

CABI SERIES IN TOURISM MANAGEMENT RESEARCH

Visitor Experience Design

Edited by Noel Scott, Jun Gao and Jianyu Ma



VISITOR EXPERIENCE DESIGN



CABI Series in Tourism Management Research

General Editors:

Professor Eric Laws, Professor of Tourism, Siam University, Bangkok

Professor Noel Scott, Griffith Institute for Tourism, Griffith University, Australia

Since the mid-20th century, modern tourism has grown rapidly in extent and diversity, becoming increasingly competitive and volatile as it is impacted by climate change, new technologies, changing distribution systems and the opening of new markets. As a result, governments, tourism destinations and businesses need to improve their management capability and adopt best practices to survive. The purpose of this series is to provide tourism managers, administrators, specialists and advanced students with state-of-the-art research and strategic knowledge to enable them to thrive in dynamic and unpredictable environments. Contributions are based on critical and interdisciplinary research that combines relevant theory and practice, while placing case studies from specific destinations into an international context. The series presents research on the development and diffusion of best practice in business and destination management that fulfils the objective of environmental, sociocultural and economic sustainability at both the local and the global scale.

The cover design for this series depicts a generalized mosaic composed of many tiles. Metaphorically, this illustrates our philosophies that, while the various elements of tourism require specific study, it is the overall picture that is most significant, and that tourism is a very dynamic, complex and evolving industry. This series seeks to build a coherent approach to future tourism research through each individual title.

Titles available

1. *Tourism Crisis and Disaster Management in the Asia-Pacific*

Edited by Brent W. Ritchie and Kom Campiranon

2. *Destination Competitiveness, the Environment and Sustainability: Challenges and Cases*

Edited by Andres Artal-Tur and Metin Kozak

3. *Visitor Management in Tourism Destinations*

Edited by Julia N. Albrecht

4. *Sustainable Island Tourism: Competitiveness and Quality of Life*

Edited by Patrizia Modica and Muzaffer Uysal

5. *Visitor Experience Design*

Edited by Noel Scott, Jun Gao and Jianyu Ma

VISITOR EXPERIENCE DESIGN

Edited by

Noel Scott, Jun Gao and Jianyu Ma



CABI is a trading name of CAB International

CABI
Nosworthy Way
Wallingford
Oxfordshire OX10 8DE
UK

Tel: +44 (0)1491 832111
Fax: +44 (0)1491 833508
E-mail: info@cabi.org
Website: www.cabi.org

CABI
745 Atlantic Avenue
8th Floor
Boston, MA 02111
USA

T: +1 (617)682-9015
E-mail: cabi-nao@cabi.org

© CAB International 2017. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced in any form or by any means, electronically, mechanically, by photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the prior permission of the copyright owners.

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library.

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication data

Names: Scott, Noel, 1958- editor.

Title: Visitor experience design / edited by Noel Scott, Jun Gao, Jianyu Ma.

Description: Wallingford, Oxfordshire ; Boston, MA : CABI, 2017. |

Series: CABI series in tourism management research; 5 |

Includes bibliographical references and index.

Identifiers: LCCN 2017016221 (print) | LCCN 2017029225 (ebook) |

ISBN 9781786391902 (ePDF) | ISBN 9781786391919 (ePub) |

ISBN 9781786391896 (hbk: alk. paper)

Subjects: LCSH: Tourism--Psychological aspects. | Tourists--Psychology. |

Tourists--Attitudes. | Tourism--China.

Classification: LCC G155.A1 (ebook) | LCC G155.A1 V567 2017 (print) |

DDC 910.68/5--dc23

LC record available at <https://lccn.loc.gov/2017016221>

ISBN: 978 1 78639 189 6

Commissioning editor: Claire Parfitt

Editorial assistant: Emma McCann

Production editor: Alan Worth

Typeset by AMA DataSet Ltd, Preston, UK.

Printed and bound in the UK by CPI Group (UK) Ltd, Croydon, CR0 4YY.

Contents

Contributors	vii
PART I CREATING MEMORABLE EXPERIENCES – THEORIES AND FRAMEWORK	
1 Introduction: Creating Memorable Experiences <i>Jianyu Ma, Jun Gao and Noel Scott</i>	3
2 How Psychology Can Stimulate Tourist Experience Studies <i>Svein Larsen, Rouven Doran and Katharina Wolff</i>	13
3 Tourism Experience: A Review <i>Noel Scott and Dung Le</i>	30
PART II PRE-EXPERIENCE STAGE: CUSTOMER INPUTS	
4 Exploring Experience and Motivation Using Means-end Chain Theory <i>Shan Jiang</i>	53
5 Experiential Decision Choice <i>Liubov Skavronskaya, Dung Le, Brent Moyle and Noel Scott</i>	68
PART III ON-SITE EXPERIENCE	
6 Attentive Tourists: The Importance of Co-creative Experiences <i>Ana Claudia Campos, Julio Mendes, Patricia Valle and Noel Scott</i>	93
7 The Elicitation of Emotions <i>Jianyu Ma</i>	110

8	Measurement of Visitors' Emotion <i>Shanshi Li, Gabby Walters and Noel Scott</i>	125
9	Innovative Approaches to Researching Consumer Experience: An Evaluation and Comparison <i>Ying Wang, Wei Liu and Beverley Sparks</i>	136
10	Perceived Value of Destination Experiences in Zhouzhuang, China <i>Lihua Gao, Noel Scott and Peiyi Ding</i>	154
PART IV POST-EXPERIENCE STAGE: OUTCOMES		
11	Well-being Benefits from Mindful Experiences <i>Lynn I-Ling Chen, Noel Scott and Pierre Benckendorff</i>	175
12	Motivational Satisfaction and Emotional Outcomes from Experiences <i>Jianyu Ma</i>	189
13	The Meaning of a Destination Experience in Zhouzhuang, China <i>Lihua Gao</i>	201
14	Sharing Tourism Experiences: Literature Review and Research Agenda <i>Laurie Wu and Xiang (Robert) Li</i>	220
PART V EXPERIENCE DESIGN CASES		
15	Slow Food Tourism: Preferences and Behaviours <i>Kuan-Huei Lee</i>	237
16	Perceptions of the Trinidad Carnival Experience from International Travel Bloggers <i>Afiya Holder and Noel Scott</i>	248
PART VI CONCLUSION		
17	Conclusion: Where To From Here? <i>Noel Scott, Jun Gao and Jianyu Ma</i>	263
	Index	271

Contributors

- Pierre Benckendorff**, Tourism Cluster, Business School, Faculty of Business, Economics and Law, University of Queensland, St Lucia, Queensland 4072, Australia. E-mail: p.benckendorff@uq.edu.au
- Ana Claudia Campos**, Faculty of Economics, University of Algarve, Rua Manuel Gomes Guerreiro, 8000-810 Montenegro, Faro, Portugal. E-mail: aclaudiacampos@yahoo.co.uk
- Lynn I-Ling Chen**, Department of International Tourism Management, Tamkang University, Lanyang Campus, 180 Linwei Rd, Jiaoxi Township, Yilan County 262, Taiwan, R.O.C. E-mail: lynn.cheniling@gmail.com; lynnchen@mail.tku.edu.tw
- Peiyi Ding**, Tourism Confucius Institute, Gold Coast Campus, Griffith University, Southport, Queensland 4222, Australia. E-mail: p.ding@griffith.edu.au
- Rouven Doran**, Faculty of Psychology, University of Bergen, Christiesgate 12, N-5015 Bergen, Norway. E-mail: Rouven.Doran@uib.no
- Jun Gao**, Room 407, Building No. 12, Institute of Tourism, Shanghai Normal University, 100 Guilin Road, Shanghai 200234, China. E-mail: gaojun@shnu.edu.cn
- Lihua Gao**, School of Social Science, Soochow University, Level 4, Building 1005, Dushu Lake Campus, Soochow University, Suzhou 215123, China. E-mail: lihua-gao@hotmail.com
- Afiya Holder**, PO Box 864, Springwood, Queensland 4127, Australia. E-mail: afiya.holder@gmail.com
- Shan Jiang**, College of Resource Environment and Tourism, Capital Normal University, 105 West Third Ring Road North, Haidian District, Beijing 100048, China. E-mail: jiangshan@cnu.edu.cn
- Svein Larsen**, Faculty of Psychology, University of Bergen, Christiesgate 12, N-5015 Bergen, Norway. E-mail: Svein.Larsen@uib.no
- Dung Le**, Griffith Institute for Tourism, Gold Coast Campus, Griffith University, Southport, Queensland 4222, Australia. E-mail: dung.le@griffithuni.edu.au

- Kuan-Huei Lee**, Singapore Institute of Technology, 10 Dover Drive, Singapore 138683. E-mail: KuanHuei.Lee@SingaporeTech.edu.sg
- Shanshi Li**, School of Management, Xiamen University, 422 South Siming Road, 361005, Xiamen, China. E-mail: shanshi.li@hotmail.com
- Xiang (Robert) Li**, Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA 19122, USA. E-mail: tug28441@temple.edu; robertli@temple.edu
- Wei Liu**, Department of Tourism, Sport and Hotel Management, Griffith Business School, Gold Coast Campus, Griffith University, Southport, Queensland 4222, Australia. E-mail: wei.liu@griffith.edu.au
- Jianyu Ma**, Room 401, Building No. 12, Institute of Tourism, Shanghai Normal University, 100 Guilin Road, Shanghai 200234, China. E-mail: jianyu.ma@uqconnect.edu.au
- Julio Mendes**, Faculty of Economics, University of Algarve, Rua Manuel Gomes Guerreiro, 8000-810 Montenegro, Faro, Portugal. E-mail: jmendes@ualg.pt
- Brent Moyle**, Griffith Institute for Tourism, Gold Coast Campus, Griffith University, Southport, Queensland 4222, Australia. E-mail: b.moyle@griffith.edu.au
- Noel Scott**, Griffith Institute for Tourism, Gold Coast Campus, Griffith University, Southport, Queensland 4222, Australia. E-mail: noel.scott@griffith.edu.au
- Liubov Skavronskaya**, Department of Tourism, Sport and Hotel Management, Griffith Business School, Gold Coast Campus, Griffith University, Southport, Queensland 4222, Australia. E-mail: liubov.skavronskaya@griffithuni.edu.au
- Beverley Sparks**, Department of Tourism, Sport and Hotel Management, Griffith Business School, Gold Coast Campus, Griffith University, Southport, Queensland 4222, Australia. E-mail: b.sparks@griffith.edu.au
- Patricia Valle**, Faculty of Economics, University of Algarve, Rua Manuel Gomes Guerreiro, 8000-810 Montenegro, Faro, Portugal. E-mail: pvalle@ualg.pt
- Gabby Walters**, Tourism Cluster, Business School, Faculty of Business, Economics and Law, University of Queensland, St Lucia, Queensland 4072, Australia. E-mail: g.walters@uq.edu.au
- Ying Wang**, Department of Tourism, Sport and Hotel Management, Griffith Business School, Gold Coast Campus, Griffith University, Southport, Queensland 4222, Australia. E-mail: ying.wang@griffith.edu.au
- Katharina Wolff**, Faculty of Psychology, University of Bergen, Christiesgate 12, N-5015 Bergen, Norway. E-mail: Katharina.Wolff@uib.no
- Laurie Wu**, Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA 19122, USA. E-mail: laurie.wu@temple.edu

Part I Creating Memorable Experiences – Theories and Framework

This page intentionally left blank

1

Introduction: Creating Memorable Experiences

JIANYU MA,^{1*} JUN GAO¹ AND NOEL SCOTT²

¹Shanghai Normal University, Shanghai, China; ²Griffith University, Southport, Australia

1.1 Introduction

The aim of this book is to examine the best practice in creating and delivering exciting and memorable visitor experiences from a psychological perspective. Increasingly, visitor destinations, hotels, attraction operators and other service providers are seeking to improve visitors' experiences through their better design and management (Ooi, 2005). By enhancing their experiences, providers are better able to please their target markets, increase loyalty intentions and improve word of mouth recommendations (Carbone, 1998). In a recent example of experience design, the aviation company KLM gave personally relevant gifts to its customers who were waiting for a flight connection, in order to improve their transit experiences (KLM Royal Dutch Airlines, 2010). This experiment was aimed at creating positive emotions such as surprise and happiness. The Canadian Tourism Commission has developed an online 'toolkit' to help tourism businesses deliver compelling experiences (Arsenault, 2004). These examples reflect the growing importance of the experience economy (Pine and Gilmore, 1999) and of designing better visitor experiences.

Academics in a number of experience related subfields, such as structured leisure experiences (Duerden *et al.*, 2015) and design science (Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017), have sought to understand the nature and characteristics of memorable experiences. As later chapters of this volume will demonstrate, researchers from various disciplines such as sociology (Cohen, 1979) and anthropology (Abrahams, 1986) have examined visitor experiences, considering them as phenomena different from the routine experiences of daily life. Marketing and management researchers have explored the components of memorable experiences (Schmitt, 1999a), the needs they satisfy (Otto and

*Corresponding author e-mail: jianyu.ma@uqconnect.edu.au

Brent Ritchie, 1996; Kim *et al.*, 2012), the stages in their formation (Aho, 2001) and how they influence future travel intentions (Ryan, 2000). However, these approaches are primarily descriptive and do not provide an explanation for how and why experiences are evaluated and appreciated. The conceptualization of, and theorizing about, experiences, methodological development and exploration of the design and delivery of visitor experiences require attention (Ritchie *et al.*, 2011).

Difficulties in conceptualizing tourism experiences are in part due to the subjectivity of an individual's response to a particular situation. Experiences arise out of a visitor's individual interpretation of an external stimulus based on their personal, social and cultural background (Ooi, 2005). Indeed, a tourism experience is suggested as 'fundamentally subjective . . . [and] shaped by three things — what occurred, the meaning that the service provider applies to what occurred, and the interpretation the consumer gives to what occurred, both during and after the experience' (Ritchie *et al.*, 2011, p. 433). In this book, recent findings from cognitive psychology provide a basis for a better understanding of the antecedents of a memorable experience. This in turn will help managers to determine the effectiveness of specific experiential stimuli, allowing them to achieve the required experiential outcomes.

1.2 Tourism Experiences

The research roots of consumption experience can be traced back to the 1950s, when Abbott (1955) notes that:

What people really desire are not products but satisfying experiences. Experiences are attained through activities. In order that activities may be carried out, physical objects or the services of human beings are usually needed . . . People want products because they want the experience-bringing services which they hope the products will render.

(pp. 39–40)

In defining 'experience', the word can be used as a noun or a verb and invokes attributes such as subjectivity, involvement, emotion and learning (Gao *et al.*, 2010). When it is used as a noun, it is generally describing those emotional, spiritual, psychological or learning outcomes that result from a dynamic process of a person's involvement in activities. When used as a verb, experience describes a transformation process that has happened in the past, embodies consumers' participation and leads to the aforesaid outcomes (Table 1.1). In this volume, experience per se for consumers is considered distinct from goods or services. Due to its subjectivity, emotional states play a significant role in making an experience memorable (Zehrer, 2009). However, it should be noted that physical goods and a functional service are not completely unrelated to an experience (Knutson *et al.*, 2006), but instead may be seen as the media used to involve the visitor in an experience; they must be regarded as a part, but only a part, of an experience. In other words, an experience has other components, apart from those of the goods or services, which can provide memorable sensations for consumers.

Table 1.1. Definitions of an experience (from Gao *et al.*, 2010).

Author (year)	Definition	n/v ^a	Attributes ^b			
			S	I	E	L
Dewey (1963, p. 26)	'Engaging in an experience involves progression over time, anticipation, emotional involvement, a uniqueness that makes it stand out from the ordinary and it reaches some sort of completion'	v	●	●	●	●
Cohen (1979, p. 182)	'Travelling for pleasure (as opposed to necessity) beyond the boundaries of one's life-space assumes that there is some experience available "out there", which cannot be found within the life-space, and which makes travel worthwhile'	n	●	●	●	
Hirschman and Holbrook (1986, p. 236)	'The long sought-after consumption experience must be viewed as an emergent property that results from the inter-relationships and overlaps among person, environment, thought, emotion, activity and value'	n	●	●	●	
Otto and Ritchie (1996, p. 166)	'The "experience" of leisure and tourism can be described as the subjective mental state felt by participants'	v	●	●	●	
Pine and Gilmore (1999)	'An experience occurs when a company intentionally uses services as the stage and goods as props to engage individual customers in a way that creates a memorable event'	v	●	●		
Schmitt (1999b, p. 57)	'Experiences occur as a result of encountering, undergoing, or living through things. Experiences provide sensory, emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and relational values that replace functional values'	n	●	●	●	
Schänzel and McIntosh (2000, p. 37)	'"Experiences" can be defined as "mental, spiritual and physiological outcomes" resulting from on-site recreation engagements'	n	●	●	●	●
Haeckel <i>et al.</i> (2003, p. 18)	'By "total experience" we mean the feelings customers take away from their interaction with a firm's goods, services and "atmospheric" stimuli'	n	●	●	●	
Smith (2003, p. 233)	'Experience is the outcome of participation in a set of activities with a social context'	n	●	●		
Sundbo and Hagedorn-Rasmussen (2008)	'[Experience is] a mental journey that leaves the customer with memories of having performed something special, having learned something or just having fun'	v	●	●	●	●
Verhoef <i>et al.</i> (2009, p. 32)	'The customer experience construct is holistic in nature and involves the customer's cognitive, affective, emotional, social and physical responses to the retailer'	n	●	●	●	●

^aExperience is used as a noun (n) or a verb (v). ^bS, Subjective; I, Involvement; E, Emotional; L, Learning.

1.2.1 Tourism as experiences

Experience research in tourism began as early as the 1960s, when Clawson (1963) wrote about recreation experiences and Boorstin (1964) commented on authenticity with regard to tourist experiences (Jennings *et al.*, 2009). In the 1970s, tourism was identified as providing an experience by a number of authors (MacCannell, 1976; Dann, 1977; Cohen, 1979). Pine and Gilmore (1999) provided an economic analysis of the growth of US leisure and tourism attractions, such as theme parks, concerts, cinemas and sports events, and considered that these types of businesses all offered valued experiences which were unique, memorable and engaged the individual in a personal way. They proposed experience design principles that are particularly relevant to the tourism industry (Hayes and MacLeod, 2007) which have, arguably, been long practised in the visitor attractions sector. An example is the Disney Corporation providing successful themed experiences since the 1950s (Bryman, 2003). Clearly the concept of the experience economy is closely related to tourism both in its origins and its implications (Morgan *et al.*, 2009).

Tourism is a quintessential experience economy offering. The experience economy concept provides dimensions for interpreting tourist experience (Richards, 2001). On the one hand, tourism is mainly concerned with the tourist experience since it is involved with visiting, seeing, learning, enjoying and living in a different mode of life (Stamboulis and Skayannis, 2003). On the other hand, a visitor's experience can also impact on their learning and subsequent behaviour (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, tourism may be considered as a type of social-psychological experience (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991), and 'primarily sells a "staged" experience . . . [it's] central productive activity [is] the creation of the touristic experience' (Sternberg, 1997, pp. 952, 954). In this sense, tourism is all about experiences (Arsenault, 2004), and everything that tourists go through can be considered experience – behavioural or perceptual, cognitive or emotional, expressed or implied. Clearly, the core of tourism, the tourist experience, is practically important as well as having been maintained as an academic theme over the past five decades.

1.2.2 What is a tourist experience?

This book takes a psychological view of tourist experiences. In Chapter 2, Larsen, Doran and Wolff discuss the ontology, epistemology and methodology appropriate for the study of memorable experiences from a psychological perspective. In Chapter 3, Scott and Le review the theoretical literature of the tourism experience and highlight the relevance of various psychological theories and concepts in understanding tourist experiences. These authors consider that psychological theory is important as a starting point in designing research studies into the tourist experience, and that methodological stringency and reflections based on standard accepted methods of science are vital for developing a cumulative knowledge base. Further, they infer that it is in this manner that tourism may aspire to legitimate disciplinary status and create impact. A number of the other chapters, although not all, ascribe to this philosophical orientation.

Within this psychological perspective of experience, visitors travel to a tourism setting, whether it be an attraction, hotel, destination or other type. There they perceive and attend to various stimuli within this setting or 'experiencescape' (O'Dell and Billing, 2005). Similar to the concept of servicescape, an experiencescape is a combination of technical, functional and experiential attributes staged in a process involving supplier-created meaning, service and goods (Gao *et al.*, 2010). Attention is a collection of neural and cognitive processes which influence what will be perceived, encoded and recalled in our minds (Campos *et al.*, 2016). Attentive behaviour is triggered through bottom-up exogenous stimuli in the environment; or top-down, according to a visitor's motivations, interests and values. The perceptions and sensory data attended to are then processed with reference to the visitor's personal mental schema. Such schema relate the visitor's cultural background, perceived symbols; and recalled stories, attitudes and attributes, to provide contextual meaning to their conscious experience. Importantly, the motivation and goals of the visitor influence how the stimuli are perceived, attended to and appraised. Chapter 6 discusses the effect of attention further. It is important to emphasize here that experiences do not create a particular meaning that an individual receives; rather, individual experiences involve appraisal and interpretation (Fournier, 1991).

Implicit in the individual nature of an experience is that some process of cognition and appraisal stands between perception of sensory stimuli and consequent psychological outcomes or reactions such as elicitation of emotion, feelings, evaluations of value or satisfaction, or learning. The importance of mental appraisal of stimuli can be found in the definition of an emotion, consistent with a cognitive appraisal theory of emotion as discussed in Chapter 7. An emotion is a:

mental state of readiness that arises from cognitive appraisals of events or thoughts; has a phenomenological tone; is accompanied by physiological processes; is often expressed physically (e.g., in gestures, posture, facial features, heart rate increases or pupil dilation); and may result in specific actions to affirm or cope with the emotion, depending on its nature and meaning for the person having it.

(Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999, p. 184)

Surprisingly, while it is self-evident that tourism is a pleasurable experience which should produce positive emotions, when we turn to the tourism and services literature to try to understand how such pleasurable emotions are produced, we find a lack of supporting theory. Almost without exception, the tourism literature appears to assume that emotions from tourism or services encounters are inherent in the service attributes themselves (Adhikari *et al.*, 2013; Ali *et al.*, 2015; Hosany *et al.*, 2015; Tasci and Ko, 2016). This view ignores the role of the consumer in the elicitation of emotion and, more importantly, a significant body of relevant theory and practice from psychology and neuroscience, including cognitive appraisal theory. Adopting cognitive appraisal theory provides an explanation as to why two tourists may have different emotional reactions (or no emotional reaction at all) during the same experience. Although certain positive experiences may be *usually* associated with particular emotional responses (i.e. delight), such experiences do not *necessarily* elicit that emotion. Instead, emotions are elicited by a cognitive process of interpretation, evaluation and appraisal.

In the on-site experience the visitor engages in a co-creation process of more or less intensity. Pine and Gilmore (1999) use the metaphor of a theatre for this process but others emphasize co-creation of the experience between the visitor and the staff members (Hjalager and Konu, 2011), other visitors (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009; Rihova *et al.*, 2013) and information technology (Cabiddu *et al.*, 2013). From a psychological perspective, co-creation creates attention (Chapter 6) and influences the type of immediate sensory stimuli that are perceived and appraised by the customer (Ma *et al.*, 2013).

The emotional, spiritual, learning or other psychological outcomes elicited from an experience by an individual in the course of the process of an experience must be encoded in memory to be remembered. The immediate outcomes of an experience include transfer into short-term memory of aspects of the experience, emotional responses determined by cognitive appraisal outcomes and perhaps change in attitude towards the experience overall. The particular aspects of an experience remembered are subject to a number of biases: for example, more emotional, goal congruent or 'peak' experiences tend to be remembered better, leading to a unique outcome for every person. Long-term memories of an experience may be formed, along with summative evaluations of satisfaction and perceived value. Only a small proportion of short-term memories are transferred into long-term memory and it is these which, if recollected, may be called memorable experiences. These memories may be reinforced by mementos or souvenirs long after the experience. The process of a recollection of a memory is reconstructive and subject to psychological biases. It is also important to distinguish between memories of an event and memories of an evaluation of an event. Thus we may not recollect an experience but remember that the experience was valuable.

A general organizing framework for an on-site experience process is given in Fig. 1.1. The first components of experience are the motivation and goals of the

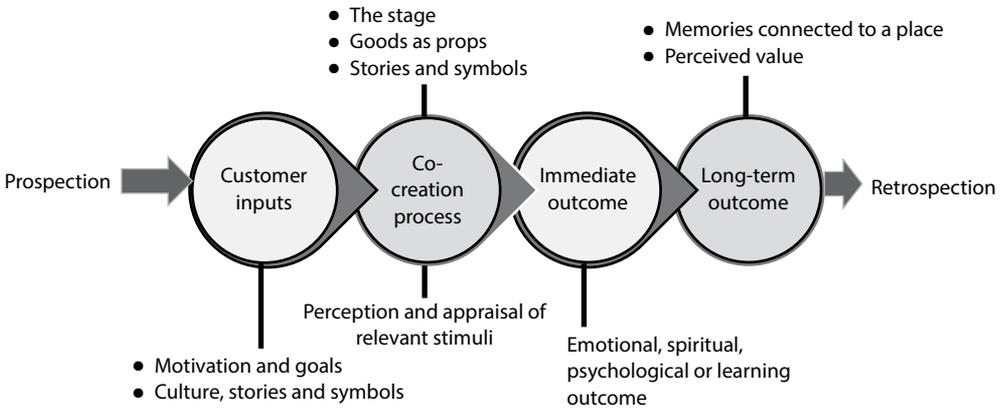


Fig. 1.1. A psychological model of the tourist experience.

visitor, along with the knowledge embedded in culture stories and symbols that are relevant to the context. These affect the visitor's interest and engagement in, and their absorption of, the experience; and influence what they pay attention to during the experience. The prior knowledge of the visitor is also important; for example, what costumes, actions, symbols, stories, myths and other stimuli a visitor will recognize and understand. See Chapter 3 for further discussion of this approach.

The perspective on psychological processing of tourism experience discussed above is not based on tourist experiences as, fundamentally, the process of attention, perception, cognitive appraisal, emotion elicitation, reaction and memory is the same as that occurring each and every moment of our normal life. This is the accepted cognitive psychological model of an individual's endogenous mental activities; thus an experience can also be described as normal processes of consciousness.

1.2.3 What is a designed tourist experience?

What then is a designed tourist experience? Here we may contrast a 'designed' tourist experience with a 'wild' experience. A wild experience may be one in which there is no intent or attempt to influence or create a particular intermediate or long-term outcome (Scott *et al.*, 2009). A designed experience involves the conscious creation of an experiencescape that enhances the likelihood of a visitor eliciting a particular meaningful and valuable consumer experience, hence creating a memorable outcome. A designed experience is planned and evoked through various contextual elements (Tussyadiah, 2014). Carbone and Haeckel (1994, p. 9) consider that designing an experience begins with 'the deliberate setting of a targeted customer perception'. It is a tourist-focused approach to designing and delivering tourism experiences (Fynes and Lally, 2008). Chapter 6 in this volume demonstrates how visitors can establish linkage between the attributes of the tourism destination and the visitors' subjective experiential outcomes.

To capitalize on the growing market for tourist experiences, business managers are keen to better explore, observe and understand visitors, monitor and identify problems and deliver better and meaningful experiential outcomes. A number of techniques have been used to improve experience, including psychophysiological techniques. Chapters 8 and 9 in the second section of this volume discuss the up-to-date methods and tools used in the understanding and delivering of experiences. In Chapter 4, means-end analysis is used to understand the meaning of a travel experience; while in Chapter 10, in-depth interviews are used. The outcomes from a tourist experience include well-being (Chapter 11), satisfaction (Chapter 12), perceived value (Chapter 13) and sharing (Chapter 14).

Two case studies are provided. Chapter 15 examines the effect of the decision making process and activity experiences in the destination on slow food travel experiences. The case study uses concepts like motivations, preferences as selective attentions, values and meanings in the context of slow food travel and describes the psychological characteristics of slow food members. Chapter 16 provides a case from Trinidad from the perspective of experience provider and focuses on international travel bloggers' perceptions of Carnival. This chapter applies the strategic experiential model (Schmitt, 1999a) to evaluate the visitors' immediate outcomes.

Table 1.2. Chapter structure.

	Pre-stage experience customer inputs	On-site experience: co-creation process	Post-experience outcomes
Experience theory	Chapters 1 and 2		
Methodology	Chapters 3, 7 and 8		
Decision making	Chapter 4		
Goals and motivation	Chapter 3	Chapter 6	
Attention and perception		Chapter 5	
Emotion		Chapters 6 and 7	Chapter 11
Meaning and value	Chapter 3	Chapter 9	Chapters 10, 11, 12 and 13
Cases	Chapters 14, 15 and 16		
Future research	Chapter 17		

1.3 Structure of the Book's Chapters

The structure of the chapters in this book is based on the conceptual model presented in Table 1.2. It consists of six parts, the first providing the theories and frameworks of the tourist experience. The next three parts examine the pre-experience stage, on-site co-creation processes and post-experience outcomes. Part V provides cases of specific tourism experiences; while, in Part VI, the final chapter provides a conclusion and thoughts on future research.

In the following chapters, the editors provide an integrated and cohesive framework with which to study tourism experiences based mainly, but not exclusively, on a cognitive psychology perspective.

References

- Abbott, L. (1955) *Quality and Competition: An Essay in Economic Theory*. Columbia University Press, New York.
- Abrahams, R.D. (1986) Ordinary and extraordinary experience. In: Turner, V. and Bruner, E.M. (eds) *The Anthropology of Experience*. University of Illinois Press, Urbana, Illinois, pp. 45–73.
- Adhikari, A., Basu, A. and Raj, S. (2013) Pricing of experience products under consumer heterogeneity. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 33, 6–18.
- Aho, S.K. (2001) Towards a general theory of touristic experiences: modelling experience process in tourism. *Tourism Review* 56(3–4), 33–37.
- Ali, F., Ryu, K. and Hussain, K. (2015) Influence of experiences on memories, satisfaction and behavioral intentions: a study of creative tourism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 33(1), 85–100.
- Arsenault, N. (2004) *Defining Tomorrow's Tourism Product*. Canadian Tourism Commission, Ottawa, Canada.
- Bagozzi, R.P., Gopinath, M. and Nyer, P.U. (1999) The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 27(2), 184–206.
- Ballantyne, R., Packer, J. and Sutherland, L.A. (2011) Visitors' memories of wildlife tourism: implications for the design of powerful interpretive experiences. *Tourism Management* 32(4), 770–779.

- Binkhorst, E. and Den Dekker, T. (2009) Agenda for co-creation tourism experience research. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 18(2–3), 311–327.
- Boorstin, C. (1964) *The Image: A Guide to Pseudo-events in American Society*. Harper & Row, New York.
- Bryman, A. (2005) *Disney and His Worlds*. Taylor & Francis e-Library, Routledge, New York.
- Cabiddu, F., Lui, T.-W. and Piccoli, G. (2013) Managing value co-creation in the tourism industry. *Annals of Tourism Research* 42, 86–107.
- Campos, A.C., Mendes, J., Valle, P. and Scott, N. (2016 online) Co-creation experiences: attention and memorability. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 33(9), 1309–1336. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2015.1118424
- Carbone, L.P. (1998) Total customer experience drives value. *Management Review* 87(7), 62–63.
- Carbone, L.P. and Haeckel, S.H. (1994) Engineering customer experiences. *Marketing Management* 3(3), 8–19.
- Clawson, M. (1963) *Land and Water for Recreation: Opportunities, Problems, and Policies*. Rand McNally, Chicago, Illinois.
- Cohen, E. (1979) A phenomenology of tourist experiences. *Sociology* 13(2), 179–201.
- Dann, G. (1977) Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 4, 184–194.
- Dewey, J. (1963) *Experience and Education*. Collier Books, New York.
- Duerden, M.D., Ward, P.J. and Freeman, P.A. (2015) Conceptualizing structured experiences: Seeking interdisciplinary integration. *Journal of Leisure Research* 47(5), 601–620.
- Dunn Ross, E.L. and Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1991) Sightseeing tourists' motivation and satisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(2), 226–237.
- Fournier, S. (1991) A meaning-based framework for the study of consumer-object relations. *Advances in Consumer Research* 18(1), 736–742.
- Fynes, B. and Lally, A.M. (2008) Innovation in services: from service concepts to service experiences. In: Hefley, B. and Murphy, W. (eds) *Service Science, Management and Engineering Education for the 21st Century*. Springer, New York, pp. 329–333.
- Gao, L., Scott, N. and Ding, P. (2010) Design of memorable cultural heritage attraction experiences for tourists. In: Nguyen, V.C. (ed.) *Proceedings of the International Scientific Conference: Culture in the Integrated World*. Hanoi University of Culture, Hanoi, Vietnam, pp. 330–348.
- Haeckel, S.H., Carbone, L.P. and Berry, L.L. (2003) How to lead the customer experience to create a total brand experience, firms must provide the right directions. *Marketing Management* 12(1), 18–23.
- Hayes, D. and MacLeod, N. (2007) Packaging places: designing heritage trails using an experience economy perspective to maximize visitor engagement. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 13(1), 45–58.
- Hirschman, E.C. and Holbrook, M.B. (1986) Expanding the ontology and methodology of research on the consumption experience. In: Brinberg, D. and Lutz, R.J. (eds) *Perspectives on Methodology in Consumer Research*. Springer-Verlag, New York, pp. 213–251.
- Hjalager, A. and Konu, H. (2011) Co-branding and co-creation in wellness tourism: the role of cosmetics. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 20(8), 879–901.
- Hosany, S., Prayag, G., Deesilatham, S., Caušević, S. and Odeh, K. (2015) Measuring tourists' emotional experiences: further validation of the destination emotion scale. *Journal of Travel Research* 54(4), 482–495.
- Jennings, G., Lee, Y.S., Ayling, A., Lunny, B., Cater, C. et al. (2009) Quality tourism experiences: reviews, reflections, research agendas. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 18(2), 294–310.
- Kim, J. and Fesenmaier, D.R. (2017) Tourism experience and tourism design. In: Fesenmaier, D.R. and Xiang, Z. (eds) *Design Science in Tourism: Foundations of Destination Management*. Springer International Publishing, Cham, Switzerland, pp. 17–29.
- Kim, J.-H., Ritchie, J.R.B. and McCormick, B. (2012) Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research* 51(1), 12–25.
- KLM Royal Dutch Airlines (2010) KLM surprise. Available at: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pqHWAE8GDEk>, accessed 14 March 2017.

- Knutson, B.J., Beck, J.A., Kim, S.I. and Cha, J. (2006) Identifying the dimensions of the experience construct. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing* 15(3), 31–47.
- Ma, J., Gao, J., Scott, N. and Ding, P. (2013) Customer delight derived from theme park experiences: the antecedents of delight based on cognitive appraisal theory. *Annals of Tourism Research* 42, 359–381.
- MacCannell, D. (1976) *The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class*. Schocken Books, New York.
- Morgan, M., Elbe, J. and de Esteban Curiel, J. (2009) Has the experience economy arrived? The views of destination managers in three visitor-dependent areas. *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research* 11(2), 201–216.
- O'Dell, T. and Billing, P. (eds) (2005) *Experiencescapes; Tourism, Culture and Economy*. Copenhagen Business School Press, Kage, Denmark.
- Ooi, C.S. (2005) A theory of tourism experiences: the management of attention. In: O'Dell, T. and Billing, P. (eds) *Experiencescapes: Tourism, Culture and Economy*. Copenhagen Business School Press, Kage, Denmark, pp. 51–68.
- Otto, J.E. and Brent Ritchie, J.R. (1996) The service experience in tourism. *Tourism Management* 17(3), 165–174.
- Pine, B.J. and Gilmore, J.H. (1999) *The Experience Economy: Work is Theatre and Every Business a Stage*. Harvard Business School Press, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Richards, G. (2001) The experience industry and the creation of attractions. In: Richards, G. (ed.) *Cultural Attractions and European Tourism*. CABI, Wallingford, UK, pp. 55–69.
- Rihova, I., Buhalis, D., Moital, M. and Gouthro, M.B. (2013) Social layers of customer-to-customer value co-creation. *Journal of Service Management* 24(5), 553–566.
- Ritchie, J.R.B., Tung, V.W.S. and Ritchie, R.J.B. (2011) Tourism experience management research: emergence, evolution and future directions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 23(4), 419–438.
- Ryan, C. (2000) Tourist experiences, phenomenographic analysis, post-postivism and neural network software. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 2(2), 119–131.
- Schanzel, H.A. and McIntosh, A.J. (2000) An insight into the personal and emotive context of wildlife viewing at the Penguin Place, Otago Peninsula, New Zealand. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 8(1), 36–52.
- Schmitt, B. (1999a) Experiential marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management* 15(1–3), 53–67.
- Schmitt, B.H. (1999b) *Experiential Marketing: How to get Customers to Sense, Feel, Think, Act and Relate to your Company and Brands*. The Free Press, New York.
- Scott, N., Laws, E. and Boksberger, P. (2009) The marketing of hospitality and leisure experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 18(2–3), 1–12.
- Smith, W.A. (2003) Does B&B management agree with the basic ideas behind experience management strategy? *Journal of Business & Management* 9(3), 233–247.
- Stamboulis, Y. and Skayannis, P. (2003) Innovation strategies and technology for experience-based tourism. *Tourism Management* 24(1), 35–43.
- Sternberg, E. (1997) The iconography of the tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(4), 951–969.
- Sundbo, J. and Hagedorn-Rasmussen, P. (2008) The backstaging of experience production. In: Sundbo, J. and Darmer, P. (eds) *Creating Experiences in the Experience Economy*. Edward Elgar Publishing, Cheltenham, UK, pp. 83–110.
- Tasci, A.D.A. and Ko, Y.J. (2016) A fun-scale for understanding the hedonic value of a product: the destination context. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 33(2), 162–183.
- Tussyadiah, I.P. (2014) Toward a theoretical foundation for experience design in tourism. *Journal of Travel Research* 53(5), 543–564.
- Verhoef, P.C., Lemon, K.N., Parasuraman, A., Roggeveen, A., Tsiros, M. and Schlesinger, L.A. (2009) Customer experience creation: determinants, dynamics and management strategies. *Journal of Retailing* 85(1), 31–41.
- Zehrer, A. (2009) Service experience and service design: concepts and application in tourism SMEs. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal* 19(3), 332–349.

2

How Psychology Can Stimulate Tourist Experience Studies

SVEIN LARSEN,* ROUVEN DORAN AND KATHARINA WOLFF

University of Bergen, Norway

2.1 Introduction

‘The pool . . . is not really designed for swimming’, soliloquizes the character Roger Sheldrake (PhD), in David Lodge’s wonderful novel *Paradise News*. Dr Sheldrake concludes that swimming in the swimming pool ‘is not as much swimming as immersion. A kind of baptism’. He knows all this from his researches. Indeed, the good doctor has discovered that ‘the categorization of tourist motivation into either “wanderlust” or “sunlust” (Gray, 1970)¹ is unsatisfactory’ (Lodge, 1992, p. 112), and (referring to himself) he asserts that ‘two basic types of holiday forms may be discriminated . . . holiday as pilgrimage and holiday as paradise’ (Lodge, 1992, p. 242). Lodge (1992, pp. 162–164) also lets Dr Sheldrake inform the novel’s main character about research methods in tourism research. In a witty, yet insightful, sequence where Sheldrake extrapolates highlights of research methods, the main character of the book suggests a *simpler* way to gather data. Dr Sheldrake is offended by this outrageous suggestion:

‘That’s not the way we do field-work,’ he says. ‘The aim is to identify totally with your subjects, to experience the milieu they live as they experience it, in this case let the word “Paradise” impinge on your consciousness gradually, by a slow process of incrementation.’

(Lodge, 1992, p. 132)

It is true that tourism research sometimes is problematic and sometimes confusing and sometimes both. This may partly be due to its multi-disciplinary character, its lack of theory and its plethora of less than rigorous methodologies. It is probably also true that some, or many, of our colleagues representing the generic social sciences do not respect tourism research because, among other things, it is perceived as being contaminated by disciplines other than their own, and because tourism research

*Corresponding author e-mail: Svein.Larsen@uib.no

sometimes treats generic theories and findings shallowly and less than strictly in terms of terminology. At the same time the domain that constitutes tourism research is characterized by ambiguities such as what the tourist product is, what customers expect, experience and remember, the (alleged) ephemeral nature of the tourist experience, the immediacy of production and consumption and the dependency on emotions and feelings (e.g. Urry, 1990, p. 66 ff.). In addition, tourism researchers sometimes complicate matters to excess, as exemplified by Dr Sheldrake in Lodge's novel, who fails to appreciate the simple idea that for most tourists a swimming pool is a swimming pool. In this way, some, but certainly not all, researchers within the tourism domain alter their focus of attention from the level of observable and measurable aspects to abstract formulations of the causes of this observable 'reality'. Such mental gymnastics may sometimes ignore the obvious fact that reality itself is beyond reach, but that *observations* are not. This is why we, in the present paper, discuss various forms of observations within the psychological study of tourist experiences. As indicated, we suspect that the lack of respect shown towards tourism research may be due to factors linked to ambiguity of concepts, lack of methodological rigour and the impression that in tourism research 'anything goes'.² In the present chapter we attempt to clarify some of these concepts and their relation to each other, and in a blatantly open attempt at discriminating good and valid observations from nonsensical observations (such as 'auto-ethnographical' data), we propose a more coherent approach for tourism studies in general; those based on sound ontological and methodological principles. Our main claim is that observations should form the basis of our attempts to formulate theories of tourists and their behaviours – not 'reality' as experienced by our inner selves (although we do not discredit the inner self in any way). We know that self-reported causes of behaviour and mental life are flawed by a number of cognitive and emotional phenomena (e.g. Nisbett and Wilson, 1977; Kruger and Dunning, 1999; Stanovich, 2014), and that our misunderstanding of ourselves as rational *introspectors* into our own inner worlds is not a valid starting point for understanding complex social phenomena.

We put forward the argument that the generic social science disciplines *can and must be taken as legitimate starting points* in designing studies pertaining to central issues in tourism (Larsen, 2007). One of these social sciences is psychology. We shall look at what constitutes this discipline ontologically (what its subject matter is) and epistemologically (how knowledge is established). The other social sciences are not of less worth, but this paper focuses on psychology. The chapter highlights the importance of methodological stringency and methodological reflections based on the terms of the standard accepted methodologies of science. Concurring with Stanovich's (2014) 'aristocratic' model of methodological approaches,³ we view methodological designs hierarchically (some are better than others). We further maintain that a certain amount of conformity is called for in the tourism research community concerning the issue of design and method, because this is the only way to gain acceptance (of tourism research) from the established research communities and the generic disciplines; but, more importantly, it is the only way to establish valid scientific knowledge and thus serve the civil communities we belong to.

Finally, we shall conclude the present paper by presenting some examples from the research group that we belong to. We hope these examples will contribute to illuminating our points, inasmuch as one example shows how systematic research on

tourists' intuitive judgements of risk has brought generic knowledge about human intuitions to the forefront, while the other example shows how tourists conceive of themselves and other tourists in the setting of sustainable tourist consumption.

2.2 Tourism and Psychology

Tourism is a social phenomenon involving tourists, professional tourism workers, the laity of tourism workers, local people who are not tourists, tourism systems such as hotels and destinations, policy makers, restaurants and food providers, to mention but a few. As little, however, as a meal is a meal before someone eats the food, tourism without the tourist is inconceivable. Tourism studies should therefore, if not in each and every study, incorporate tourists (Larsen, 2007). At the same time, tourists are basically just people away from home for a limited period of time. A tourist is a travelling person whose trip starts and ends at the same place: home. But although tourists are just people on their way home, we know that being on tourist trips may influence peoples' minds and behaviours before, during and after the trip (e.g. Wirtz *et al.*, 2003). Still, people are only people, and tourists are only people away from home.

Psychology is the science of the 'mind' (Flanagan, 1984) and 'behaviour' (Holt *et al.*, 2015). Actually, a common definition of psychology, and the one applied by the American Psychological Association, is that psychology is 'the scientific study of the behavior of individuals and their mental processes' (APA, n.d.). This definition highlights that psychology is based on sound methodologies ('scientific study'); that is, on reliable and valid data gathered in a systematic way. Psychology is not founded on unsystematic data, which may be why psychology seemingly is a more mature social science than some of the other social sciences. Actually, one could say that psychology *became* a scientific endeavour the moment it moved into systematic data collection by the means of experimentation (see, for example, Hergenhahn, 2001). At the same time, the definition draws the attention to the level of analysis in psychology; the individual ('behaviour of individuals'). As opposed to other social sciences where, for example, groups, institutions, production, distribution of services and goods may serve as the level of analysis, psychologists study variables that 'go through the individual', as a manner of speaking. The *causes* of individual behaviour and individual mental processes are sought for in the social reality of people (such as for example the individual's memberships of groups and institutions, his or her perceived roles and subjective norms, cultural background and so forth), in mental life itself (such as for example in thoughts, emotions, motivations, personality, moods and feelings) or even in the biological system (such as for example the functioning of the nervous system). While sociologists and economists would be interested in tourist institutions (such as the organization of tourism systems; the 'tourism business'), psychologists tend to be more interested in the tourist or other people populating the tourism stage (Larsen and Aske, 1992). In other words, psychologists focus on individuals' minds and behaviours even within a tourism setting. Psychology, therefore, aims at studying the relationship of theoretical constructs pertaining to the individuals' behaviours and minds. In the 'psychology of the tourist experience' this would lead to an interest in issues such as what constitutes a tourist experience, what are the predecessors of such experiences and what are their consequences. In a sense, therefore, psychology may be

seen as the systematic study of subjective experiences. At the same time, the individual tourist is not alone; the tourism system exists supra-individually, and studies of these systems and their relations are also called for. Such studies, however, belong in the realm of sociology, which is the social science that studies groups, institutions and societies. A third level of tourism studies concerns those aiming at understanding the production and distribution of tourism services, and such studies predominantly fall within the domain of economics. A necessary consequence of this is that tourists and the tourists' experiences, as well as the tourism system, production and distribution are all viable foci if *the aim is to explain and predict* tourist behaviour. Logically, the aims of explaining and predicting are the aims of any scientific endeavour. No other aims exist for any individual research effort within the social sciences, but some aims of higher orders (such as for example the aims of creating a better and more just world) always coexist with these basic aims of predicting and explaining. We maintain that tourism research without these general aims of *explanation and prediction* is pointless and not worthwhile.

2.2.1 Case studies

It is our impression that much too much of the published literature in tourism research is based on quantitative or qualitative case studies. A case study may be understood as *an in-depth study of one entity* (an individual, a group, an event, an organization or even a culture), where the aim is to give a description of this particular entity. In other words, a case study is one that looks 'intensely and in detail' (Stanovich, 2014, p. 54) at a single entity. Typically, case studies belong to the early stages in a discipline's history. Both psychology and medicine were strongly case oriented in the early days of the *scientification* processes of these disciplines, but such studies became less prevalent as the disciplines matured. Case studies in contemporary scientific journals in psychology (and medicine) are very few and far between, and they are seldom published on their own without more rigorous follow-up studies reported in the same article. Not so in tourism research! Here, anything goes, and the case study seems to be the norm rather than the exception in this stream of research. This is, of course, very disappointing and probably a major cause of why tourism research seems to progress so slowly.

At the same time, in tourism research many tend to claim that there is a qualitative distinction between qualitative and quantitative research, and that this distinction represents a highlighting of the individual researcher's choice of paradigm (Mehmetoglu, 2004). In a special issue on methodology of *The Scandinavian Journal of Tourism and Hospitality*, for example, the guest editor (Mehmetoglu, 2004) insists that such a distinction is a familiar one and recognized as being antagonistic by researchers in *all* social sciences. We think that this distinction is a bit of a 'social construction' in itself. Good social research is governed by the level of maturity within a particular area more than by 'paradigms' concerning methodological approaches. Most certainly, in any good research tradition, there simply is no issue of 'quantitative' or 'qualitative' research. There is only the issue of bad and good research, which in turn is a function of the level of maturity within the current field, more than the researchers' (more or less conscious) choice of methodological approaches. The

issue of qualitative versus quantitative is in reality a non-issue. In the social sciences the methodological approach is first and foremost a design question, which again is dependent on the maturity of the current social science tradition. One could, therefore, quite preliminarily conclude that the world is turned upside down when the choice of design seemingly is left to the individual researcher. It should be the other way around; it ought to be the issue at hand (the research problem), the concepts and their theoretical underpinnings that direct methodological approaches. This means that sometimes the case study (or other qualitative approaches) is called for, while other times such approaches are definitely not called for. To highlight this point, let us examine the issue of self-knowledge, the question being if people can have knowledge of their private inner worlds.

Two important theories in the history of psychology can guide us in our attempt at answering this fundamental question: the psychodynamic theory of Sigmund Freud and the behavioural theory of learning proposed by Burrhus Fredric Skinner. According to Flanagan (1984), Freud rejected the idea that people could have precise self-knowledge, particularly in relation to the motives (causes) of their behaviours, thoughts and feelings. Freud arrived at this conclusion based on his observations of the way ordinary people (*not* severely mentally ill people) hide their real reasons for actions, their real needs and intentions and their real motives *from themselves*. Often these real motives appear in parapraxes and in dreams. More often than not, people are embarrassed by these 'real' motives, and often they hide these motives so they are not available to the self, as reflected in Freud's topographical model of mind. The Freudian perspective represents a direct challenge to the Cartesian view that the only true knowledge available is the knowledge that one can gain from introspection of one's own inner universe. Skinner arrives at the same conclusion as Freud concerning self-knowledge (see Flanagan, 1984, pp. 98–104), when he argues that the problem of self-knowledge (i.e. knowledge of inner states, such as feelings and emotions) stems from the way people learn the language of private events; the events of the inner world. While learning observable outer concepts such as 'bird', 'house' and 'car', is relatively straightforward, and follows principles of reinforcement, learning concepts such as those describing inner states (e.g. 'happy', 'sad' or 'worried') is a completely different matter. This is because people do not know the inner states of other people, not even of children. When a child cries, the parent may interpret this as 'sadness', 'pain', 'hunger' and a number of other states. The child will, therefore, obtain very blurry concepts to describe private events. The lack of precision in describing such private events leads to the impossibility of knowing them precisely – which again is a reason why we are not in a position to provide children with the tools required for knowledge of their private lives. It follows from this that we cannot trust people's accounts of their private worlds (so-called autophenomenological reports) (Dennett (1982), as cited in Flanagan (1984, p. 193 ff., and footnote 20 to Chapter 6, p. 386)), but have to rely on more solid (heterophenomenological) reports. As Nisbett and Wilson (1977) so elegantly put it, we sometimes 'tell more than we can know' (p. 247) about ourselves, and in cases when we 'make correct . . . causal judgements about ourselves, it is not so much because [we] are introspecting correctly as that [we] believe in the correct psychological generalizations'.

This being said, at the beginning of research on a certain domain, naturally the important issue is to find interesting phenomena for future systematic studies. One

could call this stage a pre-theoretical and a pre-empirical stage in the research process where the research community (or more typically the researcher or the research team) tries to find current and interesting problems to study. At this stage case studies function very well; they contribute to exploring the domain of interest. Therefore, case studies are useful at the beginning of the research process. Such descriptions inevitably call for inventing new concepts, or discovering such new concepts, and this is best done by applying some qualitative case-oriented approach or other. This would be an initial phase in which the current concepts could be highlighted, and it would also be an initial stage for constructing measurable variables. It goes without saying that there can be no science without measuring; after all, *everything that exists does so to a certain extent (to a certain degree) and can therefore be measured*,⁴ now or in the future. It is, therefore, self-evident that there is no such thing, or *should be* no such a thing as the investigator's free will to choose between methodological approaches. On the contrary, the methodological approaches should be defined by the level of maturity within the current area of research.

2.2.2 Correlations

While case studies are important at the pre-theoretical stage, a central point in science is to generate knowledge of the nature of relationships between various variables. The issue at hand is how variables relate to each other – not the mere description of what it is that constitutes a certain variable (as in case-oriented research). In tourism there is an abundance of such interesting theoretical relationships. In this paper we cite studies of what happens to subjective risk and worry following dramatic events such as terrorism, data that are both longitudinal ('between subjects') and correlational. This is the strength of correlational designs: they show *that* some events and some phenomena are related, how strong the relation is and the direction of the observed relations (if the relation is positive or negative). But correlational data are just correlational – they are not suitable for drawing causal conclusions. Yet, there is a tendency to draw causal conclusions from correlational data, particularly if the researcher has a preference for a particular interpretation based on a theoretical orientation, has a strong pre-existing bias or when the causal connection seems obvious (Stanovich, 2014). But it is pivotal to underline that correlational data cannot handle what is commonly called the *third variable problem*; that correlations do not necessarily imply causation (some correlations are spurious and are due to factors not observed). Nor can such studies handle *the directionality problem*; that even if two variables are related causally, the direction of the cause–effect relationship is never directly evident from these kinds of data. Nonetheless, the correlational model is of great help within tourism research in highlighting and documenting relationships of various tourism variables to one another.

2.2.3 Experiments

The psychological experiment aims at testing universal predictions of a given theory. Therefore, random sampling of representative subjects from a particular population

is not an issue in the psychological experiment, precisely because experiments highlight the predictions of a theory. Actually, the less 'naturalistic' the experiment is, the better it works, because at the heart of the experimental method lies manipulation and control. This means that the investigator ideally manipulates the variable that she hypothesizes to be the *cause* (the so-called independent variable) and looks for the effect on the variables thought to be the effect (the so-called dependent variable). At the same time the researcher attempts to keep all other variables constant by control and randomization. Using this design gets the third variable problem and the directionality problem under control; the special condition of the experiment is set up to be unnatural which is why it can be said that the natural thing in experimental research seems to be quite unnatural. This point represents the strength of the experimental approach, a point which is clearly misunderstood by several social scientists of more qualitative, interpretative or hermeneutical inclinations. The strength is, in other words, that the experimenter has control over the independent variable and manipulates this variable to investigate the effect of the manipulation on the dependent variable. This is, to our knowledge, the only way to study causal relationships.

It is, therefore, our conviction that, if tourism research wants to increase its scientific respect, tourism studies should move away from case studies. In the future, we would be well served by aiming at designing experimental studies to investigate the causal relationships between the constructs we measure, such as, for example, those immanent in conceptions of the tourist experience. If, however, we limit our studies to mere case and correlational designs, this will imply the very serious cost of not being able to study causes. It is no option to refuse to do quantitative research (based on methodological inclinations or paradigms) and to depend only on qualitative approaches. Some researchers might argue that experimental studies are ecologically invalid, or that 'experimental studies are not of much interest to the study of phenomena as complex and complicated as tourism' and so on. Our response to such objections is, however, quite simple. To the extent that the results from tourism studies shall have any impact on the development of the social sciences, and any important influence on the civil societies we live in, we probably need to refine our designs and theories – and approach the ideal of the golden standard of experimentation. Experiments, albeit not flawless, are needed to investigate causal relationships – there is no way to get around this fact. One cannot, as indicated above, ask people to give an account of the causes of their behaviours, simply because they *cannot* know (Nisbett and Wilson, 1977; Kruger and Dunning, 1999). So, while case studies and correlational surveys are valuable to a certain extent, the results they produce are limited inasmuch as they can never contribute to the most interesting scientific question, the question of *why* our observations occurred; indeed, the very question of cause and effect.

We conclude this section of the chapter by indicating that psychology can contribute to the study of tourism by constantly claiming the need for methodological stringency, and by highlighting logical precautions that are needed if we want sound and healthy tourism research to blossom in the future. But we shall underline this point more clearly later on in the chapter.

Let us now turn to a few examples of areas in tourism research where psychology has contributed, and will continue to do so.

2.3 Two Examples of Psychological Tourism Studies

The following paragraphs present examples of two psychological tourism projects from the Social Cognitive Studies in Tourism (SCI-TOUR) group at the University of Bergen, Norway.

2.3.1 A psychological approach to studying risk perceptions among tourists

The focus on both man-made and natural disasters is extensive within the social sciences and public discourse. Beck's (1992) idea of a 'risk society' that exposes us all to new and man-made risks is prominent within this discourse. An overflow of natural disasters, political crises and acts of terror seems to exist in the public's awareness (Nolen-Hoeksema, 2010). Such highly publicized crises include terrorist attacks like 9/11, natural disasters like the 2004 Boxing Day tsunami and health scares like the threat of pandemic 'swine flu' (2009–2010). Accordingly, publications on the subject both within generic and applied fields, including tourism, are increasing in number. Examples from the tourism literature include risks related to adventure tourism (e.g. Callander and Page, 2003; Larsen *et al.*, 2011b), drug use (e.g. Uriely and Bellhassen, 2006) food (e.g. Larsen *et al.*, 2007; Larsen and Brun, 2011) health (e.g. Cossens and Gin, 1995; Lepp and Gibson, 2003) and terrorism (e.g. Gray and Wilson, 2009; Bellhassen *et al.*, 2014).

Unfortunately, definitions and operationalization of perceived risk vary wildly within tourism risk research. In fact, risk has been operationalized as uncertainty, worry, fear and anxiety (Yang and Nair, 2014). This implies that different studies are not necessarily measuring the same concepts and makes direct comparisons of findings problematic. Furthermore, much of the research on perceived risk within the tourism domain is either qualitative or correlational in nature. While this allows for more in-depth analysis of single cases, it makes it impossible to conclude anything about the relative risk, for example, of one destination compared with another or about the causes of the observed findings.

The psychological approach to studying risk perceptions among tourists is more closely related to the generic and psychometric paradigm of risk research. This approach is quantitative and experimental. Subjective risk is defined as the individual's perception of the probability of certain negative outcomes weighed by the magnitude of these outcomes (Brun, 1994). Worry, on the other hand, is a key component of anxiety and is characterized by a tendency to view ambiguous or uncertain situations as threatening (Butler and Matthews, 1987). Both concepts are usually measured on Likert scales, having participants indicate how risky they judge a certain hazard to be or how much they worry about it. Focusing on risk perceptions regarding terrorism, some findings from the psychological approach to studying risk perceptions among tourists are presented below.

Risk perceptions among tourists regarding terrorism

If terrorism is highly salient in the public's awareness, one might expect it to have an influence on how people perceive the risk of various countries and travel

destinations. And, indeed, the possible increase in tourists' perceived risk which might affect travel behaviour and purchasing choices is usually of great concern for the tourism industry immediately after a crisis has hit a destination. Unfortunately, very few studies have employed an experimental or quasi-experimental approach to studying risk perceptions following terror attacks. Such an approach requires before-and-after measures. The unpredictability of terrorism makes it extremely difficult to obtain such measures; however, by getting such data one avoids many problems associated with employing after measures only (problems like hindsight bias, rosy retrospection or otherwise skewed memories). The psychological approach to risk research has produced some examples of studies employing before-and-after measures.

Comparing before and after measurements, Larsen *et al.* (2011a) found that participants reported increased risk perceptions for Madrid following the 2004 train bombings and for London after the 2005 bomb attacks on London's transport system. The general desire to travel, and risk-judgements for unrelated destinations, remained unaffected. Brun *et al.* (2011) found that tourists worried more about terrorism after the terrorist attacks in London and Sharm el Sheik in 2005. Wolff and Larsen (2014) found that risk perceptions and worries regarding terror remained low and constant over several years before the 22 July attacks in Norway (the 'Breivik massacre'), and risk perceptions did not change immediately after the attack. However, the following year, participants reported decreased risk perceptions and lower worries regarding terror compared with earlier years. Participants also indicated that Norway was safer after the attacks.

A large cross-sectional comparison of tourists' risk perceptions regarding different destinations (Wolff and Larsen, 2017) has shown that risk perceptions fluctuate somewhat over the years within each destination. At the same time, this study also demonstrates that risk perceptions remain constant between destinations. This implies that the ranking of destinations according to their relative risk was unaffected in the current study in spite of the fact that various – sometimes quite dramatic – events have befallen some of the destinations during the data collection period.

Taken together, these findings indicate that terrorism does affect tourists' risk perceptions; however, effects seem to be short-lived and less dramatic than one might expect when observing the public discourse, and sometimes they may even be in a counter-intuitive direction. Some systematic research looking at how different sorts of terrorism affect risk perceptions differently seems to be needed.

Employing an experimental design Wolff and Larsen (2016) used hypothetical scenarios to look at the effects of diverging sorts of terrorism on risk perceptions. Two characteristics of terrorism were varied systematically: frequency (whether terrorism hits a destination where terrorism is frequent or infrequent) and degree of organization (whether terrorism is committed by an organization or by an isolated perpetrator who has been captured). Results show significant effects for both characteristics. Countries where terrorism is both frequent and organized are perceived to be the most risky destinations; countries where terrorism seldomly occurs and is committed by an isolated perpetrator are perceived to be the least risky; and destinations where terrorism is either frequent or organized hold an intermediate position.

The effects of terrorism on risk judgements and worries, i.e. *changes* in perceived risk and worry are largest for countries where terrorism is infrequent and committed

by an organization. This finding is predicted and explained by the oldest 'law' in psychology (Fechner, 1860) and in line with prospect theory's (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979) predictions: it is not the absolute increase in risk that is important, but the relative increase. In a country with highly frequent terrorism yet another attack may not make much of a difference to peoples' risk perceptions. However, in countries where terrorism is infrequent an attack may lead to increased risk perceptions. This study may also explain some of the paradoxical effects that terrorism may have on risk perceptions mentioned earlier (Wolff and Larsen, 2014). If a random event (i.e. unorganized terror) hits a country where terrorism is infrequent then risk perceptions for that country may *decrease* following the attack. This is because in such cases people are prone to the gambler's fallacy, the 'lightning-never-strikes-the-same-place-twice' type of reasoning.

The psychological approach has not only shown that the effects of terror on perceived risk are specific, small, short lived and not always in the expected direction. This research has also shown that tourists, in common with others, at times show biased judgements. This implies that their judgements deviate in systematic and predictable ways from the normative mode of arriving at a risk judgement. In the following sections we give some examples of such biases.

Examples of biases in risk perception within the tourism domain

THE OPTIMISTIC BIAS The optimistic bias is defined as a tendency to believe that one is less likely to experience negative events and more likely to experience positive events than other people are (Weinstein, 1980, 1983). This is a very robust effect which has been demonstrated in a variety of domains including tourism. Larsen and Brun (2011) found that tourists to Norway judged risk for themselves to be lower than the risk to both 'typical' and 'average' tourists for a variety of hazards including infections, traffic accidents and crime. And Larsen *et al.* (2009) demonstrated that tourists also think that others worry more than they do themselves about various travel-related issues. While it is certainly comforting to think that others are worse off than oneself, this unrealistic optimism may constitute a challenge when it comes to communicating risks to tourists and motivating them to engage in more precautionary behaviours.

THE HOME-IS-SAFER-THAN-ABROAD BIAS This bias is in fact an original excavation of tourism risk research. It has been demonstrated in two studies. Larsen *et al.* (2007) first demonstrated the effect in a sample of tourists from 48 different countries who judged various food-related risks such as salmonella, chicken flu and genetically modified food. Participants rated the riskiness of these hazards both for their 'home country' and for 'abroad'. Results showed that home-is-safer-than-abroad, regardless of where 'home' was. Wolff and Larsen (2016) demonstrated the same effect in a sample of over 10,000 tourists from 89 countries who judged the riskiness of various travel destinations. Findings revealed that tourists from all over the world tended to agree on the riskiness of these destinations, with one exception. Tourists tended to regard their own home country as a very safe destination, sometimes in stark contrast to what all other tourists believed. In other words, tourists tend to agree that 'home' is safest, no matter where 'home' is.

Various explanations for this bias have been suggested by authors including the availability heuristic (Tversky and Kahneman, 1973, 2002), a sampling account (e.g. Sedlmeier *et al.*, 1998; Fiedler, 2000) and the impact bias (Wilson and Gilbert, 2003). Regardless of the explaining mechanism behind the phenomenon one might speculate whether extreme forms of this skewed perception might prevent people from travelling to destinations they know little about.

THE GAMBLER'S FALLACY This is a well-known cognitive bias where people assume that chance is a self-correcting process in which deviation in one direction makes deviations in the opposite direction more likely for the equilibrium to be restored (Tversky and Kahneman, 1971, 1974). Coin-tossing is typically used to illustrate the phenomenon: after getting several heads in a row, people often assume that the chances for getting a tail increase on the next flip. It is a sort of 'lightning-never-strikes-the-same-place-twice' reasoning. As mentioned earlier, this effect can possibly explain the findings by Wolff and Larsen (2014) who observed decreased risk perceptions after the 22 July 2011 attacks in Oslo and Utøya.

ROSY RETROSPECTION Rosy retrospection (Mitchell *et al.*, 1997) is another phenomenon that may bias tourists' risk perceptions. This is a memory bias and refers to the finding that subjects in retrospect rate events more positively than they rated them during their occurrence. For example, looking back on a vacation, people often rate the vacation more positively than they did while they were on it (e.g. Wirz *et al.*, 2003). Similar results have been found regarding risk perceptions. Using retrospective risk ratings people generally believe that the world was less risky before. This is despite the fact that continuous assessments show that risk perceptions remained unchanged.

SUMMARY The psychological approach to risk perception studies among tourists has shown that the effects of terrorism on perceived risk are specific, small, short-lived and sometimes counter-intuitive. This approach has also shown that these risk perceptions are biased in systematic and predictable ways. Only systematic, longitudinal and experimental data could reveal these findings.

2.3.2 Environmentally sustainable tourism behaviour

If the tourism sector is to become more sustainable in environmental terms, there need to be major shifts in how people travel as well as to how they consume mobility (Gössling *et al.*, 2014). Meanwhile, motivating people to adjust the ways they travel can be a difficult task as required adjustments may not always come easy. Dolnicar *et al.* (2008) noted that 'a strong trade-off exists between the sacrifice of comfort and environmentally sound behaviour' (p. 206). They added that this trade-off is probably particularly salient in the context of tourism which, according to them, is essentially about pleasure rather than about sacrifice. Hindley and Font (2014) explored decisions for travelling to destinations that are threatened by global climate change. They concluded that travel decisions are not so much about ethics, but instead, are based on considerations that feed into personal interests. Similar views have been put forward in connection with discretionary air travel, where personal gains from enhanced

mobility are at odds with environmental concerns surrounding carbon dioxide emissions (Higham *et al.*, 2014; Higham *et al.*, 2016).⁵

It is the apparent conflict between personal (often short-term) and collective (often long-term) interests that is at the heart of many societal challenges, including environmental sustainability (Joireman *et al.*, 2004; Van Lange *et al.*, 2013). Psychological research has contributed a great deal to understanding behaviour in these situations, broadly described as social dilemmas (for a review, see Van Lange *et al.*, 2013). One finding in the literature is that the willingness to put collective before personal interests can be associated with personal values (e.g. Khachatryan *et al.*, 2013; Schuitema and De Groot, 2015).⁶ For instance, Khachatryan *et al.* (2013) found that consumer preferences for biofuels were negatively related to egoistic values (broadly described as values concerned with costs and benefits for one personally) but were positively related to biospheric values (broadly described as values focused on costs and benefits for the entire ecosystem). Similarly, individual differences in biospheric and egoistic values have been linked with preferences for sustainable tourism alternatives (Passafaro *et al.*, 2015), and also when it is explicitly stated that these alternatives would be more expensive or would take longer time (Doran *et al.*, 2016). Thus, personal values stand out as one factor that can motivate people to bring own behaviours into the service of collective interests.

Another finding in the literature is that environmental engagement is related to individual differences in time perspective (see Milfont *et al.*, 2012). For example, the more people consider the future outcomes of their current behaviour, the more likely they are to show support for mitigation actions targeting environmental problems (e.g. Strathman *et al.*, 1994; Joireman *et al.*, 2004). Other studies found that these considerations can account for variability in consumer preferences that is complementary to personal values (Khachatryan *et al.*, 2013; Doran *et al.*, 2016). Doran *et al.* (2016) reported similar results when studying associations between psychological variables and choices of environmentally sustainable travel options. People who strongly considered the future outcomes of their present behaviour were more likely to intend on making these choices, with only collective efficacy beliefs explaining more variance. These findings, together with the research cited above, indicate that a lack of foresight might constitute a psychological driver for consumer behaviour favouring personal in place of collective interests (see also Doran *et al.*, 2016).

This section illustrates how psychological research can help to identify factors that are possible motivators (or demotivators) for environmentally sustainable tourism behaviour, using personal values and time perspective as examples. Not only can this type of research enrich present knowledge about consumer behaviour in tourism, but it can also provide useful guidance for the development of interventions targeted at adjusting these behaviours if necessary. For a more general discussion on how psychology as a discipline can play a role in dealing with environmental challenges, see for example Clayton *et al.* (2016).

What and how can psychology contribute to tourism research?

The friendly reader will now have understood that the science of psychology approaches solvable problems with a scientist's critical ethos. Psychologists do not

accept everything as ‘interesting’ or exciting; rather, they question the methods underlying the alleged findings. Psychologists also trust in converging evidence (that several studies indicate the same), and they also accept that every scientific study and research effort contains faults and errors, but that these flaws are not systematic, so that if a series of studies (all containing faults) indicate the same, then we believe in these results. Psychology also accepts that social phenomena are very rarely caused by a single variable, since psychology fully accepts multiple causation of behaviour and mental life. At the same time, of course, psychology also accepts chance (while many people do not). Random events occur, and they are fully explained by chance. No further explanations needed!

Let us sum up what psychology can contribute to tourism studies by highlighting the following:

- Exciting variables for the study of tourists and tourist experiences. Such variables include (but are not limited to) moods, emotions, cognition, problem solving, the self, personality, memory, sensation, perception consciousness, learning, motivation, intentions, revisit intentions, norms, values and social cognition.
- Psychometric expertise in terms of measurement theory. The psychological ethos is that concepts in scientific theories must be linked to observable events that can be measured (Stanovich, 2014). Actually, psychology insists on operational definitions which can guide the construction of reliable and valid measures for the issues at hand. Psychologists are not interested in the ‘true’ meaning of words (terminological essentialism); they are more interested in how the concept can be measured and manipulated. One example to illustrate the difference between the psychological approach and that of essentialists is the discussion of ‘what a domestic tourist is’. Concepts of domestic and international are not always unitarily and clearly defined (Cohen, 2008; Cohen and Cohen, 2014), but this cannot stop research on international and domestic tourists from progressing. What is needed is an operational definition of the constructs ‘domestic’ and ‘international’. Let others argue about the true meaning of the word ‘domestic’, let them deconstruct the meaning of the term. But approaching the issue psychologically would simply mean to translate the concept into something measurable. Interestingly, there is a certain degree of consciousness about this distinction among tourists, which has been shown empirically. Tourists do know whether or not they are domestic or international (whether they are ‘at home’ or ‘abroad’, i.e. in their home country or not). It is similarly very likely that tourism workers will identify their customers as ‘domestic or not’ in *most*, if not all cases. It is even probable that both self-categorizations and categorizations of others will be made based on this criterion. Two examples illustrate this; Larsen *et al.* (2007) found that tourists do know the difference between ‘home’ and ‘abroad’, as discussed in this chapter (p. 22) and tourists systematically rated the two differently concerning various subjective judgements. At the same time, Fuchs *et al.* (2013) found that the home/abroad distinction is very clear in tourism and in hospitality workers as well. But, do we really know what a domestic tourist is as opposed to an international tourist? No, we do not, but we do know how to measure this distinction. We can use operational criteria, and simply define what is meant in the particular research effort.

- Important perspectives on the issue of research design. Psychologists generally dismiss some types of methodological approaches as just nonsensical, as evidenced by the discussion above. In addition, academic psychology is strict in its obligation to provide society with reliable knowledge upon which policy makers, businesses and the public sector can base their decisions. In this way, although each and every study is flawed, the accumulated and converging evidence stemming from a century and a half of systematic studies in the field has brought forward some very stable and reliable results.

In spite of this, psychologists are not at rest; constantly they criticize, scrutinize and reformulate their research ideas to keep the wave of psychological science rolling. In this respect, psychologists are very much like Lodge's interesting novel character Dr Sheldrake (who was introduced on the first page of this chapter). In other respects, however, psychologists are very different from Dr Sheldrake. Psychologists are not interested in the true meaning of the swimming pool and they do not accept the research approach of Dr Sheldrake. Their aim is never to identify totally with their informants, never to experience the milieu tourists live in as *they* experience it, and they are not in the least interested in letting words impinge on their consciousness gradually, by a slow process of incrementation! Psychologists are interested in the systematic study of mind and behaviour, including the minds and behaviours of tourists.

Endnotes

- ¹ Lodge lets Dr Sheldrake refer to J.P. Gray, who did introduce these terms in Gray (1970).
- ² One amusing example to indicate that 'anything goes' in tourism research is found in McKercher and Prideaux (2014, p. 24) who, in an otherwise interesting paper, state that 'outcomes are usually shaped by a number of dependent variables' – thus *not* noticing the complete misunderstanding of their informant.
- ³ The whole line of arguing in this section is inspired by Stanovich's (2014) wonderful book.
- ⁴ This is an exaggeration: it may be, for example, that spirits and angels exist and that they have no measurable qualities; but the study of such beings does not belong in the realm of the social or any other science. In addition, we are aware that some terms in mathematics do not presuppose extension.
- ⁵ For an introductory review on the concept of sustainable tourism including (but not limited to) environmental aspects, see Hall *et al.* (2015).
- ⁶ Values are 'desirable transsituational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity' (Schwartz, 1994, p. 21).

References

- APA (American Psychological Association) (n.d.) Glossary of psychological terms. Available at: <http://www.apa.org/research/action/glossary.asp> (accessed 14 March 2017).
- Beck, U. (1992) *Risk Society: Towards a New Modernity*. Sage Publications, London.
- Bellhassen, Y., Uriely, N. and Assor, O. (2014) The touristification of a conflict zone: the case of Bil'in. *Annals of Tourism Research* 49, 174–189. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2014.09.007

- Brun, W. (1994) Risk perception: main issues, approaches and findings. In: Wright, G. and Ayton, P. (eds) *Subjective Probability*. John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, UK, pp. 295–320.
- Brun, W., Wolff, K. and Larsen, S. (2011) Tourist worries after terrorist attacks: report from a field-experiment. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 11(3), 387–394. DOI: 10.1080/15022250.2011.593365
- Butler, G. and Matthews, A. (1987) Anticipatory anxiety and risk perception. *Cognitive Therapy and Research* 11, 551–565. DOI: 10.1007/BF01183858
- Callander, M. and Page, S.J. (2003) Managing risk in adventure tourism operations in New Zealand: a review of the legal case history and potential for litigation. *Tourism Management* 24, 13–23. DOI: 10.1016/S0261-5177(02)00045-6
- Clayton, S., Devine-Wright, P., Swim, J., Bonnes, M., Steg, L. *et al.* (2016) Expanding the role for psychology in addressing environmental challenges. *American Psychologist* 71(3), 199–215.
- Cohen, E. (2008) Tourism, ‘domestic’ and ‘international’ – a critique. Presentation. *International Sociological Association, RC-50 Conference*, 24–27 November, Jaipur, India.
- Cohen, E. and Cohen, S.A. (2014) A mobilities approach to tourism from emerging world regions. *Current Issues in Tourism* 18(1), 11–43. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2014.898617
- Cossens, J. and Gin, S. (1995) Tourism and AIDS: the perceived risk of HIV infection on destination choice. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 3(4), 1–20. DOI: 10.1300/J073v03n04_01
- Dolnicar, S., Crouch, G.I. and Long, P. (2008) Environment-friendly tourists: what do we really know about them? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 16(2), 197–210.
- Doran, R., Hanss, D. and Larsen, S. (2016) Intentions to make sustainable tourism choices: Do value orientations, time perspective, and efficacy beliefs explain individual differences? *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*. DOI: 10.1080/15022250.2016.1179129
- Fechner, G.T. (1860) *Elemente der Psychophysik*. Breitkopf und Härtel, Leipzig, Germany.
- Fiedler, K. (2000) Beware of samples! A cognitive-ecological sampling approach to judgment biases. *Psychological Review* 107(4), 659–676. DOI: 10.1037/0033-295X.107.4.659
- Flanagan, O. (1984) *The Science of the Mind*. MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Fuchs, G., Uriely, N., Reichel, A. and Maoz, D. (2013) Vacationing in a terror-stricken destination – tourists’ risk perceptions and rationalizations. *Journal of Travel Research* 52, 182–191. DOI: 10.1177/0047287512458833
- Gössling, S., Peeters, P., Higham, J.E.S. and Cohen, S.A. (2014) New governance models for behaviour change in tourism mobilities: a research agenda. In: Cohen, S.A., Higham, J.E.S., Peeters, P. and Gössling, S. (eds) *Understanding and Governing Sustainable Tourism Mobility: Psychological and Behavioural Approaches*. Routledge, New York, pp. 300–305.
- Gray, J.M. and Wilson, M.A. (2009) The relative risk perception of travel hazards. *Environment and Behavior* 41(2), 185–204. DOI: 10.1177/0013916507311898
- Gray, J.P. (1970) *International Travel – International Trade*. Lexington Books, Lexington, Massachusetts.
- Hall, C.M., Gössling, S. and Scott, D. (2015) Tourism and sustainability: an introduction. In: Hall, C.M., Gössling, S. and Scott, D. (eds) *The Routledge Handbook of Tourism and Sustainability*. Routledge, New York, pp. 1–11.
- Hergenbahn, B.R. (2001) *An Introduction to the History of Psychology*. Wadsworth/Thomson Learning, Belmont, California.
- Higham, J.E.S., Cohen, S.A. and Cavaliere, C.T. (2014) Climate change, discretionary air travel, and the “flyers’ dilemma”. *Journal of Travel Research* 53(4), 462–475.
- Higham, J.E.S., Cohen, S.A., Cavaliere, C.T., Reis, A. and Finkler, W. (2016) Climate change, tourist air travel and radical emissions reduction. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 111, 336–347.
- Hindley, A. and Font, X. (2014) Ethics and influences in tourist perceptions of climate change. *Current Issues in Tourism*. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2014.946477
- Holt, N., Bremner, A., Sutherland, E., Vliek, M., Passer, M.W. and Smith, R.E. (2015) *Psychology – The Science of Mind and Behaviour*. McGraw-Hill, Maidenhead, UK.

- Joireman, J.A., Van Lange, P.A.M. and Van Vugt, M. (2004) Who cares about the environmental impact of cars? Those with an eye toward the future. *Environment and Behavior* 36(2), 187–206. DOI: 10.1177/0013916503251476
- Kahneman, D. and Tversky, A. (1979) Prospect theory: an analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica* 47(2), 263–291. DOI: 10.2307/1914185
- Khachatryan, H., Joireman, J. and Casavant, K. (2013) Relating values and consideration of future and immediate consequences to consumer preference for biofuels: a three-dimensional social dilemma analysis. *Journal of Environmental Psychology* 34, 97–108. DOI: 10.1016/j.jenvp.2013.01.001
- Kruger, J. and Dunning, D. (1999) Unskilled and unaware of it: how difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetence lead to inflated self-assessments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 77, 1121–1134. DOI: 10.1037/0022-3514.77.6.1121
- Larsen, S. (2007) Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(1), 7–18.
- Larsen, S. and Aske, L. (1992) On stage in the service theatre. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 4(4), 012–015.
- Larsen, S. and Brun, W. (2011) “I am not at risk – typical tourists are”. *Perspectives in Public Health* 131(6), 275–279.
- Larsen, S., Brun, W., Øgaard, T. and Selstad, L. (2007) Subjective food-risk judgements in tourists. *Tourism Management* 28, 1555–1559.
- Larsen, S., Brun, W. and Øgaard, T. (2009) What tourists worry about – construction of a scale measuring tourist worries. *Tourism Management* 30, 260–265.
- Larsen, S., Brun, W., Øgaard, T. and Selstad, L. (2011a) Effects of sudden and dramatic events on travel desire and risk judgements. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 11, 268–285. DOI: 10.1080/15022250.2011.593360
- Larsen, S., Øgaard, T. and Brun, W. (2011b) Backpackers and mainstreamers: realities and myths. *Annals of Tourism Research* 38(2), 690–707. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2011.01.003
- Lepp, A. and Gibson, H. (2003) Tourist roles, perceived risk and international tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 30, 606–624. DOI: 10.1016/S0160-7383(03)00024-0
- Lodge, D. (1992) *Paradise News*. Penguin Books, London.
- McKercher, B. and Prideaux, B. (2014) Academic myths of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 46, 16–28. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2014.02.003
- Mehemetoglu, M. (2004) Quantitative or Qualitative? A content analysis of Nordic research in tourism and hospitality. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 4(3), 176–190. DOI: 10.1080/15022250410003889
- Milfont, T.L., Wilson, J. and Diniz, P. (2012) Time perspective and environmental engagement: a meta-analysis. *International Journal of Psychology* 47(5), 325–334.
- Mitchell, T.R., Thompson, L., Peterson, E. and Cronk, R. (1997) Temporal adjustments in the evaluation of events: the “rosy view”. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 33, 421–448. DOI: 10.1006/jesp.1997.1333
- Nisbett, R.E. and Wilson, T.D. (1977) Telling more than we can know: verbal reports on mental processes. *Psychological Review* 84(3), 231–259. DOI: 10.1037/0033-295X.84.3.231
- Nolen-Hoeksema, S. (2010) Learning new way to do good (Editorial). *Psychological Science in the Public Interest* 11(1). DOI: 10.1177/1529100610389558
- Passafaro, P., Cini, F., Boi, L., D'Angelo, M., Heering, M.S. et al. (2015) The “sustainable tourist”: values, attitudes, and personality traits. *Tourism and Hospitality Research* 15(4), 225–239.
- Schuitema, G. and De Groot, J.I.M. (2015) Green consumerism: the influence of product attributes and values on purchasing intentions. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour* 14(1), 57–69.
- Schwartz, S.H. (1994) Are there universal aspects in the structure and contents of human values? *Journal of Social Issues* 50(4), 19–45.

- Sedlmeier, P., Hertwig, R. and Gigerenzer, G. (1998) Are judgments of the positional frequencies of letters systematically biased due to availability? *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition* 24(3), 754–770. DOI: 10.1037/0278-7393.24.3.754
- Stanovich, K.E. (2014) *How to Think Straight about Psychology*. Allyn and Bacon, Pearson Education, Inc., Boston, Massachusetts.
- Strathman, A., Gleicher, F., Boninger, D.S. and Edwards, C.S. (1994) The consideration of future consequences: weighing immediate and distant outcomes of behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 66(4), 742–752.
- Tversky, A. and Kahneman, D. (1971) Belief in the law of small numbers. *Psychological Bulletin* 76(2), 105–110. DOI: 10.1037/h0031322
- Tversky, A. and Kahneman, D. (1973) Availability: a heuristic for judging frequency and probability. *Cognitive Psychology* 5, 207–232.
- Tversky, A. and Kahneman, D. (1974) Judgment under uncertainty: heuristics and biases. *Science* 185, 1124–1131. DOI: 10.1126/science.185.4157.1124
- Tversky, A. and Kahneman, D. (2002) Extensional versus intuitive reasoning: the conjunction fallacy in probability judgment. In: Gilovich, T., Griffin, D. and Kahneman, D. (eds) *Heuristics and Biases*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, pp. 19–48.
- Uriely, N. and Belhassen, Y. (2006) Drugs and risk-taking in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33, 339–359. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2005.10.009
- Urry, J. (1990) *The Tourist Gaze – Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, California.
- Van Lange, P.A.M., Joireman, J., Parks, C.D. and Van Dijk, E. (2013) The psychology of social dilemmas: a review. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 120(2), 125–141.
- Weinstein, N.D. (1980) Unrealistic optimism about future life events. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology* 39, 806–820.
- Weinstein, N.D. (1983) Reducing unrealistic optimism about illness susceptibility. *Health Psychology* 2, 11–20.
- Wilson, T.D. and Gilbert, D.T. (2003) Affective forecasting. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* 35, 345–411.
- Wirz, D., Kruger, J., Scollon, C.N. and 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. DOI: 10.1111/1467-9280.03455
- Wolff, K. and Larsen, S. (2014) Can terrorism make us feel safer? Risk perceptions and worries before and after the July 22nd attacks. *Annals of Tourism Research* 44, 200–209. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2013.10.003
- Wolff, K. and Larsen, S. (2016) A taxonomy of terror – about the effect of different kinds of terror on risk perceptions. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*. Advance online publication. DOI: 10.1080/15022250.2015.1137487
- Wolff, K. and Larsen, S. (2017) Flux and permanence of risk perceptions – tourists’ perception of the relative and absolute risk for various destinations. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology* 57, 584–590. DOI: 10.1111/sjop.12326
- Yang, C.L. and Nair, V. (2014) Risk perception study in tourism: Are we really measuring perceived risk? *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences* 144, 322–327. DOI: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.07.302

3

Tourism Experience: A Review

NOEL SCOTT* AND DUNG LE

Griffith University, Southport, Australia

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the history, disciplinary approaches, types and theoretical models of tourism experience. Here we apply a similar approach to that used in Chapter 1, but focus on theoretical developments rather than methodology. It is assumed here that the academic literature advances through a process of clarification of the various concepts of experience, and the development of topologies, frameworks and models. A lack of advancement in understanding a phenomenon such as tourism experience is then due to the use of different disciplinary perspectives, units of analysis, definitions and methodologies. While it may be argued that in an interdisciplinary area of study such as tourism, use of multiple disciplinary perspectives can help to inform debate and discussion, the authors argue here that it is also useful to regularly analyse these different discussions, and this is the aim of this chapter.

The chapter first provides a brief history of the study of tourism experience, and then the development of the concept of an experience and identification of theoretical models. Clarification of the definition of concepts is an important foundation for further study, and resolving any definitional ambiguity of a concept can be advanced by determining the different disciplinary perspectives applied in its study. It is also important to understand the characteristics of various types of experience which have been identified in the literature, as this may allow identification of parsimonious topologies and the key dimensions on which these topologies should be arranged. We should also note how concepts may be related together using frameworks (which may indicate the concepts that apply in a particular context) or models of various theoretical sophistication.

Clearly, this chapter is not the first work that has reviewed tourism experience and, indeed, there is an extensive literature concerning the concept, which defies simple analysis although some themes may be discerned (see Uriely, 2005, for a

*Corresponding author e-mail: noel.scott@griffith.edu.au

discussion of the development of the concept of experience). The reader may wish to refer to prior reviews (Aho, 2001; Larsen, 2007; Walls *et al.*, 2011a; Adhikari and Bhattacharya, 2015; Campos *et al.*, 2015; Jensen *et al.*, 2015), as well as the introductory chapter of this volume.

The first authors researching tourist experiences examined a trip as their unit of analysis and considered that all trips provided the same type of experience. These authors made the case that a tourist vacation itself was 'an experience' and debated what type it was (Clawson, 1963; Boorstin, 1964; Clawson and Knetsch, 1966; Gunn, 1972; Neulinger, 1974; Cohen, 1979). For example, the experience was considered superficial or contrived (Boorstin, 1964), or connected to a search for authenticity and pilgrimage (MacCannell, 1976). These early authors applied sociological theories to travel to 'explain' the reason why a tourist wanted to travel. While the traveller had 'an experience', the motives for this particular type of activity were externally and sociologically driven. Cohen (1979) was one of the first to consider that no single motive for travel was 'universally valid'. He distinguished five different modes of touristic experiences (recreational, diversionary, experiential, experimental and existential) connected to an individual tourist's motivations, highlighting the importance of hedonistic or pleasure travel. However, for Cohen (1979) the trip remained one type of experience and his discussion was embedded in sociology.

In the 1990s, researchers developed a more nuanced and dynamic view of tourism experiences (Cutler and Carmichael, 2010), focusing on individual leisure events such as a day hike (Hull *et al.*, 1992), embedded in a psychological approach. Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987), for example, discussed the social psychology of tourism and leisure and highlighted the 'uniquely individual' nature of an experience. In part this was a recognition of the 'symbolic, emotive, and aesthetic side' of the touristic experiences of individuals found in the work of Holbrook and Hirschman (1982). Importantly, Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) distinguished between definitional, post hoc and immediate approaches to the study of experience. The definitional approach found in the work of Neulinger (1974) sought to identify the 'factors that cause the stream of conscious experience to be broken into "chunks" and in turn, distinguished leisure and non-leisure' (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987, p. 319). The immediate approach, found in the work of Csikszentmihalyi (1990) focused on the lived experience rather than post hoc summative evaluations implicit in concepts such as satisfaction or value. Separate research themes of immediate lived experience and post hoc experience evaluations remain today.

More recently Pine and Gilmore (1999) introduced the concept of the experience economy and the notion that experiences (or, more often, memorable experiences) have dimensions. Here the aim is to identify the dimensions associated with a particular experience such as a theme park visit. This is typically a post hoc analysis based on identification of the degree to which pre-identified dimensions are associated with a particular experiential context. Tung and Ritchie (2011) identified four essential dimensions of memorable tourism experience: affect, expectations, consequential reality and recollection, while Kim *et al.* (2012) identified seven. Otto and Brent Ritchie (1996) discussed tourism as a service and found that the quality of the service experience was determined by hedonics, peace of mind, involvement and recognition. This dimensional approach does not seek to explain why a particular set of

factors is associated with a particular experiential outcome (i.e. memorable, valuable or satisfactory) and is essentially correlational and atheoretical.

Finally, a cognitive psychological approach to the study of experiences is evident in the work of authors such as Larsen (2007). This approach emphasizes the individual, perceptual and mental characteristics of tourists in determining the experience and applies both psychological and cognitive science theories. This approach is able to differentiate between the immediate and post hoc approaches based on features of models of the human brain, its operation and biases. Each of these approaches to the study of experiences is related to ontological attributes, definitions, theories, antecedents and consequences, and to debates in particular disciplines. To better understand this complexity, the many disciplinary perspectives on tourist experiences are examined as each emphasizes different attributes of the phenomena of experience.

3.2 Disciplinary Approaches

As for most fields of study, a variety of disciplinary perspectives has been adopted to study experiences including phenomenology (Cohen, 1979; Ryan, 1997), anthropology (Wang, 1999), cognitive psychology (Larsen, 2007), geography (Li, 2000), marketing (O'Sullivan and Spangler, 1998), management (Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009; Grewal *et al.*, 2009), social psychology (Pearce, 1987) and sociology (Lengkeek, 2001). The phenomenological approach focuses on the subjective experience from the common-sense standpoint of naive tourists (Cohen, 1979; Ryan, 1997), while a geographical perspective emphasizes the bond with places and its impact on an experience (Li, 2000). A sociological approach imputes a quasi-religious, pilgrimage-like and sacred character to travel (Graburn, 1989) and anthropological interests include the examination of authenticity (Wang, 1999) or consumer culture (Jensen *et al.*, 2015). The services and marketing approach emphasizes concepts such as:

- Experiencescapes, which comprise 'the physical environment surrounding a service encounter taking place in a tourism destination or an attraction' (Saraniemi and Kylänen, 2011, p. 136).
- Co-creation of experience, emotion, narratives, themes and stories.
- The effect of other tourists (Mossberg, 2007).
- The meaning for the customer (Obenour *et al.*, 2006).

A cognitive psychology perspective emphasizes perception, attention, emotion, mental schema and memory. Each of these approaches emphasizes particular attributes or adopts its own definitions of an experience, as well as methodologies, antecedents and consequences. The distinct approaches can have subtle but important impacts on research studies and their findings.

For example, the marketing approach aims to improve aggregate customer outcomes such as value or satisfaction by design of an experiencescape or improving service performance. In such an approach, consumer attributes such as interests and motivations are moderators of the experience determined by (say) service quality (Adhikari and Bhattacharya, 2015). The marketing manager looks at experiences

from a group perspective, as if there is a group average consumer. Alternatively, from a subjective psychological approach, interests and motivations are independent variables whose effects on outcomes are moderated by service variables (Pearce, 1982). Alternatively, Kim *et al.* (2012) examine the association of several factors including types of emotional responses with various types of experience, but what causes variations in responses by individuals is not explained, nor is why a tourist associates a particular dimension with that type of experience. It may be that a particular type of experience is associated with a number of different dimensions. The authors of this chapter consider that how and why explanations of experience require a cognitive psychological or science perspective. Thus, 'the tourist experience is a complicated psychological process' (Cutler and Carmichael, 2010, p. 3). Cognitive science and cognitive psychology can provide experimental evidence that can inform how and why experiences are as they are.

3.2.1 Typologies

A number of different types of experience have been discussed in the literature, and three typologies are discussed below: (i) lived, anticipated and remembered experience; (ii) experience stages; and (iii) the typology discussed here: managerial, inferred and participant experiences.

Lived, anticipated and remembered experience

Within the experience literature, there is a focus on either the moment-by-moment lived experience, the expectancies of anticipated experience or our memories of past experiences. To understand the differences between these perspectives we must note that the basic characteristics of personal experience are determined by the mechanisms of the human brain, such as consciousness, attention, perception, emotion appraisal and action, which underpin the study of experience. The nature of experience from a cognitive science perspective might be called consciousness. A number of models of consciousness exist, including global workspace theory (Baars, 2005), although this does not address unconscious action. The global workspace model is a simple analogical model of consciousness based on a theatre metaphor. In this model our consciousness is a 'stage' upon which we recreate a mental image of the real world. The audience of the theatre are mental processes that observe and comment on the actions on the stage. The 'stream of conscious' is essentially the things that happen on the stage. Most of the mental events taking place on the stage are not remembered. Only relatively few are 'archived' in long-term memory.

This model provides a way of describing the different definitions and characteristics of experiences discussed in the literature: (i) it indicates that our conscious experience is a phenomenon of our mind and is based on our perceptions of the world around us; and (ii) it explains the distinctions between lived and remembered experience. Everything in a person's life is experiential in that it is represented on the mental stage as a 'stream of consciousness'. However, only some of this 'stream of consciousness' is remembered and can be recalled and is properly termed memorable experience. Much of the literature on experience implicitly seeks to understand why

these particular parts of the lived experience are recalled and other parts are not. In addition, the model distinguishes between memories of a particular slice of lived experience and a memory of our evaluation or reaction to that experience slice. Thus we may recall our satisfaction (here considered a summative evaluation of an experience) but not what happened to make us satisfied. The concept of flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 2014b) is a distinctive 'stream of consciousness' type of experience characterized by a unity of thought and action in relation to a challenging task. Memories of a flow experience are often distorted in that only some parts can be recalled.

Contrary to what the 'experience economy' school asserts (Pine and Gilmore, 1999), firms do not actually offer experiences. An experience is a subjective episode that customers live through when they interact with a firm's product or service offer (Caru and Cova, 2007, p. 40).

An experience can be defined as a constant flow of thoughts and feelings that occur during moments of consciousness (Mossberg, 2007, p. 60).

Therefore, lived experience is a subjective and immediate stream of perceptions, appraisals and memories. In this vein, Volo (2009) considers that an experience consists of:

all the events that occur between sensation (i.e., an observer's awareness of an energy form impinging on a receptor physiologically designed to transduce it) and perception (i.e., the interpretation of the sensation), as well as memory (i.e., the subsequent organization and recall of such interpretations), which will have been modified and conditioned in the interim by many if not all of the prior and subsequent occurrences of this 'sensation, perception, interpretation, sequence'.

(p. 119)

In comparison a remembered experience is essentially a memory:

a happening – big or small, brief or prolonged, orchestrated or spontaneous, positive or negative – where the involved are physically and mentally present, forgetting themselves, are engaged, leaving a certain and memorable impression.

(Gram, 2005, p. 8)

Memory formation studies provide insight into the nature of those parts of an experience that we can recall, usually termed autobiographical memory (Barsalou, 1988; Kim, 2010). There is some evidence that memories are constructed (Schacter and Addis, 2007; Schacter, 2012) 'on-the-fly' rather than existing as a complete whole, and this reconstruction is subject to a number of biases (Schacter, 1999). There is also evidence that vivid or 'lightbulb' memories (Brown and Kulik, 1977) are associated with emotional arousal. Therefore, while we measure the satisfaction, value or memorability of an experience, we may only be recalling that component of the experience associated with some particular psychological state (i.e. delight). This may help to explain the focus on peak experience (Fredrickson, 2000) in the literature.

3.2.2 Studying tourist experience phases

Against this background of psychological and cognitive science theory, the literature of tourism is somewhat disappointing, mainly descriptive and ignoring much of the

theoretical and practical progress made in understanding the mechanisms of the brain. Notwithstanding this general comment, it is useful to understand the status of tourism research as a basis for understanding how to progress. Cutler and Carmichael (2010) for example, demonstrated three dimensions of a travel experience: phases, influences and outcomes, a combination of travel stages as well as antecedents and consequences.

The discussion of experience stages whereby a person's travel is explicitly or implicitly divided into temporal sections appears logical in the study of travel and tourism. There are two main approaches to this temporal division: (i) some authors focus on a whole trip as the unit of analysis but divide it into a number of sequential stages (typically pre-, during and post-travel). For example, Hull *et al.* (1992) discuss travel as multiphasic; and (ii) others may focus on a particular (usually hedonic) event during a trip such as a meal, service experience (Otto and Brent Ritchie, 1996) or activity. Some attempts have been made to combine these two approaches, distinguishing a number of events within the overall stages of the trip (Aho, 2001). A model presenting this phasing of experience was developed by Clawson and Knetsch (1966). This model has five distinct yet interacting phases, therefore dividing the trip into different parts. From this perspective, tourism is translated from a geographical trip to an individual experience (Aho, 2001; Arnould *et al.*, 2002). Table 3.1 shows three different tourism stage typologies.

3.2.3 Managerial, inferred and participant experiences

In this chapter experiences have also been identified and grouped into three main types, labelled here as the managerial, inferred participant or participant approaches. Managerial identifying and grouping is based on some particular descriptor of the experience environment (natural, urban, rural, restaurant, etc.) and assumes that all experiences in such a context are similar and thus can be grouped together. Arguably there is an infinite number of context-based types of experiences that could be examined in future research. The physical location of the experience is commonly used for identifying types. Examples include wildlife or nature (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2011), urban (Selby, 2004), rural (Jepson and Sharpley, 2015) restaurant (Hanefors and Mossberg, 2003; Desmet and Schifferstein, 2008; Ryu and Han, 2011; Lee, 2015; Therkelsen, 2015), airport (Straker and Wrigley, 2016), store or shopping centres (Naylor *et al.*, 2008; Parsons *et al.*, 2010), hotel (Poria, 2006; Alcántara-Alcover *et al.*, 2013; Torres *et al.*, 2014; Zhang *et al.*, 2015), heritage (Masberg and Silverman, 1996; McIntosh, 1999; de Rojas and Camarero, 2008; Ali, 2015; Lee, 2015), theme park (Bigne *et al.*, 2005; Trischler and Zehrer, 2012; Ma, 2013), music performance (Lamont, 2012), festivals (Axelsen and Swan, 2010) or museum (Chan, 2009). The managerial approach provides broad types but may not explain a particular participant's experiential outcomes such as happiness or delight. Any one individual may experience a range of outcomes because visitors may have different experiences from the same stimuli due to their individual psychological processes (Larsen, 2007).

Arguably, augmented reality (AR) and virtual reality (VR) as types of experience fit under the managerial approach. The development of AR technologies has the potential to enhance tourists' experiences and make them exceptional (Yovcheva

Table 3.1. Phases of an experience.

Authors (year)	Stages	Description
Clawson (1963)	5	Anticipation (including planning) Travel to the actual site On-site experiences and activities Travel back Recollection
Aho (2001)	7	Orientation: awakening interest of some degree Attachment: strengthening interest resulting in the decision to go Visiting: the actual visit consisting of the travel and destination Evaluation: comparisons (with earlier experience and alternatives) and conclusions for future actions Storing: physical (photos, films, souvenirs); social (people and social situations to remember); mental (affections, impressions and new meanings) Reflection: repeated presentations (spontaneous and staged) of the experience Enrichment: presentations of films, souvenirs etc.; arrangement of meetings and networks to cherish memories; new practices created during the trip
Arnould <i>et al.</i> (2002)	4	Anticipated consumption experience: searching, planning for future purchases, daydreaming, budgeting and fantasizing Purchase experiences: choice, payment, bundling product, service encounter and atmospherics Consumption experiences: sense experience, satiation, (dis)satisfaction, arousal/flow, transformation Remembered consumption and nostalgia: activating photographs to relive past experiences, telling stories, comparing, talking with friends from days gone by, playing 'what if', remembered consumption, daydreaming, sorting through memorabilia and other mementos

et al., 2012). VR of nature-based experiences may be substitutes for real visitation to threatened sites (Guttentag, 2010). To recognize multiple technologies in transforming the nature of tourism experiences, the concept of technology-enhanced experiences has been introduced (Neuhofer *et al.*, 2012). Based on two dimensions: intensity of co-creation and technology implementation, we may determine a typology matrix of nine experiences ranging from traditional experiences to technology-enhanced multiplier co-creation experience (Neuhofer *et al.*, 2014). However, the range of actual individual outcomes from AR and VR need further study.

Inferred participant

This approach moves part way towards recognizing the individual human being as the starting point of the experience (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009). In this approach grouping is made on the basis of the inferred internal states of the participant. One scheme distinguishes between utilitarian or instrumental experiences and those that are pleasure seeking or hedonic in nature (Lofman, 1991; Scott *et al.*,

2009), for example experiential tourism consumption is generally classified as hedonic. In this approach there is an attempt to describe the participant outcome; thus entertainment experiences should result in a person being entertained (Ryan and Collins, 2008; Tan, 2008). Similarly, dark tourism suggests that a site creates 'dark' thoughts related to death, disaster, suffering and tragedy (Magee and Gilmore, 2015) or spiritual pilgrimage creates spiritual experiences (Belhassen *et al.*, 2008; Buzinde *et al.*, 2014). In practice, experiential outcomes from dark tourism sites are influenced by visitors' beliefs and understood meaning regarding the site (Kang *et al.*, 2012). Thus, pilgrimage can lead to an experience of spirituality and/or an experience of social unity (Buzinde *et al.*, 2014). Other examples of inferred participant types include aesthetic (Kirillova *et al.*, 2014) and creative experiences (Tan *et al.*, 2013; Chang *et al.*, 2014).

Rather than simply identifying types of experiences, Pine and Gilmore (1999) have proposed that four types (or 'realms') of experience – education, entertainment, escapist and aesthetic – can be classified based on two dimensions: engagement versus immersion and active versus passive. In essence this is an inferred participant approach and describes the expected, 'average' or 'normal' experiential outcome for a participant. The active–passive dimension describes the relationship between the customers and the performance, and the level of activity or physical arousal. The engagement versus immersion dimension suffers from numerous definitional issues and a number of concepts have been associated with this dimension, such as attention (attentional focus), involvement and temporal disassociation as discussed below. Interestingly, neither the 1998 Pine and Gilmore model nor Cohen (1979) or Clift (2000) discuss emotion, although other typologies of consumer experience that do are available. For example Walls *et al.* (2011a) discusses experiences on two dimensions: emotive–cognitive and extraordinary–ordinary. The lack of discussion of emotion may be considered a serious flaw, as other research in psychology suggests that emotion has a key role in vivid memory. Another focus in the literature of tourism experience is value and the concept of co-creation as a way to add value to tourism experiences (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009).

Participant approach

This is based on understanding the actual outcome or process of the experience for a participant rather than assuming that a particular relationship exists between the context and the visitor's mental processes. Here experience is defined as 'the result of encountering, undergoing or living through situation' (Schmitt, 1999, p. 25). It involves stimulations of the senses, the heart and the mind and therefore can be grouped in terms of sensory (Agapito *et al.*, 2014), emotional (Kim, 2012; Prayag *et al.*, 2015) and cognitive outcomes (Schmitt, 1999). Each of these types can be further expanded: for example, emotion into fun (Bosangit *et al.*, 2015) and delight or satisfaction (Ma *et al.*, 2017).

A number of authors have identified particular aspects of experience as important and influential of personal outcomes. A number of 'moderators' of tourism experience include involvement (Andrades and Dimanche, 2014), customers' individual characteristics, group characteristics and prior experience (Adhikari and Bhattacharya, 2015) have been studied in the tourism and marketing literature. The

antecedents of experiences highlighted in previous research are experiencescape, co-creation of experience, emotion, narratives, themes and stories, and the effect of other tourists and service providers (Mossberg, 2007), trip-related factors and personal characteristics of consumers including expectation (Walls *et al.*, 2011b). With a focus on perceived value of tourism experience, Prebensen *et al.* (2013b) identify a series of antecedents such as tourist motivation, involvement and knowledge, as well as consequences including satisfaction and future intention.

3.2.4 Psychological experience concepts

If we pursue a participant approach to experiences, then it can be useful to understand the appropriate psychological concepts. Somewhat surprisingly, many psychological concepts have not been applied extensively in the study of tourism experiences and a number are discussed briefly here.

Attention

This influences the way individuals perceive the environment and increases the chance of an event being coded into long-term memory (Ooi, 2003). In visitor management research, Moscardo (1996) concluded there is a positive association between interactivity and participation with interpretive effectiveness, due to visitors' greater attention and better recall; interactivity and participatory behaviour are effective 'at catching and keeping visitor attention and at improving learning and interest' (p. 387). Therefore, active participation, interaction and attention are considered paths to improve experience memorability. Notwithstanding the strategic role of attention in experiences and business (Davenport and Beck, 2001; Ocasio, 2011), the concept has received little consideration by tourism scholars (Ooi, 2005). Recent research has found that tourism experiences are affected by attention attractors, distractors and mediators and these play a crucial role in the construction of the tourist's understanding of the destination (Campos, 2016).

Attentional processes direct our mental capacities to salient stimuli detected in the environment. Saliency may be due to the stimuli being sensorially intense, novel, moving, contrasting or repetitive, or by being connected to the individual's motives, interests, goals or tasks for that experience. In the first case, called a bottom-up process, attention is triggered by the nature of the stimulus. In the second case, it is activated by the individual's motivations or goals which direct efforts and devote time to the selected stimulus to achieve an intended outcome. When attention is motivationally led, it is called top-down (Ocasio, 2011).

Engagement

There is general agreement that customer engagement occurs when a person is paying attention and that it is related to involvement with and commitment to a consumption experience (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie *et al.*, 2011). Engagement may be characterized by a customer playing a key role in creating the performance or event and may be related to co-creation (Campos *et al.*, in press). Interestingly, a study

of distinct dimensions of experiential engagement involved in narrative experiences has identified narrative understanding, attentional focus, emotional engagement and narrative presence (Brockmyer *et al.*, 2009). This suggests that engagement is a complex construct involving numerous mental processes. The concepts of fast and slow thinking relate to two different pathways in the brain which, if engaged, lead to different types of outcome (Ellis *et al.*, 2015) such as engagement, absorption or immersion in the experience and hence influence satisfaction.

Involvement

This can be defined as an individual's level of interest and personal relevance in relation to a focal object/decision in terms of his or her basic values, goals and self-concept (Zaichkowsky, 1994; Mittal, 1995). Involvement in an experience therefore concerns the level of interest and personal relevance in relationship to the experience. Involvement is high when customers are enjoying a service within specific settings, and high-involvement customers are less likely to switch to alternative suppliers (Laws, 2004; Mossberg, 2007).

Immersion

Immersion is an intense experience when the 'distance' between the experience and the consumer is reduced by what has been called 'operational appropriation' (Caru and Cova, 2007). This is 'a form of spatio-temporal belonging in the world that is characterized by deep involvement in the present moment' (Hansen and Mossberg, 2013, p. 212). It has also been defined as the sensation: 'of being surrounded by a completely other reality . . . that takes over all of our attention, our whole perceptual apparatus' (Ermi and Mäyrä, 2005). This definition is similar to that of attentional involvement, which is the 'degree to which one's attention is devoted to the activity at hand' (Abuhamdeh and Csikszentmihalyi, 2012, p. 258).

Cognitive absorption

This is viewed as a state of deep involvement with some object (Agarwal and Karahanna, 2000). It is related to the concept of flow and has five dimensions: temporal dissociation, attention focus, heightened enjoyment, control and curiosity, and with appropriation of most mental resources during the task (Léger *et al.*, 2014). Absorption has been measured by vivid imagination, being engrossed in our thoughts and responsiveness to involving stimuli (Patrick *et al.*, 2002).

In conclusion, the tourism literature has mostly grouped experiences into types for managerial purposes and this approach assumes that participants will receive a particular outcome from a context. In fact, a company cannot create an experience for the customer but only create a context to which the individual responds (Mossberg, 2007). Tourism experience outcomes depend on how the visitor, based on a specific situation or state of mind, reacts to the service encounter (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Yong-Hyun *et al.*, 2002; Mossberg, 2007). It is recommended that both academics and professionals develop tourism experiences typologies based on psychological concepts (Johns, 1999).

Models of experience

As discussed above, tourism experience researchers have developed models with different units of analysis (trip, event, immediate experience), disciplinary perspective (phenomenology, economics, psychology, sociology), as well as discussing some combination of the experience, its antecedents or consequences – here termed ‘scope’. This leads to a conceptually complex and dense literature. Examples from various authors are given in Table 3.2. In this literature particular topics are associated with the study of different stages of experience as shown in Table 3.3. For example, study of experience prior to travel emphasizes concepts such as expectations, decision making, motivation and goals. A focus on the immediate lived experience is associated with studies of peak experiences and the emergent meaning associated with it. Studies of post-experience outcomes are common and associated with perceived value or satisfaction. It is important to note that in these post-experience studies the bias in memory formation and recall are important but often ignored.

A number of conceptual models have been developed and Prentice *et al.* (1998) identify five types: hierarchical; flow; goal-orientated behaviour such as the theory of

Table 3.2. Discipline, unit of analysis, and scope of tourism experience models.

	Discipline ¹	Unit of analysis	Scope ²
Cohen (1979)	Phe	Tourist	E
Hull <i>et al.</i> (1992)		Trip	E
Otto and Brent Ritchie (1996)	Emp	Trip	E > C
Aho (2001)	Psy	Trip	A > E > C
Quan and Wang (2004)	Phe	Meal	E
Uriely (2005)	Soc		E
Andersson (2007)	Eco	Trip	A > E > C
Larsen (2007)	Psy	Trip	A > E > C
Mossberg (2007)	Mar	Trip	A > E
Kao <i>et al.</i> (2008)		Event	[E] > A > C
Binkhorst and Den Dekker (2009)	Mar	Event	E > C
Volo (2009)	Psy	Event	
Cutler and Carmichael (2010)	Psy	Trip	A > E > C
Walls <i>et al.</i> (2011a)	Mar	Event	A > E
Kim <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Mar		
Sfandla and Björk (2012)	Soc	Network	E > C
Prebensen <i>et al.</i> (2013a)	Mar	Event	E > C
Ellis <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Psy	Event	E > C
Park and Santos (2017)	Soc	Trip	A > E > C

¹Disciplinary approach (Eco = economics; Emp = empirical; Mar = marketing; Phe = phenomenological; Psy = psychology; Soc = sociology)

²Scope (A = antecedents; E = Experience; C = consequences)

planned behaviour; ‘insider–outsider’ perspective; and typological. Hierarchical models link experiential attributes to benefits, including the means–end chain analysis using the benefit chain of causality. This offers a potential segmentation of tourists based on benefit (psychological benefits, mood benefits and learning benefits) for outdoor recreation activities (Prentice *et al.*, 1998). From a psychological view, experience models focus on one mental state of engagement, flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 2014a) or outcomes such as value (Sfandla and Björk, 2012). The theory of planned behaviour has been used to study non-participation and non-visiting of attractions (Davies and Prentice, 1995). The insider–outsider perspective concerns tourists’ meaning or awareness of symbolism. Here we distinguish two others: phenomenological and systemic.

Phenomenological models

These highlight the key characteristics of tourism experiences through empirical rather than conceptually based research. For example, peak tourism experiences have been described as contrasting, intensified and extended versions of daily routine experiences (Quan and Wang, 2004). The phenomenological level of tourist experience – of which consumers are fully aware – must, however, be separated from the cognitive level where the transformation and learning happen (Volo, 2009). Aho (2001) proposes a process model, distinguishing between ‘on the spot experience’ and ‘a process view’ and between emotional, informative, practical/skilled and transformative experiences.

Systemic models

A number of these models have been discussed, covering the stages of the tourist experience. Based on socio-psychological principles, one was first developed by

Table 3.3. Topics associated with different stages of an experience.

Topic	Before	During	After travel
Choice	(Japutra <i>et al.</i> , 2014)		
Emotional segmentation and position	(Ro <i>et al.</i> , 2013)		
Travel choice and decision making	(Gnoth, 1997)		(Hosany, 2012, Hosany and Witham, 2010)
Attention		(Csikszentmihalyi, 2014b)	
Fast and slow thinking		(Ellis <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	
Flow		(Csikszentmihalyi, 2014b)	
Immersion		(Hansen and Mossberg, 2013)	
Experience		(Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987)	
Satisfaction			(Prayag <i>et al.</i> , 2013)
Memories			(Ali <i>et al.</i> , 2015)
Value			(Prebensen <i>et al.</i> , 2013b)

Currie (1997) to distinguish between the pre-pleasure tourism engagement phase and the pleasure tourism engagement phase. The second phase is said to be liminoidal. This model however is descriptive and not explanatory. Later, Aho (2001) developed a psychological stages model in which tourism is considered a voluntary activity, where orientation in the form of awakening interest to touristic experiences is a necessary starting point of the process, leading to decisions about touristic choices and later to touristic experiences. The second step is interest or attachment to a particular destination or route. Expectations are the core of attachment. The model distinguishes between three main types of motivational elements (physical, mental and social); between individual and collective variances; between personal experience resources (time, money, knowledge, skills, attitudes and social networks); and between seven stages of experience (orientation, attachment, visiting, evaluation, storing, reflection and enrichment).

Larsen (2007) provided an important systematic model of experiences from a psychological perspective, indicating that the three essential components (or processes) of a tourist experience are expectancies, perception at the destination and memory. The concept of expectancies is related to goals, which are also used in the cognitive appraisal theory of emotions. Cutler and Carmichael (2010) developed a comprehensive stages model that highlights the importance of motivation or expectations in the anticipation of travel and also in satisfaction or dissatisfaction in its evaluation. This model explicitly highlights issues of memories, perceptions, knowledge and self-understanding of identity. Park and Santos (2017) developed a three-stage whole-of-trip psychological model which highlights the importance of anticipation and expectation, recollections and feedback. In brief, academics have developed different models to conceptualize experience as well as to identify its antecedents and consequences. Most models are conceptual and focus on different aspects of experience at one stage, although several systematic models examine all three stages of experience: anticipated, lived and memorable experiences.

3.3 Discussion and Conclusion

This brief review of the prior literature of experience has highlighted a diverse unstructured literature that lacks agreement on central research questions, models and concepts. Implicitly each author not only brings particular disciplinary perspectives but also a particular value system that privileges certain aims and objectives. The orientation of this review is that the key explanatory aspects of experience are psychological in nature. The tourism literature appears deficient in adopting recent mainstream theoretical ideas from psychology such as attention, emotion, memory and appraisal, and in discussing concepts such as sensation and feelings from a cognitive science perspective.

A second observation is that a large number of different types of tourism experience have been studied, including those which may be classified as hedonic as well those that are more mundane and routine. This raises the question of whether one model of tourism experience is applicable across the context of tourism. The context

of tourism is often taken as hedonic, but other forms of experience are being studied across a wide variety of types, in many social contexts and with many different visitor types. Leisure tourism also includes many different types of travel such as long stay, main annual vacations and short breaks, and many motivations. Similarly, visitors may have different levels of involvement with the tourism experience which will affect their subsequent evaluation. For example, a relationship between involvement with trip planning and trip evaluation has been established. When tourists make extensive preparations for their trips they create high expectations, and so will be more involved in the trip evaluation (Seabra *et al.*, 2016). McCabe *et al.* (2016, p. 1) discuss the importance of involvement in decisions about a destination to visit and highlight that depending upon cognitive load and involvement a number of different heuristics may be involved. Therefore, while systematic models provide useful guidelines for research, they may not allow detailed insights into particular experience types.

Some parts of the tourism literature on experiences are focused on the meaning of experiences for an individual. This is a useful but descriptive approach which in some sense abrogates responsibility for theory development and ignores the explanatory power of cognitive psychology in dealing with factors such as attention and cognitive appraisal (as discussed in Chapter 2 by Larsen, Doran and Wolff). It also seeks to relate antecedents of an experience to consequences such as experiential value or memorability without considering the intervening psychological processes. It appears to ascribe meaning to external objects rather than considering meaning as a property of the human brain.

Surprisingly, the tourism literature does not embrace study of the causes of emotions. Psychological theories indicate that emotions elicited are due to cognitive evaluations of objects and are not inherent in the objects themselves. It is true that many objects have normative mental associations (the Eiffel Tower is a symbol of romance). However, this is a statistical issue – most people do this but it does not mean that all people must. Cohen (1979, p. 180) wrote that tourists vary individually in their motivations, and that ‘the tourist does not exist as a type.’ While true, psychological theories can be applied to better understand tourist experience based on the commonalities of brain function (Larsen, 2007).

This chapter has analysed and synthesized the literature on tourism experience, a key concept in tourism research, and found a lack of consensus. Authors have adopted different disciplinary perspectives (psychology, sociology, phenomenology, anthropology, geography, marketing or management) to develop various models, typologies and dimensions of tourism experience. Tourism experience has commonly been divided into stages: prior to travel (expectations, decision making, motivation and goal), lived experience (attention, flow, fast and slow thinking) and post-experience (value or satisfaction). Most studies of this highly complicated psychological process (Larsen, 2007) are descriptive and simplistic. Future researchers are recommended to use cognitive psychology theories to study different aspects of tourist experience. While tourist experience is a combination of cognitive and emotive components (Adhikari and Bhattacharya, 2015), most ignore emotion in their models and this should be a central focus for further studies seeking to understand tourist experience and behaviour.

References

- Abuhamdeh, S. and Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2012) Attentional involvement and intrinsic motivation. *Motivation and Emotion* 36(3), 257–267.
- Adhikari, A. and Bhattacharya, S. (2015) Appraisal of literature on customer experience in tourism sector: review and framework. *Current Issues in Tourism* 19(4), 296–321.
- Agapito, D., Valle, P. and Mendes, J. (2014) The sensory dimension of tourist experiences: capturing meaningful sensory-informed themes in southwest Portugal. *Tourism Management* 42, 224–237.
- Agarwal, R. and Karahanna, E. (2000) Time flies when you're having fun: cognitive absorption and beliefs about information technology usage. *MIS Quarterly* 24(4), 665–694.
- Aho, S.K. (2001) Towards a general theory of touristic experiences: modelling experience process in tourism. *Tourism Review* 56(3–4), 33–37.
- Alcántara-Alcover, E., Artacho-Ramírez, M.Á., Martínez-Guillamón, N. and Campos-Soriano, N. (2013) Purpose of stay and willingness to stay as dimensions to identify and evaluate hotel experiences. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 33, 357–365.
- Ali, F. (2015) Heritage tourist experience, nostalgia, and behavioural intentions. *Anatolia* 26(3), 472–475.
- Ali, F., Ryu, K. and Hussain, K. (2015) Influence of experiences on memories, satisfaction and behavioural intentions: a study of creative tourism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 33(1), 85–100.
- Andersson, T.D. (2007) The tourist in the experience economy. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(1), 46–58.
- Andrades, L. and Dimanche, F. (2014) Co-creation of experience value: a tourist behaviour approach. In: Prebensen, N.K., Chen, J.S. and Uysal, M. (eds) *Creating Experience Value in Tourism*. CABI, Wallingford, UK, pp. 95–112.
- Arnould, E., Price, L. and Zinkhan, G. (2002) *Consumers*. McGraw-Hill Irwin, New York.
- Axelsen, M. and Swan, T. (2010) Designing festival experiences to influence visitor perceptions: the case of a wine and food festival. *Journal of Travel Research* 49(4), 436–450.
- Baars, B.J. (2005) Global workspace theory of consciousness: toward a cognitive neuroscience of human experience. *Progress in Brain Research* 150, 45–53.
- Ballantyne, R., Packer, J. and Sutherland, L.A. (2011) Visitors' memories of wildlife tourism: implications for the design of powerful interpretive experiences. *Tourism Management* 32(4), 770–779.
- Barsalou, L.W. (1988) The content and organization of autobiographical memories. In: Neisser, U. and Winograd, E. (eds) *Remembering Reconsidered: Ecological and Traditional Approaches to the Study of Memory*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, pp. 193–243.
- Belhassen, Y., Caton, K. and Stewart, W.P. (2008) The search for authenticity in the pilgrim experience. *Annals of Tourism Research* 35(3), 668–689.
- Bigne, J.E., Andreu, L. and Gnoth, J. (2005) The theme park experience: an analysis of pleasure, arousal and satisfaction. *Tourism Management* 26(6), 833–844.
- Binkhorst, E. and Den Dekker, T. (2009) Agenda for co-creation tourism experience research. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 18(2–3), 311–327.
- Boorstin, C. (1964) *The Image: A Guide to Pseudo-Events in American Society*. Harper & Row, New York.
- Bosangit, C., Hibbert, S. and McCabe, S. (2015) "If I was going to die I should at least be having fun": travel blogs, meaning and tourist experience. *Annals of Tourism Research* 55, 1–14.
- Brockmyer, J.H., Fox, C.M., Curtiss, K.A., McBroom, E., Burkhart, K.M. and Pidruzny, J.N. (2009) The development of the Game Engagement Questionnaire: a measure of engagement in video game-playing. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 45(4), 624–634.
- Brodie, R.J. and Hollebeek, L.D. (2011) Advancing and consolidating knowledge about customer engagement. *Journal of Service Research* 14(3), 283–284.
- Brodie, R.J., Hollebeek, L.D., Jurić, B. and Ilić, A. (2011) Customer engagement. *Journal of Service Research* 14(3), 252–271.

- Brown, R. and Kulik, J. (1977) Flashbulb memories. *Cognition* 5(1), 73–99.
- Buzinde, C.N., Kalavar, J.M., Kohli, N. and Manuel-Navarrete, D. (2014) Emic understandings of Kumbh Mela pilgrimage experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research* 49, 1–18.
- Campos, A.C. (2016) Co-creation of tourist experience: attention, involvement and memorability. PhD thesis, Universidade do Algarve, Faro, Portugal.
- Campos, A.C., Mendes, J., Valle, P. and Scott, N. (2015) Co-creation of tourist experiences: a literature review. *Current Issues in Tourism* 1–32. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2015.1081158
- Caru, A. and Cova, B. (2007) Consumer immersion in an experiential context. In: Caru, A. and Cova, B. (eds) *Consuming Experience*. Routledge, London, pp. 34–48.
- Chan, J.K.L. (2009) The consumption of museum service experiences: benefits and value of museum experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 18(2–3), 173–196.
- Chang, L.-L., Backman, K. and Chih Huang, Y. (2014) Creative tourism: a preliminary examination of creative tourists' motivation, experience, perceived value and revisit intention. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research* 8(4), 401–419.
- Clawson, M. (1963) *Land and Water for Recreation: Opportunities, Problems, and Policies*. Rand McNally, Chicago, Illinois.
- Clawson, M. and Knetsch, J.L. (1966) *Economics of Outdoor Recreation*. Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, Maryland.
- Clift, S. (2000) Tourism and health: current issues and future concerns. *Tourism Recreation Research* 25(3), 55–61.
- Cohen, E. (1979) A phenomenology of tourist experiences. *Sociology* 13(2), 179–210.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990) *Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience*. Harper & Row, New York.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2014a) Attention and the holistic approach to behavior. In: Csikszentmihalyi, M. (ed.) *Flow and the Foundations of Positive Psychology*. Springer, New York, pp. 1–20.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2014b) The concept of flow. In: Csikszentmihalyi, M. (ed.) *Flow and the Foundations of Positive Psychology*. Springer, New York, pp. 239–263.
- Currie, R.R. (1997) A pleasure-tourism behaviors framework. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(4), 884–897.
- Cutler, S. and Carmichael, B. (2010) The dimensions of the tourist experience. In: Morgan, M., Lugosi, P. and Brent Ritchie, J.R. (eds) *The Tourism and Leisure Experience: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives*. Channel View, Bristol, UK, pp. 3–26.
- Davenport, T.H. and Beck, J.C. (2001) *The Attention Economy: Understanding the New Currency of Business*. Harvard Business Press, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Davies, A. and Prentice, R. (1995) Conceptualizing the latent visitor to heritage attractions. *Tourism Management* 16(7), 491–500.
- de Rojas, C. and Camarero, C. (2008) Visitors' experience, mood and satisfaction in a heritage context: evidence from an interpretation center. *Tourism Management* 29(3), 525–537.
- Desmet, P. and Schifferstein, H. (2008) Sources of positive and negative emotions in food experience. *Appetite* 50(2), 290–301.
- Ellis, G.D., Jamal, T. and Jiang, J. (2015) *Fast-thinking and slow-thinking: a process approach to understand situated tourist experiences*. Tourism Travel and Research Association: Advancing Tourism Research Globally, Portland, Oregon.
- Ermí, L. and Mäyrä, F. (2005) Fundamental components of the gameplay experience: analysing immersion. In: de Castell, S. and Jennifer, J. (eds) *Worlds in Play: International Perspectives on Digital Games Research*. Peter Lang, New York, pp. 37–54.
- Fredrickson, B.L. (2000) Extracting meaning from past affective experiences: the importance of peaks, ends, and specific emotions. *Cognition & Emotion* 14(4), 577–606.
- Gnoth, J. (1997) Tourism motivation and expectation formation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2), 283–304.
- Graburn, N.H.H. (1989) Tourism: the sacred journey. In: Smith, V. (ed.) *Hosts and Guests* (2nd edn). University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, pp. 21–36.

- Gram, M. (2005) Family holidays: a qualitative analysis of family holiday experiences. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 5(1), 2–22.
- Grewal, D., Levy, M. and Kumar, V. (2009) Customer experience management in retailing: an organizing framework. *Journal of Retailing* 85(1), 1–14.
- Gunn, C.A. (1972) *Vacationscape: Developing Tourist Areas*. Bureau of Business Research, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.
- Guttentag, D.A. (2010) Virtual reality: applications and implications for tourism. *Tourism Management* 31(5), 637–651.
- Hanefors, M. and Mossberg, L. (2003) Searching for the extraordinary meal experience. *Journal of Business and Management* 9(3), 249–270.
- Hansen, A.H. and Mossberg, L. (2013) Consumer immersion: a key to extraordinary experiences. In: Sundbo, J. and Sørensen, F. (eds) *Handbook on the Experience Economy*. Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, UK, pp. 209–227.
- Holbrook, M.B. and Hirschman, E.C. (1982) The experiential aspects of consumption: consumer fantasies, feelings and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research* 9(2), 132–140.
- Hosany, S. (2012) Appraisal determinants of tourist emotional responses. *Journal of Travel Research* 51(3), 303–314.
- Hosany, S. and Witham, M. (2010) Dimensions of cruisers' experiences, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research* 49(3), 351–364.
- Hull, R.B., Stewart, W.P. and Yi, Y.K. (1992) Experience patterns: capturing the dynamic nature of a recreation experience. *Journal of Leisure Research* 24(3), 240–252.
- Japutra, A., Ekinici, Y. and Simkin, L. (2014) Exploring brand attachment, its determinants and outcomes. *Journal of Strategic Marketing* 22(7), 616–630.
- Jensen, Ø., Lindberg, F. and Østergaard, P. (2015) How can consumer research contribute to increased understanding of tourist experiences? A conceptual review. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 15 (suppl. 1), 9–27.
- Jepson, D. and Sharpley, R. (2015) More than sense of place? Exploring the emotional dimension of rural tourism experiences. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 23(8–9), 1157–1178.
- Johns, N. (1999) What is this thing called service? *European Journal of Marketing* 33(9–10), 958–973.
- Kang, E., Scott, N., Lee, T. and Ballantyne, R. (2012) Benefits from visiting a 'dark tourism' site: the case of the Jeju April 3rd Peace Park, Korea. *Tourism Management* 33(2), 257–265.
- Kao, Y.-F., Huang, L. and Wu, C.-H. (2008) Effects of theatrical elements on experiential quality and loyalty intentions for theme parks. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research* 13(2), 163–174.
- Kim, J.-H. (2010) Determining the factors affecting the memorable nature of travel experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 27(8), 780–796.
- Kim, J.-H., Ritchie, J.R.B. and McCormick, B. (2012) Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research* 51(1), 12–25.
- Kim, S. (2012) Audience involvement and film tourism experiences: emotional places, emotional experiences. *Tourism Management* 33(2), 387–396.
- Kirillova, K., Fu, X., Lehto, X. and Cai, L. (2014) What makes a destination beautiful? Dimensions of tourist aesthetic judgment. *Tourism Management* 42, 282–293.
- Lamont, A. (2012) Emotion, engagement and meaning in strong experiences of music performance. *Psychology of Music* 40(5), 574–594.
- Larsen, S. (2007) Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(1), 7–18.
- Laws, E. (2004) *Improving Tourism and Hospitality Services*. CABI Publishing, Wallingford, UK.
- Lee, Y.-J. (2015) Creating memorable experiences in a reuse heritage site. *Annals of Tourism Research* 55, 155–170.
- Léger, P.-M., Davis, F.D., Cronan, T.P. and Perret, J. (2014) Neurophysiological correlates of cognitive absorption in an enactive training context. *Computers in Human Behavior* 34, 273–283.

- Lengkeek, J. (2001) Leisure experience and imagination rethinking Cohen's modes of tourist experience. *International Sociology* 16(2), 173–184.
- Li, Y. (2000) Geographical consciousness and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(4), 863–883.
- Lofman, B. (1991) Elements of experiential consumption: an exploratory study. *Advances in Consumer Research* 18, 729–735.
- Ma, J. (2013) Emotions derived from theme park experiences: The antecedents and consequences of customer delight. PhD thesis, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.
- Ma, J.S., N., Ding, P. and Gao, J. (2017) Delighted or satisfied? Positive emotional responses derived from theme park experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 34(1), 1–19.
- MacCannell, D. (1976) *The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class*. Schocken Books, New York.
- Magee, R. and Gilmore, A. (2015) Heritage site management: from dark tourism to transformative service experience? *The Service Industries Journal* 35(15–16), 898–917.
- Mannell, R.C. and Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1987) Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research* 14(3), 314–331.
- Masberg, B. and Silverman, L. (1996) Visitor experiences at heritage sites: a phenomenological approach. *Journal of Travel Research* 34(4), 20–25.
- McCabe, S., Li, C. and Chen, Z. (2016) Time for a radical reappraisal of tourist decision making? Toward a new conceptual model. *Journal of Travel Research* 55(1), 3–15.
- McIntosh, A. J. (1999) Into the tourist's mind: understanding the value of heritage experience. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 8(1), 41–64.
- Mittal, B. (1995) A comparative analysis of four scales of consumer involvement. *Psychology & Marketing* 12(7), 663–682.
- Moscardo, G. (1996) Mindful visitors: heritage and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 23(2), 376–397.
- Mossberg, L. (2007) A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(1), 59–74.
- Naylor, G., Kleiser, S.B., Baker, J. and Yorkston, E. (2008) Using transformational appeals to enhance the retail experience. *Journal of Retailing* 84(1), 49–57.
- Neuhof, B., Buhalis, D. and Ladkin, A. (2012) Conceptualising technology enhanced destination experiences. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management* 1(1–2), 36–46.
- Neuhof, B., Buhalis, D. and Ladkin, A. (2014) A typology of technology-enhanced tourism experiences. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 16(4), 340–350.
- Neulinger, J. (1974) *Psychology of Leisure*. Charles C. Thomas, Springfield, Illinois.
- Obenour, W., Patterson, M., Pedersenc, P. and Pearson, L. (2006) Conceptualization of a meaning-based research approach for tourism service experiences. *Tourism Management* 27(1), 34–41.
- Ocasio, W. (2011) Attention to attention. *Organization Science* 22(5), 1286–1296.
- Ooi, C.S. (2003) Crafting tourism experiences: managing the attention product. 12th Nordic Symposium on Tourism and Hospitality Research. Norwegian School of Hotel Management, University College, Stavanger, Norway, pp. 1–26.
- Ooi, C.S. (2005) A theory of tourism experiences: the management of attention. In: O'Dell, T. and Billing, P. (eds) *Experiencescapes: Tourism, Culture and Economy*. Copenhagen Business School Press, Kage, Denmark, pp. 51–68.
- O'Sullivan, E.L. and Spangler, K.J. (1998) *Experience Marketing: Strategies for the New Millennium*. Venture Publishing, State College, Pennsylvania.
- Otto, J.E. and Brent Ritchie, J.R. (1996) The service experience in tourism. *Tourism Management* 17(3), 165–174.
- Park, S. and Santos, C.A. (2017) Exploring the tourist experience: a sequential approach. *Journal of Travel Research* 56(1), 16–27.
- Parsons, A.G., Ballantine, P.W., Jack, R. and Parsons, A.G. (2010) Atmospheric cues and their effect on the hedonic retail experience. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management* 38(8), 641–653.

- Patrick, C.J., Curtin, J.J. and Tellegen, A. (2002) Development and validation of a brief form of the multidimensional personality questionnaire. *Psychological Assessment* 14(2), 150–163.
- Pearce, P.L. (1982) Perceived changes in holiday destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research* 9(2), 145–164.
- Pearce, P.L. (1987) Psychological studies of tourist behaviour and experience. *Australian Journal of Psychology* 39(2), 173–182.
- Pine, B.J. and Gilmore, J.H. (1998) Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review* 76, 97–105.
- Pine, B.J. and Gilmore, J.H. (1999) *The Experience Economy: Work is Theatre and Every Business a Stage*. Harvard Business School Press, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Poria, Y. (2006) Assessing gay men and lesbian women's hotel experiences: an exploratory study of sexual orientation in the travel industry. *Journal of Travel Research* 44(3), 327–334.
- Prayag, G., Hosany, S. and Odeh, K. (2013) The role of tourists' emotional experiences and satisfaction in understanding behavioral intentions. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management* 2(2), 118–127.
- Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Muskat, B. and Del Chiappa, G. (2015) Understanding the relationships between tourists' emotional experiences, perceived overall image, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research* 56(1), 41–54.
- Prebensen, N.K., Woo, E., Chen, J.S. and Uysal, M. (2013a) Motivation and involvement as antecedents of the perceived value of the destination experience. *Journal of Travel Research* 52(2), 253–264.
- Prebensen, N.K., Woo, E. and Uysal, M.S. (2013b) Experience value: antecedents and consequences. *Current Issues in Tourism* 17(10), 910–928.
- Prentice, R., Witt, S.F. and Hamer, C. (1998) Tourism as experience: the case of heritage parks. *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(1), 1–24.
- Quan, S. and Wang, N. (2004) Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: an illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management* 25, 297–305.
- Ro, H., Lee, S. and Mattila, A.S. (2013) An affective image positioning of Las Vegas hotels. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism* 14(3), 201–217.
- Ryan, C. (1997) *The Tourist Experience*. Cassell, London.
- Ryan, C. and Collins, A.B. (2008) Entertaining international visitors: the hybrid nature of tourism shows. *Tourism Recreation Research* 33(2), 143–149.
- Ryu, K. and Han, H. (2011) New or repeat customers: How does physical environment influence their restaurant experience? *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 30(3), 599–611.
- Saraniemi, S. and Kylänen, M. (2011) Problematising the concept of tourism destination: an analysis of different theoretical approaches. *Journal of Travel Research* 50(2), 133–143.
- Schacter, D.L. (1999) The seven sins of memory: insights from psychology and cognitive neuroscience. *American Psychologist* 54(3), 182–203.
- Schacter, D.L. (2012) Constructive memory: past and future. *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience* 14(1), 7–18.
- Schacter, D.L. and Addis, D.R. (2007) The cognitive neuroscience of constructive memory: remembering the past and imagining the future. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 362(1481), 773–786.
- Schmitt, B. (1999) Experiential marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management* 15(1–3), 53–67.
- Scott, N., Laws, E. and Boksberger, P. (2009) The marketing of hospitality and leisure experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 18(2–3), 1–12.
- Seabra, C., Silva, C., Luís Abrantes, J., Vicente, M. and Herstein, R. (2016) The influence of motivations in tourists' involvement. *Anatolia* 27(1), 4–15.
- Selby, M. (2004) *Understanding Urban Tourism, Image, Culture and Experience: Tourism, Retailing and Consumption*. I.B.Tauris, London.
- Sfandla, C. and Björk, P. (2012) Tourism experience network: co-creation of experiences in interactive processes. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 15, 495–506.

- Straker, K. and Wrigley, C. (2016) Translating emotional insights into digital channel designs: opportunities to enhance the airport experience. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology* 7(2), 135–157.
- Tan, E.S.-H. (2008) Entertainment is emotion: the functional architecture of the entertainment experience. *Media Psychology* 11(1), 28–51.
- Tan, S.-K., Kung, S.-F. and Luh, D.-B. (2013) A model of 'creative experience' in creative tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 41, 153–174.
- Therkelsen, A. (2015) Catering for yourself: food experiences of self-catering tourists. *Tourist Studies* 15(3), 316–333.
- Torres, E.N., Fu, X. and Lehto, X. (2014) Examining key drivers of customer delight in a hotel experience: a cross-cultural perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 36, 255–262.
- Trischler, J. and Zehrer, A. (2012) Service design: suggesting a qualitative multistep approach for analyzing and examining theme park experiences. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 18(1), 57–71.
- Tung, V.W.S. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (2011) Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research* 38(4), 1367–1386.
- Uriely, N. (2005) The tourist experience: conceptual developments. *Annals of Tourism Research* 32(1), 199–216.
- Volo, S. (2009) Conceptualizing experience: a tourist based approach. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 18(2), 111–126.
- Walls, A., Okumus, F., Wang, Y. and Kwun, D. (2011a) An epistemological view of consumer experiences. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 30(1), 10–21.
- Walls, A.R., Okumus, F. and Wang, Y. (2011b) Cognition and affect interplay: a framework for the tourist vacation decision-making process. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 28(5), 567–582.
- Wang, N. (1999) Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research* 26(2), 349–370.
- Yong-Hyun, C., Youcheng, W. and Fesenmaier, D.R. (2002) Searching for experiences: the web-based virtual tour in tourism marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 12(4), 1–17.
- Yovcheva, Z., Buhalis, D. and Gatzidis, C. (2012) Smartphone augmented reality applications for tourism. *e-Review of Tourism Research (eRTR)* 10(2), 63–66.
- Zaichkowsky, J.L. (1994) The personal involvement inventory: reduction, revision, and application to advertising. *Journal of Advertising* 23(4), 59–70.
- Zhang, Z., Li, H. and Law, R. (2015) Differences and similarities in perceptions of hotel experience: the role of national cultures. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 32(Suppl. 1), S2–S14.

This page intentionally left blank

Part II Pre-experience Stage: Customer Inputs

This page intentionally left blank

4

Exploring Experience and Motivation Using Means-end Chain Theory

SHAN JIANG*

Capital Normal University, Beijing, China

4.1 Introduction

Tourism experience is a crucial topic in the research field of tourist behaviour, because ‘everything a tourist goes through at a destination is an experience, be it behavioural or perceptual, cognitive or emotional, expressed or implied’ (Oh *et al.*, 2007, p. 120). Motivation is an important concept in the study of tourism experiences, although scholars discussing tourist experiences have largely probed the relationship between motivation and tourist experiences, with particular emphasis on their implied deterministic notions (Gomez-Jacinto *et al.*, 1999). People are motivated to travel to obtain experiences related to their goals, and their motivations also drive their value perception of destination experiences (Duman and Mattila, 2005). Understanding the drivers of memorable tourist experiences provides valuable insights for product development and improvement of service delivery. Although a variety of studies in the tourism literature of tourist experiences has been documented over the last three decades, the use of the means-end chain (MEC) approach as a method of capturing the motivational antecedents of tourists’ experiences has not yet been discussed thoroughly (Chen *et al.*, 2016).

The MEC approach provides a means to identify the motivational drivers influencing tourist experiences, and how destination attributes deliver a tourist their preferred experiences and satisfy their needs at the value level. A tourist’s experience is affected by psychological (e.g. expectation, perception and motivation), socio-demographic (e.g. education, income), lifestyle (e.g. basic living, moderate living and extravagant living) and external factors (e.g. weather, regulations and the environment). This chapter does not discuss all of these factors; however, it discusses the use of MEC for examining the reasons underlying the choice of tourist experiences.

*Corresponding author e-mail: jiangshan@cnu.edu.cn

4.2 Literature Review

Travel motivation is a type of human motivation that comprises the total network of biological and cultural forces which give value and direction to travel choice, behaviour and experience (Pearce, 2011). Dann (1981, p. 205) defined travel motivation as 'a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision'. Motivation theories indicate that individuals constantly strive to achieve a state of stability (homeostasis). In general, motivation occurs when a homeostatic status is disrupted and there is an awareness of a need deficiency. This awareness creates wants and, consequently, an objective/goal is manifested to satisfy the need (Goossens, 2000). Internal and external stimuli cause human motivation (Iso-Ahola, 1999), and with the influence of both the tourists' situation and value, needs or motives develop into motivations (Gnoth, 1997). Because travel motivation is considered an impelling force that precedes all behaviour (Berkman and Gilson, 1978), it is regarded as a critical variable in tourism research (Crompton, 1979). Determining the important questions of what motivates people to travel and how travel motivation ought to be examined allows us to better define the value of tourism behaviour. Additionally, it facilitates tourism researchers and marketers to predict or influence future travel patterns (Uysal and Hagan, 1993).

4.2.1 Motivation and experience

In the motivation research field, cognition is a term used to describe the intellectual or perceptual processes occurring when we analyse and interpret both the world around us and our own thoughts and actions. According to this cognitive approach, needs and past experience are reasoned, categorized and transformed into attitudes and beliefs which act as predispositions focusing on helping the individual satisfy needs. Motivation can be depicted as the driving force behind all behaviour, and directly affects overall evaluation. In the context of tourism experience it is widely accepted that post-experience satisfaction is related to the realization of motivation perceptions (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991), and that prior travel experience significantly influences tourists' behaviour of revisiting a destination. As a result, people are more likely to revisit a destination if they have had satisfactory past travel experiences in it.

Although travel experience has been well documented as a popular topic in the tourism research field (Mazursky, 1989), it is argued that the concept and its operationalization are blurred and arguable (Huang and Hsu, 2009). A study of tourism experience conducted using in-depth interviews (Knobloch, 2014) showed that: (i) respondents associate different meanings to experiences; and (ii) types of experiences might be prominent in the minds of respondents for different reasons. This calls for a new approach to looking at tourists' experiences which emphasizes the multidimensional nature of experiences, as well as the importance of the associated emotional aspects. Knobloch's findings raise questions about the uninformed use of words by researchers, and the limitations of understanding the nature of experience which may be a consequence.

Current travel motivation studies assert that people tend to construct their well-being to realize their values and that tourism experience, as a context, represents a teleological or forward-looking approach (Pearce and Packer, 2013). A decision about whether or where to go is based upon a traveller's preference for and an evaluation of destination attributes, attribute performances, and consequences arising from their use that facilitate (or block) the achievement of the customer's goals. By linking motivation and the customer's preferred experience, MEC theory offers a better understanding of the motivation consumers possess related to specific products or experiences.

It is essential for industry operators to understand travel motivation to meet and exceed their customers' needs, and to provide personalized services and memorable experiences to customers, which will lead to repeat business (Huang and Hsu, 2009). Travel motivation helps us to explore why people travel (Crompton, 1979). A thorough understanding of motivation allows a better understanding of why certain groups of people choose certain holiday experiences (Pearce and Packer, 2013).

4.2.2 Travel motivation theories

A variety of tourism motivation theories proposed in the prior literature is discussed below. Each theory adds to our understanding of why people undertake certain experiences; however, no single theory has received universal acceptance and each has strengths and weaknesses.

Plog's psychocentric-allocentrism

A psychographic system proposed by Plog (1974, 1987), based on his work with the airline industry, examined the underlying causes of why the popularity of destinations rises and falls. Plog considered that destinations appeal to specific types of people and typically follow a relatively predictable pattern of growth and decline. Plog's model has been widely cited in tourism textbooks, but also has been criticized as tautological (Braun, 1989) and explaining nothing (Gnoth, 1997). Later, Plog (2001) revised his psychographic scale and updated his model to include how travel has changed and where destinations fit on his destination–lifecycle chart. Plog's work describes how tourists' travel patterns and preferences are determined by their personality characteristics, and in particular their position on an allocentric–psychocentric scale. Destinations rise and fall in popularity as they become better known and hence appeal to different groups (Plog, 2001).

In Plog's model, the distribution of five psychographic personality types, ranging from allocentric to psychocentric, fit a normal curve. Allocentric types are intellectually curious and want to explore the world; they make decisions quickly and easily. They also spend discretionary income readily and are more likely to choose new products shortly after their introduction into the marketplace. In comparison, psychocentric-type people are somewhat cautious and conservative in their daily lives. They are restrictive in spending discretionary income and prefer more popular, well-known brands of consumer products. While the model may provide insight into the behavioural characteristics of tourists, it does little to help understand tourist

motivation or predict actual tourist behaviour (Huang and Hsu, 2009). Additionally, there is little empirical work to support this theory and, furthermore, the model does not consider multiple-motivation behaviour, nor can it explain the different types of tourism experience in a single destination. Plog's psychographic personality types are considered a form of tourist role and lifestyle typology (Hsu and Huang, 2008), which proposes a more inherent perspective and ignores the destination as an external factor influencing the tourism experience.

Push and pull theory

The 'push and pull' theory was first proposed by Dann (1977). 'Pull' factors are the specific attractions of the destination which entice the traveller once the decision to travel has been made. 'Push' factors are defined as internal motives or forces that cause tourists to seek activities to reduce their needs, which provides a dichotomy of internal and external motivators containing drive-based emotions (push factors) and cognitions (pull factors) (Gnoth, 1997). Following Dann's work, Crompton (1979) asserted that socio-psychological motives are useful tools for explaining the initial arousal as well as the reason why potential tourists choose a specific destination. Based on in-depth interviews, Crompton (1979) identified seven socio-psychological and two cultural motives which were believed to result in direct pleasure vacation behaviour. The seven 'push' factors were: escape from routine, self-discovery, relaxation, prestige, regression, improve family relationships and facilitate social interaction. The two 'pull' factors, novelty and education, are related to cultural imbalance and are regarded as benefits received from travel. While Crompton's work is important and the motivation items he summarized have been used by many subsequent studies, it is argued that the categorization of motivations in terms of the 'push and pull' factor is not clear-cut.

'Push and pull' theory is widely used in travel motivation research. However, the above discussion indicates that there are limitations to this theory:

1. There is no explanation of how 'push and pull' factors work together to generate travel motivation and to what degree each factor acts to motivate. Crompton (1979) has claimed that travel motives should not be regarded as mutually exclusive, nor should any single tension state be selected as the determinant of behaviour. When asked about their experience during their travel, respondents were most likely to mention 'pull' factors (Jennings, 2006) such as activities, driving, landscape viewing and scenery. They might also have mentioned social interaction with other people, but there is a lack of acknowledgement of their 'push' factors towards the tourism experience. While support and customer service components were often mentioned, these were not their original travel motivations or their true reason to come to the destination. It is believed that motives work in tandem or in combination because they are multidimensional (Pyo *et al.*, 1989), yet the theory scarcely explained how these two factors affect travel experience.
2. Although it is acknowledged that 'push and pull' factors should not be treated as operating entirely independently of each other (Crompton, 1979), 'push and pull' theory itself does not explain the interrelationship between these factors. Theoretically, the distinction between 'push and pull' factors should be included in any study as 'pull' factors both respond to and reinforce 'push' factors (Dann, 1981). Although

there are studies that have investigated this topic, the problem remains unresolved. The theory does not provide further information on what kind of relationship exists or how one factor is related to another: is there a causal relationship between the two factors, or does one just influence the other? Furthermore, the 'push and pull' items did not consider all possible dimensions of motivation (Chul Oh, *et al.*, 1995). This means that although these two factors are related, there may be other, stronger relationships with other factors which are beyond the theory's scope. There is a need for more studies on 'push and pull' theory that link 'push' factors from the tourist side and 'pull' factors from the destination side to provide insight on the tourism experience at a theoretical level, as most researches are in general empirical studies applying the theory in different contexts.

Seeking and escaping theory

Iso-Ahola (1980) examined the psychological foundations of the concept of motivation for leisure, and emphasized the implication of causality in leisure and play behaviour. He claimed that people have a tendency in leisure experiences to seek *intrinsic rewards* of self-determination and competence (Iso-Ahola, 1980). In this functional view, intrinsic motivation theory emphasizes that people are oriented to engage in and choose experiences that are intrinsically rewarding. For example, social interaction is both motivation for and a benefit of leisure participation (Iso-Ahola, 1999).

From a psychological perspective, Iso-Ahola (1982) grouped intrinsic rewards into two categories: *seeking*, in which one might discover feelings of mastery or competence; and *escaping*, in which one might avoid something or forsake the daily routine. Iso-Ahola contended that both seeking and escaping elements are evident and, under certain conditions, one may be stronger than the other. In tourism, he posited that there is more escape-oriented than approach-oriented activity for most people under most conditions (Iso-Ahola, 1982). However, both items may be necessary for optional arousal and to satisfy one's needs. These two categories of motivational force are also affected by personal and interpersonal factors; thus, Iso-Ahola developed the social-psychological model of tourism motivation (SPMTM). The SPMTM suggests that tourism motivation can be categorized into four types: (i) seeking personal rewards; (ii) seeking interpersonal rewards; (iii) escaping personal environment; and (iv) escaping interpersonal environment (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987). The model suggests seeking and escaping are components of the tourism motivation.

There are other limitations to Iso-Ahola's theory. On one hand, his perspective does not explain the underlying reason for escaping as the deeper travel motivation (Jamal and Lee, 2003). Hence, his theory fails to address the processes and means by which certain destinations are preferred to others, and there is no clear description of the relationship between personal needs and the surrounding environment. On the other hand, Iso-Ahola (1982) regards motivation as 'purely a psychological concept' (p. 257), and it is arguable that 'motivation is a part or one form of leisure motivation' (Jamal and Lee, 2003). As a result, the seeking and escaping theory examines travel motivation more from a social-psychological viewpoint and situates travel experience in the leisure domain by regarding travel as a leisure activity (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Hsu and Huang, 2008). It is true that tourism and leisure overlap to some degree, but

there are also many differences between these two fields and they cannot be studied as one type of phenomenon. As a result, travel motivation is only partly similar to that found in the leisure domain and is considered worthy of independent theory-building (Pearce, 1993).

Travel career theory

Based on the motivation theory of Maslow (1954), Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) posited a 'motivational career in travel' (p. 17), employing a fivefold classification of travel motivation. This study was specifically concerned with the motivation that underlies on-site tourist experiences. It proposed the possibility of deriving individual motives for travel from self-reported travel experiences, and declared that travel motivations change over time and as a result of past holiday experiences. This concept was later formally proposed as the travel career ladder (TCL) (Pearce, 1988) which is a fivefold hierarchical system for ranking tourists' post hoc motivational descriptions in terms of their holiday travels.

The core idea of the TCL is that people have a travel career and a pattern of travel motives that may change during their lifespan due to their accumulated travel experience (Pearce and Lee, 2005). The TCL is a dynamic model designed to explain a context of changing tastes and differing behaviours while on holiday and provides a link between present motivation, the purchase decision and past experience (Ryan, 1998). Later a modification of the TCL, termed the travel career pattern (TCP), was proposed (Pearce and Lee, 2005; Pearce, 2011). As these motivation factors have been summarized based on findings from previous studies, the TCP is believed to provide more comprehensive motivation inventories in the tourism field. It is concluded that the patterns of the core layer of motivations were related to novelty, escape/relaxation and relationship, which are unaffected by one's travel experience or life cycle. For the most experienced travellers, the middle layer of motives are more important than the outer layers, while for the less experienced travellers, all motivations are important (Pearce, 2011).

Compared to the TCL, the TCP model offers more meaningful information and explanations of tourist motivation. Unsurprisingly, several researchers have applied this model to explore travel motivation (e.g. Paris and Teye, 2010). However, the TCP model is still under development as a tourist motivation model and more rigorous research is needed to test its validity (Hsu and Huang, 2008). For example, Pearce and Lee (2005) only compared the lowest and highest travel career level groups, and disregarded comparisons among the in-between groups. Sample groups were divided into either the lower travel experience level or the higher travel experience level based only on previous experience history, thus ignoring possible relationships between the motivation patterns and future travel experience.

4.3 Means-end Chain Theory

In psychology, there are numerous constructs of motivation theory which explain how motivation influences choice, persistence and performance (Wigfield and Eccles, 2000). One longstanding perspective on motivation is embodied in the

expectancy–value theory. Substantial evidence supports the view that environmental events, cognition, emotion and behaviour are mutually interacting influences. Although these influences are reciprocal, they are not necessarily simultaneous or of equal strength. It is argued that, with an expectation, people effected specific behaviours to produce specific outcomes and intent to place value on these outcomes. People attempt to explain events that have occurred and to predict future events so they can predict and control in the service of adaptation. Based on the expectancy–value theories, MEC theory is an integrated approach to answering motivational questions with analytical rigour and theoretical sophistication. It describes the hierarchical relationships between product attributes (the means), the consequences for the consumer provided with these attributes (benefits) and the personal values (the ends) these consequences reinforce (Gutman, 1982) (Fig. 4.1). More specifically, MEC theory seeks to characterize the relationships among particular objects or behaviours – the ‘means’ – and the outcomes and personal values important to the individual – the ‘ends’.

4.3.1 The motivational approach of means-end chain theory

The key point of MEC theory is that consumers tend to make choices about products which maximize their desired consequences and minimize their undesired consequences. Values are ordered by importance (Rokeach, 1973); they also direct the importance of the consequences, so consumers make decisions on alternative products by choosing the attributes that provide more important consequences and, as a result, realize more important values. Thus, MEC theory permits us to focus on the basic aims consumers have, while not losing sight of how these aims influence choices in specific situations. Attributes have meaning and value for consumers when there is an important or relevant consequence, and the culmination of MEC is usually a personal goal or a life value the consumer is striving to achieve.

In the motivational perspective of the MEC approach, personality, interests, lifestyles and motivations can be thought of as facets or outcomes of the core self-structure, representing the fundamental goals and values held by the individual (Claeys and Abeele, 2001). Therefore, this approach posits that motivation can be regarded as the underlying reason why certain attributes or expected consequences are desired (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). Bagozzi *et al.* (2003) viewed cognitive structures as ‘ladders of motives’ (p. 918) and Cohen and Warlop (2001) defined the hierarchical levels inherent in an MEC as ‘motivational layers’. Thus, MEC theory provides the link between tourist experience value and tourism product attributes, and helps us to understand how the tourism experience provides the travellers with the preferred attributes to realize their value/goal.



Fig. 4.1. Means-end chain model (adapted from Olson and Reynolds, 2001).

4.4 A Conceptual Framework

MEC is a very useful approach for exploring the psychological factors involved in consumer behaviour and has been used by scholars in the tourism field (McIntosh and Thyne, 2005; McDonald, Thyne and McMorland, 2008), including nature-based experiences (Klenosky *et al.*, 1998; Frauman and Cunningham, 2001). The purpose of the following conceptual framework is to explore, in the context of leisure travel, *how experience attributes provide the preferred benefits to tourists and satisfy their experience value/goal*. The conceptual framework (Fig. 4.2) is considered to provide a directed, hierarchically organized structure of the interconnected levels of travel experience desired by the tourist.

4.4.1 The levels of motivations for leisure tourism experience

Value is defined as ‘learned beliefs that serve as guiding principles about how individuals ought to behave’ (Parks and Guay, 2009, p. 676). According to van Rekom (1994), the motives of tourists are deeply rooted in their pattern of experiences, goals and values. There exist two kinds of values: instrumental and terminal (Rokeach, 1973). *Instrumental* values are related to the idealized mode of behaviour, and *terminal* values are the end states of existence. Motivation processes are dynamic structures which are continuously influenced by personal value while simultaneously being influenced by the environment in which one is acting (Fischer and Bidell, 2006). It is suggested that values are centrally held cognitive elements which stimulate motivation for behavioural response (Vinson *et al.*, 1977), and have been shown to be powerful forces in governing the behaviour of individuals in all aspects of their lives (Gutman, 1982). Thus, it is necessary to explore how particular values are linked to motivation in tourism contexts.

Consequences refer to any result (physiological or psychological) accruing directly or indirectly to the consumer from his/her behaviour (Gutman, 1982). People choose a certain behaviour for its expected results. In other words, the motivational process

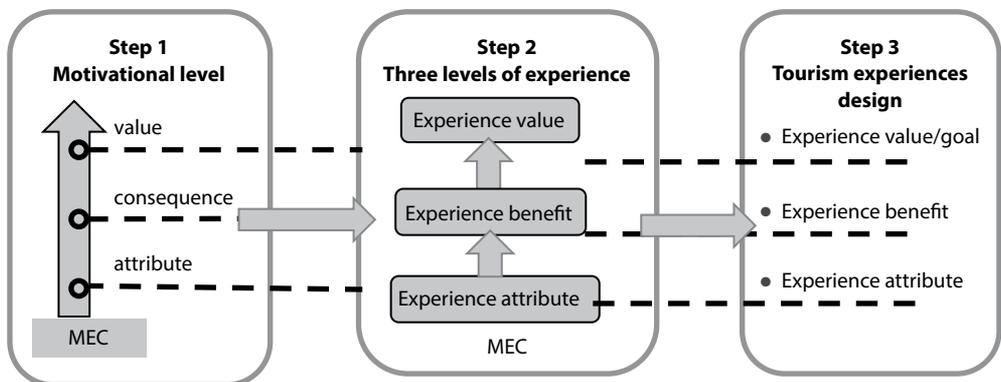


Fig. 4.2. Conceptual framework for research and development of tourism experience. MEC, means-end chain.

represents a prerequisite step to action. Consequences can be categorized into functional and psychological/sociological types. Functional consequences refer to product features or attributes that produce immediate and tangible consequences (e.g. physiological needs) that are experienced directly by consumers. Functional consequence can lead to a high level of consequence – psychological consequences – the more personal consequences which are more affective or emotional (e.g. self-esteem) (Olson and Reynolds, 2001) or sociological (e.g. enhanced status) (Gutman, 1982).

Attributes represent aspects of the product or service that are physical or abstract in the way the product is perceived (Gutman, 1997). The difference between attributes and benefits is mainly that people obtain benefits from the attributes of the products, and only those attributes attached to benefits which the person desired will become meaningful. In the tourism field, there are two types of attribute relevant to a tourism destination or product: a concrete attribute which is an objective property of a tourism destination that attracts tourists, such as 'local customs'; and an abstract attribute which is relative, instrumental, reflective or vicarious, such as 'fame' or 'good environment'.

Motivation can be seen as the underlying reason travellers choose a specific tourism experience. As travellers, they tend to choose an experience that provides the attributes mostly matching their needs and expectation. Thus, experience attributes can be more motive-specific and help travel motives explain the reason underlying the preference of experience attributes more clearly. In this view, attributes, consequences and values all represent different motivational layers in an MEC analytic investigation of consumer motivation (Wagner, 2007). Hence, based on the MEC theory, the first step of the conceptual framework is to examine the three levels of motivation for the leisure tourism experience.

4.4.2 The relationship among experience attributes, benefit and value

The MEC is applied to determine the motivation of people when making decisions on destinations for their leisure travel experience. Attributes of tourism experience are perceived by travellers as the means for desired consequences that in turn lead to the achievement of values. Thus, the MEC theory provides a method to understand why tourists choose a specific tourism destination and how they fulfil their experience. In this sense, this research not only describes travel motivation but also explains why these motivations exist for a preferred experience.

The tourism literature emphasizes that motivations may differ from one person (or group) to another and from one destination to another, and previous research on travel motivation has proved that motivation is sensitive and can vary among travellers (Andreu *et al.*, 2006). The merit of MEC lies primarily in its acknowledgement of the existence of linkages between the product attributes and personal value (Claeys and Abeele, 2001). MEC theory is based on the view that product attributes, which have no inherent meaning to consumers themselves, gain their meaning or importance through the consequences they are perceived to provide or help one avoid (Olson, 1988). According to previous means-end research, people desiring different benefits may choose the same attributes; while, to realize a singular benefit, different people may choose different attributes. Similarly, the same benefit may lead to

different values, while a single benefit may result from multiple different attributes. The reasons behind the travel motivation of seeking specific travel experience could provide more useful insights into motivational segments, and the different meanings delivered by MEC can be used to help explain the deep-rooted motivations (Botschen *et al.*, 1999). Thus, the second step of the conceptual framework is to analyse the relationships among the experience attribute, experience benefit and the tourism experience value that tourists want to achieve in the MEC.

4.4.3 The leisure tourism experience design

A number of researchers have suggested that the achievement of a theoretical breakthrough in understanding and measuring travel motivation would bring about a better understanding of both travel choice and travel behaviour (Um and Crompton, 1990; Mansfeld, 1992; Lue *et al.*, 1993; Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). Therefore, travel motivation is of central interest to tourism marketers and managers in the design, planning and promotion of tourism experience.

From a marketing perspective, tourist destinations can be considered as products and the tourists as consumers. The core of marketing is to understand what motivates a consumer to buy a product. In the tourism industry, this refers to understanding what motivates tourists to travel and to buy a particular tourism product. In this sense, the MEC approach provides a deeper understanding of why certain experiences are undertaken while travelling. It is argued that analyses of motivation help destination managers to understand tourists' decision making processes and to monitor their satisfaction (Crompton and McKay, 1997), identify strengths and opportunities to better position the tourism destination and conduct marketing effectively by strengthening management and experience development (Gnoth, 1997).

It has been suggested that it is effective to segment the tourism market based on tourism product attributes (e.g. Leisen, 2001; Prayag and Ryan, 2011), on the benefits the consumer expects from the tourism product (e.g. Shoemaker, 1994; Tapachai and Waryszak, 2000; Jang *et al.*, 2002) or on personal value (Thrane, 1997; Pike, 2011), respectively. In this sense then, step three of this conceptual framework is to conduct the leisure tourism experience design in terms of its product attribute, experience benefits and experience values.

As explained above, a framework based on MEC theory has been developed here to determine the travel motivations and the impact on tourism experience. This conceptual framework indicates the information on the different kinds of benefit the respondents would like to receive from these specific attributes, and what values could be satisfied by these benefits or consequences, to provide a complete motivational picture of tourism experience. It is believed that, in this way, the result is more comprehensive and distinct in terms of practical use in the marketing field. Therefore, it may enable a better understanding of this group, in order to fulfil their motivations and satisfy their needs behind these apparently superficial motivations.

4.5 Discussion and Implications

MEC is a hierarchical ladder linking the attributes that exist in products (the means), to the consequences (benefits) for the consumer provided by the attributes, and ultimately to the personal values (the ends) the consequences reinforce (Gutman, 1982). Through MEC, the reasons for a consumer choosing a specific experience can be explained at the different hierarchical levels of abstraction. It is a straightforward method and provides actionable implications to researchers (Hawkins *et al.*, 2004).

Theoretically, MEC is an integrated approach to answering motivational questions with analytical rigour and theoretical sophistication. It is a sophisticated theory with its method founded in the marketing research field, and is able to integrate existing tourist needs, reorganize such needs and provide a new orientation for future research. The MEC theory is a cohesive and useful theory of travel motivation. With laddering and hierarchical value map methods, this framework provides a theoretical framework in the leisure tourism context and resolves problems in leisure travel motivation at the methodological level.

Methodologically, it should be noticed that motivation is assumed not to be stable, and different values and consequences may be more or less motivating in different situations (Grunert and Bechmann, 2001). MEC makes a significant contribution to consumer research by providing the toolbox of measurement devices developed to bridge the gap between construct and reality. Specifically, MEC can specify not only what the output is that leads to behavioural intention from value and cognitive structure, but may also be used to analyse how the intention and behaviour occurred in a certain situation and under given motivational constraints (Grunert and Bechmann, 2001).

Practically, in tourism marketing practice, tourists have extended their experiences in recent years to new fields/ideas to meet their leisure tourism values and individual goals. Although there is a lack of experience for tourism enterprises in understanding tourism psychology and designing memorable tourism experiences (Chen *et al.*, 2016), tourists need to be helped and guided in designing their experience to meet their in-depth needs due to the huge development potential of new forms/concepts of leisure market. Research shows that tourists can benefit from leisure tourism, but they may not be able to consciously perceive the benefit nor be able to detect the impact of the leisure experience on their health (Dolnicar *et al.*, 2012). Every tourist's experience is different, and they may have different personal goals or values to realize. Nevertheless, the tourism management level (as the experience provider) could achieve an effective marketing plan by realizing the tourists' experience values through effective personal experience design, an important attribute for the sustainable development of leisure tourism.

The conceptual framework applied MEC theory to study motivation as the antecedent of the travel experience and to help to analyse the impact of these psychological factors on the tourism experience. Specifically, by applying MEC, this model linked travel motivation and the experience of leisure travellers, by articulating three levels: (i) tourism product attributes; (ii) experience consequence/benefit; and

(iii) experience value (thus providing more psychological understanding of the tourism experience). *Prescriptively*, it guides the conceptualization of and the process of motivation on the tourism experience. *Analytically*, it facilitates the critical examination and hierarchical categorization of experience motivation levels and items; while *methodologically* it points to criteria and a precautionary standard the research could apply in exploring motivation and experience during data collection.

Although various scholars have explored aspects of the MEC approach, most MEC research was conducted for consulting purposes to address practical marketing problems (Olson and Reynolds, 2001). Thus, it should be admitted that there are still some methodological and theoretical issues unresolved in MEC theory. For example, more empirical studies are needed to address problems such as the comparison of different forms of attribute elicitation, while the impact of situational specificity requires more rigorous statistical treatment (Grunert and Bechmann, 2001). Should researchers collect sufficient data and conduct research with rigorous processes, it is believed that all the above challenges are inherently solvable (Grunert and Bechmann, 2001).

References

- Andreu, L., Kozak, M., Avci, N. and Cifter, N. (2006) Market segmentation by motivations to travel: British tourists visiting Turkey. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 19(1), 1–14.
- Bagozzi, R.P., Bergami, M. and Leone, L. (2003) Hierarchical representation of motives in goal setting. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 88(5), 915–943.
- Berkman, H.W. and Gilson, C.C. (1978) *Consumer Behavior: Concepts and Strategies*. Dickenson Press, Belmont, California.
- Botschen, G., Thelen, E.M. and Pieters, R. (1999) Using means-end structures for benefit segmentation: an application to services. *European Journal of Marketing* 33(1–2), 38–58.
- Braun, O.L. (1989) *From the Everyday Stress to Holiday Satisfaction*. University of Bielefeld, Bielefeld, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Germany.
- Chen, C.C., Huang, W.J. and Petrick, J.F. (2016) Holiday recovery experiences, tourism satisfaction and life satisfaction – Is there a relationship? *Tourism Management* 53, 140–147.
- Chul Oh, H., Uysal, M. and Weaver, P. (1995) Product bundles and market segments based on travel motivations: a canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 14(2), 123–137.
- Claeys, C. and Abeele, P.V. (2001) Means-end chain theory and involvement: potential research directions. In: Reynolds, T.J. and Olson, J.C. (eds) *Understanding Consumer Decision Making: The Means-end Approach to Marketing and Advertising Strategy*. Lawrence Erlbaum, Mahwah, New Jersey, pp. 359–387.
- Cohen, J. and Warlop, L. (2001) A motivational perspective on means-end chains. In: Reynolds, T.J. and Olson, J.C. (eds) *Understanding Consumer Decision-making: The Means-end Approach to Marketing and Advertising Strategy*. Lawrence Erlbaum, Mahwah, New Jersey, pp. 389–412.
- Crompton, J.L. (1979) Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(4), 408–424.
- Crompton, J.L. and McKay, S.L. (1997) Motives of visitors attending festival events. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2), 425–439.
- Dann, G. (1977) Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 4(4), 184–194.
- Dann, G. (1981) Tourist motivation: an appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research* 8(2), 187–219.
- Dolnicar, S., Yanamandram, V. and Cliff, K. (2012) The contribution of vacations to quality of life. *Annals of Tourism Research* 39(1), 59–83.

- Duman, T. and Mattila, A.S. (2005) The role of affective factors on perceived cruise vacation value. *Tourism Management* 26, 311–323.
- Dunn Ross, E.L. and Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1991) Sightseeing tourists' motivation and satisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(2), 226–237.
- Fischer, K.W. and Bidell, T.R. (2006) Dynamic development of action and thought. In: Damon, W. and Lerner, R.M. (eds) *Theoretical Models of Human Development: Handbook of Child Psychology* 6(1). Wiley, New York, pp. 313–399.
- Frauman, E. and Cunningham, P. (2001) Using a means-end approach to understand the factors that influence greenway use. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration* 19(3), 93–113.
- Gnoth, J. (1997) Tourism motivation and expectation formation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2), 283–304.
- Gomez-Jacinto, L., Martin-Garcia, J.S. and Huyze, C.B. (1999) A model of tourism experience and attitude change. *Annals of Tourism Research* 26(4), 1024–1027.
- Goossens, C. (2000) Tourism information and pleasure motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(2), 301–321.
- Grunert, K.G. and Bechmann, S.C. (2001) Means-end chains and laddering: an inventory of problems and an agenda for research. In: Reynolds, T.J. and Olson, J.C. (eds) *Understanding Consumer Decision-making: The Means-end Approach to Marketing and Advertising Strategy*. Lawrence Erlbaum, Mahwah, New Jersey, pp. 63–90.
- Gutman, J. (1982) A means-end chain model based on consumer categorization processes. *Journal of Marketing* 46(2), 60–72.
- Gutman, J. (1997) Means-end chains as goal hierarchies. *Psychology and Marketing* 14(6), 545–560.
- Hawkins, D.I., Best, R.J. and Coney, K.A. (2004) *Consumer Behavior: Building Marketing Strategy*. McGraw-Hill Irwin, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Hsu, C. and Huang, S. (2008) Travel motivation: a critical review of the concept's development. In: Woodside, A.G. and Martin, D. (eds) *Tourism Management: Analysis, Behaviour and Strategy*. CAB International, Cambridge, Massachusetts, pp. 14–27.
- Huang, S. and Hsu, C. (2009) Travel motivation: linking theory to practice. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research* 3(4), 287–295.
- Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1980) *The Social Psychology of Leisure and Recreation*. Brown Co. Publishers, Dubuque, Iowa.
- Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1982) Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: a rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research* 9(2), 256–262.
- Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1999) Motivational foundations of leisure. In: Jackson, E. (ed.) *Leisure Studies: Prospects for the Twenty-first Century*. State College, Venture, Pennsylvania, pp. 35–51.
- Jamal, T. and Lee, J.-H. (2003) Integrating micro and macro approaches to tourist motivations: toward an interdisciplinary theory. *Tourism Analysis* 8(1), 47–59.
- Jang, S., Morrison, A.M. and Leary, J.T.O. (2002) Benefit segmentation of Japanese pleasure travellers to the USA and Canada: selecting target markets based on the profitability and risk of individual market segments. *Tourism Management* 23, 367–378.
- Jennings, G. and Nickerson, N.P. (2006) *Quality Tourism Experiences*. Vol. 1. Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann, Burlington, Massachusetts.
- Klenosky, D.B., Frauman, E., Norman, W.C. and Gengler, C.E. (1998) Nature-based tourists' use of interpretive services: a means-end investigation. *Journal of Tourism Studies* 9, 26–36.
- Knobloch, U., Robertson, K. and Aitken, R. (2014) (Mis)understanding the nature of tourist experiences. *Tourism Analysis* 19, 599–608.
- Leisen, B. (2001) Image segmentation: the case of a tourism destination. *Journal of Services Marketing* 15(1), 49–66.
- Lue, C., Crompton, J.L. and Fesenmaier, D. (1993) Conceptualisation of multi-destination pleasure trips. *Annals of Tourism Analysis* 20(2), 289–301.

- Mannell, R.C. and Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1987) Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research* 14(3), 314–331.
- Mansfeld, Y. (1992) From motivation to actual travel. *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(3), 399–419.
- Maslow, A.H. (1954) *Motivation and Personality*. Harper and Row, New York.
- Mazursky, D. (1989) Past experience and future tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(3), 333–344.
- McDonald, S., Thyne, M. and McMorland, L.-A. (2008) Means-end theory in tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research* 35(2), 596–599.
- McIntosh, A.J. and Thyne, M.A. (2005) Understanding tourist behavior using means-end chain theory. *Annals of Tourism Research* 32(1), 259–262.
- Moscardo, G., Morrison, A.M., Pearce, P., Lang, C.-T. and O'Leary, J.T. (1996) Understanding vacation destination choice through travel motivation and activities. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 2(2), 109–122.
- Oh, H.M., Fiore, A.M. and Jeoung, M.Y. (2007) Measuring experience economy concepts: tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research* 46, 119–131.
- Olson, J.C. (1988) *Theoretical Foundations of Means-end Chains*. Penn State University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- Olson, J.C. and Reynolds, T.J. (2001) The means-end approach to understanding consumer decision-making. In: Reynolds, T.J. and Olson, J.C. (eds) *Understanding Consumer Decision Making: The Means-end Approach to Marketing and Advertising Strategy*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Mahwah, New Jersey, pp. 3–20.
- Paris, C.M. and Teye, V. (2010) Backpacker motivations: a travel career approach. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 19(3), 244–259.
- Parks, L. and Guay, R.P. (2009) Personality, values, and motivation. *Personality and Individual Differences* 47(7), 675–684.
- Pearce, P. (1988) *The Ulysses Factor: Evaluating Visitors in Tourist Settings*. Springer-Verlag, New York.
- Pearce, P. (1993) Fundamentals of tourist motivation. In: Pearce, D.G. and Butler, R.W. (eds) *Tourism Research: Critiques and Challenges*. Routledge, New York, pp. 113–134.
- Pearce, P. (2011) *Tourist Behaviour and the Contemporary World*. Channel View, Bristol, UK.
- Pearce, P. and Caltabiano, M.L. (1983) Inferring travel motivation from travellers' experiences. *Journal of Travel Research* 22(2), 16–20.
- Pearce, P. and Lee, U.I. (2005) Developing the travel career approach to tourist motivation. *Journal of Travel Research* 43(3), 226–237.
- Pearce, P.L. and Packer, J. (2013) Minds on the move: new links from psychology to tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 40, 386–411.
- Pike, S. (2011) Destination positioning opportunities using personal values: elicited through the repertory test with laddering analysis. *Tourism Management* 33(1), 100–107.
- Plog, S.C. (1974) Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 16(1), 55–58.
- Plog, S.C. (1987) Understanding psychographics in tourism research. In: Richie, J. and Goeldner, C. (eds) *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research*. John Wiley and Sons, New York, pp. 203–213.
- Plog, S.C. (2001) Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity: an update of a Cornell Quarterly classic. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 42(3), 13–24.
- Prayag, G. and Ryan, C. (2011) The relationship between the 'push' and 'pull' factors of a tourist destination: the role of nationality: an analytical qualitative research approach. *Current Issues in Tourism* 14(2), 121–143.
- Pyo, S., Mihalik, B.J. and Uysal, M. (1989) Attraction attributes and motivations: a canonical correlation analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(2), 277–282.
- Reynolds, T.J. and Gutman, J. (1988) Laddering theory, method, analysis, and interpretation. *Journal of Advertising Research* 28(1), 11–31.
- Rokeach, M. (1973) *The Nature of Human Values*. The Free Press, New York.

- Ryan, C. (1998) The travel career ladder: an appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(4), 936–957.
- Shoemaker, S. (1994) Segmenting the U.S. travel market according to benefits realized. *Journal of Travel Research* 32(3), 8–21.
- Tapachai, N. and Waryszak, R. (2000) An examination of the role of beneficial image in tourist destination selection. *Journal of Travel Research* 39(1), 37–44.
- Thrane, C. (1997) Vacation motives and personal value systems. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 3(3), 234–244.
- Uysal, M. and Hagan, L. (1993) Motivation of pleasure travel and tourism. In: Khan, M.A., Olsen, M.D. and Var, T. (eds) *VNR's Encyclopedia of Hospitality and Tourism*. Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York, pp. 798–810.
- Um, S. and Crompton, K. (1990) Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research* 17, 432–448.
- van Rekom, J. (1994) Adding psychological value to tourism products. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 3(3), 21–36.
- Vinson, D.E., Scott, J.E. and Lamont, L.M. (1977) The role of personal values in marketing and consumer behavior. *The Journal of Marketing* 41(2), 44–50.
- Wagner, T. (2007) Shopping motivation revised: a means-end chain analytical perspective. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management* 35(7), 569–582.
- Wigfield, A. and Eccles, J.S. (2000) Expectancy–value theory of achievement motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology* 25(1), 68–81.

5

Experiential Decision Choice

LIUBOV SKAVRONSKAYA,* DUNG LE, BRENT MOYLE AND NOEL SCOTT

Griffith University, Southport, Australia

5.1 Introduction

Over three decades ago, Hirschman and Holbrook wrote two seminal papers on the experiential aspects of consumption. The first highlighted the multisensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of hedonic experiences (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982) while the second discussed how information processing choice models may be enhanced by inclusion of the pleasure seeking (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). These papers, and the stream of research they encouraged, have enhanced the status of affect in understanding hedonic behaviour; highlighted the role of fantasy and physical and mental feelings in the anticipation, consumption and recollection of pleasurable experiences such as holidays; and explored the effect of sensory perceptions on behaviour. Over the past 30 years, there have been significant advances in our knowledge of the psychological mechanisms and which emotions, fantasy and sensations are experienced. This review seeks to highlight some areas relevant to tourism scholars.

Our chapter builds on a number of other reviews on topics related to hedonic consumption (Alba and Williams, 2013), pleasure (Le Bel, 2005; Fennell, 2009), memory (Marschall, 2012), neuroscience (Parrinello, 2012), psychoneurobiochemistry (Koc and Boz, 2014), psychology (Pearce and Packer, 2013), sensory experiences (Agapito *et al.*, 2013), feelings (Buda *et al.*, 2014) and tourism experiences (Larsen, 2007; Tung and Ritchie, 2011a). It extends these reviews by including findings from the mainstream cognitive psychology and brain science literature on the mechanisms by which emotions are elicited in response to hedonic stimuli (Ellsworth and Scherer, 2003; Moors, 2009), the various memory structures in the brain and the importance of autobiographical memory (Conway and Pleydell-Pearce, 2000; Fivush, 2011), the default brain network that operates during the idle moments that comprise daily life (Mason *et al.*, 2007; Andrews-Hanna, 2012), retrospection and the nature of mental time travel by which humans think about the past and the future (Wilson and

*Corresponding author e-mail: liubov.skavronskaya@griffithuni.edu.au

Gilbert, 2003; Gilbert and Wilson, 2007; Demblon and D'Argembeau, 2014) and the importance of feelings and fantasy in hedonic decision making. While elements of these theories have been discussed in the tourism literature, this review seeks to provide an integrated picture, focusing on how these theories relate to the multi-sensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of hedonic experiences with particular relevance to tourism. In doing so, it will address 'a critical absence of knowledge from which to theoretically and conceptually situate this concept [pleasure travel] in our field' (Fennell, 2009, p. 123).

These themes and theories are of relevance to tourism as pleasure travel and have been widely accepted as a context for hedonic experiences in anticipation, during the holiday consumption experience and in recollection (Gursoy *et al.*, 2006). Holidays are typical or ideal pleasurable 'products' (Fennell, 2009) that have a high personal value (McIntosh and Siggs, 2005). This is reflected in lay descriptions of holidays as representing 'the time of their lives' (Gilbert and Abdullah, 2004) and 'a once in a lifetime experience' (Ryan, 1997, pp. 194–195). Hedonic experiences such as holidays provide greater happiness than tangible possessions (Alba and Williams, 2013) because the social interaction often associated with holidays can increase enjoyment of positive experiences, and also since experiential purchases are less subject to comparisons and negative post-purchase re-evaluation as are material goods (Carter and Gilovich, 2010; Alba and Williams, 2013).

Holidays in anticipation, experience or recollection are based on sequences of events which jointly influence the overall value of the experience. Experiences can influence consumers through more personally relevant and symbolic dimensions than products, and therefore consumers' evaluations of experiences are more multidimensional, uncertain and complex (Gallo, 2013). Multidimensionality affects uncertainty as well, as experiences are evaluated on more dimensions than are products, and also since uncertainty is associated with how to integrate the numerous dimensions to form a judgment (Urbany *et al.*, 1989; Carter and Gilovich, 2010). As will be discussed below, this leads to increased use of 'feelings' in choice and evaluation processes.

Holidays are often used in psychological research as stimuli to investigate hedonic imagery (Kane *et al.*, 2012). Thinking about taking a holiday may stimulate fantasy (Rubenstein, 1980) and emotions that play an important role in shaping vacation and destination choices (Decrop and Snelders, 2004). There is a significant literature on the effect of emotions and feelings on decision making (examined below) that extends and supplements (bounded) rational, problem-solving choice models and may help to explain the 'apparent irrationality underlying hedonic or emotionally driven behaviour, which is a particular feature of holiday tourism' (Gnoth, 1997, p. 285).

Tourism produces hedonic and memorable consumption experiences (Williams, 2006) which are essentially pleasurable (Floyd, 1997; Gnoth, 1997; Goossens, 2000) and elicits positive emotions (Gretzel *et al.*, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2015). Interestingly, however, whether a holiday experience is considered hedonic or utilitarian is dependent on the goals of the traveller, a dependency predicted by the cognitive appraisal theory of emotions (Batra and Ahtola, 1991; Pham, 1998; Alba and Williams, 2013). Tourism experiences are multisensory and include tastes, sounds, scents, tactile impressions and visual images (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982, p. 92; Agapito *et al.*, 2013).

Individuals respond to multisensory perceptions of external stimuli by generating multisensory mental images of their experiences (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982).

Tourism experiences involve fun, amusement, fantasy and sensory stimulation (Babin *et al.*, 1994; Holbrook, 2006). Positive and pleasurable emotions and feelings are important components of tourism experiences (Tung and Ritchie, 2011a). Imagining, daydreams, emotions and desires play an important role in hedonic consumption (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Goossens, 2000) such as when visiting an historic battlefield (Chronis, 2012), a casino (Wong and Wu, 2013) or a theme park (Bigne *et al.*, 2005). Holidays are memorable and emotions influence memorability (Wirtz *et al.*, 2003; Larsen and Jenssen, 2004). Successful adventure businesses such as rock-climbing gyms, theme parks and hot-air balloon rides must be personally relevant, novel, surprising and provide a learning and engagement experience (Poulsson and Kale, 2004). Tourism that produces unusual or distinctive events, that are autobiographical and often linked to emotion, are more likely to be remembered (Kim, 2010).

When recalled, holidays often involve storytelling and narratives (Ferguson and Todd, 2007; Ferguson, 2011). The processing of experiences is more vivid than that of products and may be thought of as autobiographical scripts (Gallo, 2013). Wirtz *et al.* (2003) found that positively remembered experience is a predictor of the desire to take a similar vacation in the future. This leads to self-reinforcing circularity. When consumers think about a future holiday, they construct an autobiographical fantasy narrative (Escalas, 2004) based on past memories. When consumers reconstruct memories from their holidays, they edit out mundane parts and hold on to positive memories. This leads to elaborative processing and elicitation of emotions, hence reinforcing the desire to travel. In summary, pleasure holidays provide a 'typically positive real-life situation' (Besser and Shackelford, 2007, p. 1334) that is valuable, complex, uncertain, multidimensional and embodied with meanings. These characteristics have implications for processes of anticipation, choice, experience and recollection which will be discussed below, beginning with a discussion of emotion.

5.2 Emotion

Pleasurable and hedonic experiences involved in memorable experiences will, by their nature, elicit positive emotions. An emotion is a:

mental state of readiness that arises from cognitive appraisals of events or thoughts; has a phenomenological tone; is accompanied by physiological processes; is often expressed physically (e.g., in gestures, posture, facial features, heart rate increases or pupil dilation); and may result in specific actions to affirm or cope with the emotion, depending on its nature and meaning for the person having it.

(Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999, p. 184)

This differs from mood, which is considered longer lasting (from a few hours up to days) but lower in intensity. Emotions are related to an object or referent, whereas moods are generally non-intentional and global or diffused (Frijda, 1993) and not directly coupled with action tendencies and explicit actions, as are many emotions.

The amygdala at the base of the brain mediates two emotional pathways in the brain. One is instinctive, automatic and involuntary and related to the fight or flight response, such as results from perception of a snake (Sander *et al.*, 2003). If such

reactions are not involved, a second pathway is invoked which involves integration of stimuli in the brain to produce a representation of the current situation, often in a visual form. This is then appraised, based on current goals and other dimensions, and followed by elicitation of an appropriate emotion. The emotions of anger and fear are produced by the first pathway, which is more direct and rapid than the emotions resulting from the second appraisal pathway. Although certain positive experiences may be *usually* associated with particular emotional responses (e.g. delight), such events do not necessarily elicit that emotion. Instead, the emotions elicited are due to a cognitive process of interpretation, evaluation and appraisal, explaining why two tourists may have different emotional reactions (or no emotional reaction at all) during the same experience. Over the past 30 years the cognitive appraisal theory describing the formation of emotions has become accepted by most psychological and cognitive science researchers (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 2001; Ellsworth and Scherer, 2003; Watson and Spence, 2007).

Appraisal theorists maintain that the critical determinants of any positive emotion are the resultant evaluation and interpretation that arise after comparing an actual state with a desired state (Lazarus, 1991). People appraise or evaluate characteristics of events in terms of respective goals or motives using structured appraisal dimensions (Scherer *et al.*, 2001). Appraisal dimensions are inherent aspects of emotions themselves, and appraisal theories specify appraisal dimensions which distinguish discrete emotions and illustrate their variance by dimensions and corresponding appraisal patterns (Scherer, 1997). For example, the set of appraisal dimensions, goal congruence, agency, certainty, novelty and intensity are found to conceptualize the emotion of delight (Ellsworth and Smith, 1988a, b) and have been found to be predictive in the context of a theme park (Ma *et al.*, 2013). Emotions (and moods) can have a powerful influence on choice. Indeed, a vast literature shows that being in a positive mood affects individuals' cognitive processing, which can influence the types of choices they make (Mogilner *et al.*, 2012).

In general, the literature of tourism has not examined the consequences of emotional responses to experiences and instead has focused on loyalty and intention to revisit. Indeed, most tourism studies of experiences have only sought to describe the emotional consequence of an experience without discussing the reasons why a particular stimulus elicits particular affective responses. The common approaches used to study emotions in tourism, such as the consumption emotion scale (Richins, 1997; Zins, 2002; Faullant *et al.*, 2011) are not able to explain how a tourist's consumption experience leads to one specific emotional response rather than another (Johnson and Stewart, 2005). Cognitive appraisal theory has been used to study delight in the context of theme parks (Ma *et al.*, 2013), tourists' emotional experiences towards hedonic holiday destinations (Hosany and Gilbert, 2010; Hosany, 2012; Hosany *et al.*, 2015) and service experiences (Su and Hsu, 2013). However, the conscious and theory-based design of hedonic tourism experiences to elicit particular emotions is in its infancy.

5.2.1 Memory

It is reasonable to consider that an understanding of the memorable experiences must rely on knowledge of how memory operates. Memory is organized as a set of dynamic,

integrated modules rather than as a single system (Squire, 2004; Fivush, 2011). These modules include short-term memory, for temporary storage of information; working memory, which is a limited capacity system that provides storage and manipulation of information over short time frames; and long-term memory, where information from working memory must be transferred in order to be remembered (Baddeley, 2012). Other types of modules handle semantic and episodic declarative memory and nondeclarative memory (Fivush, 2011).

The first stage in creating a memory is to pay attention to the perception received from our senses of stimuli derived from the experience. However, our brains suffer from information overload and to deal with the raw information that our senses deliver, we select only a small proportion and process this in real time, while the non-attended portion receives less processing resources (Koch and Tsuchiya, 2007). Attention is the mechanism responsible for selecting the information that gains preferential status above other available information. Attention is defined as 'focused mental engagement on a particular item of information. Items come into our awareness, we attend to a particular item, and then we decide whether to act' (Davenport and Beck, 2001, p. 20). Information is selected for attention based on current relevance, derived from either bottom-up exogenous or top-down endogenous factors.

Humans are predominately visual creatures, and the visual incoming information we receive has preference (Koch, 2004). Visual exogenous cues include movement, colour and texture, and account for most scanning eye movements. Alternatively, attention is directed by top-down, task-dependent mental processes. Top-down control depends on internal and external states, goals and expectations. Information that is relevant for goal attainment or is novel will be attended to more than other information (Plassmann *et al.*, 2012). Emotional arousal affects attention and memory: attention appears to be focused on emotionally arousing stimuli, increasing the likelihood that emotional aspects of experiences are perceived. In addition, emotionally arousing stimuli receive prioritized or facilitated processing, such that they can be processed even when attention is limited. In addition, emotional arousal also appears to increase the likelihood of being remembered (Kensinger, 2004).

There has been little tourism research explicitly on attention, with the notable exception of Ooi (2005) who argued that because tourists visit a place for a relatively short period of time and lack local knowledge, it is important to manage their attention. Ooi (2005) noted four interrelated characteristics of attention relevant to tourism:

one, we can only pay attention to one thing at any one moment in time; two, attention shifts affect our experiences; three, attention is scarce; four, people pay attention to different things and there are different reasons as to why they pay attention to the same thing. (p. 57)

Traditionally, tour guides, travel books, travel advertisements or tourist information centres have been responsible for directing attention to particular attractions. Leiper (1990) highlighted the importance of attractions as markers or cues for directing visitors' attention. However, there is a need for more examination of the effect of attention on experience memorability.

5.2.2 Types of memory

Nondeclarative memory includes multiple systems including procedural knowledge (such as knowledge of how to do things), scripts, skills and actions that are well-practised and done with little to no conscious awareness. Declarative memory is the kind that is meant when the term 'memory' is used in everyday language and refers to the capacity for conscious recollection about facts and events (Squire, 2004). Tulving (1983) made a distinction between semantic and episodic memory. Semantic memory systems deal with explicit knowledge about the world (e.g. the capital of Italy). Episodic memory deals with the capacity to recollect past events and happenings in their particular spatial and temporal contexts (Schacter *et al.*, 2008; Yaniv, 2014). In particular, episodic autobiographical memory concerns the specific what, when and where of events which relate to the self (Brewer, 1986, 1996; Tulving, 2002; Rubin, 2005) and facilitates thinking of the self at another time, a process termed mental time travel (Suddendorf and Corballis, 2007). Mental time travel involves the awareness of self as the experiencer of a past event and the rememberer of the event in the present, which in turn implies conscious awareness of a personal past, a timeline on which the individual can place past events in sequence, creating a sense of a personal history (Fivush, 2011). Mental time travel to past experiences is termed retrospection (reminiscence) and to the future is called prospection.

It appears that many tourism experiences may be remembered as autobiographical memories as they are personal, are a sequence of events on a timeline and are spatially and temporally bound. There is a significant recent literature on autobiographical memories in the cognitive science field (Jason *et al.*, 1989; Baumgartner, 1992; Atance and O'Neill, 2005; Brown, 2005; Boyer, 2008; Spreng *et al.*, 2009; D'Argembeau and Mathy, 2011; Rathbone *et al.*, 2011; Schacter, 2012; Christian *et al.*, 2013; Demblon and D'Argembeau, 2014) but although some tourism literature deals with experiential memories (Small, 1999; Braun-LaTour *et al.*, 2006; Larsen, 2006; Pearce, 2009; Kim, 2010; Ballantyne *et al.*, 2011; Tung and Ritchie, 2011a, 2011b), the important topic of autobiographical memories has been neglected with the exception of Pearce and Packer (2013). The events that are reconstructed as autobiographical memories have personal relevance and are typically multimodal (involving sense information as well as spatial, temporal, emotional and narrative content and context) (Rubin, 2005). Some aspects of autobiographical memory have been found to differ by culture, and recalled memories are influenced by culturally accepted life scripts (Berntsen and Rubin, 2004; Wang and Ross, 2007; Woodside and Megehee, 2009; Marschall, 2012). As will be discussed below, stories and narrative may be persuasive to a consumer in part because they 'fit' easily into autobiographical memory structures and hence are more easily remembered.

5.2.3 Retrospection – recreating past events mentally

Most memories fade rapidly from our mind. Episodic memory details are partially retrievable in the short term, but these details rapidly decay and people instead

construct mental images of past events when they engage in retrospection or thinking about past experiences (Schacter, 2012; Alba and Williams, 2013). These mental images are mentally imagined by combining semantic memories (general knowledge) and episodic autobiographical details to reconstruct an experience. A script is a series of events that unfolds in a specific order, with each event enabling the events that follow, and composes a stereotypical episode, such as eating in a restaurant. This is why much that people 'remember' as part of their life story is really shared cultural knowledge about the life course (Rubin, 2005, p. 79). The reconstruction of our past is also the reason why false memories can be created (Braun-LaTour *et al.*, 2006). Thus, current evidence indicates that memorable tourist experiences are indeed functions of memory processes and that the construction of such memories is an individual and cognitive activity (Wirtz *et al.*, 2003) that may not be factual and is influenced by cultural and other knowledge. For further discussion of the dynamic character of memory processes as they relate to narration and production of meaning, and how experiences are influenced by this dynamism, see Cutler and Carmichael (2010).

The strength of episodic autobiographical memory and hence how well we remember it is influenced by how it is structured as a narrative and if it is linked to strong emotions. The nature of our episodic memory system make narratives or stories about experiences easier to comprehend (McDonald, 2014) as these match the way we mentally organize different parts of an experience together (Ryan, 1986, p. 368). When we tell a story of an experience we facilitate these parts being bound together into an episodic memory structure which then facilitates later recall. Similarly, if an experience has a theme or has personal relevance then it will be remembered better. The multisensory encoding of memories is a rich part of the brain-based psychology research on memory (Pearce and Packer, 2013, p. 400) and indicates that autobiographical memory can often be recalled with exceptional vividness (Kim, 2010).

Retrospection, or thinking about past events, is then a conscious process which involves reconstruction of an event from memory along with contextual details and an accompanying sense of self (Sadeh *et al.*, 2014). The process of retrospection can be thought of as similar to re-experiencing an actual experience (Gilbert and Wilson, 2007; Schacter, 2012). When we experience an event, our mind integrates perceptual stimuli from multiple senses to create a primarily visual picture of our surroundings. The global workspace model provides one model of how we are aware of and assess these perceptual stimuli (Baars, 2002, 2005; Baars and Franklin, 2003; Raffone *et al.*, 2010). This theory holds that when we are conscious of (and essentially attend consciously to) integrated perceptual stimuli, this consciousness enables other brain areas to access and process this information in a substantially modular fashion. One metaphor for this is a theatre stage where the stage spotlight represents attention to relevant stimuli and the audience represents mental processes such as appraisal of emotions. Our brain represents the external world on the stage by combining external perceptual stimuli and internal memories, scripts and so on, in a cohesive show. The audience appraises the stage show and is able to provide comments on it; for example, eliciting an emotional reaction of delight or another relevant emotion. This appraisal is motivating and may influence the direction of the show.

The global workspace model is mentioned here because a number of researchers consider that a similar process occurs when we think about the past (retrospection) or

future (prospction). Thus, when we engage in retrospection (Schacter, 2012) or prospction (Wilson and Gilbert, 2003; Addis *et al.*, 2007; Gilbert and Wilson, 2007; Schacter *et al.*, 2008; Demblon and D'Argembeau, 2014), we use memories, knowledge and scripts to create an integrated mental picture of a past event. This constructive mental process is considered to have provided humans with evolutionary advantages in being able to think about the future and receive feedback about possible actions based on affective 'feelings' elicited. These embodied emotional responses to recalled, present or future imagined experiences provide summative evaluations of complex scenarios.

In addition, emotions and feelings play an important role in the preferred encoding of memories (Braasch, 2008) and emotional salience is important in retrieval of particular memories (Kensinger, 2004). Vivid 'flashbulb' (Brown and Kulik, 1977) memories are generally autobiographical and associated with surprising, consequential and emotional events (Rubin and Kozin, 1984). Ballantyne *et al.* (2011) have noted the effect of wildlife interactions on emotions and memory. Tourism researchers who have studied memorable experiences found that affective feelings, such as pleasant, sociable, happy, irritated, guilty and worried, are included in an individual's memorable experiences (Wirtz *et al.*, 2003; Kim, 2010). As mentioned previously, the memory of travel experiences is encoded in autobiographical memory and this type of memory combines personal, spatial and temporal information. This may help to explain why people may vividly recall experiences, the feelings that they experienced and the spatial layout of a destination area when discussing past travel (Kim, 2010). Extraordinary experience may therefore produce high levels of emotional intensity (Arnould and Price, 1993, p. 25) and therefore is likely to be recalled.

The relevance of memory research to tourism studies is underappreciated (Braasch, 2008) and there are two particular areas where the above discussion appears particularly useful:

1. The organization of autobiographical memory means that narrative is an important resource for communication and persuasion. Narrative processing has been shown to affect persuasion through transportation. In narrative transportation affective responses, rather than the message strength, influence persuasion (Escalas, 2007). A narrative may engender similar emotion, engagement, absorption and self-memories, thus leading to persuasion (Appel and Richter, 2010; Phillips and McQuarrie, 2010). Narrative has been noted to shape tourist experiences (Moscardo, 2010).
2. Surprisingly, given the nature of autobiographical memory and the importance of personal factors and emotional responses on recall, most tourism research on destination experiences looks at various factors in destinations that lead to memorability (Kim and Jang, 2016).

This is problematic as surprise, novelty, goals and emotion are all factors that direct how a stimulus is interpreted. Thus places may be recalled mostly because of social interaction with friends (Morgan and Xu, 2009) but this is probably because social interaction is more likely to generate emotional responses. Other factors found to influence memorability include age. Pearce and Packer (2013) discusses a reminiscence bump, an enhanced ability for those over 40 years of age to recall early adulthood years when self-image, life scripts and identity issues feature, all related to

autobiographical memory (Tung and Ritchie, 2011b). The level of involvement with travel experiences, experiences of the local culture and experiences of feeling refreshed increases one's ability to recollect past experiences and retrieve them vividly (Kim, 2010). Souvenirs evoke poly-sensual memories (Morgan and Pritchard, 2005); and Tung and Ritchie (2011a) discuss autobiographical memory and note that four dimensions which represent aspects of experiences enable them to be particularly memorable: affect, expectations, consequentiality and recollection.

5.2.4 Prospecion versus retrospection

There may be a substantial overlap between retrospection and prospecion, as mental time travel in both directions engages similar brain structures involved in episodic autobiographical memory (Addis *et al.*, 2007). However, prospecion feels different and entails different mental representations from retrospection (Caruso *et al.*, 2008). Prospecion is more prototypical than retrospection and is biased towards pleasurable images (Kane *et al.*, 2012). Prospecion, more than retrospection, is grounded in scripts, schemas, stereotypes and other prototypical mental representations of what people, places and events are typically like (Kane *et al.*, 2012).

For example, when simulating an upcoming Caribbean holiday, people may draw on a prototype of tropical holidays that includes palm trees, parrots and pina coladas rather than basing their simulation on historical knowledge of whether they have actually seen a parrot or tasted a pina colada (Kane *et al.*, 2012). A prototype refers to a generalized mental representation of what people, events and activities are typically like – their archetype, their typical attributes, the scripts by which they usually unfold, the instances that best exemplify an event, and so on (Colcombe and Wyer Jr, 2002). The concept of prospecion is similar to affective forecasting, or imagining what our future emotions will be like under various scenarios. A number of biases have been noted in how we forecast our emotional state in the future. People's predictions of how they will feel in response to future emotional events often neglect information about how they felt in response to similar emotional events in the past, focusing instead on prototypical beliefs about emotional reactions (Kane *et al.*, 2012). It is likely that travellers engage in affective forecasting when planning their holidays.

The concept of consumption vision is similar to prospecion (Walters *et al.*, 2012). It is a 'cognitive process in which perceptual information is represented in working memory via the creation of daydreams, fantasies, and imaginative construction' (Walters *et al.*, 2012, p. 367).

5.2.5 Feelings

Often the terms 'feeling' and 'emotion' are used interchangeably but are distinguished here. Emotions are mental events elicited by an appraisal of relevant stimuli and create measurable bodily changes such as sweating, raised heartbeat and so on. Feelings are the result of an 'emotional body state' being signalled back to the brain, not only to the limbic system but also to the somatosensory system (Damasio, 1995). An

emotion of happiness may result in a smile; thereafter, the state of the muscles around the mouth, the effect of neurotransmitters released and so on are subsequently reported back to the brain, reinforcing a feeling of happiness. This is why bodily feedback or unconscious priming, such as asking a person to smile, can successfully induce emotion (Briñol and Petty, 2003). More generally, emotions and feelings have a recursive relation, each making the other more likely (Han *et al.*, 2007). This leads to the idea that feelings provide information to the brain, as is discussed in feelings as information theory (Pham, 1998; Schwarz, 2011). Emotions are motivational and informational, primarily by virtue of their experiential or feeling component.

In feelings as information theory, feedback from the feelings that people sense during an experience helps them to determine whether to continue or not. People, therefore, use their momentary feelings as actual sources of information. People interpret pleasant feelings as evidence of liking, satisfaction, well-being and so on, and unpleasant feelings as evidence of disliking, dissatisfaction, misery and so on (Pham, 2004; Schwarz, 2011). Interestingly, feelings are likely to be used as information more frequently when in a relaxed setting such as on holiday. Therefore the way we think on holidays may be more 'feelings based' than at home, and we may be more likely to do things because we 'feel' like them (Greifeneder *et al.*, 2010).

Loewenstein *et al.* (2001) have proposed a similar theory by exploring 'risk-as-feeling', which suggests that responses to risky situations, including decision making, result partly from direct feelings such as worry, fear, dread and anxiety. Generally, risk evaluation is considered to take place at a cognitive level. However, feelings may play a crucial role by providing a rapid indicator of whether our current situation is 'benign' or 'problematic'. Feelings affect decisions because we use the valence (positive or negative) and intensity of them to determine attitudes, preferences and the need for vigilance and effort. Positive feelings are interpreted as allowing more nonchalance and less effort (Schwarz, 2011). Therefore, emotions and feelings constitute the primary motivational component of mental operations and overt behaviour (Izard, 2008, p. 3). Consistent with the view of prospection discussed above, mental images of an imagined future can elicit feelings which in turn direct motivation.

Emotional assessment of the event is more extreme both before and after the event than at the time of its occurrence (Alba and Williams, 2013); yet decisions to repeat the experience appear driven to a greater degree by recollected experience than by predicted or experienced emotion (Wirtz *et al.*, 2003). Some researchers have suggested that the peak and final moments of the experience are privileged (Fredrickson, 2000) but in this is disputed in real-life contexts such as vacations (Kemp *et al.*, 2008) or meals (Rode *et al.*, 2007). These multi-part or extended experiences are compartmentalized into parts which may affect evaluation (Ariely and Zaubergerman, 2000; Ariely and Zaubergerman, 2003).

There is a limited discussion of feelings in the tourism literature (Buda *et al.*, 2014) but most studies focus instead on perception of external physical stimuli (touch, taste, smell; in tourism the visual is seen to be a privileged sense) rather than perceptions of conscious or unconscious emotional signals (Agapito *et al.*, 2014). Another stream of literature takes a corporeal and socially constructed view of experience of tourism (Small *et al.*, 2012). Feelings as summative evaluations of tourism experiences would appear to be a useful area for further research.

5.2.6 Fantasy

A number of authors have highlighted the importance of fantasy in tourism. There are two different interpretations of fantasy in tourism. One is that tourism is fantasy: it involves escape from the everyday and routine; and the other is that we fantasize about our tourism holidays prior to going on them whether they are ordinary or extraordinary holidays. Urry (1990, p. 3) writes that 'places are chosen to be gazed upon because there is an anticipation, especially through daydreaming and fantasy, or intense pleasures'. Dann (1976) defined fantasy as a:

wish or desire, expressive of a need, which cannot be fulfilled in terms of current role expectations, but which is capable of defining situations once these role expectations, or the circumstances in which they are found, have been modified or removed.

(1976, p. 19)

Thus, a tourist taking a break from work is engaging in a type of fantasy as if their life will become more exotic during or as a result of the trip (Dann, 1977). However, some destinations have also been seen as fantastic and unreal and in this sense tourism involves fantasy during the experience of travel (Light, 2009). Hyperreality is a type of environment/servicescape where fantasy and reality mix (Edvardsson *et al.*, 2005). A servicescape is a concept developed by Booms and Bitner (1981) to denote the environment in which a service process takes place. Films are important sources of fantasy imagery (Riley *et al.*, 1998; Connell, 2012). Fantasies and dreams may be continued in stories and holiday talk upon returning home (Malone *et al.*, 2014). Interestingly, fantasy associations with a destination may fade after experiencing the reality for the first time (Tung and Ritchie, 2011a, p. 1380).

Tourism marketers create and use fantasy (Williams, 2006) as persuasion but 'the consumer is not a passive victim of advertising campaigns. If advertisements are to work they require our active collusion' (Uzzell, 1984, p. 98). Indeed, fantasy, daydreaming and imagination are a vital part of any person's mental life (Singer, 1966) and therefore we undertake prospection about them. Moreover, because travel experiences are often symbolically laden and thus meaningful to consumers, they are actively involved in the construction of the experience through preconsumption desire, fantasy, anticipation and preparation as well as contribution during the experience, and remembering and storytelling afterwards (Lugosi, 2014). Tourism as prototypical hedonic consumption is tied to imaginative constructions of reality, and fantasies on various themes are important determinants and consequents of hedonic consumption (Singer, 1966).

From a cognitive psychological perspective, fantasy is a type of future episodic thought (Suddendorf and Corballis, 2007; Szpunar, 2010; Andrews-Hanna, 2012; Smallwood and Schooler, 2015), prospection or mindwandering (Mason *et al.*, 2007). People frequently engage in spontaneous thought about the past or future within daily life; between 30% and 50% of a person's day is engaged in thoughts unrelated to the immediate task at hand (Klinger and Cox, 1987; Killingsworth and Gilbert, 2010). The internal mentation hypothesis proposes that spontaneous introspective processes, sometimes referred to as stimulus-independent thought, task-unrelated thought, mind wandering, daydreaming or zoning-out, give rise to default network activity (Andrews-Hanna, 2012). The default network is a set of brain regions that

becomes active during the many idle moments that comprise daily life. During these times some parts of the brain switch off while the default network switches on. Thus, fantasy is a form of mindwandering or stimulus-independent thought, which in turn may be associated with the default network in the brain. During mindwandering, various brain modules allow individuals to simulate the past and future, reflect on the mental states of other people and identify thoughts of personal significance (Andrews-Hanna, 2012). Mindwandering is largely audio-visual and emotional, follows loose narratives tinged with fantasy, is strongly related to current concerns, draws on long-term memory and simulates social interactions (Fox *et al.*, 2013).

Fantasy may have an effect on future choice, as imagining a behaviour changes intention positively towards that behaviour. Therefore, understanding the fantasies that consumers associate with the consumption of hedonic and symbolic products can facilitate the promotion of these products (MacInnis and Price, 1987), allowing development of tools with which fantasy, meaning and identity can be created and constructed (Parrinello, 1993; Echtner, 1999). Future imagined events are more prototypically represented and simulated than past events, meaning that people may imagine their future holidays by drawing on prototypical holiday imagery rather than on past memories (Kane *et al.*, 2012). Consumers of hedonic experiences find pleasure and satisfaction in preconsumption imagining (Kwortnik Jr and Ross Jr, 2007), such that enjoyment is an important feature of extended search in hedonic categories (Bloch *et al.*, 1986).

5.2.7 Holiday decision making

The above review indicates that anticipation of holidays can involve prospection or consumption vision and intense emotions (Van Boven and Ashworth, 2007), and experiential processes such as imaging, daydreams and emotions play an important role in destination choice behaviour (Goossens, 2000). But holiday planning and decision making are popular and pleasant not because they have some particular quality independent of our goals, personal relevance and feeling responses; but instead because holidays have important egocentric or symbolic consequences. Because they are also complex and uncertain hedonic experiences, we may use feelings rather than our cognition to guide our choices (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999). Feelings are used as information because they are relevant to the judgment task for pleasure holidays (Pham, 1998). The uncertainty (Urbany *et al.*, 1989), multidimensionality (Gallo, 2013) and lack of objective information with which to make the decision (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) for hedonic travel choices means they are more likely to be processed holistically, compared to products. Thus, the pleasure of consumption can begin before the act of consuming; that is, the consumer has fun anticipating consumption and in the experience of choosing, and rationalizing during decision making sometimes takes the fun out of it (Kwortnik Jr and Ross Jr, 2007). In this sense fantasy is a means of seeing the future through vicarious experience (MacInnis and Price, 1987; Goossens, 2000). Gnoth (1997) developed a model of decision making including feelings as motivations.

Clearly there is emotional input into holiday choices (Pearce and Packer, 2013) and some choice models have included emotion and fantasies. Van Raaij and Francken

(1984, p. 104) considered that ‘information may engender particular expectations and create fantasies’, and Woodside and Lysonski (1989) noted that affective associations with a specific destination affect preference; while Mansfeld (1992) considered that both rational and irrational elements are important in influencing choice. March (1978) discussed that most choices address ‘is this decision good for me’ and therefore involve hedonic prediction. A useful model that includes feelings as central to hedonic decisions is given by Kwortnik Jr and Ross Jr (2007) and is the basis for the adapted choice model shown in Fig. 5.1. Here are three important component processes involved in the simulation of episodic future events (Addis and Schacter, 2011):

1. The details stored in episodic memory must be accessed to furnish the simulation.
2. The details extracted from various memories need to be recombined and integrated into a spatiotemporal context to imbue a simulation with a sense of coherence.
3. If a simulation is to influence and guide future behaviours, it needs to be successfully encoded into memory.

The use of feelings as information in choice processes is similar to affective forecasting. Visitors forecast how much they will enjoy something prior to committing to experiencing it and would not even plan on visiting unless they foresaw a positive experience or the deriving of any value from it (Close and Lacey, 2014). Anticipated emotion related to a specific behaviour can be an important variable in the decision making processes (Conner and Armitage, 1998). People not only take pleasure from nostalgia and recalled memories but also use their recollections to inform decisions (Alba and Williams, 2013).

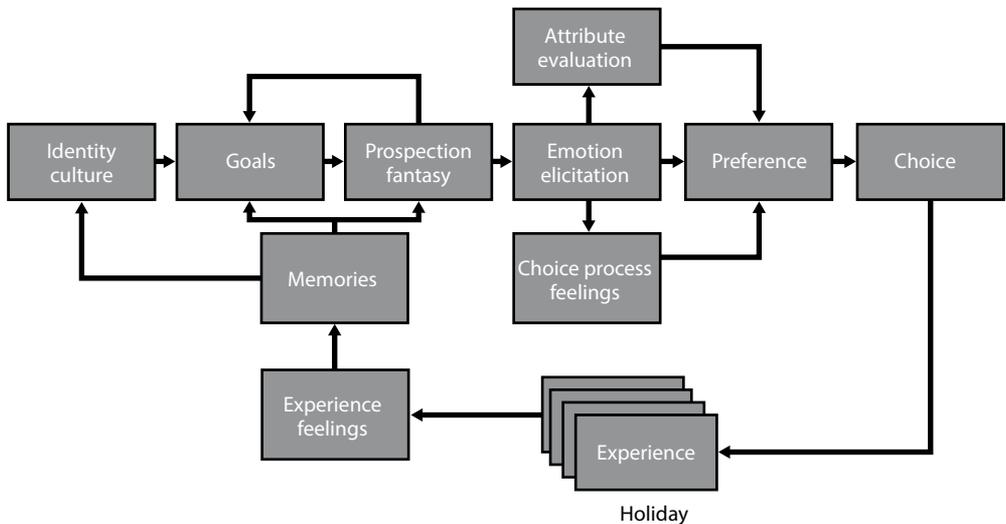


Fig. 5.1. Experiential decision model (after Kwortnik Jr and Ross Jr, 2007, p. 327).

5.3 Discussion and Future Research

This review has touched upon a number of key concepts for tourism research: emotion, prospection and retrospection, memory and especially autobiographical memory, sensations, fantasy, feelings and choice processes. Surprisingly, given the hedonic nature of pleasure travel and their practical and theoretical significance, these psychological concepts have received little attention. They are important for understanding how to promote tourism destinations (Hosany and Gilbert, 2010; Hosany, 2012) or hotels (Ro *et al.*, 2013); to persuade using narrative (Appel and Richter, 2010; Phillips and McQuarrie, 2010); to enhance and shape experiences (Moscardo, 2010); to develop more mindful experiences (Raffone *et al.*, 2010; Chen *et al.*, 2014) and to increase memorability. A knowledge of emotion may help us to understand why direct experiences in nature can promote emotional affinity towards nature (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2011) and how emotional appeals may be more effective in creating positive post-exposure attitudes than appeals employing factual information (Mattila, 2001). Importantly, they allow the study of tourism experiences to benefit from recent advances in psychology and brain science.

Hedonic experiences such as pleasure travel are anticipated, lived (during consumption) and remembered (after consumption) emotionally and with reflexive interaction with our feelings. They are important for identity formation and reinforcement (Allman *et al.*, 2009; Tung and Ritchie, 2011b; Marschall, 2012; Tussyadiah, 2014), and are often remembered vividly and in the form of a story, which influences the processing and evaluation of an experience. One characteristic of travel that is often discussed is the propensity to talk about it afterwards, and the discussion of autobiographical memory informs why this is. This also highlights the importance of biases in prospection and memory on choice of a holiday and how the prototypical memories influence narratives and fantasy. There are also some suggestions that culture affects prospective memory reconstruction. Clearly, the effect of desired future-oriented psychological states on travel needs requires further research (Pearce, 2009, p. 46). Opportunities exist for tourism researchers to further explore emotional episodes in long-term travel memories (Pearce and Packer, 2013).

Clearly there are many areas for further research involving the concepts discussed, and here two are discussed as illustrative of the range of opportunities available:

1. Urry (1990), one of the pioneers, has examined the importance of the visual sense (the gaze) in tourism, albeit from a sociological perspective. The discussion of attention above may allow the prevalence of non-engaged gazing to be reinterpreted in psychological terms as a lack of visual cues and involvement. This revision of a tourist experience from passive to active is inherent in the performance turn (Mansfeldt *et al.*, 2008). If visitor gaze is not an inherent manifestation of sociological anomie but instead a lack of orientating signs and cues, then it is possible to reduce gazing through appropriate experience design.

Research on the tourist experience can be thought of as occurring in three phases: (i) as objects provided by tourism businesses (Uriely, 2005); (ii) as the result of the individual tourist's subjective negotiation of meanings; and (iii) the tourist's subjective perceptions and behaviours as the core elements, interacting with other important processes such as attention and memory (Larsen, 2007; Kim, 2010, p. 782).

In this study, we move beyond identifying the components of memorable tourism experiences (Larsen, 2007) to seeking an understanding about why the mechanisms are memorable. As Kim (2010, p. 781) writes: ‘Specifically, the causal connections between the experiential factors and one’s ability to recollect past experiences and vividly retrieve information are unclear.’

To Larsen (2007, p. 15) a tourist experience is ‘a past personal travel-related event strong enough to have entered long-term memory’, and perhaps we can reinvent the gaze in similar psychological terms.

2. Relaxation is an inherent characteristic of pleasure tourism. There are some indications that creativity (Dietrich, 2004) may be stimulated by activation of the default network during relaxation (de Bloom *et al.*, 2014). Similarly, the view of travel as transformative experience is accepted, but how this works psychologically has not been examined. What are the characteristics of tourism that promote psychological transformation and well-being? There has been much discussion of the negative impact of tourism but not so much written on the positive benefits for individuals. While travelling, people are away from their normal environment, separated from family, friends and colleagues, so they are free to think, feel and behave in ways that they would not ordinarily consider (Kottler, 2002).

Finally, the use of psychological concepts also suggests the use of different methodology for collection of data on emotional responses such as electrophysiological responses (Li *et al.*, 2015), photography (Yang, *et al.*, 2014) and videography (Ferguson, 2011); attention to promotional material such as use of eye tracking (Yang, 2012; Scott *et al.*, 2016) and the positioning of tourism products that will result in memorable experiences (Hudson and Ritchie, 2009; Adeyinka-Ojo and Khoo-Lattimore, 2013).

References

- Addis, D.R. and Schacter, D.L. (2011) The hippocampus and imagining the future: Where do we stand? *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 5(1), 1–15.
- Addis, D.R., Wong, A.T. and Schacter, D.L. (2007) Remembering the past and imagining the future: common and distinct neural substrates during event construction and elaboration. *Neuropsychologia* 45(7), 1363–1377.
- Adeyinka-Ojo, S.F. and Khoo-Lattimore, C. (2013) The making of ‘authentic’ tourism experience: the case of Bario, Sarawak. *BIMP-EAGA Journal of Sustainable Tourism Development* 2(2), 51–53.
- Agapito, D., Mendes, J. and Valle, P. (2013) Exploring the conceptualization of the sensory dimension of tourist experiences. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management* 2(2), 62–73. doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2013.03.001
- Agapito, D., Valle, P. and Mendes, J. (2014) The sensory dimension of tourist experiences: capturing meaningful sensory-informed themes in southwest Portugal. *Tourism Management* 42, 224–237. doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.11.011
- Alba, J.W. and Williams, E.F. (2013) Pleasure principles: a review of research on hedonic consumption. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 23(1), 2–18. doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2012.07.003
- Allman, T.L., Mittelstaedt, R.D., Martin, B. and Goldenberg, M. (2009) Exploring the motivations of BASE jumpers: extreme sport enthusiasts. *Journal of Sport & Tourism* 14(4), 229–247.
- Andrews-Hanna, J.R. (2012) The brain’s default network and its adaptive role in internal mentation. *The Neuroscientist* 18(3), 251–270.

- Appel, M. and Richter, T. (2010) Transportation and need for affect in narrative persuasion: a mediated moderation model. *Media Psychology* 13(2), 101–135.
- Ariely, D. and Zauberman, G. (2000) On the making of an experience: the effects of breaking and combining experiences on their overall evaluation. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making* 13, 219–232.
- Ariely, D. and Zauberman, G. (2003) Differential partitioning of extended experiences. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 91(2), 128–139.
- Arnould, E. and Price, L.L. (1993) River magic: extraordinary experience and the extended service encounter. *Journal of Consumer Research* 20, 24–45.
- Atance, C.M. and O'Neill, D.K. (2005) The emergence of episodic future thinking in humans. *Learning and Motivation* 36(2), 126–144. doi.org/10.1016/j.lmot.2005.02.003
- Baars, B.J. (2002) The conscious access hypothesis: origins and recent evidence. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* 6(1), 47–52.
- Baars, B.J. (2005) Global workspace theory of consciousness: toward a cognitive neuroscience of human experience. *Progress in Brain Research* 150, 45–53.
- Baars, B.J. and Franklin, S. (2003) How conscious experience and working memory interact. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* 7(4), 166–172.
- Babin, B., Darden, W. and Griffin, M. (1994) Work and/or fun: measuring hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. *Journal of Consumer Research* 20(4), 644–656.
- Baddeley, A. (2012) Working memory: theories, models, and controversies. *Annual Review of Psychology* 63, 1–29.
- Bagozzi, R.P., Gopinath, M. and Nyer, P.U. (1999) The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 27(2), 184–206.
- Ballantyne, R., Packer, J. and Sutherland, L.A. (2011) Visitors' memories of wildlife tourism: implications for the design of powerful interpretive experiences. *Tourism Management* 32(4), 770–779. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2010.06.012
- Batra, R. and Ahtola, O.T. (1991) Measuring the hedonic and utilitarian sources of consumer attitudes. *Marketing Letters* 2(2), 159–170.
- Baumgartner, H. (1992) Remembrance of things past: music, autobiographical memory, and emotion. *Advances in Consumer Research* 19(1), 613–620.
- Berntsen, D. and Rubin, D.C. (2004) Cultural life scripts structure recall from autobiographical memory. *Memory & Cognition* 32(3), 427–442.
- Besser, A. and Shackelford, T.K. (2007) Mediation of the effects of the big five personality dimensions on negative mood and confirmed affective expectations by perceived situational stress: a quasi-field study of vacationers. *Personality and Individual Differences* 42(7), 1333–1346.
- Bigne, J.E., Andreu, L. and 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. and Ridgeway, N.M. (1986) Consumer search: an extended framework. *Journal of Consumer Research* 13(6) 119–126.
- Booms, B.H. and Bitner, M.J. (1981) Marketing strategies and organisation structures for service firms. In: Donnelly, J. and George, W.R. (eds) *Marketing of Services*. American Marketing Association, Chicago, Illinois.
- Boyer, P. (2008) Evolutionary economics of mental time travel? *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* 12(6), 219–224.
- Braasch, B. (2008) *Major Concepts in Tourism Research – Memory*. Centre for Tourism and Cultural Change, Leeds Metropolitan University, Leeds, UK.
- Braun-LaTour, K.A., Grinley, M.J. and Loftus, E.F. (2006) Tourist memory distortion. *Journal of Travel Research* 44(4), 360–367.
- Brewer, W.F. (1986) What is autobiographical memory? In: Rubin, D.C. (ed.) *Autobiographical Memory*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, pp. 25–49.
- Brewer, W.F. (1996) What is recollective memory? In: Brewer, W.F. (ed.) *Remembering Our Past: Studies in Autobiographical Memory*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, pp. 19–66.

- Briñol, P. and Petty, R.E. (2003) Overt head movements and persuasion: a self-validation analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 84(6), 1123.
- Brown, N.R. (2005) On the prevalence of event clusters in autobiographical memory. *Social Cognition* 23(1), 35–69.
- Brown, R. and Kulik, J. (1977) Flashbulb memories. *Cognition* 5(1), 73–99.
- Buda, D.M., d’Hauteserre, A.-M. and Johnston, L. (2014) Feeling and tourism studies. *Annals of Tourism Research* 46, 102–114. doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2014.03.005
- Carter, T.J. and Gilovich, T. (2010) The relative relativity of material and experiential purchases. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 98(1), 146–159.
- Caruso, E.M., Gilbert, D.T. and Wilson, T.D. (2008) A wrinkle in time asymmetric valuation of past and future events. *Psychological Science* 19(8), 796–801.
- Chen, I.L., Scott, N. and Benckendorff, P. (2014) Constructs of meditative mindfulness experience in tourism. Paper presented at the 2014 Asia Pacific (APac) Chapter Conference. Making it Count: Travel and Tourism Research in the Asia Pacific, Melbourne, Australia.
- Christian, B.M., Miles, L.K., Fung, F.H.K., Best, S. and Macrae, C.N. (2013) The shape of things to come: exploring goal-directed prospection. *Consciousness and Cognition* 22(2), 471–478.
- Chronis, A. (2012) Between place and story: Gettysburg as tourism imaginary. *Annals of Tourism Research* 39(4), 1797–1816. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2012.05.028
- Close, A.G. and Lacey, R. (2014) How the anticipation can be as great as the experience: explaining event sponsorship exhibit outcomes via affective forecasting. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising* 35(2), 209–224.
- Colcombe, S.J. and Wyer Jr, R.S. (2002) The role of prototypes in the mental representation of temporally related events. *Cognitive Psychology* 44(1), 67–103.
- Connell, J. (2012) Film tourism – evolution, progress and prospects. *Tourism Management* 33(5), 1007–1029. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2012.02.008
- Conner, M. and Armitage, C.J. (1998) Extending the theory of planned behavior: a review and avenues for further research. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 28(15), 1429–1464.
- Conway, M.A. and Pleydell-Pearce, C.W. (2000) The construction of autobiographical memories in the self-memory system. *Psychological Review* 107(2), 261–288.
- Cutler, S.Q. and Carmichael, B.A. (2010) The dimensions of the tourist experience. In: Morgan, M., Lugosi, P. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (eds) *The Tourism and Leisure Experience: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives*. Channel View Publications, Bristol, UK.
- Damasio, A.R. (1995) Toward a neurobiology of emotion and feeling: operational concepts and hypotheses. *The Neuroscientist* 1(1), 19–25. DOI: 10.1177/107385849500100104
- Dann, G. (1976) The holiday was simply fantastic. *Tourism Review* 31(3), 19–23.
- Dann, G. (1977) Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 4, 184–194.
- D’Argembeau, A. and Mathy, A. (2011) Tracking the construction of episodic future thoughts. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General* 140(2), 258–271.
- Davenport, T.H. and Beck, J.C. (2001) *The Attention Economy: Understanding the New Currency of Business*. Harvard Business School Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- de Bloom, J., Ritter, S., Kühnel, J., Reinders, J. and Geurts, S. (2014) Vacation from work: a ‘ticket to creativity’? The effects of recreational travel on cognitive flexibility and originality. *Tourism Management* 44, 164–171. doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.03.013
- Decrop, A. and Snelders, D. (2004) Planning the summer vacation – an adaptable process. *Annals of Tourism Research* 31(4), 1008–1030.
- Demblon, J. and D’Argembeau, A. (2014) The organization of prospective thinking: evidence of event clusters in freely generated future thoughts. *Consciousness and Cognition* 24, 75–83.
- Dietrich, A. (2004) The cognitive neuroscience of creativity. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review* 11(6), 1011–1026.
- Echtner, C.M. (1999) The semiotic paradigm: implications for tourism research. *Tourism Management* 20, 47–57.

- Edvardsson, B., Enquist, B. and Johnston, R. (2005) Cocreating customer value through hyperreality in the prepurchase service experience. *Journal of Service Research* 8(2), 149–161. DOI: 10.1177/1094670505279729
- Ellsworth, P.C. and Scherer, K.R. (2003) Appraisal processes in emotion. In: Davidson, R.J., Sherer, K.R. and Goldsmith, H.H. (eds) *Handbook of Affective Sciences*. Oxford University Press, New York, pp. 572–595.
- Ellsworth, P.C. and Smith, C.A. (1988a) From appraisal to emotion: differences among unpleasant feelings. *Motivation and Emotion* 12(3), 271–302.
- Ellsworth, P.C. and Smith, C.A. (1988b) Shades of joy: patterns of appraisal differentiating pleasant emotions. *Cognition & Emotion* 2(4), 301–331.
- Escalas, J.E. (2004) Narrative processing: building consumer connections to brands. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 14(1), 168–180.
- Escalas, J.E. (2007) Self-referencing and persuasion: narrative transportation versus analytical elaboration. *Journal of Consumer Research* 33(4), 421–429. DOI: 10.1086/510216
- Faullant, R., Matzler, K. and Mooradian, T.A. (2011) Personality, basic emotions, and satisfaction: primary emotions in the mountaineering experience. *Tourism Management* 32(6), 1423–1430. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2011.01.004
- Fennell, D.A. (2009) The nature of pleasure in pleasure travel. *Tourism Recreation Research* 34(2), 123–134.
- Ferguson, S. (2011) Quest for a story. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research* 5(4), 354–363.
- Ferguson, S. and Todd, S. (2007) Quest for a story (abstract). *Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research* 7, 425.
- Fivush, R. (2011) The development of autobiographical memory. *Annual Review of Psychology* 62(1), 559–582. DOI: 10.1146/annurev.psych.121208.131702
- Floyd, M.F. (1997) Pleasure, arousal, and dominance: exploring affective determinants of recreation satisfaction. *Leisure Sciences* 19(2), 83–96.
- Fox, K.C.R., Nijeboer, S., Solomonova, E., Domhoff, G.W. and Christoff, K. (2013) Dreaming as mind wandering: evidence from functional neuroimaging and first-person content reports. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 7, 1–18.
- Fredrickson, B.L. (2000) Extracting meaning from past affective experiences: the importance of peaks, ends, and specific emotions. *Cognition & Emotion* 14(4), 577–606.
- Frijda, N.H. (1986) *The Emotions*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Frijda, N.H. (1993) The place of appraisal in emotion. *Cognition & Emotion* 7(3–4), 357–387.
- Gallo, I. (2013) The processing and evaluation of experiences. PhD thesis, University of California, Los Angeles, California.
- Gilbert, D. and Abdullah, J. (2004) Holidaytaking and the sense of well-being. *Annals of Tourism Research* 31(1), 103–121.
- Gilbert, D.T. and Wilson, T.D. (2007) Propection: experiencing the future. *Science* 317(5843), 1351–1354.
- Gnoth, J. (1997) Tourism motivation and expectation formation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2), 283–304.
- Goossens, C. (2000) Tourism information and pleasure motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(2), 301–321.
- Greifeneder, R., Bless, H. and Pham, M.T. (2010) When do people rely on affective and cognitive feelings in judgment? A review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review* 15(2), 107–141.
- Gretzel, U., Fesenmaier, D.R., Formica, S. and O’Leary, J.T. (2006) Searching for the future: challenges faced by destination marketing organizations. *Journal of Travel Research* 45(2), 116–126.
- Gursoy, D., Spangenberg, E.R. and Rutherford, D.G. (2006) The hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of attendees’ attitudes toward festivals. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 30(3), 279–294.

- Han, S., Lerner, J.S. and Keltner, D. (2007) Feelings and consumer decision making: the appraisal-tendency framework. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 17(3), 158–168.
- Hirschman, E.C. and Holbrook, M.B. (1982) Hedonic consumption: emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing* 46(3), 92–101.
- Holbrook, M.B. (2006) Consumption experience, customer value, and subjective personal introspection: an illustrative photographic essay. *Journal of Business Research* 59(6), 714–725.
- Holbrook, M.B. and Hirschman, E.C. (1982) The experiential aspects of consumption: consumer fantasies, feelings and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research* 9(2), 132–140.
- Hosany, S. (2012) Appraisal determinants of tourist emotional responses. *Journal of Travel Research* 51(3), 303–314.
- Hosany, S. and Gilbert, D. (2010) Measuring tourists' emotional experiences toward hedonic holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research* 49(4), 513–526.
- Hosany, S., Prayag, G., Deesilatham, S., Caušević, S. and Odeh, K. (2015) Measuring tourists' emotional experiences: further validation of the destination emotion scale. *Journal of Travel Research* 54(4), 482–495.
- Hudson, S. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (2009) Branding a memorable destination experience. The case of 'Brand Canada'. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 11(2), 217–228. DOI: 10.1002/jtr.720
- Izard, C.E. (2008) Emotion theory and research: highlights, unanswered questions, and emerging issues. *Annual Review of Psychology* 60(1), 1–25. DOI: 10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163539
- Jason, L.A., Schade, J., Furo, L., Reichler, A. and Brickman, C. (1989) Time orientation: past, present, and future perceptions. *Psychological Reports* 64(3c), 1199–1205. DOI: 10.2466/pr0.1989.64.3c.1199
- Johnson, A. and Stewart, D.W. (2005) A reappraisal of the role of emotion in consumer behaviour: traditional and contemporary approaches. In: Malhotra, N. (ed.) *Review of Marketing Research 1*. M.E. Sharpe, London, pp. 3–34.
- Kane, J., Van Boven, L. and McGraw, A.P. (2012) Prototypical prospection: future events are more prototypically represented and simulated than past events. *European Journal of Social Psychology* 42(3), 354–362. DOI: 10.1002/ejsp.1866
- Kemp, S., Burt, C. and Furneaux, L. (2008) A test of the peak-end rule with extended autobiographical events. *Memory & Cognition* 36(1), 132–138.
- Kensinger, E.A. (2004) Remembering emotional experiences: the contribution of valence and arousal. *Reviews in the Neurosciences* 15(4), 241–252.
- Killingsworth, M.A. and Gilbert, D.T. (2010) A wandering mind is an unhappy mind. *Science* 330(6006), 932–932.
- Kim, J.-H. (2010) Determining the factors affecting the memorable nature of travel experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 27(8), 780–796.
- Kim, J.-H. and Jang, S. (2016) Memory retrieval of cultural event experiences: examining internal and external influences. *Journal of Travel Research* 55(3), 322–339. DOI: 10.1177/0047287514553058
- Klinger, E. and Cox, W.M. (1987) Dimensions of thought flow in everyday life. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality* 7(2), 105–128.
- Koc, E. and Boz, H. (2014) Psychoneurobiochemistry of tourism marketing. *Tourism Management* 44, 140–148. doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.03.002
- Koch, C. (2004) *The Quest for Consciousness*. Roberts & Company Publishers, Englewood, Colorado.
- Koch, C. and Tsuchiya, N. (2007) Attention and consciousness: two distinct brain processes. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* 11(1), 16–22.
- Kottler, J.A. (2002) Transformative travel: international counselling in action. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling* 24(4), 207–210.
- Kwortnik Jr, R.J. and Ross Jr, W.T. (2007) The role of positive emotions in experiential decisions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 24(4), 324–335.
- Larsen, S. (2006) The psychology of the tourist experience: expectations, events and memories. Paper presented at CAUTHE 2006: To the City and Beyond. Melbourne, Australia, 6–9 February, pp. 1499–1415.

- Larsen, S. (2007) Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(1), 7–18.
- Larsen, S. and Jenssen, D. (2004) The school trip: travelling with, not to or from. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 4(1), 43–57. doi.org/10.1080/15022250410006273
- Lazarus, R.S. (1991) *Emotion and Adaptation*. Oxford University Press, New York.
- Le Bel, J.L. (2005) Beyond the friendly skies: an integrative framework for managing the air travel experience. *Managing Service Quality* 15(5), 437–451.
- Leiper, N. (1990) Tourist attraction systems. *Annals of Tourism Research* 17(3), 367–384.
- Li, S., Scott, N. and Walters, G.A. (2015) Current and potential methods for measuring emotion in tourism experiences: a review. *Current Issues in Tourism* 18(9), 805–827. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2014.975679
- Light, D. (2009) Performing Transylvania: tourism, fantasy and play in a liminal place. *Tourist Studies* 9(3), 240–258.
- Loewenstein, G.F., Weber, E.U., Hsee, C.K. and Welch, N. (2001) Risk as feelings. *Psychological Bulletin* 127(2), 267–286.
- Lugosi, P. (2014) Mobilising identity and culture in experience co-creation and venue operation. *Tourism Management* 40, 165–179. doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.06.005
- Ma, J., Gao, J., Scott, N. and Ding, P. (2013) Customer delight derived from theme park experiences: the antecedents of delight based on cognitive appraisal theory. *Annals of Tourism Research* 42, 359–381.
- MacInnis, D.J. and Price, L.L. (1987) The role of imagery in information processing: review and extensions. *Journal of Consumer Research* 13(4), 473–491.
- Malone, S., McCabe, S. and Smith, A.P. (2014) The role of hedonism in ethical tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 44, 241–254.
- Mansfeld, Y. (1992) From motivation to actual travel. *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(3), 399–419.
- Mansfeldt, O.K., Vestager, E.M. and Iversen, M.B. (2008) *Experience Design in City Tourism: Experience Economy & Tourism/Creative Industries*. Nordic Innovation Centre, Stensberggata, Norway.
- March, J.G. (1978) Bounded rationality, ambiguity, and the engineering of choice. *The Bell Journal of Economics* 9(2), 587–608.
- Marschall, S. (2012) 'Personal memory tourism' and a wider exploration of the tourism–memory nexus. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change* 10(4), 321–335. DOI: 10.1080/14766825.2012.742094
- Mason, M.F., Norton, M.I., Van Horn, J.D., Wegner, D.M., Grafton, S.T. and Macrae, C.N. (2007) Wandering minds: the default network and stimulus-independent thought. *Science* 315(5810), 393–395. DOI: 10.1126/science.1131295
- Mattila, A. (2001) Do emotional appeals work for hotels? An exploratory study. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 25(1), 31–45.
- McDonald, D.G. (2014) Narrative research in communication: key principles and issues. *Review of Communication* 2(1), 116–131.
- McIntosh, A.J. and Siggs, A. (2005) An exploration of the experiential nature of boutique accommodation. *Journal of Travel Research* 44, 74–81.
- Mogilner, C., Aaker, J. and Kamvar, S.D. (2012) How happiness affects choice. *Journal of Consumer Research* 39(2), 429–443.
- Moors, A. (2009) Theories of emotion causation: a review. *Cognition & Emotion* 23(4), 625–662. DOI: 10.1080/02699930802645739
- Morgan, M. and Xu, F. (2009) Student travel experiences: memories and dreams. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 18(2), 216–236.
- Morgan, N. and Pritchard, A. (2005) On souvenirs and metonymy: narratives of memory, metaphor and materiality. *Tourist Studies* 5(1), 29–53.
- Moscardo, G. (2010) The shaping of tourist experience: the importance of stories and themes. In: Morgan, N., Lugosi, P. and Brent Ritchie, J.R. (eds) *The Tourism and Leisure Experience: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives*. Channel View Publications, Bristol, UK, pp. 43–58.

- Ooi, C.S. (2005) A theory of tourism experiences: The management of attention. In: O'Dell, T. and Billing, P. (eds) *Experiencescapes: Tourism, Culture and Economy*. Copenhagen Business School Press, Copenhagen, Denmark, pp. 51–68.
- Parrinello, G.L. (1993) Motivation and anticipation in post-industrial tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 20(2), 233–249.
- Parrinello, G.L. (2012) Tourism and neuroscience: a preliminary approach. *Tourism: an International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism* 7(2), 39–54.
- Pearce, P.L. (2009) The relationship between positive psychology and tourist behavior studies. *Tourism Analysis* 14(1), 37–48.
- Pearce, P.L. and Packer, J. (2013) Minds on the move: new links from psychology to tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 40, 386–411. doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2012.10.002
- Pham, M.T. (1998) Representativeness, relevance, and the use of feelings in decision making. *Journal of Consumer Research* 25(2), 144–159.
- Pham, M.T. (2004) The logic of feeling. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 14(4), 360–369.
- Phillips, B.J. and McQuarrie, E.F. (2010) Narrative and persuasion in fashion advertising. *Journal of Consumer Research* 37(3), 368–392.
- Plassmann, H., Ramsøy, T.Z. and Milosavljevic, M. (2012) Branding the brain: a critical review and outlook. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 22(1), 18–36. doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2011.11.010
- Poulsen, S.H.G. and Kale, S.H. (2004) The experience economy and commercial experiences. *Marketing Review* 4(3), 267–277.
- Raffone, A., Tagini, A. and Srinivasan, N. (2010) Mindfulness and the cognitive neuroscience of attention and awareness. *Zygon* 45(3), 627–646.
- Rathbone, C.J., Conway, M.A. and Moulin, C.J. (2011) Remembering and imagining: the role of the self. *Consciousness and Cognition* 20(4), 1175–1182.
- Richins, M.L. (1997) Measuring emotions in the consumption experience. *Journal of Consumer Research* 24(2), 127–146.
- Riley, R., Baker, D. and Van Doren, C.S. (1998) Movie induced tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(4), 919–935.
- Ro, H., Lee, S. and Mattila, A.S. (2013) An affective image positioning of Las Vegas hotels. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism* 14(3), 201–217. DOI: 10.1080/1528008X.2013.802577
- Rode, E., Rozin, P. and Durlach, P. (2007) Experienced and remembered pleasure for meals: duration neglect but minimal peak, end (recency) or primacy effects. *Appetite* 49(1), 18–29.
- Roseman, I.J. (2001) A model of appraisal in the emotion system: Integrating theory, research, and application. In: Scherer, K.R., Schorr, A. and Johnston, T. (eds) *Appraisal Processes in Emotion: Theory, Methods, Research*. Oxford University Press, New York, pp. 68–91.
- Rubenstein, C. (1980) Report on how Americans view vacations. *Psychology Today* (May), 62–76.
- Rubin, D.C. (2005) A basic-systems approach to autobiographical memory. *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 14(2), 79–83.
- Rubin, D.C. and Kozin, M. (1984) Vivid memories. *Cognition* 16(1), 81–95.
- Ryan, C. (1997) *The Tourist Experience*. Cassell, London.
- Ryan, M.J. (1986) Implications from the 'old' and the 'new' physics for studying buyer behavior. In: Brinberg, D. and Lutz, R.J. (eds) *Perspectives on Methodology in Consumer Research*. Springer-Verlag, New York, pp. 37–63.
- Sadeh, T., Ozubko, J.D., Winocur, G. and Moscovitch, M. (2014) How we forget may depend on how we remember. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* 18(1), 26–36.
- Sander, D., Grafman, J. and Zalla, T. (2003) The human amygdala: an evolved system for relevance detection. *Reviews in the Neurosciences* 14(4), 303–316.
- Schacter, D.L. (2012) Constructive memory: past and future. *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience* 14(1), 7–18.
- Schacter, D.L., Addis, D.R. and Buckner, R.L. (2008) Episodic simulation of future events. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* 1124(1), 39–60. DOI: 10.1196/annals.1440.001

- Scherer, K.R. (1997) The role of culture in emotion-antecedent appraisal. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 73(5), 902–922. DOI: 10.1037/0022-3514.73.5.902
- Scherer, K.R., Schorr, A. and Johnstone, T. (2001) *Appraisal Processes in Emotions: Theory, Methods, Research*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- Schwarz, N. (2011) Feelings-as-information theory. In: Van Lange, P.A., Kruglanski, A. and Higgins, A. (eds) *Handbook of Theories of Social Psychology*. Sage, London, pp. 289–308.
- Scott, N., Green, C. and Fairley, S. (2016) Investigation of the use of eye-tracking to examine tourism advertising effectiveness. *Current Issues in Tourism* 19(7), 634–642. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2014.1003797
- Singer, J.L. (1966) *Daydreaming: An Introduction to the Experimental Study of Inner Experience*. Random House, New York.
- Small, J. (1999) Memory-work: a method for researching women's tourist experiences. *Tourism Management* 20(1), 25–35.
- Small, J., Darcy, S. and Packer, T. (2012) The embodied tourist experiences of people with vision impairment: management implications beyond the visual gaze. *Tourism Management* 33(4), 941–950. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2011.09.015
- Smallwood, J. and Schooler, J.W. (2015) The science of mind wandering: empirically navigating the stream of consciousness. *Annual Review of Psychology* 66(1), 487–518. DOI: 10.1146/annurev-psych-010814-015331
- Spreng, R.N., Mar, R.A. and Kim, A.S.N. (2009) The common neural basis of autobiographical memory, prospection, navigation, theory of mind, and the default mode: a quantitative meta-analysis. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience* 21(3), 489–510.
- Squire, L.R. (2004) Memory systems of the brain: a brief history and current perspective. *Neurobiology of Learning and Memory* 82(3), 171–177.
- Su, L. and Hsu, M.K. (2013) Service fairness, consumption emotions, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: the experience of Chinese heritage tourists. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 30(8), 786–805. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2013.835228
- Suddendorf, T. and Corballis, M.C. (2007) The evolution of foresight: What is mental time travel, and is it unique to humans? *Behavioral and Brain Sciences* 30(3), 299–312.
- Szpunar, K.K. (2010) Episodic future thought an emerging concept. *Perspectives on Psychological Science* 5(2), 142–162.
- Tulving, E. (1983) *Elements of Episodic Memory*. Oxford University Press, New York.
- Tulving, E. (2002) Episodic memory: from mind to brain. *Annual Review of Psychology* 53(1), 1–25.
- Tung, V.W.S. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (2011a) Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research* 38(4), 1367–1386. doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.03.009/
- Tung, V.W.S. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (2011b) Investigating the memorable experiences of the senior travel market: an examination of the reminiscence bump. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 28(3), 331–343.
- Tussyadiah, I.P. (2014) Toward a theoretical foundation for experience design in tourism. *Journal of Travel Research* 53(5), 543–564. DOI: 10.1177/0047287513513172
- Urbany, J.E., Dickson, P.R. and Wilkie, W.L. (1989) Buyer uncertainty and information search. *Journal of Consumer Research* 16(2), 208–215.
- Uriely, N. (2005) The tourist experience: conceptual developments. *Annals of Tourism Research* 32(1), 199–216.
- Urry, J. (1990) *The Tourist Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies*. Sage Publications, London.
- Uzzell, D. (1984) An alternative structuralist approach to the psychology of tourism marketing. *Annals of Tourism Research* 11(1), 79–99.
- Van Boven, L. and Ashworth, L. (2007) Looking forward, looking back: anticipation is more evocative than retrospection. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General* 136(2), 289–300.

- Van Raaij, W.F. and Francken, D.A. (1984) Vacation decisions, activities and satisfactions. *Annals of Tourism Research* 11(1), 101–112.
- Walters, G., Sparks, B. and Herington, C. (2012) The impact of consumption vision and emotion on the tourism consumer's decision behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 36(3), 366–389. DOI: 10.1177/1096348010390815
- Wang, Q. and Ross, M. (2007) Culture and memory. In: Kitayama, S. and Cohen, D. (eds) *Handbook of Cultural Psychology*. Guilford Press, New York, pp. 645–667.
- Watson, L. and Spence, M.T. (2007) Causes and consequences of emotions on consumer behaviour: a review and integrative cognitive appraisal theory. *European Journal of Marketing* 41(5/6), 487–511.
- Williams, A. (2006) Tourism and hospitality marketing: fantasy, feeling and fun. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 18(6), 482–495.
- Wilson, T.D. and Gilbert, D.T. (2003) Affective forecasting. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* 35, 345–411.
- Wirtz, D., Kruger, J., Scollon, C.N. and 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. DOI: 10.1111/1467-9280.03455
- Wong, I.A. and Wu, J.S. (2013) Understanding casino experiential attributes: an application to market positioning. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 35, 214–224. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.06.009>
- Woodside, A.G. and Lysonski, S. (1989) A general model of traveller destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research* 27(4), 8–14.
- Woodside, A.G. and Megehee, C.M. (2009) Travel storytelling theory and practice. *Anatolia* 20(1), 86–99.
- Yang, C.L., Khoo-Lattimore, C. and Lai, M.Y. (2014) Eat to live or live to eat? Mapping food and eating perception of Malaysian Chinese. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 23(6), 579–600.
- Yang, S.S. (2012) Eye movements on restaurant menus: a revisitation on gaze motion and consumer scanpaths. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 31(3), 1021–1029. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.12.008.
- Yaniv, D. (2014) Don't just think there, do something: a call for action in psychological science. *The Arts in Psychotherapy* 41(4), 336–342. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.aip.2014.03.005>
- Zins, A.H. (2002) Consumption emotions, experience quality and satisfaction: a structural analysis for complainers versus non-complainers. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 12(2–3), 3–18.

Part III On-site Experience

This page intentionally left blank

6

Attentive Tourists: The Importance of Co-creative Experiences

ANA CLAUDIA CAMPOS,^{1*} JULIO MENDES,¹ PATRICIA VALLE¹ AND NOEL SCOTT²

¹University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal; ²Griffith University, Southport, Australia

6.1 Introduction

A variety of sources report that demand for experiences is increasing, and industries compete by providing consumers with compelling memorable experiences (Eventbrite, 2014; World Travel Market, 2014). Tourists are highly motivated to enjoy participating in physically and mentally challenging activities on-site, and prefer interactive holidays during which they can apply skills or develop knowledge by learning specific crafts or meeting local people (Buhalis, 2001; Richards and Wilson, 2006; Morgan *et al.*, 2009). Tourist experiences involve attentional processes and are affected by attention attractors, distractors and mediators (Ooi, 2010). However, the importance of attention has been a neglected issue in tourism experience research, only recently theoretically (Ooi, 2010) and empirically addressed by researchers (Campos *et al.*, 2016). This chapter focuses on co-creative on-site experiences and how these stimulate attention and contribute to increased memorability. The chapter presents a case study of tourist experience and behaviour in the Dolphin Emotions Experience (DEE) at Zoomarine Park, Algarve, Portugal.

Parents pay attention to their children playing in a park, viewers attend to an ad on TV and subsequently buy a product, readers select a feature article from the magazine and discuss it with friends and a driver talks on the phone while in busy traffic. Such attentional processes are ordinary phenomena pervasive in individuals' lives, guiding and affecting behaviour socially, educationally and professionally (Davenport and Beck, 2001; Robertson and O'Connell, 2014). Thus, understanding human experience requires understanding attention (Cohen, 1993). Varied academic disciplines have devoted research efforts to the study of attention, ranging from cognitive psychology and neuroscience to social psychology (Mundy and Newell, 2007), medicine (Brosch *et al.*, 2013) and learning sciences (Fisher *et al.*, 2014), economics (Brooks,

*Corresponding author e-mail: aclaudiacampos@yahoo.co.uk

1996), management (Davenport and Beck, 2001; Ocasio, 2011), marketing and consumer behaviour (Mormann, 2014; Guerreiro *et al.*, 2015), visitor studies (Bitgood, 2000) and, recently, in tourism (Ooi, 2010; Campos *et al.*, 2016; Ma *et al.*, 2016).

Business today must be based on the idea that ‘while information is essentially infinite, demand for it is limited by the waking hours in a human day’ (Lewis and Bridger, 2001, p. 60). Consumer behaviour always involves the intervention of attention (Teixeira, 2014), which is required for the processing of information underlying the decision and purchase process (Janiszewski *et al.*, 2013; Guerreiro *et al.*, 2015). Accordingly, the economic value of attention is highlighted by scholars who critically discuss how today’s overload of commercial stimuli is negatively affecting the consumers’ purchase decision process by creating noise and confusion (Ratneshwar *et al.*, 1990), thus compromising the distinctiveness of the brands’ positioning and competitiveness (Guerreiro *et al.*, 2015). As a result, managers’ perceptions of the economic value of attention has grown, along with the concern for how to best deal with it in face of competition and competitiveness (Mormann, 2014). To successfully obtain results from getting the attention of consumers, some foundational knowledge of the psychology of attention should be acquired and strategically integrated in the companies’ approach to management and marketing (Davenport and Beck, 2001).

6.2 What Are Attention and Memorability?

Many definitions have been proposed which try to capture the essential character of attention (Corbetta *et al.*, 1990; Cohen, 1993; Dijksterhuis and Aarts, 2010; Braisby and Gellatly, 2012) and all converge in the view that attention involves the processing of information through *selection of stimuli* relevant to a particular situation while ignoring or inhibiting interference from competitor non-relevant stimuli (Passer and Smith, 2004; Dijksterhuis and Aarts, 2010; Stevens and Bavelier, 2012). ‘Selective attention is the generic term for those [attentional] mechanisms which lead our experience to be dominated by one thing rather than another’ (Driver, 2001, p. 53) due to our intrinsic limited capacity to process all available information (Dijksterhuis and Aarts, 2010).

Sometimes described as a mechanism or a set of interrelated mechanisms that work in the processing of information (Nobre and Mesulam, 2014), attention is recognized as encompassing cognitive processes and producing behavioural, physiological and neural manifestations (Cohen, 1993). The inherent complexity of attentional phenomena is acknowledged by researchers who use advanced methods of investigation such as functional neuroimaging techniques (Sarter *et al.*, 2001) to assist in their studies. These techniques are often combined with the application of psychophysical and electrophysiological methods to study the activity and functioning of the human brain (Clark, 1997; Guerreiro *et al.*, 2015). Psychophysiological responses to attentive behaviour, like the gaze, may assist in the explanation of the decision making process (Guerreiro *et al.*, 2015). Computer science is another area of interest that studies attention by integrating complementary techniques of analysis (Chen *et al.*, 2016).

From an objectivist perspective, memorability designates the intrinsic quality of an object, person or event being easily remembered (*Oxford English Dictionary*, 1998). In this sense, things are considered memorable if similarly recollected by individuals

(Khosla *et al.*, 2013). By contrast, from a subjectivist perspective, memorability means both the subjective ability to recall something easily and in detail, and the subjective feeling of long-term memory (Zimmerman and Kelley, 2010). Regardless of this distinction, psychology and neuroscience researchers agree that attention and memory are interdependent cognitive processes (Chun and Turk-Browne, 2007; Mancas, 2009). As information processing and memory capacities are limited, attention importantly influences the way something is encoded, retained and retrieved; thus it is 'uncontroversial that attending to or focusing on a fact or event will enhance the likelihood of later memory' (Chun and Turk-Browne, 2007). Attention is a step towards memory (Mancas, 2009; Mancas and Le Meur, 2013). On the other hand, memory capacity constraints – such as storage capacity – and memory decay affect attentional processes (Cohen, 1993; Robinson, 2001), and memory contents also direct attention to stimuli in the environment (Fougnie, 2008).

Attention is driven by two different types of factors: external and internal. Externally triggered attention is an effect of the nature of a stimulus which is detected in the environment and perceived as salient by being sensorially intense, novel, moving, contrasting or repetitive. In this case, attention is called bottom-up (Ocasio, 2011; Mormann, 2014). On the other hand, when the stimulus in a particular situation is connected to the individual's motives, interests, goals or tasks undergoing, attention is internally driven. If attentional processes and behaviours are intentionally activated by the individual, who directs cognitive efforts and devotes time to the selected stimulus so that an intended goal or outcome may be achieved, attention is said to be top-down (Passer and Smith, 2004; Ocasio, 2011; Mormann, 2014).

It is inevitable that, given the multiple levels of manifestation and facets of attention, different kinds of methods and techniques are used to measure it. Generally, two categories of measurement are identified: qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative measurements rely on self-observation and subjective evaluations of attention, usually through the use of self-reports which can be obtained from interviews or questionnaires (Carver and Scheier, 1981; Cohen, 1993; Bitgood, 2010). The assumption underlying application of these is that there is a relationship between attention and awareness, in that individuals are aware of their own attentive behaviour and can verbalize at least some aspects of it (Dijksterhuis and Aarts, 2010), either in terms of behaviour or mental states and processes experienced. Quantitative measurements, in contrast, are psychophysically based. They depend on observation of behaviour and on the use of techniques devised to measure communicative and non-communicative body performance (Pelli and Farell, 1995) as a way to understand cognitive processes and how they link to physical, physiological or neural responses. The duration of eye fixation or object manipulation are behavioural measures used in the measurement of focused attention (Lansink and Richards, 1997; Bitgood, 2010). Task resigning, distraction or inability to listen are measures applied to assess the ability to pay attention (Barney *et al.*, 2011). Physiological measures rely on reactions of the body to stimuli. Thus, heart rate, eye movements or brainwaves can be used to study attention-related phenomena (Oken *et al.*, 2010; Barney *et al.*, 2011). EEG (electroencephalography) and eye tracking are the most common techniques applied to study these psychophysical manifestations of attention (Mormann, 2014).

Theoretical and technological advancements in neuroscience have also been used to study the neural basis of attention and to complement these psychophysical

methods. In fact, technology allowed the development and application of functional neuroimaging methods that measure brain metabolism, and provide more precise information about the location in the brain of cognitive processes while affected by different sensory stimuli (e.g. related to object motion, colour or shape) (Downing *et al.*, 2001). Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), magnetoencephalography (MEG) and positron emission tomography (PET) are the techniques most used (Corbetta *et al.*, 1990; Clark, 1997; Downing *et al.*, 2001). An important finding from neuroscience research is that attention is not 'located' in one single area of the brain; on the contrary, it is a distributed circuit engaging different brain regions (Clark, 1997).

Tourism research has not yet fully explored the topic of attention in the context of the tourist experience, and instead focuses mainly on other psychological phenomena such as motivation, expectation, satisfaction or memory. This is intriguing, particularly if we consider a marketing approach to the tourist experience that views the tourist as a consumer of products and experiences (Mossberg, 2007). Attention is a topic well known and explored in the consumer behaviour literature (Hoyer and MacInnis, 2009) and this literature provides abundant evidence of awareness of the relevance of this topic to the understanding of the consumer.

However, the same level of awareness has not yet reached tourism researchers. An early attempt at integrating the psychology of attention in tourism and the study and management of the tourist experience was made by Ooi (2010). However Ooi (2010) provides a theoretical analysis of the subject and focuses mainly on the perspective of the tourism supply, neglecting many issues of importance such as the interconnectedness of attention and memory; and the distinction between objective and subjective factors of attention, and the extent to which they influence the tourist experience.

6.2.1 Co-creation

Co-creation is an emerging trend in business that is leading companies to develop and adopt innovative organizational practices meant to integrate the consumer in the process of constructing a rewarding consumption experience (Payne *et al.*, 2008). Customization, ideation, design or direct participation in production supported by intense dialogue and interaction between providers, and consumers are increasingly becoming part of the daily activities of firms guided by the principle that the consumer is always a co-creator of value (Vargo and Lusch, 2008). As such, co-creation defines a new perspective of business which views consumer participation as a source of competitive advantage, and is spreading among companies in a growing diversity of industries and services such as education, health or banking (Promise, 2009; Urbick, 2012; PwC, 2013).

As with other industries, the tourism industry is today permeated by state-of-the-art thinking on co-creation and implementation of related practices in key sub-sectors, covering the pre-, during and post-travel phases of the overall holiday experience (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009). Tourism providers are embracing concepts of collaborative idea generation, open and social innovation, crowd enlisting and user-based scenarios, and putting them into practice with the aim of improving

tourists' travel experiences. Simultaneously, tourism consumers worldwide are also becoming major contributors to other tourists' experiences by connecting with them and providing first-hand evaluations of firms' services, attractions, events and destination experiences. Recommendations, solutions and ideas from tourist communities that serve others' particular needs and wants are also spreading in digital fora.

These trends in the tourism marketplace are gradually impelling researchers to apply co-creation principles in the study of tourism and tourist behaviour, thereby accepting co-creation as a strategy for business and destination competitiveness, together with recognition of the tourists' central role in the creation of their own experience (Kreziak and Frochot, 2011; Prebensen and Foss, 2011; Mkono, 2012; Mathisen, 2013; Minkiewicz *et al.*, 2013; Prebensen *et al.*, 2013; Bertella, 2014; Rihova *et al.*, 2014).

Two perspectives of co-creation are found in recent tourism literature. According to one approach, it describes a process of integrated interactions and activities connecting the tourist, tourism providers and other actors through experiences (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009; Mehmetoglu and Engen, 2011; Mathisen, 2013; Bertella, 2014). As such, co-creation may be found in any of the stages of the overall tourism experience; that is, before travel (before consumption), during a stay at the destination (during consumption) and after the travel (after consumption) and embraces the contribution of all those involved directly and indirectly in the tourism experience. Tourists, on one side, are able to contribute to their own experience by employing their personal resources – namely, knowledge, time and creativity (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009; Volo, 2009; Ciasullo and Carrubbo, 2011; Eraqi, 2011) – and engaging in co-creation with providers during consumption, or after returning home by sharing with online social communities. On the supply side, managers create integrative networks, systems and processes to encourage the participation of tourists in the design, production and consumption of the destination experiences.

A second perspective developed from the recognition of the tourist's new role as a performer instead of as a mere passive sightseer. Discussion of the performance turn in tourism (Perkins and Thorns, 2001), the emergence of new alternative tourism practices (Buhalis, 2001), the tourist's skilled consumption and the expansion of creative tourism (Richards, 2010) underlie the view of co-creation as the tourist's active physical and mental participation and interaction during the particular on-site experience. Such touristic performance is motivated by creativity, feelings of personal competence and achievement, desire to learn through close interaction with local people and the experience environment (Richards, 2010; Prebensen and Foss, 2011; Mathisen, 2013) and exploration and application of personal skills in all stages of the experience (Perkins and Thorns, 2001; Wikström, 2008; Richards, 2010, 2011; Mkono, 2012; Tan *et al.*, 2013; Hung *et al.*, 2014; Tan *et al.*, 2014). Alternative gazes regarding tourism practice (Woodside and Martin, 2015) demand enactment in loco (Mathisen, 2013); physical immersion in nature, adventure, extreme sports and animal-based experiences (Mathisen, 2013; Minkiewicz *et al.*, 2013; Bertella, 2014; Hung *et al.*, 2014; Nordbø and Prebensen, 2015). Growing attendance at science, arts or crafts workshops (Richards and Wilson, 2006; Richards, 2010) suggest tourism is evolving into hands-on co-creative experiences (Richards, 2011).

Co-creative tourism experiences, defined as those involving a high degree of tourist active participation and interaction during consumption (Campos *et al.*, 2015,

2016), are characteristically made of a combination of behaviour-based elements which comprise some form of physical activity, exploration and play, learning and knowledge acquisition, role play and engaged interaction with others (Gyimóthy and Mykletun, 2004; Kreziak and Frochot, 2011; Ihamäki, 2012; Mathisen, 2013; Bertella, 2014; Hung *et al.*, 2014; Nordbø and Prebensen, 2015). These elements are variedly arranged (designed) to stimulate the interest of the tourist and simultaneously to allow the achievement of the particular goals of the experience.

Mathisen (2013) describes two nature-based tourism experiences, a dog-sled race and a Northern Lights hunt in Norway, which combine differently physical activity, mental engagement, learning, play, role play and people interaction. These showcase the role of the natural environment as a stage for highly co-creative experiences in the sense that their successful accomplishment depends on active participation and commitment to perform specific tasks. The dog-sled race is an enactment of 'The Finnmark-sløpet', the longest dog-sled race in Europe. The main goal of this experience is the tourist participation in this representation of the original race by filling one of the roles involved in it – a dog-sled driver, a handler, a journalist or a photographer. Whichever the role, though, active participation and people interaction permeate the experience, tasks have to be performed and goals are expected to be achieved (e.g. to win the race, to assist the sled driver in the race, to report it or to photograph it). Similarly, in the hunt for the Northern Lights, it is proposed that tourists explore nature by engaging in a journey in search of this well-known Arctic phenomenon. This experience is in its essence a hunt, the participants are hunters – explorers of nature – and performance in the natural environment is strongly dependent on the interaction between the individual participant, the expert guide and the group. This interaction is imbued with learning cues able to arouse attentive mental states (concentration) and interactive behaviour (engage in discussion).

Animal-based experiences have also been studied under the theoretical framework of co-creation (Bertella, 2014) and argued as being strategic in the context of today's experience economy. Co-creative experiences link the tourist physically, mentally and emotionally to consumption, and animals too contribute to inspiring the tourist to actively and personally commit to that memorable moment of interaction with nature through animal life. Bertella (2014) argues for the inclusion of animals in the tourism experience network model introduced by Binkhorst and Den Dekker (2009). Although the study aims at producing evidence that supports such claim, insights are drawn concerning co-creative experiences. In this case, too, the tourist plays an active part in the experience, by getting physically involved in the activities of training the puppies and the preparatory tasks before the tour with the Alaskan huskies. Participants are portrayed as deeply focused on the key attractors of the experience, and reports presented by the author provide evidence of a learning situation during the training session and of the high level of interaction between human and animal subjects.

The Dolphin Emotions Experience

Animal-based tourism experiences account for a great part of the global tourism demand and forecasts point to an increase in the next few decades. According to recent data (Moorhouse *et al.*, 2015), visitor interactions with dolphins in captivity

alone exceed 500,000 per year. Tourism experiences involving animals are sought for a varied number of motives, such as experiencing authenticity, feeling close to nature and animal life through physical and sensorial proximity with animals, savouring thrill, emotionally connecting with animals, improving skills and competencies, and achieving a sense of self-confidence and success (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003; Newsome *et al.*, 2005). The dolphin is an animal species particularly appreciated by tourists for its perceived intelligence, conviviality and other human-like characteristics (Bulbeck, 2005).

Zoomarine is a marine wildlife park located in Albufeira in the Algarve region, south Portugal. The park offers visitors a great variety of experiences combined with attractions related to marine animal life, relaxation areas, entertainment and learning spaces and activities. The DEE is a 1.5 h experience designed to stimulate visitors' active participation and interaction with dolphins, trainers, instructors and other participants in a private area of the park. It consists of three stages (Fig. 6.1): the pre-experience, the core experience and the post-experience.

The pre-experience stage comprises reception of participants, preparation for the dolphin interaction and an educational session. The second phase consists of the interaction with the dolphins. After the educational session, participants are asked to go to the pool and join the instructor, the trainer and the dolphins. In the water they have physical contact with the animals, perform behaviours under the instructor's and trainer's supervision and are allowed the freedom to engage in friendly and close relationships with dolphins. The instructor stimulates them to caress, touch, kiss and embrace the animals. In the post-experience stage, participants are allowed a light meal during which they can socialize and relax with relatives, friends and the other participants. Interactions develop freely among participants. Once the interaction with the dolphins is concluded, socializing becomes an opportunity for refreshing recent events, exchanging stories and evaluations.

To study this experience primary and secondary data have been used. Primary data have been obtained through the researcher's observation and interviews. First, one meeting with the human resources director and the marketing manager took place to ask permission to conduct the research at Zoomarine, inform them of the study's objectives and for the researcher to gather general information about the park. Later, a second meeting was held with the experience general manager, instructors and trainers, to become acquainted with the DEE (and in particular its procedures, activities and the experience environment). This conversation was important to clarify the purpose of the experience from the park's perspective and for the researcher

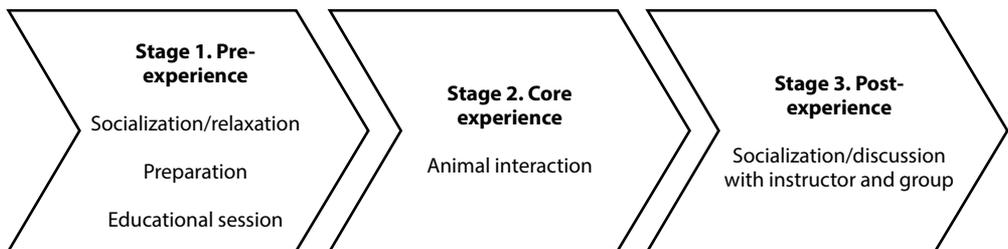


Fig. 6.1. The stages of the Dolphin Emotions Experience.

to gain access to potential interviewees (Jennings, 2005). These informants also facilitated the collection of information about participants' general characteristics, behaviours and expectations, and they advised that participants usually held high expectations of DEE.

Promotional material on Zoomarine and the DEE was consulted to understand the commercial message conveyed to the visitors. Analysis of the secondary data showed that prominent messages reflect key aspects of the experiential consumption, such as active participation and interaction, education and environmental learning and concern, positive emotions and long-term memory. Finally, 22 in-depth interviews were conducted in the DEE with participants more than 18 years old who visited Zoomarine during April 2014. The interviews focused on how these tourists expressed and reflected on their behaviour and perceptions about this experience in relation to attention and memorability. Criteria adopted for inclusion in this group of informants were standard demographics (such as age, gender and country of origin), and a balanced mix of characteristics was taken into consideration. The interviews took place immediately after the conclusion of the experience, and rich information was obtained in a relaxed and friendly context. Recorded and transcribed interviews were examined using content analysis.

6.3 Findings

The informants reported that the DEE involved taking part in a great many activities, most of which required the tourist to actively engage in something. When asked about in what way they felt they contributed to the successful achievement of the experience and how would they describe their engagement in the experience, responses were very discerning and converged on the very same ideas. The DEE would not have been the same without their commitment to behave actively. Performance is a descriptor underlining the reports. There is evidence that these respondents made a clear distinction between watching and doing, being a spectator and being an actor. Active participation was characterized in physical and mental terms. On one hand, swimming is a physical activity, requiring physical skills and good body shape to allow one to perform in the water. On the other hand, being active was also perceived as a matter of being intellectually, cognitively occupied. The strongest association with mental activity in this experience was the educational session. Participants reported that the lively approach followed by the instructors stimulated the interest and involvement in the lecture, which was more of a conversational type. Thinking, conceptualizing, recalling, acquiring new information, asking questions, joking, inciting the sharing of stories and past experiences were some of the mental activities identified by the participants.

As the DEE is a group experience, socializing was felt as a type of being active towards others, be it the travel party, the other participants or the staff, as awareness of other people induced the need to converse and act as part of a group. By interacting with other people, and thus acknowledging their presence, participants were co-creating the social atmosphere of the experience, and this was remarkably loaded with emotional value. As one participant reported:

Besides my daughter, in the group, there was another child, and I interacted a lot with her, motivating her and inciting her to do things; 'come on, you'll make it', I said. Being with others was very important.

(female, aged 35)

Participants considered that the DEE was very attention-demanding on account of two key moments: the educational session and the interaction with the animals. To this group of people, attention was a synonym of focus or concentration. Attention was considered particularly important when informative content was delivered, and heightened both by interest in the themes discussed and concerns regarding upcoming events in the water. One participant said:

This was a very active experience. I was completely concentrated on what others were saying and doing and on behaving properly, as expected from me.

(female, aged 20)

In the water, attention was at its highest due to the high level of sensory stimulation. In fact, sensory descriptions were very detailed and received consensus. One said:

The sensorial exploration was the most important aspect of this experience, particularly the tactile dimension. You don't expect the skin to be like that, so soft, and the sounds also were great. Touching them [i.e. the dolphins] as you touch a pet dog is exciting, you get very emotional.

(male, aged 21)

There was unanimity among participants on the relevance of this co-creative experience to attention. Reasons given were essentially based on the recognition that playing an active part and being surrounded by a group of interactive people demanded higher attentional efforts from the individual. One reported that:

I was very focused and concentrated because the experience was new, I was the first in the group to perform and go into the deep part of the pool with the dolphin and I was to do the behaviours that were previously explained to us. I didn't want to fail, so any detail was important to prevent me from failing.

(female, aged 42)

The DEE qualifies as a highly memorable experience. For this group of participants, it will be 'unforgettable', 'enduring', an 'everlasting memory'. Memorability is viewed as a consequence of a mix of factors, subjective and objective. Some revealed that the novelty of the experience and the sensory dimension were the main reasons why it would be memorable. Others emphasized the enduring interest in the dolphins and the close physical encounter with them, the emotionality involved in this interspecies encounter, the positive and strong emotions elicited during the event or even the reinforcement of the family ties allowed by this special moment. Co-creating the experience through active participation and interaction was pointed out as decisive to memorability and expectations of long-term memory. A participant stated:

Importantly, the whole idea of this experience is the interaction and participation. There is a great difference between watching and doing, there's no comparison. This experience is not a show, a passive show. I was in the water with my son and it was very special to be there with him and play with him and learn his reactions to what was going on.

(male, aged 48)

Additionally, there was evidence of awareness of the importance of attention to memorability outcomes, as in this report:

I'm sure playing an active part will influence how I will recall this experience because you were not watching from the outside, you were *in it* and *feeling* the whole time. That is unforgettable.

(female, aged 36)

6.4 Discussion and Conclusions

One important finding of this research is that co-creative experiences are reported by participants to focus and enhance attention. Accordingly, a first recommendation is the prioritization of the management of tourist attention during the experience. Focus, sustaining and enhancement of attention, are central to the creation of a memorable experience. In more concrete terms, managers are recommended to better identify external, highly salient stimuli potentially characteristic of the organization and the specific experience environment. The saliency of stimuli is, to some extent, under the control of the organization and can be used to induce interest and prospects of pleasure. These stimuli can be sensory (e.g. sounds, colours and smells) or cognitive (a thinking game, a memory notepad) and combined in an exciting activity. In experiences with animals or occurring in natural settings, appealing to the senses is particularly relevant. Theme parks anchored by marine life could better explore the olfactory, auditory and tactile sensations experienced by participants in a marine environment. Opportunities to feel with all the senses (Agapito *et al.*, 2013) should thus be further developed and harmonized with propositions of activity tasks to induce internal stimuli connected to the achievement of goals contextualized in the experience.

The setting and clarification of goals are motivational drivers and their fulfilment contributes to feelings of pleasure. From this, a second suggestion is to augment by diversifying the propositions of role play in a sensory appealing environment able to increase the tourist's personal interests and direct attentional efforts to a set of tasks they wish to successfully accomplish; in this way the tourist's sense of play and accomplishment are emphasized. Theme parks are spaces that cater to different levels of ability to enact. In this case, the instructors are experienced mediators who possess the knowledge of meaningful details of the experience and who are strategically positioned to employ verbal, visual or behavioural cues at key moments to stimulate the tourist's enactive imagery (Moutinho *et al.*, 2011).

Finally, whether a crafts workshop, a traditional dance course, a dog-sled race or a swim with dolphins, co-creative experiences involve some degree of physical participation. The movement of the body and the sensory organs combine in an articulated manner to achieve a goal (carving a musical instrument, riding in a sled or similar, dancing *ceili* – a traditional Irish dance of Gaelic origin), and attentional processes are directed by this combination. However, although tourists taking part in the same experience may be willing to have or endure physical activity and believe they will succeed, they presumably do not have equal skills and capabilities. Degrees in physical capacity differentiate tourists participating in the same experience.

Frustration or sadness may follow from failing the experience goals or the expectations of performance. As vividness is related to the strength of memories (Reisberg *et al.*, 1988), another recommendation considers the integration of physical tasks adequate to different physical skills and capabilities in the planning of experiences, thereby helping tourists avoid unpleasant feelings and negative evaluations.

In summary, to focus and sustain tourists' attention, managers should:

- Elevate attention to a priority in managing tourist experiences.
- Intensify and harmonize bottom-up stimuli with the experiential context.
- Clarify the experience goals and diversify tourist roles accordingly.
- Stress the experience mediators' importance regarding expert contribution to the management of tourists' attention.
- Accommodate different levels of physical participation in co-creative experiences, matching tourists' needs and capabilities.

Tourism researchers and practitioners are increasingly enthusiastic supporters of a co-creation approach to tourism and recommending its application to the study of the tourist experience (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009; Mathisen, 2013; Rihova *et al.*, 2013). This orientation is believed to align with tourists' current needs and expectations towards playing more active roles during consumption in interaction-intensive environments (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009; Rihova *et al.*, 2013). However, there is still much to explore. The findings from this research suggest topics of interest for future research and they can be grouped into different streams, as suggested by Ritchie and Hudson (2009):

STREAM 1: UNDERSTANDING THE ESSENCE OF THE CONSUMER/TOURIST EXPERIENCE Co-creation requires further theoretical development by adopting or emphasizing the definition of co-creation as 'co-creation of experience' rather than 'co-creation of value' (Minkiewicz *et al.*, 2013; Campos *et al.*, 2015, 2016) as the former better suits the tourist perspective on the tourism experience. This line of inquiry is likely to contribute to the understanding of the experiential aspects of consumption in the current context of consumer co-creative behaviour.

STREAM 2: UNDERSTANDING THE TOURIST AND THEIR EXPERIENCE SEEKING, DECISION MAKING AND BEHAVIOUR This line of approach allows the exploration of tourist willingness to consume co-creative experiences and behave accordingly as a function of the characterization and types of involvement of the group participating in the experience. Our study has shown that perception of social interaction and the presence of others influences individual behaviour, and how – and to what extent – the tourist responds to the stimulus of others populating the experiencescape.

STREAM 3: RESEARCH RELATED TO THE METHODOLOGIES FOR UNDERSTANDING THE CONSUMER/TOURIST EXPERIENCE The study of attention in tourism and most particularly in the context of the tourist experience has been generally neglected, notwithstanding the claim that general concepts from psychology are needed to study the tourist experience (Larsen, 2007). The theme of attention receives wide recognition in the fields of psychology, neuroscience and consumer behaviour. This study draws from recent research (Ooi, 2010; Campos

et al., 2016) the conclusion that it is important to address this theme, making use of a wide choice of methods to implement research concerning attentional processes and behaviour. Some experiential contexts would be more suited than others to accommodate experimental, psychophysical approaches. From a methodological point of view, tourism experiences could be better compared in terms of demand for attention, and subjective (self-report) and objective measures could be used for this purpose.

STREAM 4: SEEKING TO EXPLORE AND UNDERSTAND THE NATURE OF SPECIFIC TOURISM EXPERIENCES Tourism experiences can be differently co-creative depending on the context. Following this stream of research would support the claim that co-creation means different things in distinct touristic settings. Is a co-creative animal-based experience similar to a co-creative cultural experience? In this context, what would be the theoretical contribution of the co-creation construct for understanding the tourist experience?

STREAM 5: MANAGING AND DELIVERING THE BASIC/SATISFACTORY/QUALITY/EXTRAORDINARY/MEMORABLE EXPERIENCE This stream of research provides support for further investigations into the memorability of the tourist experience and how it relates to co-creative experiences and attention. It is believed that theoretical and methodological advancements in this area would bring benefits to a managerial perspective on the tourist experience. More specifically, a distinction between the concept of a memorable experience and memorability could be more clearly made. Some recent studies (Kim, 2010; Tung and Ritchie, 2011; Kim *et al.*, 2012) have been published that tried to uncover the essence of the memorable tourism experience, and multidimensionality is a common factor among them. However, other perspectives have recently emerged in tourism literature that preferred to address the construct of memorability (Hung *et al.*, 2014; Campos *et al.*, 2016). Rather than focus on an essentialist view of the 'memorable experience', discussion of memorability would emphasize the view that tourist experiences are about the individual's memory processes and performances which are able to be subjectively and objectively assessed. Insights from such endeavours would prove most beneficial to the design and management of tourism experiences. Furthermore, as memory processes are closely related to attentional phenomena, developments in this area would bring to light the empirically acknowledged interconnectedness.

STREAM 6: THE ONGOING EVOLUTION OF THE TRAVEL/TOURISM EXPERIENCE The theoretical framework of co-creation stemmed from management and marketing literature and its analytical potential to the comprehension of tourism experience has been seized upon by tourism researchers. However, there is still much to inquire in this area, and as change, information and proactivity continue to characterize consumer behaviour, knowledge of tourist co-creativity should be built on a continuous basis. This should take place with a focus on every stage of the overall tourism experience, as pre-travel stage co-creation is likely to influence behaviour during the on-site co-creative consumption.

References

- Agapito, D., Mendes, J. and Valle, P. (2013) Exploring the conceptualization of the sensory dimension of tourist experiences. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management* 2(2), 62–73. DOI: 10.1016/j.jdmm.2013.03.001
- Barney, S.J., Allen, D.N., Thaler, N.S., Park, B.S., Strauss, G.P. and Mayfield, J. (2011) Neuropsychological and behavioral measures of attention assess different constructs in children with traumatic brain injury. *The Clinical Neuropsychologist* 25(7), 1145–1157.
- Bertella, G. (2014) The co-creation of animal-based tourism experience. *Tourism Recreation Research* 39(1), 115–125.
- Binkhorst, E. and Den Dekker, T. (2009) Agenda for co-creation tourism experience research. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management* 18(2), 311–327. DOI: 10.1080/19368620802594193
- Bitgood, S. (2000) The role of attention in designing effective interpretive labels. *Journal of Interpretation Research* 5(2), 31–45.
- Bitgood, S. (2010) An attention-value model of museum visitors. Center for the Advancement of Informal Science Education. Available at: <https://airandspace.si.edu/rfp/exhibitions/files/j1-exhibition-guidelines/3/An%20Attention-Value%20Model%20of%20Museum%20Visitors.pdf>, (accessed 16 March 2017).
- Braisby, N.R. and Gellatly, A.R.H. (eds) (2012) *Cognitive Psychology*. Oxford University Press, London.
- Brooks, H. (1996) The problem of attention management in innovation for sustainability. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change* 53(1), 21–26. DOI: 10.1016/0040-1625(96)00054-6
- Brosch, T., Scherer, K.R., Grandjean, D. and Sander, D. (2013) The impact of emotion on perception, attention, memory, and decision-making. *Swiss Medical Weekly* 143, w13786. DOI: 10.4414/sm.2013.13786
- Buhalis, D. (2001) The tourism phenomenon: the new tourist and consumer. In: Wahab, C. and Cooper, S. (eds) *Tourism in the Age of Globalisation*. Routledge, London, pp. 69–96.
- Bulbeck, C. (2005) *Facing the Wild: Ecotourism, Conservation and Animal Encounters*. Earthscan, London.
- Campos, A.C., Mendes, J., Valle, P.O. and Scott, N. (2015) Co-creation of tourist experiences: a literature review. *Current Issues in Tourism*. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2015.1081158
- Campos, A.C., Mendes, J., Valle, P.O. and Scott, N. (2016) Co-creation experiences: attention and memorability. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2015.1118424
- Carver, C.S. and Scheier, M.F. (1981) *Attention and self-regulation: a control-theory approach to human behavior*. Springer-Verlag, New York.
- Ciasullo, M.V. and Carrubbo, L. (2011) Tourist systems co-creation exchanges: service research and system thinking insights for destination competitiveness. In: Gummesson, F.P.E. and Mele, C. (eds) *System Theory and Service Science: Integrating Three Perspectives in a New Service Agenda*. The Naples Forum on Science, Giannini, Naples, Italy. Available at: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=1903956>, pp. 1–29 (accessed 22 February 2016).
- Chen, C., Zhang, X., Wang, Y. and Fang, F. (2016) A novel method to study bottom-up visual saliency and its neural mechanism. arXiv:1604.08426v1 [cs.CV]. Available at: <https://arxiv.org/abs/1604.08426> (accessed 12 October 2016).
- Chun, M.M. and Turk-Browne, N.B. (2007) Interactions between attention and memory. *Current Opinion in Neurobiology* 17, 177–184.
- Clark, J.J. (1997) Attention. Available at: <http://chaos.seisat.su/files/text/Cognition%20Textbook/chapter3.pdf> (accessed 3 March 2017).
- Cohen, R.A. (1993) *The Neuropsychology of Attention*. Plenum Press, New York.
- Corbetta, M., Meizin, F.M., Dohmeyer, S., Shulman, G. L. and Petersen, S.E. (1990) Selective attention modulates neural processing of shape, color and velocity in humans. *Science* 248, 1556–1559.

- Davenport, T.H. and Beck, J.C. (2001) Getting the attention you need. *Harvard Business Review* (September–October), 118–126.
- Dijksterhuis, A. and Aarts, H. (2010) Goals, attention, and (un)consciousness. *Annual Review of Psychology* 61, 467–490. DOI: 10.1146/annurev.psych.093008.100445
- Downing, P., Liu, J. and Kanwisher, N. (2001) Testing cognitive models of visual attention with fMRI and MEG. *Neuropsychologia* 39, 1329–1342.
- Driver, J. (2001) A selective review of selective attention research from the past century. *British Journal of Psychology* 92, 53–78. DOI: 10.1348/000712601162103
- Duchowski, A. (2007) *Eye Tracking Methodology: Theory and Practice*. Volume 373. Springer-Verlag, London, UK.
- Eraqi, M.I. (2011) Co-creation and the new marketing mix as an innovative approach for enhancing tourism industry competitiveness in Egypt. *International Journal of Services and Operations Management* 8(1), 76–91.
- Eventbrite (2014) Millennials: fueling the experience economy. Available at: <https://eventbrite.com/blog/academy/millennials-fueling-experience-economy/> (accessed 16 March 2017).
- Fisher, A.V., Godwin, K.E. and Seltman, H. (2014) Visual environment, attention allocation, and learning in young children: when too much of a good thing may be bad. *Psychological Science* 25(7), 1362–1370.
- Fougnie, D. (2008) The relationship between attention and working memory. In: Johansen, N.B. (ed.) *New Research on Short-term Memory*. Nova Science Publishers, Inc., New York, pp. 1–45.
- Guerreiro, J., Rita, P. and Trigueiros, D. (2015) Attention, emotions and cause-related marketing effectiveness. *European Journal of Marketing* 49(11–12), 1728–1750.
- Gyimóthy, S. and Mykletun, R.J. (2004) Play in adventure tourism: the case of arctic trekking. *Annals of Tourism Research* 31(4), 855–878.
- Hoyer, W. and MacInnis, D. (2009) *Consumer Behavior* (5th edn). South Western, Mason, Ohio.
- Hung, W.-L., Lee, Y.-J. and Huang, P.-H. (2014) Creative experiences, memorability and revisit intention in creative tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2013.877422
- Janiszewski, C., Kuo, A. and Tavassoli, N.T. (2013) The influence of selective attention and inattention to products on subsequent choice. *Journal of Consumer Research* 39, 1258–1274. DOI: 10.1086/668234
- Jennings, G.R. (2005) Interviewing: A focus on qualitative techniques. In: Ritchie, B.W., Burns, P. and Palmer, C. (eds) *Tourism Research Methods, Integrating Theory with Practice*. CABI Publishing, Wallingford, UK, pp. 99–118.
- Khosla, A., Bainbridge, W.A., Torralba, A. and Oliva, A. (2013) Modifying the memorability of face photographs. IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV) Sydney, 2–8 December. Computer Publishing Solutions, Los Altos, California, pp. 3200–3207. DOI: 10.1109/ICCV.2013.397
- Kim, J.-H. (2010) Determining the factors affecting the memorable nature of travel experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 27(8), 780–796.
- Kim, J.-H., Ritchie, J.R. and McCormick, B. (2012) Development of a scale to measure memorable tourist experiences. *Journal of Travel Research* 51(1), 12–25.
- Kreziak, D. and Frochot, I. (2011) Co-construction de l'expérience touristique. Les stratégies des touristes en stations de sport d'hiver [Co-constructing tourism experience: the strategies developed by tourists in winter sports' resorts]. *Décisions Marketing* 64, 23–34.
- Lansink, J.M. and Richards, J.E. (1997) Heart rate and behavioral measures of attention in 6-, 9-, & 12-month-old infants during object exploration. *Child Development* 68, 610–620.
- Larsen, S. (2007) Aspects of psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(1), 7–18.
- Lewis, D. and Bridger, D. (2001) *The Soul of the New Consumer*. Nicholas Brealey Publishing, London.
- Ma, J., Campos, A.C., Li, S., Gardiner, S. and Scott, N. (2016) Attention, emotion and hedonic service experiences: managing and delivering services in the Asian century. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes* 8(1), 53–60.

- Mancas, M. (2009) Relative influence of bottom-up and top-down attention: attention in cognitive systems: 5th International Workshop on Attention in Cognitive Systems, WAPCV 2008, Fira, Santorini, Greece, 12 May 2008. Volume 5395/2009. Revised selected papers. Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg, Germany, pp. 212–226.
- Mancas, M. and Le Meur, O. (2013) Memorability of natural scenes: the role of attention. 20th IEEE International Conference on Image Processing (ICIP), Melbourne, Australia. DOI: 10.1109/ICIP.2013.6738041
- Mathisen, L. (2013) Staging natural environments: a performance perspective. *Advances in Hospitality and Leisure* 9, 163–183. DOI: 10.1108/S1745-3542(2013)0000009012
- Mehmetoglu, M. and Engen, M. (2011) Pine and Gilmore's concept of experience economy and its dimensions: an empirical examination in tourism. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism* 12(4), 237–255. DOI: 10.1080/1528008X.2011.541847
- Minkiewicz, J., Evans, J. and Bridson, K. (2013) How do consumers co-create their experiences? An exploration in the heritage sector. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 1–30. DOI: 10.1080/0267257X.2013.800899
- Mkono, M. (2012) Using net-based ethnography (netnography) to understand the staging and marketing of 'authentic African' dining experiences to tourists at Victoria Falls. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research* 37(2), 184–198. DOI: 10.1177/1096348011425502
- Moorhouse, T.P., Dahlsjö, C.A.L., Baker, S.E., D'Cruze, N.C. and Macdonald, D.W. (2015) The customer isn't always right: conservation and animal welfare implications of the increasing demand for wildlife tourism. *PLoS ONE* 10(10), e0138939. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0138939
- Morgan, M., Elbe, J. and Curiel, J.E. (2009) Has the experience economy arrived? The views of destination managers in three visitor-dependent areas. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 11, 201–216.
- Mormann, M. (2014) Consumer attention and behavior: insights from eye-tracking and directions for future research. *Advances in Consumer Research* 42, 146–150.
- Mossberg, L. (2007) A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(1), 59–74. DOI: 10.1080/15022250701231915
- Moutinho, L., Ballantyne, R. and Rate, S. (2011) Consumer behaviour in tourism. In: Moutinho, L. (ed.) *Strategic Management in Tourism*. CABI, Wallingford, UK, pp. 83–126.
- Mundy, P. and Newell, L. (2007) Attention, joint attention, and social cognition. *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 16(5), 269–274. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-8721.2007.00518.x
- Newsome, D., Dowling, R. and Moore, S. (2005) *Wildlife Tourism*. Channel View Publications, Clevedon, UK.
- Nobre, A.C. and Mesulam, M.-M. (2014) Large-scale networks for attentional biases. In: Nobre, A.C. and Kastner, S. (eds) *The Oxford Handbook of Attention*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK, pp. 105–151.
- Nordbø, I. and Prebensen, N.K. (2015) Hiking as mental and physical experience. *Advances in Hospitality and Leisure* 11, 169–186. DOI: 10.1108/S1745-354220150000011010
- Ocasio, W. (2011) Attention to attention. *Organization Science* 22(5), 1286–1296.
- Oken, B.S., Salinsky, M.C. and Elsas, S.M. (2010) Vigilance, alertness, or sustained attention: physiological basis and measurement. *Clinical Neurophysiology* 117(9), 1885–1901.
- Ooi, C. (2010) A theory of tourism experiences: the management of attention. In O'Dell, P. and Billing, T. (eds) *Experiencescapes: Tourism, Culture, and Economy*. Copenhagen Business School Press, Koge, Copenhagen, pp. 51–68.
- Oxford English Dictionary* (1998) 2nd edn. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- Passer, M.W. and Smith, R.E. (2004) *Psychology – The Science of Mind and Behavior*. McGraw-Hill, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Payne, A., Storbacka, K. and Frow, P. (2008) Managing the co-creation of value. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 36(1), 83–96.
- Pelli, D.G. and Farell, B. (1995) Psychophysical methods. In: Bass, M., Van Stryland, E.W., Williams, D.R. and Wolfe, W.L. (eds) *Handbook of Optics* (2nd edn). McGraw-Hill, New York, pp. 29.1–29.13.

- Perkins, H.C. and Thorns, D.C. (2001) Gazing or performing. *International Sociology* 16(2), 185–204. DOI: 10.1177/0268580901016002004
- Prebensen, N.K. and Foss, L. (2011) Coping and co-creating in tourist experiences. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 13, 54–67. DOI: 10.1002/jtr.799
- Prebensen, N.K., Vittersø, J. and Dahl, T.I. (2013) Value co-creation significance of tourist resources. *Annals of Tourism Research* 42, 240–261. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2013.01.012
- Promise (2009) Co-creation: new pathways to value. an overview. Available at: http://www.portugalglobal.pt/PT/RoadShow/Documents/2016/GuimaraesCo_creationNewPathways_to_value_An_overview.pdf (accessed 3 March 2017).
- PwC (PricewaterhouseCoopers) (2013) Driving co-creation in the auto industry. Looking Ahead. Available at: <https://www.pwc.com.ar/es/publicaciones-por-industria/assets/pwc-looking-ahead-driving-co-creation-in-the-auto-industry-pdf.pdf> (accessed 3 March 2017).
- Ratneshwar, S., Mick, D.G. and Reitingger, G. (1990) Selective attention in consumer information processing: the role of chronically accessible attributes. *Advances in Consumer Research* 17, 547–553.
- Reisberg, D., Heuer, F., McLean, J. and O'Shaughnessy, M. (1988) The quantity, not the quality, of affect predicts memory vividness. *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society* 26(2), 100–103.
- Richards, G. (2010) Tourism development trajectories: from culture to creativity? *Tourism & Management Studies* 6, 9–15.
- Richards, G. (2011) Creativity and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 38(4), 1225–1253. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2011.07.008
- Richards, G. and Wilson, J. (2006) Developing creativity in tourist experiences: a solution to the serial reproduction of culture? *Tourism Management* 27(6), 1209–1223. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2005.06.002
- Rihova, I., Buhalis, D., Moital, M. and Gouthro, M.B. (2013) Social layers of customer-to-customer value co-creation. *Journal of Service Management* 24(5), 553–566. DOI: 10.1108/JOSM-04-2013-0092
- Rihova, I., Buhalis, D., Moital, M. and Gouthro, M.B. (2014) Conceptualising customer-to-customer value co-creation in tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*. DOI: 10.1002/jtr.1993
- Ritchie, J.R.B. and Hudson, S. (2009) Understanding and meeting the challenges of consumer/tourist experience research. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 11(2), 111–126.
- Robertson, I.H. and O'Connell, R.G. (2014) Rehabilitation of attention functions. In: Nobre, A.C. and Kastner, S. (eds) *The Oxford Handbook of Attention*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK, pp. 1081–1092.
- Robinson, P. (2001) Attention and memory during SLA. In: Doughty, C.J. and Long, M.H. (eds) *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd, Oxford, UK, pp. 631–678. DOI: 10.1002/9780470756492.ch19
- Sarter, M., Givens, B. and Bruno, J.P. (2001) The cognitive neuroscience of sustained attention: where top-down meets bottom-up. *Brain Research Reviews* 35(2), 146–160. DOI: 10.1016/S0165-0173(01)00044-3
- Stevens, C. and Bavelier D. (2012) The role of selective attention on academic foundations: a cognitive neuroscience perspective. *Developmental Cognitive Neuroscience* 2, 30–48.
- Swarbrooke, J., Beard, C., Leckie, S. and Pomfret, G. (2003) *Adventure Tourism – The New Frontier*. Butterworth-Heinemann Limited, Oxford, UK.
- Tan, S.-K., Kung, S.-F. and Luh, D.-B. (2013) A model of 'creative experience' in creative tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 41, 153–174. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2012.12.002
- Tan, S.-K., Luh, D.-B. and Kung, S.-F. (2014) A taxonomy of creative tourists in creative tourism. *Tourism Management* 42, 248–259. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2013.11.008
- Teixeira, T.S. (2014) The rising cost of consumer attention: why you should care, and what you can do about it. Harvard Business School, Working Paper 14-055, January. Available at: http://www.hbs.edu/faculty/Publication%20Files/14-055_2ef21e7e-7529-4864-b0f0-c64e4169e17f.pdf (accessed 4 February 2016).

- Tung, V.W.S. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (2011) Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Research* 38, pp. 1367–1386.
- Urbick, B. (2012) Innovation through co-creation: consumers can be creative. Available at: <http://www.innovationmanagement.se/2012/03/26/innovation-through-co-creation-consumers-can-be-creative/> (accessed 3 March 2017).
- Vargo, S.L. and Lusch, R.F. (2008) Service-dominant logic: continuing the evolution. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 36, 1–10. DOI: 10.1007/s11747-007-0069-6
- Volo, S. (2009) Conceptualizing experience: a tourist based approach. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 18(2–3), 111–126. DOI: 10.1080/19368620802590134
- Wikström, S.R. (2008) A consumer perspective on experience creation. *Journal of Customer Behaviour* 7(1), 31–50.
- Woodside, A.G. and Martin, D. (2015) Introduction: the tourist gaze 4.0: uncovering non-conscious meanings and motivations in the stories tourists tell of trip and destination experiences. *International Journal of Tourism Anthropology* 4(1), 1. DOI: 10.1504/IJTA.2015.067651
- World Travel Market (2014) Global trends report. Available at: http://www.wtmlondon.com/RXUK/RXUK_WTMLondon/2015/documents/WTM-Global-Trends-2014.pdf (accessed 10 November 2015).
- Zimmerman, C.A. and Kelley, C.M. (2010) 'I'll remember this!' Effects of emotionality on memory predictions versus memory performance. *Journal of Memory and Language* 62, 240–253.

7

The Elicitation of Emotions

JIANYU MA*

Shanghai Normal University, Shanghai, China

7.1 Introduction

The tourism literature recognizes a number of situations and processes where emotions have an important role. Destination image, for example, has been considered a multidimensional concept influenced by cognitive and affective evaluations of a place (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Lin *et al.*, 2007; Bosque and San Martín, 2008). Fantasy and emotions, it has been suggested, play an important role in shaping holiday experiences and destination choices, in contrast to existing decision making models that propose a (bounded) rational, problem solving vacationer (Decrop and Snelders, 2004, 2005). Tourists are considered to experience a variety of positive emotions as they plan vacations, from facilitative feelings that guide the planning process to pleasurable feelings of fantasy, supporting emotional consumer decision making for experiential products and services (Kwortnik and Ross, 2007). Consequently, emotional and experiential needs are relevant in pleasure-seeking contexts and choice behaviour of tourists (Goossens, 2000). Despite this, the concepts of affect, emotions and moods are used inconsistently in the literature (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999). This chapter begins by providing a definition of these terms and distinguishing emotions from moods.

The concepts of 'emotion', 'affect' and 'mood' are frequently used interchangeably in the literature. In this chapter, emotions are valenced affective reactions to a perception of a situation (Ortony *et al.*, 1988; Richins, 1997). These may be distinguished from consumption emotions which can refer to '(i) non-valenced cognitions such as interest and surprise; (ii) bodily states such as sleep or drowsiness; and (iii) subjective evaluations of people, such as self-confidence or feelings of abandonment' (Richins, 1997, p. 127). Emotions are elicited in a context-specific manner (Frijda *et al.*, 1989), and are 'a mental state with a specific referent' (Johnson and Stewart, 2005, p. 5). Larsen and Fredrickson (1999) note that the character, quality and intensity of the emotions elicited by an individual's experience of a certain event/situation may vary.

*Corresponding author e-mail: jianyu.ma@uqconnect.edu.au

Some emotion-related theories propose that emotion consists of an organized set (or types) of components (Silvia, 2005), such as cognitive, motivational, expressive and subjective-feeling components (Scherer *et al.*, 2001). Emotions are usually associated with a physiological response such as increased heart rate, change in muscle tension and increased respiration, as well as an expressive reaction (distinctive facial expression, body posture or vocalization) and some kind of subjective experience (internal thoughts and feelings) (Nairne, 2003). In comparison, the term 'consumption emotion' indicates more intense, objective-specific feeling states that respond to a particular consumption activity (Holbrook and Gardner, 2000). In services marketing, emotions are defined as a complex set of interactions among subjective and objective factors giving rise to affective experiences (Dubé and Menon, 2000). These marketing definitions emphasize emotions as reactions to an external context.

Affect is commonly understood as an umbrella term for a set of more specific mental processes including emotions, moods and attitudes (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999, p. 184). Mood refers to a constantly evolving, general affective state felt by individuals, and the mildest form of emotion (Holbrook and Gardner, 2000). The distinction between an emotion and a mood is that a mood state may be dissociated from any particular object or event, and is longer and less intense than an emotion (Johnson and Stewart, 2005). Recently, researchers have suggested that mood is significantly related to (dis)satisfaction. If a person is in an irritable mood, he or she may react angrily to almost anything said. When in a happy mood, a person can easily laugh off an insult (Coon, 2004). Mattila and Wirtz (2000) found that mood was a significant predictor of satisfaction, service quality and repurchase intention. Mood has also been found to affect satisfaction when listening to music (Holbrook and Gardner, 2000).

Despite this previous research indicating that consumers' mood states bias corresponding service evaluations (Sirakaya *et al.*, 2004), mood is not a concept used in the framework of cognitive appraisal theory (CAT) on emotions. Within CAT, emotions are elicited by a specific consumption experience, as opposed to pre-consumption mood states that a consumer brings into a situation. Furthermore, according to Mattila and Wirtz (2000), whether mood is applied heuristically by a consumer to evaluate a consumption experience depends on the duration of the encounter. Customers might place more reliance on mood when the service encounter preceding the evaluation task is brief rather than extended like tourism attraction visitations (Milman, 2001). Further, evaluation tasks characterized by low levels of involvement are more subject to mood bias due to the heuristic information process, than by high levels of involvement. For instance, hotel check-ins or check-outs tend to have a low level of customer involvement, and therefore satisfaction will be affected by mood.

7.2 Cognitive Appraisal Theory

Many scholars propose that CAT is superior to the categories and dimension approaches, especially in understanding what constitutes a particular consumer consumption emotion. Some marketing researchers have applied CAT in service settings (e.g. Oliver, 1997; Bagozzi *et al.*, 1998; Johnson and Stewart, 2005; Ritchie *et al.*,

2011). However, only one work in the tourism and leisure fields based on CAT has been identified that has examined the antecedents of emotional responses to tourism experiences (Hosany, 2012).

7.2.1 Overview

In its simplest form, the CAT of emotion is 'the claim that emotions are elicited by evaluations (appraisals) of events and situations' (Scherer *et al.*, 2001, p. 3). Appraisal is a 'cognitive process, the way [an] individual defines and evaluates relationships with the environment' (Lazarus, 1991b, p. 3). The quality and intensity of an emotional response depends on the appraised relationship between the individual and the environment. Appraisals are 'the results of information-processing tasks that indicate the implications of the situation for the interests and goals of the individual and therefore determine the form that emotional reaction takes in a given situation' (Johnson and Stewart, 2005, p. 5). Thus, *appraisals start the emotion elicitation process, initiating the physiological, expressive, behavioural, and other changes that comprise the resultant emotional state* (Roseman, 1984; Lazarus, 1991b; Scherer *et al.*, 2001). An individual's appraisal of a situation depends on both internal (personality, beliefs, goals), and external (e.g. product performance, responses to others) conditions (Lazarus, 1991b). In all, an appraisal process implies a cognitive mechanism – a subjective construal of personally relevant information that generates variability in emotional reactions (Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1985; Ortony *et al.*, 1988; Frijda *et al.*, 1989; Roseman *et al.*, 1990; Lazarus, 1991b; Scherer *et al.*, 2001).

According to appraisal theories, people appraise or evaluate characteristics of events in terms of respective personal goals or motives using structured appraisal dimensions (Scherer *et al.*, 2001). Appraisal dimensions are inherent aspects of emotions themselves, and appraisal theories specify various dimensions to distinguish elicitation of particular emotions and explain their inter-subject variance (Scherer, 1997).

CAT assumes that emotions are differentiated by appraisal patterns; that heterogeneity in appraisal patterns accounts for individual and temporal differences in evoked emotional responses; and that all situations to which the same appraisal pattern is assigned will elicit the same emotion (Roseman, 1991). Emotions are presumed to reflect current appraisal patterns; this explains how remembering an event can evoke a different emotion from that of the original experience (Scherer *et al.*, 2001).

Appraisal theories are most similar to the dimensions approach to emotions, in that certain dimensions or appraisals characterize the information abstracted from the detailed features of the situation (Omdahl, 1995). However, CAT further uses cognitive processes to understand how people appraise the event or situation, form a certain emotional response to a situation, affect behaviour and take action to cope with the emotional outcome. Appraisal theories recognize more dimensions than found in the pleasure, arousal and dominance (PAD) framework, and allow for differences among emotions of similar valence and arousal level. Appraisal theories, then, are more sophisticated than the categories and dimensions approach of emotion in terms of both theoretical scope and purpose.

7.2.2 Appraisal processes

The appraisal process 'consists of determining the overall significance of the stimulus event for the organism (characterized by its position on several appraisal dimensions concerning the consequences of the event in relation to needs, motives, and values of the organism)' (Scherer *et al.*, 2001, p. 369). When there is sufficient evidence that the perceived significance of the appraised event requires adaptive action or internal adjustment, the appraisal process produces emotions. As mentioned above, differences in emotions – including physiological responses, subjective feelings and action tendencies – are determined by the specific patterns or profiles of the appraisal results on the relevant dimensions. The process of appraisal is interpreted as similar to the cognitive information-processing mechanism of behavioural marketing (Johnson and Stewart, 2005). Johnson and Stewart indicated that an 'individual's knowledge (which includes expectations and beliefs about the situation and relevant goals in the situation) and the perception of personally relevant information are antecedent to the process of appraising' (p. 12). People generate various patterns or profiles on appraisal dimensions, and therefore different emotions may be elicited by the same situation. The multi-stage appraising process is illustrated in three steps: (i) the antecedents of the appraisal process: people's knowledge about the situation and perception of the personal relevance information that influenced the knowledge; (ii) the process of appraising personally relevant information within the organism of appraisal dimensions; and (iii) the consequences of the appraisals and emotions. These consequences include the elicited discrete emotion, people's emotional coping and action coping adaptation to the situation. A detailed illustration is shown in Fig. 7.1.

As shown in Fig. 7.1, the appraisal process begins with the pre-existing knowledge and experience of the individual and the perception of personally relevant information. The situation is then perceived and appraised using the dimensions of appraisal relevant to the particular situation. Goal congruence (or motive consistency) and agency dimensions influence discrete emotions through their effects on the valence of the emotional reaction and the focus of the emotional reaction, respectively (Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1985; Ortony *et al.*, 1988; Frijda *et al.*, 1989; Roseman *et al.*, 1990; Lazarus, 1991b; Scherer *et al.*, 2001), while the emotional intensity is determined by the degree of goal congruence of the situation and by the importance of the goal to the individual (Ellsworth and Smith, 1988a; Lazarus and Smith, 1988; Frijda *et al.*, 1989; Scherer, 1993; Roseman and Evdokas, 2004). The valence, intensity and focus of the emotion contribute to the discrete emotional reaction, while the appraisals of certainty contribute directly to the differentiation of discrete emotions. Finally, the discrete emotional reaction is distilled through the process and an emotion is experienced (e.g. children may feel proud of themselves after taking a theme park ride and conquering their fear). Behaviours occur in response to the emotion and provide feedback to individuals about the goal and situation (e.g. children may insist on trying the ride again to convince themselves and their parents of another success in pursuing the goal).

The significance of appraisal theory is that the subjective assessment of personally relevant information (i.e. appraisals) determines emotions through appraisal dimensions, rather than any 'objective' truth regarding the situation (Lazarus, 1995). Variability in emotional reactions occurring among individuals can be explained by the variability of subjective constructs towards appraisal dimensions in response to

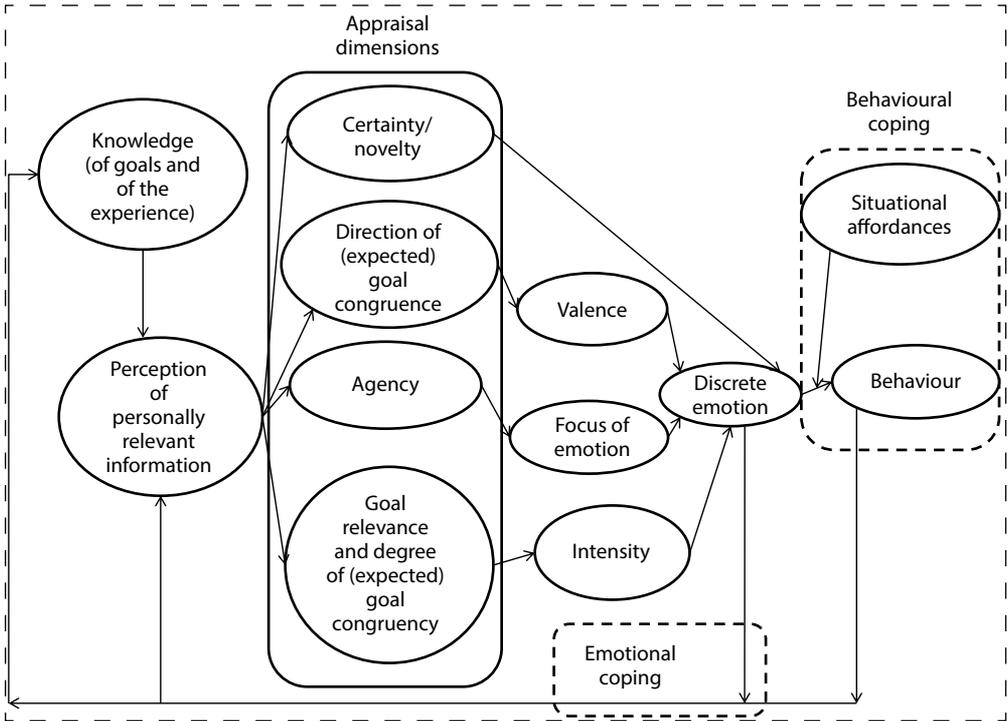


Fig. 7.1. Appraisal model of emotions (after Johnson and Stewart, 2005).

the same objective situation. Having briefly reviewed the nature, assumption and process of appraisal theories, the focus of this discussion now shifts to examining the appraisal dimensions proposed that have been accepted by appraisal theorists.

7.2.3 Appraisal dimensions

Various appraisal theories identify different numbers and types of appraisal dimensions. For example, five appraisal dimensions are discussed by Roseman (1991), six dimensions are advocated by Smith and Ellsworth (1985) and Frijda (1987), while as many as nine are noted by Frijda *et al.* (1989) and Scherer (1988). Some scholars believe the more appraisal dimensions identified, the more emotions to be specified and differentiated (Frijda *et al.*, 1989), while others reduce the number of appraisal dimensions to the minimum necessary to differentiate emotions. This latter group tends to test the comparative importance and contribution of each dimension to the overall elicitation of emotions, and then to simplify the set of dimensions in empirical experiments (Scherer, 1997). Between these extremes 'some appraisal dimensions are highly convergent' (Scherer, 1988, p. 91), and Frijda (1987, p. 116) considers that 'several dimensions – valence or pleasantness-unpleasantness, certainty, controllability and agency or responsibility – are found in most or all analyses.'

Different terms are used to describe similar appraisal dimensions included in the various appraisal theories. For the sake of simplification and clarification, dimensions

with similar meanings are grouped together here, reflecting significant predictors of the variance of positive emotions. After reviewing the dominant theories within the appraisal theories, as well as their implications in marketing literature, five appraisal dimensions with high congruence are proposed as differentiating the experience of discrete emotions that may be relevant in a consumption context. These appraisal dimensions are: (i) goal congruence; (ii) agency; (iii) certainty; (iv) novelty; and (v) dimensions affecting emotional intensity as goal relevance and realization. All these dimensions of the appraisal process have been identified and empirically supported in prior research and cross-cultural studies (Ellsworth and Smith, 1988a; Scherer, 1997). Details of these dimensions are shown in Table 7.1 and each is discussed further below.

Goal congruence

Goal congruence, sometimes referred to as motive consistency (Roseman *et al.*, 1990), outcome desirability (pleased/displeased) (Ortony *et al.*, 1988), intrinsic pleasantness (Scherer, 1993) or pleasantness (Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Frijda, 1987), determines the valence of emotional responses and differentiates the positive and negative emotions. Goals are 'abstract benefits sought by the consumer that are available through the (abstract or concrete) features of a product class that offer fulfilment of these goals' (Huffman and Houston, 1993, p. 194). Goals can also be conceptualized as stored knowledge structures that can vary in their activation level at a given moment (Kruglanski, 1996). When goals are being pursued, they remain cognitively activated (Orehek *et al.*, 2011). This is exemplified by a goal sought by a diner in an upscale restaurant to have an enjoyable meal as a celebration of a family reunion or other special occasion (Bowden and Dagger, 2011). Appraising goal congruence results in an assessment of whether achievement of a personally relevant goal is facilitated or hindered in the current situation (Watson and Spence, 2007). An evaluation response results with a motivation pertaining to a personal goal (Frijda, 1987). If an individual perceives the situation to move him closer to a desired goal, positive emotions are more likely to be elicited and accompanied by approach tendencies, and vice versa. The goal congruence dimension is the most basic, and accounts for the most variances among different emotions (Ruth *et al.*, 2002).

The nature of the person's goal is also significant to the emotion elicited by the situation. If it is a helpful goal, the pursuit of which is good for the person's well-being, then the goal congruency evaluation is likely to elicit happiness as a positive emotion. However, if it is a goal that the person tends to avoid, then the goal congruence evaluation is more likely to generate relief as another kind of positive emotion. Therefore, appraisal theories list goal significance as a sub-dimension of goal congruence to refine the variance among emotions of the same valence. This is in line with Roseman's (1984) outcome desirability (appetitive or aversive) dimension. People's appetitive goal congruence is similar to the disconfirmation of their inner-generated motivations and outcomes.

Agency

Appraising agency involves the evaluation of the various entities (people, objects, products, etc.) in a situation. The process of an appraising agency involves

Table 7.1. Appraisal dimensions and definitions.

Appraisal	Definition of the appraisal task	Emotions: differentiation	Related terms and conceptual and empirical support
Goal congruence	Evaluate the situation in terms of (expected) goal success versus failure, or whether it is consistent or inconsistent with values or ideals	Differentiate between positive and negative emotions (valence)	Intrinsic pleasantness, pleasantness (Frijda, 1987) Motive consistency (Lazarus, 1991b) Desirability/praiseworthiness/appealing (Ortony <i>et al.</i> , 1988; Clore and Ortony, 2000) Conduciveness (Scherer, 1993)
Agency	Infer whether there is a person (self or event/circumstance) that is responsible for, or in control of, the situation	Differentiate emotions that focus on the self, another person or an object from emotions that do not reference an agent	Locus of causality (Weiner, 1985; Scherer, 1997) Attribution (Roseman, 1984; Ellsworth and Smith, 1988a) Blame/credit (Ortony <i>et al.</i> , 1988)
Certainty	Determine whether the outcome is known or certain	Differentiate between outcome-related emotions and anticipatory emotions	Probability (Ellsworth and Smith, 1988a; Frijda <i>et al.</i> , 1989; Scherer <i>et al.</i> , 2001) Likelihood (Ortony <i>et al.</i> , 1988) Certainty (Roseman, 1984)
Novelty	Evaluate the unexpectedness or suddenness of a situation or an experience	Differentiate emotion of surprise, enjoyment (delight)	Novelty (Scherer, 1993) Unexpectedness (Ortony <i>et al.</i> , 1988; Roseman <i>et al.</i> , 1996)
Goal relevance Goal realization	Evaluate the importance and value of the desired state in the current situation Evaluate the extent to which the situation meets expectations or approximates the desired state	Differentiate emotional intensity. Illustrative emotions: joyous–happy; angry–irritated; hopeful–expectant; anxious–afraid	Concern relevance (Frijda, 1993; Scherer <i>et al.</i> , 2001); motivational relevance (Lazarus, 1991b); importance (Ellsworth and Smith, 1988a); expectedness (Frijda <i>et al.</i> , 1989; Scherer, 1997); effort (Ortony <i>et al.</i> , 1988); realization (Ortony <i>et al.</i> , 1988; Clore and Ortony, 2000); degree of goal congruence (Johnson and Stewart, 2005)

assessing whether the person or object is causal or responsible for the outcome in the situation. Agency is believed to be more relevant in situations involving negative emotion than in those involving positive emotion (Peeters and Czapinski, 1990). A diner may experience the emotion of anger if he or she appraises a service failure as the fault of the waiter. A sense of guilt may manifest when an individual attributes a negative outcome, like losing a game, to himself or herself. However, positive affect such as gratitude and pride are empirically differentiated from happiness/satisfaction by different appraisal agencies of other people, self and circumstance (Soscia, 2007). An adventurer will probably feel proud if he believes the success is due to himself, grateful if he undertakes the achievements with the help of others or satisfied if he attributes the accomplishment to a tool or device that is of good quality and helpful to the completion of the adventure. The difference in agency determines the target of emotions (Roseman, 1984; Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Tesser, 1990; Lazarus, 1991b). It is similar to appraisal of responsibility (Manstead and Tetlock, 1989), or as the locus of cause in attribution theory that suggests the elicitation of key emotions such as pride, shame and anger can be distinguished solely on the basis of internal–external attribution of responsibility (Weiner, 1985).

Certainty

The appraisal of certainty, also known as likelihood or outcome probability, involves the assessment of the extent to which the situation is perceived to lead to a particular outcome. Past events are perceived to be certain since the outcomes of events have happened already, while future events are uncertain. Certainty in a goal outcome can arise from it coming to pass in the current situation, as well as through the knowledge or experience about the goal having been achieved previously in a similar situation. Alternatively, uncertainty may arise from a lack of experience or knowledge about achieving the goal in a given situation. The emotions generated by appraisals of certainty serve a motivational function to convince individuals about the likely success of continuing to pursue the goal or changing to another goal, either because the current goal has been achieved or is unlikely to be achieved (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1998). The certainty dimensions distinguish anticipatory emotions that refer to whether an outcome is known or uncertain, such as hope, anxiety and fear. With postconsumption emotions, the dimension of certainty predicts emotions of joy or relief based on preconsumption perceptions of the situation as certain or uncertain.

Novelty

This dimension allows evaluation of the extent to which an experience departs from an individual's expectation. Novelty is interpreted by people as the suddenness or unexpectedness of an experience, and this high degree of unexpectedness is associated with delight (Scherer, 1993) and surprise as an emotion (Ortony *et al.*, 1988; Roseman *et al.*, 1996). There requires no or low level of unexpectedness for the elicitation of moderate emotions. Unexpectedness is a similar concept to surprise, and surprise stimuli have been found to result in delight (Scherer, 1997; Roseman and Smith, 2001).

Dimensions affecting emotional intensity

Two types of appraisals have been linked to the intensity of emotion:

1. Goal relevance, also known as motivational relevance (Frijda, 1987; Lazarus, 1991a; Scherer, 1993) or importance (Ellsworth and Smith, 1988a).
2. Goal realization, also known as:
 - (i) the degree of goal congruency (Johnson and Stewart, 2005);
 - (ii) the extent to which the event is consistent with personal goals (Lazarus and Smith, 1988);
 - (iii) the consistency of the outcome with expectations for the present time (expectation) (Scherer, 1993); or
 - (iv) prospect realization (Ortony *et al.*, 1988).

Goal relevance is the assessment of the relevance of the event or situation to the person's goals or needs. The appraisal of a goal's importance affects the intensity of emotion because it is associated with the value or desirability of the state that is sought, or the severity of potential consequences of failure (Sonnemans and Frijda, 1995; Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001). Emotional reactions are more intense as a result of the expectation of more valuable gains or more painful losses. As Scherer (1997, p. 141) noted, 'events that give rise to joy are evaluated as highly anticipated'. In a computer software consumption context, goal importance is found to act as a moderator, causing the emotions to be experienced more intensely when the situation is more relevant (Nyer, 1997). Goal relevance also impacts on the intensity of enjoyment because it is related to interest in the experience (Ellsworth and Smith, 1988a). Interest is cognitive in nature and usually linked with motivation or goals (Krapp, 1999; Sansone and Smith, 2000). In addition, interest is a general response to situations perceived as subjectively important and motivates high levels of attention activity, hence increasing chances of effectively coping with the event and eliciting an intensified positive emotion such as enjoyment. Therefore, in this research, goal relevance includes two sub-concepts: goal importance and goal interest. In the case of a goal-congruent situation, the goal relevance determines the intensity of the positive emotion and helps specify the discrete positive emotion.

Goal realization relates to emotional intensity as well, with respect to the degree to which the situation meets expectations or approximates the desired state (Ortony *et al.*, 1988; Clore and Ortony, 2000). It is called prospect realization and defined as 'the degree to which an anticipated event actually occurs' (Ortony *et al.*, 1988, p. 84). If the situation exceeds expectation, the resulting positive emotion is likely to be more intense than if the situation merely met expectation or matched the desired state.

Emotional intensity within the context of appraisal theory is similar to the concept of arousal used in dimensional theories of emotion (Johnson and Stewart, 2005). However, while dimensional theories do not explain the factors leading to the intensity of emotions, appraisal theories specifically address and predict the degree of emotional intensity that is likely to be experienced. In addition, appraisal of intensity is independent of other appraisals (Scherer and Ceschi, 1997). The appraisal dimensions of goal relevance and realization can distinguish emotions of the same valence but of different intensity, such as joyous and happy, angry and irritated, hopeful and expectant, anxious and afraid. Table 7.2 illustrates the distinctions between levels of

Table 7.2. Different emotional responses with combinations of appraisal dimensions.

Emotions	Goal congruence		Appraisal dimensions			Emotional intensity
	Appetitive	Aversive	Agency	Certainty	Novelty	
Proud/happy	Congruent		Self	Certain	Open	Low/moderate
Admiring/grateful	Congruent		Others	Certain	Open	Low/moderate
Satisfied/pleased	Congruent		Object or circumstances	Certain	Low	Low/moderate
Relieved		Incongruent	Object or circumstances	Certain	Open	Low/moderate/high
Guilty, ashamed/distressed	Incongruent		Self	Certain	Open	Low/moderate
Contemptuous/angry	Incongruent		Others	Certain	Open	Low/moderate
Disappointed/sad	Incongruent		Object or circumstances	Certain	Low	Low/moderate
Disgusted		Congruent	Object or circumstances	Certain	Open	Low/moderate/high
Joyous	Congruent		Self	Certain	Open	High
Loving	Congruent		Others	Certain	Open	High
Delighted	Congruent		Object or circumstances	Certain	High	High
Humiliated/depressed	Incongruent		Self	Certain	Low	High
Enraged	Incongruent		Others	Certain	High	High
Frustrated/miserable	Incongruent		Object or circumstances	Certain	Open	High
Surprised	Congruent		Self/others/objects	Certain	High	Low/moderate/high
Hopeful	Congruent		Self/others/objects	Uncertain	n/a	Low/moderate
Anticipating/excited	Congruent		Self/others/objects	Uncertain	n/a	Low/moderate
Anxious	Incongruent		Self/others/objects	Uncertain	n/a	High
Afraid	Incongruent		Self/others/objects	Uncertain	n/a	High

Adapted from Roseman (1991); Scherer (1993); Johnson and Steward (2005).

emotional intensity in combination with the appraisals that differentiate the type of emotional experience.

7.3 Conclusion

The tourism and leisure literature has identified that emotions have an effect on tourists' motivations prior to the trip (Goossens, 2000), and also on place attachment (Cheng and Kuo, 2015), destination preference (Kwortnik and Ross, 2007; Lin *et al.*, 2007; San Martín and Bosque, 2008) and decision behaviour (Walters *et al.*, 2012). Postconsumption impacts of emotions include those on satisfaction (Coghlan and Pearce, 2010) and behavioural intentions, and have been examined in the context of hedonic restaurants (Lin and Mattila, 2010; Hyun and Kang, 2014), festivals (Mason and Paggiaro, 2012), interactive museums (Bigné *et al.*, 2008), theme parks (Bigné *et al.*, 2005) and agri-tourism (Chatzigeorgiou *et al.*, 2009). The importance of understanding emotional responses derived from experiences has been widely recognized (Cohen *et al.*, 2014) especially when tourists are motivated to travel by expectations of pleasure (Kao *et al.*, 2008).

An understanding of how consumers interpret their experiences and subjectively elicit specific emotions is provided by CAT, which has been applied in psychology (Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Ellsworth and Smith, 1988b; Scherer, 2003), marketing (Surachartkumtonkun *et al.*, 2013) and tourism studies (Hosany, 2012; Ma *et al.*, 2013; LuJun *et al.*, 2014) to predict consumers' emotional responses derived from an experience. Use of CAT can address criticism of differential emotions theory (Izard, 1977), and the circumplex model of emotions (Plutchik, 1980) in that they only differentiate emotions without explaining the conditions under which an emotion of certain valence and arousal level is elicited (Watson and Spence, 2007; Su and Hsu, 2013).

References

- Bagozzi, R.P., Baumgartner, H. and Pieters, R. (1998) Goal-directed emotions. *Cognition and Emotion* 12(1), 1–26.
- Bagozzi, R.P., Gopinath, M. and Nyer, P.U. (1999) The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 27(2), 184–206.
- Baloglu, S. and McCleary, K.W. (1999) A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 26(4), 868–897.
- Bigné, J.E., Andreu, L. and Gnoth, J. (2005) The theme park experience: an analysis of pleasure, arousal and satisfaction. *Tourism Management* 26(6), 833–844.
- Bigné, J.E., Mattila, A.S. and Andreu, L. (2008) The impact of experiential consumption cognitions and emotions on behavioral intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing* 22(4), 303–315. DOI: 10.1108/08876040810881704
- Bosque, I.R. and San Martín, H. (2008) Tourist satisfaction a cognitive-affective model. *Annals of Tourism Research* 35(2), 551–573. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2008.02.006
- Bowden, J.L.H. and Dagger, T.S. (2011) To delight or not to delight? An investigation of loyalty formation in the restaurant industry. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 20(5), 501–524. DOI: 10.1080/19368623.2011.570637

- Chatzigeorgiou, C., Christou, E., Kassianidis, P. and Sigala, M. (2009) Examining the relationship between emotions, customer satisfaction and future behavioural intentions in agrotourism. *Tourismos* 4(4), 145–161.
- Cheng, C.-K. and Kuo, H.-Y. (2015) Bonding to a new place never visited: exploring the relationship between landscape elements and place bonding. *Tourism Management* 46, 546–560. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2014.08.006
- Clore, G.L. and Ortony, A. (2000) Cognition in emotion: Always, sometimes, or never? In: Lane, R.D. and Nadel, L. (eds) *Cognitive Neuroscience of Emotion*. Oxford University Press, New York, pp. 258–276.
- Coghlan, A. and Pearce, P. (2010) Tracking affective components of satisfaction. *Tourism and Hospitality Research* 10(1), 42–58.
- Cohen, S.A., Prayag, G. and Moital, M. (2014) Consumer behaviour in tourism: concepts, influences and opportunities. *Current Issues in Tourism* 17(10), 872–909. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2013.850064
- Coon, D. (2004) *Introduction to Psychology: Gateways to Mind and Behavior*. Wadsworth, Belmont, California.
- Decrop, A. and Snelders, D. (2004) Planning the summer vacation: an adaptable process. *Annals of Tourism Research* 31(4), 1008–1030.
- Decrop, A. and Snelders, D. (2005) A grounded typology of vacation decision-making. *Tourism Management* 26(2), 121–132.
- Dubé, L. and Menon, K. (2000) Multiple roles of consumption emotions in post-purchase satisfaction with extended service transactions. *International Journal of Service Industry Management* 11(3), 287–304.
- Ellsworth, P.C. and Smith, C.A. (1988a) Shades of joy: patterns of appraisal differentiating pleasant emotions. *Cognition and Emotion* 2(4), 301–331.
- Ellsworth, P.C. and Smith, C.A. (1988b) From appraisal to emotion: differences among unpleasant feelings. *Motivation and Emotion* 12(3), 271–302.
- Frijda, N.H. (1987) Emotion, cognitive structure and action tendency. *Cognition and Emotion* 1(2), 115–143.
- Frijda, N.H. (1993) The place of appraisal in emotion. *Cognition & Emotion Special Issue: Appraisal and Beyond: The Issue of Cognitive Determinants of Emotion* 7(3–4), 357–387.
- Frijda, N.H., Kuipers, P. and ter Schure, E. (1989) Relations among emotion, appraisal, and emotional action readiness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 57(2), 212–228.
- Goossens, C. (2000) Tourism information and pleasure motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(2), 301–321.
- Holbrook, M.B. and Gardner, M.P. (2000) Illustrating a dynamic model of the mood-updating process in consumer behavior. *Psychology and Marketing* 17(3), 165–194.
- Hosany, S. (2012) Appraisal determinants of tourist emotional responses. *Journal of Travel Research* 51(3), 303–314.
- Huffman, C. and Houston, M.J. (1993) Goal-oriented experiences and the development of knowledge. *Journal of Consumer Research* 20(2), 190–207.
- Hyun, S.S. and Kang, J. (2014) A better investment in luxury restaurants: environmental or non-environmental cues? *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 39, 57–70. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.02.003
- Izard, C.E. (1977) *Human Emotions*. Plenum Press, New York.
- Johnson, A.R. and Stewart, D.W. (2005) A reappraisal of the role of emotion in consumer behavior: traditional and contemporary approaches. *Review of Marketing Research* 1(1), 3–33.
- Kao, M., Patterson, I., Scott, N. and Li, C.K. (2008) Motivations and satisfactions of Taiwanese tourists who visit Australia: an exploratory study. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 24(1), 17–33.
- Krapp, A. (1999) Interest, motivation and learning: an educational-psychological perspective. *European Journal of Psychology of Education* 14(1), 23–40.

- Kruglanski, A.W. (1996) Goals as knowledge structures. In Gollwitzer, P.M. and Bargh, J.A. (eds) *The Psychology of Action: Linking Cognition and Motivation to Behavior*. Guilford Press, New York, pp. 599–618.
- Kwortnik, J.R.J. and Ross, J.W.T. (2007) The role of positive emotions in experiential decisions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 24(4), 324–335. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijresmar.2007.09.002
- Larsen, R.J. and Fredricksen, B.L. (1999) Measurement issues in emotion research. In: Kahneman, D., Diener, E. and Schwarz, N. (eds) *Well-being: The Foundation of Hedonic Psychology*. Russell Sage Foundation, New York, pp. 40–60.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1991a) Cognition and motivation in emotion. *American Psychologist* 46(4), 352–367.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1991b) *Emotion and Adaptation*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1995) Vexing research problems inherent in cognitive-mediational theories of emotion and some solutions. *Psychological Inquiry* 6(3), 183–196.
- Lazarus, R.S. and Smith, C.A. (1988) Knowledge and appraisal in the cognition–emotion relationship. *Cognition & Emotion* 2(1), 281–300.
- Lin, C.H., Morais, D.B., Kerstetter, D.L. and Hou, J.S. (2007) Examining the role of cognitive and affective image in predicting choice across natural, developed, and theme-park destinations. *Journal of Travel Research* 46(2), 183–194. DOI: 10.1177/0047287506304049
- Lin, I.Y. and Mattila, A.S. (2010) Restaurant servicescape, service encounter, and perceived congruency on customers' emotions and satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management* 19(8), 819–841.
- LuJun, S., Hsu, M.K. and Marshall, K.P. (2014) Understanding the relationship of service fairness, emotions, trust, and tourist behavioral intentions at a city destination in China. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 31(8), 1018–1038. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2014.892466
- Ma, J., Gao, J., Scott, N. and 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. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2013.02.018>
- Manstead, A.S.R. and Tetlock, P.E. (1989) Cognitive appraisals and emotional experience: further evidence. *Cognition and Emotion* 3(2), 225–240.
- Mason, M.C. and Paggiaro, A. (2012) Investigating the role of festivalscape in culinary tourism: the case of food and wine events. *Tourism Management* 33(6), 1329–1336.
- Mattila, A. and Wirtz, J. (2000) The role of preconsumption affect in postpurchase evaluation of services. *Psychology and Marketing* 17(7), 587–605.
- Milman, A. (2001) The future of the theme park and attraction industry: a management perspective. *Journal of Travel Research* 40(2), 139–147.
- Nairne, J.S. (2003) *Psychology: The Adaptive Mind*. Wadsworth, Belmont, California.
- Nyer, P.U. (1997) Modeling the cognitive antecedents of post-consumption emotions. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior* 10, 80–90.
- Oliver, R.L. (1997) *Satisfaction: A Behavioral Perspective on the Consumer*. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Omdahl, B.L. (1995) *Cognitive Appraisal, Emotion and Empathy*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Orehek, E., Bessarabova, E., Chen, X. et al. (2011) *Motivation and Emotion* 35, 44. DOI: 10.1007/s11031-010-9197-2
- Ortony, A., Clore, G.L. and Collins, A. (1988) *The Cognitive Structure of Emotions*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Peeters, G. and Czapiński, J. (1990) Positive-negative asymmetry in evaluations: the distinction between affective and informational negative effects. *European Journal of Social Psychology* 1(1), 33–60.
- Perugini, M. and Bagozzi, R.P. (2001) The role of desires and anticipated emotions in goal-directed behaviours: broadening and deepening the theory of planned behaviour. *British Journal of Social Psychology* 40(1), 79–98.
- Plutchik, R. (1980) *Emotion: A Psychoevolutionary Synthesis*. Harper & Row, New York.

- Richins, M.L. (1997) Measuring emotions in the consumption experience. *Journal of Consumer Research* 24(2), 127–146.
- Ritchie, J.R.B., Tung, V.W.S. and Ritchie, R.J.B. (2011) Tourism experience management research: emergence, evolution and future directions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 23(4), 419–438.
- Roseman, I.J. (1984) Cognitive determinants of emotion: a structural theory. *Review of Personality and Social Psychology* 5(1), 11–36.
- Roseman, I.J. (1991) Appraisal determinants of discrete emotions. *Cognition and Emotion* 5(3), 161–200.
- Roseman, I.J., Antoniou, A.A. and Jose, P.E. (1996) Appraisal determinants of emotions: constructing a more accurate and comprehensive theory. *Cognition and Emotion* 10(3), 241–277.
- Roseman, I.J. and Evdokas, A. (2004) Appraisals cause experienced emotions: experimental evidence. *Cognition and Emotion* 18(1), 1–28.
- Roseman, I.J. and Smith, C.A. (2001) Appraisal theory: overview, assumptions, varieties, controversies. In Johnstone, T. (ed.) *Appraisal Processes in Emotion: Theory, Methods, Research*. Oxford University Press, New York.
- Roseman, I.J., Spindel, M.S. and Jose, P.E. (1990) Appraisals of emotion-eliciting events: testing a theory of discrete emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 59(5), 899–915.
- Ruth, J.A., Brunel, F.F. and Otnes, C.C. (2002) Linking thoughts to feelings: investigating cognitive appraisals and consumption emotions in a mixed-emotions context. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 30(1), 44–58. DOI: 10.1177/03079459994317
- San Martín, H. and Bosque, I.R. (2008) Exploring the cognitive-affective nature of destination image and the role of psychological factors in its formation. *Tourism Management* 29(2), 263–277.
- Sansone, C. and Smith, J.L. (2000) Interest and self-regulation: the relation between having to and wanting to. In Sansone, C. and Harackiewicz, J.M. (eds) *Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation*. Academic Press, San Diego, California, pp. 341–371.
- Scherer, K.R. (1988) Criteria for emotion-antecedent appraisal: a review. In Hamilton, V., Bower, G. and Frijda, N.H. (eds) *Cognitive Perspectives on Emotion and Motivation*. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, Netherlands, pp. 89–126.
- Scherer, K.R. (1993) Studying the emotion-antecedent appraisal process: an expert system approach. *Cognition & Emotion* 7(3–4), 325–355.
- Scherer, K.R. (1997) Profiles of emotion-antecedent appraisal: testing theoretical predictions across cultures. *Cognition & Emotion* 11(2), 113–150.
- Scherer, K.R. and Ceschi, G. (1997) Lost luggage: a field study of emotion-antecedent appraisal. *Motivation and Emotion* 21(3), 211–235.
- Scherer, K.R., Schorr, A. and Johnstone, T. (eds) (2001) *Appraisal Processes in Emotions: Theory, Methods, Research*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- Silvia, P.J. (2005) What is interesting? Exploring the appraisal structure of interest. *Emotion* 5(1), 89–102.
- Sirakaya, E., Petrick, J. and Choi, H.-S. (2004) The role of mood on tourism product evaluations. *Annals of Tourism Research* 31(3), 517–539.
- Smith, C.A. and Ellsworth, P.C. (1985) Patterns of cognitive appraisal in emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 48(4), 813–838.
- Sonnemans, J. and Frijda, N.H. (1995) The determinants of subjective emotional intensity. *Cognition and Emotion* 9(5), 483–506.
- Soscia, I. (2007) Gratitude, delight, or guilt: the role of consumers' emotions in predicting postconsumption behaviors. *Psychology and Marketing* 24(10), 871–894. DOI: 10.1002/mar.20188
- Su, L. and Hsu, M.K. (2013) Service fairness, consumption emotions, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: the experience of Chinese heritage tourists. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 30(8), 786–805. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2013.835228
- Surachartkumtonkun, J., Patterson, P.G. and McColl-Kennedy, J.R. (2013) Customer rage back-story: linking needs-based cognitive appraisal to service failure type. *Journal of Retailing* 89(1), 72–87.

- Tesser, A. (1990) Smith and Ellsworth's appraisal model of emotion: a replication, extension, and test. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 16(2), 210–223.
- Walters, G., Sparks, B. and Herington, C. (2012) The impact of consumption vision and emotion on the tourism consumer's decision behavior. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research* 36(3), 366–389.
- Watson, L. and Spence, M.T. (2007). Causes and consequences of emotions on consumer behaviour: a review and integrative cognitive appraisal theory. *European Journal of Marketing* 41(5–6), 487–511. DOI: 10.1108/03090560710737570
- Weiner, B. (1985) An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review* 92(4), 548–573.

8

Measurement of Visitors' Emotion

SHANSHI LI,^{1*} GABBY WALTERS¹ AND NOEL SCOTT²

¹The University of Queensland, St Lucia, Australia; ²Griffith University, Southport, Australia

8.1 Introduction

Emotion is likely to be present in most touristic experiences (Aho, 2001). A large body of literature has established the importance of emotions experienced by visitors before, during and after a trip. In the pre-travel stage, visitors' emotions are highly related to their decisions to purchase tourism and leisure services. Specifically, various positive emotions created by consumers' visions of themselves in future consumption experiences influence their final destination choices (Walters and Sparks, 2012). During their holidays, positive emotions and feelings related with the experience are central components of memorable experience (Tung and Ritchie, 2011), although the positive feelings fluctuate over the course of a trip (Nawijn *et al.*, 2013). After the holiday, emotional reactions and subjective responses to the experience are considered as fundamental determinants of tourist satisfaction (Mcintosh and Siggs, 2005), intention to recommend (Hosany and Prayag, 2013) and willingness to pay more (Bigné *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, understanding visitors' emotion is crucial for both academics and tourism practitioners.

Given the importance of emotions in understanding tourists' behaviours in each stage of their holiday, accurate measurement of emotion is essential. However, most tourism studies rely on self-report methods in measuring visitors' emotional response (Li *et al.*, 2014). This method requires respondents to recall their emotional experiences by rating a series of affective items on a questionnaire. For example, pleasure is usually considered as an appropriate emotion to indicate the pleasantness of the visitor experience (Bigné *et al.*, 2005), which can be measured by several affective items such as happy, pleased or content. Specifically, tourists were asked to rate the extent to which they were feeling each adjective (e.g. 'I felt a sense of happiness') using a seven-point Likert-type scale where 1 = not at all, to 7 = very much. While popular

*Corresponding author e-mail: shanshi.li@hotmail.com

and time-saving, this method cannot measure visitors' emotions in real time. More importantly, the recalling process may involve cognitive bias that may distort respondents' original emotional responses. The long list of affective items on the questionnaire may result in participant fatigue, and this is particularly true in the context of tourism when we consider that visitors may already be experiencing some degree of fatigue after the trip or after visiting some attractions.

Subjective feelings, however, are just one component of emotion experienced by the individuals. Emotion always occurs alongside physiological responses such as facial expressions or electro-dermal activities that are beyond one's voluntary control. Therefore, psychophysiological methods have been used in marketing research to provide a more objective and unbiased approach to track consumers' emotional responses (Ravaja, 2004; Morin, 2011). Psychophysiology is the branch of psychology that examines the correlations between individuals' internal psychological activities (i.e. emotions and attention) and physiological responses such as heart rate and blood pressure. Compared with the self-report method, the biggest advantage of the psychophysiological technique is 'objectivity', as physiological responses are usually beyond one's control and can reflect the individuals' unconscious reactions to the stimuli. Additionally, psychophysiological measurements can be conducted continuously and are capable of recording the variations in emotional responses across time.

In the past, psychophysiological measures were less accessible to marketing or media researchers owing to their cost and the specialized nature of the instruments and software needed. The recent emergence of portable and affordable psychophysiological equipment offers scholars outside the domain of psychology alternative approaches to measuring consumers' emotional responses (Li *et al.*, 2014). A number of studies in the fields of marketing, advertising and media also have confirmed the reliability and validity of psychophysiological methods in capturing consumers' emotional responses to a service experience or advertising stimuli (Hazlett and Hazlett, 1999; Bolls *et al.*, 2001; Micu and Plummer, 2010). This indicates that tourism researchers may also be able to employ psychophysiological measures to capture visitors' emotions before, during and after their holidays.

In this chapter, tourism studies using self-report emotion measurement will first be illustrated, the discussion of which will be organized by different theories describing emotions. The chapter will then assess several psychophysiological methods such as electro-dermal activity (EDA), facial EMG (electromyography), eye tracking and heart rate, and the application of these techniques in related areas such as advertising and marketing will also be provided. In particular, the use of psychophysiological methods in recent tourism studies will also be highlighted. This chapter concludes that use of both the self-report method and psychophysiological techniques is an important direction for future tourism research.

8.2 Self-report Emotion Measurement in the Tourism Literature

In tourism studies, self-report questionnaires are the major approach to measuring visitors' emotions. Self-report questionnaires involve individuals indicating their affective responses to either an advertisement or an experience by rating a series of items on a questionnaire (Li *et al.*, 2014). Emotional scales within tourism studies are

often derived from theories or approaches in the domain of psychology. Among these approaches, the basic emotion approach and the dimensional approach are most frequently used to capture visitors' emotions. The basic emotion approach ascertains a series of basic emotions (e.g. happiness, anger and fear), and the combination of these basic emotions results in other emotions (Ma *et al.*, 2013). A recent study examined the anticipated emotional response of a potential visit to a concentration camp memorial site, adopting the basic emotion approach. The respondents were asked to fill out a questionnaire that contained a 33-item emotion scale measuring concepts such as affection, fear, love, anger and pride. In particular, respondents indicated on a seven-point scale to what extent they expected to experience each emotion during the tour of the site. The anchors of the scale were 'not at all' (1) and 'extremely' (7). The results show that respondents were more likely to experience negative emotions; however, perceived emotions varied across participants and were related to their self-identity (Nawijn *et al.*, 2015). Apart from the traditional self-report questionnaire, a diary method can be used to register tourists' emotions. Instead of treating an entire experience as a single point in time, visitors are asked to complete a diary and to daily record their emotions on a scale throughout their holiday, enabling tracking of their emotion changes over the course of a trip (Nawijn *et al.*, 2013).

Hosany *et al.* (2015) conducted a series of studies exploring the diversity and intensity of tourists' emotional experiences in the destination using the destination emotion scale (DES) (Hosany and Gilbert, 2010). DES contains three basic emotions: joy, love and positive surprise. Specifically, joy was measured using five items (i.e. cheerful, delight, enthusiasm, joy and pleasure); love was represented by affection, caring, love, tenderness and warm-heartedness; positive surprise was captured by amazement, astonishment, fascination, inspiration and surprise (Hosany *et al.*, 2015). The appraisal determinants and consequences of emotions (i.e. satisfaction and intention to recommend) were also examined (Hosany, 2012; Hosany and Prayag, 2013).

Some studies focus on a specific emotion a visitor may experience. Delight, an emotion related to hedonic consumption and characterized as aroused positive affect, was examined by Ma *et al.* (2013) in a theme park context. Instead of assessing the influence of emotion on following behaviour intentions, this study assessed the antecedents of delight by using cognitive appraisal theory. In particular, 'delight' was measured by different semantic terms: elation (elated)/dull, excitement (excited)/drowsy, and enthusiasm (enthusiastic)/sleepy. The results showed that a set of cognitive appraisals such as goal congruence, goal importance, goal interest and unexpectedness were antecedents of delight. Negative emotions, on the other hand, also received much attention in the tourism literature. The mediating role of anger and regret played between consumers' dissatisfaction and behavioural intentions was explored in a restaurant setting (Currás-Pérez and Sánchez-García, 2011). Specifically, anger was measured by three items with a seven-point Likert scale. For example, consumers were asked to rate on the item 'I felt angry about my experience at that hotel/restaurant'. Similarly, 'I regretted choosing that hotel/restaurant' and another two items were used to measure consumer's regret with a seven-point Likert scale.

The dimensional approach distinguishes emotions from each other by detecting a set of affective dimensions such as valence and arousal. Valence is defined as the direction of the emotion, and 'pleasantness' and 'unpleasantness' usually serve as the two poles of this dimension. Arousal refers to emotional intensity, ranging from

'quietness' to 'excitement' (Li *et al.*, 2015). Another popular emotion theory within the dimensional approach is to categorize emotions into two different groups (i.e. positive or negative), which is known as positive affect negative affect schedule (PANAS) (Watson *et al.*, 1988). The dimensional approach was well suited in the research by Bigné *et al.* (2005) who examined the influence of emotion on satisfaction and behavioural intentions. In accordance with the dimensional approach, emotions were classified by pleasure and arousal dimensions on a five-point semantic differential scale. Due to the abstraction of the pleasure and arousal dimensions, each dimension was measured by a set of affective adjectives to help respondents understand the meaning of the scale. For example, pleasure was measured by six items such as angry–satisfied; happy–unhappy; dissatisfied–very pleased; sad–joyful; disappointed–delighted and bored–entertained. In the context of a festival in Italy, PANAS scales were used to measure the role played by emotions in mediating the effects of environmental factors on attendees' repatronizing intention (Grappi and Montanari, 2011). In particular, visitors' emotions were classified into positive and negative emotion groups, with positive emotions being measured by happy, pleased, energetic and excited; and negative emotions by bored, angry and annoyed.

8.2.1 Criticism of self-report methods

Clearly, self-report measures are popular ways to measure visitors' emotional responses in tourism studies. While simple and inexpensive, self-report has several limitations that may pose severe threats to the reliability and validity of the data collected:

1. It is burdensome for tourists to fill out a questionnaire with a long list of affective items or keep a diary during their trips or holidays. Also, they may not be able to understand the nuances among similar affective items listed on a questionnaire. For example, 'pleasure' is usually measured by several adjectives such as happy, joy and delight, which may confuse the respondents who cannot differentiate these similar positive emotions.
2. The retrospective nature of the self-report method may not measure a visitor's original emotional response. Self-report methods ask the visitors to recall the emotion they experienced during the trip or holiday (e.g. Bigné *et al.*, 2005). However, relying entirely on the memory may distort the original emotions due to cognitive biases and visitors' abilities to remember (Winkielman and Berridge, 2004). Kyle and Lee (2012) used the same emotion scale to measure visitors' emotional experiences during and after a festival, and found significant differences in mean scores of self-reported positive emotions collected at two sequential time points, which supported the view that memories of emotions are inaccurate reflections of actual emotions.
3. The self-report method can only register visitors' overall evaluation of the emotional experience, which is inconsistent with the dynamic and continuous nature of emotion. Previous studies have shown that individuals' global evaluations of a past affective episode will largely be influenced by the emotions experienced during peak and end moments (Fredrickson, 2000). Therefore, the self-reported emotions may only reflect visitors' emotions experienced at certain moments, such as the end of the experience, which is insufficient in terms of providing a full explanation of participants' emotional experiences in real time (Micu and Plummer, 2010).

Given the criticisms of self-report methods, this next section will introduce psychophysiological methods and discuss four psychophysiological measurements of emotions (i.e. EDA, facial EMG, heart rate and eye tracking) that are used in marketing, advertising and media literature. The emergence of application of these psychophysiological measures in tourism research will also be highlighted.

Psychophysiological measures

Emotion occurs along with a series of physiological responses that may not be directly available to the subject's conscious awareness. Compared with a self-report questionnaire, psychophysiological measures are able to record individuals' responses continuously and without distraction (Ravaja and Kallinen, 2005). Moreover, physiological responses are normally beyond an individual's voluntary control, and the data will be more objective as physiological reactions are less likely to be affected by cognitive biases or socially desirable constraints. As noted by Ravaja (2004), psychophysiological methods are particularly useful for examining the responses to media stimuli that are associated with sensitive topics. In this section, four psychophysiological measures available for tourism research in the study of emotion are discussed.

Electro-dermal activity

EDA, also known as skin conductance, is the measurement of variations in the bioelectric attributes of the skin that are connected with the level of sweat secreted by eccrine sweat glands (Leiner *et al.*, 2012). EDA is believed to be an excellent operational measure of arousal (Ravaja, 2004). In particular, skin conductance response (SCR) and skin conductance level (SCL) are the two most frequently used indicators of an individual's EDA level (Braithwaite *et al.*, 2013). Specifically, SCR refers to short-term fluctuations in the electrical activity of skin, which usually lasts for a few seconds only. For example, consumers may feel particularly excited about a specific scene in the advertisement which results in an SCR peak in the skin conductance waveform. Calculation of the amplitude of the SCR is often used to estimate how strong a particular stimulus is. The SCL, on the other hand, measures long-term reactions to continuous stimuli, which usually last for more than 30 s and vary between different subjects (Ravaja, 2004; Algie, 2005). The researcher is able to examine the overall trend of consumers' emotional arousal levels across the entire commercial by analysing the SCL, through which the peak and trough during the exposure to the commercial can be identified. EDA data are usually collected through placing two standard 9 mm diameter Ag/AgCl electrodes on the participant's index and middle fingers. More details on the operation of skin conductance measure and publication recommendations can be found in a guideline article by Boucsein *et al.* (2012).

EDA is widely used as an indicator of arousal in different areas such as media, psychology and marketing research. EDA has been demonstrated to be related to self-report arousal level, with more arousing pictures evoking higher levels of skin conductance (Lang *et al.*, 1993). However, significant divergence exists between individuals' real-time self-reported fear and their arousal pattern measured by EDA, when exposed to a series of threat–appeal TV advertisements. This suggests that the

self-report method is less reliable as a real-time continuous measure (Algie, 2005). Other studies have found SCR scores to be a reliable predictor of sales. A study by Hopkins and Fletcher (1994) revealed that the advertisement which scored the highest electro-dermal response among several testing advertisements always led to the best sales result. Compared with electro-dermal responses, traditional advertisement recall is a less accurate sales predictor. Other studies examined the demographic differences in EDA level. For example, individuals who are more educated showed a greater number of SCR than less educated individuals (Grabe *et al.*, 2000). The EDA technique has also been used in the tourism literature. In particular, two travellers' real-time arousal levels were tracked by wearable devices while they were visiting a number of touristic places in Philadelphia in the USA (Kim and Fesenmaier, 2015). This study confirmed the usefulness of EDA as a new tool to capture visitors' emotional experience. The continuous collection of travellers' emotion helps us to understand the neglected parts of the trip, which could provide valuable insights into the visitor experience design.

EDA is not without its drawbacks. While registering subjects' intensity of emotion, EDA lacks capability to indicate the direction of the emotion (i.e. positive or negative) (Poels and Dewitte, 2006). SCR can be generated by individuals' body actions such as sneezes, sighs or coughs, which need to be recorded by the researcher and removed from the data (Braithwaite *et al.*, 2013). Some 10% of the population do not produce electro-dermal responses. Also, medication, fatigue and women's menstrual cycles can influence the normal responses (Hopkins and Fletcher, 1994). It is also important to maintain a room temperature of around 22–24°C, as the accuracy of EDA data is subject to the temperature (Braithwaite *et al.*, 2013).

Facial EMG

Facial expression is the most important communication channel during human-human interactions (Mehrabian, 1968). Facial electromyography (fEMG) registers the subtle facial muscle movements and is able to identify facial muscle contractions to weakly evocative stimuli even if no overt facial expressions are observed (Tassinari *et al.*, 2007). In particular, two groups of facial muscles have received attention in psychology, marketing and media literature: the zygomaticus major and corrugator muscle groups (Hubert and de Jong-Meyer, 1990). Specifically, negative stimuli are correlated with activation of the corrugator muscle (involved in producing frowns), whereas the movement of the zygomaticus major muscle (which controls smiles) is associated with positive stimuli (Lang *et al.*, 1993). Facial EMG data are often recorded at the zygomatic and corrugator sites on the left side of the face by using miniature Ag/AgCl electrodes. Sex differences have been identified in facial EMG, with females having greater corrugator and zygomaticus major muscle activities (Hubert and de Jong-Meyer, 1990). Eye blink contractions of the orbicularis oculi are also measured by facial EMG and considered as an indicator of emotional valence: that is, blinks are greater when an individual is exposed to negative stimuli (images) as compared to positive stimuli (Lang *et al.*, 1990). Detailed procedures for use of facial EMG such as locations of specific facial muscles, quantification of EMG amplitude or standardization of EMG signal are available (e.g. Fridlund and Cacioppo, 1986; Van Boxtel, 2010).

Facial EMG techniques have been used in advertising and marketing research to indicate consumers' emotional valence. The power of radio and television in driving the engagement was explored by using facial EMG, with television advertising provoking greater negative emotional responses than radio (Peacock *et al.*, 2011). Hazlett and Hazlett (1999) found that the facial EMG measure was a more sensitive discriminator among different commercials compared with self-report ratings. Consumers' emotions measured by facial EMG are more strongly related to their recall level in comparison with self-report emotions. Facial EMG was also related with consumers' purchasing intention, and it was found that increased zygomaticus major muscle activities when seeing the image of the products were positively related with purchasing intention of the products (Ravaja and Somervuori, 2013).

The accuracy of the facial EMG data is affected by respondents' physical movements and electronic interference (Bolls *et al.*, 2001). Crosstalk is another limitation of the facial EMG technique, as the electrical activity produced by a specific muscle can activate the adjacent muscles (Van Boxtel, 2010). Extremely unpleasant stimuli can evoke a slight increase in zygomaticus major activity (Lang *et al.*, 1993). Attaching electrodes to participants' faces may also sensitize them to the fact that their facial expression may be manipulated, and participants may behave unnaturally (Bolls *et al.*, 2001).

Heart rate

Heart rate (HR) is measured by counting the number of heart beats per minute, and is the technique most frequently used in psychophysiology (Ravaja, 2004). Two major methods are used to measure HR: (i) to measure the electrical impulses that run the heart, using an electrocardiogram (ECG); (ii) to measure the pulse wave that is caused by the second pump of the heartbeat (Lang, 1994).

HR has been used to measure the valence of emotional response. In particular, a subject's HR will increase when exposed to positive messages and decrease in response to negative messages (Bolls *et al.*, 2001). However, HR can be difficult to interpret when both positive and negative stimuli are shown to consumers (Micu and Plummer, 2010). HR is considered a reliable measure of attention. Combining HR and other physiological measures, Micu and Plummer (2010) found that the peak moments of consumers' responses to television advertisements can be tracked accurately. A recent tourism study used the HR technique to capture tourism consumers' real-time attention to destination advertisements. Specifically, the study examined the mechanism of how individuals mentally process the video versus high-imagery audio tourism advertisements, by using both HR and skin conductance measures (Kim *et al.*, 2014). However, no significant difference in consumers' HR was found between two advertisements. A downtrend in a real-time HR trace suggests that viewers may gradually be losing their interest. However, when interpreting a particular psychological activity by HR variations, validity can be challenging, since an increase or decrease in HR can be triggered by multiple mental processes (Wang and Minor, 2008).

Eye tracking

Eye tracking, also referred to as 'eye movement analysis', is closely related to individuals' attention. Eye tracking often supplements other psychophysiological methods

such as skin conductance measurement as it is crucial to know which stimulus is attracting a subject's attention when his SCL rises (Li *et al.*, 2014). Several variables are commonly used in the literature to analyse the eye tracking data, such as the number of fixations, saccade (the rapid eye movements between fixations, measured as gaze paths) and the duration of fixation (Scott *et al.*, 2015; Wang and Sparks, 2015). Eye tracking is able to identify the specific stimulus (e.g. the human face or a word) an individual is viewing. Researchers simultaneously capture eye movements and external stimuli such as environment or an advertisement to produce a video of the stimulus along with the superimposed eye movement information (Ravaja, 2004).

The eye tracking technique has been used by tourism scholars to examine destination advertising effectiveness. One study used it in conjunction with traditional self-report questionnaires, to compare the relative effectiveness of two versions of a tourism advertisement (Scott *et al.*, 2015). Significant differences in attention level were found between a text advertisement and a block advertisement measured by the eye tracking method, with the block advertisement attracting more attention. This finding is consistent with follow-up self-report data (i.e. liking), with the majority of participants liking the block advertisement better than the text advertisement. Wang and Sparks (2015) used the eye tracking technique to compare Australian and Chinese tourists' eye movement patterns when exposed to a series of photographic tourism images. Significant differences in fixation count and duration were identified between these two different cultural groups, with Australian participants fixating more frequently and for longer durations than their counterparts.

Eye tracking analysis also suffers from a series of criticisms. As indicated by Wang and Sparks (2015), interpretation of data analysis is not simple as there is no clear association between an individual's fixation and liking. It is advisable to combine a survey or interview with the eye tracking technique, to explain the data collected. Also, the sheer quantity of moment-to-moment eye tracking data makes data analysis time-consuming (Wang and Sparks, 2015).

8.3 Discussion

This chapter presents an overview of traditional and emerging methods used for measuring visitors' emotions generated by tourism experiences. It has been found that the self-report method is still dominant in tourism research, although a few studies have attempted to capture tourists' emotional responses by using psychophysiological methods (e.g. electrodermal activity and heart rate measurements). Self-report measures are simple to use, but this type of measurement suffers from criticisms of data discontinuity, cognitive bias and participant fatigue. The psychophysiological measures discussed here offer alternatives for tourism scholars who want to capture visitors' original emotions before, during and after their experiences. Psychophysiological methods are not dependent on an individuals' language, recall and cognitive thinking. More importantly, real-time continuous measurement can reflect visitors' changes in emotion, which enables responses collected at different time points to be compared. Psychophysiological methods are superior to self-report methods in avoiding socially desirable responses. Sometimes respondents are reluctant to report their true feelings for social or cultural reasons. Given the importance of emotion in tourists' decision

making processes and experience, scholars could measure emotions by using physiological instruments and thus enhance the validity and reliability of their results.

However, as noted by Mauss and Robinson (2009, p. 228), 'there is no gold standard measure of emotional responding'. Psychophysiological measures have certain limitations, as noted above. It is advisable to measure emotion by multiple methods. An emotion has three major components (i.e. subjective feelings, facial expression and physiological responses), making it imperative for tourism scholars to combine measurements to register components of emotion. For example, visitors' arousal levels can be measured by EDA, whereas facial EMG can be used to register visitors' facial expressions. The self-report method can then be used to interpret the physiological data, which may offer a clearer explanation of a particular 'peak' or 'trough' in the physiological traces.

The adoption of psychophysiological methods has implications for both academia and the tourism industry:

1. Psychophysiological methods can be used as the alternative pathway to validate self-report data. The comparison between self-report emotions and physiological emotional responses may also reveal the nuances between conscious emotional responses (which involve cognitive thinking) and subconscious emotional responses.
2. Psychophysiological measures can be used to track consumers' real-time responses to destination advertisements. For example, it is important to identify the 'peak moment' of the advertisement as it can influence viewers' overall evaluation of the advertisement. Having a destination logo or name displayed around peak moment with high levels of positive emotions can enhance the positive impression of the brand (Hazlett and Hazlett, 1999). The emergence of wireless and wearable devices enables researchers to understand visitors' real-time emotional experiences. As mentioned by Kim and Fesenmaier (2015, p. 9):

the ability to measure affective values of places and activities in real time enables tourism planners to draw 'emotion maps' of the destination that can be used to define meaningful tourist touch points, design attractions and activities, and to more effectively allocate resources.

3. Researchers are able to combine the eye tracking technique with other psychophysiological measures of emotions to examine the correlations between the areas consumers are staring at and their real-time physiological responses. This is particularly useful for destination website design, as the website designer can adjust the format/content of the website based on consumers' eye movement and synchronized physiological data.

References

- Aho, S.K. (2001) Towards a general theory of touristic experiences: modelling experience process in tourism. *Tourism Review* 56, 33–37.
- Algie, J.A. (2005) A comparison of viewers' cognitive and psychophysiological responses to threat-appeal TV advertisements. In: Ghallachir, K.U. (ed.) *Academy of Marketing: Marketing: Building Business, Shaping Society Conference*. Academy of Marketing, Dublin.
- Bigné, J.E., Andreu, L. and Gnoth, J. (2005) The theme park experience: an analysis of pleasure, arousal and satisfaction. *Tourism Management* 26, 833–844.

- Bolls, P.D., Lang, A. and Potter, R.F. (2001) The effects of message valence and listener arousal on attention, memory, and facial muscular responses to radio advertisements. *Communication Research* 28, 627–651.
- Boucsein, W., Fowles, D.C., Grimnes, S., Ben-Shakhar, G., Roth, W.T. *et al.* (2012) Publication recommendations for electrodermal measurements. *Psychophysiology* 49, 1017–1034.
- Braithwaite, J.J., Watson, D.G., Jones, R. and Rowe, M. (2013) A guide for analysing electrodermal activity (EDA) and skin conductance responses (SCRs) for psychological experiments. *Psychophysiology* 49, 1017–1034.
- Currás-Pérez, R. and Sánchez-García, I. (2011) Effects of dissatisfaction in tourist services: the role of anger and regret. *Tourism Management* 32, 1397–1406.
- Fredrickson, B.L. (2000) Extracting meaning from past affective experiences: the importance of peaks, ends, and specific emotions. *Cognition and Emotion* 14, 577–606.
- Fridlund, A.J. and Cacioppo, J.T. (1986) Guidelines for human electromyographic research. *Psychophysiology* 23, 567–589.
- Grabe, M.E., Lang, A., Zhou, S. and Bolls, P.D. (2000) Cognitive access to negatively arousing news: an experimental investigation of the knowledge gap. *Communication Research* 27, 3–26.
- Grappi, S. and Montanari, F. (2011) The role of social identification and hedonism in affecting tourist re-patronizing behaviours: the case of an Italian festival. *Tourism Management* 32, 1128–1140.
- Hazlett, R.L. and Hazlett, S.Y. (1999) Emotional response to television commercials: facial EMG vs. self-report. *Journal of Advertising Research* 39, 7–24.
- Hopkins, R., Fletcher, J.E. (1994) Electrodermal measurement: particularly effective for forecasting message influence on sales appeal. In: Lang, A. (ed.) *Measuring Psychological Responses to Media Messages*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Hillsdale, New Jersey, pp. 113–132.
- Hosany, S. (2012) Appraisal determinants of tourist emotional responses. *Journal of Travel Research* 51, 303–314.
- Hosany, S. and Gilbert, D. (2010) Measuring tourists' emotional experiences toward hedonic holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research* 49, 513–526.
- Hosany, S. and Prayag, G. (2013) Patterns of tourists' emotional responses. *Journal of Business Research* 66, 730–737.
- Hosany, S., Prayag, G., Deesilatham, S., Caeuevic, S. and Odeh, K. (2015) Measuring tourists' emotional experiences: further validation of the destination emotion scale. *Journal of Travel Research* 54, 482–495.
- Hubert, W. and de Jong-Meyer, R. (1990) Psychophysiological response patterns to positive and negative film stimuli. *Biological Psychology* 31, 73–93.
- Kim, J.J. and Fesenmaier, D.R. (2015) Measuring emotions in real time implications for tourism experience design. *Journal of Travel Research* 54, 1–11.
- Kim, S.-B., Kim, D.-Y. and Bolls, P. (2014) Tourist mental-imagery processing: attention and arousal. *Annals of Tourism Research* 45, 63–76.
- Kyle, G. and Lee, J.J. (2012) Recollection consistency of festival consumption emotions. *Journal of Travel Research* 51, 178–190.
- Lang, A. (1994) *Measuring Psychological Responses to Media Messages*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Hillsdale, New Jersey.
- Lang, P.J., Bradley, M.M. and Cuthbert, B.N. (1990) Emotion, attention, and the startle reflex. *Psychological Review* 97, 377–395.
- Lang, P.J., Greenwald, M.K., Bradley, M.M. and Hamm, A.O. (1993) Looking at pictures: affective, facial, visceral, and behavioral reactions. *Psychophysiology* 30, 261–273.
- Leiner, D., Fahr, A. and Früh, H. (2012) EDA positive change: a simple algorithm for electrodermal activity to measure general audience arousal during media exposure. *Communication Methods and Measures* 6, 237–250.
- Li, S., Scott, N. and Walters, G. (2014) Current and potential methods for measuring emotion in tourism experiences: a review. *Current Issues in Tourism*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2014.975679>

- Li, S., Walters, G., Packer, J. and Scott, N. (2015) *Innovative techniques for measuring emotion in tourists' decision making processes and experiences*. Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education, (CAUTHE), Gold Coast, Australia.
- Ma, J., Gao, J., Scott, N. and 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.
- Mauss, I.B. and Robinson, M.D. (2009) Measures of emotion: a review. *Cognition and Emotion* 23, 209–237.
- Mcintosh, A.J. and Siggs, A. (2005) An exploration of the experiential nature of boutique accommodation. *Journal of Travel Research* 44, 74–81.
- Mehrabian, A. (1968) Communication without words. *Psychological Today* 2, 53–55.
- Micu, A.C. and Plummer, J.T. (2010) Measurable emotions: how television ads really work: patterns of reactions to commercials can demonstrate advertising effectiveness. *Journal of Advertising Research* 50, 137–153.
- Morin, C. (2011) Neuromarketing: the new science of consumer behavior. *Society* 48, 131–135.
- Nawijn, J., Isaac, R.K., Gridnevskiy, K. and van Liempt, A. (2015) Holocaust concentration camp memorial sites: an exploratory study into expected emotional response. *Current Issues in Tourism* 1–16. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2015.1058343>
- Nawijn, J., Mitas, O., Lin, Y. and Kerstetter, D. (2013) How do we feel on vacation? A closer look at how emotions change over the course of a trip. *Journal of Travel Research* 52, 265–274.
- Peacock, J., Purvis, S. and Hazlett, R.L. (2011) Which broadcast medium better drives engagement? Measuring the powers of radio and television with electromyography and skin-conductance measurements. *Journal of Advertising Research* 51, 578–585.
- Poels, K. and Dewitte, S. (2006) How to capture the heart? Reviewing 20 years of emotion measurement in advertising. *Journal of Advertising Research* 46, 18–37.
- Ravaja, N. (2004) Contributions of psychophysiology to media research: review and recommendations. *Media Psychology* 6, 193–235.
- Ravaja, N. and Kallinen, K. (2005) Effects of the rate of computer-mediated speech on emotion-related subjective and physiological responses. *Behaviour & Information Technology* 24, 365–373.
- Ravaja, N. and Somervuori, O. (2013) Purchase behavior and psychophysiological responses to different price levels. *Psychology & Marketing* 30, 479–489.
- Scott, N., Green, C. and Fairley, S. (2015) Investigation of the use of eye tracking to examine tourism advertising effectiveness. *Current Issues in Tourism*. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2014.1003797
- Tassinari, L.G., Cacioppo, J.T. and Vanman, E.J. (2007) The skeletomotor system: surface. *Handbook of Psychophysiology* 267. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Tung, V.W.S. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (2011) Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research* 38, 1367–1386.
- Van Boxtel, A. (2010) Facial EMG as a tool for inferring affective states. *Proceedings of Measuring Behavior*. Noldus Information Technology, Wageningen, Netherlands, pp. 104–108.
- Walters, G. and Sparks, B. (2012) The impact of consumption vision and emotion on the tourism consumer's decision behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 36, 366–389.
- Wang, Y. and Sparks, B.A. (2015) An eye-tracking study of tourism photo stimuli: image characteristics and ethnicity. *Journal of Travel Research*. Available at: www98.griffith.edu.au/dspace/bitstream/10072/68917/1/99648_1.pdf (accessed 22 June 2017).
- Wang, Y.J. and Minor, M.S. (2008) Validity, reliability, and applicability of psychophysiological techniques in marketing research. *Psychology & Marketing* 25, 197–232.
- Watson, D., Clark, L.A. and Tellegen, A. (1988) Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 54, 1063–1070.
- Winkielman, P. and Berridge, K.C. (2004) Unconscious emotion. *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 13, 120–123.

9

Innovative Approaches to Researching Consumer Experience: An Evaluation and Comparison

YING WANG,* WEI LIU AND BEVERLEY SPARKS

Griffith University, Southport, Australia

9.1 Introduction

In this chapter we explore tourism as a highly personal product in which each person's experience will be unique. Tourist experience is multifaceted and variable across time. Past research in tourism has mostly relied on both qualitative (e.g. interviews) and quantitative (e.g. questionnaires) approaches to investigate experience. As a result, considerable self-report information based on recall has dominated what is known about tourist experiences. This is helpful, but it is important that we discuss the role of multiple underused methods to develop a greater understanding of customer experience. Thus, we seek to broaden the approach to researching consumer experience through a discussion of multiple methods. The methods we review and evaluate include eye tracking, experience sampling method and photo elicitation. This chapter reviews each method, providing details on the advantages and disadvantages, and highlighting examples from the literature.

Customer experience is based on interactions (Gentile *et al.*, 2007) with places, firms, community, attractions, service personnel and customers. Importantly, as Verhoef *et al.* (2009) argue, customer experience can encompass the search phase as well as consumption and after-sales experiences. Customer experience is highly individual, with no two people necessarily having exactly the same experience, despite being in the same location.

An experience occurs when the individual comes into contact with the tourist destination or an entity associated with the destination. Thus, for any individual tourist, there will be a multitude of touch points at which an experience may become memorable. For our purposes, we define tourist experience as the process of interacting with the world while away from home (on a holiday). It will involve the process of doing and seeing things over a period of time. Some experiences will be ordinary,

*Corresponding author e-mail: ying.wang@griffith.edu.au

while others may be extraordinary (Walls *et al.*, 2011). The experience will be accompanied by a response of a cognitive or emotional kind (Gentile *et al.*, 2007).

In trying to gain deeper insights into the tourist experience, various methods may offer different sorts of insight. In this chapter, we posit that eye tracking, the experience sampling method (ESM) and photo elicitation are powerful yet under-used methods for investigating tourist experience.

9.2 Eye Tracking and Tourist Experience

Individuals' holiday consumption experiences start from the moment they search for travel-related information and plan an itinerary. The actual experience of tourism destination or product then follows. The eye tracking methodology can assist to gain insights into holiday experiences. The methodology's greatest potential lies in its ability to capture individuals' visual attention during an experience that traditional methods of interview and survey are not able to capture. Eye tracking can be used in both qualitative and quantitative studies, and in both exploratory and more theoretically founded studies.

9.2.1 Definitions of this method

Eye tracking is a research tool for measuring visual attention and cognitive effort that are believed to influence consumer perceptions, preferences and purchase decisions (Wedel and Pieters, 2008; Wang and Sparks, 2014). The method has been widely used for understanding cognitive process, user experiences and marketing effectiveness. Advances in technology have made different types of non-intrusive eye tracking equipment available for research purposes. Such equipment directly captures participants' eye movement, which is indicative of where their attention is directed (Duchowski, 2007).

9.2.2 Application to tourist experience

Eye tracking research is predominantly undertaken in the fields of marketing, cognitive science, psychology, human-computer interaction (HCI) and medical research, with little application to tourism so far. Wang and Sparks (2014) used eye tracking methodology to understand the appeal of tourism images to potential travellers. Their study, grounded on the theories of human-environment interactions and environmental aesthetics, compared the visual attentions of Chinese and Australians, and concluded that visual attention patterns vary with image characteristics and participant groups.

Scott *et al.* (2015) used eye tracking to investigate tourism advertising effectiveness, comparing two designs: block advertising and text advertising. The participants found the block design to be more effective in engaging attention and more likable than the text advertising style. Two further studies focused on eTourism (electronic tourism) sites. To understand online hotel choice, Pan *et al.* (2013) examined how

much attention consumers paid to the hotels listed on simulated search pages, as well as how attention is associated with the size of the hotel choice set (i.e. the number of hotels in the choice set), presence of images and decision making. Similarly, Hernández-Méndez and Muñoz-Leiva (2015) conducted an eye tracking study that investigated the effectiveness of advertising on tourism and hospitality sites. It is worth noting that all four studies used a triangulated approach, combining eye tracking with self-report data and focusing on tourists' trip planning experience.

Eye tracking can be applied to any activity with a visual component. Tourists use their eyes to read and evaluate tourism promotional materials, travel magazines, destination and hotel websites in the travel planning phase. They use their eyes to survey the surroundings, find directions and enjoy sceneries during the experience. After the trip they leave comments on review sites, going through photos and videos taken during the trip and sharing their own travel stories via social media. Despite its wide applicability, eye tracking has gained little traction in the tourism and hospitality field, with the few exceptions mentioned above.

9.2.3 Conducting eye tracking research

Eye tracking methodology presents both opportunities and challenges in research. This section discusses several key considerations in implementing such methodology in tourism experience studies.

9.2.4 Device

Eye tracking research is relatively expensive and requires specialist equipment, but recent technological advances have led to the development of relatively low-cost and user-friendly systems. A range of eye tracking devices is available for commercial and research purposes. The devices commonly use infrared corneal reflection methodology, whereby infrared lights create reflection patterns on the corneas of participants' eyes. These reflection patterns are collected by infrared sensors built in the eye tracker to measure the distance and angle of the reflection from the centre of the pupil to determine the points on the visual stimulus that the eyes gazed upon (Wedel and Pieters, 2008). Wang and Sparks (2014) used such a device: the table-mounted Tobii T120 Eye tracker (Tobii Technology AB, Sweden) integrated into a 17-inch monitor. A table-mounted eye tracker requires participants to sit in front of a screen, and participants viewed stimulus materials on the monitor as if they were reading from a computer screen. Its stationary nature requires a typical experiment-like setting, which has restricted its usability for social science research (Eghbal-Azar and Widlok, 2012). So far most studies using such devices have focused on tourist experiences at the planning and decision making phase of a trip.

Recently developed mobile eye trackers can extend research into *in situ* experiences. A mobile device is mounted on the participant's head, allowing them to move around freely and engage in various tasks (Eghbal-Azar and Widlok, 2012). Some

examples of mobile devices include the ASL MobileEye, Locarna PT Mini, and Tobii Glasses. The availability of these devices makes eye tracking a highly feasible methodology for tourist experience research in a field research setting. For instance, a participant can wear the Tobii Glasses to a tourist information centre, a theme park, a hotel room or a souvenir shop. The participant's interactions with the setting and its components can be captured in full by the eye tracker, enabling a deeper understanding of how tourists interact with their surroundings while experiencing a tourist product. Mobile devices can be expensive and require considerable expertise to operate. For instance, using one in a natural outdoor setting poses additional difficulties for researchers and requires procedures different from the routines for indoor settings (Evans *et al.*, 2012). Each eye tracking method has its advantages and disadvantages; the choice of the device depends on considerations such as cost, application and existing expertise within the research team.

9.2.5 Procedure

Controlled experiments are the primary method employed in eye tracking studies (Raschke *et al.*, 2014). However, the method can also be used in research of an exploratory nature; for instance, to discover browsing and viewing patterns on a destination website. With a table-mounted eye tracker, researchers choose/design the stimulus materials in a way that is similar to that for non-eye tracking studies. Stimulus materials are then displayed on the eye tracker screen. Participants are taken through a calibration procedure where they are required to look at a sequence of visible points so the eye tracker can collect and analyse the inherent characteristics of the eyes; these are needed to estimate an individual's gaze. Once participants' eyes are calibrated, the experiment can commence and eye tracking recording starts (Duchowski, 2007).

9.2.6 Sample size

As in any type of research, the sample size is dictated by the research objective and design, planned statistical test and desired outputs. In usability research, the required sample size varies from six for qualitative eye tracking (watching gazing replays) to 39 for eye tracking aiming at generating reliable heat maps, which visually represent where participants concentrated their gazes (Pernice and Nielsen, 2009). Eye tracking experiments need to consider the number of conditions being tested to determine the sample size that would produce results with statistical validity. That said, eye tracking research tends to have a small sample size, partly because of the resource and logistic challenges it presents. Participant recruitment can be challenging as an eye tracking data collection session with a single participant typically last more than 30 min in addition to participants' time and cost of travelling to the research laboratory (Wang and Sparks, 2014). Due to the small sample size, these studies have relatively low statistical power (Wang and Sparks, 2014) and there is a risk that findings may be influenced by sampling error (Gegenfurtner *et al.*, 2011).

9.2.7 Measurement

There is a vast choice of measures available to eye tracking researchers, which Holmqvist *et al.* (2011) group into movement, position, numerosity, latency and distance measures. However, the eye tracking measures most commonly reported by researchers include a limited few related to either fixation or saccade. Fixation refers to a scene within the stimulus that a participant's eyes fixate upon, typically lasting around 200–500 millisecond (ms). Fixation is usually an indication of information processing or cognitive activities. It is believed that the information from the stimulus is mainly acquired during fixations. Therefore, measures of fixation durations and counts (number of fixations) reflect the participant's attention focus within the stimulus, revealing what might be the most dominant scenes within the stimulus. In contrast, saccades are the rapid eye movements that occur between fixations. Patterns of saccades reveal the flow of eye gaze or the sequence, in which scenes within the stimulus are perceived, reflecting the participant's spatial attention (Wang and Sparks, 2014).

9.2.8 Analysis

Eye trackers commonly come with software suites. The embedded statistical tool can calculate a wide range of measures such as fixation durations, fixation counts, time to first fixation, and percentage fixated for the entire stimulus or for an area within the stimulus of particular interest to the researchers. These measures can also be produced for one participant or a group of participants. Researchers can also export the raw data or filtered data for further analysis in Microsoft Excel, IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Matrix Laboratory (MATLAB®) or other statistical software packages. In addition, the software suites produce visualizations of the eye tracking data including heat maps and gaze plots. The former uses different colours to show the different levels of fixations paid to particular visual components. The gaze plot shows dots (fixations) and lines (saccades) connecting the fixations. Dots are typically numbered to show the order in which they are paid attention to; their sizes vary in accordance with the duration of the fixations. These visual illustrations can effectively assist the communication of research findings, particularly in oral presentations and to industry practitioners. Qualitative research is also common, especially in usability studies where researchers inspect individual participants' gaze plots and scan paths to identify patterns. The drawback of such analysis is that it is very time consuming (Pernice and Nielsen, 2009).

9.2.9 Interpretation

Cognitive processes are complex and, so far, research has only been able to ascertain some associations between eye movement and cognitive process. For instance, fixations are typically linked to attention; while, in reading tasks, regressive saccades indicate comprehension difficulty. Clusters of fixations can tell us what components

of stimulus material participants look at. The durations of fixations offer information for understanding whether a participant pays particular attention to a visual element within the stimulus. Saccadic patterns depict the order in which visual elements within a stimulus are viewed by a participant; this reflects the visual hierarchy of the stimulus and the participant's process of interpretation.

Although eye tracking measures can tell us what participants look at within a scene and how they look at the scene, these measures do not explain why participants look at the scene in particular ways. Are participants interested in the scene or confused by the scene? Similarly, eye tracking does not reveal whether participants evaluated the scene positively or negatively. Therefore, interpretations of eye tracking measures need to be conducted in the context of data collected in other research methods. It is crucial that an eye tracking study is combined with other methods, such as interviews, to gain a better understanding of the participants' experience.

9.2.10 Research questions into customer experience best answered by eye tracking method

Eye tracking is an effective tool for experience design, but so far its use in tourism and hospitality has been restricted to customer experience in the planning phase of a trip. With the increasing availability of mobile eye tracking technologies such as Tobii Glasses, eye tracking can greatly assist experience design at the *in situ* level.

The following are examples of questions that the eye tracking method can assist in answering:

- Tourism marketing is understood as highly emotional and experience based. Is visual processing of tourism marketing materials different from that of other types of materials?
- What types of design and content are associated with greater attention, higher levels of engagement, positive evaluation, intention to purchase and recall?
- Are visual attention patterns associated with emotions during on-site experience?
- How do tourists experience a tourist attraction/destination (e.g. which sections/features of the attraction/destination attract their attention)?
- Are there differences in the attention patterns between groups of tourists?
- How does attention pattern vary based on the type of attractions (e.g. high versus low arousal attractions)?

9.2.11 Summary of eye tracking method

Eye tracking measures are objective and capable of capturing real-time data about visual attention (Wedel and Pieters, 2008). This gives eye tracking an advantage over self-report methods such as questionnaires and interviews, which suffer from recall bias and other deficiencies. Eye tracking has been used to understand customer experience in the trip planning phase, but has great potential for investigations of on-site experiences.

9.3 Experience Sampling Method and Tourist Experience

Individuals undertaking travel and tourism activities will have thousands of micro-experiences that result in various evaluation outcomes. Every day, tourists attempt to make sense of a range of interactive touch points that may involve planning, consuming and evaluating micro- (e.g. day tours) and macro- (e.g. total vacation) tourism associated events. The experience sampling method (ESM) can assist researchers in getting closer measures of the tourists' ongoing experience. This method is most useful when investigating the *in situ* experiences of the tourist.

9.3.1 Definition of this method

Experience-based sampling is a research method that takes regular measures of a person's experience over a defined time period. Thus, in tourism research, ESM enables the researcher to capture a tourist's momentary experience in the naturally occurring environment throughout a specified period of time. As data collected can be predominantly quantitative or qualitative, the objectives and philosophy of using this approach may vary. Many ESM studies take an *a priori* positivist approach to the data collections. These studies (e.g. Kuppens *et al.*, 2012) are closely based on theoretically grounded hypotheses. In contrast, some researchers may prefer a more exploratory approach and use an ESM to collect more qualitative diary entries to describe events and experiences as they occur. In this chapter, ESM refers to studies collecting qualitative and quantitative data on a time-based period with a focus on experience data.

9.3.2 Application to tourist experience

The ESM method is beneficial because it overcomes recall or memory bias. To date, very few studies in tourism have applied an ESM approach. A recent study by Cutler *et al.* (2014) applied a qualitative ESM method to better understand the journey of the Inca Train experience. Similarly, research by Liu *et al.* (2015a) investigated people's experiences at a food and wine event using a quantitative ESM method. Another study, (Lin *et al.*, 2014) used an ESM approach to investigate the change in tourist emotions during a holiday.

9.3.3 Conducting the experience sampling method

Conducting an ESM is reasonably complicated and requires a number of considerations to be taken into account before implementing it in a study. This section highlights the major issues that need to be considered in the context of tourism experiences. Like all good research, the first step is to consider the research questions and underlying conceptual framework.

9.3.4 Measurement

First, bear in mind that in ESM the participant will be responding to a set of questions on multiple occasions over a period of time. As a result, this approach generally dictates a smaller number of items that can be measured at each data collection point. Normally, researchers use multiple items of a construct to better reflect what it means and to argue for a more reliable measure; it can be argued that reliability can be achieved in ESM using a within-subject approach. Thus, in ESM a researcher might only have one item versus five items that may be used in a larger one-shot survey (see Scollon *et al.*, 2009).

9.3.5 Timing

There are several considerations to take into account in relation to timing:

1. How many times will the participant be signalled in a day?
2. How will they be signalled?
3. When responding, what time frame will be used?

It is important to provide a useful time frame; some suggest 30 min and others have taken a momentary measure and a scale to measure existence over the last 30 min (Schimmack, 2003).

As illustrated in Fig. 9.1, in deciding the best approach to adopt, researchers will need to determine the exact research question and the context of the study.

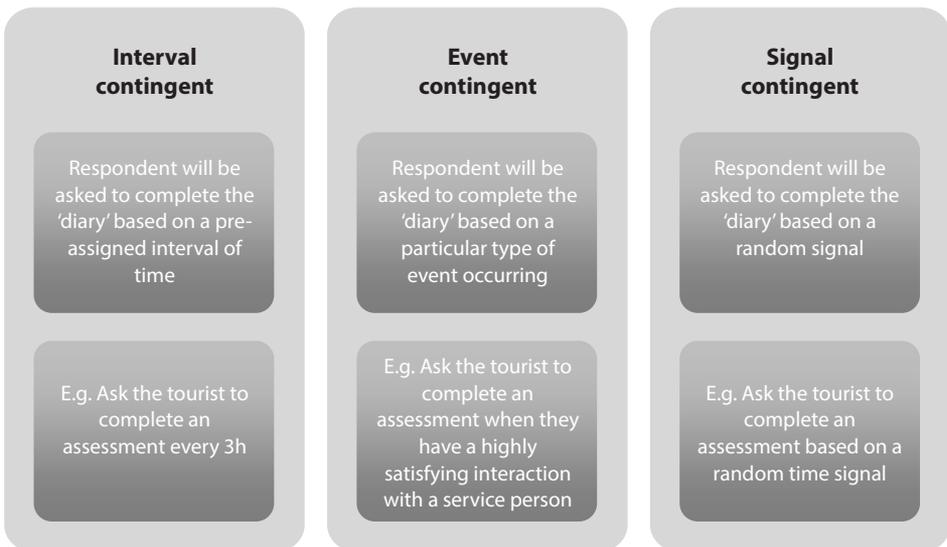


Fig. 9.1. Types of experience sampling method.

A time-based (interval contingent) approach has the advantage of letting the participant know when to expect to receive a signal notifying them it is time to complete the questionnaire. Similarly, if the aim of the study is to investigate a particular event, then the event can be used as the signal and the participant will complete the questions shortly after the event has taken place. Signalling for data collection on a random basis (signal contingent) throughout the time period is appealing but, if the data collection context is noisy, then this may not be appropriate.

9.3.6 Instrument

Traditionally, paper and pencil diaries were used to carry out an ESM. However, more recent technology advancements have led to personal handheld devices or smartphones being widely used. It is also possible to use an online survey software such as Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com). Conner (2014) provides an extensive list of ESM options for the interested reader to explore further. Our experience (Liu *et al.*, 2015a) has been with MetricWire (www.metricwire.com), which involves participants downloading an application to their smartphone. The researcher needs to set up an account with MetricWire and then uses a dashboard to set up, invite and monitor the study. The use of MetricWire, as well as that of other apps, requires careful briefing/training of participants.

9.3.7 Implementation

When implementing a tourism experience study using ESM there is a need for a high level of commitment from participants, as the task is reasonably onerous. The use of participant payment or incentives is quite common. An advantage of using an app such as MetricWire allows the researcher to monitor the participant's progress in real time and send reminders via email or SMS. A sampling period of a number of days or number of events needs to be predetermined, as does the number of times per day for the set period.

Figure 9.2 demonstrates how a study measuring emotional responses and cognitive appraisals during a day can be measured, including an overall end of day measure. This process could be undertaken for a designated period of time such as 5 days.

9.3.8 Analysing ESM

Hektner *et al.* (2007) suggest various ways to analyse ESM data. Most frequently these data are analysed at the response level (each data collection interval). This would mean the focus of the analysis is on the activity occurring when the sample is taken. For example, this could be all tourists who are checking into a hotel or all tourists who are engaging in tourist activity, for instance at a restaurant, theme park or nature reserve. Alternatively, it is possible to analyse data at a personal level, identifying patterns associated with the selected sample. If the data set is sufficiently large then multilevel data analysis could be undertaken. However, it is beyond the scope of this chapter to review this statistical approach.

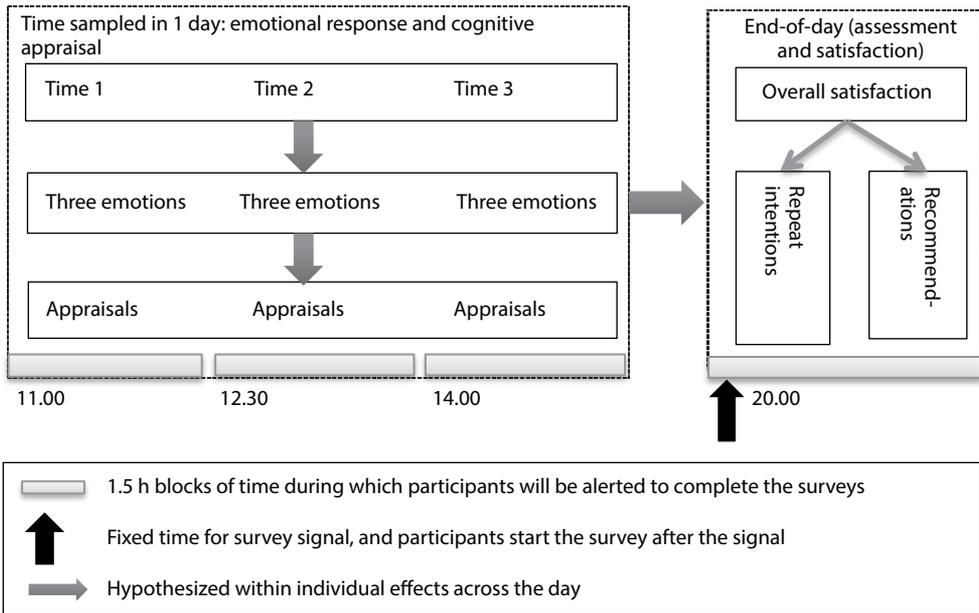


Fig. 9.2. Graphic representation of a possible experience sampling method schedule. Adapted from Dimotakis *et al.* (2013).

Finally, in considering the analyses of the data, Hektner *et al.* (2007) argue that there is no one correct way to analyse ESM data, and recommend using basic statistics at the response and/or personal level. Furthermore, they argue for presenting useful case level data to fully understand the experiences people report upon in the sample period. In tourism-related literature, we found examples of ESM data being analysed using content analysis for qualitative data; and correlations, regression and repeated measure ANOVA for quantitative data.

9.3.9 Research questions into customer experience best answered by this method

The research questions that rely on gaining insight at the *in situ* level are clearly the most suitable for this method. The possibilities are wide and dependent on what theoretical questions are proposed. However, here are some sample questions that could benefit from an ESM approach:

- What tourist experiences are associated with positive moods, emotions and satisfaction?
- How do the experiences of ‘a day in the life of a tourist’ contribute to overall satisfaction?
- How do moments of co-creation events contribute to perceived value?
- Does having a companion enhance tourist experiences?

9.3.10 Summary conclusion for ESM

ESM offers the researcher a chance to investigate more momentary-level tourist experiences in the field. However, the method is time and resource heavy so it is important to be sure the approach will yield answers to the research questions proposed. Research by Cutler *et al.* (2014) and Liu *et al.* (2015a) demonstrate that ESM is a valuable method for monitoring and investigating the journey of tourists and event attendees.

9.4 Photo Elicitation and Tourist Experience

Photography and tourism are widely considered to be intrinsically linked (Garrod, 2009). Taking photos is an inherent part of tourist activity, since tourists use it to record their memorable experiences during travel. As stated by Cederholm (2004), photos help tourists remember the thoughts and emotions they had when they took the pictures. Therefore, a number of researchers (e.g. Matteucci, 2013; Balomenou and Garrod, 2014) have argued for the use of photos as a fun, creative and innovative research method, which can be used to obtain a better understanding of the momentary occurrences that add to tourist experience.

9.4.1 Definition of this method

Photo elicitation (PE) is a visual research technique and entails using photos as stimulus material for aiding recall and/or encouraging reflection and response from participants (Harper, 1986; Hurworth, 2003). The advantages of introducing photos into the research setting have been well documented in many studies. For instance, photos provide the opportunity to explore respondents' social and personal meanings as well as values by their response to images (Pink, 2013; Tinkler, 2013). Importantly, Scarles (2011) argues that the interest of this type of approach lies not only in the visuals themselves, but how the visuals can be combined with other techniques, such as interviewing and surveys, as a means of furthering communication and opportunities for respondents to express and explore experiences of particular research phenomena.

9.4.2 Application to tourist experience

Early tourism studies have been undertaken by making use of visual materials collected in holiday brochures (Pritchard, 2001; Scarles, 2004), postcards (Albers and James, 1988; Markwick, 2001) or other tourism marketing tools. In recent years, more studies have employed images that have been produced either by respondents or by researchers in the tourism context. For instance, Matteucci (2013) explored tourist experiences by using images collected by the researcher. By applying the photo elicitation technique, Andersson *et al.* (2015) investigated how photos communicate

messages to food lovers' preferences for travel experiences. Smith *et al.* (2015) examined the evolution of images taken throughout the trip by inviting participants to use smartphones to record images and their associated perceptions. Liu *et al.* (2014, 2015b) employed photo elicitation to investigate tourism and food events, finding the method provided rich visual and narrative data for more holistic and *in situ* insight into customer experience. The focus of photo elicitation for this chapter is on participant-generated images as a way to gain insight into the experience of the customer.

9.4.3 Conducting the photo elicitation method

Like any research method, the use of PE requires careful consideration of a number of key research decisions, including device selection, extent of instructions, ethical consideration and sample size.

9.4.4 Device selection

The access to a device (single-use camera, digital camera, smartphone, tablet) is required as part of the equipment for PE. Traditionally PE studies have relied on single-use camera or digital camera. However, recent technological advances have meant that smartphones are equipped with cameras that are of good quality and easy to use. Importantly, the adoption of smartphones is widespread, meaning that most adults have a device that can be used to take photos. Liu *et al.* (2014) found that smartphone cameras for data collection were superior to single-use camera in several respects: (i) it is relatively easy for participants to take as many pictures as they want by using a smartphone; (ii) participants can check the quality of pictures at the time; and (iii) smartphone users can easily share pictures with the researcher by email, Multimedia Messaging Service (MMS) or any mobile message application such as WhatsApp, Wechat or FB messenger (instant messaging apps), which can save a lot of time and money.

9.4.5 Extent of instructions

Another important decision in PE studies is the extent of instructions given to participants (e.g. Scarles, 2011). PE studies provide opportunities for participants to produce their own images and this can be influenced by specific requests from researchers (i.e. number of photos, content of photos, photographing within a particular time frame). Therefore, researchers have to decide how detailed and structured the requests should be (Scarles, 2011). Tinkler (2013) advises that the choice of approach will largely depend on the research questions to be answered and the researcher's philosophical approach. Liu *et al.* (2014) found that participants required at least a minimal level of structured instructions in order to go forward and complete the research project.

9.4.6 Ethical consideration

PE studies often ask the participant to take photos as recordings of their experiences and so may be subject to certain sensitivities. Therefore, ethical requirements for this type of study need to be taken into consideration (e.g. Epstein *et al.*, 2008; Prosser *et al.*, 2008). Careful consideration of ethical issues prior to commencing data collection is necessary to prevent any issues arising over the use of images in a research context. The main ethical consideration for tourism researchers wishing to adopt PE is likely to be around the issue of privacy. Options include instructing participants on care when photographing, signing over the image copyright and agreement to conceal the identity of any people in the photo (e.g. blur out the face).

9.4.7 Sample size

PE studies normally end up with a small sample size (e.g. Pullman and Robson, 2007) because of the significant time required by participants to engage in the photography of everyday life and specific experiences, the logistics of recruiting and briefing people for the study and the desire to conduct follow-up interviews. Furthermore, participants in PE studies submit several photos, meaning that data analysis can be quite time consuming. For instance, 20 respondents can easily generate in excess of 200 images to be analysed. Additionally, using the photos as an elicitation technique in follow-up interviews will also make it difficult to employ large samples, unless the research has a large budget.

9.4.8 Analysing photo elicitation data

The analysis of PE data normally involves four steps: (i) analysis of photos; (ii) analysis of narratives (written or interview data); (iii) analysis of any associated quantitative data; and (iv) synthesis of data.

9.4.9 Analysis of photos

Chambers (2012) suggests that data derived from graphic sources are subjective and can be analysed using a wide range of techniques. Basically, the analysis starts with a content analysis of the collected images, based on the dominant foreground focus of each image. This approach is quite similar to the analysis of verbal data drawn from open-ended questions, interviews or focus groups (Pullman and Robson, 2007). By coding images, the researcher derives a set of descriptive labels or categories for the images. This provides an overview of the photos taken by participants and what subjects are important to the sample.

9.4.10 Analysis of narratives (written or interview data)

A researcher's interpretation of a chosen photo has limitations, as only the photographer can explain the meaning behind the photo and the reasons why she or he took it (Pullman and Robson, 2007). This relies on the narratives written by the respondent to elaborate on the meaning of the photo, as a way to gain insight into how people construct their experiences. Therefore, the second step of data analysis is reviewing the narratives for significant phrases or sentences and applying an open coding process using the comments of each participant that pertain to their experiences.

9.4.11 Analysis of associated quantitative data

Pullman and Robson (2007) suggest that, provided sample sizes are sufficient, the photographic data collection – accompanied by a few basic quantitative survey questions – can allow the researcher to relate measures of process evaluations, overall satisfaction and loyalty to the photographic content analysis. Using this approach, researchers can determine whether the frequency of certain visual images is significantly related to overall outcome measures, such as satisfaction and loyalty.

9.4.12 Synthesis of data

In the last step, analyses of images, narratives about each image and any associated quantitative data are combined to gain a better understanding of tourists' momentary experiences that are represented in the photos. This is a reliable technique for capturing tourists' *in situ*, lived experiences, as it stimulates deep reflection and produces rich data. The use of photos forms a bridge between experience and recall and has the potential to create an enjoyable experience for participants (Liu *et al.*, 2014).

9.4.13 Research questions into customer experience best answered by photo elicitation

Some example questions that could benefit from the PE approach include:

- What object(s) make a significant impression on tourists?
- What types of meaning do tourists assign to visual images?
- How can images be related to other quantitative measures such as overall satisfaction with the experience or intention to return?
- What can we learn through the analysis of photos that would not have been revealed through other methods?

9.4.14 Summary conclusion for photo elicitation

PE provides a creative and innovative research approach to investigate tourist experience from the holistic perspective. It can inform us, in the participant's own voice, of what they are doing, thinking and feeling, and how they are perceiving their social and physical environment, which a numerical table or stand-alone interview could not. More importantly, this approach demonstrates that taking a photo in the moment, and using a mobile method to capture experiences, enables people to record all sorts of experiences, furthering our understanding of the dynamic nature of experience.

9.5 Conclusion

Customer experience research in the tourism and hospitality domains has relied primarily on traditional methods of data collection such as interviews, questionnaires and surveys, and observation methods. These methods offer low-cost options as a means of collecting data and understanding tourist experience. However, they cannot capture experiences accurately as they suffer from various biases such as recall difficulties and social desirability bias. This chapter provides an overview of three innovative methods for customer experience research: (i) eye tracking; (ii) experience-based sampling; and (iii) PE. For each method we present the definition, application to tourism experiences and the key issues to consider in the implementation of the method. Table 9.1 offers a quick comparison of the three methods in terms of their applicability to various research situations.

Eye tracking generates invaluable insights into the cognitive processes of tourists and can be used to optimize performance of tourism advertising and experience

Table 9.1. Comparison of methods.

Method	Applicability to experience research			Considerations in implementation			
	Trip planning and purchase experience	In situ experiences	Post-trip reflective experiences	Cost	Specialist equipment	Sample size	Key advantages
Eye tracking	√√√	√		High	√√√	Small	Capture real-time objective attentional data
Experience sampling	√	√√√		Medium to high	√	Small to medium	Document changes in feeling and emotion
Photo elicitation		√	√√√	Medium to high	√	Small	Aid recall and reflection

√ = some applicability; √√√ = high level of applicability

delivery. However, eye tracking also requires specialist equipment and expertise. Experience-based sampling enables tourists' momentary experiences to be captured in the naturally occurring environment, throughout a specified period of time. PE offers an opportunity to capture the dynamics of tourist experience by using photos to elicit recall of the experience and encourage reflection of meaningful moments and events. This chapter identifies areas of research that would benefit from these methods.

The methods described here allow tourism researchers to better probe into complex customer experiences by capturing experiences at the time they take place and by encouraging recall and reflection. Given the limited space, this chapter cannot include all innovative methods, but we would like to acknowledge that approaches such as psychophysiological analysis (e.g. electro-dermal measures, vascular measures) are also exciting methodological avenues for future customer experience research (Kim and Fesenmaier, 2014; Li *et al.*, 2014).

References

- Albers, P.C. and James, W.R. (1988) Travel photography: a methodological approach. *Annals of Tourism Research* 15, 134–158.
- Andersson, T.D., Getz, D., Vujicic, S., Robinson, R.N. and Cavicchi, A. (2015) Preferred travel experiences of foodies: an application of photo elicitation. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 1–13.
- Balomenou, N. and Garrod, B. (2014) Using volunteer-employed photography to inform tourism planning decisions: a study of St David's Peninsula, Wales. *Tourism Management* 44, 126–139.
- Cederholm, E.A. (2004) The use of photo-elicitation in tourism research – framing the backpacker experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 4, 225–241.
- Chambers, D. (2012) The (in)discipline of visual tourism research. In: Rakić, T. and Chambers, D. (eds) *An Introduction to Visual Research Methods in Tourism*. Routledge, New York.
- Conner, T.S. (2014) Experience sampling and ecological momentary assessment with mobile phones. University of Otago, Otago, New Zealand. Available at: <http://www.otago.ac.nz/psychology/otago047475.pdf> (accessed 30 December 2014).
- Cutler, S.Q., Carmichael, B. and Doherty, S. (2014) The Inca Trail experience: Does the journey matter? *Annals of Tourism Research* 45, 152–166.
- Dimotakis, N., Iliis, R. and Judge, T.A. (2013) Experience sampling methodology. In: Cortina, J.M. and Landis, R.S. (eds) *Modern Research Methods for the Study of Behavior in Organizations*. Routledge, New York.
- Duchowski, A. (2007) *Eye Tracking Methodology: Theory and Practice*. Springer Science & Business Media, London.
- Eghbal-Azar, K. and Widlok, T. (2012) Potentials and limitations of mobile eye tracking in visitor studies: evidence from field research at two museum exhibitions in Germany. *Social Science Computer Review* 31, 103–118.
- Epstein, I., Stevens, B., McKeever, P. and Baruchel, S. (2008) Photo elicitation interview (PEI): using photos to elicit children's perspectives. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods* 5, 1–11.
- Evans, K.M., Jacobs, R.A., Tarduno, J.A. and Pelz, J.B. (2012) Collecting and analyzing eye tracking data in outdoor environments. *Journal of Eye Movement Research* 5, 1–19.
- Garrod, B. (2009) Understanding the relationship between tourism destination imagery and tourist photography. *Journal of Travel Research* 47, 346–358.
- Gegenfurtner, A., Lehtinen, E. and Säljö, R. (2011) Expertise differences in the comprehension of visualizations: a meta-analysis of eye-tracking research in professional domains. *Educational Psychology Review* 23, 523–552.

- Gentile, C., Spiller, N. and Noci, G. (2007) How to sustain the customer experience: an overview of experience components that co-create value with the customer. *European Management Journal* 25, 395–410.
- Harper, D. (1986) Meaning and work: a study in photo elicitation. *Current Sociology* 34, 24–46.
- Hektner, J.M., Schmidt, J.A. and Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2007) *Experience Sampling Method: Measuring the Quality of Everyday Life*. Sage, New York.
- Hernández-Méndez, J. and Muñoz-Leiva, F. (2015). What type of online advertising is most effective for eTourism 2.0? An eye tracking study based on the characteristics of tourists. *Computers in Human Behavior* 50, 618–625.
- Holmqvist, K., Nyström, M., Andersson, R., Dewhurst, R., Jarodzka, H. et al. (2011) *Eye Tracking: A Comprehensive Guide to Methods and Measures*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- Hurworth, R. (2003) Photo-interviewing for research. In: Gilbert, N. (ed.) *Social Research UPDATE*. Department of Sociology, University of Surrey, Guildford, UK.
- Kim, J.J. and Fesenmaier, D.R. (2014) Measuring emotions in real time: implications for tourism experience design. *Journal of Travel Research* 1–11.
- Kuppens, P., Champagne, D. and Tuerlinckx, F. (2012) The dynamic interplay between appraisal and core affect in daily life. *Frontiers in Psychology* 3, 1–8.
- Li, S., Scott, N. and Walters, G. (2014) Current and potential methods for measuring emotion in tourism experiences: a review. *Current Issues in Tourism* 1–23.
- Lin, Y., Kerstetter, D., Nawijn, J. and Mitas, O. (2014) 'Changes in emotions and their interactions with personality in a vacation context'. *Tourism Management* 40, 416–424.
- Liu, W., Sparks, B.A. and Coghlan, A. (2014) Using photo elicitation to understand customer experiences: some lessons learned. ACSPRI Social Science Methodology Conference 2014. Sydney, Australia.
- Liu, W., Sparks, B.A. and Coghlan, A. (2015a) Measuring customer experience in situ: the link between appraisals and emotions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 59, 42–49.
- Liu, W., Sparks, B.A. and Coghlan, A. (2015b) Discovery, inspiration and fun: a photo journey through the lens of the customer. 14th International Research Symposium on Service Excellence in Management (QUIS14). Shanghai, China.
- Markwick, M. (2001) Postcards from Malta: image, consumption, context. *Annals of Tourism Research* 28, 417–438.
- Matteucci, X. (2013) Photo elicitation: exploring tourist experiences with researcher-found images. *Tourism Management* 35, 190–197.
- Pan, B., Zhang, L.X. and Law, R. (2013) The complex matter of online hotel choice. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly* 54, 74–83.
- Pernice, K. and Nielsen, J. (2009) *Eyetracking Methodology: How to Conduct and Evaluate Usability Studies Using Eyetracking*. Nielsen Norman Group, Fremont, California.
- Pink, S. (2013) *Doing Visual Ethnograph*. Sage, London.
- Pritchard, A. (2001) Tourism and representation: a scale for measuring gendered portrayals. *Leisure Studies* 20, 79–94.
- Prosser, J., Clark, A. and Wiles, R. (2008) Visual ethics: ethical issues in visual research. ESRC National Centre for Research Methods Review Paper. Economic and Social Research Council, Southampton, UK.
- Pullman, M.E. and Robson, S.K.A. (2007) Visual methods: using photographs to capture customers' experience with design. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 48, 121–144.
- Raschke, M., Blaschke, T. and Burch, M. (2014) Visual analysis of eye tracking data. In: Huang, W. (ed.) *Handbook of Human Centric Visualization*. Springer, New York.
- Scarles, C. (2004) Mediating landscapes: the processes and practices of image construction in tourist brochures of Scotland. *Tourist Studies* 4, 43–67.

- Scarles, C. (2011) Eliciting embodied knowledge and response: respondent-led photography and visual autoethnography. In: Rakić, T.C.D. (ed.) *An Introduction to Visual Research Methods in Tourism*. Routledge, New York.
- Schimmack, U. (2003) Affect measurement in experience sampling research. *Journal of Happiness Studies* 4, 79–106.
- Scollon, C.N., Prieto, C.-K. and Diener, E. (2009) Experience sampling: promises and pitfalls, strength and weaknesses. *Journal of Happiness Studies* 4, 5–14.
- Scott, N., Green, C. and Fairley, S. (2015) Investigation of the use of eye tracking to examine tourism advertising effectiveness. *Current Issues in Tourism* 1–9.
- Smith, W.W., Li, X.R., Pan, B., Witte, M. and Doherty, S.T. (2015) Tracking destination image across the trip experience with smartphone technology. *Tourism Management* 48, 113–122.
- Tinkler, P. (2013) *Using Photographs in Social and Historical Research*. Sage, London.
- Verhoef, P.C., Lemon, K.N., Parasuraman, A., Roggeveen, A., Tsiros, M. et al. (2009) Customer experience creation: determinants, dynamics and management strategies. *Journal of Retailing* 85, 31–41.
- Walls, A.R., Okumus, F., Wang, Y.R. and Kwun, D.J.-W. (2011) An epistemological view of consumer experiences. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 30, 10–21.
- Wang, Y. and Sparks, B.A. (2014) An eye-tracking study of tourism photo stimuli image characteristics and ethnicity. *Journal of Travel Research* 1–15.
- Wedel, M. and Pieters, R. (2008) A review of eye-tracking research in marketing. In: Malhotra, N.K. (ed.) *Review of Marketing Research*. M.E. Sharpe, New York.

10 Perceived Value of Destination Experiences in Zhouzhuang, China

LIHUA GAO,¹ NOEL SCOTT^{2*} AND PEIYI DING²

¹Soochow University, Suzhou, China; ²Griffith University, Southport, Australia

10.1 Introduction

Tourism is at the forefront of the experience economy; as it ‘primarily sells a “staged” experience . . . tourism’s central productive activity [is] the creation of the touristic experience’ (Sternberg, 1997, pp. 952, 954). Most existing tourist experience research is focused on a particular site (Stokowski, 2002), such as a museum or hotel, or is related to a particular activity held in an outdoor location, such as snow skiing (Konu *et al.*, 2011), surfing (Ponting, 2009), or an event or festival (Emma and Per Olof, 2012). A destination, however, is regarded as the combination of a critical mass of interrelated and diverse elements or places (Gunn and Var, 2002), such as ‘stores, museums, cities, sporting arenas, shopping centres, neighbourhood parks and well-known tourist attractions’ (O’Dell, 2005, p. 15). Thus, tourist experiences in a destination may be expected to be more complex than those in a single geographical site.

It is notable that tourists visiting the same destination may have different experiences and obtain different outcomes. Actually, what tourists buy in their experiential consumption are not goods or services but the benefits and experiences that goods and services provide for them (Campbell, 1995); a shift from a focus on internal performance to a focus on external consequences is therefore required (Zehrer, 2009). The exploration of the emotional, symbolic and transformational significance of the experience for the individual tourist involved (i.e. customer value) has attracted growing attention from academics and practitioners (e.g. Duman and Mattila, 2005). Customer value is demonstrated as a multidimensional construct (e.g. Petrick, 2002). However, these various ‘individual dimensions are understood [only] as being independent of each other and as contributing different perceived benefits in specific situations’ (Graf and Maas, 2008, p. 8). In this case, no previous research has intentionally examined whether there are any links between the different types of customer value and how they link together. This study identifies tourists’ perceptions of value from

*Corresponding author e-mail: noel.scott@griffith.edu.au

their visit to Zhouzhuang, China. It aims to explore how the different types of value that tourists perceived during their experience in a destination are related.

10.2 Literature Review

10.2.1 Definition of customer value

There has been no consistent definition of customer value to date (Wang *et al.*, 2004), due to multiple influences from various fields. A fundamental base for the contemporary concept of customer value was developed by Zeithaml (1988). She constructed a means-end model and defined customer value as a bidirectional trade-off involving 'the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given' (p. 14). She further suggested that situational or contextual factors affect customer value, subject to the influence of a consumer's reference frame. Zeithaml's (1988) 'give' versus 'get' definition leads to interest in the composite nature of customer value, and was further extended to include what customers get (benefits, quality, worth, utility) from the purchase and use of a product versus what they pay (price, costs, sacrifices), resulting in an attitude toward the product, and even an emotional bond with a product (Butz and Goodstein, 1996).

With the research shift from the 'world of products' to the 'world of experience', hedonic values of consumer experience receive equal if not more attention than utilitarian values (e.g. Babin and Attaway, 2000; Chiu *et al.*, 2005). A customer-centred perspective is thus discussed, which develops and identifies consumers' needs and desires dimensions sought through their purchase of goods, services or experiences. For example Holbrook, considering customers' needs and desires, abstractly defined customer value as: 'an interactive relativistic preference experience' (1994, p. 27). Woodruff (1997, p. 142) incorporated both desired and received value, defining customer value as 'a customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances, and consequences arising from use that facilitates (or blocks) achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situations'.

Woodruff's (1997) definition embodies cognitive tasks (preference for and evaluation of), and levels of assessment criteria (attributes, consequences and desired end states). It implies that customers' value judgments are subject- and context-specific, determined within the constraints of a particular use situation rather than of product attributes, and emphasizes those derived from customers' learned perceptions, preferences and evaluation.

Customers, in the traditional goods-dominant logic of marketing, are passive, because they can only cognitively and rationally perceive the delivered value of the goods or service. However, from a customer-centred perspective, there are different views of the roles of supplier and receiver in the value creation process. Vargo and Lusch (2004) considered that value was something perceived and evaluated at the time of consumption. Similarly, Grönroos (2000) stated that:

Value for customers is created throughout the relationship by the customer, partly in interactions between the customer and the supplier or service provider. The focus is not on the products but on the customers' value-creating processes where value emerges.

(pp. 24–25)

For customers, goods and service are no longer merely considered as categories of marketing offerings (Heinonen and Strandvik, 2009), but as perspectives on value creation. In other words, only when a customer is using a goods, receiving a service or involved in an experience is it possible for the value of goods, service or experience to be realized or evaluated by a customer (Heinonen and Strandvik, 2009, p. 33). Value is not created by goods makers and service providers in their planning, designing and production processes, but by customers themselves in their value-creating processes based on the resources created by suppliers (Grönroos, 2006). Sandström *et al.* (2008) related value to the entire experience, and defined it as 'the individual judgment of the sum total of all the functional and emotional experience outcomes' (p. 120). Thus, value is individual to every customer who has become an active value co-creator (Vargo and Lusch, 2004).

10.2.2 Typology of customer value

Due to the complexity of the customer value construct, many researchers sought to understand the categories or dimensions on which customers' assessments are made, using these to create a typology (see Table 10.1). This work developed rapidly in the 1990s; but more than four decades ago, an axiological model of the value realm proposed by Hartman (1967) dominated. It included extrinsic value reflecting the utilitarian or instrumental use of a particular service as a means to a specific end; intrinsic value representing the emotional appreciation of consumption, and systemic value referring to the rational or logical aspects of the inherent relationships among concepts in their systematic interaction (Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). This three-dimensional structure of value was adapted by Mattsson (1991) into three value dimensions: emotional, practical and logical. In the same year, Sheth *et al.* (1991b) wrote that consumer choice is a function of multiple consumption values, which are independent and make differential contributions in different contexts.

The multidimensional structure approach to value provided a new direction for subsequent studies (e.g. Wang *et al.*, 2004). For example, Holbrook's (1994) eight types of customer value are based on three underlying dimensions: (i) extrinsic/intrinsic value; (ii) self-oriented/other-oriented value; and (iii) active/reactive value. Although Woodall's (2003) five primary forms of customer value are regarded as the most comprehensive of previous works, there is considerable overlap in the categories, in that the same benefits appear under different headings (Smith and Colgate, 2007).

Almost all studies examined seek to understand customer value from a customer perspective. Differently, Smith and Colgate (2007) adopted a strategic marketing orientation and distinguished four major types of customer value that can be created by organizations:

1. Functional/instrumental value: concerned with the extent to which a goods or service has desired characteristics, is useful or performs a desired function.
2. Experiential/hedonic value: concerned with the extent to which a goods or service creates appropriate experiences, feelings and emotions for the customer.

Table 10.1. Reviews of typology of customer value.

Authors (year)	Number of categories	Typology of value
Hartman (1967, 1973)	3	Extrinsic value; intrinsic value; systemic value
Park <i>et al.</i> (1986)	3	Functional value; symbolic value; experiential value
Mattsson (1991)	3	Emotional value; practical value; logical value
Sheth <i>et al.</i> (1991a)	5	Functional value; social value; emotional value; epistemic value; conditional value
Holbrook (1994)	8	Self-oriented: efficiency; play; excellence; aesthetics; Other-oriented: politics; esteem; morality; spirituality
Sweeney <i>et al.</i> (1996)	3	Functional value; social value; emotional value
Williams and Soutar (2000)	4	Functional value; social value; emotional value; epistemic value
Parasuraman and Grewal (2000)	4	Acquisition value; transaction value; in-use value; redemption value
Mathwick <i>et al.</i> (2001)	4	Playfulness; aesthetics; consumer return on investment; service excellence
Sweeney and Soutar (2001)	4	Emotional value; quality/performance value; social value; price/value for money
Woodall (2003)	5	Net customer value; derived customer value; marketing customer value; sale customer value; rational customer value
Ulaga (2003)	8	Product quality; delivery; time to market; direct product costs (price); process costs; personal interaction; supplier know-how; service support
Wang <i>et al.</i> (2004)	4	Functional value; social value; emotional value; perceived sacrifices
Khalifa (2004)	3	Customer value in exchange; customer value build-up; customer value dynamics
Lindgreen and Wynstra (2005)	2	Value of goods and services; value of buyer-seller relationship
Pura (2005)	6	Monetary value; convenience value; social value; emotional value; conditional value; epistemic value
Sánchez <i>et al.</i> (2006)	6	Social value to the consumer; functional value of product's price; functional value of product; functional value of establishment; functional value of personnel; emotional value to consumer
Smith and Colgate (2007)	4	Functional/instrumental value; experiential/hedonic value; symbolic/expressive value; cost/sacrifice value
Sánchez-Fernández <i>et al.</i> (2009)	4	Economic value; social value; hedonic value; altruistic value

3. Symbolic/expressive value: concerned with the extent to which customers attach or associate psychological meaning to a product.
4. Cost/sacrifice value: concerned with the transaction costs.

Smith and Colgate's (2007) typology was developed and constructed by 'drawing on, integrating and extending previous conceptual foundations' (p. 10), and is applicable not only to business contexts, but also to consumer contexts. More importantly, it is a useful tool for managers to specify and illustrate value creation strategies, identify opportunities for new value creation propositions and suggest enhancements to the value propositions of existing goods or services.

It should be noted that no matter which typology is proposed, their proposers and the following researchers seemed to tacitly accept Sheth *et al.*'s (1991a) suggestion that the dimensions of value are independent as they 'relate additively and contribute incrementally to choice' (p. 12). However, Sweeney and Soutar (2001) argued that value dimensions may not be independent because the hedonic and utilitarian components of attitude are suggested to be related in some prior research (e.g. Osgood *et al.* 1957). Unfortunately, no study has provided evidence to support it. Therefore, this research aims to identify the linkage between different dimensions of customer value perceived in an experience. Moreover, experiences are indicated to be shaped by customers but induced by the contexts designed or offered by managers; in other words, customers' experiences are related to the offerings. Both customer and manager perspectives are required for the research into an experience. Considering its strategic marketing orientation, Smith and Colgate's four types of customer value are adopted for this research focusing on customer value of an experience.

10.3 Methodology

Due to the scant theoretical insight into *how* the different types of value perceived in an experience relate to others, a case study and qualitative methodology were considered appropriate for gaining in-depth and rich data, as 'measuring customer value is rooted in the use of qualitative data-gathering techniques' (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996, p. 158). The ancient Chinese water town of Zhouzhuang, one of the world's top ten most beautiful towns (Gerrie, 2012), was selected as the case study, as it provides a rich historical and cultural experience for visitors. An introduction to Zhouzhuang and the data collection process have been detailed in Chapter 13, so are not repeated here.

After transcription, data from the interviews (whose code numbers start with 'IP') were analysed using content analysis procedures supported by qualitative data analysis software NVivo 9.2. Smith and Colgate's (2007) coding scheme, which allows summed scales of customer value to be created, was employed for content analysis. 'Customer value is a customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances, and consequences' (Smith and Colgate, 2007, p. 142). Each type of value was further identified by its value sources (i.e. the type of tourist-perceived attributes) to identify the linkage between different types of customer value. For convenience, this study adopted four types of experience attributes indicated in Chapter 13: atmosphere, interaction, memorabilia and service.

Therefore, both a value type (e.g. ‘experiential value’) and a type of attribute (e.g. ‘atmosphere’) were simultaneously coded and labelled.

In analysing the transcripts, it was noted that different types of value were often associated by tourists in the same sentence. For example, the comment: ‘I enjoyed the moment when I took a boat and the boat-lady sang for me, because it made me feel that I was exactly in the picturesque atmosphere of “small bridge, flowing water, and residents” and fully integrated into the easy local life’ (TP21) was coded as ‘symbolic value of service’ (‘SV-S’), ‘experiential value of interaction’ (‘EV-I’) and ‘experiential value of theme’ (‘EV-T’), as shown in Fig. 10.1.

NVivo 9.2 was used to create tables of code co-occurrences, which ‘enables the analyst to compute associations but also serves as an entry to contingency analysis’ (Krippendorff, 2004, pp. 268–269). Furthermore, ‘the frequency of co-occurrence of two concepts ... indicate[s] the strength of associations between those concepts in the minds of the members’ (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 59); therefore this research conducted a quantitative analyses of the coded data (i.e. a count of co-occurrences, especially their frequency of appearance) (Huberman and Miles, 1994). It ‘help[s] to reduce the data and may make data more accessible’ (Henderson, 2006, p. 167), and has been used in previous descriptive research (Bonet and Paché, 2005; Richards, 2009).

10.4 Findings and Discussion

When tourists gave their perceptions of an attribute, they usually mentioned not only attributes in other groups, but also their different evaluations for those attributes in their reasoning. Figure 10.1 shows that: (i) TP21 assessed both interaction attributes (labelled ‘I’) and theme attributes (labelled ‘T’) with experiential value (i.e. EV-I and EV-T, respectively). It indicates that different types of attributes can be evaluated with the same type of value; and (ii) the reason TP21 assessed the attribute of ‘interaction with boat-ladies’ as having experiential value (i.e. EV-I) was not because of ‘boating’ (a service attribute, labelled ‘S’) and the two theme attributes he perceived,

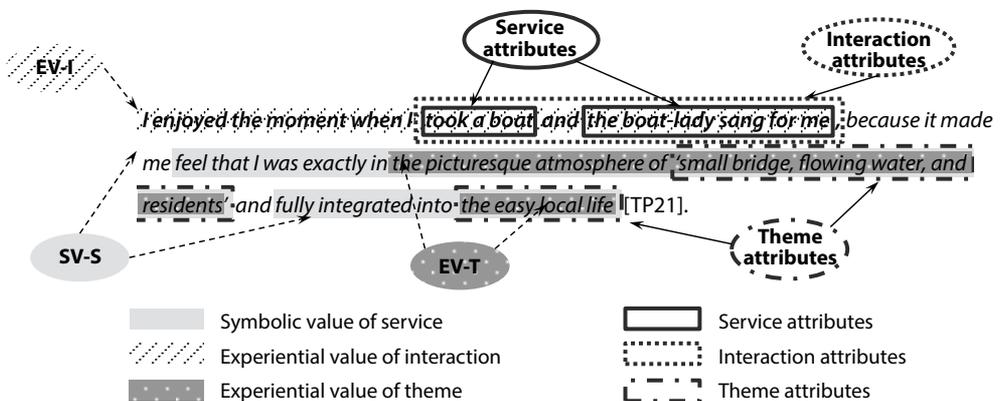


Fig. 10.1. Example of the co-occurrence of attribute types and value types.

Table 10.2. Node matrices of the linkage between different types of customer value.

Functional value					Experiential value					Symbolic value					Cost value					
T	A	I	M	S	T	A	I	M	S	T	A	I	M	S	T	A	I	M	S	
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	T
		2	-	14	17	22	15	-	-	-	6	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	1	A
			-	114*	40	92	25	-	-	1	8	-	-	29	-	-	5	-	3	I
				88	27	19	21	96	-	-	2	-	96	-	-	-	-	9	-	M
					260*	405*	127	88	-	5	45	-	81	188*	-	1	8	12	34	S
						420*	112*	20	-	16	88	1	27	164*	-	1	2	1	9	T
							177*	17	-	18	110*	5	19	166*	-	4	2	1	13	A
								17	-	2	53	13	19	47	-	1	2	-	8	I
									-	-	1	-	89	-	-	-	-	10	1	M
										-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	S
											13	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	T
												8	2	39	-	-	-	-	2	A
													-	-	-	-	-	-	-	I
														-	-	-	-	7	1	M
															-	-	1	-	10	S
																-	-	-	-	T
																	-	-	2	A
																		-	6	I
																			5	M
																				S

The numbers in each cell indicate the co-occurrence frequency from a matrix coding query in NVivo. T = theme attributes; A = atmosphere attributes; I = interaction attributes; M = memorabilia attributes; S = service attributes. - denotes the number of co-occurrence is 0. The bold numbers with * are cells with more than 100 co-occurrences; the bold numbers without * are more than 50 and less than 100 occurrences.

but the value he evaluated with those attributes; that is, the symbolic value of service (labelled 'SV-S'), and experiential value of theme (labelled 'EV-T'). The linkage between EV-I and EV-T indicates that the linkage between attributes may lead to linkage between tourists' perception of them; while linkage between EV-I and SV-S indicates that one type of value may link to others. The findings are, therefore, organized into two major sections. The matrices of the linkage between tourists' different perception of value in Zhouzhuang is given in Table 10.2. The details of each set of customer value links are discussed in the following section (10.4.1).

10.4.1 Linkage between attributes

Linkage between attributes may lead to linkage between tourists' perception of them. Many tourists often started their descriptions with concerns about the extent to which the attributes were useful or performed a desired function for them; that is, provided functional value. Interaction, memorabilia, service and some atmosphere attributes were evaluated as having functional value by tourists. This is because many tourists described their experiences in terms of the daily lived activities they participated in, and frequently mentioned activities that were directly related to their received services. This enabled more interaction with other people, encouraged purchase of memorabilia and contributed to experiencing themes. It may be the reason why function value of service is frequently linked to that of interaction (114 co-occurrences) and memorabilia (88 co-occurrences), as shown in Table 10.1.

During their descriptions, they commonly provided the function of those services as well as the reasons whether – and why – they found them of use, for example: 'The inside facilities of my room were simple, but the inn was close to a river and I could see the night view of the whole town through the window' (TP37).

Tourists also referred to disappointment or dissatisfaction in their experience of Zhouzhuang. These complaints focused on the services provided, especially defective facilities such as poor signage, the lack of lighting at night and no idea of activities in which to participate. In addition, tourists' comments often referred to disappointment resulting from the impacts of humans on the quality of the physical environment. The most frequently mentioned and exact word they used was '商业化' (literally 'commercialization'), mainly referring to the many shops in the town, because it was 'hard to experience the charm of this water town' (TP48). Moreover, water quality was also of concern for some tourists, because 'water is such an important factor for a water town' (TP04).

Many tourists had anticipated that there might be lots of other tourists because 'Zhouzhuang is a famous tourist destination in China' (TP08). This led to positive interaction with other tourists. Tourists received information from their observations of other tourists' behaviours, such as eating local cuisine (TP04) and participating in the folk ceremony (TP04); and also in sharing services with other tourists, such as tour guides (TP54), entertainment (TP27) and taking boats (TP36). The number of tourists was, however, sometimes larger and worse than their expectations. This was especially noted during the daytime, evidenced by tourists' frequent mentions of 'lots of tourists'. As a result, they complained: 'There is nothing to see except for tourists, even in the photographs I took' (TP41).

Experiential value was widely perceived by tourists in their experience of Zhouzhuang. Table 10.1 shows that experiential value of theme is frequently linked to that of atmosphere (420 co-occurrences) and interaction (112 co-occurrences), while experiential value of atmosphere is often linked to that of interaction (177 co-occurrences). This may be because:

1. *Epistemic value* relating to knowledge, novelty and fantasy was experienced by first-time visitors to Zhouzhuang, who especially noted the atmospheric attributes. Although some tourists interviewed were disappointed with the commercialization of the physical environment, many of them still said they felt the town was generally authentic, evidenced by the frequently used and exact term ‘原生态’ (literally ‘original’). One reason for this was because the real and authentic town, especially the well-preserved ancient residential houses and elegant water views, matched what they had known or imagined about the town. Another reason was because of the local residents. On one hand the normal, ordinary lives of all local residents interested and attracted many tourists so that they were commonly regarded as part of the cultural background and of authentic local traditions and customs. On the other hand, many residents were involved in many adapted cultural activities to ‘naturally’ perform their skills for tourists, so that a sense of authenticity was added into the designed activities.
2. *Sensory value*, such as atmosphere and memorabilia, was perceived by the tourists’ five senses. Many tourists were generous with their compliments, commonly using evaluative words such as ‘beautiful scenery’, ‘good taste’ and ‘representative melody’, especially relating to what they had seen. *Emotional value*, such as fun, nostalgia and euphoria, usually resulted when tourists were deeply engaged in an activity. Among the various emotional responses, relaxation was a common one frequently perceived by many of them. The words generally used were ‘悠闲’, ‘安逸’, ‘轻松’, ‘放松’ (literally, ‘leisurely’, ‘easeful’, ‘relaxed’, ‘comfortable’). Many tourists ‘envied’ locals and sought to be a ‘local’ by involving themselves in many activities related to local cultural or traditions, precisely because of the perceived emotional responses from local life. Therefore some attributes, especially service attributes, were attached with conditional meaning (discussed further in the next section).
3. Many tourists perceived some negative emotional value, mainly concentrated on two facets: one was their ‘surprise’ at the commercialization, especially that there were too many ‘shops’ in the town; the other was their ‘annoyance’ at ‘lots of tourists’. Their common explanations for their negative emotions were that too many shops and lots of tourists ‘did not match the image of a water town in my mind’ (TP39), or ‘damaged the original atmosphere of the town’ (TP54).
4. Social-relational value was derived from interactions between tourists and other people, not only the personnel of the Zhouzhuang Tourism Development Corporation Ltd (ZTDC), but also between local residents and other tourists during their experience in Zhouzhuang (and especially during the activities in which they participated). The social relationships between them were facilitated through these interactions, as illustrated by the following: ‘I like folk music . . . I chatted with the owner of a music store who told me that there were some art-loving residents who had similar interests to me’ (TP42).

Analysis of the interviews also shows that tourists associated many attributes with symbolic value. Interestingly, there are few linkages between the symbolic values

of different attribute types. This may be explained, however, since symbolic value is the tourists' psychological meaning attached to some specific attributes, rather than every attribute they perceive.

Almost all tourists commented on the transaction cost of their experience in Zhouzhuang, mainly focusing on the money it cost and the time they spent. Table 10.1 demonstrates that participants' assessments of cost value were mainly derived from the service and memorabilia attributes. Furthermore, cost value of atmosphere, interaction and memorabilia are all and only linked to that of service. The reason for this is that major activities that tourists paid for and participated in were directly related to the services provided. For example, some tourists discussed positive interaction with other tourists; that is, they shared services such as tour guides, entertainment and boating (e.g. TP27, TP54), while some attributed non-participation in some activities to the price (e.g. TP12, TP19).

10.4.2 Linkage between different types of value

Connections between experiential value and functional value

The functional value of service is an especially important connection. Table 10.1 illustrates that experiential value of theme, atmosphere, interaction and memorabilia all have many linkages with functional value of service (260, 405, 127 and 88 co-occurrences, respectively). Simultaneously, experiential value of atmosphere and memorabilia are commonly linked to functional value of interaction and memorabilia (92 and 96 co-occurrences, respectively). Given that tourists' descriptions often started with concerns about the extent to which the attributes were useful or performed a desired function for them, those connections may mean that tourists usually assess the attributes with experiential value based on the function provided by other attributes, especially service. Thus, 'lantern' is evaluated on the service of 'lighting', 'folk songs' on 'entertainment' and 'local delicacies & snacks' on 'catering'.

Linkages between symbolic value and other types of value

These are concentrated on the columns of atmosphere, memorabilia and service in Table 10.1. The symbolic value of *atmosphere* has many linkages with experiential value of theme, atmosphere and interaction (88, 110 and 53 co-occurrences, respectively). In other words, the symbolic value of atmosphere usually links to experiential value. This may be explained by: (i) all tourists being first-time visitors, and attributes perceived as a 'first time experience' also appealed to their self-concept. For example, some tourists expressed satisfaction with their 'achievement of travel wishes' (e.g. TP40), 'see the real town' after comparing what they had seen in paintings or pictures of the town (e.g. TP21) or even with their 'imagination' (e.g. TP48). They further variously described their 'first time experience', especially what they have done in this 'new' world, such as 'watch live wedding ceremony' (e.g. TP39), 'tasted bean jelly' (e.g. TP09), 'listen to Pingtan' (e.g. TP61); and (ii) some perceived attributes simultaneously having personal meanings for individual tourists due to their travel companions, for example 'I took a photo with my girlfriend around the Twin Bridge; what a memorable moment for us!' (TP11).

To some people, memorabilia can provide a means of self-expression, showing their personalities, tastes or values to other people. This was not only reflected in their selection of services, such as an 'individual tour guide' (e.g. TP56), 'high-quality private lodges' (e.g. TP35) and 'tea art house' (e.g. TP27), but also in their selection of memorabilia. Almost all tourists mentioned that they bought memorabilia as presents for their families or friends. Thus, memorabilia are symbols not only to facilitate their own social relationships, but also to voicelessly express to others their special experience in Zhouzhuang: 'I bought some local stuff for my friends to share my experience with them' (TP10).

To purchase appropriate memorabilia, many tourists intentionally spent time in finding and selecting tangible memorabilia objects in local shops, and as a result the symbolic value of memorabilia has many linkages with the functional value of memorabilia and service (96 and 89 co-occurrences, respectively). As mentioned above, the functional value of memorabilia is connected with the experiential value of memorabilia; the symbolic value of memorabilia, therefore, has linkages to the experiential value of memorabilia (89 co-occurrences).

The symbolic value of service has frequent linkages with the functional value of service and the experiential value of theme and atmosphere (188, 164 and 166 co-occurrences, respectively). This is because tourists are commonly concerned not only with the function that service can provide, but also with the conditional meaning they attach to service. Tourists usually had special criteria when choosing service or service providers, such as to 'have dinner along waterside' (e.g. TP42), 'live in a waterside inn' (e.g. TP12) and 'sleep in a carved bed' (e.g. TP22). These criteria were related to local culture or tradition, and the whole process of receiving a 'special' service was commonly regarded 'to be as much a part of local life as [they] can' (TP21) in order to 'escape from busy daily life' (TP04). For example: 'I had some tea when I listened to Kun Opera, I feel like an old local man . . . ha-ha . . . I am kidding! The rhythm was slow and I felt quite relaxed' (TP53).

Therefore, to experience authentic local culture was sometimes more important than their requirements for service facilities. Even if they stayed in a small inn rather than a formal hotel, many tourists described their accommodation with names that usually contained the Chinese word '水' (literally, 'water'), such as '水楼台' (TP08), '枕水人家' (TP17) and '水巷人家' (TP32). As one respondent said: 'regarding the name, I can imagine a river running around the inn, which is just what I want' (TP16).

Tourists commonly described their experiences in terms of the daily lived activities they participated in, many of which were intentionally staged by managers to exhibit local culture. Tourists perceive symbolic value and functional value from various services. These contributed to their perceiving atmosphere with all five senses and allowed them to experience the themes of the town. They may be the reason why tourists evaluated some themes and attributes of atmosphere with experiential value.

Linkages between cost value and other types of value

Cost value is found to link not only with functional value (i.e. functional value of service), but also with experiential and symbolic value, such as the symbolic value of service and the experiential value of a theme, atmosphere, interaction and memorabilia. These types of links are more numerous because tourists usually regarded the

functional value, experiential value or symbolic value of the perceived attributes as their cost reasons. For example: 'I stayed here last night and experienced a different water town than the one many people described. It was a great experience' (TP46).

Some tourists also wanted to 'stay and experience [Zhouzhuang] for as long as possible' (TP14) in order to 'enjoy every moment in such a beautiful and famous town' (TP40).

Because of the amount of positive functional value, experiential value and symbolic value that tourists perceived in their experience in Zhouzhuang, they all considered their money and time well spent, in spite of their comments about the price or other sources of disappointment or dissatisfaction (e.g. TP63). Almost all tourists considered that they would recommend the town to their friends and family because of their memorable experiences in Zhouzhuang, especially memories from the night or early morning. Furthermore, the majority of tourists indicated that they would revisit Zhouzhuang, because: 'I just spent such a short time in such a beautiful and tranquil place. I think I haven't known enough about it' (TP48).

Some tourists were 'curious about other water towns in south of the Yangtze River, precisely because of [their] memorable and valuable experience in Zhouzhuang' (TP24). While some of the tourists who undertook long journeys to visit Zhouzhuang were 'unlikely to come again' (e.g. TP02), considering the transportation costs and time involved, their experiences in Zhouzhuang would be 'remembered for ever' (e.g. TP27). However, all tourists emphasized that they would never revisit, or suggest that friends and family visit, during tourist season because of the number of tourists.

10.5 Conclusions and Implications

Previous studies identified that customer value is a multidimensional construct and studied these dimensions independently (Sheth *et al.*, 1991b; Graf and Maas, 2008). No previous research, however, has intentionally examined the link between different types of customer value. In this study, tourists did evaluate their perceived attributes with diverse and multidimensional values, including functional, experiential, symbolic and cost value. Furthermore, the types of customer value were found to be linked. This was because tourists evaluated an attribute by reference to their evaluations of other attributes (see Fig. 10.1 and Table 10.1). For example, tourists enjoyed their dinner in a waterside restaurant, not only because of the functional value of food, but also because of the beautiful riverside scenery (experiential value of atmosphere) and the special time that they spent with their travel companions (symbolic value of interaction). Therefore, when the tourists were making choices about where to eat, they sought to maximize their values by choosing eating locations with more types of value, a process called maximizing utility (Kotler and Bliemel, 2001). The diverse linkages between tourists' perception of different types of value is shown in Fig. 10.2.

In Fig. 10.2, the different types of customer value were linked in four ways:

1. Different types of attributes might lead to the same type of value tourists evaluated for those attributes. For example, the functional value of service is linked to that of interaction, memorabilia and atmosphere, and the functional value of atmosphere

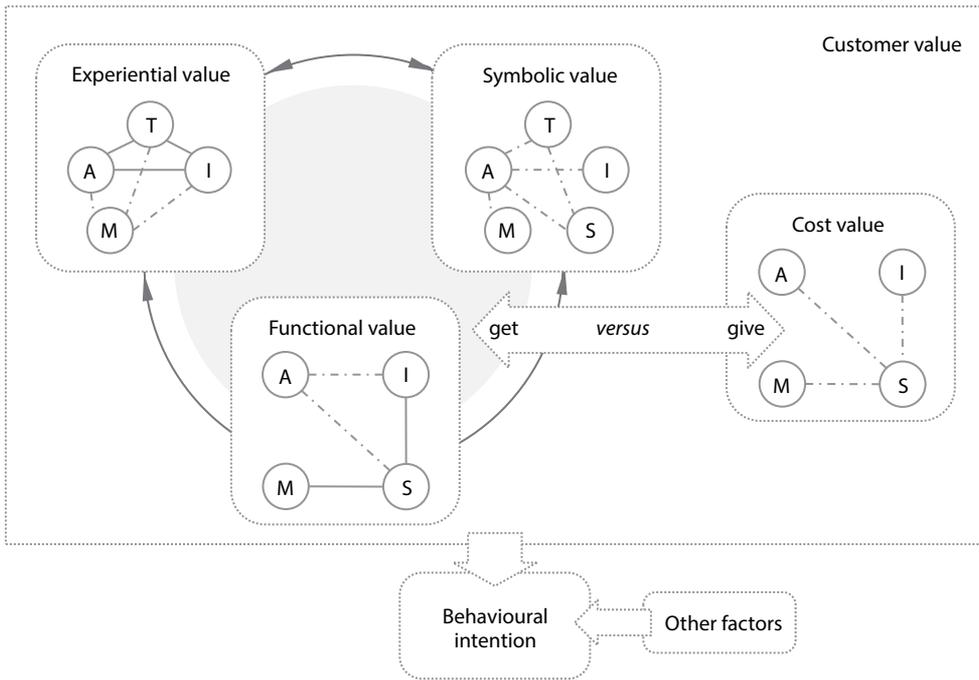


Fig. 10.2. Diverse linkages between tourists' perception of different types of value. Note: T (in the small circle), theme attributes; A, atmosphere attributes; I, interaction attributes; M, memorabilia attributes; S, service attributes. The solid dashes between the small circles represent many linkages between value derived from different types of attributes; dotted dashes represent few linkages between them.

is linked to that of interaction. Similarly, the experiential value of theme is linked to that of atmosphere, interaction and memorabilia; and experiential value of atmosphere is linked to that of interaction. This finding indicates that tourists' evaluation of a type of attribute may influence or be influenced by their evaluation of other types of attributes.

2. There is a hierarchical linkage between functional, experiential and symbolic value. This study has found that experiential or symbolic value requires the existence of functional value. Without functional value, tourists were not willing to be involved in an experience process and did not perceive any other value from that process. In this study, there were frequent linkages between functional value, especially functional value of service, with experiential and symbolic value. For example, the town was regarded as authentic (desired experiential value), partly because of the well-preserved ancient buildings (perceived functional value). Because the authentic town was matched with what tourists had known or imagined, the self-concept value (desired symbolic value) was expressed by many tourists who were interviewed. Therefore, functional value is *the basic or lowest level* of value, and the different types of experiential value, symbolic value or their combination might be *the highest level ends*; that is, desired customer value, for different tourists.

The hierarchical linkage between functional, experiential and symbolic value supports Woodruff's (1997) statement that the lower levels (perceived customer value) are the means by which the higher level ends (desired customer value) are achieved. This indicates that tourists form desires or preferences for certain attributes, not only before but also when purchasing and using a goods or service (Woodruff, 1997). Therefore, tourists' perception of value may change according to an alteration in what they desire (Flint *et al.*, 1997, 2002; Flint and Woodruff, 2001; Beverland and Lockshin, 2003; Blocker and Flint, 2007).

3. There is a linkage between 'give' value (i.e. cost value) and three other 'get' values – functional, experiential and symbolic. Because tourists' perception of value 'got' in their Zhouzhuang experience were mainly positive, the money and time that tourists 'gave' to visit the town was assessed as positive, even by those who made a long journey to visit. Therefore, the linkage between cost value and all the other types of value reaffirms the claim of a trade-off between the benefits and sacrifices involved in using a service or goods (Zeithaml, 1988; Sweeney *et al.*, 1999; Jozée, 2000; Teas and Agarwal, 2000; Ralston, 2003), rather than the objective or actual cost or quality (Zeithaml, 1988).

4. There is a linkage between customer value and tourists' behavioural intentions. On one hand, customer value can directly influence tourists' behavioural intentions. For example, the negative value assessed for the number of tourists would deter tourists from revisiting Zhouzhuang in the tourist season. This shows that tourists' current experience may help to inform their future experience (O'Sullivan and Spangler, 1998, p. 28). Many tourists interviewed would recommend that their friends and family stay in Zhouzhuang overnight, because of a greater positive value perceived from their experience at night or in the early morning compared with that in the daytime. The finding about the direct relationship between customer value and behavioural intentions is consistent with prior research (Sweeney *et al.*, 1999; Chen and Dubinsky, 2003). On the other hand, tourists' behavioural intentions may not be entirely influenced by customer value. For example, tourists' revisit intentions were different, despite the positive value they perceived. Some tourists would like to revisit in the future, while others expressed their wishes to visit other water towns because of the similarity among the towns. For those tourists who made a long journey to Zhouzhuang, some would revisit, while some would not revisit considering the transportation costs and time involved. This indicates that other similar tourism products and travel distance may sometimes influence tourists' behavioural intentions, but that at other times they may not. This finding supports other studies (Cronin *et al.*, 2000; Durvasula *et al.*, 2004), indicating there may be other variables relevant to customer behaviour apart from customer value and satisfaction. However, these other factors have never been correlated to customer value in prior studies to explore their effects on customer behavioural intentions, although some similar factors have been found to influence tourists' motivation (e.g. King, 1994; Yannopoulos and Rotenberg, 1999).

As a consequence, this study identified that the four dimensions of value are not independent of each other, but are interrelated and have diverse linkages between them. This reaffirms that customer value is created and perceived during a tourist's experience process, rather than prepared in advance by managers and exchanged to tourists (Grönroos, 2000; Heinonen and Strandvik, 2009; Turnbull, 2009).

Furthermore, the four dimensions of value identified here were based on the adoption of Smith and Colgate's (2007) typology of customer value, which has never been empirically tested in a tourism context. In this case, the results of this study represent an original contribution to the study of customer value from a strategic marketing orientation as well as a better understanding of customer value in the context of tourism.

In addition to the theoretical contributions identified, this research and its findings also have some practical implications for tourism planning and destination management:

1. The identification of the linkage between tourists' perception of value can be a useful tool for tourism managers to specify and illustrate their value creation strategies. The same attribute can be assessed by tourists with different types of value, because of their different direct perceptions or the influence from the value of other attributes. Therefore, tourism managers could look for opportunities to create or add new value to their current or potential goods or service provided for tourists. Moreover, identifying tourists' perceptions of value, especially negative ones, may suggest further enhancement of existing offered or performed attributes and value creation.
2. The identification of the linkage between tourists' perception of value can reveal the value creation process, which may help tourism managers to better understand their roles and tourists' involvement and integration in the value creation process. Therefore, managers should develop a distinct value-added proposition for their existing and potential goods and services, such as creating an effective and experiential environment, and providing adequate and appropriate services or activities by identifying tourists' needs.
3. The hierarchical linkage between tourists' perception of value can help to influence tourist behaviours or behaviour intentions. Tourists' perceived functional value was found to be the means to help them achieve their desired experiential or symbolic value. In other words, perceived customer value attributes are crucial for desired customer value in fulfilling tourists' high-order goals. Therefore, managers can provide more new services or change current services based on identifying different tourists' desired value in different situations, in order to influence their behaviours or behaviour intentions.

Several challenges for this research must be considered when interpreting the findings in future:

1. With respect to the sampling of tourists, the results of the study were only obtained from Chinese overnight tourists. In turn, the generalization of the results remains limited to Chinese people.
2. Only the data relating to the experience of tourists who visited Zhouzhuang on weekdays were analysed for this study. Therefore, tourists' value was only perceived for those attributes and activities that could be performed for or participated in by weekday tourists.
3. This limitation relates to the selection of the study case. The tourism developed in Zhouzhuang is basically a kind of cultural tourism. The services related to local life had some conditional meanings (i.e. symbolic value) for many tourists in Zhouzhuang and were widely preferred by them. However, the linkage between service and

symbolic value may not apply in many other contexts. Therefore, similar studies are recommended in different research contexts, such as other types of tourist destinations, hotels, events, festivals or even in other industries.

Acknowledgement

This research project (No. 2015SJB528) was supported by the Foundation of Education, Department of Jiangsu Province, China.

References

- Babin, B.J. and Attaway, J.S. (2000) Atmospheric affect as a tool for creating value and gaining share of customer. *Journal of Business Research* 49(2), 91–99.
- Beverland, M. and Lockshin, L. (2003) A longitudinal study of customers' desired value change in business-to-business markets. *Industrial Marketing Management* 32(8), 653–666. DOI: 10.1016/j.indmarman.2003.06.006
- Blocker, C.P. and Flint, D.J. (2007) Customer segments as moving targets: integrating customer value dynamism into segment instability logic. *Industrial Marketing Management* 36(6), 810–822. DOI: 10.1016/j.indmarman.2006.05.016
- Bonet, D. and Paché, G. (2005) A new approach for understanding hindrances to collaborative practices in the logistics channel. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management* 33(8), 583–596. DOI: 10.1108/09590550510608386
- Butz, H.E.J. and Goodstein, L.D. (1996) Measuring customer value: gaining the strategic advantage. *Organizational Dynamics* 24(3), 63–77.
- Campbell, C. (1995) The sociology of consumption. In: Miller, D. (ed.) *Acknowledging Consumption: A Review of New Studies*. Routledge, London, pp. 95–124.
- Chen, Z. and Dubinsky, A.J. (2003) A conceptual model of perceived customer value in e-commerce: a preliminary investigation. *Psychology and Marketing* 20(4), 323–347. DOI: 10.1002/mar.10076
- Chiu, H.C., Hsieh, Y.C., Li, Y.C. and Lee, M. (2005) Relationship marketing and consumer switching behavior. *Journal of Business Research* 58(12), 1681–1689. DOI: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2004.11.005
- Cronin, J.J., Brady, M.K. and Hult, G.T.M. (2000) Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments. *Journal of Retailing* 76(2), 193–218. DOI: 10.1016/S0022-4359(00)00028-2
- Duman, T. and Mattila, A.S. (2005) The role of affective factors on perceived cruise vacation value. *Tourism Management* 26(3), 311–323. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2003.11.014
- Durvasula, S., Lysonski, S., Mehta, S.C. and Tang, B.P. (2004) Forging relationships with services: the antecedents that have an impact on behavioural outcomes in the life insurance industry. *Journal of Financial Services Marketing* 8(4), 314–326. DOI: 10.1057/palgrave.fsm.4770129
- Emma, B. and Per Olof, B. (2012) Strategic creation of experiences at Shanghai World Expo: a practice of communication. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management* 3(1), 30–45. DOI: 10.1108/17582951211210924
- Flint, D.J. and Woodruff, R.B. (2001) The initiators of changes in customers' desired value: results from a theory building study. *Industrial Marketing Management* 30(4), 321–337. DOI: 10.1016/S0019-8501(99)00117-0
- Flint, D.J., Woodruff, R.B. and Gardial, S.F. (1997) Customer value change in industrial marketing relationships: a call for new strategies and research. *Industrial Marketing Management* 26(2), 163–175. DOI: 10.1016/S0019-8501(96)00112-5

- Flint, D. J., Woodruff, R.B. and Gardial, S.F. (2002) Exploring the phenomenon of customers' desired value change in a business-to-business context. *Journal of Marketing* 66(4), 102–117.
- Gerrie, A. (2012) World's most beautiful towns CNN Travel. Available at: <http://www.travel.cnn.com/explorations/escape/worlds-most-beautiful-towns-580013/> (accessed 21 June 2017).
- Grönroos, C. (2000) *Service Management and Marketing: A Customer Relationship Management Approach* (2nd edn). Wiley, Chichester, UK.
- Grönroos, C. (2006) Adopting a service logic for marketing. *Marketing Theory* 6(3), 317–333. DOI: 10.1177/1470593106066794
- Graf, A. and Maas, P. (2008) Customer value from a customer perspective: a comprehensive review. *Journal für Betriebswirtschaft* 58(1), 1–20. DOI: 10.1007/s11301-008-0032-8
- Gunn, C.A. and Var, T. (2002) *Tourism Planning: Basics, Concepts, Cases* (3rd edn). Routledge, New York.
- Hartman, R.S. (1967) *The Structure of Value: Foundations of Scientific Axiology*. Southern Illinois University Press, Carbondale, Illinois.
- Hartman, R.S. (1973) *The Hartman Value Profile (HVP): Manual of Interpretation*. Research Concepts, Muskegon, Michigan.
- Heinonen, K. and Strandvik, T. (2009) Monitoring value-in-use of e-service. *Journal of Service Management* 20(1), 33–51.
- Henderson, K.A. (2006) *Dimensions of Choice: A Qualitative Approach to Recreation, Parks, and Leisure Research* (2nd edn). Venture Publishing, State College, Pennsylvania.
- Holbrook, M.B. (1994) The nature of customer value: an axiology of services in the consumption experience. In: Rust, R.T. and Oliver, R.L. (eds) *Service Quality: New Directions in Theory and Practice*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, California, pp. 21–71.
- Huberman, A.M. and Miles, M.B. (1994) Data management and analysis methods. In: Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (eds) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, California, pp. 428–444.
- Jozée, L. (2000). Customer-perceived value in industrial contexts. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing* 15(2/3), 122–145. DOI: 10.1108/08858620010316831
- Khalifa, A.S. (2004) Customer value: a review of recent literature and an integrative configuration. *Management Decision* 42(5/6), 645–666.
- King, B. (1994) Australian attitudes to domestic and international resort holidays: a comparison of Fiji and Queensland. In: Seaton, A.V. (ed.) *Tourism: The State of the Art*. Wiley, Chichester, UK, pp. 347–358.
- Konu, H., Laukkanen, T. and Komppula, R. (2011) Using ski destination choice criteria to segment Finnish ski resort customers. *Tourism Management* 32(5), 1096–1105. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2010.09.010
- Kotler, P. and Bliemel, F. (2001) *Marketing-Management: Analyse, Planung und Verwirklichung* (10th edn). Pearson Studium, Stuttgart, Germany.
- Krippendorff, K. (2004) *Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology* (2nd edn). Sage, Thousand Oaks, California.
- Lindgreen, A. and Wynstra, F. (2005) Value in business markets: What do we know? Where are we going? *Industrial Marketing Management* 34(7), 732–748. DOI: 10.1016/j.indmarman.2005.01.001
- Mathwick, C., Malhotra, N.K. and Rigdon, E. (2001) Experiential value: conceptualization, measurement and application in the catalog and internet shopping environment. *Journal of Retailing* 77(1), 39–56.
- Mattsson, J. (1991) *Better Business by the ABC of Values*. Studentlitteratur, Lund, Sweden.
- O'Dell, T. (2005). Experiencescapes: blurring borders and testing connections. In O'Dell, T. and Billing, P. (eds) *Experiencescapes: Tourism, Culture and Economy*. Copenhagen Business School Press, Copenhagen, Denmark, pp. 13–33.
- O'Sullivan, E.L. and Spangler, K.J. (1998) *Experience Marketing: Strategies for the New Millennium*. Venture Publishing State College, Pennsylvania.:

- Osgood, C.E., Suci, G.J. and Tannenbaum, P.H. (1957) *The Measurement of Meaning*. University of Illinois Press, Urbana, Illinois.
- Parasuraman, A. and Grewal, D. (2000) The impact of technology on the quality-value-loyalty chain: a research agenda. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 28(1), 168–174. DOI: 10.1177/0092070300281015
- Park, C.W., Jaworski, B.J. and MacInnis, D.J. (1986) Strategic brand concept-image management. *Journal of Marketing* 50(4), 135–145.
- 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.
- Ponting, J. (2009) Projecting paradise: the surf media and the hermeneutic circle in surfing tourism. *Tourism Analysis* 14(2), 175–185. DOI: 10.3727/108354209789116510
- Pura, M. (2005) Linking perceived value and loyalty in location-based mobile services. *Managing Service Quality* 15(6), 509–538.
- Ralston, R.W. (2003) The effects of customer service, branding, and price on the perceived value of local telephone service. *Journal of Business Research* 56(3), 201–213. DOI: 10.1016/s0148-2963(01)00221-1
- Richards, L. (2009) *Handling Qualitative Data: A Practical Guide* (2nd edn). Sage, London.
- Sánchez-Fernández, R. and Iniesta-Bonillo, M.Á. (2007) The concept of perceived value: a systematic review of the research. *Marketing Theory* 7(4), 427–451. DOI: 10.1177/1470593107083165
- Sánchez-Fernández, R., Iniesta-Bonillo, M.Á. and Holbrook, M.B. (2009) The conceptualisation and measurement of consumer value in services. *International Journal of Market Research* 51(1), 93–113.
- Sánchez, J., Callarisa, L., Rodríguez, R.M. and Moliner, M.A. (2006) Perceived value of the purchase of a tourism product. *Tourism Management* 27(3), 394–409. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2004.11.007
- Sandström, S., Edvardsson, B., Kristensson, P. and Magnusson, P. (2008) Value in use through service experience. *Managing Service Quality* 18(2), 112–126.
- Sheth, J.N., Newman, B.I. and Gross, B.L. (1991a) *Consumption Values and Market Choices: Theory and Applications*. South-Western Publishing, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- Sheth, J.N., Newman, B.I. and Gross, B.L. (1991b) Why we buy what we buy: a theory of consumption values. *Journal of Business Research* 22, 159–170.
- Smith, J.B. and Colgate, M. (2007) Customer value creation: a practical framework. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice* 15(1), 7–23.
- Sternberg, E. (1997) The iconography of the tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(4), 951–969. DOI: 10.1016/s0160-7383(97)00053-4
- Stokowski, P.A. (2002) Languages of place and discourses of power: constructing new senses of place. *Journal of Leisure Research* 34(4), 368–382.
- Sweeney, J.C. and Soutar, G.N. (2001) Consumer perceived value: the development of a multiple item scale. *Journal of Retailing* 77(2), 203–220. DOI: 10.1016/s0022-4359(01)00041-0
- Sweeney, J.C., Soutar, G.N. and Johnson, L.W. (1999) The role of perceived risk in the quality-value relationship: a study in a retail environment. *Journal of Retailing* 75(1), 77–105. DOI: 10.1016/s0022-4359(99)80005-0
- Sweeney, J.C., Soutar, G.N., Whiteley, A. and Johnson, L.W. (1996) Generating consumption value items: a parallel interviewing process approach. *Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research* 2, 108–115.
- Teas, R. and Agarwal, S. (2000) The effects of extrinsic product cues on consumers' perceptions of quality, sacrifice, and value. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 28(2), 278–290. DOI: 10.1177/0092070300282008
- Turnbull, J. (2009) Customer value-in-experience: theoretical foundation and research agenda. Paper presented at the ANZMAC 2009, Melbourne, Australia.
- Uлага, W. (2003) Capturing value creation in business relationships: a customer perspective. *Industrial Marketing Management* 32(8), 677–693. DOI: 10.1016/j.indmarman.2003.06.008

- Vargo, S.L. and Lusch, R.F. (2004) Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing. *Journal of Marketing* 68(1), 1–17.
- Wang, Y., Lo, H.P., Chi, R. and Yang, Y. (2004) An integrated framework for customer value and customer-relationship-management performance: a customer-based perspective from China. *Managing Service Quality* 14(2/3), 169–182.
- Williams, P. and Soutar, G.N. (2000) Dimensions of customer value and the tourism experience: an exploratory study. Paper presented at the ANZMAC 2000 Visionary Marketing for the 21st Century: Facing the Challenge. Melbourne, Australia.
- Woodall, T. (2003) Conceptualising 'value for the customer': an attributional, structural and dispositional analysis. *Academy of Marketing Science Review* 2003, 1–42.
- Woodruff, R.B. (1997) Customer value: the next source for competitive advantage. *Academy of Marketing Science* 25(2), 139–153.
- Woodruff, R.B. and Gardial, S. (1996) *Know Your Customer: New Approaches to Understanding Customer Value and Satisfaction*. Wiley-Blackwell, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Yannopoulos, P. and Rotenberg, R. (1999) Benefit segmentation of the near-home tourism market: the case of upper New York State. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 8(2), 41–55. DOI: 10.1300/J073v08n02_04
- Zehrer, A. (2009) Service experience and service design: concepts and application in tourism SMEs. *Managing Service Quality* 19(3), 332–349.
- Zeithaml, V.A. (1988) Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: a means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing* 52(3), 2–22.

Part IV Post-experience Stage: Outcomes

This page intentionally left blank

11 Well-being Benefits from Mindful Experiences

LYNN I-LING CHEN,^{1*} NOEL SCOTT² AND PIERRE BENCKENDORFF³

¹Tamkang University, Jiaoxi Township, Taiwan; ²Griffith University, Southport, Australia; ³The University of Queensland, St Lucia, Australia

11.1 Introduction

Postmodern society has been characterized by isolation, work orientation and stress-related disorders such as depression (Giddens, 1991; Mueller and Kaufmann, 2001; Schroevers and Brandsma, 2010). Tourism improves the quality of life in modern society (Bushell and Sheldon, 2009) and travel permits an individual to switch off from their pressured daily work life (Richards, 1999). Researchers have identified that tourism meets motivations of novelty seeking, attention seeking and spiritual fulfilment through travel experiences (Kottler, 1997; Currie, 2000). Informal and unstructured travel provides relief from everyday stress (Kottler, 1998; Edginton and Chen, 2008) especially when visiting natural attractions or participating in leisure and recreation activities (Heintzman, 2010).

Travel by itself, even adventurous or unstructured travel, does not guarantee that travellers will receive such benefits. However, it is common for tourists to smile when narrating or recalling the experiences and challenges encountered during their journey. Travel may also lead to positive outcomes such as perceiving healing and peace (Kottler, 1998), physical or spiritual transformation and well-being (Edginton and Chen, 2008). Nature-based destinations that are perceived as aesthetically pleasing and wondrous settings enrich the human mind and spirit (Tilden, 1957). The growing popularity of wellness retreats may reflect tourists' needs to feel relaxed and peaceful on their journey (Voigt *et al.*, 2010). Surprisingly, however, research focusing on tourist experiences that lead to well-being benefits is limited. There is little research on the attributes of an experience that may trigger perceptions of therapeutic benefits from travel.

This paper focuses on positive experiences related to the mental state of mindfulness. Previous research in tourism has adopted the alternative concept of

*Corresponding author e-mail: lynn.cheniling@gmail.com; lynnchen@mail.tku.edu.tw

socio-cognitive mindfulness (Moscardo, 1999; Pirson *et al.*, 2012) to study visitors' cognitive learning in situations such as interpretation of visitor information (Chen *et al.*, 2014). Over the past three decades, the alternative 'meditative mindfulness' concept derived from a dialogue between Buddhist traditions and Western clinical psychology has become a mainstream field of academic area of research emphasizing meditation and its derived therapeutic functions (Chen *et al.*, 2014). In contemporary psychology, meditative mindfulness has been identified as having an important role in increasing awareness and responding positively to various outcomes; in particular, to emotional distress (Bishop *et al.*, 2004), physical well-being and psychological well-being (Sternberg, 2000). However, it is not clear how meditative mindfulness and its experiential benefits can link to experiences in tourism contexts outside of formal therapeutic settings.

This study adopts 'meditative mindfulness' as the theoretical foundation of this research to examine if day-to-day leisure activities involved in travel could lead to well-being benefits similar to those gained from formal training. It aims to identify if Taiwanese backpackers experience mindful states during their travels and to identify the antecedent attributes or triggers that facilitate this. As a result, the study can identify possible ways of obtaining 'peace of mind' through tourist experiences. This understanding of how contemporary tourists can enhance their inner engagement can also help tourism operators and marketers in catering for tourists' mindful experience.

11.2 Meditative Mindfulness and its Applications

The concept of meditative mindfulness used in this study is based on the perspective of Eastern philosophy, particularly the Buddhist tradition where it has been applied for 2500 years (Kang and Whittingham, 2010). The original term '*sati*' (in its Pali form) or '*smṛti*' (in its Sanskrit form) used in Buddhist sutra, and then translated into the English word 'mindfulness', can be interpreted as awareness or discernment (Bodhi, 2011; Gethin, 2011). Precisely, mindfulness is an awareness of being aware (Hirst, 2003). Based on this discourse, mindfulness is described as 'the state of being attentive to and aware of what is taking place in the present' (Brown and Ryan, 2003, p. 822). In traditional Buddhist meditative training, mindfulness is a core skill used to help guide novices (Bodhi, 2011) and offers a path for people to follow to achieve liberation from suffering (Kang and Whittingham, 2010). Buddhist assertions about the value of meditative mindfulness to develop the simultaneous qualities of relaxation, attentional stability and vividness have more recently been tested using Western psychological methodology (Kabat-Zinn, 2002, 2003b; Wallace and Shapiro, 2006; Baer, 2009, 2011).

Mindfulness has been applied widely in clinical applications in the past three decades. Kabat-Zinn (2003b) transposed the empirical values and meditation techniques from Eastern traditions to clinical psychology (Kang and Whittingham, 2010). Kabat-Zinn (2003a, p. 145) defines mindfulness as 'the awareness that emerges through paying attention on purpose, in the present moment, and nonjudgmentally

to the unfolding of experience moment to moment'. The mental processes involved in mindfulness training in therapeutic settings has been found to reduce emotional distress and maladaptive behaviour (Bishop *et al.*, 2004). Various formal mindfulness practices or interventions may be used to train participants to be conscious of awareness moment by moment by scanning the physical sensations of the body, thoughts, feelings or emotions, and by paying attention to one's surroundings without judgement.

Mindfulness-based interventions have been found to play an important role in obtaining positive consequences from personal experiences (Carlson and Shapiro, 2009; Carmody *et al.*, 2009). Such formal mindfulness practices have been used effectively for mitigation of stress, enhancing emotional well-being and mental health in both clinical and nonclinical groups (Bishop *et al.*, 2004; Wallace and Shapiro, 2006). These therapeutic intervention programmes involve a specific period of group sessions (normally 8 weeks) under a therapist's coaching. The clients participating in the programme of mindfulness interventions are encouraged to practise the skills of mindfulness intervention programmes in everyday life.

11.2.1 Mindfulness, leisure activities and natural settings

Mindfulness skills are sometimes practised in non-therapeutic settings. In tourism contexts, mindfulness-based training offered by retreats or spiritual resorts has become an emerging market in wellness tourism. For example, mental activities like yoga, Tai Chi, Qigong and meditation elements are parts of the fundamental programmes in retreat markets (Mueller and Kaufmann, 2001). Typically, the products designed by retreat operators combine a central spiritual programme, additional service packages and even relaxation programmes, healthy diets and hiking tours. These retreats aim to help tourists to feel more relaxed and peaceful, and to achieve spiritual development or lifestyle transformations (Voigt *et al.*, 2010). The activities help participants experience and increase in positive emotions and overall well-being for personal growth (Carruthers and Hood, 2011; Murphy, 2011). However, previous studies of the benefits of mindfulness are generally limited to therapeutic settings and little research attention has been given to open-ended or nonspecific sites such as events that occur during an individual's journey.

There is some prior evidence that a traveller on a journey can experience the benefits of well-being without visiting a wellness retreat. Unstructured natural settings have been found to provide meaningful and engaging experiences, resulting in meaningful physiological and psychological benefits (Van Matre, 1990). Van Matre (1990, p. 228) wrote that 'enriched perception' is part of a natural area experience that helps people to immerse themselves totally in the moment and to discover themselves again. Although this literature does not explicitly mention meditative mindfulness, there is some similarity in the discussions to the concept of meditative mindfulness. For example, Ashbaugh (1970) noted visitors in a national park may sense themselves to be a component of a greater ecological whole. Howell *et al.* (2011) suggested that the experience of 'nature connectedness' is implicitly correlated with mindfulness.

11.2.2 Mindfulness and well-being benefits

Benefits can be considered as a 'desirable change of state' of an individual, a group, a society or even nonhuman organisms (Driver *et al.*, 1985, p. 295). In tourism studies, benefits as psychological outcomes are defined as 'the ultimate value that people place on what they believe that they have gained from participation in a certain leisure activity' (Schänzel and McIntosh, 2000, p. 37). The benefits of leisure are suggested to be associated with psychological outcomes that can help individuals' stress reduction or stimulation (Schreyer and Driver, 1989). Mental ease or 'peace of mind' has been argued to be an important contributor to one's well-being (Hobson and Dietrich, 1995).

From a perspective of Buddhist teaching, moving towards well-being is a fundamental part of being human (Wallace and Shapiro, 2006). The purpose of a human being's life is to seek happiness (Cutler and Lama, 2011); that is, individuals are longing for something better in life. Based on this notion, Wallace (2006) suggested that an ideal state of well-being lies in realizing that objective things are not sources of happiness in life; instead, a high level of happiness described as 'eudaimonic well-being' (p. 28) results from experiencing a total freedom of the mind from all mental afflictions and obscurations'. This state can be nurtured through the cultivation of mental balance. Practically, meditation is one of the formal mindfulness practices designed to encourage the state of well-being and mental balance (Kabat-Zinn, 2003a). This is in contrast to the hedonic approach to well-being, which relies on stimulus-driven pleasures of all kinds (Bodhi, 2005).

Mindfulness is an integrative process that promotes well-being in body, mind and relationships, and has been identified in neural science (Siegel, 2009). In contemporary psychology, formal mindfulness practices offer new ways to improve individuals' mental health and indeed to expand the definition of mental health to include well-being and human potential as an essential part of the life system (Carlson and Shapiro, 2009). Certainly research has identified that mindfulness is a beneficial treatment for a wide range of mental health disorders including stress, chronic pain, depression, anxiety, distress and negative emotions (Carruthers and Hood, 2011; Murphy, 2011) through avoiding 'automatic pilot' behaviour (Van Dam *et al.*, 2010). In addition, mindfulness practitioners are seen to move more easily to a physiological state of relaxation (Brown *et al.*, 2007). Generally speaking, the benefits of mindfulness demonstrate an increase in positive emotions, body relaxation and overall well-being.

The above discussion has demonstrated evidence that meditative mindfulness is a feasible theoretical foundation to help understand how some experiences can lead to therapeutic outcomes and a peaceful mind. While previous research has focused on formal mindfulness practices, this study will explore how engaging experience involving leisure activities in a tourism context can achieve similar benefits.

11.3 Methodology

A qualitative methodology based on an interpretive constructivist paradigm which adopts the participant's perspectives (Creswell, 2009) was used for data collection. Taiwanese backpackers travelling in Australia were chosen to provide data to help understand the phenomenon of mindful experience, and snowball sampling was used

to recruit participants. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in Brisbane in 2013 (at backpacker hostels) and at Uluru (Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park), as these two main sites provided the best opportunities to meet Taiwanese backpackers.

Participants

Backpackers seek authentic experiences or novelty; pursue self-change and venture into relatively unknown areas; have no rigid plan or timetable for their journey; and immerse themselves in their surroundings (Cohen, 1972; Niki *et al.*, 2011). Compared with an institutionalized form of tourism, a backpacker is an independent traveller (non-institutionalized form), and their behaviours are more likely represented as an explorer, drifter (Cohen, 1972) or wanderer (Vogt, 1976). Backpacking may involve being more aware of engaged sensations, feelings and interaction with the outer world. The psychological phenomena in backpacking experiences in some cases appear to correspond to the dimensions of meditative mindfulness. Therefore, backpackers were considered to be suitable for this study. Taiwanese backpackers in Australia were selected as respondents since the interviewer (the author) is Taiwanese, enabling her to understand the details of the respondents' discussions. In total, 43 semi-structured interviews were completed and a total of 77 instances of meditative mindfulness were described. Taiwanese backpackers were qualified for participation in the formal semi-structured interviews after an introductory screening interview to ascertain if they had involved appropriate characteristics of meditative mindfulness.

Interview questions

Two interview protocols were used in screening and formal interviews for qualifying and exploring the research question (see Table 11.1). All interviewees were asked screening questions and, if accepted, the interviewer continued the main question set for this research. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

Table 11.1. Interview questions.

Dimension	Questions
Screening questions	
1. Mindfulness experience	
a. Attention	Have you experienced times when you were extraordinarily conscious of your sensory experiences; sight, sound, odour, flavours, touch and mental objects, on your Australia backpacking travel? And how? (Affirmative)
b. Present moment	Were you able to focus on that moment in the situations you mentioned? And why? (Affirmative)
c. Non-judgement	Did you find yourself making judgements or evaluating whether your perceptions or thoughts were right? And why? (Negative)
Formal questions	
2. Potential attributes (triggers)	What led to this experience? Could you describe in more detail how you felt and thought at the moment of the particular situation?
3. Experiential benefits	What benefits did you feel you gained from the experience?

QSR-NVivo 10 qualitative analysis software was used to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the data analysis process.

11.4 Results

The purpose of this study was to explore the potential attributes (triggers) embodied in unstructured tourism settings that facilitate positive mental benefits from their engaging travel experiences. The themes, triggers and related concepts are summarized in Table 11.2 and discussed below.

11.4.1 Aesthetic appreciation

Aesthetic appreciation is one of the antecedents (or triggers) arising from the experience setting that focus attention in a present moment, without any elaboration on it. Most of the aesthetic appreciation triggers were found in encounters with nature.

Beauty in wonder

'Beauty in wonder' was a trigger commonly noted by the respondents. This concept involved settings or events that created a sense of awe and wonder and combined with experiences that produced attention. The sense of awe and wonder was connected to experiencing something that embodied *vastness* and *transcendence*. Seeing a pleasing or beautiful object in the distance often attracted a traveller's attention. Vastness or immensity led to mindful awareness, and facilitated an aesthetic appreciation of nature, as exemplified in the following excerpt:

The coastline and ocean were vast and boundless. My feelings stayed between peace and relaxation. The feeling was composed of emotion; it was not exactly like a superlative peace but it was stronger than a relaxed entertainment. The perceived affection of watching the sea on the Great Ocean Road was deeper than viewing a river.

(S26)

Distance from afar, a subset set of vastness, could be embodied by looking down from a high point or looking up from a low place, in a vertical aspect; or by a broad and extended view, in a horizontal aspect. For example, a lookout on a mountain, a lighthouse on the coast or a view in a national park were captivating and triggered the tourist's attention, then interestingly contributed to a state of peace and relaxation.

Some attributes of Australian destinations were described by Taiwanese backpackers in a manner similar to transcendence. A comment about Whitehaven Beach

Table 11.2. Antecedents facilitating meditative mindful travel experiences.

Themes	Triggers	Potential sub-concepts
Aesthetic appreciation	Beauty in wonder Beauty in impermanence	Vastness, transcendence Transient natural phenomena
Atmosphere of tranquillity	Absence of noise Absence of normal light	Awakening sense of mindful hearing Awakening sense of mindful observing

in the Whitsunday Islands illustrates that aesthetic appreciation that leads individuals to experience a meditative mindful state:

When I walked out of the cabin and saw the scenery, I felt refreshed and said, 'Does a real Shangri-La exist in the world?' I was astonished and excited. It was unlike the pictures in travel books I saw. The scenic encounter made me feel like I was in 'Heaven'. The awesome beauty involved light blue water, an island arc, a pure, non-polluted and peaceful beach and schools of tiny fish.

(S21)

This experience of wonder involving transcendence created a 'break' with previous cognitive judgements and knowledge. The experience of wonder led the subject to feel astonished at the 'miracle' of the setting. This triggered aesthetic contemplation and simple imagination like 'I was in Heaven', as seen in S21's statement. During the process of encounter between the subject and objects, most respondents reported that the experience can also contribute to a state of being immersed with appreciation, such as: 'I was intoxicated with appreciation of the amazing beauty of nature' (S06). In other words, an experience involving wonder can be seen as a trigger for a kind of awareness.

Beauty in impermanence

Representations of *impermanence* embodied in astronomical phenomena are mostly found in Australian outdoor destinations where tourists were undertaking their travel. For example, sunrise and sunset, a shooting star, a rising moon, the Milky Way and a double rainbow were described by participants camping in a national park, driving on a road trip or sightseeing. These representations were labelled *transient natural phenomena*.

Watching the sunrise in front of Uluru was a special experience ... It seemed I had seen a spiritual art performance on a stage that was different from looking at a picture or books ... I felt peaceful, beautiful, and nothing interrupted me at that moment. The rock and the nature seemed to embody some magic powers. They were beyond my understanding and imagination ... It aroused in me a sense of respect for the wonderful nature.

(S10)

This example indicated that the respondent's creative imagination was invoked by the relationship between himself, sun and rock leading to a sense of 'abstract beauty' of the sunrise. Likewise, another example revealed an alternative possibility for appreciating the beauty of the *transient natural phenomena*:

I was totally immersed to experience the moment of inner ease with that situation of star-watching in my swag camping in Flinders Ranges National Park—what a beautiful and peaceful cosmos! It really led me to forget myself completely.

(S44)

Such triggers of aesthetic appreciations helped the backpackers to awaken their sense-perceptions. Most such triggers were found embodied in natural settings. It is noteworthy that aesthetic experiences appear to create a feeling of immersion and being at one with the place, and a part of the environment, which led to a sense of peace, of relaxation and of ease.

11.4.2 Atmosphere of tranquility

Another dimension of the triggers mentioned by respondents related to an atmosphere of quietness and darkness, essentially an *absence of noise* or *normal light*. These triggers were categorized as ‘atmosphere of tranquility’. They were found mostly at nature-based destinations where the participants were involved in outdoor activities such as hiking, diving, camping or simply watching a starry sky.

Absence of noise

An absence of noise led to less distraction from auditory information processing. It allowed individuals to pay attention to sounds from nature. The quietness of coastal/mountain national parks or wilderness was clearly and vividly perceived:

I climbed on top of a giant rock in Kakadu National Park. Even though the wind was whizzing and blew away my hat, I could clearly hear my breathing at that moment . . . I felt in a sense of tranquillity, as if I am living in the present moment without any thoughts – no thinking about the past and future. I was paying attention to the scenario. (S08)

I could hear the calm voice of the ocean through the flow of the waves as well as my slow and easy breathing . . . so peaceful . . . it made my body relaxed so it felt like all the pressure I was burdened with was removed.

(S30, about scuba diving)

Quiet environments allowed tourists to attend to inner sensations such as the internal bodily sounds described in the extract. This appears to facilitate an openness to the experience and contributed to tranquility of the mind.

Absence of normal light

The feeling of tranquility was also triggered by darkness. A low intensity of visual stimuli appears to sharpen an individual’s awareness of sensations:

I did not feel I was in front of the lighthouse. I did not feel I was on a hill. I neither felt I was in Australia, nor in a sense that I was in the real world. I felt the time and space stood still and I was almost oblivious to myself as well, when I looked at the night sky full of stars. At that moment, I was aware of my state of being in that starry night.

(S03)

I enjoyed scuba diving, especially deep diving in the night. I could see clearly what was in front of me. Beautiful coral and fishes with colourful slightly neon were shiny in a dark than in my previous imagination. It was a very special experience for me . . . because the world does not only exist for humankind, but also for surrounding creatures. A positive feeling of solitude was aroused.

(S24)

The atmosphere of tranquility discussed above appears to awaken perceptions and lead to a sense of timelessness, being immersed in the universe, feelings of being in the present, having few thoughts, and of solitude and peace.

11.4.3 Well-being benefits

In summary, as mentioned previously, a number of types of triggers, that facilitated Taiwanese backpackers experiencing a mindful state and resulted in tourists gaining specific benefits, were found in this study (as summarized in Fig. 11.1). These experiential benefits appear related to the well-being derived from formal mindfulness practices.

11.5 Discussion

This chapter has analysed the antecedent triggers of the meditative mindful travel experiences in Australia based on Eastern notions of meditative mindfulness. Occurrences of mindfulness were identified by a respondent reporting an experience where they were paying non-judgemental attention in the present moment (Kabat-Zinn, 2003a). These experiences occurred during open-ended backpacking journeys, at a range of different types of sites and in unplanned situations. Two main types of triggers facilitate a meditative mindful state: aesthetic appreciation and atmosphere of tranquility. All the antecedents of meditative mindfulness experiences occurred when tourists were interacting with their surroundings and participating in a specific activity. The experiences led the tourists to gain benefits such as peace,

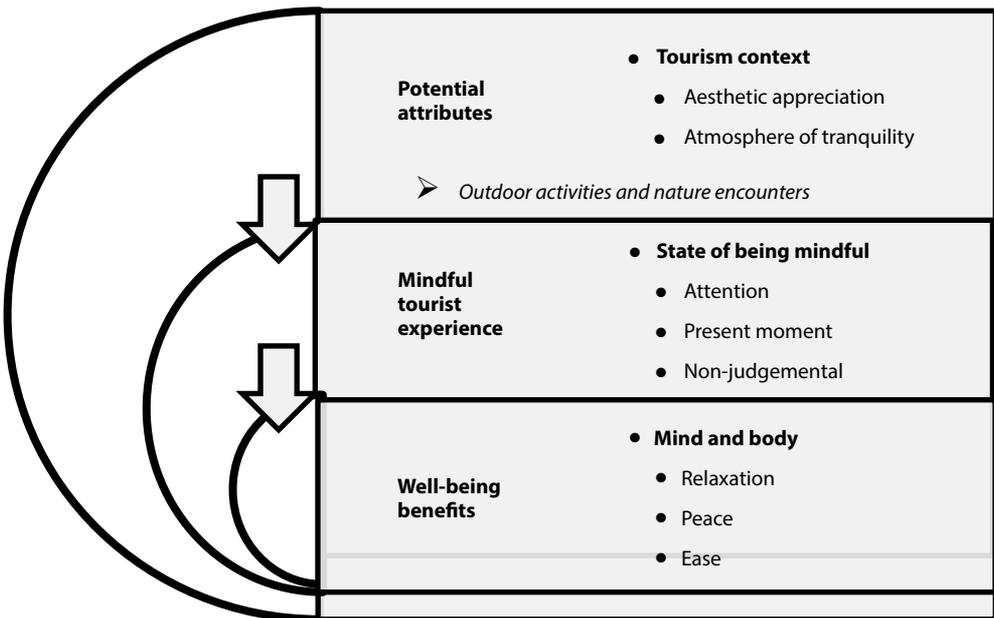


Fig. 11.1. Well-being from meditative mindful travel experiences.

mental relaxation, stress release and somatic relaxation. These are discussed in detail below.

This study found 'aesthetic appreciation' of settings occurred when tourists saw something beautiful that fully engaged their attention. The beauty was illustrated and associated with vastness, transcendence and transience that captured their attention. The attention also induced tourists' introspection, a respect for nature and a feeling of harmony with their surroundings. Mindful awareness was aroused mostly by unexpected encounters with aesthetic visual stimuli, especially in natural settings. Aesthetic feelings were manifested in response to mountains, the ocean, the sunrise, the skies and genuine outback scenery. These aesthetic stimuli were also found to contribute to a simultaneous deep sense of positive emotion, and were followed by an absence of instrumental knowledge or conceptualization. These aesthetic antecedents facilitated an intensified sense of interrelatedness and a weakened sense of self (being oblivious to oneself).

Although some research supports a connection between aesthetic appreciation connected to nature-based experiences (Xu *et al.*, 2012) and peaceful and relaxed attention (Tooby and Cosmides, 2001), these studies are based on cognitive responses to the aesthetic experiences. They focused on the relationship between interpretive information processing involving cognitive awareness and the aesthetic experiences from a certain nature-based site. Recommendations based on the cognitive approach emphasize using adjectival words, figurative or metaphorical descriptions, and highlighting of natural attractions to engage tourists' experiences (Xu *et al.*, 2012). However, aesthetic appreciation can be cognitive (gaining knowledge about a penguin habitat) as well as affective in nature (i.e. 'romanticism') (Schänzel and McIntosh, 2000). In environmental education, Tilden (1957) suggested that affective environmental interpretation can enhance engagement in nature and enrich specific experiences. This suggests possibilities for facilitating natural awareness beyond cognitive learning. For example, watching the sunset at Uluru may have a long-term effect on the individual (Howard, 1998). This current study has supported that the backpackers had vivid recollections of the aesthetic experiences, strongly linked to attention and emotion.

An 'atmosphere of tranquility' was found to foster tourists' attentiveness to sensations; it can settle their minds to gain access to a deeper self and lead to a sense of relaxation and tranquility. The attentiveness to sensations can be activated through an 'absence of noise' and 'absence of normal light'. A quiet and calm environment with few distractions is a simple way to elicit relaxation, tranquility and mental calm (Benson, 1974; Smith *et al.*, 1996; Benson and Corliss, 2004). Thus, being quiet without the stimulus of cognitive information processing, evokes tourists' attention and facilitates a meditative mindfulness state. Similar concepts can be seen in environmental education studies, where low-intensity on-site interpretation, coupled with a restriction of activities, is suggested to contribute to a passive observational experience of nature (Hughes and Morrison-Saunders, 2005). That is, 'absence of noise' and 'absence of light' imply a low intensity of stimuli and cognitive information processing from the external world.

The concept of mindfulness applied in this study is distinct from prior mindfulness research in tourism contexts focusing on visitor learning (Moscardo, 1999), whereby interpretation tools (e.g. a tour guide's interpretation, signs, brochures) have

been applied as cognitive information processing interventions. The current research is more concerned with perceiving sensations, and in inviting attention and awareness of the environment. The findings are supported by clinical psychology and neural science studies examining the effects of formal mindfulness practices (Wallace and Shapiro, 2006; Siegel, 2009).

11.6 Conclusion

This analysis has identified mechanisms by which well-being outcomes are derived from tourist experiences and has made three contributions to the literature by:

1. providing a new direction in understanding the complex links between tourist experience and its therapeutic functions by operationalizing the concept of meditative mindfulness;
2. being the first attempt to identify the links between meditative mindfulness and its potential attributes (antecedents) in the literature of tourism. Two main triggers of meditative mindful tourist experiences were identified in relation to nature-based tourism settings and specific activities;
3. showing that the benefits derived from tourist mindful experience seem to connect to one's mind and body in a manner similar to those of formal mindfulness practices. The significance of well-being gained by Taiwanese backpackers was represented by the spontaneous feelings of mental ease and emotional balance.

There are important implications for tourists and tourism operators. For tourists, nature encounters or participation in certain leisure activities may be a useful practical means of producing a sense of wonder and rejuvenation that may meet their desire to reduce stress and provide intrinsic well-being. For tourism operators, management of tourism products and attractions in niche markets like eco-travel, nature appreciation, wildlife observation and adventuring may be used to trigger mindful tourist experiences. Site planning at destinations, for example, may adopt an ecological design to merge natural aesthetic triggers to create places where people can appreciate the beauty around them. Mindful tourism products may, for example, reduce information processing by reducing the intensity of cognitive stimuli and providing affective interpretation.

This research has a number of delimitations and limitations. The findings were restricted to Taiwanese backpackers' experiences in Australia and so can be regarded as indicative only and must take into account the validity of interpretability in a cross-cultural context (Van de Vijver and Poortinga, 1997). This conceptual framework should be used with caution in future research in other cultural contexts.

References

- Ashbaugh, B.L. (1970) New interpretive methods and techniques. *Journal of Environmental Education* 2(1), 14.
- Baer, R.A. (2009) *Assessment of Mindfulness*. Springer, New York, pp. 153–168.
- Baer, R.A. (2011) Measuring mindfulness. *Contemporary Buddhism* 12(1), 241–261.

- Benson, H. (1974) Your innate asset for combating stress. *Harvard Business Review* 52(4), 49.
- Benson, H. and Corliss, J. (2004) Ways to calm your mind. *Newsweek* 144(13), 47.
- Bishop, S.R., Lau, M., Shapiro, S., Carlson, L., Anderson, N.D. et al. (2004) Mindfulness: a proposed operational definition. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice* 11(3), 230–241. DOI: 10.1093/clipsy.bph077
- Bodhi, B. (2005) *In the Buddha's words: an anthology of discourses from the Pali canon*. Wisdom Publications, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Bodhi, B. (2011) What does mindfulness really mean? A canonical perspective. *Contemporary Buddhism* 12(1), 19–39. DOI: 10.1080/14639947.2011.564813
- Brown, K.W. and Ryan, R.M. (2003) The benefits of being present: mindfulness and its role in psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 84(4), 822–848. DOI: 10.1037/0022-3514.84.4.822
- Brown, K.W., Ryan, R.M. and Creswell, J.D. (2007) Mindfulness: theoretical foundations and evidence for its salutary effects. *Psychological Inquiry* 18(4), 211–237.
- Bushell, R. and Sheldon, P.J. (2009) *Wellness and Tourism: Mind, Body, Spirit, Place*. Cognizant Communication, Elmsford, New York.
- Carlson, L.E. and Shapiro, S.L. (2009) *The Art and Science of Mindfulness: Integrating Mindfulness into Psychology and the Helping Professions*. American Psychological Association, Washington DC.
- Carmody, J., Baer, R.A., Lykins, E.L.B. and Olendzki, N. (2009) An empirical study of the mechanisms of mindfulness in a mindfulness-based stress reduction program. *Journal of Clinical Psychology* 65(6), 613–626. DOI: 10.1002/jclp.20579
- Carruthers, C. and Hood, C.D. (2011) Mindfulness and well-being: implications for TR practice. *Therapeutic Recreation Journal* 45(3), 171–189. DOI: 10.1093/clipsy/bpg015
- Chen, I.-L.L., Scott, N. and Benckendorff, P. (2014) An exploration of mindfulness theories in eastern and western philosophies. In: Chien, P.M. (ed.) *Proceedings of the 24th Council for Australasian University Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE) Annual Conference*. The University of Queensland, Australia, Brisbane, Australia, pp. 164–175.
- Cohen, E. (1972) Toward a sociology of international tourism. *Social Research* 39(1), 164–182.
- Creswell, J.W. (2009) *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, California.
- Currie, J. (2000) *The Mindful Traveler: A Guide to Journaling and Transformative Travel*. Open Court Publishing Company, Chicago and La Salle, Illinois.
- Cutler, H.C. and Lama, D. (2011) *The Art of Happiness*. Hachette, UK.
- Driver, B.L., Nash, R. and Haas, G. (1985) Wilderness benefits: a state-of-knowledge view. Paper presented at the National Wilderness Research Conference: Issues, State of Knowledge, Future Directions, Fort Collins, Colorado.
- Edginton, C.R. and Chen, P. (2008) *Leisure as Transformation*. Sagamore Publishing, Champaign, Illinois.
- Gethin, R. (2011) On some definitions of mindfulness. *Contemporary Buddhism* 12(1), 263–279.
- Giddens, A. (1991) *Modernity and Self-identity: Self and Society in the Late Modern Age*. Polity Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Heintzman, P. (2010) Nature-based recreation and spirituality: a complex relationship. *Leisure Sciences* 32(1), 72–89. DOI: 10.1080/01490400903430897
- Hirst, I.S. (2003) Perspectives of mindfulness. *Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing* 10(3), 359–366. DOI: 10.1046/j.1365-2850.2003.00610.x
- Hobson, J.S.P. and Dietrich, U.C. (1995) Tourism, health and quality of life. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 3(4), 21–38. DOI: 10.1300/J073v03n04_02
- Howard, J. (1998) Environmental education and interpretation: developing an affective difference. *Australian Journal of Environmental Education* 14, 65–70.
- Howell, A.J., Dopko, R.L., Passmore, H.-A. and Buro, K. (2011) Nature connectedness: associations with well-being and mindfulness. *Personality and Individual Differences* 51(2), 166–171.

- Hughes, M. and Morrison-Saunders, A. (2005) Influence of on-site interpretation intensity on visitors to natural areas. *Journal of Ecotourism* 4(3), 161–177. DOI: 10.1080/jJET.v4.i3.pg161
- Kabat-Zinn, J. (2002) Meditation is about paying attention. *Reflections: The SoL Journal* 3(3), 68–68. DOI: 10.1162/152417302317363949
- Kabat-Zinn, J. (2003a) Mindfulness-based interventions in context: past, present, and future. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice* 10(2), 144–156. DOI: 10.1093/clipsy.bpg016
- Kabat-Zinn, J. (2003b) Mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR). *Constructivism in the Human Sciences* 8(2), 73–107.
- Kang, C. and Whittingham, K. (2010) Mindfulness: a dialogue between Buddhism and clinical psychology. *Mindfulness* 1(3), 161–173. DOI: 10.1007/s12671-010-0018-1
- Kottler, J.A. (1997) *Travel that Can Change Your Life: How to Create a Transformative Experience*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, California.
- Kottler, J.A. (1998) Transformative travel. *The Futurist* 32(3), 24–28.
- Moscardo, G. (1999) *Making Visitors Mindful: Principles for Creating Quality Sustainable Visitor Experiences through Effective Communication*. Sagamore Publishing, Champaign, Illinois.
- Mueller, H. and Kaufmann, E.L. (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.
- Murphy, M.D. (2011) The happiness agenda: a comparison of perspectives from positive psychology and American Buddhist psychology on the pursuit of well-being. PhD thesis, California Institute of Integral Studies, San Francisco, California.
- Niki, P., Lin, Y. and Petros, C. (2011) Writing to the unknown: bloggers and the presence of backpackers. *Information Technology & People* 24(4), 362–377. DOI: 10.1108/09593841111182241
- Pirson, M., Langer, E. J., Bodner, T. and Zilcha, S. (2012) *The development and validation of the Langer mindfulness scale: enabling a socio-cognitive perspective of mindfulness in organizational contexts*. Fordham University, New York.
- Richards, G. (1999) Vacations and the quality of life: patterns and structures. *Journal of Business Research* 44(3), 189–198. DOI: 10.1016/S0148-2963(97)00200-2
- Schänzel, H.A. and McIntosh, A.J. (2000) An insight into the personal and emotive context of wildlife viewing at the Penguin Place, Otago Peninsula, New Zealand. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 8(1), 36–52. DOI: 10.1080/09669580008667348
- Schreyer, R. and Driver, B.L. (1989) The benefits of leisure. In Jackson, E.L. and Burton, T.L. (eds) *Understanding Leisure and Recreation: Mapping the Past, Charting the Future*. Venture Publishing Inc., State College Pennsylvania.
- Schroevers, M.J. and Brandsma, R. (2010) Is learning mindfulness associated with improved affect after mindfulness-based cognitive therapy? *British Journal of Psychology* 101(1), 95–107.
- Siegel, D.J. (2009) Mindful awareness, mindsight, and neural integration. *The Humanistic Psychologist* 37(2), 137–158. DOI: 10.1080/08873260902892220
- Smith, J.C., Amutio, A., Anderson, J.P. and Aria, L.A. (1996) Relaxation: mapping an uncharted world. *Biofeedback and Self-regulation* 21(1), 63–90. DOI: 10.1007/bf02214150
- Sternberg, R.J. (2000) Images of mindfulness. *Journal of Social Issues* 56(1), 11–26. DOI: 10.1111/0022-4537.00149
- Tilden, F. (1957) *Interpreting Our Heritage*. Chapel Hill, North California.
- Tooby, J. and Cosmides, L. (2001) Does beauty build adapted minds? Toward an evolutionary theory of aesthetics, fiction and the arts. *SubStance* 30(94–95), 6–27.
- Van Dam, N.T., Earleywine, M. and Borders, A. (2010) Measuring mindfulness? An item response theory analysis of the mindful attention awareness scale. *Personality and Individual Differences* 49(7), 805–810. DOI: 10.1016/j.paid.2010.07.020
- Van de Vijver, F.J.R. and Poortinga, Y.H. (1997) Towards an integrated analysis of bias in cross-cultural assessment. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment* 13(1), 29–37. DOI: 10.1027/1015-5759.13.1.29

- Van Matre, S. (1990) *Earth Education: A New Beginning*. Institute for Earth Education, Warrenville, Illinois.
- Vogt, J.W. (1976) Wandering: youth and travel behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research* 4(1), 25–41. DOI: 10.1016/0160-7383(76)90051-7
- Voigt, C., Laing, J., Wray, M., Brown, G., Howat, G. *et al.* (2010) *Health Tourism in Australia: Supply, Demand and Opportunities*. Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre, Gold Coast, Queensland, Australia.
- Wallace, B.A. (2006) Buddhism and science. In: Clayton, P. and Simpson, Z. (ed.) *The Oxford Handbook of Religion and Science*. Oxford University Press on Demand, Oxford, UK, pp. 24–40.
- Wallace, B.A. and Shapiro, S.L. (2006) Mental balance and well-being: building bridges between Buddhism and western psychology. *The American Psychologist* 61(7), 690–701. DOI: 10.1037/0003-066x.61.7.690
- Xu, H., Cui, Q., Ballantyne, R. and Packer, J. (2012) Effective environmental interpretation at Chinese natural attractions: the need for an aesthetic approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 21(1), 117–133. DOI: 10.1080/09669582.2012.681787

12 Motivational Satisfaction and Emotional Outcomes from Experiences

JIANYU MA*

Shanghai Normal University, Shanghai, China

12.1 Introduction

The effect of emotional responses on the formation of customer satisfaction or post-consumption evaluation, and on behavioural intentions, is a popular research topic in both marketing and tourism literature (Martin *et al.*, 2008). Emotions have been found to contribute to the formation of satisfaction as well as to have significant effects on behavioural intentions. Yet different definitions of satisfaction are used in such studies, and emotions are considered to play various roles in the formation of these different types of satisfaction so defined.

A relatively robust direct link between positive emotions and satisfaction has been found in the satisfaction literature for a variety of products and services (Westbrook, 1987; Dubé and Morgan, 1996). Research findings in the tourism and leisure literature show that positive affect is related to satisfaction, and negative affect is related to dissatisfaction (Decrop, 2000; Benkenstein *et al.*, 2003). The joint effects of positive cognition (disconfirmation) and emotions (pleasure and arousal) on satisfaction, as well as on willingness to pay more and to loyalty, is empirically supported in the context of hedonic services (Bigné *et al.*, 2008). In the context of utilitarian services, the integration of affective variables into the cognitive disconfirmation model of satisfaction was also proposed (Wirtz and Bateson, 1999). In these previous studies of emotions and their effects on postconsumption experience, there are a number of disagreements about the relationship between emotions and satisfaction. These include: (i) how emotions impact on the formation of customer satisfaction; that is, if cognitive evaluation of product or service performance impacts on emotional responses and then influences satisfaction (cognitive-affective sequence), or if emotional status affects evaluations and leads to satisfaction (affective-cognitive

*Corresponding author e-mail: jianyu.ma@uqconnect.edu.au

approach); (ii) if emotions are concepts distinct from satisfaction; and (iii) if satisfaction itself can be regarded as an emotional response to an experience.

12.2 Satisfaction and Positive Emotions

Satisfaction or dissatisfaction 'implies an act of judgement, a comparison of what people have to what they think they deserve, expect or may reasonably aspire to. If the discrepancy is small, the result is satisfaction; if it is large, there is dissatisfaction' (Campbell, 1980, p. 22). In other words, if there is a large discrepancy between a desired or expected goal and the real goal, dissatisfaction is created. This is consistent with expectancy-disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1980). Other authors argued that 'customer satisfaction may be more than a simple cognitive evaluation process; rather it is probably a complex human process involving extensive cognitive, affective and other undiscovered psychological and physiological dynamics' (Oh and Parks, 1997, p. 37). Overall satisfaction is more likely to be an emotional response to an experience (Oliver, 1981) when people's inner-directed or drive-based attitudes and values (push motivation) are fulfilled (Gnoth, 1997). In this case, customer satisfaction appears to be an emotional, evaluative and psychological process which relates to an experience, working as a process or a feeling. Customer satisfaction combines the emotional response from the evaluation of experiences and the fulfilment of needs. Thus, satisfaction may be defined as a feeling that is accumulated (Bigné *et al.*, 2001; Ekinci and Sirakaya, 2004), and results from a subjective emotional response (Westbrook, 1981; Spreng *et al.*, 1996), a cognitive evaluation of a set of experiences (Oliver, 1980) or the fulfilment of needs during the experience (Meyer and Westerbarkey, 1996; Coon, 2004).

Consumption emotions correlate significantly with postconsumption satisfaction since they are the affective responses to one's perception of the series of attributes that compose a product or service performance (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991; Mano and Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1993). Positive perceived performances induce positive emotions, and negative performance induce negative emotions (Menon and Dubé, 2000). If a product fails to live up to a customer's needs or expectations, he or she will respond with negative emotions. On the other hand, if it is perceived as being desired, the customers will respond with positive emotions (Liljander and Strandvik, 1997). Attribute satisfaction impacts on overall satisfaction through positive and negative affect. Three emotions are found to be antecedents of satisfaction with a car purchase: pleasant surprise, interest and hostility (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). The determinants of satisfaction were later expanded to include positive affect (interest and joy) and negative affect (anger, disgust, contempt, shame, guilt, fear, sadness), as well as disconfirmation beliefs (Oliver and Westbrook, 1993). There is empirical support for a valence congruent relationship between dissatisfaction and negative emotions either in normal product usage (Price *et al.*, 1995; Dubé and Morgan, 1996), or in response to a service failure (Taylor and Baker, 1994; Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, consumption emotions are treated as a function of the cognitive process of performance evaluation, referred to as the 'cognitive-affective sequence' (Lazarus, 1991).

However, the emotions-lead-to-cognition perspective generates another competing model in emotions and satisfaction, termed 'affective-cognitive'. Positive and

negative emotions in turn work on people's perceived performance or cognitive disconfirmation to influence evaluative judgements by the amplification effect of the arousal dimension of emotions (Babin and Attaway, 2000; Ladhari, 2007), as well as by affective-processing mechanisms (Cohen and Areni, 1991). The affective-processing mechanism is the way that people retrieve affective traces of a relevant experience from their memory. They then integrate these affective traces into the evaluative judgement, together with other memories such as beliefs and prior expectancies. Emotions elicited by the consumption experience are believed to leave strong affective traces in episodic memory, and to work on the satisfaction cognition process as well. This perspective is reflected in the affective-cognitive model; here, emotions are treated as moderators to satisfaction.

In marketing research, most scholars have relied on the cognitive-affective approach of emotions to explain consumer behaviour (Mano and Oliver, 1993; Oliver *et al.*, 1997). A study by Bigné *et al.* (2008) on the joint effects of cognition and emotion on satisfaction in the context of hedonic services empirically tested the cognitive-affective sequence in the interplay between emotions and cognitive disconfirmation. Furthermore, in affective-processing mechanisms, the affective traces of the certain consumption experience left in the memory are attenuated by mood. From a dynamic perspective, the influence of affect on satisfaction evaluation decreases over time, while the impact of cognition increases (Homburg *et al.*, 2006). These affective traces are more likely to impact on satisfaction evaluation via beliefs, moods or even attitudes than are the simultaneously elicited emotions. It is argued that there should be instances in which the satisfaction process is more cognitive, and other instances in which it is more affective, such as situations in which consumers use more of an experiential perspective to experience consumption (Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002). However, this argument still follows the cognitive-affective sequence to suggest an *experiential disconfirmation* concept as the discrepancy between anticipated emotions and experienced emotions. An affective discrepancy is regarded as a parallel to cognitive disconfirmation in their research. This is also in line with the cognition-leads-to-emotions school of thought in psychology, corresponding to the belief of cognitive appraisal theory.

12.3 Satisfaction as an Emotional Response

There is another competing school of thought related to emotions and satisfaction. The debate discussed above concerning the cognitive-affective or affective-cognitive sequence in the formation of satisfaction regards emotion as a part of the process through which overall satisfaction is developed. But since judgements of satisfaction vary along a hedonic continuum (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991), a question arises. Are satisfaction and consumption emotions distinguishable theoretical constructs; that is to say, can emotions be distinct from satisfaction, or can satisfaction itself be conceptualized as an emotional response?

An early study by Hunt (1977) states that 'satisfaction is not the pleasurable-ness of the [consumption] experience, it is the evaluation rendered that the experience was at least as good as it was supposed to be' (p. 459). When consumers generate satisfaction evaluations of product usage or services, they express qualitatively different

emotions coexisting with or contributing to satisfaction judgements. This is exemplified by a study to specify types or categories of emotional response that may be causally antecedent to (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991) and coexist with a satisfaction judgement (Oliver, 1989). Westbrook and Oliver (1991) propose five qualitatively different emotional states for instances of satisfaction: (i) acceptance (contentment); (ii) happiness (pleasure); (iii) relief; (iv) interest/excitement; and (v) delight, ordered by increasing favourableness and contribution to satisfaction. These emotions are regarded as qualitatively different states of satisfaction with different emotional 'markers'. Similar findings appear in their later study (Oliver and Westbrook, 1993) in which different scores of satisfaction present with differentiated labels of emotional content.

Emotional responses are further argued as distinct outcomes elicited during consumption independent of satisfaction (Westbrook, 1987; Finn, 2012). Similar arguments are presented by a study on expectations, post-purchase emotional states and affective behaviour (Santos and Boote, 2003), where four emotional responses of postconsumption were found: (i) delight; (ii) satisfaction (or positive indifference); (iii) acceptance (or negative indifference); and (iv) dissatisfaction. In tourism, different emotions, such as pleasure and interesting, challenged as a result of tourist experiences in tourism attractions, are also found to be within a similar overall satisfaction level (Vittersø *et al.*, 2000). Delight as an emotion is separated from satisfaction by the discriminant validity of the two concepts with similar measurement instruments in the context of B2C (business to consumer) websites (Finn, 2005, 2012). Recent tourism literature on delight has also distinguished delight and satisfaction as two distinct concepts by discriminant validity in different contexts such as the restaurant industry (Bowden and Dagger, 2011) and rural tourism (Loureiro, 2010). Hence, satisfaction and emotional reactions are two separate outcomes of the consumption experience, although they interact with each other.

In contrast to this distinction between emotion and satisfaction, other investigators conceptualized satisfaction as itself an emotional response to the judgemental disparity between product performance and a corresponding normative standard (Cadotte *et al.*, 1987). There is an emotional perspective that defines satisfaction as 'an emotional state of mind after exposure to the opportunity' (Baker and Crompton, 2000, p. 787), 'an affective state that is the emotional reaction to a product or service' (Spreng *et al.*, 1996, p. 17) and a 'subjective emotional state that occurs in response to an evaluation of a set of experiences' (Westbrook, 1981, p. 70). Although it is unclear whether satisfaction is phenomenologically distinct from many other positive emotions (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999), the measures of joy and satisfaction load on to one factor (Nyer, 1997). Furthermore, satisfaction is found to share much common variance with positive emotions such as happiness, joy and gladness (Shaver *et al.*, 1987). When emotions are examined in the context of the hospitality experience and special meal occasions, it is suggested that 'customer satisfaction is more likely to be a response to the emotion of the occasion than rational calculations' (Lashley *et al.*, 2005, p. 80). It is argued that previous studies that have found discriminant validity for satisfaction and other positive emotions like joy and happiness can be explained by the way items are presented on the questionnaire (e.g. separation of measures of satisfaction from measures of other positive emotions), or the lack of inclusion of a sufficient number of positive emotions (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999).

It is also argued that needs satisfaction, in contrast to evaluation-based or attribute satisfaction, is more likely to be expressed as a feeling. Satisfaction is generally classified into two different types: needs satisfaction based on motivational theory, and evaluation-based or attribute satisfaction based on expectation-disconfirmation theory. Needs satisfaction is the final stage of the motivation process (Mannell and Kleiber, 1997) while evaluation-based satisfaction is the process and antecedent of needs satisfaction (Shu and Crompton, 2003). For example, consumers' rational evaluations of the performance of a service or product affect the fulfilment of their needs, as well as needs satisfaction. This is similar to the notion that 'satisfaction as an emotional response to an experience (Oliver, 1981) is more closely related to inner-directed or drive-based values rather than to outer-directed or cognitive dominant values' (Gnoth, 1997, p. 299). This drive-based (push) satisfaction is also called motivational or need satisfaction.

12.4 Motivational Satisfaction and Delight

Satisfaction itself can be regarded as a positive emotion when consumers' motivation or needs are fulfilled and they feel satisfied (Finn, 2005). Satisfaction is then treated as an emotional response derived from the evaluation of the consumption experience based on motivations or needs. Satisfaction is not, however, the only positive emotion that can possibly be found in the consumption experience. There are qualitatively different positive emotions from satisfaction that vary in the degree and intensity of the affective responses (Souca, 2014) as well as their effects on behavioural intentions, such as delight (Oliver *et al.*, 1997). Ma *et al.* (2017) use cognitive appraisal theory (see details in Chapter 7 of this volume) to differentiate delight from motivational satisfaction in four ways: (i) visitors' degree of goal realization by the visitation experience; (ii) their level of surprise; (iii) their level of interest in activities; and (iv) whether visitors attach importance or special meanings to their visitation experiences. Different evaluations of these dimensions lead to different arousal levels and differentiate delight (an aroused positive affect) from motivational satisfaction (a positive emotional response). Table 12.1 illustrates different appraisal patterns of delight and satisfaction on the set of appraisal dimensions discussed here.

Table 12.1. Appraisal patterns of delight and motivational satisfaction.

Appraisal dimensions	Sub dimensions	Appraisal pattern of delight	Appraisal pattern of satisfaction	Variances
Novelty		Highly unexpected	Moderately or low expected	Degree
Dimensions affecting emotional intensity	Goal realization	High	Low	Degree
	Goal importance	Goal important	Goal unimportant or indifferent	Present/absent
	Goal interest	High interest	Moderate or low interest	Degree
Goal congruence		Appetitive goal congruent	Appetitive goal congruent	Same

Summarized by the author from Ma *et al.* (2017).

Motivational satisfaction as an emotion is then compared with delight to further distinguish the two concepts, not only by their antecedents, but to establish a direct relationship between these two emotions and behavioural intentions.

12.5 Emotions and Behavioural Intentions

Some researchers view emotions as action-oriented (Kim and Moon, 2009). In line with this view, it is proposed that an individual may take action based on an emotional feeling (Zajonc, 1980). Emotions therefore have implications for action as well as for goal attainment (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1998). According to the 'broaden-and-build' theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2001, p. 219), the experience of positive emotions broadens people's momentary thought-action repertoires, which in turn builds their enduring personal resources, ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological resources.

From a practitioner's perspective, the emerging work related to emotions and the prediction of consumer behavioural intentions is too important to ignore, and this is particularly so for those involved in an industry such as tourism (White and Scandale, 2005). Many practitioners believe that the best way to gain customer loyalty is to ensure that customers have an emotional experience with a product or service, rather than merely achieving satisfaction (Kumar and Oliver, 1997). Thus, capturing the way people feel about a destination or product, alongside traditional cognitive attribute belief measures, can greatly enhance planning decisions and provide unique insights into the way consumers view potential or existing offerings.

The overwhelming number of studies that have investigated the outcomes of overall satisfaction have indicated that a significant relationship exists between satisfaction/dissatisfaction and loyalty behaviours such as switching, complaining, positive word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions (Alford and Sherrell, 1996; Tax *et al.*, 1998; Ennew and Binks, 1999; Andreassen, 2000; Mittal and Kamakure, 2001; Szymanski and Henard, 2001). However, some have argued that the relationship might not be straightforward (Stauss and Neuhaus, 1997; Mittal *et al.*, 1998; Szymanski and Henard, 2001), and that revisit intention may be an extension of satisfaction rather than an initiator of the revisit decision making process (Um *et al.*, 2006). This uncertainty has prompted academic interest in the role of (satisfaction) emotions in influencing and predicting consumer behaviour.

Some researchers have suggested that satisfied customers might exhibit different levels of loyalty or intention to repurchase. This assumption is confirmed by reports from industry; for example, Xerox found that its 'totally satisfied' customers are six times more likely to repurchase during the following 18 months than its 'merely satisfied' customers (Jones and Saser, 1995). Some scholars explain this as resulting from a nonlinear relationship between satisfaction and loyalty intentions (Fullerton and Taylor, 2002; Yi and La, 2004), or repurchase intentions (Mittal and Kamakure, 2001). Some attribute the gap to the effect of a novelty-seeking trait (Jang and Feng, 2007). Another possible explanation arises from an inconsistency in definitions of customer satisfaction as well as its measurement (Giese and Cote, 2000). Although satisfaction has always been conceptualized as a summary evaluative response and was originally viewed as primarily cognitive (Oliver, 1980), it has also been defined as

primarily emotional (Westbrook, 1981; Spreng *et al.*, 1996; Baker and Crompton, 2000). Given this difference, it is also argued that it is the emotional response to the experience or satisfaction itself that is of central importance to intention (Schlossberg, 1990). Although meeting expectations can satisfy a consumer, it is the emotional response to a surprise – whether delight or outrage – that has a real impact on customer loyalty (Schneider and Bowen, 1999; Alexander, 2012). This raises the question of whether the emotional responses of the postconsumption experience, usually identified as customer delight and satisfaction, are separate antecedents of desired behavioural outcomes (Oliver *et al.*, 1997).

The implications of emotional reactions in purchase situations on complaint behaviours, word of mouth (WOM) communication, repurchase and related actions might differ for various positive and negative emotions, and be of more relevance than reactions to satisfaction or dissatisfaction *per se* (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999). The literature on postconsumption behaviour has examined the effect of consumption emotions on behavioural intentions such as WOM and repurchase intention (Westbrook, 1987; Machleit and Mantel, 2001; Derbaix and Vanhamme, 2003; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004; White and Yu, 2005), although not in a systematic way (Ladhari, 2007). Positive and negative emotions have been found to influence the amount of WOM (Martin *et al.*, 2008; McColl-Kennedy *et al.*, 2009). A positive emotion such as joy has been found to be positively related to positive WOM (Nyer, 1997; White and Yu, 2005) while negative emotions such as regret and disappointment have been shown to impact on the extent of negative WOM (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004; White and Yu, 2005; Surachartkumtonkun *et al.*, 2012).

Recent work in the tourism literature has discussed the role of emotions in contributing to the explanation of variation in behaviour (Stauss and Neuhaus, 1997; Yu and Dean, 2001; White and Scandale, 2005). For example, emotions and cognitive beliefs regarding a tourist's visitation intentions account for 45% and 50%, respectively, of the variance in consumers' travel intentions (White and Scandale, 2005). Yu and Dean (2001) found a significant relationship between satisfaction emotions and positive WOM, willingness to pay more and switching behaviour. They found that emotions and cognition accounted for 33% of the variance in WOM behavioural intentions. Pleasant surprise is proposed to be positively linked to satisfaction levels, and negatively linked to the probability of switching behaviour (McQuitty *et al.*, 2000). Overall, emotions conceptualized using the dimensions of pleasure and arousal have significant effects on positive and negative WOM in hedonic experiences (Ladhari, 2009).

Positive emotions can also affect tourists in different contexts such as intention to revisit a city (Muller *et al.*, 1991), or loyalty towards a specific hotel (Barsky and Nash, 2003), restaurant (Mattila and Wirtz, 2000), retailer (Yüksel, 2007) or zoo (Tsaour *et al.*, 2006). The relationship between consumers' emotional attachment and their increased tendency to return has been investigated, and related to the role of affect and emotions in consumption behaviour (Hwang *et al.*, 2005). There is empirical evidence that visitors' pleasurable feelings derived from the physical environment of a store will influence retail outcomes such as the likelihood of returning to the store, the enjoyment of shopping in the store and a willingness to talk to employees (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982; Andreu *et al.*, 2006; Bäckström and Johansson, 2006; Beverland *et al.*, 2006). Excitement is positively associated with both patronage

intention and hedonic value, and shame is found to be negatively associated with patronage intentions (Babin and Babin, 2001; Arora, 2012; Han and Jeong, 2012). Loyalty has a direct impact on feelings of pleasure in the context of a theme park experience, reflected by positive WOM and revisitation intentions (Bigné *et al.*, 2008).

12.6 Conclusion

In summary, emotions as reactions to the consumption experience may be considered to function in parallel to satisfaction with regard to their impacts on behavioural intentions. Compared with satisfaction, other positive emotions such as joy, delight, happiness, hope, pride, jubilation, excitement, relief, amusement and pleasure – depending on the situation, product experience and person – are important outcomes of purchase, in terms of their effects on positive WOM communication and repurchase (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999). Especially in the context of hedonic experience where people pursue hedonic values together with utilitarian functions, emotional responses are an integrated part of consumption evaluations and impact on loyalty intentions. Hedonic experience providers can use emotions to establish stronger loyalty intentions, as well as a better customer relationship (Maklan *et al.*, 2008). This emotional design may be the next frontier for improving service quality and cognitive satisfaction.

References

- Alexander, M.W. (2012) Delight the customer: a predictive model for repeat purchase behavior. *Journal of Relationship Marketing* 11(2), 116–123. DOI: 10.1080/15332667.2012.682329
- Alford, B. and Sherrell, D. (1996) The role of affect in consumer satisfaction judgments of credence-based services. *Journal of Business Research* 37(1), 71–84.
- Andreassen, T. (2000) Antecedents to satisfaction with service recovery. *European Journal of Marketing* 34(1–2), 156–175.
- Andreu, L., Bigné, E., Chumpitaz, R. and Swaen, V. (2006) How does the perceived retail environment influence consumers' emotional experience? Evidence from two retail settings. *International Review of Retail, Distribution & Consumer Research* 16(5), 559–578.
- Arora, R. (2012) A mixed method approach to understanding the role of emotions and sensual delight in dining experience. *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 29(5), 333–343.
- Bäckström, K. and Johansson, U. (2006) Creating and consuming experiences in retail store environments: comparing retailer and consumer perspectives. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services* 13(6), 417–430.
- Babin, B. and Babin, L. (2001) Seeking something different? A model of schema typicality, consumer affect purchase intentions and perceived shopping value. *Journal of Business Research* 54(2), 89–96.
- Babin, B.J. and Attaway, J.S. (2000) Atmospheric affect as a tool for creating value and gaining share of customer. *Journal of Business Research* 49(2), 91–99.
- Bagozzi, R.P., Baumgartner, H. and Pieters, R. (1998) Goal-directed emotions. *Cognition and Emotion* 12(1), 1–26.
- Bagozzi, R.P., Gopinath, M. and Nyer, P.U. (1999) The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 27(2), 184–206.

- Baker, D.A. and Crompton, J.L. (2000) Quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(3), 785–804.
- Barsky, J. and Nash, L. (2003) Customer satisfaction: applying concepts to industry-wide measures. *Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly* 44(5–6), 173–183.
- Benkenstein, M., Yavas, U. and Forberger, D. (2003) Emotional and cognitive antecedents of customer satisfaction in leisure services: the case of Rostock Zoo. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing* 10(3–4), 173–184.
- Beverland, M., Lim, E.A.C., Morrison, M. and Terziowski, M. (2006) In-store music and consumer-brand relationships: relational transformation following experiences of (mis)fit. *Journal of Business Research* 59(9), 982–989. DOI: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2006.07.001
- Bigné, J.E., Sánchez, M.I. and Sánchez, J. (2001) Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behaviour: inter-relationship. *Tourism Management* 22(6), 607–616.
- Bigné, J.E., Mattila, A.S. and Andreu, L. (2008) The impact of experiential consumption cognitions and emotions on behavioral intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing* 22(4), 303–315. DOI: 10.1108/08876040810881704
- Bowden, J.L.H. and Dagger, T.S. (2011) To delight or not to delight? An investigation of loyalty formation in the restaurant industry. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 20(5), 501–524. DOI: 10.1080/19368623.2011.570637
- Cadotte, E.R., Woodruff, R.B. and Jenkins, R.L. (1987) Expectations and norms in models of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research* 24(3), 305–314.
- Campbell, A. (1980) *The Sense of Well-being in America*. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Cohen, J.B. and Areni, C.S. (1991) Affect and consumer behavior. In: Robertson, T.S. and Kassarian, H.H. (eds) *Handbook of Consumer Theory and Research*. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 188–240.
- Coon, D. (2004) *Introduction to Psychology: Gateways to Mind and Behavior*. Wadsworth, Belmont, California.
- Decrop, A. (2000) The antecedents and consequences of vacationers' dis/satisfaction: tales from the field. *Tourism Analysis* 5, 203–209.
- Derbaix, C. and Vanhamme, J. (2003) Inducing word-of-mouth by eliciting surprise: a pilot investigation. *Journal of Economic Psychology* 24(1), 99–116.
- Donovan, R.J. and Rossiter, J.R. (1982) Store atmosphere: an environmental psychology approach. *Journal of Retailing* 58(1), 34–57.
- Dubé, L. and Morgan, M.S. (1996) Capturing the dynamics of consumption emotions experienced during extended service encounters. *Advances in Consumer Research* 23(1), 395–396.
- Ekinci, Y. and Sirakaya, E. (2004) An examination of the antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction. In: Crouch, G.I., Perdue, R.R., Timmermans, H.J.P. and M. Uysal (eds) *Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK, pp. 189–202.
- Ennew, C. and Binks, M. (1999) Impact of participative service relationships on quality, satisfaction and retention: an exploratory study. *Journal of Business Research* 46(2), 121–132.
- Finn, A. (2005) Reassessing the foundations of customer delight. *Journal of Service Research* 8(2), 103–116. DOI: 10.1177/1094670505279340
- Finn, A. (2012) Customer delight: distinct construct or zone of nonlinear response to customer satisfaction? *Journal of Service Research* 15(1), 99–110.
- Fredrickson, B.L. (2001) The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist* 56(3), 218–226.
- Fullerton, G. and Taylor, S. (2002) Mediating, interactive, and non-linear effects in service quality and satisfaction with services research. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration* 19(2), 124–136. DOI: 10.1111/j.1936-4490.2002.tb00675.x
- Giese, J.L. and Cote, J.A. (2000) Defining consumer satisfaction. *Academy of Marketing Science Reviews* 1(1), 1–24.

- Gnoth, J. (1997) Tourism motivation and expectation formation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2), 283–304.
- Han, H. and Jeong, C. (2012) Multi-dimensions of patrons' emotional experiences in upscale restaurants and their role in loyalty formation: emotion scale improvement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 32, 59–70.
- Homburg, C., Koschate, N. and Hoyer, W.D. (2006) The role of cognition and affect in the formation of customer satisfaction: a dynamic perspective. *Journal of Marketing* 70(3), 21–31.
- Hunt, H.K. (1977) CS/D – Overview and future research directions. In: Hunt, H.K. (ed.) *Conceptualization and Measurement of Consumer Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction*. Marketing Science Institute, Cambridge, UK, pp. 455–488.
- Hwang, S.N., Lee, C. and Chen, H.J. (2005) The relationship among tourists' involvement, place attachment and interpretation satisfaction in Taiwan's national parks. *Tourism Management* 26(2), 143–156. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2003.11.006
- Jang, S.C. and Feng, R. (2007) Temporal destination revisit intention: the effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction. *Tourism Management* 28(2), 580–590.
- Jones, T.O. and Saser, J.W.E. (1995) Why satisfied customers defect. *Harvard Business Review* 73(6), 88–99.
- Kim, W.G. and Moon, Y.J. (2009) Customers' cognitive, emotional, and actionable response to the servicescape: a test of the moderating effect of the restaurant type. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 28(1), 144–156.
- Kumar, A. and Oliver, R.L. (1997) Cognitive appraisals, consumer emotions, and consumer response. *Advances in Consumer Research* 24(1), 17–18.
- Ladhari, R. (2007) The effect of consumption emotions on satisfaction and word-of-mouth communications. *Psychology and Marketing* 24(12), 1085–1108. DOI: 10.1002/mar.20195
- Ladhari, R. (2009) Service quality, emotional satisfaction, and behavioural intentions: a study in the hotel industry. *Managing Service Quality* 19(3), 308–331.
- Lashley, C., Morrison, A. and Randall, S. (2005) More than a service encounter? Insights into the emotions of hospitality through special meal occasions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management* 12(1), 80–92.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1991) Progress on a cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. *American Psychologist* 46(8), 819–834.
- Liljander, V. and Strandvik, T. (1997) Emotions in service satisfaction. *International Journal of Service Industry Management* 8(2), 148–169.
- Loureiro, S.M.C. (2010) Satisfying and delighting the rural tourists. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 27(4), 396–408. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2010.481580
- Ma, J., Scott, N., Gao, J. and Ding, P. (2017) Delighted or satisfied? Positive emotional responses derived from theme park experiences. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 34(1), 1–19. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2015.1125824
- Machleit, K.A. and Mantel, S. (2001) Emotional response and shopping satisfaction: moderating effects of shopper attributions. *Journal of Business Research* 54(2), 97–106.
- Maklan, S., Knox, S. and Ryals, L. (2008) New trends in innovation and customer relationship management. *International Journal of Market Research* 50(2), 221–240.
- Mannell, R. and Kleiber, D. (1997) *A Social Psychology of Leisure*. Venture Publishing, Inc., State College, Pennsylvania.
- Mano, H. and Oliver, R.L. (1993) Assessing the dimensionality and structure of the consumption experience: evaluation, feeling, and satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research* 20(3), 451–466.
- Martin, D., O'Neill, M., Hubbard, S. and Palmer, A. (2008) The role of emotion in explaining consumer satisfaction and future behavioural intention. *Journal of Services Marketing* 22(3), 224–236.
- Mattila, A. and Wirtz, J. (2000) The role of preconsumption affect in postpurchase evaluation of services. *Psychology and Marketing* 17(7), 587–605.

- McCull-Kennedy, J.R., Patterson, P.G., Smith, A.K. and Brady, M.K. (2009) Customer rage episodes: emotions, expressions and behaviors. *Journal of Retailing* 85(2), 222–237.
- McQuitty, S., Finn, A. and Wiley, J. (2000) Systematically varying consumer satisfaction and its implications for product choice. *Academy of Marketing Science Reviews* 4(6), 1–16.
- Menon, K. and Dube, L. (2000) Ensuring greater satisfaction by engineering salesperson response to customer emotions. *Journal of Retailing* 76(3), 285–307.
- Meyer, A. and Westerbarkey, P. (1996) Measuring and managing hotel guest satisfaction. In: Olsen, M.D., Teare, R. and Gummesson, E. (eds) *Service Quality in Hospitality Organizations*. Cassell, London, pp. 185–203.
- Mittal, V. and Kamakure, W.A. (2001) Satisfaction, repurchase intent and repurchase behavior: investigating the moderating effect of customer characteristics. *Journal of Marketing Research* 38(1), 131–142.
- Mittal, V., Ross, W. and Baldasare, P. (1998) The asymmetric impact of negative and positive attribute-level performance on overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions. *Journal of Marketing* 62(1), 33–47.
- Muller, T., Tse, D. and Venkatasubramaniam, R. (1991) Post-consumption emotions: exploring their emergence and determinants. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior* 4(1), 13–20.
- Nyer, P.U. (1997) A study of the relationships between cognitive appraisals and consumption emotions. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 25(4), 296–304.
- Oh, H. and Parks, S.C. (1997) Customer satisfaction and service quality: a critical review of literature and research implications for the hospitality industry. *Hospitality Research Journal* 20(3), 35–64.
- Oliver, R.L. (1980) A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research* 17(4), 460–469.
- Oliver, R.L. (1981) Measurement and evaluation of satisfaction processes in retail settings. *Journal of Retailing* 57(3), 25–48.
- Oliver, R.L. (1989) Processing of the satisfaction response in consumption: a suggested framework and research propositions. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior* 2(1), 1–16.
- Oliver, R.L. (1993) Cognitive, affective, and attribute bases of the satisfaction response. *Journal of Consumer Research* 20(3), 418–430.
- Oliver, R.L. and Westbrook, R.A. (1993) Profiles of consumer emotions and satisfaction in ownership and usage. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior* 6(1), 12–27.
- Oliver, R.L., Rust, R.T. and Varki, S. (1997) Customer delight: foundations, findings, and managerial insight. *Journal of Retailing* 73(3), 311–336.
- Phillips, D.M. and Baumgartner, H. (2002) The role of consumption emotions in the satisfaction response. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 12(3), 243–252.
- Price, L.L., Arnould, E.J. and Tierney, P. (1995) Going to extremes: managing service encounters and assessing provider performance. *Journal of Marketing* 59(2), 83–97.
- Santos, J. and Boote, J. (2003) A theoretical exploration and model of consumer expectations, post-purchase affective states and affective behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour* 3(2), 142–156.
- Schlossberg, H. (1990) Satisfying customers is a minimum: you really have to 'delight' them. *Marketing News* 24, 10–11.
- Schneider, B. and Bowen, D.E. (1999) Understanding customer delight and outrage. *Sloan Management Review* 41(1), 35–45.
- Shaver, P., Schwartz, J., Kirson, D. and O'Connor, C. (1987) Emotion knowledge: further exploration of a prototype approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 52(6), 1061–1086.
- Shu, T.-C. and Crompton, J. (2003) A conceptualization of the relationships between service quality and visitor satisfaction, and their links to destination selection. *Leisure Studies* 22(1), 65–80.
- Souca, M.L. (2014) Customer dissatisfaction and delight: completely different concepts, or part of a satisfaction continuum? *Management and Marketing* 9(1), 75–90.

- Spreng, R.A., MacKenzie, S.B. and Olshavsky, R.W. (1996) A reexamination of the determinants of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing* 60(3), 15–32.
- Stauss, B. and Neuhaus, P. (1997) The qualitative satisfaction model. *International Journal of Service Industry Management* 8(3), 236–249.
- Surachartkumtonkun, J., Patterson, P.G. and McColl-Kennedy, J.R. (2012) Customer rage back-story: linking needs-based cognitive appraisal to service failure type. *Journal of Retailing* 89(1), 72–87.
- Szymanski, D. and Henard, D. (2001) Customer satisfaction: a meta-analysis of the empirical evidence. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 20(1), 16–35.
- Tax, S., Brown, S. and Chandrashekar, M. (1998) Customer evaluations of service complaint experiences: implications for relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing* 62(4), 60–76.
- Taylor, S.A. and Baker, T.L. (1994) An assessment of the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in the formation of consumers' purchase intentions. *Journal of Retailing* 70(2), 163–178.
- Tsaur, S.H., Chiu, Y.T. and Wang, C.H. (2006) The visitor's behavioral consequences of experiential marketing: an empirical study on Taipei Zoo. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 21(1), 47–64. DOI: 10.1300/J073v21n01_04
- Um, S., Chon, K. and Ro, Y. (2006) Antecedents of revisit intention. *Annals of Tourism Research* 33(4), 1141–1158.
- Varela-Neira, C., Vázquez-Casielles, R. and Iglesias-Argüelles, V. (2008) The influence of emotions on customer's cognitive evaluations and satisfaction in a service failure and recovery context. *Service Industries Journal* 28(4), 497–512.
- Vittersø, J., Vorkinn, M., Vistad, O.I. and Vaagland, J. (2000) Tourist experiences and attractions. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(2), 432–450.
- Westbrook, R.A. (1981) Sources of consumer satisfaction with retail outlets. *Journal of Retailing* 57(3), 68–85.
- Westbrook, R.A. (1987) Product consumption-based affective responses and postpurchase processes. *Journal of Marketing Research* 24(3), 258–270.
- Westbrook, R.A. and Oliver, R.L. (1991) The dimensionality of consumption emotion patterns and consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research* 18(1), 84–91.
- White, C.J. and Scandale, S. (2005) The role of emotions in destination visitation intentions: a cross-cultural perspective. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Management* 12(2), 168–178.
- White, C.J. and Yu, Y.-T. (2005) Satisfaction emotions and consumer behavioral intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing* 19(6), 411–420.
- Wirtz, J. and Bateson, J.E.G. (1999) Consumer satisfaction with services: integrating the environment perspective in services marketing into the traditional disconfirmation paradigm. *Journal of Business Research* 44(1), 55–66.
- Yüksel, A. (2007) Tourist shopping habitat: effects on emotions, shopping value and behaviours. *Tourism Management* 28(1), 58–69. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2005.07.017
- Yi, Y. and La, S. (2004) What influences the relationship between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention? Investigating the effect of adjusted expectation and customer loyalty. *Psychology and Marketing* 21(5), 351–373.
- Yu, Y. and Dean, A. (2001) The contribution of emotional satisfaction to consumer loyalty. *International Journal of Service Industry Management* 12(3), 234–250.
- Zajonc, R.B. (1980) Feeling and thinking: preferences need no inferences. *American Psychologist* 35(2), 151–175.
- Zeelenberg, M. and Pieters, R. (2004) Beyond valence in customer dissatisfaction: a review and new findings on behavioral responses to regret and disappointment in failed services. *Journal of Business Research* 57(4), 445–455. DOI: 10.1016/s0148-2963(02)00278-3.

13 The Meaning of a Destination Experience in Zhouzhuang, China

LIHUA GAO*

Soochow University, Suzhou, China

13.1 Introduction

An experience is inclusive of, but distinct from, the tangible goods and intangible services offered to a customer, because ‘an experience occurs when a company intentionally uses services as the stage and goods as props to engage individual customers in a way that creates a memorable event’ (Pine and Gilmore, 1998, p. 98). It has been shown that an experience ‘derives from the interaction between the staged event . . . and the individual’s state of mind’ (1998, p. 98), and is a blend of many elements that come together (Shaw and Ivens, 2002) to involve consumers emotionally, physically, intellectually and spiritually (Carbone, 1998; Oswald *et al.*, 2006). However, how these elements (called attributes in this chapter) link together for a tourist has been less studied.

The essence of tourism is ‘the development and delivery of travel and visitation experiences to a range of individuals and groups who wish to see, understand and experience the nature of different destinations and the way people live, work and enjoy life in those destinations’ (Ritchie *et al.*, 2011, p. 419). Therefore, the present research first aims to identify the specific attributes perceived by tourists in a destination, followed by the aim to examine how the attributes combine together to create a holistic destination experience for tourists. Empirical evidence was collected from 63 qualitative in-depth, in-destination interviews with tourists who were asked to discuss the memorable attributes of Zhouzhuang, a Chinese water town. The attributes identified through content analysis of the transcribed interviews were classified. In doing so, a new attribute type called ‘service’ was identified besides three other known attribute types. Analysis of the coded transcripts indicates that there are associations among attributes (especially the four attribute types) in the minds of tourists, and that these form themes.

*Corresponding author e-mail: lihua-gao@hotmail.com

13.2 Themes and Experience

A theme is essential for planning and marketing consumer experiences and as a facilitator of the individual involvement in experiential offerings (Pine and Gilmore, 1998) as it connects separate services and experiential elements together in the visitor's mind (Agapito *et al.*, 2013). It is the 'underlying concept for everything staged in a particular place' (Mossberg, 2007, p. 69). Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) consider a theme to be represented by a set of related cues that are intended to evoke a fantasy – an imaginary journey to a different time or place.

A theme can be incorporated into physical design and used as an attention-creation medium (Slåtten *et al.*, 2009) to draw in more guests. These cues are mainly related to changes in an environment, such as decorations or other more permanent fittings within a venue. Some environments, such as tourist attractions, hotels and restaurants, are conceptualized as themes derived from stories (Mossberg, 2008) generally built on some believable elements such as a message, conflict or division of roles and action (Fog *et al.*, 2003). The use of stories and narratives can 'lead to a deeper understanding and ... an implementation of the sociological concept of *verstehen*'¹ (Van Limberg, 2009, p. 33). These benefits are one reason why storytelling has been widely used, particularly in the tourism industry (Mossberg, 2008), and why fictitious characters, myths, popular books and films are commonly found in restaurants, theme parks, museums and destinations.

A theme therefore is a strategic element in designing a destination that unites various other elements, directs visitors' attention (Ooi, 2005) and assists visitors to develop meaning from their experiences (Moscardo *et al.*, 2007). Themes help visitors to organize their impressions, leading to increased memorability (Oh *et al.*, 2007); and create value (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Agapito *et al.*, 2014). A theme may influence sustainable behaviours, length of stay and commercial revenue (Pearce and Wu, 2016).

Given the importance of a destination theme, how do we go about identifying or developing thematic experiences for a place? Destinations often grow as places where people live and have a history which is not necessarily thematic. Sometimes a city may have an easily identified theme, such as one of romance (e.g. Verona, the setting for Romeo and Juliet); of horrors or sadness as in dark tourism (e.g. the Nazi concentration camp of Buchenwald); of culture or of adventure. Arnould and Price (1993) identified a number of experiential themes such as pilgrimage, intensification, rediscovery of self, and communion with nature.

In other cases, a city or location may represent a variety of themes (Pearce and Wu, 2016) and there is a need to shape a destination or attraction's theme. An *effective theme* is dramaturgical, and can be an idea, a subject or an underlying, permeating 'something' that determines the elements applied to create the experiential context. It should have a widespread emotional appeal (Pearce and Wu, 2016) and be culturally relevant to visitors to a destination (Xu *et al.*, 2013).

13.2.1 Destination experience and attributes

Experience design has long been practised in the tourist attractions sector, with Disneyland a classic example (Bryman, 1995). The practice of experience design is also relevant for tourist destinations such as cities and resort areas, as these too are places that may be considered 'theatres' where experience that cannot be found in daily life is staged (Hayes and MacLeod, 2007). Here a destination is a geographical entity which combines a critical mass of interrelated and diverse elements (Gunn and Var, 2002) such as attractions, transportation, venues, diverse types of lodging, dining, retail and support services. A tourist destination acquires an identity through its particular attractions and types of transportation, lodging, dining and shopping experiences. A destination's particular attributes (if perceived by tourists) provide stimuli that encourage experiences of a certain nature and scope (Oh *et al.*, 2007).

Experiences in a destination may be designed and constructed to facilitate understanding of its past or to demonstrate a visited place through the attribution of the meaning of its 'actual nature' (history, culture, geography and aesthetics), and the reaction of local people (Trauer and Ryan, 2005). Certainly, a tourist's experiences are framed by individual factors such as the reason for the visit, length of stay and personal relationships. However, the destination attributes perceived by a tourist are also important in determining the experiential outcomes of a visit. A tourist's prior knowledge of the destination – in part through the advertising imagery they have been exposed to – also has a pervasive influence on the experiential process, influencing tourist behaviour (Olivia, 1999), and affecting tourist satisfaction and memories (Gallarza *et al.*, 2002).

Tourist destination managers are increasingly seeking to position their destinations as providing experiences (Murphy *et al.*, 2000; Richards, 2001) rather than (merely) as places to visit. 'What tourists primarily seek and consume at destinations are engaging experiences accompanied by the goods and/or service components of the destinations' (Oh *et al.*, 2007, p. 119). Experiences are often regarded as the primary factor desired by many tourists (Mo *et al.*, 1993). 'Physical plant' (Smith, 1994, p. 588) and service infrastructure support their visit, but a destination is not just these inputs but also an experience in its own right (Ross, 1998; Murphy *et al.*, 2000).

Given the central role of a destination experience for understanding why tourists travel, it is surprising that there has been little systematic examination of how the separate and multidimensional attributes combine into a holistic destination experience (Gentile *et al.*, 2007). An attribute of an experience is 'anything that can be perceived or sensed – or recognized by its absence' (Berry *et al.*, 2002, p. 86). Previous studies have sought to determine various attributes or elements of an experience, including atmosphere, interaction with personnel and other customers, and memorabilia. Each of these is examined in detail on the following pages.

13.2.2 Atmosphere attributes

Atmosphere refers to 'the conscious designing of space to create certain effects in buyers' (Kotler, 1973, p. 50), essentially to affect a consumer's five senses. Research into the design of a place's atmosphere and its effect on tourists' experiences has been undertaken in the leisure/tourism area for many years (Mossberg, 2007). For example, three types of attributes found to influence hospitality experiences are: (i) attributes of the ambient environment – background conditions such as temperature, scent, noise, music and lighting; (ii) attributes of the social environment – the 'people' component of the environment; and (iii) attributes of the design, including functional and aesthetic elements such as architecture, style and layout (Heide and Grønhaug, 2006).

The physical component of atmosphere design is usually considered an attention-creation medium (Slåtten *et al.*, 2009). Since production and consumption occur simultaneously in tourism, the design of a consumption space not only attracts tourists' attention, but may also be used to influence their actual experiences. This is because tourists primarily visit places to consume the 'atmosphere' provided by a destination (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993), rather than the consumption or purchase of goods and services available. In an experiential environment, both the tangible and intangible aspects of the visited space can be simultaneously constructed through the tourists' 'gaze', their perception and experience.

13.2.3 Interaction attributes

An individual's experience is also influenced by the 'people' component of the environment (Heide and Grønhaug, 2006; Heide *et al.*, 2007) which can be separated into interactions with employees and with other customers (Mossberg, 2007). *Tourist-employee* interaction is an important factor which influences perceived experience quality and satisfaction (Bitner *et al.*, 1990; De Ruyter and Wetzels, 2000). An employee's ability to respond appropriately to tourists' needs or possible service-delivery failures, as well as their unprompted actions, affect experiences strongly (Bitner, 1990). Tourists travelling in a destination can be considered to step into 'a special world', but if they have no knowledge of the context, they may have trouble adapting to it and becoming immersed (Carù and Cova, 2007). Employees, particularly front-line personnel, can be a valuable resource for establishing emotional connections with, and facilitating immersion of, tourists (Zomerdiijk and Voss, 2010). This may occur through their providing support or acting as a helper. For instance, a tour guide can play the role of a source of information for tourists (Josiam *et al.*, 2004), as path-finder or mentor (Cohen, 1985) or as mediator between tourists and local scenes (Dahles, 2002), all of which helps to orchestrate the stage of experience. Employee engagement with tourists has been termed emotional labour (Hochschild, 2003; Zomerdiijk and Voss, 2010). It can lead to *rappport* relating to enjoyable interactions, including feelings of care, friendliness and personal connections based on a genuine interest in others or psychological similarity (Gremler and Gwinner, 2000) and to *authentic understanding*, especially important in extended, affective and intimate service encounters (Price *et al.*, 1995). Employees who are particularly helpful,

and show empathy as well as being very friendly, may induce greater levels of stimulation and pleasure (Slåtten *et al.*, 2009).

Tourists' experiences are usually staged in the presence of other tourists (*interactions between tourists*) (Baker, 1987), who may then affect their perception (Zomerdijk and Voss, 2010). An excited audience can enhance the experience of its members (Lovelock, 1996). Researchers have studied the positive aspects of being together with other consumers and how these influence a customer's willingness to be a co-producer (Silpakit and Fisk, 1985; Gummesson, 1993). This particularly applies to situations in which customers are in close proximity to each other or have to share resources or space simultaneously (e.g. restaurants, airline travel) even when waiting (Kellogg *et al.*, 1997). Meetings between guests in the hospitality context can influence customers' satisfaction (Gustafsson *et al.*, 2006). In a dining context, consumers imitate each other in terms of fashions, and may act with artifice and pretence (Finkelstein, 1991). Thus, the dining party members and other diners in a restaurant are also important for the dining experience (Valentine, 1999; Andersson and Mossberg, 2004).

Interaction and connection with other customers are opportunities to satisfy consumers' social needs and make experiences more enjoyable (Harris and Baron, 2004; Nicholls, 2005). These interactions are usually seen as an entrance ticket to a social group or to allow a sense of community to develop, and have been studied at motorbike events and sports activities (Hallin and Mykletun, 2006). Through the sharing of consumption values and behaviour, a consumer can build a sense of community with others, or feel a sense of belonging to a group.

Tourists are co-producers of their own experiences as they are necessary for its performance and production. For some guests, the experience of going to a restaurant may serve the function of 'seeing and being seen' in public and being entertained by others (Scapp and Seitz, 1998). Similarly, some consumers prefer to participate in VIP venues and to interact with other VIPs, because 'people who have money want to be seen around other people who have money' (Pullman and Gross, 2004, p. 556). The companionship and emotional support received from other customers leads to high levels of commitment towards future patronage (Rosenbaum, 2006).

13.2.4 Memorabilia attributes

Almost everyone is, to some extent, a collector of memorabilia (Gordon, 1986), because people want to be reminded of special times and activities, and certain goods that are saved can convey their memories (Pine and Gilmore, 1999) or serve as a reminder of an experience. Memorabilia are usually goods collected or purchased by tourists within a destination to act as 'a concrete reminder or tangible way of capturing or freezing a non- or extra-ordinary experience' (Gordon, 1986, p. 137).

For tourists, memorabilia may be the only tangible outcome of their holiday and can reinforce emotional experiences. This partly explains the reason why many tourists often spend more on shopping than on food, lodging or other activities (Jansen-Verbeke, 1991; Timothy and Butler, 1995). It should be noted that shopping by itself can also enrich the content of tourist experience, and affect the overall experience of a destination (Onderwater *et al.*, 2000). After the trip, memorabilia may serve as

'pictorial or symbolic reminders of a destination, markers which commemorate a moment in time, representations of the local environment or cultural artefacts from a particular place or culture' (Ferdinand and Williams, 2010, p. 207). People wearing memorabilia such as a T-shirt become walking advertisements for the visited destination; thus, their experience is transmitted to others (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). Memorabilia can also satisfy tourists' desires for novelty (Lee *et al.*, 2009), authenticity (Littrell *et al.*, 1993), collecting (Squire, 1994) and social status (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). Therefore, memorabilia is a particularly powerful factor in enhancing experience quality, and the purchase of memorabilia is an integral part of the tourist experience in a destination.

Clearly, an experience is a blend of many perceived attributes coming together (Shaw and Ivens, 2002) to involve a person emotionally, physically, intellectually and spiritually (Carbone, 1998; Oswald *et al.*, 2006). No previous study has identified attributes that are embodied in an experience, and how those attributes combine together to create a holistic destination experience for tourists.

13.3 Methods

Because of the scant theoretical insight into *what* particular attributes are embodied in experiences, and *how* they combine together to create a holistic destination experience for tourists, a case study and qualitative methodology were considered appropriate for gaining rich, in-depth data. Zhouzhuang was selected as the case study for its thematic, atmospheric, social and memorabilia characteristics. It is a historical water town in China, with local dwellings having a unique architectural structure clustered on the banks of rivers or lakes. It is located to the south of the Yangtze River, 38 km from central Suzhou and 60 km from Shanghai Airport. The town developed during the Ming (1368–1644) and Qing (1644–1911) dynasties, and has been considered one of the world's most beautiful towns (Gerrie, 2012), providing a rich historical and cultural experience for tourists. The river-based settlement appeals primarily to Chinese tourists for two main reasons: (i) the historical and cultural heritage of ancient towns is different from that of modern cities and the towns are attractive because of their geographical configuration, buildings and traditional features; and (ii) the atmosphere of water towns supports the theme of harmony between nature and residents. Symbols include the images of white walls, black tiles, small bridges and rivers, and the simple and traditional ways of life. All these can be compressed into a line from a famous Chinese verse that has become synonymous with water towns in the south of the Yangtze River – 'small bridge, flowing water, and residents' (Ma Zhiyuan, 1250–1324). The idyllic, small-town setting enables residents of large cities to escape from their noise, pollution and pressure (Ruan and Shao, 1996). Over the past 20 years, this ancient town has hosted a large number of domestic tourists and a growing number from overseas.

Data collection started in Zhouzhuang in June 2011 and began with six qualitative in-depth interviews with tourists to allow them to become familiar and comfortable with the protocol and respondent interaction. The main data collection was conducted on weekdays from July to November 2011. The informants were all first-time Chinese overnight tourists, to minimize the impact of previous knowledge and

experience of Zhouzhuang. All interviews were conducted in riverside restaurants or teahouses either after 8 pm or before 9 am, when tourists were more likely to agree to participate and the interviews were less likely to be interrupted.

The trained Chinese-speaking investigators politely approached tourists, outlined the purpose of the research and invited them to participate in an interview. Once the invitation was accepted, several screening questions were asked: 'Is this the first time for you to visit Zhouzhuang?' 'Did you or are you going to stay here for the night?' and 'When are you going to finish your trip in Zhouzhuang?' Only the tourists whose answers for the first two questions were both 'yes' and who explicitly said that they had finished or almost finished their trips were regarded as targets for further conversation. If the tourists were in a group, the investigators would ask them to recommend one tourist to answer all interview questions. The saturation point (Glaser and Strauss, 1980) was reached after 63 participants (identified by a code number) had been interviewed.

After transcription, data from the interviews (identified by code numbers that start with 'TP') were analysed using content analysis procedures supported by the qualitative data analysis software NVivo9.2. Latent coding was used and combined with manifest coding for data reduction. Tree-structured catalogues were created for the experience attributes perceived by tourists (Richards, 2009) and named using the coding text topics (e.g. 'Folk house') or with the words that interviewees themselves used (e.g. 'Lots of tourists').

In analysing the transcripts, it was noted that attributes from different types were often associated by participants in the same sentence. For example, the sentence 'We ... chose a small waterside teahouse to ... have some tea' (TP62) was coded as embodying the theme 'Small bridge, flowing water, and residents', the atmospheric attributes of 'Waterside dwellings' and 'Tea', and a service attribute – 'Catering'. Similarly, the sentence 'I took a photo with my girlfriend around the Twin Bridge, what a memorable moment for us' (TP11) was coded as involving atmosphere ('Bridge and river'), interaction ('Friends and family') and memorabilia ('Photographs and postcards') as shown in Table 13.1.

Table 13.1. Examples of perceived attributes assigned to different types and themes.

No.	Theme	Types of perceived attributes			
		Atmosphere	Interaction	Memorabilia	Service
1	'We ... chose a small waterside teahouse to ... have some tea' (TP62)				
	Small bridge, flowing water and residents	Sight Folk house Waterside dwellings Taste Tea			Catering Waterside
2	'I took a photo with my girlfriend around the Twin Bridge, what a memorable moment for us' (TP11)				
		Sight Ancient water town Bridge and river	Other tourists Friends and family	Photographs and postcards	

An attribute was considered to be linked to a theme if they co-occurred in a single sentence (see Table 13.1). The frequency of attribute and theme co-occurrence was determined using an NVivo Matrix Coding Query. NVivo 9.2 was used to create tables of codes co-occurrences, which 'enables the analyst to compute associations but also serves as an entry to contingency analysis' (Krippendorff, 2004, pp. 268–269). Furthermore, 'the frequency of co-occurrence of two concepts ... indicate[s] the strength of associations between those concepts in the minds of the members' (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 59), so this research conducted a quantitative analysis of the coded data; that is, a count of co-occurrences, especially their frequency of appearance (Huberman and Miles, 1994). This 'help[s] to reduce the data and may make data more accessible' (Henderson, 2006, p. 167), and has been used in previous descriptive research (Bonet and Paché, 2005; Henderson, 2006; Richards, 2009; Yaghmour and Scott, 2009).

13.4 Findings

Some 54 unique attributes perceived by tourists during their experience in Zhouzhuang are shown in Table 13.2, with the number of tourists who mentioned each attribute in the interview (in the 'Sources' column) and the number of times those tourists mentioned that attribute (in the 'References' column). Table 13.2 contains six atmosphere sub-types ('Sight', 'Sound', 'Taste', 'Touch or Feeling', 'Scent', 'Own activities') with the attribute 'Local delicacies and snacks' mentioned most frequently. Three interaction subtypes were identified (with 'Personnel', 'Local residents' and 'Other tourists'). In particular, interactions with other tourists were mentioned frequently, usually in the context of overcrowding. 'Local snacks' were the most frequently mentioned memorabilia attribute. Thus most attributes could be grouped into the three types identified in earlier literature: atmosphere, interaction and memorabilia.

However, it was notable that tourists also commonly commented on services they received. Service activities included taking a boat (i.e. 'Boating'), having dinner (i.e. 'Catering'), seeing a show (i.e. 'Entertainment'), living in a waterside house (i.e. 'Guest house and lodge') and shopping (i.e. 'Goods and shops'). Disappointing experiences were also related to the services provided, especially defective facilities such as poor signage and the lack of lighting at night, as well as the quality of the physical environment (such as the many shops in the town and the poor water quality). In this case, service was regarded as a new attribute type for this research.

The attributes listed in Table 13.2 are further analysed in Fig. 13.1, with 'Sources' on the x-axis and 'References' on the y-axis. In Fig. 13.1, Line A and Line B, whose slopes are 2 and 3, respectively, are used as a guide to allow the reader to note significant variation in the average frequency that each attribute was referred to by tourists who mentioned it.

Figure 13.1 demonstrates that: (i) the majority of attributes are in the area below Line A, which means they were on average mentioned less than two times per interviewee who referred to them; (ii) 11 attributes falling between the two diagonals were mentioned on average more than twice but less than three times. Nine attributes were mentioned by more than half of the tourists, including four *atmosphere* attributes

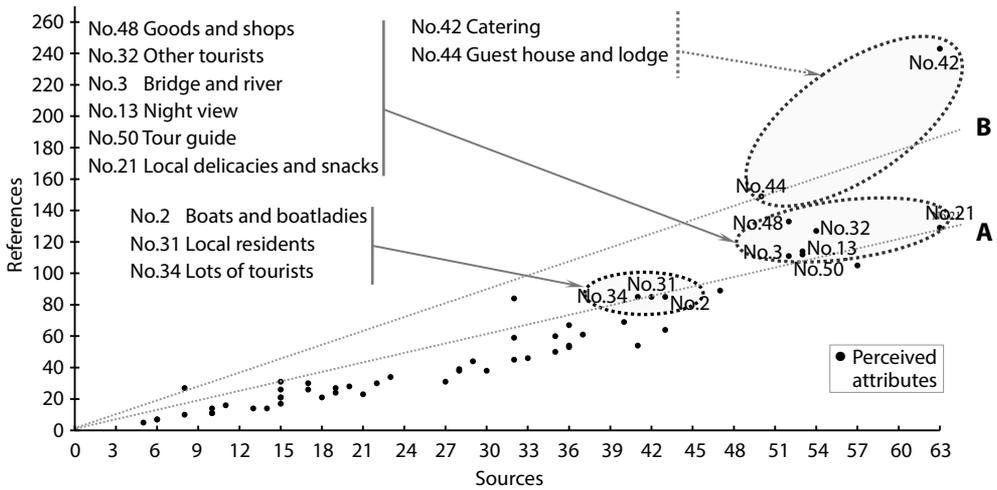


Fig. 13.1. Source and reference frequency for attributes.

(i.e. 'Boats and boat ladies', 'Bridge and river', 'Night view' and 'Local delicacies and snacks'), three *interaction* attributes (i.e. 'Local residents', 'Other tourists' and 'Lots of tourists') and two *service* attributes (i.e. 'Goods and shops' and 'Tour guide'); and (iii) two attributes are in the area above Line B. Both are *service* attributes ('Catering' and 'Guest houses and lodges'); 'Catering' was the only attribute mentioned on average more than three times by all 63 tourists. In total 11 attributes, numbered according to the order in the code list developed in Table 13.2, were frequently mentioned by many tourists.

13.4.1 Themes formed by attributes

Analysis of interview transcripts suggested that some attributes are associated with one or more themes in the minds of tourists. Three themes were identified. One of them, 'Small bridge, flowing water, and residents' (Theme I) was associated with the famous Chinese verse. Two other themes, 'Night in a water town' (Theme II) and 'Laid-back life' (Theme III), were also identified. The results indicated that there are many linkages between themes and many attributes. Table 13.2 demonstrates that each of the three themes identified is linked to almost all attributes.

To explain the linkage between themes and attributes, this study only took the frequently mentioned attributes as examples due to word limits: the top ten most relevant attributes for each theme (abbreviated to 'Top10' and marked as ¹ in Table 13.2). When the Top10 of Theme I are compared with those of Themes II and III, four points can be made:

1. Around half of these Top10 are concentrated in the atmosphere attributes – five for the first two themes and six for the last – and 'Boats and boat ladies' and 'Sit along waterside' were common across all these three themes. Tourists usually started the

Table 13.2. Node matrices of the key linkage between themes and all attributes perceived by tourists.

No.	Attributes	Sources	References	Themes			
				Small bridge, flowing water and residents	Night in a water town	Laid-back life	
Atmosphere							
1	<i>Sight</i>	Ancient water town	40	69	9	5	4
2		Boats and boat ladies	43	85	81 ¹	42 ¹	72 ¹
3		Bridge and river	52	111	91 ¹	19	29
4		Rain	6	7	4	0	1
5		Folk house	35	50	17	4	8
6		Carved bed	13	13	13	0	2
7		Old buildings	33	46	18	8	12
8		Waterside dwellings	37	61	61 ¹	12	33
9		Narrow streets and alleys	29	44	21	13	12
10		Traditional dress	6	7	6	0	3
11		Traditional lifestyle	36	67	49 ¹	19	56*
12		Slow life	28	38	22	8	37
13		Night view	53	114	21	114 ¹	88 ¹
14		Lantern and lamplight	36	53	9	53 ¹	15 ¹
15		Early morning view	15	21	5	4	17
16		'Zhouzhuang in All Seasons' show	15	31	11	18	7
17	<i>Sound</i>	Folk songs	28	39	34	24	37 ¹
18		Kun opera and pingtan	22	30	7	7	20
19		Legends of Shen	18	21	0	0	0
20		Wu dialect	21	23	14	5	19
21	<i>Taste</i>	Local delicacies and snacks	63	129	7	11	13
22		Tea	30	38	14	13	25
23	<i>Touch/Feeling</i>	Touch or feeling	11	16	7	9	9
24	<i>Scent</i>	Scent	5	5	0	0	0
25	<i>Own activities</i>	Rambling in the town	41	54	8	36 ¹	54 ¹
26		Sitting by waterside	35	60	35 ¹	37 ¹	60 ¹
Interactions							
27		Personnel	32	84	31	19	34

Continued

Table 13.2. Continued.

No.	Attributes		Sources	References	Themes		
					Small bridge, flowing water and residents	Night in a water town	Laid-back life
28		Boat ladies and boatmen	19	27	23	12	24
29		Performers	17	30	10	8	11
30		Tourist guide	8	27	0	0	1
31		Local residents	42	85	59 ¹	11	17
32		Other tourists	54	127	21	15	34
33		Friends and family	32	59	5	12	17
34		Lots of tourists	41	85	7	11	13
35		Few tourists	32	45	9	40 ¹	44 ¹
Memorabilia							
36		Local goods	15	21	1	1	0
37		Local snacks	27	31	3	0	0
38		Chinese painting and calligraphy	10	14	11	0	0
39		Photographs and postcards	19	24	14	4	5
40		Live fabrication	10	11	7	0	0
41		Others	15	26	1	0	0
Service							
42		Catering	63	243	26	34 ¹	49 ¹
43		Waterside	17	26	12	20	26
44		Guest house and lodge	50	149	39 ¹	8	20
45		Lifestyle	23	34	34 ¹	1	19
46		Entertainment	47	89	41 ¹	47 ¹	57 ¹
47		Boating	43	64	54 ¹	28 ¹	55 ¹
48		Goods and shops	52	133	18	10	4
49		Lighting	36	54	8	52 ¹	13
50		Tour guide	53	112	0	3	2
51		Signs	57	105	30	0	0
52		Environmental quality	20	28	5	1	1
53		Water quality	10	11	3	0	0
54		Online reservations	14	14	0	1	0

Attributes mentioned by fewer than three tourists are excluded from this table. *The numbers in each cell indicate the co-occurrence frequency from a matrix coding query in NVivo. ¹The top ten most relevant perceived attributes for each theme.

interview with a description of what they had seen, focusing especially on the atmosphere they perceived. This is explained because tourists appear to have been 'primed' by their previous knowledge about Zhouzhuang, which formed the main focus of their experiences in the town. In addition, the attributes of the water culture are visible at any time throughout the town. As a result, words related to water scenery were frequently reported, including 'water town', 'bridge', 'water' or 'river', 'waterside' or 'riverside', 'small bridge and flowing water' and 'small bridge, flowing water, and residents', as in the following: 'There are so many water factors in this small water town: bridges, residents, houses, and boats . . . All these things combine together and match so well. The only word I can say is "exquisite"' (TP22).

However, some differences were found between the atmosphere attributes mentioned in the Top10 for the three themes: (i) two 'own' activities carried out by tourists', namely, 'Ramble in the town' and 'Sit along waterside', were usually mentioned by most tourists when they reported what they did at night; (ii) 'Night view' (exclusively belonging to 'night') was widely and frequently mentioned by most tourists; and (iii) 'Lantern and lamplight', especially the red lanterns hanging from the eaves around the town, were noticed by tourists when they were having night tours but were ignored during the daytime. These differences between perceived atmosphere attributes during the day and those at night might be part of the reasons why tourists perceived different themes in the same context.

2. There was one interaction attribute in the Top10 for each theme, but Theme I was highly related to interaction with 'Local residents', while the other themes were related to an interaction with 'Few tourists'. More than 800 indigenous families live in Zhouzhuang and many of them participate in tourism through traditional handicraft displays or by providing houses for accommodation, restaurants and snack bars. These residents have not changed their conventional lifestyles, but their ordinary lives overlap with tourism, especially through staged activities and supporting services. Local residents 'naturally' perform for tourists, so they were commonly regarded as part of the cultural background and related to the water culture theme, as shown by this comment: 'We heard some folk songs by a local granny – it was such a lovely night in town' (TP01).

The number of other tourists in Zhouzhuang was mentioned as a problem by tourists. However, their concern differed according to the time of their visit. Many tourists had anticipated that there might be lots of other tourists because 'Zhouzhuang is a famous tourist destination in China' (TP08); but the number of tourists was sometimes larger and worse than their expectations. This was especially noted during the daytime, evidenced by tourists widely and frequently mentioning 'Lots of tourists'. As a result, they complained: 'There is nothing to see, except for tourists, even in the photographs I took' (TP41).

Tourists frequently mentioned 'Lots of tourists' as part of their daytime experience, but the 'authentic' Zhouzhuang was only experienced when 'Few tourists were around at night and in the early morning. This was one of the reasons why tourists experienced different themes at different times of the day.

3. No memorabilia attribute was listed in the Top10, but all attributes mentioned were perceived to link to the theme 'Small bridge, flowing water, and resident', while only some linked to the other two themes. This was because the souvenirs available were almost inevitably related to Theme I.

4. Several service attributes were listed in the Top10, four for the first two themes and three for the last. However, 'Catering' appeared in Themes II and III, while 'Lighting' appears only in Theme II. This indicates that some service attributes were perceived by tourists to link to different themes. When choosing service or service providers, tourists usually had special criteria in addition to basic facilities, such as 'Waterside', because the whole process of receiving the 'special' service was commonly regarded 'to be ... a part of local life' (TP21). Even if staying in a small inn rather than a formal hotel, many tourists described their accommodation with names that usually contained the Chinese word '水' (literally, 'water'). As one respondent said: 'regarding the name, I can imagine a river running around the inn, which is just what I want' (TP16).

It was shown that tourists commonly labelled their experiences with some imaginary ideas or names (i.e. themes) under which numerous and diverse perceived attributes noted during their experiences were further described. The difference between Theme I and the other two themes is mainly due to differences in attributes perceived during the day and at night. In other words, the themes perceived by those visiting at night were likely to be different from those visiting during the daytime because tourists perceived different attributes.

13.5 Conclusion

An experience is a blend of many elements that come together (Shaw and Ivens, 2002) to involve consumers emotionally, physically, intellectually and spiritually (Carbone, 1998; Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Oswald *et al.*, 2006). However, no previous study has identified how these attributes link together to create a holistic destination experience for tourists.

This chapter has found that service attributes can be clustered into an important type of experience. Those experiences that were *novel* received more attention from tourists, because they contrasted with, or were opposite to, their daily lives. Tourists commonly described their experiences in Zhouzhuang in terms of the daily lived activities (McCabe, 2002) they participated in, many of which could exhibit local culture. This enabled more interaction with other people, encouraged purchase of memorabilia and contributed to experiencing themes. In this case, service-related daily-life experiences are an indispensable element of a visit to Zhouzhuang. Therefore, service provided a medium for tourists to be involved in their experience. It supports the notion that 'what tourists primarily seek and consume at destinations is engaging experiences accompanied by the goods and/or service components of the destinations' (Oh *et al.*, 2007, p. 119). In this case, all perceived destination attributes were able to be clustered into four types: atmosphere, interactions, memorabilia and service.

Linkage between themes and attributes was the second important finding of this research. The attributes perceived by tourists with regards to Zhouzhuang were found to be linked to three themes that were strongly linked with the town's atmospheric attributes. It appears that such *atmospheric* attributes are especially effective in evoking a theme. Atmospheric attributes such as architectures and songs appear to more

easily take a customer on an imaginary journey to a different time or place (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). In Zhouzhuang, tourists' consumption of 'atmosphere' was guided by their previous knowledge of the town. The 'Small bridge, flowing water, and residents' theme attracted tourists to visit Zhouzhuang, and also directed their attention to the attributes linked to that theme during their visit. This theme is an important part of the destination image and influenced potential tourists' decision making behaviour, as well as their subjective perception during the visit (Olivia, 1999). It appears that atmosphere attributes are important in developing a destination theme, and that in developing a destination image, managers should identify and develop important atmosphere attributes.

In Zhouzhuang, the 'Small bridge, flowing water, and residents' theme was strongly linked to *service* activities such as boating or a local lifestyle lodge (see Table 13.2) which enabled tourists to experience local residents' lives. These activities also involved tourists through use of their five senses. The *memorabilia* purchased from local shops were often seen not only as symbols of the water culture theme (see Table 13.2), but also as tangible reminders (Gordon, 1986) to reinforce 'memories' cherished and consumed 'after' the trip, and thus made the ephemeral experience last longer (Haldrup and Larsen, 2003).

Tourists' experience of Zhouzhuang was also influenced by their *interactions* with other people (Zeithaml *et al.*, 2008). In Zhouzhuang, many activities involved interactions between tourists and personnel, local residents, travel companions or other tourists. The nature of these interactions differed between day and night time. During the day, crowding usually led to negative interactions among tourists and influenced their perceptions of atmosphere attributes. At night, fewer tourists encouraged more positive interactions and tourists engaged in more self-designed activities with their travel companions. The quiet night atmosphere, more self-directed activities and more positive interactions with other people led to tourists experiencing a different theme at night (i.e. Themes II and III). Therefore, interactions with other tourists influenced the theme and atmosphere that tourists perceived.

These results indicate that the theme perceived by tourists was linked to the atmosphere, interaction, memorabilia and service they experienced, as shown in Table 13.2. In previous studies, a theme has been considered from a managerial perspective to be incorporated into physical design focusing on the environment (Slåtten *et al.*, 2009). This study found that a theme, from a tourist perspective, requires coherence not just in the designed physical environment but must also involve other attributes such as interaction, service and memorabilia. Because interactions and service are involved in the creation of an experience, they are dynamic and associated with the visitation process, so the progression and duration of the visit become important components of an experience (Zomerdijsk and Voss, 2010). As a result, the 'omnipresence' of a theme (Kozinets *et al.*, 2002, p. 23) is reaffirmed. Therefore, 'theme' encompassed all types of attributes, including atmosphere, interaction, memorabilia and service. Due to the scant theoretical insight into how these elements blend together at the destination level, this research is the first to empirically identify the perceived attributes and the linkages between them embodied in a destination experience.

This research examines attributes of a destination experience and their communications to themes; this provides a useful method for destination managers to support the purposive design of the tourist experience. However, this research must

acknowledge limitations in the sampling of tourists and its basis on only one qualitative case. The results of the study were only obtained from Chinese overnight tourists, limiting the generalization of the results to Chinese people who visited Zhouzhuang during the working day. In addition, Zhouzhuang is a cultural and heritage destination, thus the linkage between themes and the service attributes may not apply in many other contexts or be as strong. Therefore, similar studies are recommended in different research contexts, such as other types of tourist destinations, hotels, events and festivals, to test this enhanced framework.

Acknowledgements

This research project (No. 2015SJB528) was supported by the Foundation of Education Department of Jiangsu Province, China.

Endnote

- ¹ *Verstehen* refers to understanding the meaning of 'action from ... the actor's point of view' (Schutz, 1954, p. 269).

References

- Agapito, D., Valle, P. and Mendes, J. (2013) The cognitive-affective-conative model of destination image: a confirmatory analysis. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 30(5), 471–481. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2013.803393
- Agapito, D., Valle, P. and Mendes, J. (2014) The sensory dimension of tourist experiences: capturing meaningful sensory-informed themes in southwest Portugal. *Tourism Management* 42, 224–237.
- Andersson, T.D. and Mossberg, L. (2004) The dining experience: Do restaurants satisfy customer needs? *Food Service Technology* 4(4), 171–177. DOI: 10.1111/j.1471-5740.2004.00105.x
- Arnould, E.J. and Price, L.L. (1993) River magic: extraordinary experience and the extended service encounter. *Journal of Consumer Research* 20(1), 24–45.
- Baker, J. (1987) The role of the environment in marketing services: the consumer perspective. In: Czepiel, J.A., Congram, C.A. and Shanahan, J. (eds) *The Services Challenge: Integrating for Competitive Advantage*. American Marketing Association, Chicago, Illinois, pp. 79–84.
- Berry, L.L., Carbone, L.P. and Haeckel, S.H. (2002) Managing the total customer experience. *MIT Sloan Management Review* 43(3), 85–89.
- Bitner, M.J. (1990) Evaluating service encounters: the effects of physical surroundings and employee responses. *Journal of Marketing* 54(2), 69–82.
- Bitner, M.J., Booms, B.H. and Tetreault, M.S. (1990) The service encounter: diagnosing favorable and unfavorable incidents. *Journal of Marketing* 54(1), 71–84.
- Bonet, D. and Paché, G. (2005) A new approach for understanding hindrances to collaborative practices in the logistics channel. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management* 33(8), 583–596. DOI: 10.1108/09590550510608386
- Boorstin, C. (1964) *The Image: A Guide to Pseudo-events in American Society*. Harper and Row, New York.
- Bryman, A. (1995) *Disney and His Worlds*. Routledge, London.
- Carù, A. and Cova, B. (2007) Consumer immersion in an experiential context. In: Carù, A. and Cova, B. (eds) *Consuming Experience*. Routledge, Abingdon, UK, pp. 34–47.

- Carbone, L.P. (1998) Total customer experience drives value. *Management Review* 87(7), 62.
- Clawson, M. (1963) *Land and Water for Recreation: Opportunities, Problems, and Policies*. Rand McNally, Chicago, Illinois.
- Cohen, E. (1979) A phenomenology of tourist experiences. *Sociology* 13(2), 179–201. DOI: 10.1177/003803857901300203
- Cohen, E. (1985) The tourist guide: the origins, structure and dynamics of a role. *Annals of Tourism Research* 12(1), 5–29. DOI: 10.1016/0160-7383(85)90037-4
- Dahles, H. (2002) The politics of tour guiding: image management in Indonesia. *Annals of Tourism Research* 29(3), 783–800. DOI: 10.1016/s0160-7383(01)00083-4
- Dann, G.M.S. (1977) Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 4(4), 184–194. DOI: 10.1016/0160-7383(77)90037-8
- De Ruyter, K. and Wetzels, M. (2000) The impact of perceived listening behavior in voice-to-voice service encounters. *Journal of Service Research* 2(3), 276–284. DOI: 10.1177/109467050023005
- Echtner, C.M. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (1993) The measurement of destination image: an empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research* 31(4), 3–13. DOI: 10.1177/004728759303100402
- Ferdinand, N. and Williams, N.L. (2010) Tourism memorabilia and the tourism experience. In: Morgan, M., Lugosi, P. and Ritchie, J.R.B. (eds) *The Tourism and Leisure Experience: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives*. Channel View Publications, Bristol, UK, pp. 202–217.
- Finkelstein, J. (1991) *Dining Out*. New York University Press, Cambridge, New York.
- Fog, K., Budtz, C. and Yakaboylu, B. (2003) *Storytelling: Branding in Practice*. Samfundslitteratur, Frederiksberg, Denmark.
- Gallarza, M.G., Saura, I.G. and García, H.C. (2002) Destination image: towards a conceptual framework. *Annals of Tourism Research* 29(1), 56–78. DOI: 10.1016/s0160-7383(01)00031-7
- Gentile, C., Spiller, N. and Noci, G. (2007) How to sustain the customer experience: an overview of experience components that co-create value with the customer. *European Management Journal* 25(5), 395–410. DOI: 10.1016/j.emj.2007.08.005
- Gerrie, A. (2012) World's most beautiful towns. CNN Travel Available at: <http://www.travel.cnn.com/explorations/escape/worlds-most-beautiful-towns-580013/> (accessed June 2017).
- Glaser, B.G. and Strauss, A.L. (1980) *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. Transaction Publishers, Piscataway, New Jersey.
- Gordon, B. (1986) The souvenir: messenger of the extraordinary. *Journal of Popular Culture* 20(3), 135–146. DOI: 10.1111/j.0022-3840.1986.2003_135.x
- Gremler, D.D. and Gwinner, K.P. (2000) Customer-employee rapport in service relationships. *Journal of Service Research* 3(1), 82–104. DOI: 10.1177/109467050031006
- Gummesson, E. (1993) *Quality Management in Service Organizations: An Interpretation of the Service Quality Phenomenon and a Synthesis of International Research*. International Service Quality Association, New York.
- Gunn, C.A. and Var, T. (2002) *Tourism Planning: Basics, Concepts, Cases*. Routledge, New York.
- Gustafsson, I.B., Öström, Å., Johansson, J. and Mossberg, L. (2006) The five aspects meal model: a tool for developing meal services in restaurants. *Journal of Foodservice* 17(2), 84–93. DOI: 10.1111/j.1745-4506.2006.00023.x
- Haldrup, M. and Larsen, J. (2003) The family gaze. *Tourist Studies* 3(1), 23–46. DOI: 10.1177/1468797603040529
- Hallin, C. and Mykletun, R. (2006) Space and place for BASE: on the evolution of a BASE-jumping attraction image. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 6(2), 95–117. DOI: 10.1080/15022250600667466
- Harris, K. and Baron, S. (2004) Consumer-to-consumer conversations in service settings. *Journal of Service Research* 6(3), 287–303. DOI: 10.1177/1094670503260132
- Hayes, D. and MacLeod, N. (2007) Packaging places: designing heritage trails using an experience economy perspective to maximize visitor engagement. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 13(1), 45–58. DOI: 10.1177/1356766706071205

- Heide, M. and Grønhaug, K. (2006) Atmosphere: conceptual issues and implications for hospitality management. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 6(4), 271–286.
- Heide, M., Lærdal, K. and Grønhaug, K. (2007) The design and management of ambience: implications for hotel architecture and service. *Tourism Management* 28(5), 1315–1325. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2007.01.011
- Henderson, K.A. (2006) *Dimensions of Choice: A Qualitative Approach to Recreation, Parks, and Leisure Research*. Venture Publishing, State College, Pennsylvania.
- Hochschild, A.R. (2003) *The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling*. University of California Press, Berkeley, California.
- Holbrook, M.B. and Hirschman, E.C. (1982) The experiential aspects of consumption: consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research* 9(2), 132–140.
- Hosany, S. and Witham, M. (2010) Dimensions of cruisers' experiences, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research* 49(3), 351–364. DOI: 10.1177/0047287509346859
- Huberman, A.M. and Miles, M.B. (1994) Data management and analysis methods. In: Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (eds) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, California, pp. 428–444.
- Jansen-Verbeke, M. (1991) Leisure shopping: A magic concept for the tourism industry? *Tourism Management* 12(1), 9–14. DOI: 10.1016/0261-5177(91)90024-n
- Jennings, G., Lee, Y.S., Ayling, A., Lunny, B., Cater, C. and Ollenburg, C. (2009) Quality tourism experiences: reviews, reflections, research agendas. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management* 18(2), 294–310.
- Josiam, B.M.B.M., Mattson, M. and Sullivan, P. (2004) The historaunt: heritage tourism at Mickey's dining car. *Tourism Management* 25(4), 453–461. DOI: 10.1016/s0261-5177(03)00126-2
- Kellogg, D.L., Youngdahl, W.E. and Bowen, D.E. (1997) On the relationship between customer participation and satisfaction: two frameworks. *International Journal of Service Industry Management* 8(3), 206–219.
- Kotler, P. (1973) Atmospherics as a marketing tool. *Journal of Retailing* 49(4), 48–64.
- Kozinets, R.V., Sherry, J.F., DeBerry-Spence, B., Duhachek, A., Nuttavuthisit, K. and Storm, D. (2002) Themed flagship brand stores in the new millennium: theory, practice, prospects. *Journal of Retailing* 78(1), 17–29. DOI: 10.1016/s0022-4359(01)00063-x
- Krippendorff, K. (2004) *Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, California.
- Lee, Y., Kim, S., Seock, Y.K. and Cho, Y. (2009) Tourists' attitudes towards textiles and apparel-related cultural products: a cross-cultural marketing study. *Tourism Management* 30(5), 724–732. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2008.10.007
- Littrell, M.A., Anderson, L.F. and Brown, P.J. (1993) What makes a craft souvenir authentic? *Annals of Tourism Research* 20(1), 197–215. DOI: 10.1016/0160-7383(93)90118-m
- Lovelock, C.H. (1996) *Services Marketing*. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- McCabe, S. (2002) The tourist experience and everyday life. In: Dann, G. (ed.) *The Tourist as a Metaphor of the Social World*. CABI, Wallingford, UK, pp. 61–77.
- Mo, C.M., Howard, D.R. and Havitz, M.E. (1993) Testing an international tourist role typology. *Annals of Tourism Research* 20(2), 319–335. DOI: 10.1016/0160-7383(93)90058-b
- Moscardo, G., Ballantyne, R. and Hughes, K. (2007) *Designing Interpretive Signs: Principles in Practice*. Fulcrum Publishing, Toronto, Canada.
- Mossberg, L. (2007) A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(1), 59–74. DOI: 10.1080/15022250701231915
- Mossberg, L. (2008) Extraordinary experiences through storytelling. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 8(3), 195–210.
- Murphy, P.E., Pritchard, M.P. and Smith, B. (2000) The destination product and its impact on traveller perceptions. *Tourism Management* 21(1), 43–52. DOI: 10.1016/s0261-5177(99)00080-1
- Nicholls, R.F. (2005) *Interactions between Service Customers: Managing On-site Customer-to-customer Interactions for Service Advantage*. Poznan University of Economics, Poznan, Poland.

- Oh, H., Fiore, A.M. and Jeoung, M. (2007) Measuring experience economy concepts: tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research* 46(2), 119–132. DOI: 10.1177/0047287507304039
- Olivia, H.J. (1999) Understanding and measuring tourist destination images. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 1(1), 1–15.
- Onderwater, L., Richards, G. and Stam, S. (2000) Why tourists buy textile souvenirs: European evidence. *Tourism, Culture and Communication* 2(1), 39–48.
- Ooi, C.S. (2005) A theory of tourism experiences: the management of attention. In: O'Dell, T. and Billing, P. (eds) *Experiencescapes: Tourism, Culture and Economy*. Copenhagen Business School Press, Denmark, pp. 51–68.
- Oswald, A.M., Ram, K. and Michael, B. (2006) Lasting customer loyalty: a total customer experience approach. *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 23(7), 397–405. DOI: 10.1108/07363760610712939
- Pearce, P.L. and Wu, M. (2016) Tourists' evaluation of a romantic themed attraction: expressive and instrumental issues. *Journal of Travel Research* 55(2), 220–232.
- Pine, B.J. and Gilmore, J.H. (1998) Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review* 76(4), 97–105.
- Pine, B.J. and Gilmore, J.H. (1999) *The Experience Economy: Work is Theatre and Every Business a Stage*. Harvard Business School Press, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Price, L.L., Arnould, E.J. and Tierney, P. (1995) Going to extremes: managing service encounters and assessing provider performance. *Journal of Marketing* 59(2), 83–97.
- Pullman, M.E. and Gross, M.A. (2004) Ability of experience design elements to elicit emotions and loyalty behaviors. *Decision Sciences* 35(3), 551–578.
- Richards, G. (2001) The experience industry and the creation of attractions. In: Richards, G. (ed.) *Cultural Attractions and European Tourism*. CABI, Wallingford, UK, pp. 55–69.
- Richards, L. (2009) *Handling Qualitative Data: A Practical Guide* (2nd edn). Sage, London.
- Ritchie, J.R.B., Tung, V.W.S. and Ritchie, R.J.B. (2011) Tourism experience management research: emergence, evolution and future directions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 23(4), 419–438. DOI: 10.1108/09596111111129968
- Rosenbaum, M.S. (2006) Exploring the social supportive role of third places in consumers' lives. *Journal of Service Research* 9(1), 59–72. DOI: 10.1177/1094670506289530
- Ross, G.F. (1998) *The Psychology of Tourism* (Vol. 1). Hospitality Press, Melbourne, Australia.
- Ruan, Y. and Shao, Y. (1996) Characteristics and protection of water towns in Jiangnan area. *Tongji University Journal* 7(1), 21–28.
- Scapp, R. and Seitz, B. (1998) Introduction. In: Scapp, R. and Seitz, B. (eds) *Eating Culture*. State University of New York, Albany, New York, pp. 1–10.
- Schutz, A. (1954) Concept and theory formation in the social sciences. *Journal of Philosophy* 51(9), 257–273.
- Shaw, C. and Ivens, J. (2002) *Building Great Customer Experiences*. Palgrave, New York.
- Silpakit, P. and Fisk, R. (1985) Participating the service process: a theoretical framework. In: Bloch, T.M., Upah, G.D. and Zeithaml, V.A. (eds) *Services Marketing in a Changing Environment*. American Marketing, Chicago, Illinois, pp. 117–121.
- Slåtten, T., Mehmetoglu, M., Svensson, G. and Sværi, S. (2009) Atmospheric experiences that emotionally touch customers: a case study from a winter park. *Managing Service Quality* 19(6), 721–746.
- Smith, S.L.J. (1994) The tourism product. *Annals of Tourism Research* 21(3), 582–595. DOI: 10.1016/0160-7383(94)90121-x
- Squire, S.J. (1994) Gender and tourist experiences: assessing women's shared meanings for Beatrix Potter. *Leisure Studies* 13(3), 195–209.
- Timothy, D.J. and Butler, R.W. (1995) Cross-border shopping: a North American perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), 16–34. DOI: 10.1016/0160-7383(94)00052-t
- Trauer, B. and Ryan, C. (2005) Destination image, romance and place experience: an application of intimacy theory in tourism. *Tourism Management* 26(4), 481–491. DOI: 10.1016/j.tourman.2004.02.014

-
- Valentine, G. (1999) Food, leisure and the negotiation of sexual relations. In: Crouch, D. (ed.) *Leisure/Tourism Geographies: Practices and Geographical Knowledge*. Routledge, London, pp. 164–180.
- Van Limberg, B. (2009) The anatomy of a digital storytelling system: the architecture. *Information Technology and Tourism* 11(1), 31–42.
- Xu, H., Cui, Q., Ballantyne, R. and Packer, J. (2013) Effective environmental interpretation at Chinese natural attractions: the need for an aesthetic approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 21(1), 117–133.
- Yaghmour, S. and Scott, N. (2009) Inter-organizational collaboration characteristics and outcomes: a case study of the Jeddah festival. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events* 1(2), 115–130. DOI: 10.1080/19407960902992175
- Zeithaml, V.A., Bitner, M.J. and Gremler, D.D. (2008) *Services Marketing*. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Zomerdijk, L.G. and Voss, C.A. (2010) Service design for experience-centric services. *Journal of Service Research* 13(1), 67–82. DOI: 10.1177/1094670509351960

14 Sharing Tourism Experiences: Literature Review and Research Agenda

LAURIE WU* AND XIANG (ROBERT) LI

Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA

14.1 Introduction

We often share travel stories with each other. Perhaps it is a unique dining experience, tasting the most exotic cuisine one can imagine; or getting to know a fascinating culture and making friends with fun individuals; or perhaps a gorgeous view witnessed on an adventurous journey. Sharing such travel stories allows us to relive those memorable moments, to connect with others and to get inspirational reflections from our rejuvenated selves. This chapter addresses an important phenomenon shared by millions of individuals: sharing tourism experiences.

Sharing tourism experiences may take many forms. We may talk to one another face-to-face; we may share our stories online by writing reviews and travel blogs; we may take pictures and videos and share them at family reunions or post them online. In addition, we may hear or see other people's travel stories and pictures on social networks. Those distinct forms of experience sharing behaviours are interpersonal communications about one's own, or other people's, travel-related experiences. Although the stream of research on online travel reviews or eWOM (electronic word-of-mouth) continues to grow (Zhang *et al.*, 2009, 2014), in our observation the phenomenon of tourism experience sharing is not adequately addressed by the tourism and hospitality literature. With an extensive review of relevant research from both travel and consumer behaviour literature, this chapter aims to identify the gaps in the literature as well as to propose new directions for future research.

Understanding tourism experience sharing will provide meaningful contributions to the literature, and such discussions will offer practical insights for the industry. The development in technology and the booming of the sharing economy has reshaped the landscape of the tourism and hospitality industry, making other travellers the best source of travel-related knowledge (Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004; Munar

*Corresponding author e-mail: Laurie.wu@temple.edu

and Jacobsen, 2014). As more consumers rely on online information sources to make purchase decisions, a growing stream of travel firms is making strategic moves to integrate both firm-generated and customer-generated business communication (Noone *et al.*, 2011). Further, with the limited operation budget at hand, managers are always looking for the best and most effective communication channel to reach new customers and push for market growth. To that end, we hope to provide travel and tourism managers around the globe with new tools to trigger consumers' sharing of positive and memorable tourism experiences.

The current chapter will first review relevant tourism and hospitality research to identify gaps in the literature, and follow this by providing a synthesized review of information sharing research in the field of consumer behaviour and marketing. Finally, we will discuss opportunities for future research.

14.2 Review of Relevant Research in Tourism and Hospitality Literature

Although topics such as online travel reviews have gained considerable attention from tourism and hospitality scholars, few studies have examined the topic from an experience sharing perspective. In this section, we provide a review of relevant tourism and hospitality research for the topic, focusing on three themes: (i) how travellers share experiences; (ii) why travellers share experiences; and (iii) the impact of experience sharing on consumers and firms. Based on the review, we then outline gaps in the literature.

14.2.1 How travellers share experiences

In the last decade the sharing of tourism experiences has started to gain increasing attention from tourism and hospitality scholars. This growing stream of literature focuses on sharing practices from the online environment (Munar and Jacobsen, 2014). With social media being the dominant online platform for tourism experience sharing, a group of scholars has started to examine the impact of platform characteristics such as social interactivity, levels of hierarchy on tourists' involvement and the use of such platforms to share travel experiences (Jacobsen and Munar, 2012; Munar and Jacobsen, 2013).

Advanced technology also allows tourists to share their travel experiences in various ways. In addition to the traditional narrative methods of communication (e.g. writing reviews and blogs) (Zhang *et al.*, 2009), tourists can now engage in experience sharing by creating audio and visual content which can better communicate their own emotions and feelings (Munar and Jacobsen, 2013). As a result, an increasing number of travel reviews now include photographs and videos (Munar and Jacobsen, 2013). The pervasive adoption of smartphones in today's consumer society also provides many tourists with the possibility of real-time experience sharing (Munar and Jacobsen, 2014).

14.2.2 Why travellers share experiences

The tourism and hospitality literature highlights two major categories of reasons why travellers share their tourism experiences: self-centred motivations and community-related motivations (Munar and Jacobsen, 2014). On the one hand, individuals are self-centred and constantly seek opportunities to gain self-benefits such as convenience, financial rewards and merit, promoted social status, enhanced self-esteem and increased social capital (Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004; Gretzel and Yoo, 2008; Stringam *et al.*, 2010). When sharing travel experiences that provide them opportunities to achieve these self-centred goals, tourists will be more likely to exhibit such behaviour (Wang and Fesenmaier, 2004).

Additionally, tourists share travel experiences due to community-oriented motivations such as altruistic concerns (Munar and Jacobsen, 2014) and the need for belonging (Zhang *et al.*, 2014). The desire to support the sense of community is shared by many tourists who are highly engaged in travellers' virtual communities (Bronner and de Hoog, 2011). Sharing tourism experiences is typically seen as an altruistic behaviour that can benefit other tourists with real experiential information (Munar and Jacobsen, 2014).

14.2.3 The impact of experience sharing on consumers and firms

Tourists' experience sharing behaviour has been demonstrated to benefit both travellers and firms. Previous research shows that the shared experiences of others can influence travellers' perceptions about the review as well as pre-purchase evaluations and consumption intention towards the travel/hospitality business. Focused on travellers' perspectives, one dominant school of research in the existing literature examined the impact of various review characteristics such as review valence (Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009; Sparks and Browning 2011), review usefulness and credibility (Litvin *et al.*, 2008; Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2011; Xie *et al.*, 2011; Yacouel and Fleischer, 2012; Ayeh *et al.*, 2013), and review accessibility and ease of processing (Xiang and Gretzel, 2010; Papathanassis and Knolle, 2011; Sparks and Browning, 2011).

In addition to consumers' perspectives, some research has provided evidence of how tourists experience sharing service providers (Hills and Cairncross, 2010; Yacouel and Fleischer, 2012). The research suggests that travellers' sharing of positive tourism experiences can help tourism and hospitality firms to increase the number of online sales (Ye *et al.*, 2009), enhance customer loyalty (Loureiro and Kastenholtz, 2011) and obtain a price premium (Yacouel and Fleischer, 2012). As tourism experience sharing is of high importance for firms, several scholars have started to examine the responses of firms towards travellers' shared experiences in the online environment (Litvin and Hoffman, 2012; Wei *et al.*, 2013; Sparks *et al.*, 2014).

14.3 Gaps in the Literature

A review of relevant tourism and hospitality research indicates that the majority of previous research focuses on the outcome of experience sharing (i.e. how online travel

reviews shape other travellers' decision making processes). Relatively little efforts were devoted to understand why and how tourists share their experiences in online and/or offline environments. Although some researchers have examined tourists' motivation to share travel experiences (e.g. Munar and Jacobsen, 2014), very few studies have linked the motivations with specific behavioural outcomes in experience sharing (for a notable exception please see Bronner and de Hoog, 2011). To date, the topic of how various psychological motivations cause different experience sharing behaviours remains under-explored in tourism and hospitality literature. In addition, research is still lagging in examining the contextual, cultural and individual trait factors that may further complicate the psychological processes driving tourism experience sharing. Last but not least, relevant research solely focuses on review posting when examining experience sharing behaviours, with little attention given to other forms of social transmission processes. To provide new theoretical perspectives for tourism experience sharing research, the next section of this chapter reviews consumer behaviour and marketing literature on information sharing.

14.3.1 Review of consumer behaviour and marketing research on information sharing

Consumers often share information with each other, and information sharing in the field of marketing and consumer behaviour has become an important area of research in recent years. Our review covers three major research themes: (i) types of information sharing; (ii) motivational drivers and downstream consequences of experience sharing; and (iii) contextual influence on information sharing.

Types of information sharing

There are various ways in which people share consumption-related information with others. Previous consumer behaviour and marketing research in information sharing has examined both online and offline information sharing. Researchers are interested in the sharing of both primary and secondary information. In addition, relevant research has covered the topics of both immediate and ongoing information sharing.

ONLINE VERSUS OFFLINE INFORMATION SHARING Information sharing in offline and online environments differs in many ways. Although advanced technology provides consumers with various ways to share information (e.g. writing reviews, posting pictures and videos), written communication is still the dominant way in which consumers choose to talk about their purchase experiences (Berger, 2011, 2013, 2014). Unlike offline communication, which tends to be directed and targeted at certain individuals, information sharing in the online market is often sent to an unspecified audience (Berger, 2011, 2013, 2014). Users can more easily stay anonymous when expressing their opinions on online platforms; hence online information sharing is often associated with higher levels of anonymity (Berger, 2011, 2013, 2014; McFarland and Ployhart, 2015). Moreover, information posted online can be stored for a longer period of time, which allows other people to verify the validity of the shared information (McFarland and Ployhart, 2015).

SHARING OF PRIMARY VERSUS SECONDARY INFORMATION Consumers may either share information about their own experiences or pass on information about experiences that occurred to others. For example, we may post our own consumption experience on Facebook, or we may share our friends' posts and help transmit their experiential stories to other individuals. Here, we term the information sharing about one's own experiences as the sharing of *primary* information. Involvement in the social transition of other people's experiences is termed the sharing of *secondary* information.

A key difference between the sharing of primary versus secondary information is one's self-involvement. While primary information is about individuals' own first-hand consumption experience, secondary information essentially is about other people and hence is associated with low self-involvement. This difference alters the impact of certain motivational drivers on consumers' information sharing behaviour. For example, De Angelis *et al.* (2012) found that, driven by the self-enhanced motivation, consumers tended to share positive primary information but negative secondary information.

IMMEDIATE VERSUS ONGOING INFORMATION SHARING Information sharing can occur across a large timespan. While certain individuals share information immediately after their consumption experience, others talk about such experiences weeks or even months after the consumption time point (Berger and Schwartz, 2011). Both immediate and ongoing information sharing are equally important for practitioners, as marketing campaigns may focus on either or both types of viral objectives (Ho and Dempsey, 2010). Previous research indicates that the point in time when a consumption experience receives more discussion mainly depends on two product characteristics: interest and accessibility. Interesting consumption experiences tend to get more immediate social transmission. But, contrary to the general belief, interesting consumption experiences do not receive such high social transmission in the long term (Berger and Schwartz, 2011). Meanwhile, consumption experiences that are highly accessible in consumers' mindsets (e.g. consumption experiences that are highly visible and thus always in the front of consumers' minds) tend to get more ongoing information sharing (Berger and Schwartz, 2011).

Motivational drivers for information sharing and downstream consequences

A stream of research examined why consumers share information (Alexandrov *et al.*, 2013). This line of research identified important motivational drivers for information sharing, and scholars also examined specific downstream behavioural consequences for each of the motivational drivers.

SELF-IMAGE CONCERNS What we talk about and how we talk in everyday life communicates to others who we are. Managing one's self-image in social interactions is a key motivational factor driving information sharing. Here, self-image concerns include (but are not limited to) enhancing one's self-image and signalling one's self-identity. As individuals, we all want to talk about things that make us look good (Sundaram *et al.*, 1998; Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004; Chung and Darke, 2006). Such self-enhancement concerns can impel individuals to talk about things that are interesting and cool (Berger and Schwartz, 2011; Berger and Iyengar, 2013).

We also want to signal our own self-identity in social interactions; that is, to convey to other people our characteristics that relate to self-identity, such as aesthetic taste and social status. Driven by identity-signalling motivation, individuals are more likely to talk about symbolic products that are relevant to identity (e.g. fashion products) rather than utilitarian products (e.g. a toothbrush) (Belk *et al.*, 1988; Shavitt, 1990; Berger and Heath, 2007).

EMOTION REGULATION DRIVERS Consumers also share information for reasons of emotion regulation (Gross, 1998). A line of research indicates that communicating about negative events allows individuals to vent negative emotions (Sundaram *et al.*, 1998; Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004). In addition, and especially in the case of depressing experiences, writing and talking about such events helps individuals to alleviate the feelings of anger and frustration through cognitive reappraisal (Rimé *et al.*, 1991; Gross and John, 2003; Lyubomirsky *et al.*, 2006).

Sharing information about a negative consumption experience also helps individuals to take vengeance and punish the inadequate servers and service providers (Richins, 1983; Folkes, 1984; Curren and Folkes, 1987; Sundaram *et al.*, 1998; Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004; Ward and Ostrom, 2006; Grégoire and Fisher, 2008; Grégoire *et al.*, 2009). Although individuals are generally more likely to share negative (versus positive) information when driven by emotion regulation motivations, there are circumstances in which people share positive things to get emotional benefits. Sharing positive experiences allows individuals to extend their happiness to family and friends, which essentially makes the experience more enjoyable (Caprariello and Reis, 2013).

COMMUNAL-ORIENTED MOTIVATIONS Last but not least, we share information out of communal concerns such as to build social bonding, get social support and to help other people make better decisions. After all, we are social animals and seeking for relatedness is one of our basic needs (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Sharing information allows us to build social bonding and to cope with the feelings of loneliness, social isolation and exclusion (Wang *et al.*, 2012). In turn, when in need for social connection, individuals reach out to talk with others.

When driven by communal-oriented motivations, individuals are more likely to talk about things they have in common with the communication audience (Fast *et al.*, 2009), and are also more likely to share information that is useful in the hope that other people can benefit from the shared information and make better decisions (Chiu *et al.*, 2007; Berger and Milkman, 2012).

Contextual influence on information sharing

Contextual characteristics also exert a great impact on consumers' information sharing behaviours. Here, we focus on reviewing research into two categories of contextual factors: consumption characteristics and audience characteristics.

CONSUMPTION CHARACTERISTICS: HEDONIC VERSUS UTILITARIAN In recent years, a line of research emerged to discuss the difference in consumers' information sharing for hedonic versus utilitarian consumptions. A key difference between them lies in the emotionality

of the consumption experience (Dhar and Wertenbroch, 2000). While hedonic experiences are characterized by their emotional qualities, utilitarian consumptions are driven by functional goals (Dhar and Wertenbroch, 2000). This difference determines that consumers will exhibit different information sharing behaviours for these two types of consumption.

Following this line of thought, Kronrod and Danziger (2013) revealed that consumer reviews containing more figurative language lead to more favourable attitudes in hedonic, but not utilitarian, consumption contexts, and that conversational norms about figurative language govern this effect. More recently, Moore (2015) found that consumers consider reviews with explained actions more helpful for utilitarian consumptions ('I *chose* this product because . . .') and reviews with explained reactions more helpful for hedonic consumptions ('I *love* this product because . . .'). Therefore, consumers tend to focus on their actions (versus reactions) to explain utilitarian consumptions, but to focus on their reactions (versus actions) to explain hedonic consumptions (Moore, 2015). Further, Moore (2012) demonstrated that explaining (versus non-explaining) language enhances storytellers' own understanding of their consumption experiences. For the storyteller, such enhanced understanding can further dampen postconsumption evaluations for hedonic experiences, but polarize evaluations for utilitarian consumptions.

Another difference between hedonic versus utilitarian consumptions concerns consumption heterogeneity versus homogeneity. He and Bond (2015) found that consumers tend to expect market tastes to be similar for utilitarian consumptions and dissimilar for hedonic consumptions. As such, while opinion dispersion in online reviews negatively influences consumer evaluations for utilitarian consumptions, this effect is somewhat attenuated for hedonic consumptions.

AUDIENCE CHARACTERISTICS Previous research demonstrated that who we talk to influences how we share information. While in-person communications are often directed towards one or a few specific individuals, communications online typically involve a larger audience group (Berger, 2013). Barasch and Berger (2014) examined this broadcasting characteristic of online information sharing. Their research revealed that audience size can shift individuals' focus onto themselves rather than onto other people (Barasch and Berger, 2014). According to Barasch and Berger (2014), when communicating to a large group, people tend to focus on themselves. As a result, individuals' self-presentation concerns are activated and they tend to share information that makes them look good. When communicating to a small group, on the other hand, people tend to focus on other people such as the audience. Consequentially, individuals are more likely to share information that is more relevant and useful to the audience (Barasch and Berger, 2014).

In addition to audience size, tie strength between the communicator and the audience also influences how we share information. Tie strength refers to the relationship closeness between two parties. In everyday life, we may talk about our consumption experiences with both people of strong ties (e.g. old friends) and people of relatively weaker ties (e.g. new acquaintances). In front of different audience groups, individuals may be driven by different motivations to share information. For example, when in front of people with weak (versus strong) tie strength, individuals' impression management concerns are particularly salient (Ratner and Kahn, 2002). As such,

individuals are more likely to share positive information and avoid controversial topics in front of an audience with whom they have weak ties (Chen and Berger, 2013; Dubois *et al.*, 2013).

Summary of literature survey

Consumers' information sharing behaviours have attracted considerable attention from marketing and consumer behaviour scholars in recent years. So far, the literature has addressed both offline and online information sharing and the sharing of primary and secondary information, as well as the immediate and ongoing social transmission of consumption information. This line of research has also revealed the differences in consumers' information sharing behaviours when driven by distinct motivations. Several scholars have also begun to examine the impact of various contextual characteristics, such as consumption characteristics and audience characteristics, on consumers' information sharing.

14.4 Directions for Future Research in Tourism Experience Sharing

When comparing the tourism experience sharing literature with the information sharing literature (Fig. 14.1), it is clear tourism and hospitality research has tackled several topics of current information sharing research. One clear connection is the line of research on why travellers share experience, which is influenced by information sharing motivation studies. However, there are also some opportunities to expand and develop the theoretical understanding of tourism experience sharing. In this section, we would like to propose some specific directions for future research.

14.4.1 Social transmission and virality in experience sharing

While individuals can be involved in tourism experience sharing in various ways, tourism and hospitality research tends to focus on one form of experience sharing: review posting. While the notion of viral marketing is receiving increasing attention from tourism and hospitality marketers, scholarly research provides little examination of the topic. Why do certain travel stories catch on and spread among the crowd, while others remain quietly unknown? When should marketers encourage the social transmission of firm-generated experiential content versus traveller-generated experiential content? What are the downstream consequences of the created buzz for travellers, firms and destinations? How should firms and destinations cope with negative travel stories that are going viral? These questions deserve future research attention.

14.4.2 More specific behavioural outcomes and motivational antecedents

For many tourism and hospitality marketers, a question of concern is how to drive travellers to share their experiences – both as a way of engaging customers and as a

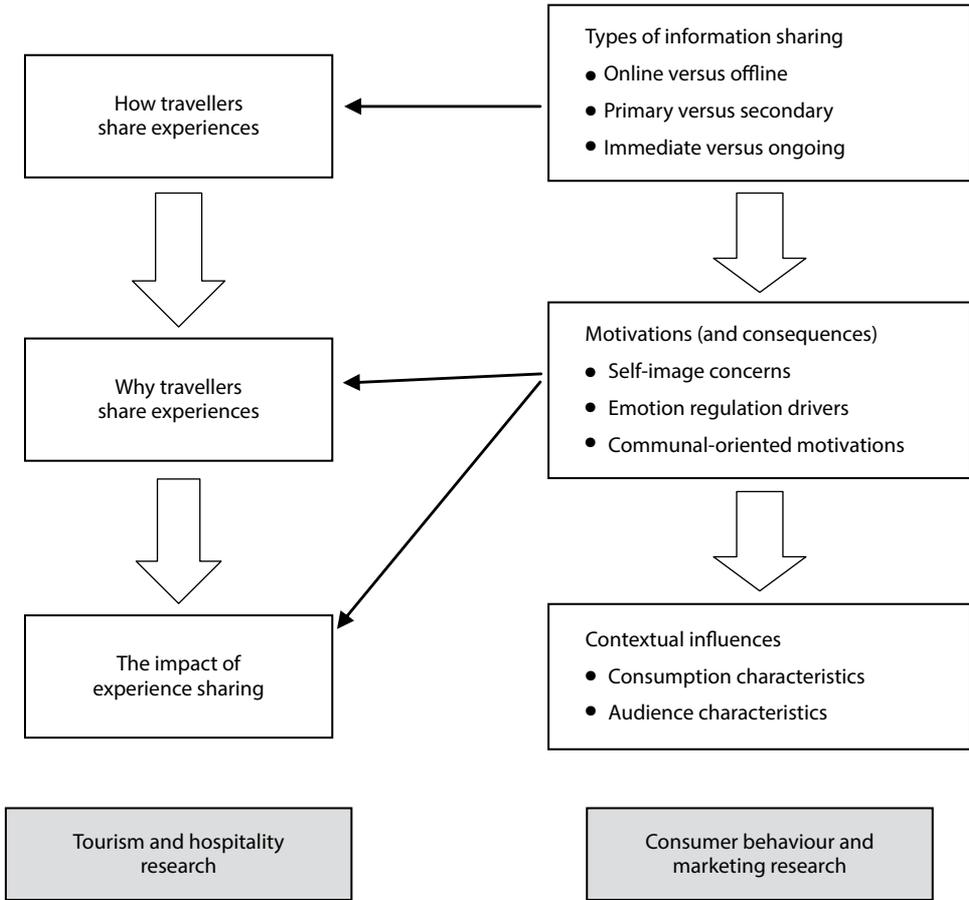


Fig. 14.1. Tourism experience sharing versus information sharing.

research tool to generate better customer insight. As such, among most existing research, the key dependent variable of interest often revolves around constructs such as ‘willingness to share experiences’ or ‘willingness to post reviews’. However, understanding the phenomenon of sharing tourism experience simply by comparing the behaviour of sharing to the baseline of not sharing is not enough. As practitioners’ interest often extends to the ‘what’ and ‘how’ questions of experience sharing, scholarly research should also examine more specific behavioural outcomes. On the other hand, although some researchers have examined the motives underlying tourism experience sharing, very few of these efforts were devoted to causally linking the identified motivational drivers with behavioural outcomes. To that end, future research efforts should be devoted to building the causal connection between the identified motivations of experience sharing and more specific behavioural outcomes. For example, why do some travellers stick to factual details when sharing experiences while others tend to tell exaggerated stories? Why do some travellers share perspectives with others during a travel experience while others do so a little time later? In addition, how will these behavioural differences in experience sharing influence other

travellers' perceptions and decision making? Examining specific behavioural outcomes in experience sharing and making causal connections with various motivational drivers will be a fruitful avenue for future research.

14.4.3 Impact of tourism experience sharing

Although the majority of tourism experience sharing research focuses on examining the consequential impact of such behaviours, there is certainly room for future research. While scholarly research reveals the positive impact of tourism experience sharing on other travellers, almost no tourism or hospitality research discusses how sharing tourism experiences influences the traveller him/herself. When will experience sharing lead to higher levels of happiness? Alternatively, when will sharing take away the fun and joy of our travel experiences? Distinct schools of research have revealed the positive impact of tourism experience sharing on travellers versus firms, while very few studies integrate evidence from both perspectives in demonstrating the impact of experience sharing. It would be particularly interesting to reveal circumstances in which tourism experience sharing leads to positive outcomes for travellers but negative results for destinations or firms. With the majority of existing research examining the impact of tourism experience sharing on other travellers' purchase evaluations and travel behaviours/intentions, future research may want to explore other interesting consequential behaviours. For example, when will other travellers' fun experiences make us feel jealous or sad and hence push us to crave an ice-cream or to purchase a luxury handbag? These seemingly odd questions do, in fact, provide very interesting opportunities for future research.

14.4.4 Contextual influence

Many contextual factors can influence tourism experience sharing. Experience sharing can be very different across distinct platforms. How travellers share experiences on Facebook could be very different from that of TripAdvisor. Experience sharing could also be very different on portable devices (e.g. smartphones) versus traditional computers. With respect to the same hiking journey, travellers may emphasize the sunshine and smile when sharing experiences with a group of amateurs, but discuss the rain and mud when sharing experiences with committed hikers. Research revealing the contextual difference in tourism experience sharing will provide us with more detailed and holistic understanding about the topic.

14.4.5 Cross-cultural and intercultural research

Many of today's travel websites cross national borders and provide worldwide services. For example, TripAdvisor operates in 45 countries and has accumulated more than 250 million reviews for more than 5.2 million accommodations, restaurants and attractions around the globe. As international travel continues to grow, more travel businesses are being reviewed by individuals from different cultural backgrounds and

in different languages. Against such a backdrop, cross-cultural, trans-cultural and intercultural research is needed to further our understanding of tourism experience sharing. How does culture shape travellers' experience sharing behaviours and their perception of other people's shared experiences? How does the cultural distance between the reviewer, the business and the traveller influence pre-purchase evaluations? How is experience sharing different for international versus domestic travels? Very few studies have examined these questions and, in future, scholars should consider these topics as directions for research.

14.5 Conclusion

To date, the phenomenon of tourism experience sharing has not received much scholarly attention. This chapter reviews experience sharing in tourism and hospitality research. We also provide an overview of information sharing research in the field of marketing and consumer behaviour. Based on the review, we identified gaps in the literature and proposed five new directions for future research. The topic of tourism experience sharing deserves more research effort specifically focused on social transmission and the viral nature of experience sharing, as well as on cross-cultural and intercultural extensions.

References

- Alexandrov, A., Bryan L. and Babakus, E. (2013) The effects of social- and self-motives on the intentions to share positive and negative word of mouth. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 41(9), 531–546.
- Ayeh, J.K., Au, N. and Law, R. (2013) Do we believe in TripAdvisor? Examining credibility perceptions and online travelers' attitude toward using user-generated content. *Journal of Travel Research* 52(4), 437–452.
- Barasch, A. and Berger, J. (2014) Broadcasting and narrowcasting: how audience size affects what people share. *Journal of Marketing Research* 51(8), 286–299.
- Belk, R.W., Sherry Jr, J.F. and Wallendorf, M. (1988) A naturalistic inquiry into buyer and seller behavior at a swap meet. *Journal of Consumer Research* 14(4), 449–470.
- Berger, J. (2011) Arousal increases social transmission of information. *Psychological Science* 22(7), 891–893.
- Berger, J. (2013) Beyond viral: interpersonal communication in the internet age. *Psychological Inquiry* 24(4), 293–296.
- Berger, J. (2014) Word of mouth and interpersonal communication: a review and directions for future research. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 24(4), 586–607.
- Berger, J. and Heath, C. (2007) Where consumers diverge from others: identity signaling and product domains. *Journal of Consumer Research* 34(2), 121–134.
- Berger, J. and Iyengar, R. (2013) Communication channels and word of mouth: how the medium shapes the message. *Journal of Consumer Research* 40, 567–579.
- Berger, J. and Milkman, K.L. (2012) What makes online content viral? *Journal of Marketing Research* 49(2), 192–205.
- Berger, J. and Schwartz, E.M. (2011) What drives immediate and ongoing word of mouth? *Journal of Marketing Research* 48(5), 869–880.

- Bronner, F. and de Hoog, R. (2011) Economizing behaviour during travel: strategies and information sources used. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 17(3), 185–195.
- Caprariello, P.A. and Reis, H.T. (2013) To do, to have, or to share? Valuing experiences over material possessions depends on the involvement of others. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 104(2), 199.
- Chen, Z. and Berger, J. (2013) When, why, and how controversy causes conversation. *Journal of Consumer Research* 40(3), 580–593.
- Chiu, Y., Chiou, J.C., Fang, W., Lin, Y.J. and Wu, M. (2007) Design, fabrication, and control of components in MEMS-based optical pickups. *Magnetics, IEEE Transactions on* 43(2), 780–784.
- Chung, C.M. and Darke, P.R. (2006) The consumer as advocate: self-relevance, culture, and word-of-mouth. *Marketing Letters* 17(4), 269–279.
- Curren, M.T. and Folkes, V.S. (1987) Attributional influences on consumers' desires to communicate about products. *Psychology & Marketing* 4(1), 31–45.
- De Angelis, M., Bonezzi, A., Peluso, A.M., Rucker, D.D. and Costabile, M. (2012) On braggarts and gossips: a self-enhancement account of word-of-mouth generation and transmission. *Journal of Marketing Research* 49(8), 551–563.
- Dhar, R. and Wertenbroch, K. (2000) Consumer choice between hedonic and utilitarian goods. *Journal of Marketing Research* 37(1), 60–71.
- Dubois, D., Bonezzi, A. and De Angelis, M. (2013) The dangers of strong ties: how interpersonal closeness influences word-of-mouth valence. INSEAD Working paper. INSEAD, Fontainebleau, France.
- Fast, N.J., Heath, C. and Wu, G. (2009) Common ground and cultural prominence: how conversation reinforces culture. *Psychological Science* 20(7), 904–911.
- Folkes, V.S. (1984) Consumer reactions to product failure: an attributional approach. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 398–409.
- Grégoire, Y. and Fisher, R.J. (2008) Customer betrayal and retaliation: when your best customers become your worst enemies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 36(2), 247–261.
- Grégoire, Y., Tripp, T.M. and Legoux, R. (2009) When customer love turns into lasting hate: the effects of relationship strength and time on customer revenge and avoidance. *Journal of Marketing* 73(6), 18–32.
- Gretzel, U. and Yoo, K.H. (2008) Use and impact of online travel reviews. In: O'Connor, P., Höpken, W., Gretzel, U. (eds) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2008*. Springer, Vienna, Austria, pp. 35–46.
- Gross, J.J. (1998) Antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation: divergent consequences for experience, expression, and physiology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 74(1), 224.
- Gross, J.J. and John, O.P. (2003) Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 85(2), 348.
- He, S.X. and Bond, S.D. (2015) Why Is the Crowd Divided? Attribution for Dispersion in Online Word of Mouth. *Journal of Consumer Research* 41(6), 1509–1527.
- Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K.P., Walsh, G. and Gremler, D.D. (2004) Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: What motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the internet? *Journal of Interactive Marketing* 18(1), 38–52.
- Ho, J.Y.C. and Dempsey, M. (2010) Viral marketing: motivations to forward online content. *Journal of Business Research* 63 (9–10), 1000–1006.
- Hills, J.R. and Cairncross, G. (2011) Small accommodation providers and UGC web sites: perceptions and practices. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 23(1), 26–43.
- Jacobsen, J.K.S. and Munar, A.M. (2012) Tourist information search and destination choice in a digital age. *Tourism Management Perspectives* 1, 39–47.
- Kronrod, A. and Danziger, S. (2013) Wii will rock you! The use and effect of figurative language in consumer reviews of hedonic and utilitarian consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research* 40(4), 726–739.

- Lee, H.A., Law, R. and Murphy, J. (2011) Helpful reviewers in TripAdvisor, an online travel community. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 28(7), 675–688.
- Litvin, S.W., Goldsmith, R.E. and Pan, B. (2008) Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism Management* 29(3), 458–468.
- Litvin, S.W. and Hoffman, L.M. (2012) Responses to consumer-generated media in the hospitality marketplace: an empirical study. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 18(2), 135–145.
- Loureiro, S.M.C. and Kastenholtz, E. (2011) Corporate reputation, satisfaction, delight, and loyalty towards rural lodging units in Portugal. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 30(3), 575–583.
- Lyubomirsky, S., Sousa, L. and Dickerhoof, R. (2006) The costs and benefits of writing, talking, and thinking about life's triumphs and defeats. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 90(4), 692.
- McFarland, L.A. and Ployhart, R.E. (2015) Social media: a contextual framework to guide research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0039244>
- Moore, S.G. (2012) Some things are better left unsaid: how word of mouth influences the storyteller. *Journal of Consumer Research* 38(6), 1140–1154.
- Moore, S.G. (2015) Attitude predictability and helpfulness in online reviews: the role of explained actions and reactions. *Journal of Consumer Research* 42(1), 30–44.
- Munar, A.M. and Jacobsen, J.K.S. (2013) Trust and involvement in tourism social media and web-based travel information sources. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 13(1), 1–19.
- Munar, A.M. and Jacobsen, J.K.S. (2014) Motivations for sharing tourism experiences through social media. *Tourism Management* 43, 46–54.
- Noone, B.M., McGuire, K.A. and Rohlf, K.V. (2011) Social media meets hotel revenue management: opportunities, issues and unanswered questions. *Journal of Revenue & Pricing Management* 10(4), 293–305.
- Papathanassis, A. and Knolle, F. (2011) Exploring the adoption and processing of online holiday reviews: a grounded theory approach. *Tourism Management* 32(2), 215–224.
- Ratner, R.K. and Kahn, B.E. (2002) The impact of private versus public consumption on variety-seeking behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research* 29(2), 246–257.
- Richins, M.L. (1983) Negative word-of-mouth by dissatisfied consumers: a pilot study. *The Journal of Marketing*, 68–78.
- Rimé, B., Mesquita, B., Boca, S. and Philippot, P. (1991) Beyond the emotional event: six studies on the social sharing of emotion. *Cognition & Emotion* 5(5–6), 435–465.
- Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L. (2000) Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist* 55(1), 68.
- Shavitt, S. (1990) The role of attitude objects in attitude functions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 26(2), 124–148.
- Sparks, B.A. and Browning, V. (2011) The impact of online reviews on hotel booking intentions and perception of trust. *Tourism Management* 32(6), 1310–1323.
- Sparks, B.A., Bradley, G.L., Jennings, G.R. and Johnston, N.R. (2014) Cooling off and backing out: understanding consumer decisions to rescind a product purchase. *Journal of Business Research* 67(1), 2903–2910.
- Stringam, B.B., Gerdes Jr, J. and Vanleeuwen, D.M. (2010) Assessing the importance and relationships of ratings on user-generated traveler reviews. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism* 11(2), 73–92.
- Sundaram, D.S., Mitra, K. and Webster, C. (1998) Word-of-mouth communications: a motivational analysis. *Advances in Consumer Research* 25(1), 527–531.
- Vermeulen, I.E. and Seegers, D. (2009) Tried and tested: the impact of online hotel reviews on consumer consideration. *Tourism Management* 30(1), 123–127.
- Wang, Y. and Fesenmaier, D.R. (2004) Towards understanding members' general participation in and active contribution to an online travel community. *Tourism Management* 25(6), 709–722.

- Wang, J., Zhu, R. and Shiv, B. (2012) The lonely consumer: Loner or Conformer? *Journal of Consumer Research* 38(6), 1116–1128.
- Ward, J.C. and Ostrom, A.L. (2006) Complaining to the masses: the role of protest framing in customer-created complaint web sites. *Journal of Consumer Research* 33(2), 220–230.
- Wei, W., Miao, L. and Huang, Z.J. (2013) Customer engagement behaviors and hotel responses. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 33, 316–330.
- Xiang, Z. and Gretzel, U. (2010) Role of social media in online travel information search. *Tourism Management* 31(2), 179–188.
- Xie, H.J., Miao, L., Kuo, P.J. and Lee, B.Y. (2011) Consumers' responses to ambivalent online hotel reviews: the role of perceived source credibility and pre-decisional disposition. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 30(1), 178–183.
- Yacouel, N. and Fleischer, A. (2012) The role of cybermediaries in reputation building and price premiums in the online hotel market. *Journal of Travel Research* 51(2), 219–226.
- Ye, Q., Law, R. and Gu, B. (2009) The impact of online user reviews on hotel room sales. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 28(1), 180–182.
- Zhang, L., Pan, B., Smith, W. and Li, X.R. (2009). An exploratory study of travelers' use of online reviews and recommendations. *Information Technology & Tourism* 11(2), 157–167.
- Zhang, L., Wu, L.L. and Mattila, A.S. (2014) Online reviews the role of information load and peripheral factors. *Journal of Travel Research* 55(3), 299–310.

This page intentionally left blank

Part V Experience Design Cases

This page intentionally left blank

15 Slow Food Tourism: Preferences and Behaviours

KUAN-HUEI LEE*

Singapore Institute of Technology, Singapore

15.1 Introduction

A decision is the outcome of a mental process in which one particular action is specifically selected from a set of available alternatives, being influenced by different aspects of one's personality. This process is studied in different fields including economics, sociology, psychology, management and marketing sciences.

While travelling, tourists make decisions before, during and after a trip. In a holiday destination, each tourist has an optimal or ideal level of stimulation which may be manifested through the activities he or she chooses. Studies of the holiday travel aspects of tourists have mainly concentrated on travel behaviour, destination choice and motivation to travel (Kozak, 2001; McKercher and Chan, 2005). Knowing a tourist's holiday and travel preferences assists a destination in positioning itself and preparing adequate marketing tools to attract the right market segment. Every tourist consumes food in most destinations, and expenditure on food is estimated as accounting for much as one-third of a tourist's total expenditure (Kivela and Crofts, 2006). Research has shown that food consumption may be of the most hedonic experiences for tourists and is remembered after the trip.

The criteria and attributes of specific groups that influence a destination choice have always been at the centre of investigations, and we studied the decision making of some members of the Slow Food movement.

15.2 Decision Making of Slow Food Tourists

The Slow Food movement is a non-profit foundation that started in the small town of Bra, Italy, where the founder Carlo Petrini was born and raised. The movement

*Corresponding author e-mail: KuanHuei.Lee@SingaporeTech.edu.sg

attracted global attention with its protest in response to the opening of a McDonald's restaurant in the Piazza di Spagna in Rome in 1986. The movement was officially founded at the Opera Comique in Paris, in December 1989, as the Slow Food Movement for the Defense of and the Right to Pleasure. There are about 100,000 members in over 1500 convivia across more than 160 countries around the world. The philosophy of Slow Food focuses on 'good, clean and fair' food principles (Petrini, 2007). Slow Food members have a great interest in food, and the consumption of food constitutes a hedonic experience at home, while family members are connected to its origin through sharing around a table.

Our interviews with International Slow Food members found that their decision making was linked with their specific interest, while they travelled to obtain hedonic experience in the destination. As Schneider (2008) mentioned:

Good food is tasty and diverse, and is produced in such a way as to maximise its flavour and its connections to a geographic and cultural region. Clean food is sustainable, and helps to preserve rather than destroy the environment. Fair food is produced in socially sustainable ways, with an emphasis on social justice and fair wages.

(p. 390)

It was interesting to see whether Slow Food members would project this specific interest and link with preferred destination activities while they travelled.

Decision making is a complex procedure that evolves over time and is influenced by different aspects of a person. Theories related to decision making include those of expected utility, prospect, regret, satisfying and planned behaviour. They can be classified into two different approaches: *classical* and *postmodern* (Decrop, 2006). Classical theories set the consumer into three different categories: (i) a risk reducer; (ii) an information processor; or (iii) a problem solver. A classical approach to everyday decision making presumes 'pure' rationality in people, and suggests that individuals collect and analyse information to ultimately select the best solution from a range of available options, sometimes called a 'choice set'. People first evaluate the possible advantages and disadvantages of each outcome, then choose the optimal one. Post-modern theories are newer, and emerged after economic development. Two major streams consider consumers to be hedonistic or adaptive decision makers who seek to make decisions that will maximise their pleasure and emotional arousal. These theories and corresponding theorists are listed in Table 15.1.

The criteria and attributes of specific groups that influence a destination choice have always been at the centre of investigation. When considering the decision making of tourists as a process, and taking into account the interpretive approach to decision making, it appears that there are two stages in the choices tourists make: (i) the decision to travel to a specific destination; and (ii) the decision to participate in activities after arrival. The tourist would start with all possible activities in the awareness set, and then evaluate these activities by considering the evoked set, surrogate set and exclusion set.

The decision of travelling to a particular destination can be totally delinked from the activities the travellers decide upon after arrival (Smith *et al.*, 2012). In the first stage, the tourists decide to travel to a destination after pondering different alternatives based on specific motives that could include business or visiting relatives and friends. In the second stage, after the tourists arrive in the destination, this decision making process starts again when considering all the activities that could be enjoyed.

Table 15.1. Decision making theories.

Classical theories	
View consumers as risk reducers	Bauer, 1960 Taylor, 1974
View consumers as problem solvers	Andreasen, 1965 Nicosia, 1966 Howard and Sheth, 1969 Engel <i>et al.</i> , 1973 Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975
View consumers as information processors	Bettman, 1979
Postmodern theories	
Hedonic and experiential perspective	Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982 Holbrook, 1984
Adaptive or contingent approach	Bettman <i>et al.</i> , 1991 Payne <i>et al.</i> , 1993 Kirchler, 1993
Garbage can decision model	Wilson and Wilson, 1988

The final choice of destination activity would arise from the available set that contained all activities feasible after pondering the constraints.

15.3 Slow Tourism and Slow Food

While there is no movement that promotes slow travel or slow tourism, the emergence of slow travel and slow tourism as a travel lifestyle does represent the tension that people face in modern life. Hence, because of this tension and a high-speed social environment, people may search for 'slow' ways to travel and to enact tourism (Moore, 2012). Slow travel and tourism are characterized by proponents embracing a slow pace of life. Sugiyama and Nobuoka (2007, p. 3) defined slow tourism as a 'type of trip that enables self-realization through doing or being slow, enabling close observation rather than simply sightseeing', while other authors viewed slow travel and tourism from the perspective of gaining environmental benefits. This is because people may travel less to reach a destination and, once there, use more sustainable methods of travel than by road or air.

The mentality of slow tourism is to absorb local customs and engage in deep appreciation of the destination. Slow tourism advocates staying in one place longer, getting to know the area much more thoroughly and deliberately seeking to buy local. This may become an extremely attractive idea for fast-paced people. Tourists involved in slow tourism usually stay in one destination for longer and have flexible itineraries. In contrast to slow tourism, fast tourism seeks to visit as many places as possible in one trip; the length of stay is normally shorter and the number of travellers are usually larger.

The Slow Food movement can be associated with slow travel and tourism in the way that people behave and consume in their travel destination, with the movement

linked to ethical consumption, relocalization of consumption, local food systems or food sheds, food miles and carbon footprint of food. Slow Food members extend Slow Food core values into other consumption behaviours such as transportation, travel and holidays. However, the literature has shown no evidence that members of Slow Food engage more in slow travel and slow tourism than do non-Slow Food members.

The Slow Food movement recognizes the concept of *terroir*¹ and its regulatory frames. By buying local wine, cheeses or meats, the concept of *terroir* or *territorio*¹ is borrowed; hence, the landscape is also bought. Slow Food is a philosophy of life, with members sharing the same values and convictions towards food lifestyle. In his book *Slow Food Nation*, Carlo Petrini lists the following steps that every person can take to strengthen their food community:

- Join a local Slow Food convivium.
- Trace your food sources.
- Shop at a local farmers' market.
- Join a CSA (Community Supported Agriculture).
- Invite a friend over to share a meal.
- Visit a farm in your area.
- Create a new food memory for a child! Let them plant seeds or harvest greens for a meal.
- Start a kitchen garden.
- Learn your local food history! Find a food that is celebrated as being originally from or best grown/produced in your part of the country (Petrini, 2007, p. 255).

15.4 Choosing Activities in the Destination

Tourists often decide their activities in a holiday destination after their arrival. Many of them often undertake the same activities on holiday as they do at home, and the motivation to visit a destination in many cases is not driven by activity but by other reasons such as past hedonistic experience. Thus, the decision on destination activities is made in the second stage of decision making, and separately from the decision of holiday destination made in the first stage. Similarly to the first stage of holiday destination choice, the choice of activities in a destination is highly influenced by personal, interpersonal and situational factors that exist in the moment of decision making.

Studies of aspects of tourists' holiday travel have mainly concentrated on travel behaviour, destination choice and motivation to travel, with few focusing on the relationship between holiday activity preferences and individual stimulation needs. In a holiday destination, each person has an optimal or ideal level of stimulation that could be manifested through the activities they choose. Investigation has shown that relative difference between optimal stimulation and actual lifestyle stimulation influences holiday consumption preferences. The destination activity selected by the tourist is based on the perceived stimulation of the tourist's work, social life and leisure time activities.

Some activities in the destination are related to the tourist's motivation to travel. One typology for understanding tourist motivation by Crompton (1979, p. 416) defines 'seven push or socio-psychological motivations (escape, self-exploration, relaxation, prestige, regression, kinship-enhancement, and social interaction), and two pull or cultural motivations (novelty and education)'. Um and Crompton's (1990) model was more complete, as it was divided into three separate sets of variables:

(1) *external inputs*: significative (destination attributes), symbolic (promotional messages), and social stimuli; (2) *internal inputs*: tourist personal characteristics, motives, values, and attitudes; and (3) *cognitive constructs*: incorporation of the internal and external inputs into the awareness set of destinations, and the evoked set of destinations.

(p. 434)

Other studies have suggested that the choice of destination activities is associated with different personality types and sensation seeking. According to their different sensation seeking styles, tourists can be categorized into four different groups: (i) adventure preference; (ii) beach preference; (iii) cultural preference; and (iv) indulgent preference.

15.4.1 Case study: Slow Food members

A total of 40 semi-structured interviews were conducted with 42 International Slow Food members. Two of the interviews were conducted with married couples (one in Australia and one in Taiwan), with all four individuals being members of Slow Food. Although these interviews were conducted together, individual responses were identified in the transcripts and each member was treated as an independent party in the analysis of qualitative data. Data were analysed using a thematic approach and four major themes were found related to their Slow Food values, activity preferences and behaviour at home and in the destination: (i) Slow Food philosophy and values; (ii) Food as a medium of communication; (iii) The role of food in the holiday travel; and (iv) Food culture and local identity.

Slow Food philosophy and values

Interviewees mentioned many aspects of Slow Food that they had assimilated and valued, such as conviviality, the preservation of old traditions, the importance of family values and assisting small-scale producers. Many members perceived a strong sense of belonging when they became members of Slow Food. Some were already living and acting according to Slow Food fundamental values, so when they found out about the Slow Food movement, they joined immediately and participated actively to spread its core values:

I felt I found the reason to explain what I was doing [with Slow Food]. I found the root of my existence; I did not know where these people were.

(R2, Female, 63 years)

[Slow Food] fitted in with what I have done in the past.

(A2, Male, 82 years old)

It [Slow Food] fits right with my own life in the sense of what I believe, in the sense about food production and what I like to eat or produce for friends.

(A7, Female, 45 years old)

I got in touch with Slow Food in a gastronomic fair; I was surprised that there were people doing what I was feeling, around eight to 10 years ago. I was impressed that there were people in this world really doing very similar things that I would like to do.

(R5, Male, 36 years old)

I like the philosophy of Slow Food that values the usage of local ingredients, eco-friendly and family oriented.

(T6, Male, 55 years old)

Other members were not aware of the philosophy of Slow Food before joining the organization; however, thereafter they gradually changed their food consumption and shopping behaviour. A few members learned about Slow Food through their profession, either working for the Slow Food organization or by being professionally linked with the food and production sector. These members were mainly chefs, food critics, producers and restaurateurs.

I learned slowly about the philosophy; at the beginning I just saw it was against fast food, but when I started to learn about it, it's more than that . . . eating slower, having more relationships with people eating together, the importance of producers, the usage and respect of the ingredients.

(T4, Female, 42 years old)

Food as a medium of communication

Members appreciated that eating is one of the pleasures in life. Food was also considered to be a medium through which to transmit love from parents to children. One member mentioned that if children could get good quality food every day, then everything else should be alright. Many members believed that most people were disconnected from the food that they consumed every day. For members, food was an important medium of communication; it was something that could influence people in a positive or negative way depending on the kind of food one was getting. Further, they believed that food was a relevant channel to understand other people's culture and tradition:

We in Italy consider food one of the pleasures of life . . . the food is a vehicle usually for family or friends relationships, it is tradition in Italy that the family is reunited around the table, around the dishes, so food for Italians is always important to keep the family together, around the table around the good meals; today I cook and I invite my friends, tomorrow my friend invites me with his friends, so relationships are expressed around the table and around a glass of wine, obviously, because wine and good cooking goes together in Italy.

(I10, Male, 65 years old)

I believe that food can be a very positive means of communication, it is a positive way to communicate things, because most of the time the communication is toward the worst side of the things, so things are always presented in a bad light, or you always hear about catastrophes or problems. I think that food can somehow communicate and influence people in a positive way, because everyone enjoys being at a table and eating food together, this could be an informal way to pass messages and communicate.

(I4, Female, 25 years old)

Further, members felt that food was the adhesive that brought together friends and relations. Through a meal friendships were enhanced and family members were united. Most of the interviewees had dinner with family members every day and those with parents or grandparents gathered at their place to share food at weekends. Everything happened around the table as food was considered to be one of the pleasures of life:

We are what we eat. I try to practise this most of the time. Less in quantity and better in quality.

(I7, Male, 53 years old)

I cook my own meals, although I don't cook very often but my mum and my wife cook every day. We have four generations living together, I have my grandmother, my mum, and my daughter . . . my grandmother is very picky about the taste of each dish, so she takes care of getting the right ingredients . . . all the dishes are simply made . . . I can say we are eating in an old fashioned way, traditional way . . . this is the way I like it. I love going home and still have the chance to talk to my grandmother, my mum and eat their dishes.

(T8, Male, 52 years old)

The role of food in holiday travel

Members were asked about their reasons for travelling to a holiday destination. They said they travelled mainly for business reasons, visiting family or friends, or participating in international Slow Food events. Only one member travelled specifically for food in a destination during one of her recent trips.

The last trip was to Hokkaido, Japan with my family, three of us. We decided the trip two weeks before the departure and booked the airline and hotel online. The main reason we chose this destination was because my son wanted to eat Hokkaido seafood. He is 15 years old.

(T4, Female, 42 years old)

Although food was not their main purpose for travelling, when members arrived in a destination Slow Food values were manifested through the activities they did or did not do there. Members preferred activities such as visiting local food markets and savouring local food, and avoided eating at international chain restaurants that could be found in any metropolitan city. One member mentioned her trip to Italy with her husband:

We never go to McDonalds. Nothing that is too touristy, we would walk down . . . and if we see all the Italian women making handmade pasta we go there for dinner.

(A7, Female, 45 years old)

Another member, however, mentioned going to an international chain restaurant to find out if there was any local influence in the menu:

I don't eat fast food, but in Brussels I went to a McDonald's to see the difference with here [Argentina] and it was quite different. Local culinary tradition is so important that McDonald's cannot be the same in every city; it needs to find a way to get accepted by the locals. The bread was different, the meat was not that impressive, it was the last time I went to a fast food just to try the difference. I am not against anything, I just don't like

it and I don't participate. I don't mind going to fast food restaurants with friends, I might not eat but drink a coffee.

(R7, Male, 48 years old)

Food culture and local identity

For members, food was an expression of local culture and identity. As they considered it to be a medium for transmitting love, members cooked for their loved ones using fresh and nutritious ingredients. From preparing and eating food, one received knowledge about other cultures that could not be gained just through reading. The selection of food was linked to each person's value and it was a particular experience of life that food could differentiate us from each other. Members were quite knowledgeable about different food cultures and the history of food from different places. They cared about this, and read about and searched for new information relating to food and culture:

I think food is a vehicle to culture and pleasure; this is the key. The sharing of food is something enjoyable in life.

(R9, Male, 56 years old)

I try to eat every local food where I go, this is the experience of life that one try to find in a trip, the gastronomy is also one experience of life. We are living in this globalised world, gastronomy is one of the few things that we have differences. Everything is too homogeneous in this world, you just find diversity in these small things.

(R9, Male, 56 years old)

I think food culture is very important because I think food is important to culture, and I think culture is important to food, the circular thing.

(A10, Male, 62 years old)

For me food is a common language where the culture identity is expressed.

(T3, Female, 48 years old)

15.5 Discussion and Conclusion

Slow Food members demonstrated strong Slow Food values and practised these values daily. These values are based on acquiring 'good, clean and fair' food (Petrini, 2007). Members considered their food suppliers as co-producers that formed part of the food production cycle, and were interested in practising eco-gastronomy. Some members acquired these values after joining Slow Food while some already had a similar philosophy towards food; when they encountered the Slow Food movement, these members were excited to find people with similar values. Most members participated actively in convivium activities and joined Slow Food international events. They formed a group of people with similar interests and values and worked on the expansion of these values to the general public, including the younger generations, through projects sponsored by each local convivium or by Slow Food headquarters.

Interviewees' family members usually shared and practised these values. They developed friendships with other Slow Food members in their own country and around the world. Although the professional lives of many members were linked directly to the food sector, some had not worked closely with the food sector; rather,

they had learned Slow Food values directly from Slow Food or from their parents, spouses and friends.

The emphasis on getting the 'right' ingredients for their daily meals was similar across all interviewees. They spent time and effort on finding the best and freshest ingredients, they built up a network of suppliers that they could trust, and shopped mainly at these places. Members read extensively about the production of each different ingredient and avoided any chemicals or unhealthy food that was store-bought. This attention also extended to considerations of the land and the environment, with most of the members having pro-environmentalist opinions on topics related to the production of food. They were very well informed about different additives that might be included during the production of a specific food, such as meat, chicken, eggs, milk, and different kinds of vegetables and fruits. Members advocated the use of local ingredients and bought only from local and small-scale producers. Although members were very local in the selection of food, they were open-minded in tasting different kinds of dishes.

Members considered cooking as one of the most enjoyable activities and practiced it on a daily basis. Many of them had specific preferences in the style of dishes and cuisines. Family members joined in and shared this cooking passion which they practiced regularly at home. Few of them liked to join cooking classes in their travel destinations. Most members had fully furnished kitchens and even grew fruit gardens and orchards in their respective homes.

For the intrinsic aspect of eating, many members advocated that eating was one of the pleasures of life, with food as a medium through which to understand other cultures. The action of eating not only fulfils the physiological aspect of an individual but also the psychological or intrinsic part of a human being. Slow Food members perceived that each person has the right to choose what to eat every day, which is a political action that it is linked directly to each person's basic values. They had extensive knowledge about food and food cultures around the world; when they travelled they liked eating local food, with some reading up on local recipes.

There were two different stages in the holiday decision making of Slow Food members. Considering decision making as a process and naturalistic approach, Slow Food members made a clear distinction between the decision to travel to a destination and the decision to undertake destination activities. In terms of their holiday decisions, members pointed out that they were not travelling mainly for food but for various other reasons such as business trips, visiting family or friends, learning languages, or participating in Slow Food events. Although members were not travelling specifically for food-related reasons, when they arrived in a destination, they carried out activities related to food and travelled in a way that validated the core values of Slow Food. Hall (2006) has suggested Slow Food members had a preference to be in a natural environment in their holiday destinations. They liked to stay in one place long enough to interact with local people, hence practising slow tourism. Members considered the concept of 'slow' as going beyond food, with this belief manifested in the activities they undertook in the destination.

It is argued that recent tourists' decision studies are dominated by variance studies that do not consider decision making as a process (Smallman and Moore, 2010). Past studies have suggested that food tourists travel to a destination because of the food. However, these studies on food tourism that suggest that food is an important

travel-motivating factor for tourists were based on a causal analysis of independent variables that provides the possibility of generating effect-effect relationships instead of cause-effect relationships. In many cases, a tourist's motivation to travel to a particular destination has no relationship with the activities the tourist undertakes in that destination.

Decision making is a process with different stages, and each decision is related to an individual's past experience or habitus. Although Slow Food members were not motivated to travel for food, when members arrived in a destination, they remained faithful to the Slow Food values of 'good, clean and fair' food, eco-gastronomy and slow tourism. These values are linked with their hedonic experience of food and were manifested through their choices of destination activities (Allen, 2002).

The results from face-to-face interviews provided information about holiday decision making that clearly showed the separation of two different stages: decision making of the destination, and of the activities undertaken in the destination. This study showed that while Slow Food members did not travel because of food, their choices of activities after arrival in the destination were strongly related to food activities and slow tourism, which manifest their hedonic experiences in food consumption at home.

Endnote

- ¹ 'The complete natural environment in which a particular wine is produced, including factors such as the soil, topography and climate' (The Oxford English Dictionary, 2007).

References

- Allen, D.E. (2002) Toward a theory of consumer choice as sociohistorically shaped practical experience: the Fits-Like-a-Glove (FLAG) framework. *Journal of Consumer Research* 28(4), 515–532.
- Andreasen, A.R. (1965) Attitudes and customer behavior: a decision model. In: Preston, L.E. (ed.) *New Research in Marketing*. University of California, Institute of Business and Economic Research, Berkeley, California, pp. 1–16.
- Bauer, R.A. (1960) Consumer behavior as risk taking. In: Hancock, R.S. (ed.) *Dynamic Marketing for a Changing World*. Proceedings of the 43rd Conference of the American Marketing Association, Chicago, Illinois, 389–400.
- Bettman, J.R. (1979) *An Information Processing Theory of Consumer Choice*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts.
- Bettman, J.R., Johnson, E.J. and Payne, J.W. (1991) Consumer decision making. In: Robertson, T.S. and Kassirjian, H.H. (eds) *Handbook of Consumer Behavior*. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, pp. 50–84.
- Crompton, J.L. (1979) Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(4), 408–424.
- Decrop, A. (2006) *Vacation Decision-making*. CAB International, Wallingford, UK.
- Fishbein, M. and Ajzen, I. (1975) *Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts.
- Hall, C.M. (2006) Introduction: culinary tourism and regional development: from Slow Food to slow tourism? *Tourism Review International* 9(4), 303–305.

- Hirschman, E.C. and Holbrook, M.B. (1982) Hedonic consumption: emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing* 46, 92–101.
- Holbrook, M.B. (1984) Emotion in the consumption experience: toward a new model of the human consumer. In: Peterson, R.A., Hoyer, W.D. and Wilson, W.R. (eds) *The Role of Affect in Consumer Behavior: Emerging Theories and Applications*. Lexington Books, Lexington, Kentucky, pp. 17–52.
- Howard, J.A. and Sheth, J.N. (1969) *The Theory of Buyer Behavior*. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- Engel, J.F., Kollat, D.T. and Blackwell, R.D. (1973) *Consumer Behavior*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
- Kirchler, E. (1993) Spouses' joint purchase decisions: determinants of influence tactics for muddling through the process. *Journal of Economic Psychology* 14, 405–438.
- Kivela, J. and Crofts, J.C. (2006) Tourism and gastronomy: gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 30(3), 354–377.
- Kozak, M. (2001) Repeaters' behavior at two distinct destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research* 28(3), 784–807.
- McKercher, B. and Chan, A. (2005) How special is special interest tourism? *Journal of Travel Research* 44(1), 21–31.
- Moore, K. (2012) On the periphery of pleasure: hedonics, eudaimonics and slow travel. In: Fullagar, S., Markwell, K. and Wilson, E. (eds) *Slow Tourism: Experiences and Mobilities*. Channel View Publications, Bristol, UK, pp. 25–35.
- Nicosia, F.M. (1966) *Consumer Decision Processes: Marketing and Advertising Implications*. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- Payne, J.W., Bettman, J.R. and Johnson, E.J. (1993) *The Adaptive Decision Maker*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Petrini, C. (2007) *Slow Food Nation: Why Our Food Should Be Good, Clean and Fair*. Rizzoli Ex Libris, New York.
- Schneider, S. (2008) Good, clean, fair: the rhetoric of the Slow Food movement. *College English* 70(4), 384–402.
- Smallman, C. and Moore, K. (2010) Process studies of tourists' decision-making. *Annals of Tourism Research* 37(2), 397–422.
- Smith, W.W., Pitts, R.E. and Litvin, S.W. (2012) Travel and leisure activity participation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 39(4), 2207–2210.
- Sugiyama, M. and Nobuoka, S. (2007) Slow food kara slow tourism he (From slow food to slow tourism). *Tokai Women's Junior College Kiyou* 33, 1–8.
- Taylor, J.W. (1974) The role of risk in consumer behavior. *Journal of Marketing* 38 (April), 54–60.
- Um, S. and Crompton, J. (1990) Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research* 17(3), 432–417.
- Wilson, E.J. and Wilson, D.T. (1988) 'Degrees of freedom' in case research of behavioral theories of group buying. *Advances in Consumer Research* 15, 587–594.

16 Perceptions of the Trinidad Carnival Experience from International Travel Bloggers

AFIYA HOLDER^{1*} AND NOEL SCOTT²

¹*The University of Queensland, St Lucia, Australia;* ²*Griffith University, Southport, Australia*

16.1 Introduction

'A multicultural melting pot', 'the cultural capital of the Caribbean' and 'the land of Soca, Steelpan, Limbo' are among the extensive list of cultural tags applied to the twin islands of Trinidad and Tobago. The cliché of the significant cultural asset of Trinidad and Tobago, the world-renowned carnival, carries a strong international presence both generally and online. It has been a major economic contributor and tourism pull factor for decades. Visitor arrivals spike dramatically during the carnival season and revenue exceeds \$100 million in 3 weeks (Francis, 2015). The Chair of the National Carnival Commission expressed how pertinent the carnival experience is to the nation during a media interview, going so far as to label the economics behind this creative industry as 'Carnivalnomics' and expressing the need to develop a Carnival Ministry (Green, 2002).

Carnival incorporates many components, stakeholders and added value elements that fuel the carnival tourist experience and boost the economy. Thus, the planning and designing of these elements of the Trinidad carnival experience commences as soon as the current celebrations end; that is, a year in advance (Copeland, 2010). On a global scale, exported versions of this local cultural product/experience have also been successfully staged throughout the calendar year as far afield as Berlin, London, Boston and New York, and to Trinidad and Tobago's neighbouring Caribbean countries: Barbados, Bahamas and Grenada, to name a few (Burke, 2014). Nurse (2003) posits that exports of music, mas and manpower to carnivals in diaspora markets have created an international economic exchange that has further contributed to the development of Trinidad's domestic carnival product. This translates into benefits to numerous stakeholders such as the masquerade costume designers, event promoters, steel bands, musicians and dancers (Tull, 2005). Beyond diaspora carnivals, masquerade costume designers – such as Emmy award-winning icon Peter Minshall – are

*Corresponding author e-mail: afiya.holder@gmail.com

often called upon by the international community to offer their unique skill set to major events. Minshall was a major lead for the design and artistic direction of the opening ceremonies of the Summer Olympics in 1992 and 1996, and the 2002 Winter Olympics, among other major spectacle events (NIHEREST, n.d.).

According to the Tourism Development Company (TDC) (n.d.) the average number of tourists per month to Trinidad and Tobago in 2015 was 36,600, with February 2015 experiencing the greatest number of visitors (48,000). Economically, government reports indicate that revenue from Trinidad and Tobago Carnival exceeds an average of \$100 million (CSO, n.d.; ACS, 2014). It is not surprising that Trinidad and Tobago Carnival is often referred to as the jewel in the country's tourism crown. Overall, however, and contrary to popular belief, this pre-Lent festival, starting around early January and ending on Carnival Tuesday, has demonstrated a pattern of diminishing returns since 2006, according to Trinidad and Tobago's Central Statistical Office (CSO) (NCC, 2014). Although the CSO has reported slight increases during the period 2007–2012, Trinidad and Tobago's carnival season has still not been able to sustain successive growth, so the government's national plans for a diversified economy with contributions from the tourism sector have not been met.

Against this backdrop, strategic product development, tourist experience design and marketing efforts to boost this sector must be identified. With the instability of oil and gas (Trinidad and Tobago's main economic providers), diversifying the economy through tourism products and experiences is even more pertinent. For carnival as a tourism product to be sustainable, the culture, creative and tourism authorities should have a shared goal for carnival. This can only be accomplished if stakeholders ensure both repeat and prospective visitors have sufficient, relevant and appealing information beforehand; and an engaging, entertaining experience during their visit. Gaining an understanding of how international visitors perceive their experience during their visit, and seeking out the areas of the experience necessary for improvement, is a good starting point. The former CEO of TDC, Sandra Perkins, summed this up:

As the face of travel continues to change, it is important for the TDC to be innovative and forward-thinking when it comes to promoting the destination. Travellers are using online platforms as a 'go-to' source when planning vacations and it is important that we put Trinidad and Tobago in front of such a vast and diverse audience.

(*Trinidad and Tobago Guardian*, 2012)

This chapter seeks: (i) to explore the perceptions of international travel bloggers regarding the Trinidad and Tobago Carnival experience; and (ii) using an *a priori* coding scheme, to deduct themes of online influencers using the Strategic Experiential Models (SEMs) (Schmitt, 1999). The model uses five elements, but for the purpose of this chapter only two were used: sensory experiences (sense) and affective experiences (feel). These findings can contribute to the literature and purposefully be used for experience-based destination marketing such as television, online marketing via social media, websites and other online channels. There are many features to Trinidad's carnival experience. Both the private and public sectors concerned with culture and tourism have partnered to continuously develop and promote this tourist attraction and its many features internationally over the years. Therefore, whether the perceptions of international travel bloggers can be used as a platform to further

develop the design of the carnival experience and inform experiential marketing is worth further exploration.

16.2 Literature Review

Perception is one of the oldest concepts in the study of psychology and is often used in identifying and understanding the phenomenon of tourism. According to the American Psychological Association (2016), perception is considered as the process that organizes information in the sensory image and interprets it as having been produced by properties of objects or events in the external, three-dimensional world. A simpler explanation can be seen in almost every aspect of our lives when we engage in the act of perception: while tasting the food we eat, watching a film or even making a destination choice for our next holiday, retreat or conference. Perception is a very powerful and important part of our experiences and worth assessing if we aim to understand the world around us. Of even greater importance is the need for tourism stakeholders responsible for experience design to understand how tourists interpret experiences on offer in their destinations. Hoteliers, destination marketing organizations (DMOs), airlines, attraction and activity providers who are aware of this have already been successfully applying marketing strategies to tap into or nurture these perceptions (Woodside and Kozak, 2014).

One essential aspect of tourists' perception is their external orientation of their experience. As psychology researchers Ittelson and Cantril (1954) eloquently put it:

When we perceive, we externalize certain aspects of our experience and thereby create for ourselves our own world of things and people, of sights and sounds, of tastes and touches. Without taking any metaphysical position regarding the existence of a real world, independent of experience, we can nevertheless assert that the world-as-experienced has no meaning and cannot be defined independent of the experience. The world as we experience it is the product of perception, not the cause of it.

(p. 5)

Building on this, appealing to tourists' senses and emotions can help strike a competitive advantage for destinations and tourism business marketers. Gobé (2001) and Larsen (2007) further emphasize that it is the high quality sensory experiences that entertain and excite which differentiates one brand experience from another.

Experience studies within the context of understanding the consumer have been researched for decades. We have seen it associated heavily with retail and lifestyle as evidenced by the research papers, many articles and chapters written in books (MacCannell, 1973; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; O'Sullivan and Spangler, 1998; Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Schmitt, 1999; Lewis and Chambers, 2000; Gentile *et al.*, 2007; Oh *et al.*, 2007). In relation to tourism, 'experience' has been a buzzword and continues to be in the forefront of both academic and industry research but we still see the transferrable applications from psychology and social sciences such as sociology and business studies. This phenomenon is evidenced not only by the numerous applications of the aforementioned theorists within tourism, but also by the countless calls for papers, academic seminars and symposiums targeting this area to gain insights for the public and private sector, and for academic journals and bodies.

Some of the avenues experience literature covers range from its effect on tourists' memory, feelings and emotions to their overall behaviour. The eminent humanistic psychologist Abraham Maslow was well ahead of the field as early as the 1960s. Maslow (1962) embarked on an exploration of the psychology of health, which was based on a sample frame of what he considered the healthiest people. This study was the birth of what is known today as the concept of 'peak experiences'. It is interesting to note that some of the illustrations about this concept given in his literature reveal peak experiences within the framework of tourism and hospitality. For instance, he notes that peak experiences can be inspired 'from moments of fusion with nature (in a forest, on a seashore, mountains, etc.)' or 'from certain athletic experiences (e.g. skindiving or dancing)' (Maslow, 1962, p. 10).

Similar to 'peak experience' is Csikszentmihalyi's 'flow experience' developed several years later (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). This theory combined the intrinsic values of emotional, mental or physical states with acts of total involvement, an unconscious flow of actions or moments in conjunction with the environment. Therefore, these elements form part of the experience interdependently as opposed to being a dependant variable. Carlson (1997) took the alternative route, stating that experiences are a constant flow of conscious-minded thoughts and feelings. O'Sullivan and Spangler (1998), however, added the element of spiritual and social states of being to the physical, mental and emotional states proposed by Csikszentmihalyi (1975). They posited that in being consumed in participation and engagement of these five states, one will find that 'experience'. The study of experiences expanded, as did the theory that included extraordinary activities or what some may consider extreme activities such as mountain-climbing, hiking and other outdoor adventure tourism activities. Loeffler (2004), in his exploratory study using photo elicitation, drew similar conclusions to those in some of the previous studies (such as Maslow, 1962; Csikszentmihalyi, 1975) citing one's connections to self, others and the environment as the foundation of their outdoor experience. Li (2001) highlighted that other environmental factors such as colour, brightness and the volume of music can affect customer satisfaction.

Another early researcher, MacCannell (1973) took note of the concept of experience in his quest for authenticity or inauthenticity of the tourism experience. However, it was Holbrook and Hirshman (1982) in their paper 'The Experiential Aspects of Consumption: Consumer Fantasies, Feelings and Fun' (Schmitt and Zarantonello, 2013) which debatably whetted the academic appetite for experience. The paper highlighted the significance of experiential components of consumption, which they stressed should not be neglected when trying to understand consumer behaviour (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1986). Schouten *et al.* (2007) recommends peak and flow consumption experiences. Similar to the earlier researchers, he labels these experiences as 'transcendent customer experiences' (TCE) evidenced by a variety of feelings such as emotional intensity, epiphany, novelty of experience, extreme enjoyment, oneness, extreme focus of attention and the testing of personal limits. These TCEs, he claimed, were somewhat like 'a halo effect' but also had a potential dark side if one became addicted: 'there may be a fine line between the well-being of transcendence and the dangers of addictive escapism' (Schouten *et al.*, 2007, p. 366).

Literature about experience cannot be void of the experiential dimensions and the considerations of the researchers in this area. This leads us to Pine and Gilmore

(1999) and Schmitt (1999); both publications have been widely cited, used within research frameworks and developed models widely used throughout both business and tourism studies. Pine and Gilmore (1999) is known for the four types of pleasurable experiences – escapist, educational, entertainment and aesthetic – in relation to the customers’ connection to and level of participation in experiences. They described the optimal experience as the ‘sweet spot’, occurring with the combination of all four experiences (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). Alternatively, Schmitt (1999) provided five SEMs, namely: sense, feel, think, relate and act. Schmitt (1999) particularly theorizes experience as the individual’s reaction to stimuli induced by an event or number of events. He explains each module captured in numerous publications as follows (Schmitt, 1999; Schmitt and Rogers, 2008; Law *et al.*, 2010; Schmitt and Zarantonello, 2013):

- ‘sense’, appeals to consumers’ senses (sight, sound, touch, taste and smell) and generally provides joy, excitement and a satisfied mood;
- ‘feel’ appeals to customers’ emotions and feelings about company and/or brand and can range from low to high feelings;
- ‘think’ appeals to the consumers’ intellectual capacity to help evaluate or re-evaluate their experiences through creative thinking;
- ‘act’ relates to the customers’ physical body, behaviour, interactions and lifestyles;
- ‘relate’ goes beyond the consumer or individual, involving experiences with others.

Other writers in this realm include Dubé and LeBel (2003), who aligned their four pleasure dimensions of emotional, intellectual, physical and social, closely to Schmitt’s SEMs (Schmitt and Zarantonello, 2013; Scott *et al.*, 2013). Gentile *et al.* (2007) similarly followed with six experiential components, incorporating many of Schmitt’s SEMs adding a pragmatic component of user experience and human–object interactions (Schmitt and Zarantonello, 2013). One key revelation by Gentile *et al.* (2007) to note, however, is his view that the sensorial component was the most important one across several experiential brands. Zarantonello and Schmitt (2013) also revealed some useful insights that conceptualized the experiences together across multiple dimensions and combinations such as sensory with affective, cognitive with intellectual, and behaviour with action-oriented components. This chapter uses the combination of Schmitt’s SEMs, namely the sensory and affective experiences (Schmitt and Zarantonello, 2013), to analyse the perceptions of international travel bloggers regarding the Trinidad carnival experience and how these elements can potentially influence improved design of the carnival experience and inform the experiential marketing efforts of tourism stakeholders.

16.3 Methodology

This study uses a qualitative methodology to determine the frequency of reported expressions used to identify and classify the Trinidad carnival experience of

international travel bloggers. Content was analysed using an *a priori* coding scheme to deduct themes generated from two of the five SEMs (Schmitt, 1999; Gentile *et al.*, 2007): sensory experiences (sense) and affective experiences (feel). The sampling frame covers both sponsored professional and personal interest bloggers from the main source markets of Trinidad and Tobago consisting of bloggers from the USA, UK, Australia, Canada and one regional blogger from Jamaica. Besides the geographic criterion, the blogs were analysed to determine relevance to the research aim of determining if international travel bloggers' perceptions of the Trinidad carnival experience (using deductive sensory and affective themes) can be used to offer insight for the development and design of this tourism experience. These findings can also inform experience-based marketing strategies for the Trinidad and Tobago DMO and other stakeholders involved. The sampling period was within the months during and after the Trinidad Carnival festivities: February and March. The data extraction focused on sensory experiences of the senses and affective experiences of feelings and emotions.

The study also uses a netnographic research method. This offered value to the researcher in obtaining a plethora of rich online content, and an understanding of the social phenomenon surrounding the tourism experience from international travel bloggers' perspectives (Kozinets, 2015). The method does have some grey areas when it comes to ethical considerations: seeking permission is sometimes advised (Kozinets, 2015). However, the authors agree with some other researchers who are adamant that people who post publicly on the internet should understand that the information is public, not private or confidential (Walther, 2002; McQuarrie *et al.*, 2013). The study therefore only extracted relevant and significant content for use as illustrations within the themes developed using the sensory and affective categories of Schmitt's (1999) five SEMs.

There are eight steps as listed in the text as follows:

1. Analysis of relevant blogs posted by the selected sample to find sensory and affective descriptors.
2. Coding these descriptors.
3. Sorting these descriptions into themes and categories.
4. Second coder performs cross-check of code book (list of codes with associated descriptions, themes and categories) to ensure consistency and clarity of the coding process.
5. An interpretive round of coding to help understand and explain the relations and themes found while checking for more relevant data and irrelevance of data already captured and coded.
6. Additional sorting and grouping of themes.
7. Analysing the findings.
8. Reporting the findings with the aid of exceptional extracts from the blog posts to illustrate the sensory and affective categories.

This process resulted in the analysis of 24 relevant blogs to form the findings. The blogs were quoted verbatim without any editing of syntax or vernaculars so as not to skew the results. Two olfactory, 23 tactile, 42 auditory, 31 gustatory, 82 visual and 84 affective/emotional descriptors were identified.

16.4 Findings and Discussion

This study of the Trinidad carnival experience truly epitomizes a wide array of sensory and affective dimensions. Of greater significance, the analysis of blogs and their authors' personal accounts revealed that this platform serves as a useful tool to appeal to one's senses and inner feelings, a characteristic that marketers may find valuable, especially for product/experience developers and marketers who seek differentiation and competitive advantage among the many destinations. Throughout the blog analysis there was no shortage of expressive prose drawing the reader into a matrix of 'Carnivalism': message cues sending stimuli to the sensory and affective receptors of the reader's psyche. This blog analysis provides a sample source richer than any open-ended questionnaire, and an informative source richer than any magazine advertisement with pretentious copy.

The research, however, had limitations with its sampling and scale. The blogs were manually selected based on relevance, and the scale was not representative of the potentially greater numbers of bloggers from a wider sample frame and geography. Because of this limitation, which questions the rigorous validation of the study, the findings do not contribute to any generalizations, and so random sampling of a greater sample frame is recommended for future research. Nonetheless, the research still reveals some interesting findings and discusses some implications and recommendations for destinations, which can aid in devising product development and marketing strategies driven by sensory and emotional experiential features. These components can potentially lead to an even greater visitor response in the competitive tourism landscape.

16.4.1 Bloggers' sensory and affective perceptions

The international travel bloggers under consideration all had the goal of making the most of their Trinidad carnival experience as they captured moments throughout the stages from pre-festival activities to their departure. In their blogs they captured their interactions within the carnival atmosphere, vividly painting their experiences through their perceptual lens of visual (sight), auditory (hearing), olfactory (smell), gustatory (taste), tactile (touch) and emotive elements using text and images. The analysis revealed that some bloggers described single experiential components, often mixing sensory and affects elements.

Sensory dimension

The sensory dimension was prevalent in the findings, with the visual sense dominating all other senses. In fact, Urry's Tourist Gaze has long been deemed the most perceptive sensory element between humans and their environment, suggesting tourism can be approached with an emphasis on vision (Urry, 1992; Crouch and Desforges, 2003). The descriptions capture sightings of the people and the scenery throughout the experience. As Colin Williams (2015) puts it: 'I don't see Trinidad Carnival as that one-dimensional event'.

In relation to the scenery, the blogs labelled elements of the costumes and pageantry as ‘rich and colorful’, ‘bright and elaborate’, ‘colors of celebrating’, ‘works of art’, ‘historical symbolism’, ‘a spectacle of pageantry and culture’, ‘elaborate costumes and cloth that tell a story’, ‘colors of beads and feathers’, ‘scantly clad clothing’, ‘bold and colorful’, ‘incredible outfits smothered in diamonds, beads and glitter’, and ‘amazing crowns and headpieces detailed with feathers’. Other visual cues from the people were expressed in many blogs. One blogger, Maria Sofferin, expressing her amazement in seeing: ‘a blend of East Indians, African, Asians and Arabs, who not only coexist, but have completely intermixed to create a sexy accent and an incredibly inclusive culture’ (Noisey, 2015).

There were also descriptive accounts of the features of these characters. Another blogger, Harlequin Hearts, expressed her amazement and described what she saw as ‘being like a parade of Victoria Secret models in these massive head pieces and angel wings gracefully showstopping ... These ladies left me speechless at the effort and extravagance in their costumes. Not to mention the trinni men who were not too shabby themselves’ (Harlequin Hearts, 2014). The contributions from Shivi Ramoutar expressed some similar observations, noting that Trinidad Carnival was ‘a perfect celebration of the body, in all its form ... Athletic, muscular and toned’ (Ramoutar, 2015).

The sightings were not confined to sightings of commercialized costumes, as one blogger from *Smithsonian* mentioned. There were sightings of the *Jouvert* celebrations, pre-events starting at 3 am and eloquently described by the same blogger as ‘the true and ancient spirit of carnival’ (Ehrenreich, 2009). Colin Williams also expressed his fascination with ‘The Old Mas. The Midnight Mas. The Original Mas. The Dirty Mas. The Oil. The Mud. The Pan. The Jab. The Kids. The Onlookers ... the whole story’ (Williams, 2015). Bloggers had sightings of ‘paint-splattered faces’, ‘blue devils, muddy people, painted head to toe’, ‘cocoa, clay and paint (representing the disintegration of race and class)’, ‘unrecognizable faces painted in mud, oil, cocoa, paint, powder, or whatever else can make a mess’ and ‘fire spitters who hurled large orange clouds of fire from their mouths’. Mara Sofferin noted that the visual attribute of *Jouvert* is ‘to visualize India’s Holi festival doing P90X on steroids’ (Noisey, 2015).

Although the visual component seems highly prevalent Urry (1992) agreed with MacCannell (1973) to an extent, and further developed his idea of a second gaze by stating ‘there is a multiplicity, and the way to approach the analysis of these multiplicities of tourist gazes is, among other things, to think about the taste-scapes, smell-scapes, sound-scapes, touch-scapes’ (Franklin, 2001, p. 123). Crouch and Desforges (2003) also noted that there is a limited appearance of the sensuous engagement between the body and the world in what is encapsulated by ‘sightseeing’, the visual aspect of the tourist gaze. The bloggers also revealed interesting accounts debunking a visual centred experience. These accounts come under the umbrella of other senses and the elements within the affective dimension of the SEMs.

There were numerous accounts of ‘tasty home-made and street food with condiments of tangy chadon beni (cilantro), sweet-mango-based chutney and fiery pepper sauce’, ‘cuisines blending West African, East Indian, Chinese, French Creole, Spanish, English and Middle Eastern flavours into one spicy mix’, ‘extremely flavoursome Bake and Shark’ and ‘bottomless cold beers and strong liquor’. These indicative quotes

show gustatory sense of taste as forming part of their experience; expressing intoxicating feelings of comfort and satisfaction. Based on the accounts from the majority of bloggers, it was also revealed that this element in their carnival experience was mostly included in an all-inclusive arrangement of the carnival bands and parties they attended. Generally, the caterers and food vendors set up stalls to prepare and cook the cuisine on the spot, where the aromas of the dishes will fill the vicinity of the event. This is the only element of scent, which was accounted for by only one blogger, a significantly small percentage.

'Sound-systems blaring loud soca music', 'a waterfall of sound, that warming and vibrant "gong" of the steelpan is the quintessential tropical orchestra' (Ramoutar, 2015), 'fiery soca anthems . . . blasted out of speakers with subwoofers the size of my living room, causing a cataclysmic shockwave' (Noisey, 2015). These are all accounts by other bloggers, revealing their perceptions of what constituted the auditory attribute of their Trinidad carnival experience. These elements were seen as a soulful part of their experience, but compared with the visual it was not as dominant.

The tactile element in the sensory dimension was similar to the olfactory, and not widely expressed in the sample blogs. Only a few bloggers recorded strangers touching, and dancing with, them, the feel of when the mud, oil, cocoa, powder or paint was 'drenched', 'dabbed', 'splashed' or 'slimed' on to their bodies. There was a synonymous account of bloggers enjoying the experience surrounding this element (which occurred for the J'ouvert celebrations) but some expressed slight discomfort, stickiness and an unclean feeling of having these substances on their bodies.

16.4.2 Affective dimension

Barbara Ehrenreich quoted Goethe when she stated that Carnival was 'a festival that is not actually given to the people, but which the people give to themselves' (Ehrenreich, 2009). This quotation highlights the affective dimension of feelings and emotions represented in the bloggers' experiences. Most bloggers expressed deep feelings of embodiment where they saw the expressive platform given by this tourism experience as one which can only be fully enjoyed when the individual immerses fully into it. Lisa Armstrong, an *Ebony* blogger, noted that the carnival experience 'offers a natural high . . . I feel vibrant and alive . . . I power up and get energy from the music, the people, everything' (Armstrong, 2012). Other blogs expressed similar feelings of intense embodiment, especially for the heightened, most-sought after experience of 'crossing the stage', where bands cross between grandstands resembling the seating of a stadium in front of several thousand spectators (Scher, 2002, p. 474). Huffpost travel blogger Tara Donaldson noted that this is an event where 'showcasing your worst behaviour is celebrated . . . enjoying those otherwise rare episodes of unadulterated ecstasy' (Donaldson, 2015). This act is a ritual every 'masquerader' or participant desires. Bloggers note this emotive experience as 'euphoric', 'perfection . . . utter perfection', 'an out of body experience', 'just the right amount of happy', 'unabated fun', 'a feeling of the unknown', 'on the largest of scales incredibly overwhelming', 'super-exhilarating by tenfolds', 'the adrenaline thrilling', 'a feeling of being united in Carnival fanaticism' and 'a feeling that cannot be described by words or photos'.

One significant revelation from this dimension was its strong influence on bloggers' satisfaction, memory and behavioural intentions to return another year to relive the carnival experience. One blogger labelled this 'post-carnival depression' or 'carnival tabanca', stating it was most prevalent among residents of North America and Europe who returned to their countries after the Trinidad carnival experience. She noted that the onset of this side effect occurred when one returned home and 'was faced with the harsh reality that centuries of puritanical bylaws have crippled your culture's lifeblood like lead poisoning' (Noisey, 2015). Examining this side effect was not the prime objective of this study but it is a rich finding which could be considered for future research and could inform tourism practitioners who specialize in experience design and marketing. *Ebony* blogger, Armstrong (2012), shares this fact, describing 'when I look back, the memories of melodies are what remain so striking'. Harlequin Hearts attests to this as well, stating that 'Trinidad Carnival was like no other and it's something that I will keep for the rest of my life . . . an experience you should put on your bucket list, an experience that will last forever' (Harlequin Hearts, 2014).

16.5 Conclusion

Overall, the results showed that each blogger reported single experiential dimensions but there were also many occurrences of mixed dimensions of both the sensory and affective. One account from Ramoutar impeccably showcases the combination of sight and feeling. She notes that the experience will 'stay in the heart's and head's of us all . . . this incredible, colourful and once-in-a-lifetime experience (I say this but we all know I am going back next year)' (Ramoutar, 2015). This disclosure is key for tourism stakeholders to note when seeking to entice visitors. Sensory cues may not be sufficient but, when connected to the affective dimension, the destination experience is heightened. Lindström (2005) acknowledges the significance of this in his book, calling on marketers to use the emotional dimension which claims concomitantly stimulates the five senses. Therefore, both destination experience design experts and marketers stand to benefit from offering sensory- and emotive-rich experiences and marketing stimuli. As Schmitt (1999) posits, it is essential for marketers to provide the right environment and setting for desired customer experiences to emerge. In particular, sensory marketing strategies applied to online platforms such as websites can better convey tourism experiences and inform consumer expectations (Gretzel and Fesenmaier, 2003; Lee *et al.*, 2010).

Investigating experiential marketing and product development strategies using sensory and emotive cues is worth further investigation from a theoretical and a managerial perspective. Theoretically, it confirms some of the findings alluded to in the review of literature focused on experiences (MacCannell, 1973; Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; O'Sullivan and Spangler, 1998; Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Schmitt, 1999; Lewis and Chambers, 2000; Gentile *et al.*, 2007; Oh *et al.*, 2007). It also provided practical insights into the usefulness of travel blogs as a natural, unpretentious marketing tool (Kozinets, 2015). From a managerial point of view the data retrieved from the content analysis reveals the desire to relive the experience, regardless of geographical segmentation, of the bloggers' motives (whether sponsored or a personal

hobby) or of personal inhibitions. Most importantly, the international bloggers' desire to relive the carnival experience through sensory- and emotive-rich expressions can create a channel for enhancing the destination's brand and potentially create an emotional tie and loyalty.

However, this does not neglect the importance of monitoring blogs that sometimes possess vulgar content, an association that a destination marketer will shun. This poses some caveats for destination marketers, specifically when considering how and what specific features of the experience should be highlighted, designed or framed to encapsulate sensorial and emotional components for all target markets. To belabour this point, there were also some clear patterns of differences in the demographics where, as mentioned earlier, some favoured 'The Old Mas. The Midnight Mas. The Original Mas. The Dirty Mas. The Oil. The Mud. The Pan. The Jab. The Kids. The Onlookers . . . the whole story' (Williams, 2015) while most treasured 'the incredible outfits smothered in diamonds, beads and glitter' (Harlequin Hearts, 2014) and 'fiery soca anthems . . . blasted out of speakers with subwoofers the size of my living room, causing a cataclysmic shockwave' (Noisey, 2015). This may be due to differences in age, taste, cultural background or mere perceptions of expected experiences, but this observation reveals to destination marketers that messages should be aimed at both demographics. Product development and destination experience designers can also be made aware that over-commercialization of experiences can deter tourists wanting more 'authentic', original versions of the carnival experience. In light of this, a more in-depth examination to ascertain the actual values tourists place on sensory and affective experience elements is needed. This will provide a clearer picture for the design of an improved Trinidad carnival experience with the potential of even adding fringe experiences beyond carnival. This in-depth approach can also afford marketers the means of understanding what experiential cues are needed to design pulsing marketing strategies.

References

- ACS (Association of Caribbean States) (2014) Carnival: when culture attracts tourism. Available at: <http://www.acs-aec.org/index.php?q=press-center/releases/2014/carnival-when-culture-attracts-tourism> (accessed 20 April 2014).
- APA (American Psychological Association) (2016) Glossary of Psychological Terms. Available at: <http://www.apa.org/research/action/glossary.aspx?tab=16> (accessed 20 April 2014).
- Armstrong, L. (2012) Wave yuh flag! The unforgettable Trinidad Carnival experience. <http://www.ebony.com/ife/photos-wave-yuh-flag-the-unforgettable-trinidad-carnival-experience#ax224bNZ3bBLK> (accessed 8 April 2016).
- Burke, S. (2014) Creative clustering in small island states: the case of Trinidad and Tobago's carnival industry. *Caribbean Quarterly* 60(1), 74–96.
- Carlson, R.A. (1997) *Experienced Cognition*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Copeland, R.P. (2010) 'Bikini, Beads, and Feathers' at Trinidad Carnival: The Voice of the Younger Generation. Ph.D. thesis, University of North Carolina, Greensboro.
- Crouch, D. and Desforges, L. (2003) The sensuous in the tourist encounter: introduction: the power of the body in tourist studies. *Tourist Studies* 3(1), 5–22. DOI: 10.1177/1468797603040528
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1975) Play and intrinsic rewards. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology* 15(3), 41–63. DOI: 10.1177/002216787501500306

- CSO (Central Statistical Office) (n.d.) Carnival Report 2004. Ministry of Planning and Sustainable Development. Port-of-Spain, Trinidad and Tobago.
- Ehrenreich, B. (2009) Up close at Trinidad's carnival: What's behind the raucous pre-Lenten rite? An intrepid scholar hits the streets of Trinidad to find out. <http://www.smithsonianmag.com/people-places/up-close-at-trinidads-carnival-45542504/> (accessed 10 April 2016).
- Dubé, L. and Le Bel, J. (2003) The content and structure of laypeople's concept of pleasure. *Cognition & Emotion* 17(2), 263–295. DOI: 10.1080/02699930302295
- Donaldson, T. (2015) 5 reasons Trinidad has the world's greatest carnival. http://www.huffingtonpost.com/tara-donaldson/5-reasons-trinidad-has-the-worlds-greatest-carnival_b_8705304.html (accessed 10 April 2016).
- Francis, J. (2015) A case for channeling creative industries into a viable industry sub-sector within a diversified economy in Trinidad and Tobago. *Creative Industries Journal* 8(1), 24–38. DOI: 10.1080/17510694.2015.1048066
- Franklin, A. (2001) The tourist gaze and beyond: an interview with John Urry. *Tourist Studies* 1(2), 115–131.
- Gobé, M. (2001) *Emotional branding: the new paradigm for connecting brands to people*. Allworth Press, New York.
- Green, G. (2002) *Marketing the Nation: Carnival and Tourism in Trinidad and Tobago*. Davidson College, Davidson, North Carolina.
- Gentile, C., Spiller, N. and Noci, G. (2007) How to sustain the customer experience: an overview of experience components that co-create value with the customer. *European Management Journal* 25(5), 395–410. DOI: 10.1016/j.emj.2007.08.005
- Gretzel, U. and Fesenmaier, D. (2003) 'Experience-based internet marketing: an exploratory study of sensory experiences associated with pleasure travel to the Midwest United States'. In: Frew, A., Hitz, M. and O'Connor, P. (eds) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*. Springer, Vienna, pp. 49–57.
- Harlequin Hearts (1024) Whine for me girls. Available at: <http://www.harlequinhearts.com.au/blog.php?blog=69> (accessed 10 April 2016).
- Hirschman, E.C. and Holbrook, M.B. (1986) Expanding the ontology and methodology of research on the consumption experience. In: Brinbery, D. and Lutz, R. (eds) *Perspectives on Methodology in Consumer Research*. Springer, New York, pp. 213–251.
- Hirschman, E.C. and Holbrook, M.B. (1982) The experiential aspects of consumption: consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research* 9(2), 132–140. DOI: 10.1086/208906
- Ittelson, W. and Cantril, H. (1954) *Perception: A Transactional Approach*. Doubleday, Garden City, New York.
- Larsen, S. (2007) Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(1), 7–18. DOI: 10.1080/15022250701226014
- Scott, N., Laws, E. and Boksberger, P. (2013) *Marketing of tourism experiences*. Routledge, London and New York.
- Lewis, R.C. and Chambers, R.E. (2000) *Marketing leadership in hospitality: foundations and practices* (3rd edn). John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- Lee, W., Gretzel, U. and Law, R. (2010) Quasi-trial experiences through sensory information on destination web sites. *Journal of Travel Research* 49(3), 310–322. DOI: 10.1177/0047287509346991
- Lee, S., Heere, B. and Chung, K. (2013) Which senses matter more? The impact of our senses on team identity and team loyalty. *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 22(4), 203.
- Li, Y.W. (2001) The effect of service environment on purchase behavior—virtual store experiment. Unpublished master's thesis, National Central University, Taoyuan, Taiwan.
- Lindström, M. (2005) *Brand Sense: How to Build Powerful Brands through Touch, Taste, Smell, Sight and Sound*. Kogan Page, London.
- Loeffler, T.A. (2004) A photo elicitation study of the meanings of outdoor adventure experiences. *Journal of Leisure Research* 36(4), 536.

- MacCannell, D. (1973) Staged authenticity: arrangements of social space in tourist settings. *American Journal of Sociology* 79(3), 589–603. DOI: 10.1086/225585
- Maslow, A.H. (1962) Lessons from the peak-experiences. *The Journal of Humanistic Psychology* 2(1), 9.
- McQuarrie, E., Miller, J. and Phillips, B.J. (2013) The megaphone effect: taste and audience in fashion blogging. *Journal of Consumer Research* 40(1), 136–158.
- NCC (2014) Carnival Business Links. National Carnival Commission's Strategy & Business Development Unit Vol 1 Issue 1. http://www.ncctt.org/new/images/publications/Strategy_and_Business_Development_Unit-Carnival_Business_Links.pdf (accessed 21 June 2017).
- NIHEREST (n.d.) Trinidad and Tobago Icons in Science & Technology: Vol 2. Available at: <http://www.niherst.gov.tt/icons-1/tt-icons-2/37-peter-minshall.htm> (accessed 8 April 2016)
- Noisey (2015) How to survive the best party on the planet: Trinidad carnival. Available at: https://noisey.vice.com/en_au/article/report-trinidad-carnival (accessed 8 April 2016).
- Nurse, K. (2003) Trinidad Carnival: festival tourism and cultural industry. *Event Management* 8(4), 223–230. DOI: 10.3727/1525995031436854
- Oh, H., Fiore, A.M. and Jeoung, M. (2007) Measuring experience economy concepts: tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research* 46(2), 119–132. DOI: 10.1177/0047287507304039
- O'Sullivan, E.L. and Spangler, K.J. (1998) *Experience Marketing: Strategies for the New Millennium*. Venture Publishing, State College, Pennsylvania.
- Pine, B. and Gilmore, J. (1999) *The experience economy: work is theatre and every business a stage*. Harvard Business Press, Brighton, Massachusetts.
- Ramoutar, S. (2015) Trinidad & Tobago Carnival 2015: the experience. <http://www.shiviramoutar.com/blog/> (accessed 8 April 2016).
- Scher, P.W. (2002) Copyright heritage: preservation, carnival and the state in Trinidad. *Anthropological Quarterly* 75(3), 453–484.
- Schmitt, B. (1999) Experiential marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management* 15(1), 53–67. DOI: 10.1362/026725799784870496
- Schmitt, B. and Rogers, D.L. (2008) *Handbook on brand and experience management*. Edward Elgar, Northampton, Massachusetts and Cheltenham, UK.
- Schmitt, B. and Zarantonello, L. (2013) *Consumer experience and experiential marketing: a critical review*. Emerald Publishing Limited, London, UK, pp. 25–61 DOI: 10.1108/S1548-6435(2013)0000010006
- Schouten, J.W., McAlexander, J.H. and Koenig, H.F. (2007) Transcendent customer experience and brand community. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 35(3), 357–368. DOI: 10.1007/s11747-007-0034-4
- Tourism Development Company (n.d.) Visitor Stopover Statistics. Available at: <http://www.tdc.co.tt/index.php/research/visitor-stopover-statistics> (accessed 8 April 2016)
- Trinidad and Tobago Guardian (2012) TDC marketing T&T through social media. Available at: <http://www.guardian.co.tt/carnival/2012-02-08/tdc-marketing-tt-through-social-media> (accessed 21 June 2017)
- Tull, J.A. (2005) Money Matters: Trinidad and Tobago Carnival 2005. Centre for Creative and Festival Arts, University of the West Indies, St Augustine, Trinidad and Tobago.
- Urry, J. (1992) The tourist gaze 'revisited'. *American Behavioural Scientist* 36(2), 172–186.
- Walther, J.B. (2002) Research ethics in internet-enabled research: human subjects issues and methodological myopia. *Ethics and Information Technology* 4, 205–216.
- Williams, C. (2015) Real Mas: The other side of Trinidad carnival. <http://www.largeup.com/2015/02/02/impressions-colin-williams-at-trinidad-carnival/> (accessed 8 April 2016).
- Woodside, A.G. and Kozak, M. (2014) *Primer to tourists' perceptions and assessments including how-to-build formal, implementable, models of the tourist gaze*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, London, UK, pp. 1–22 DOI: 10.1108/S1871-3173_2014_0000008001

Part VI Conclusion

This page intentionally left blank

17 Conclusion: Where To From Here?

NOEL SCOTT,¹ JUN GAO² AND JIANYU MA²

¹Griffith University, Southport, Australia; ²Shanghai Normal University, Shanghai, China

17.1 Introduction

The editors of this volume consider it to have demonstrated that application of cognitive psychology to the study of tourism is promising and needs further exploration and elaboration. The majority of tourists are primarily motivated by pleasure-seeking, restorative or well-being outcomes (Coghlan, 2014), but despite this it is only recently that academic studies have applied advances in both cognitive and positive psychology to the tourism experience (Pearce, 2009). This book has demonstrated that the concepts and theories of cognitive psychology can help academics and tourism business managers to better understand some aspects of tourist behaviour. Further, an understanding of the processes through which our brain mediates choice, perception, attention, emotion and memory serves as an important foundation for the design of tourist experiences. Better linking literatures of tourism consumption, individual well-being and community health will contribute to the sustainable development of the tourism industry and its destinations (Glover and Stewart, 2013).

17.2 Use of Cognitive Psychological Concepts in Tourism Research

Application of psychological theories to the field of tourism has grown significantly since the 1980s. According to Ryan (2011, p. 20), '[S]ociologists, geographers, economists and anthropologists' were the first to apply psychological approaches to the study of tourist experiences and behaviour. Later, social psychological concepts and theories were applied to the phenomenon of tourism. However, it appears to the editors that the use in the tourism literature of cognitive psychological concepts such as human perception, attention, learning, categorization, memory, concept formation,

*Corresponding author e-mail: noel.scott@griffith.edu.au

reasoning, consciousness and language processing is underdeveloped. Some cognitive psychology concepts such as judgement and decision making, problem solving and emotion have been used, but arguably without redress to most recent mainstream theories. The application of positive psychology concepts in tourism like flourishing, mindfulness and spiritual well-being is still in its infancy (Coghlan, 2014; Wolf *et al.*, 2015).

There are a number of possible reasons for the lack of a cognitive psychology approach in the tourism literature. One may be the pervasiveness of an implicitly behaviourist model of the tourist (see Fig. 17.1). In this model, the tourist’s brain is considered a black box that can’t be studied, so research has focused primarily on the antecedent stimuli and consequences of hedonic consumption, rather than on subjective mental processes (Alba and Williams, 2013, p. 5). This may be because it is only recently that technologies that can examine psychophysiological and neurological factors have been readily available.

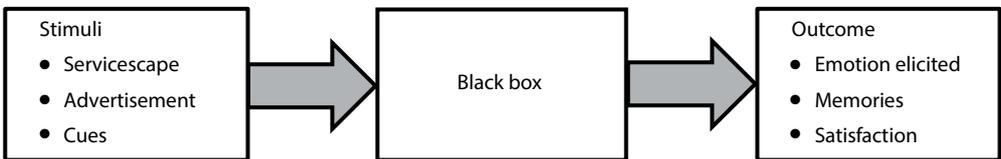
Another reason may be that tourists have been seen as passive participants who travel either because it is a socially sanctioned necessity or because the prime motivations for travel are the dreams promised by tourism marketers (Sharpley and Stone, 2011). From this perspective the tourist experience is shallow, short lived and perhaps meaningless in contrast to the noble traveller:

The traveler, then was working at something; the tourist was a pleasure seeker. The traveler was active; he went strenuously in search of people, of adventure, of experience. The tourist is passive; he expects interesting things to happen to him . . . he expects everything to be done to him and for him.

(Boorstin, 1964, p. 85)

More recently it has become acceptable to consider that both traveller and tourist are active seekers of pleasurable experiences and that engaging in them can generate spontaneous positive emotions and feelings in the short or long run. Indeed, it is suggested that these positive emotions enhance self-flourishing through broaden-and-build effects (Fredrickson, 2011), and that travel is both memorable and meaningful.

Behaviourist model (only study observable behaviour)



Cognitive model (study mental phenomena)

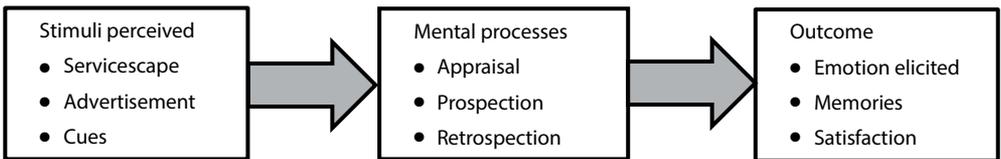


Fig. 17.1. Behaviourist and cognitive models of the tourist.

This volume then begins the process of reconciling studies of psychological perspectives, specifically cognitive psychology, under a systematic framework of tourist/visitor experience formation and evaluation. However, much remains to be done in applying cognitive and positive psychological theories and concepts in tourism research. Many of the topics studied by cognitive psychologists have direct application to tourism, and some examples are given below.

17.2.1 Perception

Perception can include attention, object recognition, pattern recognition, form perception, psychophysics and time sensation. Most tourism studies on perception focus on the specific types of perception, like risk perception, time and space perception, and their impacts on behaviours. Little attention has been paid to how the perception is created, from where it started and what influences the creation procedure. The cognitive penetrability of perception includes attention, action, bottom-up and top-down strategies (Raftopoulos, 2005). Studies of visual attention demonstrate an area for further exploration. Humans are predominately visual creatures, and the incoming visual information we receive has preference over other stimuli (Koch, 2004). Recent work using eye tracking and perceptual filters have highlighted the heuristics used by our visual system to preprocess and direct attention to certain landscape or scenic features. Attentional biases for faces have been noted (Ro *et al.*, 2007), yet not all attention requires conscious brain processing. Visual sensory data are automatically integrated and analysed to extract basic perceptual features, such as shape and movement, without our conscious knowledge. These visual exogenous cues include movement, colour and texture and account for most scanning eye movements. The design of these elements will attract all visitors without taking their perceptions and cultural differences into account. Eye tracking equipment provides accessible technology to better understand the on-site visual attentions of tourists and visitors.

17.2.2 Categorization

Categorization may involve induction and acquisition; judgement and classification; representation and structure; and similarity. The concept of destination image may be considered a specific example of mental schema concerning a type of object. A schema is an abstract and implicit representation which integrates sensory, perceptual and semantic information typical of a given category of emotional experiences on the one hand, and their relation to the activation of specific body response systems, on the other hand. When perceptual elements are repeatedly activated they may stimulate connections between perceptual features and body responses. In this way they become integrated in an abstract mental representation that encodes high order reoccurrences between the activation of perceptual or semantic elements and body responses. A schema, as a mental representation, is not available to consciousness. However, its content can be inferred based upon the changes it induces in feelings

and body state. It may be possible to apply schema theory to better understand how destination image formation occurs.

17.2.3 Emotion

There are two directions of research in terms of emotions in visitor experience design; one is inward and spontaneous, while the other is outward and long-term. Visitors' internal states of emotions and their elicitation call for more attention (Servidio and Ruffolo, 2016). The measurement of emotions can accurately record on-site real time results through use of neuropsychological technologies such as eye tracking (Li *et al.* 2016), skin governance (Kim and Fesenmaier, 2015) and facial expression (Hetland *et al.*, 2016). Measuring emotions in real time in an actual tourism context allows capture and tracing of the changes in emotion during multiple situational interactions within an overall holiday or attraction visitation experience. Such techniques would allow study of the dynamics of emotions and their effect on memories. Specific emotions related to memorable experiences like awe and nostalgia are worthwhile exploring in terms of the subjective elicitation mechanism and related external stimulus (Triantafyllidou and Siomkos, 2013).

17.2.4 Positive psychology

The positive psychology perspective is also a promising area for further exploration (Filep and Pearce, 2013). Positive psychology includes research topics on humour, positive emotions, happiness, well-being and love. Filep (2016) focuses on individuals' lifetime flourishing and satisfaction. Unlike recreation and leisure studies, our understanding of positive psychology in tourism is still in its infancy (Coghlan, 2015). This perspective suggests a move beyond tourism as pure pleasure-seeking into positive functioning outcomes like personal flourishing. To date, little research has been carried out in tourism to identify the mechanisms of holidays that impact the well-being of individuals. However, some studies conclude that positive affects like joy, love and surprise are common experiential outcomes (Hosany and Gilbert, 2010). Further elaboration and testing is suggested into how positive emotions elicited by designed tourism experiences impact on personal flourishing and well-being through broaden-and-build effects, transformation and so on.

17.2.5 Memory

Topics in this section may include aging and memory, autobiographical memory, childhood memory, constructive memory, emotion and memory, episodic memory, eyewitness memory, false memories, flashbulb memory, list of memory biases, long-term memory, semantic memory, short-term memory, source-monitoring error, spaced repetition and working memory.

An important aspect of tourism experiences is that we anticipate (prospection) and remember (retrospection) them. Arguably our ability to 'relive' our experiences

after we return home is one of the reasons they are so valuable to us. A number of models of these processes of mental simulation have been developed (Gilbert and Wilson, 2007). In these models, when thinking about future or past events, the brain generates simulations or images of these events in a similar way to those events being experienced in the present. Such a simulation can stimulate emotions and feelings, enabling us to enjoy thinking about a holiday before or after it has happened. This research shows that episodic memory supports the construction of future event simulations by extracting and recombining stored information into a simulation of a novel event. Prospection involves taking items in memory and using them to produce affective forecasts (Kim *et al.*, 2010). An affective forecast is a mental simulation of 'what it would feel like to experience a particular event' (Dane and George, 2014, p. 181).

Mental representation of a future event is a simulation created from past memories, but not as elaborate as perceptions and sensations from lived experience, and may be biased in specific ways (Gilbert and Wilson, 2007). Empirically, it is becoming increasingly clear that predicting the future and remembering the past may be more closely related than everyday experience might suggest; for an in-depth review see Schacter (2012). The peak moments of an experience have been found to shape retrospective evaluation (Varey and Kahneman, 1992). Likewise, recent work on regret prompted by material and experiential purchases suggests that material purchases are related to regret regarding action, and more likely to be experienced in the short term. Experiential purchases, however, prompt regret of inaction and are more likely to be experienced in the long term (Alba and Williams, 2013). This may be why people savour special memories (Zauberman *et al.*, 2009) and buy memorabilia or souvenirs. A number of authors have discussed concepts similar to prospection and retrospection in tourism (Klaaren *et al.*, 1994; Mitchell *et al.*, 1997; Wirtz *et al.*, 2003).

Discussion of retrospection and prospection highlights that there are a number of different types of memory. Pearce and Packer (2013) have discussed memory as it is applied to tourism. Semantic memory involves recollection of facts and general knowledge about the world, while episodic memory refers to the capacity to recollect past events and happenings in their particular spatial and temporal contexts. The general process of prospection and retrospection has been termed constructive memory.

17.3 Summary

The editors recommend that research is based on theories from cognitive psychology particularly theories on perception, categorization, emotion and memory. More fundamentally we suggest a move to predictive and explanatory studies through opening up the 'black box' of the brain.

References

- Alba, J.W. and Williams, E.F. (2013) Pleasure principles: a review of research on hedonic consumption. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 23(1), 2–18.
- Boorstin, D. (1964) *The Image: A Guide to Pseudo-events in America*. Harper and Row, New York.

- Coghlan, A. (2014) Tourism and health: using positive psychology principles to maximize participants' wellbeing outcomes – a design concept for charity challenge tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 23(3), 382–400.
- Dane, E. and George, J.M. (2014) Unpacking affective forecasting and its ties to project work in organizations. *Academy of Management Review* 39(2), 181–201.
- Filep, S. and Pearce, P. (2013) *Tourist Experience and Fulfilment: Insights from Positive Psychology*. Routledge, New York.
- Filep, S. (2016) Tourism and positive psychology critique: too emotional? *Annals of Tourism Research* 49, pp. 113–115.
- Fredrickson, B. (2011) The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist* 56(3), 218–226.
- Gilbert, D.T. and Wilson, T.D. (2007) Propection: experiencing the future. *Science* 317(5843), 1351–1354.
- Glover, T. and Stewart, W. (2013) Advancing healthy communities policy through tourism, leisure and events research. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events* 5(2), 109–122.
- Hetland, A., Vittersø, J., Fagermo, K., Øvervoll, M., Dahl, T.I. (2016) Visual excitement: analyzing the effects of three Norwegian tourism films on emotions and behavioral intentions. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 16 (4), 528–547.
- Hosany, S. and Gilbert, D. (2010) Measuring tourists' emotional experiences toward hedonic holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research* 49(4), 513–526.
- Kim, H., Park, K. and Schwarz, N. (2010) Will this trip really be exciting? The role of incidental emotions in product evaluation. *Journal of Consumer Research* 36(6), 983–991. DOI: 10.1086/644763
- Kim, J. and Fesenmaier, D.R. (2015) Measuring emotions in real time: implications for tourism experience design. *Journal of Travel Research* 54(4), 419–429.
- Klaaren, K.J., Hodges, S.D. and Wilson, T.D. (1994) The role of affective expectations in subjective experience and decision-making. *Social Cognition* 12(2), 77–101.
- Koch, C. (2004) *The Quest for Consciousness*. Roberts & Company Publishers, Englewood, Colorado.
- Li, S., Walters, G., Packer, J. and Scott, N. (2016) Using skin conductance and facial electromyography to measure emotional responses to tourism advertising. *Current Issues in Tourism*, pp. 1–23. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2016.1223023
- Mitchell, T.R., Thompson, L., Peterson, E. and Cronk, R. (1997) Temporal adjustments in the evaluation of events: the 'rosy view'. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 33(4), 421–448.
- Pearce, P. (2009) The relationship between positive psychology and tourist behavior studies. *Tourism Analysis* 14, 37–48.
- Pearce, P. and Packer, J. (2013) Minds on the move: new links from psychology to tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 40, 386–411.
- Raftopoulos, A. (2005) *Cognitive Penetrability of Perception: Attention, Action, Strategies, and Bottom-up Constraints*. Nova Science Publishers, New York.
- Ro, T., Friggel, A. and Lavie, N. (2007) Attentional biases for faces and body parts. *Visual Cognition* 15(3), 322–348.
- Ryan, C. (2011) Ways of conceptualizing the tourist experience: a review of literature. In: Sharpley, R. and Stone, P. (eds) *Tourist Experience: Contemporary Perspectives*. Routledge, Oxford, UK.
- Schacter, D.L. (2012) Constructive memory: past and future. *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience* 14(1), 7–18.
- Servidio, R. and Ruffolo, I. (2016) Exploring the relationship between emotions and memorable tourism experiences through narratives. *Tourism Management Perspectives* 20, 151–160.
- Sharpley, R. and Stone, P. (2011) Introduction: thing about the tourist experience. In: Sharpley, R. and Stone, P. (eds) *Tourism Experience: Contemporary Perspectives*. Routledge, Oxford, UK, pp. 1–8.
- Triantafyllidou, A. and Siomkos, G. (2013) Summer camping: an extraordinary, nostalgic, and interpersonal experience. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 19(3), 197–208.

-
- Varey, C. and Kahneman, D. (1992) Experiences extended across time: evaluation of moments and episodes. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making* 5(3), 169–185.
- Wolf, I., Stricker, H. and Hagenloh, G. (2015) Outcome-focused national park experience management: transforming participants, promoting social well-being, and fostering place attachment. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 23(3), 358–381.
- Wirtz, D., Kruger, J., Scollon, C.N. and 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.
- Zauberman, G., Ratner, R.K. and Kim, B.K. (2009) Memories as assets: strategic memory protection in choice over time. *Journal of Consumer Research* 35(5), 715–728.

This page intentionally left blank

Index

- activities in destination, choice
 - of 240–244
 - optimal and actual lifestyle stimulation 240
 - seven push or socio-psychological motivations 241
 - tourists, categories 241
- aesthetic appreciation triggers
 - absence of noise 182
 - absence of normal light 182
 - atmosphere of tranquility 182
 - ‘Beauty in impermanence’ 181
 - ‘Beauty in wonder’ 180–181
- aesthetic experiences 37
- anticipated experience 33–34
- appraisal dimensions 114–120
 - agency 115, 117
 - certainty 117
 - emotional intensity 118, 120
 - emotional responses with 119
 - goal congruence 115
 - novelty 117
- arousal 127–128
- attention 38, 72, *see also* psychological
 - experience concepts
 - bottom-up 95
 - co-creation 96–100
 - externally triggered 95
 - functional neuroimaging methods 96
 - and memorability 94–100
 - qualitative measurements 95
 - quantitative measurements 95
 - attentive tourists 93–104
 - attention and memorability 94–100
 - attribute(s) 61
 - augmented reality (AR) 35
 - autobiographical memories 34, 73, 75–76
- backpacking experiences 179
- behavioural intentions 194–196
- behavioural theory of learning 17
- ‘broaden-and-build’ theory 194
- certainty, appraisal of 117
- co-creation 8, 37–38, 96–100
 - animal-based experiences 98
 - basic/satisfactory/quality/extraordinary/memorable experience 104
 - consumer/tourist experience
 - essence of 103
 - methodologies 103–104
 - nature of specific tourism experiences 104
 - ongoing evolution of travel/tourism experience 104
 - tourism experiences 97–98
- cognition 54
- cognitive absorption 39, *see also* psychological experience concepts

- cognitive appraisal theory (CAT) 7, 69, 71, 111–120, 127, 193
 appraisal dimensions 114–120
 appraisal process 113–114
 PAD framework 112
- cognitive psychological concepts 263–265
 behaviourist and cognitive models of tourist 264
 categorization 265–266
 destination image 265
 emotion 266
 memory 266–267
 forecast 267
 prospection 267
 retrospection 267
 perception 265
 positive psychology 266
- consciousness 9, 13, 25, 26, 33, 74, 264, 265
- consumer behaviour 94
 consumer experience 37
 consumption vision 76
 cost/sacrifice value 158, 164–165
 creative experiences 37
 customer engagement 38–39
 customer experience 136, 150–151
 customer satisfaction 190, 192
 customer value 154
 definition of 155–156
 types of 157–158, 160
- dark tourism 37
 declarative memory 73
 delight as emotion 192–194
 destination emotion scale (DES) 127
 directionality problem 18
 disciplinary approaches 32–42
 cognitive psychology 32
 consumer attributes 32
 managerial, inferred and participant experiences 35–38
 phenomenological approach 32
 psychological experience concepts 38–42
 services and marketing approach 32
 sociological approach 32
 subjective psychological approach 33
 tourist experience phases 34–35
 typologies 32–34
- electro-dermal activity (EDA) 126
 emotional intensity 113
 goal realization 118
 goal relevance 118
 emotional value 162
 emotions 70–80
 appraisal dimensions 71
 appraisal model of 114
 consumption emotion scale 71
 elicitation of 71, 110–120, 191
 fantasy 78–79
 feelings 76–77
 holiday decision making 79–80
 memory and types 71–73
 prospection *vs.* retrospection 76
- engagement 38–39, *see also* psychological experience concepts
- environmentally sustainable tourism behaviour 23–26
- episodic memory 73–74
 epistemic value 162
 evaluation-based satisfaction 193
 expectancies, concept of 42
 expectancy–value theory 59
 experience, *see also specific experience*
 definition 4–5
 economy 3, 31, 34
 motivation and 54–55
 ‘nature connectedness’ 177
- experience sampling method (ESM) 142–146
- experiencescape 7
 experiential decision choice 68–82
 emotions 70–80
 future research 81–82
- experiential disconfirmation concept 191
- experiential/hedonic value 156, 162, 166–167
 co-occurrences 162
 and functional value 163
- eye tracking 126, 131–132, 137–141
 analysis 140
 application to tourist experience 137–138
 definitions 137
 device 138–139
 interpretation 140–141
 measurement 140
 procedure 139
 research 138

- research questions into customer experience 141
- sample size 139

- facial electromyography (fEMG) 126, 130–131
- fantasy, emotions 78–79, 110
- feelings, emotions 76–77
- 'flashbulb' memories 75
- functional/instrumental value 156, 166–167

- gambler's fallacy 22, 23
- global workspace model 33, 74
- goal congruence 115
- goal realization 118
- goal relevance 118

- hedonic experiences 36–37, 69, 78, 81, 196
- home-is-safer-than-abroad bias 22–23
- hyperreality 78

- immersion 39, *see also* psychological experience concepts
- information theory, feelings 77
- infrared corneal reflection methodology 138
- instrumental values 60
- internal mentation hypothesis 78
- intrinsic motivation theory 57
- involvement 39, *see also* psychological experience concepts

- leisure activities 177
- leisure tourism 43
- lived experience 33–34

- marketing practice 63
- marketing research 191
- means-end chain (MEC) theory 53, 58–59
 - conceptual framework 60–62
 - motivational approach of 59
 - motivations for leisure tourism experience 60–61
- meditative mindfulness 176–178
 - antecedents 180
 - leisure activities and natural settings 177
- memorability
 - objectivist perspective 94
 - subjectivist perspective 95
- memorable experiences 8
- memory(ies) 71–72
 - attention 72
 - declarative 73
 - long-term memory 72
 - nondeclarative 73
 - short-term memory 72
 - types 73
 - vividness 103
- mental time travel 73
- mind wandering 78–79
- mindful experiences
 - aesthetic appreciation 180–182
 - meditative 176–178
- mindfulness 184
 - meditative 176–178
 - mental state of 175
 - socio-cognitive 176
 - and well-being benefits 178
- models of experience 40–41, *see also* psychological experience concepts
- mood 111
- motivation 53
- motivational relevance 118
- motivational satisfaction 193–194
- motive consistency 115
- multi-stage appraising process 113

- nature-based experiences 184
- 'nature connectedness,' experience 177
- needs satisfaction 193
- negative emotion 195
- nondeclarative memory 73
- novelty 117

- on-site experience 8
- operational appropriation 39
- optimistic bias 22

- paradise, holiday as 13
- peak tourism experiences 41
- perceptions 9, 25, 32–34, 42, 265
- phenomenological models 41, *see also* psychological experience concepts

- photo elicitation (PE) 146–150
 pilgrimage, holiday as 13
 pleasurable experiences 70
 pleasure, arousal and dominance (PAD)
 framework 112
 pleasure, emotion 125, 128
 positive affect negative affect schedule
 (PANAS) 128
 positive emotion 195
 post hoc analysis 31
 prospect realization 118
 prospection 73, 81, 266–267
 vs. retrospection 76
 prototype 76
 psychodynamic theory 17
 psychographic system 55
 psychological consequences 61
 psychological experience
 concepts 38–42
 attention 38
 cognitive absorption 39
 engagement 38–39
 immersion 39
 involvement 39
 models of experience 40–41
 phenomenological models 41
 systemic models 41–42
 psychological model 8
 psychology
 case studies 16–18
 correlations 18
 environmentally sustainable tourism
 behaviour 23–26
 experiments 18–19
 risk perceptions, tourists 20–23
 subjective experiences 16
 psychophysiological measures 129, 133
 psychophysiological technique 126, 133
 push and pull theory 56–57
- qualitative research 140
- relaxation 82
 remembered experience 33–34
 retrospection 21, 23, 266–267
 prospection *vs.* 76
 recreating past events mentally
 73–76
 risk-as-feeling 77
- risk perceptions, tourists 20–23
 biases 22–23
 home-is-safer-than-abroad
 bias 22–23
 optimistic bias 22
 subjective risk 20
 terrorism 20–22
 rosy retrospection 23
- satisfaction 190
 as emotional response 191–193
 motivational satisfaction and delight
 193–194
 needs 193
 and positive emotions 190–191
 self-reinforcing circularity 70
 self-report emotion, measurement 126–132
 sensory value 162
 servicescape 7, 78
 sharing experiences
 community-oriented motivations 222
 consumer behaviour and marketing
 research 223
 directions for future research
 behavioural outcomes
 and motivational
 antecedents 227–229
 contextual influence 229
 cross-cultural and intercultural
 research 229–230
 social transmission and
 virality 227
 impact of 222, 229
 motivational drivers
 communal-oriented
 motivations 225
 emotion regulation drivers 225
 self-image concerns 224–225
 reasons to share 222
 social media 221
 traditional narrative methods 221
 site planning at destinations 185
 skin conductance, measurement 129
 Slow Food movement 239
 social interaction 57
 socio-cognitive mindfulness 176
 ‘stream of consciousness’ 33–34
 subjective risk 20
 symbolic/expressive value 158, 163–164,
 166–167

- technology-enhanced experiences 36
- terrorism 20–22
- themes and experience 202–206
- tourism experiences 53, 70
 - attentive behaviour 7
 - co-creation 8
 - cognitive appraisal theory 7
 - disciplinary approaches, *see* disciplinary approaches
 - economic analysis 6
 - experience, definition 4–5
 - long-term memories 8
 - memorable experiences 8
 - motivation and goals of visitor 8–9
 - on-site experience 8
 - sharing *vs.* information sharing 228
 - sociological theories 31
 - stages of 41, 43
 - ‘uniquely individual’ nature 31
- tourism marketers 78
- tourist experience
 - experience sampling method 142–146
 - eye tracking and 137–141
 - photo elicitation 146–150
- tourist–employee interaction 204
- tourists
 - defined 15
 - experience, phases 34–36
 - interactions between 205
 - risk perceptions, *see* risk perceptions, tourists
- ‘transcendent customer experiences’ (TCE) 251
- travel career ladder (TCL) 58
- travel career pattern (TCP) 57
- travel motivation theories 55–58
 - Plog’s psychocentric-allocentrism 55–56
 - push and pull theory 56–57
 - travel career theory 58
- valence 127
- values 60
 - dimensions of 168
 - linkage between types of 163–165
- virtual reality (VR) 35
- wild experience 9

Visitor Experience Design

Edited by Noel Scott, Jun Gao and Jianyu Ma

Most discussion of visitor experiences uses a behavioural or managerial approach whereby the way the visitor thinks is ignored – it's a black box. Visitor Experience Design is the first book of its kind to examine best practice in creating and delivering exciting and memorable travel and visitation experiences from a cognitive psychological perspective – it opens the black box.

The chapters draw on recent findings from cognitive psychology, cognitive science and neuroscience to provide a basis for a better understanding of the antecedents of a memorable experience, including:

- The psychological process of the formation or creation of a visitor's experiences.
- Psychological aspects of tourism experiences such as attention, emotion, memory and mindfulness.
- Pre-stage experience: customer inputs such as knowledge, myths, values and memories from previous travel.
- On-site experience: co-creation processes.
- Post-stage experience: immediate and long-term outcomes including happiness and well-being.
- Experience design cases.

Tourism, hospitality and event managers seek to provide WOW experiences to their visitors through better design and management. This book encourages the discussion of the different facets of experience design such as emotions, attentions, sensations, learning, the process of co-creation and experiential stimuli design.

It will be of interest to tourism researchers and postgraduate students studying tourism management, marketing and product design.

CABI improves people's lives worldwide by providing information and applying scientific expertise to solve problems in agriculture and the environment.

For more information visit us at www.cabi.org

