show significant beta weights.

The positive or negative beta weights estimated demonstrates how the variable influences the relation with the destination. According to the results all of the hypotheses were accepted as all show significant beta weights ($p < 0.05$). Nevertheless, it seems relevant to refer that age has obtained a high value (0.044) showing that this value is very close from the limit of not being significant.

Hypothesis H1 has a mixed effect since some the emotional states satisfaction did not register a positive score, Satisfied is negative (−0.325, $p < 0.05$), whereas Delighted (0.272, $p < 0.05$), Fascinated (0.704, $p < 0.05$), Amazed (0.209, $p < 0.05$), Surprised (0.537, $p < 0.05$), present a positive effect in the duration of the relation with the destination. The results seem to indicate that average services are not enough to influence positively, services must be superlative. The positive

Table 2 Results of order probit regression

Destination attachment	Coef. Std.	Err.	z	$p > z$ (95% conf. interval)
Unhappy	−0.437	0.402	−3.58	0.000
Satisfied	−0.325	0.079	−4.09	0.000
Disappointed	−0.595	0.405	−3.94	0.000
Unsatisfied	−0.071	0.197	−5.44	0.000
Amazed	0.209	0.086	2.44	0.015
Fascinated	0.704	0.142	4.96	0.000
Melancholic	−0.505	0.209	−2.41	0.016
Awkward	0.717	0.270	2.65	0.008
Delighted	0.272	0.087	3.14	0.002
Surprised	0.537	0.113	4.77	0.000
Employment status	0.006	0.002	3.06	0.002
Household monthly income	−0.004	0.001	−2.76	0.006
Age	0.008	0.004	2.01	0.044

sign of Awkward (0.717, $p < 0.05$) confirms that tourists are willing to have what they do not expect. This result is in accordance with Decrop (1999) who argues that having a champagne bottle in your room without asking influence positively the preferences for this destination, as it is unexpected. Further and accordingly with Tung and Ritchie (2011) positive emotions are mostly related with memorable experiences.

Hypothesis H2 also presents mixed effects since the majority of the negative emotions: Unhappy was (-0.437, $p < 0.05$), Disappointed (-0.595, $p < 0.05$), Unsatisfied (-0.071, $p < 0.05$), Melancholic (-0.505, $p < 0.05$), present negative values, which shows that negative emotional felling have a direct effect in diminishing the relation with the Algarve. This result is in accordance with other researches that also show that negative emotions are adversely associated with behavioral intentions (e.g., Grappia and Montanari 2011). Lee et al. (2008) were not able to found a significant relationship between satisfaction and loyalty, which is not surprising: considering that an inverse relation between behavioral intentions and satisfaction may still drive tourists to keep on repeating the same destination, as they are hostages of the destination (Woratschek and Horbel 2006). This result might suggests that emotions are more important in tourism loyalty than satisfaction, as negative emotions cease the relation and satisfaction might not.

The results also support H3, suggesting that tourists with a lower purchasing power have a lower level of relation (-0.004, $p < 0.05$). In addition the older the tourists are the more likely they are to increase their relation with the Algarve (0.008, $p < 0.05$). This positive direct effect reflects also on Professional or Employment Status (0.006, $p < 0.05$). This reveals that socio demographics have also a mixed effect on the relation with the south of Portugal. This is accordingly with Woodside and Lysonski (1989) and Um and Crompton (1990) who also prove that socio-demographics characteristics of the tourists influence the emotions with the destination. More concretely (Yüksel and Yüksel 2007) argue that emotions are very accurate predictors of most social behaviors that are influenced by the social profile of the tourist.

5 Conclusion

This research follows the stream of interested in affective dimensions of tourism experiences, tourism researchers presented nowadays (Morgan et al. 2010; Ritchie and Hudson 2009; Tung and Ritchie 2011; Wang and Pizam 2011, among others). The increasing competition within destinations paves the way to a differentiation that might be based on emotions and symbolism rather than of visible and tangible attributes of a destination (Gretzel et al. 2006). However, the emotional meaning of experiences still remain under researched (Hosany and Gilbert 2010), in particular the relation within the emotions and the place attachment (Yuksel et al. 2010). This was the aim of this research that tested the relationship within emotional states and

the duration of the relation with the destination, being this, the conceptual contribution of this research to the body of knowledge.

The conceptual model was tested in the context of mature destination over domestic tourists, traditionally attached to the destination (Oppermann 2000). Findings offer important theoretical and managerial implications.

Results confirm that emotions are strong predictors of place attachment, which means that tourism experiences are all about pleasure and emotions (Hosany and Gilbert 2010). Further superlative emotions such as Delight, Fascination, Amaze, Awkward exert a positive influence in long lasting the relation of the tourists with the destination, which leads to the conclusion that memorable and astonishing experiences is the way to create attachment to the destination (Tung and Ritchie 2011).

On the other hand negative emotions as Disappointment, Melancholy, Unhappiness or Unsatisfaction provoke a negative influence on the tourists' attachment, suggesting that unhappy tourists are not willing to keep on visiting the same destination (Yüksel and Yüksel 2007). The mixed effect of positive but not superlative emotions on tourists' attachment to the destination, as satisfaction put the focus of place attachment on superlative experiences raising the complexity of satisfying tourists who are always seeking for outstanding and unique experiences (Correia and Kozak 2012). From an empirical point of view the results offer important managerial and marketing implications. The results highlight the need for a new approach when discussing policy strategies of the destination since the immaterial side of the tourism experiences can no longer be ignored.

These results also suggest that the outstanding value of holidays in the south challenge the tourists' players to keep on overwhelming tourists expectations, which put a great pressure on tourists authorities to recreate unique and outstanding experiences.

The study findings should be interpreted with caution for a number of reasons. First, the analysis of domestic tourists do not allow generalizations for the whole tourists, also the specific geographical context limits comparisons within different cultural contexts. Future studies should test the model in other locations and among domestic and international tourists.

Second, further studies should consider that emotions were measured using self-report over past the experiences. This type of evaluation can lack of accuracy since one depends on memories to capture emotional reactions (Cutler et al. 1996). Retrospective reports present therefore, weakness when the aim is to reconstruct memories (Kahneman 1999). Third, authors recognize that emotions are lively experienced consequently they are time-dependent (Kuppens et al. 2009). Additional studies should capture emotion in situ (Dubé and Morgan 1998) given that tourists' self-reported emotions vary in type and intensity over the holiday duration (Lee and Kyle 2012). Fourth cross effects within socio-demographic profiles and emotions and other variables as destination image, motivations and satisfaction by attributes should be included in future research to understand from where and to whom these emotions are coming.

References

Aho, S. K. (2001). Towards a general theory of touristic experiences: Modelling experience process in tourism. *Tourism Review, 56*(3/4), 33–37.

Alistair, W. (2006). Tourism and hospitality marketing: Fantasy, feeling and fun. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 18*(6), 482–495.

Altman, I., & Low, S. M. (1992). Place attachment: A conceptual inquiry. In I. Altman & S. M. Low (Eds.), *Place attachment*. New York: Plenum Press.

Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P. U. (1999). The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(2), 184–206.

Baloglu, S., & Brinberg, D. (1997). Affective images of tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, *35*(4), 11–15.

Ben-Akiva, M., Mcfadden, D., Abe, M. et al. (1997). Modeling methods for discrete choice analysis. *Marketing Letters*, *8*(3), 273–286.

Bigné, J. E., Mattila, A. S., & Andreu, L. (2008). The impact of experiential consumption cognitions and emotions on behavioral intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *22*(4), 303–315.

Bigné, J. E., Andrey, L., & Gnoth, J. (2005). The theme park experience: An analysis of pleasure, arousal and satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, *26*(6), 833–844.

Bloch, P. H., Sherrell, D. L., & Ridgway, N. M. (1986). Consumer search: An extended framework. *Journal of Consumer Research, 13*(1), 119–126.

Caldwell, N. (2002). (Rethinking) the measurement of service quality in museums and galleries. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing, 7*(2), 161–171.

Chamberlain, L., & Broderick, A. J. (2007). The application of physiological observation methods to emotion research. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, *10*(2), 199–216.

Chebat, J. C., & Michon, R. (2003). Impact of ambient odors on mall shoppers' emotions, cognition, and spending: A test of competitive causal theories. *Journal of Business Research*, *56*(7), 529–539.

Cohen, J. B., Pham, M. T., & Andrade, E. B. (2008). The nature and role of affect in consumer behavior. In *Handbook of consumer psychology* (pp. 297–348).

Correia, A., & Kozak, M. (2012). Exploring prestige and status on domestic destinations: The case of algarve. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *39*(4), 1951–1967.

Correia, M., Kozak, M., & Tao, M. (2014). Dynamics of tourists' decision making: From theory to practice. In S. Macabe (Ed.), *Handbook of tourism marketing* (pp. 299–312). New York: Routledge.

Cutler, S. E., Larsen, R. J., & Bunce, S. C. (1996). Repressive coping style and the experience and recall of emotion: A naturalistic study of daily affect. *Journal of Personality, 64,* 379–405.

Decrop, A. (1999). Tourists' decision-making and behavior processes. In *Consumer behavior in travel and tourism* (pp. 103–133).

De Ruyter, K., Wetzels, M., Lemmink, J., & Mattsson, J. (1997). The dynamics of the service delivery process: A value-based approach. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 14* (3), 231–243.

Dubé, L., & Morgan, M. S. (1998). Capturing the dynamics of in-process consumption emotions and satisfaction in extended service transactions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *15*, 309–320.

Floyd, M. F. (1997). Pleasure, arousal, and dominance: Exploring affective determinants of recreation satisfaction. *Leisure Sciences, 19*(2), 83–96.

Goossens, C. (2000). Tourism information and pleasure motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *27*(2), 301–321.

Grappia, S., & Montanarib, F. (2011). The role of social identification and hedonism in affecting tourist re-patronizing behaviours: The case of an Italian festival. *Tourism Management*, *32*(5), 1128–1140.

Gretzel, U., Fesenmaier, D. R., Formica, S., & O'Leary, J. T. (2006). Searching for the future: Challenges faced by destination marketing organizations. *Journal of Travel Research, 45*(2), 116–126.

Gu, H., & Ryan, C. (2008). Place attachment, identity and community impacts of tourism the case of a Beijing Hutong. *Tourism Management, 29*(4), 637–647.

Harrison, P., & Shaw, R. (2004). Consumer satisfaction and post-purchase intentions: An exploratory study of museum visitors. *International Journal of Arts Management, 6*(2), 23–33.

Hernández, B., Martin, A., Ruiz, C., & Hidalgo, M. (2010). The role of place identity and place attachment in breaking environmental protection laws. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 30*(3), 281–288.

Holbrook, M. B. (2006). Consumption experience, customer value, and subjective personal introspection: An illustrative photographic essay. *Journal of Business Research, 59*(6), 714–725.

Hosany, S. (2012). Appraisal determinants of tourist emotional responses. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(3), 303–314.

Hosany, S., & Gilbert, D. (2010). Measuring tourists' emotional experiences toward hedonic holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research, 49*(4), 513.

Hosany, S., & Prayag, G. (2013). Patterns of tourists' emotional responses, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(6), 730–737.

Huang, M. H. (2001). The theory of emotions in marketing. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 16*(2), 239–247.

Izard, C. E. (1977). *Human emotions*. New York: Plenum Press.

Jang, S. S., & Namkung, Y. (2009). Perceived quality, emotions, and behavioral intentions: Application of an extended Mehrabian–Russell model to restaurants. *Journal of Business Research*, *62*(4), 451–460.

Kahneman, D. (1999). Objective happiness. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: Foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 3–25). New York: Russell Sage Foundation Press.

Kleinginna, P. R., Jr., & Kleinginna, A. M. (1981). A categorized list of emotion definitions, with suggestions for a consensual definition. *Motivation and Emotion, 5*(4), 345–379.

Kuppens, P., Stouten, J., & Mesquita, B. (2009). Individual differences in emotion components and dynamics: Introduction to the special issue. *Cognition and Emotion, 23,* 1249–1258.

Kwortnik, R. J., & Ross, W. T. (2007). The role of positive emotions in experiential decisions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 24*(4), 324–335.

Kyle, G. T., & Lee, J. J. (2012). Recollection consistency of festival consumption emotions. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(2), 178–190.

Larsen, R. J., & Diener, E. (1992). *Promises and problems with the circumplex model of emotion* (pp. 25–29). Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications Inc.

Lee, Y. K., Lee, C. K., Lee, S. K., & Babin, B. J. (2008). Festivalscapes and patrons' emotions, satisfaction, and loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, *61*(1), 56–64.

Lee, J., & Kyle, G. T. (2012). Recollection consistency of festival consumption emotions. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(2), 178–190.

Ma, J., Gao, J., Scott, N., & Ding, P. (2013). Customer delight from theme park experiences: The antecedents of delight based on cognitive appraisal theory. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *42*, 359–381.

Machleita, K. A., & Eroglub. (2000). Describing and measuring emotional response to shopping experience. *Journal of Business Research*, *49*(2), 101–111.

Mauss, I. B., & Robison, M. D. (2009). Measures of emotion: A review. *Cognition and Emotion*, *23*(2), 2019–2237.

Mcintosh, A. J., & Siggs, A. (2005). An exploration of the experiential nature of boutique accommodation. *Journal of Travel Research, 44*(1), 74–81.

Morgan, M., Lugosi, P., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2010). *The tourism and leisure experience: Consumer and managerial perspectives*. Bristol: Channel View.

Morin, C. (2011). Neuromarketing: The new science of consumer behavior. *Society*, *48*(2), 131–135.

Niedenthal, P. M., & Brauer, M. (2012). Social functionality of human emotion. *Annual Review of Psychology, 63*(1), 259–285.

Oppermann, M. (2000). Tourism destination loyalty. *Journal of travel research, 39*(1), 78–84.

Otto, J. E., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1996). The service experience in tourism. *Tourism Management, 17*(3), 165–174.

Pearce, P., & Coghlan, A. (2010). Tracking affective components of satisfaction. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 10*(1), 42–58. doi:10.1057/thr.2009.18.

Poels, K., & Dewitte, S. (2006). How to capture the heart? Reviewing 20 years of emotion measurement in advertising. *Journal of Advertising Research, 46*(1), 18–37.

Prohansky, H. M. (1978). The city and self-identity. *Environment and Behavior, 10,* 147–169.

Prohansky, H., Fabian, A., & Kaminoff, R. (1983). Place identity: Physical world socialization of self. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 3*(1), 57–83.

Pruneau, D., Chouinard, O., Arsenault, C., & Breau, N. (1999). An intergenerational education project aiming at the improvement of people's relationship with their environment. *International Research in Geographical and Environmental Education, 8*(1), 26–39.

Ravaja, N. (2004). Contributions of psychophysiology to media research: Review and recommendations. *Media Psychology*, *6*(2), 193–235.

Raymond, C. M., Brown, G., & Weber, D. (2010). The measurement of place attachment: Personal, community, and environmental connections. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 30*(4), 422–434.

Ritchie, J. R. B., & Hudson, S. (2009). Understanding and meeting the challenges of consumer/tourist experience research. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *11*, 111–126.

Robert, J., & Donovan, R. J. (1994). Store atmosphere and purchasing behavior. *Journal of Retail*, *70*(3), 283–294.

Russell, J., & Mehrabian, A. (1974). *An approach to environmental psychology*. Cambridge, MA, US: The MIT Press.

Russell, J. (1980). A circumplex model of affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *39*, 1161–1178.

Russell, D. C. (2005). *Plato on pleasure and the good life*. Oxford University Press.

Scannell, L., & Gifford, R. (2010). Defining place attachment: A tripartite organizing framework. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 30*(1), 1–10.

Stewart, D. W., & Furse, D. H. (1982). Applying psychophysiological measures to marketing and advertising research problems. *Current Issues and Research in Advertising*, *5*(1), 1–38.

Schreyer, R., Jacob, G., & White, R. (1981). Environmental meaning as a determinant of spatial behavior in recreation. In J. Frazier & B. Epstein (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Applied Geography Conferences* (pp. 294–300). Binghamton, NY: Department of Geography, SUNY Binghamton.

Shamai, S. (1991). Sense of place: An empirical measurement. *Geoforum, 22,* 347–358.

Stedman, R., & Jorgensen, B. S. (2006). A comparative analysis of predictors of sense of place dimensions: Attachment to, dependence on, and identification with lakeshore properties. *Journal of Environmental Management, 79,* 316–327.

Stokols, D., & Shumaker, S. A. (1981). People in places: A transactional view of settings. In J. Harvey (Ed.), *Cognition, social behaviour, and the environment*. New Jersey: Erlbaum.

Tung, V. W. S., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2011). Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research, 38*(4), 1367–1386.

Turismo de Portugal. (2014). *Os resultados do Turismo. 4.º trimestre e ano 2013*. Retrieved February, 15, 2014 from: http://www.turismodeportugal.pt/Portugu%C3%AAs/ProTurismo/estat%C3%ADsticas/an%C3%A1lisesestat%C3%ADsticas/osresultadosdoturismo/Anexos/4.%C2%BA%20Trim%20e%20Ano%202013%20-%20Os%20resultados%20do%20Turismo.pdf.

Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *17*, 432–448.

Vögele, C., & Florin, I. (1995). Psychophysiological responses to cue-exposure in binge eaters. In B. Tuschen & I. Florin (Eds.), *Current research in eating disorders* (pp. 62–73). Münster: Verlag für Psychotherapie.

Walters, G., & Sparks, B. (2012). The impact of consumption vision and emotion on the tourism consumer's decision behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 36*(3), 366–389.

Wang, Y., & Pizam, A. (2011). *Destination marketing and management: Theories and applications*. CABI International.

Wang, Y. J., & Minor, M. S. (2008). Validity, reliability, and applicability of psychophysiological techniques in marketing research. *Psychology and Marketing, 25*(2), 197–232.

Williams, D. R., Patterson, M. E., Roggenbuck, J. W., & Watson, A. E. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: Examining emotional and symbolic attachment to place. *Leisure Sciences, 14,* 29–46.

White, C., & Scandale, S. (2005). The role of emotions in destination visitation intentions: A cross-cultural perspective. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 12*(2), 168–178.

Wiles, J. A., & Cornwell, T. B. (1991). A review of methods utilized in measuring affect, feelings, and emotion in advertising. *Current Issues and Research in Advertising, 13*(1–2), 241–275.

Woratschek, H., & Horbel, C. (2006). Are variety-seekers bad customers? An analysis of the role of recommendations in the service profit chain. *Journal of Relationship Marketing, 4*(3–4), 43–57.

Woodside, A., & Lysonski, S. (1989). A general model of traveler destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research, 27*(4), 8–14.

Yuksel, A. (2007). Tourist shopping habitat: Effects on emotions, shopping value and behaviours. *Tourism Management, 28*(1), 58–69.

Yüksel, A., & Yüksel, F. (2007). Shopping risk perceptions: Effects on tourists' emotions, satisfaction and expressed loyalty intentions. *Tourism Management, 28*(3), 703–713.

Yuksel, A., Yuksel, F., & Bilim, Y. (2010). Destination attachment: Effects on customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty. *Tourism Management, 31*(2), 274–284.

Traits in Tourists' Experiences: Senses, Emotions and Memories

Joana Afonso Dias, Antónia Correia and Teresa Cascais

Abstract This chapter investigates the traits in tourists' experiences: senses, emotions and memories. Senses (touch, smell, hearing, taste and sight) and memories are narrated and reconstructed beyond the cognitive, and our aim is to depict the social process. Mental travel time, tracks, features and even sensory modalities enact the memory, merging experiences lived in the environment with their inner livelihood. We propose to analyse the narratives and the photos posted on Algarve Regional Tourism Board—the RTA blog to understand how the Algarve residents who participated in this forum portray the Algarve as a tourist destination, whose image is ingrained in their memories. The interpretation of the results emphasizes the importance of senses, emotions and memories in defining a tourism destination. The results suggest that Algarve has a lot of emotions to offer: the photos posted appeal to sensorial experiences, whereas the nostalgic discourse about the Algarve's history and the feelings of tourists at the end of the holidays reinforce positive memories able to retain tourists for ages. Strategic implications are discussed.

1 Introduction

Tourism experiences offer complex memories and emotions related with places (Noy 2007) and it is arguably this experience of place or self-in-place that the individual seeks (Cutler and Carmichael 2010). Tourists frequently share their most memorable events with others on multiple occasions (Rimé et al. 1991). Damásio

J.A. Dias (✉)
Instituto Superior D. Afonso III, Loulé, Portugal
e-mail: joanadia@gmail.com

A. Correia
CEFAGE, University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal
e-mail: ahcorreia@gmail.com

A. Correia · T. Cascais
Universidade Europeia, Lisbon, Portugal
e-mail: teresa.cascais@europeia.pt

(1999, 2013) argues that consciousness begins when brains acquire power, the simple power that telling a story must have. Memory leaves traces in the mind of the reader without bringing these memories into consciousness. Again, these traces may be activated by words, phrases, topics, events or other stimuli. Once these traces are activated, the associated emotions seep into consciousness again, not as ideas, but directly as feelings (Hogan 2003). Places do not have single, essential identities; rather, there are multiple identities for any given place, which may be a source of richness but also of conflict (Lombard 2015). Places and sites of memory have meanings that exceed their forms as authored representations of the past because of the ways individuals and social groups experience them affectively (Till 2012). Construction of a place is dynamic and influenced by human perceptions: cognition, self-concept, social dynamic, economies, culture and histories. The creation and representation of a place is a social process (Smaldone et al. 2005; Gu and Ryan 2008; Hall and Page 2014). The perception of place is ever-changing, depending on social interaction, context, and time (Bott et al. 2003; Smaldone et al. 2008). This process has been accelerated by internet communications, our epistemological object of research.

The purpose of this research is to analyse blog entries (narratives and photos) relating to Algarve experiences posted on the Algarve tourism board blog (http://blog.turismodoalgarve.pt/search/). The formation of emotional and sentimental bonds between people and a place brings together the material formations on a geographic site and the meanings we invest in them (Altman and Low 1992; Grupta and Ferguson 1997). As such, it may be assumed that people's emotional relationships with places encompass a broad range of physical settings and emotions and their relations with places are materialized in their speeches, stories and photos they share about the place they have visited (Manzo 2003). Social life now moves through nodes in one network or another, through points of power, convergence or translation but not necessarily anchored to any place. The places we build appear as clones of places elsewhere. Place attachment results from accumulated biographical experiences (Gieryn 2000). Place attachment facilitates a sense of security and well-being, defines group boundaries and stabilizes memories (Halbwachs 1980) against the passage of time.

Place persists as a constituent element of social life and historical change (Friedland and Boden 1994), revealing the richness of a place. Following this stream, this chapter aims to answer the following questions:

- How is place sensed, perceived, recorded (what attributes are selected to experience and remember)?
- Which senses do photos of the destination activate?
- How do narratives mirror emotions and memories?

The nature of personal attachment that blog participants reveal about Algarve and the repository of memory, locus of contemporary activities, social tensions, and stage for future aspirations could tell us the "Algarve state of mind". The following sections explore these approaches through a focus on place and emotions; place and memories; and place as process.

2 Tourism Experiences and Senses

Tourist experience is a socially constructed term whereby the meaning of the tourist experience is associated with multiple interpretations from social, environmental, and activity components of the overall experience. Larsen (2007) argues that tourist experience should be defined as a past travel-related event which was significant enough to be stored in long-term memory. Whereas Cutler and Carmichael (2010) define experience as the interrelation with an individual who is engaged with an event on an emotional, physical, spiritual or intellectual level (Pine and Gilmore 1999) and is left with memorable impressions (Gram 2005). Other definitions have been discussed in an increasing body of literature (Cohen 1979; Csikszentmihalyi 2000; MacCannell 1973; Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987; Ryan 1997), which established the theoretical context of the experience concept. Traditionally, experience has been defined as a personal occurrence with highly emotional significance obtained from the consumption of products and services (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982), and emotions that are translated into senses. Senses are core to how the human body collects information and uses it as the foundation for understanding or developing meanings wherein "our bodily states, situated actions, and mental simulations are used to generate our cognitive activity" such as attitude, behavior, and memory (Krishna 2012, p. 344).

Multisensory stimuli facilitate the experience's positive and memorable consumption, involving the consumer in a physical, intellectual and emotional way (Hultén et al. 2009; Krishna and Elder 2010; Lindstrom 2005; Schmitt 1999; Schmitt and Simonson 1997). Place experience is corporeal and multisensory (Pan and Ryan 2009) and multisensory apparatuses should be trained in different contexts in which the culture-shaped sensory characteristics and sensory experiences empower meaning, emotion, memory, and value. Memories may be enhanced by the presence of sensorial experiences, such as emotional events appealing to the senses that tend to be remembered better than non-emotional events (Dolcos and Cabeza 2002). As defended by Zatori (2013), sensorializing the target destination to call on the tourists' five senses is likely to result in addictive effects on memories because sensory-supported emotional information has privileged access to cognitive processing resources leading to stronger memory formation.

2.1 Emotional Memories

Emotion is central to the formation of place attachment and reinforces relationships between individuals and their environment (Tuan 1974; Russell and Snodgrass 1987). Emotional attachment can be particularly difficult to study, yet researchers detect some patterns in emotional responses (Morgan 2010). Adult remembrance of childhood places can invoke intense memories and emotional connection, including

feelings of love, grief, pleasure (including play, sensory, mastery, adventure, and freedom), security, and identity (Morgan 2010). Memories that are fixed in childhood may be particularly intense due to more vivid sensory content (Morgan 2010).

Our epistemological blog is a good example of how it is possible to reproduce senses in tourism destinations. The narratives and photos found by Algarve bloggers shed light on "their Algarve", without following a battery of questions or fixed survey rules. Emotions, feelings and memories are all involved, mixed and present on this platform. Through this content and supported by metaphor, stories, emotions, feelings and memories, we can reach or imagine the Algarve. The Algarve is understood through peoples' thinking and behavior, the mental process is full of impressions, intuition and many decisions go on in silence in our mind, as Kahneman (2011) states. Tourism studies empirically addressing the role of the five human senses in tourist experiences are still scarce (Agapito et al. 2013; Kim and Fesenmaier 2015). Accordingly, imagery has been described as a way of processing and storing multi-sensory information in memory, creating a mental picture, not only visual, but including all the sensory impressions in a holistic way (MacInnis and Price 1987). Furthermore, Gibson (1966) argues that the five senses are more active than passive and as such they might help to reinterpretate and reconstruct the experiences in the Algarve.

2.2 Narratives Enhanced by Photos

The use of pictorial material (photos and others visual images) supports the narratives of the Algarve's place identity. Pictures not only present the place but can also communicate attributes, characteristics, concept, values and ideas, particularly when the object of study is a tourist destination, such as the Algarve, in line with the so called 'pictorial turn' (Feighey 2003; MacKay and Fesenmaier 1997) and based on photos as a valuable analysis method, particularly in destination image studies (Jacobsen 2007; Rodrigues et al. 2015, p. 31). The tourist's text, like tourists' photos can be both *souvenirs* and tourist performances that allow an *entree* into the holistic or "*gestaltian*" whole of the touristic experience.

Under this umbrella quest to give meaning to destinations, an emerging research strand shows the use of mixed methods, both qualitative and quantitative (e.g. Baloglu and McCleary 1999; MacKay and Fesenmaier 1997; Pike and Ryan 2004). In line with this new approach, pictorial materials were used progressively in qualitative studies. The "pictorial turn" was underpinned by MacInnis and Price's (1987) work and the relationship between imagery processing and consumer behavior was examined. Their primary purpose was to demonstrate that both imagery and discursive information were used in evaluating a product (Rodrigues et al. 2015). This research follows this stream and assesses the Algarve meanings through a content analysis of narratives and photo elicitation.

3 Method

Narrative research is the study of experience as a story (Clandinin 2006; Pinnegar and Daynes 2007), the study of stories (Polkinghorne 2007), the study of experience as it is lived—*D evelopment of Ecological Place Meaning In NY* (Clandinin and Rosiek 2007), or the study of descriptions of a series of events (Pinnegar and Daynes 2007). Narratives are coherent personal stories co-constructed by an interviewee and interviewer, and reflect the respondent's experiences and views related to research questions (Emerson and Frosh 2004).

Bloggers create an account which allows them to post their individual journeys or invite others to post photos, histories or comments. The users who participate in our epistemological blog were Portuguese and non-Portuguese who sought to answer the question *What does the Algarve have?* Name and email were the only personal data requested from participants. Photographs were posted to illustrate the content. Overall there are 54 blog entries between May 2011 and August 2014. For this analysis the sample was restricted to blogs written in English and Portuguese, to avoid the bias of translations, and as such residents and non-residents were included in the sample. Furthermore, the analysis comprises photos aiming to illustrate their sensorial experiences via a semiotic approach. The blog narratives and the photos were examined (3.5 thousand words, coded across five senses) and findings presented, aiming to capture the senses that are evident in their discourse and complemented by their photos.

Content analysis was used as a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context (Krippendorff 1989; Bardin 1979). As the objective is to interpret the content of narratives and pictures from our epistemological blog where the Algarve is the reference, content analysis is the most feasible tool. Similar studies on destination image apply the same methodology (Volo 2010; Wenger 2007).

The 54 images and photos included in the analysis were content analysed in terms of sense experiences evoked as applied in other studies of tourism photography (Fullwood et al. 2009; Garrod 2009; Larsen 2008; Lo et al. 2011; Markwell 1997; Sternberg 1997). Our methodology was performed at different levels: first, identification of which senses the photos of the destination activated; second, photos were aligned with discourse to ensure that what they (the photos) represent is what the bloggers say.

A complementary dual approach with pictorial image and discursive interpretation was adopted (Dann & Johanson 2009). As the production of pictorial and narrative are from the same blogger, the photo supported the textual. Each narrative has a photo that illustrates, evokes, represents sensations through our five senses. The theoretical framework underpinning this study is a multisensory paradigm, the rubrics of touch, smell, hearing, taste and sight (Lofoten 1999); it is only partially adhered to in the present narratives captured from the epistemological blog.

4   Results

The analysis of the 54 photos suggests that 87% correspond to the sense of sight, 30% correspond to taste, hearing and smell are equal at 37%, and touch has 43%. Furthermore, results show that sensorial experience arose in the combination of up to three senses with sight as the one that is combined with most others. The senses appear combined suggesting a semiotic approach to experiences. The photos motifs range from sea, beach, people, flora and fauna, climate, culture, emotions and activities among others less present, and were consistent with the most significant contents of the texts posted on the blog analyzed. In order to align the narratives of the tourists with the images to highlight the experiences memorized, we used a codebook that links verbs with statements to depict the most mentioned words when the topic is one of each sense supporting place attachment through memories. Place familiarity is defined as pleasant memories, achievement memories and environmental images associated with places (Hammitt et al. 2006), all of which will reinforce the bonds to a particular place.

Overall, the transcripts focus mostly on three topical issues when it comes to perceiving a destination: the place, the sea and the people. 53 out of 100 transcripts refer to up to three of these references recurrently, and these words account for 622 references over the 54 transcripts. Referring to the five senses, *sight* is the most mentioned (224 occurrences) and *smell* has the lowest number of references with only 59 occurrences. On the other hand, the Algarve appears to be related to the sense of *sight* with 62 references, followed by *taste* (48) and *touch* (47) and 21 and 12 references for the senses of *hearing* and *smell*. The word sea is related to all senses. The word people are also related to the senses with a special focus on sight: 20 out of 50.

4.1   Sight Sense

The visual sense is in almost all of the transcripts: 33 out of 54 transcripts refer to the *visual* signs of the destination. "Many say the Algarve is synonymous of crowds… it is, but most of the time these crowds are so nice to see…" As our results manifest both (textual and pictorial elements) it can be stated that *sight* sense or *visual* sense is the sense most present, as it also mentioned and occurred in other research (Pan and Ryan 2009; Dann & Johanson 2009). It should be noted that terms such as "Sea", "Photographs", "Beach/beaches", "Chimneys", "Fisherman" and "Ria Formosa" (see Figs. 1 and 2) have been mentioned and used several times to describe or contemplate the Algarve destination. The narratives show that there is a multi-sensory motivational appeal of novelty (*I'm invaded by strange sensations that I had not yet lived*) and nostalgia (*longing for this country will never pass*). These kinds of paradoxical sensations of freedom versus control recur. Their experience involved a kaleidoscopic perception and senses of a destination and
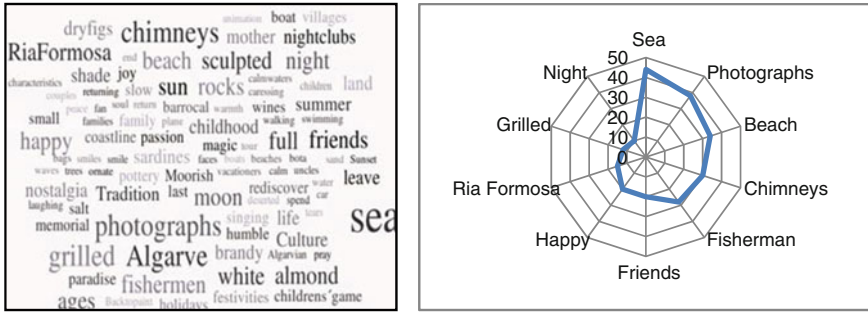
Fig. 1 Word cloud for sight and most frequently used words in tourists' narratives

Fig. 2 Picture for sight

most of the descriptions were experiential and subjective in nature (Pan et al. 2007). To enrich the *visual* sense *Reinhold* describes the Algarve as a destination full of contrasts. Although the idea of longing transcribed on the blog may not be authentic, and part of a genre or commonplace, it is nonetheless interesting to note that the narrator, although he knows little or nothing of the depicted location, will miss the sensations previously experienced.

4.2 Sense of Taste

The sense of *taste*, is the capacity to distinguish and name, or categorize, flavors (and to make other aesthetic judgments), rather than an actual multisensory experience, which involves the dissolving of the object into the subject (Borthwick 2000, p. 135). Food's sensory qualities embody forms and extend other aspects of culture. "… The Algarve is a place where you have tasty and unmistakable food! …". This statement placed the emphasis of the experience on taste (Seremetakis 1994) defends that both material objects such as food and the sense organs (eyes,
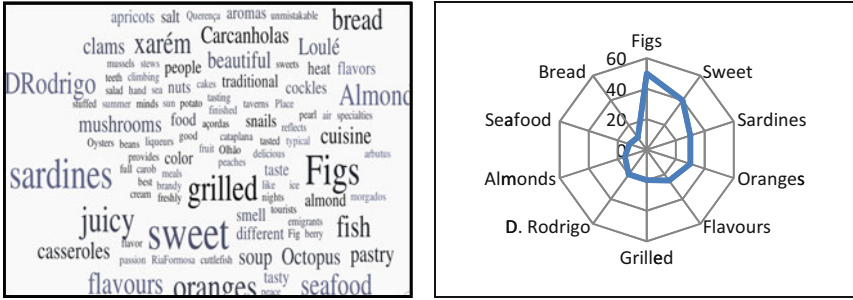
Fig. 3 Word cloud for taste and most frequently used words in tourists' narratives

Fig. 4 Picture for taste

mouth, etc.) are seen in rural Greece as actively containing and revealing meaning beyond human intention and consciousness; we agree with this point of view, and the sentences below are a good signs of it: *It has aromas and flavors of traditional Algarve cuisine,* (see Figs. 3 and 4) *like the beautiful taste of grilled sardines with your salad, the most famous pier of Portimão, the unique xarém with more traditional taverns in the cockles of Olhão.*

4.3 Sense of Touch

Largier (2010) mentioned that touch is the place where the soul takes shape in an experience. Through the word cloud research tool, the most frequently used words were "Algarve", "Wind in face"; "warmth", "temperatures", "sea", "hands", "beach" and "emotion/felt" (see Fig. 5). At the semiotic level, to feel or perceive by touching can be a physical or emotional sensation. The sensation of wind and warmth through physical contact (feeling the intensity of heat and the windy weather) transmits the density of local experience, the physical contact and the active encounters with the place support and enhance the emotions and memories associated with it: "The sand, the sea, the waves embrace my body" (see Fig. 6).

Fig. 5 Word cloud for touch and most frequently used words in tourists' narratives

Fig. 6 Picture for touch

4.4 Sense of Hearing

The most frequently used keywords demonstrated that bloggers express aspects of the Algarve experience, and particularly moments which are memorized through the sense of hearing. A few examples are listed and a visual presented in Fig. 7. Algarve blogs including mentions related to the sense of hearing and related to dance (e.g. "folklore", "corridinho" and "dance"), and related to the sea (e.g. "breeze" and "sound sea"), and related to nature (e.g. "storks" and "seagulls"), and related to the day-to-day (e.g. "talking loudly" and "plane sound").

We contextualized the 10 most frequently used words (Osborne et al. 2012; Sinclair 2008) and found that *hearing* is a sense that can be built through textual and visual descriptions (Mattern 2008). As it is possible to see through the photo (see Fig. 8) displayed above—where men and women dance the Algarve *folklore corridinho*, the sound of *corridinho* automatically appears among those who already know the dance. A good mode of sensory engagement thoroughly incorporates the sensorial experience. This traditional dance—*corridinho*—is a historical product and a performance that represents Algarvian contexts. The layering of different histories in one locale forms a kind of bedrock for future action (Cresswell 2004). The everyday Algarve life described through the *plane sound* and the *talking loudly* (the Algarvians speak loud and fast) is a dynamic idea of a quotidian place as Algarve is in nowadays, particularly on the coast.
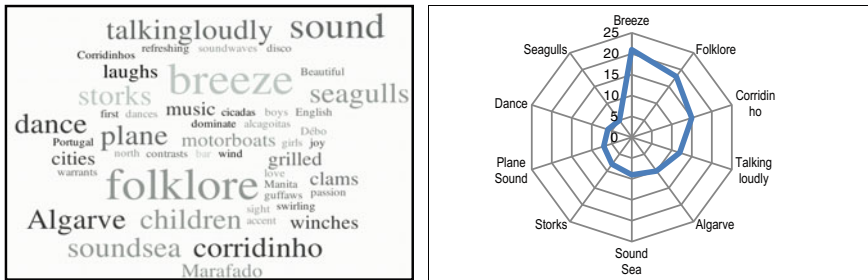
Fig. 7   Word cloud for hearing and most frequently used words in tourists' narratives

Fig. 8   Picture for hearing

4.5   Sense of Smell

Furthermore, "*the smell that is present all around us*" is a sign that the sense of smell drove their decisions (see Fig. 9). This photo (see Fig. 10) shows almond trees blooming along the Algarve, this tree that symbolizes the Algarve (Agarez 2013; Perez et al. 2015). Tourist sights are generally distanced from bad or offensive smells, although those for poorer visitors are less separated. Our first perception of smell is often carried out by eye and not through your nose (Rojeck and Urry 1997). The sight of something is just not enough. You have to smell it (Draaisma 2004). "A scent's ability to elicit personal memories is more important than mere positive hedonics and how pleasant it smells," as Sugiyama and other colleagues state (Sugiyama et al. 2015), added to the fact that the connection between memories and smell are extremely personal, as we can see from the extract below: "…Not release the smell of fig trees, the sound of cicadas, the north wind refreshing the torrid summer afternoons, the multiculturalism of its population, the blue sky, the endless sea and my childhood…"

Kahneman (2000, 2012, p. 511) also argues that there remain important reasons to pay attention to retrospective experience. From our results, the Algarve destination has been portrayed, described and represented mainly through remembered
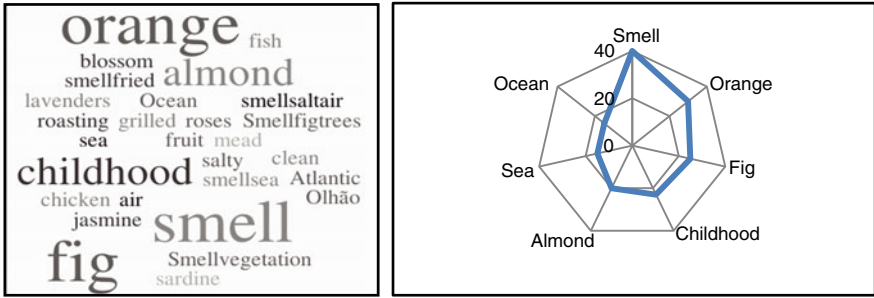
Fig. 9 Word cloud for smell and most frequently used words in tourists' narratives

Fig. 10 Picture for smell

experiences and those who participated in this study suggest that people choose through memory when deciding whether or not to repeat the experience (Wirtz et al. 2003).

5 Conclusion

This research approach has the advantage of recognizing the significance of destination memory not just at an individual level, but also at a social level. It is clear from the results analyzed that residents/tourists with their sense of themselves could be ambassadors and simultaneously bound up in the people's sense of the Algarve as a destination. Place attachment, like the destination place, is dynamic and has as much of the dweller's imagination as it does the repertoire of tourist experiences. As regards to Kahneman (2012), the *self of memory* does not prove, by itself, to be a full witness of the experiences as a whole; we must also concentrate on the *self of experience*. Our emotional state is much determined by what we expect and we usually concentrate on our present activity and the surrounding environment. We should also look at ourselves under a hybrid perspective and consider the welfare of the *self memory* and well-being of the *self of experience*. We should not only focus on the *self memory* in these testimonies to interpret a state of mind of a particular

tourist destination: it is more complex. The *self memory* and the *self experience* must both be considered as their interests do not always coincide as the *self experience* of living life and *self memory* is the one that keeps track and makes choices. The *self memory* is a construction; however, the distinctive features of how it assesses the episodes of life are characteristic of our memory.

The tourist destination must evoke novelty, but continuity must be at the same level in the imagery of those who experience it. Emotions do indeed play an important role in the tailoring of quality of life in relation to place attachment and belongings. This process of internalization, where the body incorporates the place that remains in memory and establishes ties and sense of place, arises related to a place whose social, cultural and spatial organization are not at all unknown. The most evident manifestation of emotions is the transcripts humanized by the verbalization of their sensorial experiences. These emotional states are also evident in photos that complement them and are totally aligned with what they declare, which confirms that a photo is worth more than a thousand words. This research is exploratory in its essence and biased by the nature of the blog. It is a step towards introducing pictures and emotions into tourism destination image research, throughout a semiotic approach where the pictorial and narratives play a role. That also affords advantages for a psychological understanding of emotional experiences as real, potent, and important aspects of conscious life, as well as for understanding the role of emotional experience in the economy of the mind and behavior. In a future study we would like to be able to apply some technologies mentioned in the latest research from Kim and Fesenmaier (2015) to measure different senses in tourist experiences and combine them. For academia, as in industry it is crucial to recognize how these sensory experiences play their role throughout the tourism experience process and transfer more meaning and be aware of tourism experiences and at the same time destination places gained by these means. The experience of this study showed that self-reflexivity and critical reflection are important for tourist destination revitalization efforts. A tourism destination must be memorable and evoke emotions: if this does not occur, its future will end soon.

References

Agapito, D., Mendes, J., & Valle, P. (2013). Exploring the conceptualization of the sensory dimension of tourist experiences. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 2*(2), 62–73.

Agarez, R. (2013). Regional identity for the leisure of travelers: Early tourism infrastructure in the Algarve (Portugal), 1940–1965. *The Journal of Architecture, 18*(5), 721–743.

Altman, I., & Low, S. M. (1992). *Place attachment*. New York: Plenum.

Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 26,* 268–897.

Bardin, L. (1979). *Análise de Conteúdo [Content Analysis]*. Edições 70, Lisboa.

Borthwick, F. (2000). Olfaction and taste: Invasive odors and disappearing objects. *Australian Journal of Anthropology, 11,* 127–140.

Bott, S., Cantrill, J. G., & Myers Jr., O. E. (2003). Place and the promise of conservation psychology. *Human Ecology Review, 10*, 100–112.

Clandinin, D. J. (Ed.). (2006). *Handbook of narrative inquiry: Mapping a methodology*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Clandinin, D. J., & Rosiek, J. (2007). Mapping a landscape of narrative inquiry. In *Handbook of narrative inquiry: Mapping a methodology*, (pp. 35–75).

Cohen, E. (1979). A phenomenology of tourist experiences. *Sociology, 13,* 179–201.

Cresswell, T. (2004). *Place a short introduction*. Malden: Blackwell Publishing.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). *Beyond boredom and anxiety*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cutler, S. Q., & Carmichael, B. A. (2010). The dimensions of the tourist experience. In *The tourism and leisure experience: Consumer and managerial perspectives* (pp. 3–26).

Damásio, A. R. (1999). How the brain creates the mind. *Scientific American-American Edition, 281,* 112–117.

Damásio, A. R. (2013). *Sentimento de si. Corpo, emoção e consciência*. Temas e debates. Círculo de Leitores.

Dann, G. M., & Johanson, L. B. (2009). Lost in translation: The changing verbal imagery of Norwegian "Lapland". *Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo*, *18*(4), 449–474.

Dolcos, F., & Cabeza, R. (2002). Event-related potentials of emotional memory: Encoding pleasant, unpleasant, and neutral pictures. *Cognitive, Affective & Behavioral Neuroscience, 2*(3), 252–263.

Draaisma, D. (2004). *Why life speeds up as you get older. How memory shapes our past*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Emerson, P., & Frosh, S. (2004). *Critical narrative analysis in psychology*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Feighey, W. (2003). Negative image? Developing the visual in tourism research. *Current Issues in Tourism, 6*(1), 76–85.

Friedland, R., & Boden, D. (1994). *NowHere: Space, time and modernity*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Fullwood, C., Sheehan, N., & Nicholls, W. (2009). Blog function revisited: A content analysis of MySpace blogs. *CyberPsychology & Behavior, 12*(6), 685–689.

Garrod, B. (2009). Understanding the relationship between tourism destination imagery and tourist photography. *Journal of Travel Research, 47*(3), 346–358.

Gibson, J. J. (1966). *The senses considered as perceptual systems*. USA: Houghton Mifflin.

Gieryn, T. (2000). A space for place in sociology. *Annual Review of Sociology, 26,* 463–496.

Gram, M. (2005). Family holidays. A qualitative analysis of family holiday experiences. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 5*(1), 2–22.

Grupta, A., & Ferguson, J. (1997). *Culture, Power, Place: Explorations in Critical Anthropology*. Durham NC: Duke University Press.

Gu, H., & Ryan, C. (2008). Place attachment, identity and community impacts of tourism-the case of a Beijing hutong. *Tourism Management, 29*(4), 637–647.

Halbwachs, M. (1980). *The collective memory* (Vol. 48, pp. 1937–1945) (F. J. Ditter, Jr. & V. Y. Ditter, Trans.). NY: Harper Colophone Books.

Hall, M. C., & Page, S. J. (2014). *The geography of tourism and recreation: Environment, place and space*. London and NY: Routledge.

Hammitt, W. E., Backlund, E. A., & Bixler, R. D. (2006). Place bonding for recreation places: Conceptual and empirical development. *Leisure Studies, 25*(1), 17–41.

Hogan, P. C. (2003). *The mind and its stories: Narrative universals and human emotion*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research, 9*(2), 132–140.

Hultén, B., Broweus, N., & Dijk, M. (2009). What is sensory marketing? *Sensory Marketing Palgrave Macmillan, 1,* 1–23.

Jacobsen, J. K. S. (2007). Use of landscape perception methods in tourism studies: A review of photo-based research approaches. *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment, 9*(3), 234–253.

Kahneman, D. (2000). Evaluation by moments: Past and future. In *Choices, values, and frames* (pp. 693–708).

Kahneman, D. (2011). *Thinking, fast and slow*. NY: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Kahneman, D. (2012). *A proposal to deal with questions about priming effects*. Retrieved from http://www.nature.com/polopoly_fs/7.6716.1349271308!/suppinfoFile/Kahneman%20Letter.pdf

Kim, J. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2015). Measuring emotions in real time implications for tourism experience design. *Journal of Travel Research, 54*(4), 419–429.

Krippendorff, K. (1989). Product semantics: A triangulation and four design theories. In S. VÃ¤evÃ¤ (Ed.), *Product semantic '89*. Helsinki, Finland: University of Industrial Arts. Retrieved from http://repository.upenn.edu/asc_papers/254

Krishna, A. (2012). An integrative review of sensory marketing: Engaging the senses to affect perception, judgment and behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 22*(3), 332–351.

Krishna, A., & Elder, R. (2010). The gist of gustation. In *Sensory marketing: Research on the sensuality of products* (pp. 281–297).

Largier, N. (2010). The plasticity of the Soul: Mystical darkness, touch, and aesthetic experience. *MLN, 125*(3), 536–551.

Larsen, S. (2007). Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(1), 7–18.

Larsen, J. (2008). Practices and flows of digital photography: An ethnographic framework. *Mobilities, 3*(1), 141–160.

Lindstrom, M. (2005). *Brand sense: How to build powerful brands through touch, taste, smell, sight & sound*. London, UK: Kogan Page Publishers.

Lo, I. S., McKercher, B., Lo, A., Cheung, C., & Law, R. (2011). Tourism and online photography. *Tourism Management, 32*(4), 725–731.

Lofoten, D. (1999). *Lofoten: The magic of the North*. Svolvær: Destination Lofoten.

Lombard, M. (2015). Constructing informality and ordinary places: A place-making approach to urban informal settlements. In *The city in urban poverty* (pp. 85–110). UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

MacCannell, D. (1973). Staged authenticity: Arrangements of social space in tourist settings. *American Journal of Sociology, 79,* 589–603.

MacInnis, D. J., & Price, L. L. (1987). The role of imagery in information processing: Review and extensions. *Journal of Consumer Research, 13,* 473–491.

MacKay, K. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1997). Pictorial element in destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 24*(3), 537–565.

Mannell, R. C., & Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1987). Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 14*(3), 314–331.

Manzo, L. C. (2003). Beyond house and haven: Toward a revisioning of emotional relationships with places. *Journal of environmental psychology, 23*(1), 47–61.

Markwell, K. W. (1997). Dimensions of photography in a nature-based tour. *Annals of Tourism Research, 24*(1), 131–155.

Mattern, S. (2008). Silent, invisible city: Mediating urban experience for the other senses. *Mediacity: Situations, Practices and Encounters* 155–176.

Morgan, P. (2010). Towards a developmental theory of place attachment. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 30*(1), 11–22.

Noy, C. (2007). The language(s) of the tourist experience: An autoethnography of the poetic tourist. In *The critical turn in tourism studies: Innovative research methodologies* (pp. 349–370).

Osborne, L. A., Noble, J. G., Lockhart-Jones, H. M., Middleton, R., Thompson, S., Maramba, I. D., et al. (2012). Sources of discovery, reasons for registration, and expectations of an internet-based register for multiple sclerosis: Visualizations and explorations of word uses and

contexts. *International Journal of Healthcare Information Systems and Informatics, 7*(3), 27–43.

Pan, B., MacLaurin, T., & Crotts, J. C. (2007). Travel blogs and the implications for destination marketing. *Journal of Travel Research, 46*(1), 35–45.

Pan, S., & Ryan, C. (2009). Tourism sense-making: The role of the senses and travel journalism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 26*(7), 625–639.

Pérez-Gómez A., Bleymehl K., Stein B., Pyrski M., Birnbaumer L., Munger S. D., et al. (2015). Innate predator odor aversion driven by parallel olfactory subsystems that converge in the ventromedial hypothalamus. *Current Biology, 25*, 1340–1346.

Pike, S., & Ryan, C. (2004). Destination positioning analysis through a comparison of cognitive, affective, and conative perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(4), 333–342.

Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). *The experience economy: Work is theatre & every business a stage*. USA: Harvard Business Press.

Pinnegar, S., & Daynes, J. G. (2007). Locating narrative inquiry historically. In *Handbook of narrative inquiry: Mapping a methodology* (pp. 3–34).

Polkinghorne, D. E. (2007). Validity issues in narrative research. *Qualitative Inquiry, 13*(4), 471–486.

Relph, E. (1976). *Place and placelessness*. London: Pion.

Rimé, B., Mesquita, B., Philippot, P., & Boca, S. (1991). Beyond the emotional event: Six studies on the social sharing of emotion. *Cognition and Emotion, 5*(5–6), 435–465.

Rodrigues, A., Correia, A. Kozak, M., & Tuohino, A. (2015). Lake-destination image attributes: content analysis of text and pictures. In A. Correia, J. Gnoth, M. Kozak, A. Fyall (Eds.), *Advances in marketing places and spaces, advances in culture, tourism and hospitality research* (Vol. 10, pp. 293–314). Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Rojeck, C., & Urry, J. (1997). *Transformations of travel and theory. Touring cultures: Transformations of travel and theory*. London and New York: Routledge.

Russell, J. A., & Snodgrass, J. (1987). Emotion and the environment. In D. Stokols & I. Altman (Eds.), *Handbook of environmental psychology*. New York: Wiley.

Ryan, J. K. (1997). Analysis of inventory models with limited demand information (Ph.D. Dissertation, Department of Industrial Engineering and Management Science, Northwestern University, Evanston, IL-Illinois).

Schmitt, B. (1999). Experiential marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management, 15*(1–3), 53–67.

Schmitt, B., & Simonson, A. (1997). *Marketing aesthetics: The strategic management of brands, identity, and image*. NY: The Free Press.

Seremetakis, C. N. (1994). *The senses still: Memory and perception as material culture in modernity*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview.

Smaldone, D., Harris, C., & Sanyal, N. (2005). An exploration of place as a process: The case of Jackson Hole, WY. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 25*(4), 397–414.

Smaldone, D., Harris, C., & Sanyal, N. (2008). The role of time in developing place meanings. *Journal of Leisure Research, 40*(4), 479.

Sternberg, E. (1997). The iconography of the tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research, 24*(4), 951–969.

Sugiyama, H., Oshida, A., Thueneman, P., Littell, S., Katayama, A., Kashiwagi, Hikichi, et al. (2015). Proustian products are preferred: The relationship between odor-evoked memory and product evaluation. *Chemosensory Perception, 8,* 1–10.

Till, K. E. (2012). Wounded cities: Memory-work and a place-based ethics of care. *Political Geography, 31*(1), 3–14.

Tuan, Yi-Fu. (1974). *Topophilia*. Prentice-Hall, NJ: Englewood Cliffs.

Volo, S. (2010). Bloggers' reported tourist experiences: Their utility as a tourism data source and their effect on prospective tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 16*(4), 297–311.

Wenger, A. (2007). Analysis of travel bloggers' characteristics and their communication about Austria as a tourism destination. *Journal Vacation Marketing, 14*(2), 169–176.

Wirtz, D., Kruger, J., Scollon, C. N., & Diener, E. (2003). What to do on spring break? The role of predicted, on-line, and remembered experience in future choice. *Psychological Science, 14*(5), 520–524.

Zatori, A. (2013). *Tourism Experience creation from a business perspective* (Ph.d. Thesis. Corvinus University of Budapest. Department of Economic Geography and Futures Studies Competence Centre for Tourism) http://phd.lib.uni-corvinus.hu/801/7/Zatori_Anita_den.pdf

Index

A

Affect Balance Scale, 151
Affective country image, 119, 120, 123–129
Affective image, 95, 100, 123
Algarve Regional Tourism Board, 179
Alternative medicine, 6
American Museum of Natural History, 37
Anti-aging, 6
Appalachian cuisine, 150
Art museums, 36
Atatürk, 38
Austria, 69, 70, 73, 74, 80
Austrian Alpine Club, 70, 73

B

Basic wellness, 25–28
Beauty, 6
    treatments, 8, 10
Behavioural intentions, 20, 21, 47, 49, 51–53,
    55, 57, 119, 121, 124–129, 167, 168, 172
Behavioural processes, 7
Belgium, 84
Blog entries, 180
Brand awareness, 49
Business tourism, 13

C

California Academy of Sciences, 36
Celtic summer event, 11
China, 12, 13
Co-creation, 69–74, 79, 80
Cognitive dissonance theory, 121
Cognitive image, 95
Commerciality, 9
Competitive advantage, 19, 28, 74, 80, 150,
    153
Competitive intensity, 5
Congruity theory, 121
Conscious decision making, 9

D

Decision making process, 84, 85, 90, 95, 105,
    106, 112, 165
Destination competitiveness, 106, 149–151,
    153, 154, 156–159
Destination experience, 165
Destination image, 49, 93–97, 100–103,
    105–109, 111, 116, 168, 173, 182, 183, 190
Destination life cycle, 49
Destination management, 150, 157
Destination marketing, 8, 49
Destination marketing organisations (DMOs),
    10, 12, 13, 15, 109, 115
Destination positioning, 49, 115
Detox packages, 11
Disneyland, 34
Domestic tourism (tourists), 163, 164, 169,
    171, 173
Doxey's irritation index, 151

Consumer animosity, 119–123, 126, 127, 129
Consumer behaviour, 48, 49, 57, 120, 152, 166
Consumer choices, 90
Consumer experiences, 152, 153
Consumption emotion scale, 167
Consumption experience, 7, 21
Contemporary museum, 35
Country image, 119, 120, 126, 128
Croatian Wellness Tourism Association, 23
Cross-selling strategies, 56
Cultural events, 47–50, 55–57
Cultural tourism, 49, 93, 94, 97
Customer behaviour, 21
Customer-dominant logic, 7, 15
Customer experience, 7
Customer involvement, 7
Customer satisfaction, 20, 21, 47, 55, 150
Customer segmentation, 8
Customer value, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 26–29