



**Áurea Lucília de
Oliveira Rodrigues**

**Constrangimentos, nostalgia e as visitas dos Norte
Americanos à Europa Rural**

**Constraints, Nostalgia and North Americans` visits
to rural Europe**



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Tese apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Doutor em Turismo, realizada sob a orientação científica da Doutora Elisabeth Kastenholz , Professora Auxiliar da Universidade de Aveiro.

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Palavras-chave

Nostalgia, constrangimentos para viajar, Europa, mercado Norte Americano

Resumo

As Américas constituem a mais relevante fonte inter-regional de turistas vindos para a Europa, sendo os EUA de longe o maior mercado de long haul para a Europa. Mas, apesar da relevância deste mercado nas estatísticas, há uma carência de estudos sobre o mesmo. A maioria dos Norte-Americanos que visitam a Europa mantêm-se em áreas urbanas, limitando o potencial efeito do turismo para equilibrar o crescimento económico na Europa, principalmente em áreas rurais que têm vindo cada vez mais a atrair turistas nas últimas décadas, contando sobretudo da EU. Para o turismo ser realmente uma força positiva de desenvolvimento equilibrado na Europa, os pesquisadores do comportamento do consumidor devem tentar entender por que os viajantes Norte-Americanos não arriscam ir para zonas rurais que supostamente têm o capital tradicional e cultural autêntico que sobretudo os turistas nostálgicos procuram.

Esta dissertação pretende contribuir para o conhecimento do mercado Norte-Americano que viaja para a Europa. O objectivo deste estudo centra-se na examinação do papel dos constrangimentos, da nostalgia, e da experiência de viagem para as intenções dos turistas Norte-Americanos de visitar em destinos rurais Europeus. Apesar de existirem referências à nostalgia em pesquisas de turismo, estas centram-se essencialmente em estudos de carácter qualitativo e tem sido dada pouca relevância à construção de ferramentas quantitativas para o estudo da nostalgia a nível do turismo.

Neste estudo, é desenvolvida uma escala de nostalgia para o turismo (NOSTOUR). Os resultados mostram que a nostalgia, relacionada com as viagens pode ser concebida e operacionalizada em quatro dimensões: individual, interpessoal, cultural e virtual. A nostalgia, por si só, não tem um efeito mediador nos constrangimentos para viajar a nível da intenção de regressar e visitar destinos rurais na Europa mas com a adição, do determinante experiência de viagem esse efeito existe.

keywords

Nostalgia, travel constraints, Europe, North-American market

Abstract

Americas are the most important source of inter-regional tourists for Europe and USA remains by far Europe's largest single long-haul market. But despite the market and its behaviour is still not well understood. But despite these references of the relevance from this market in statistics there is a lack of studies about this subject. Most of the North Americans that visit Europe stay in urban areas which limit the potential effect of tourism to balance the economic growth in the European region, particularly in rural areas. If tourism is to truly be a positive force of equitable and balance development in Europe, then consumer behaviour researchers must try to understand why they don't venture to the rural areas that allegedly have the traditional and authentic cultural capital that the nostalgic tourists want.

This dissertation intends to contribute to the knowledge of the under-studied North-American market to Europe. The purpose of this study was to examine the role of travel constraints, nostalgia and travel experience in shaping North American tourists' intentions to revisit rural European destinations. Despite of the references to nostalgia in the tourism research, mainly in qualitative studies, relatively very little attention has been paid to the development of research tools of nostalgia for quantitative research on travel. In this study it is created a scale of nostalgia for tourism (NOSTOUR).

Results showed that nostalgia triggered by travel has four dimensions, individual, interpersonal, cultural and virtual. Nostalgia by itself does not mediate the effects of travel constraints on the intention to return to Europe and visit rural places but with the addition of the determinant experience in travel that effect exists.

PREFACE

This dissertation is funded by the Portuguese Science Foundation (FCT) process SFRHBD 42406 2007. The initial theme proposed was designated as “The attractiveness of rural destinations in Europe for long haul markets” and the main objective was to analyze the potentiality of the long haul markets for rural Europe, based on the analysis of their typical movements, integrated in multi-destination travel, where they could eventually use rural tourism networks. The literature review showed that most of the long haul tourists adopt a multi-destination pattern as a practical way of maximizing the visit they were doing (So, 2004) and it is a market that does not repeat visits to Europe very frequently. Following the first literature review an analysis of the North American tourist market was undertaken, based on participant observation and semi-structured interviews in Pennsylvania, PA, USA. Through this approach it became clear that North Americans face several constraints to travel to Europe and especially to rural areas. Those who had travelled to Europe, has typically visited the continent’s main cities. After these conclusions, it was decided that rather than studying the travel patterns inside rural Europe, it was more relevant to study what could make the North American tourist return to Europe and visit rural places.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements.....	vii
Abstract.....	ix
Preface.....	xiii
Table of Contents.....	xiv
List of Tables.....	xvii
List of Figures.....	xx
Definition of terms.....	xxi
Chapter one: Introduction.....	1
1.1 The willingness of North Americans tourists visit Rural Europe.....	1
1.2 Main research objectives.....	5
1.3 Significance of the study.....	7
1.4 Methodology.....	9
1.5 Structure of the dissertation.....	11
Chapter Two: Overview of study population – North American outbound travel market and rural tourism in Europe.....	13
2.1. The North American market.....	13
2.2 Ethnic diversity of US and its relevance to tourism	22
2.3 The rural tourism in Europe	26
2.3.1 A brief history of rural tourism and recreation.....	26
2.3.2 Rural tourism.....	28
Chapter Three: Literature review.....	32
3.1 Decision-making process.....	32
3.2 Nostalgia.....	33
3.2.1 Definition of nostalgia.....	35
3.2.2 Types of nostalgia.....	38
3.2.3 Nostalgia and diaspora.....	40
3.2.4 Nostalgia as heritage motivation.....	41
3.2.5 Nostalgia scales.....	50
3.2.6 Concept of nostalgia used in this work.....	52

3.3 Time perspective.....	58
3.4 Travel constraints.....	61
3.4.1 Intrapersonal constraints.....	66
3.4.2 Interpersonal constraints.....	67
3.4.3 Structural constraints.....	67
3.4.4 Negotiation	69
3.5 Experience in travel.....	71
3.5.1 Travel expertise.....	71
3.5.2 Familiarity	72
Chapter four: Proposed framework and research hypothesis.....	76
4.1 Introduction.....	76
4.2 Research hypotheses and proposed research model.....	77
4.2.1 Research hypothesis.....	77
4.3 Operationalization of the constructs.....	83
Chapter five: Methodology-defining the theoretical research framework.....	85
5.1 Introduction.....	85
5.2 Qualitative research versus quantitative research.....	85
5.3 Qualitative research.....	86
5.3.1 Exploratory study for identifying the constructs and develop the research model.....	86
5.4 Quantitative research.....	92
5.4.1 Procedures for the development of the pre-test questionnaire.....	92
5.4.2 Final version of the quantitative research instrument (questionnaire).....	94
5.4.3 Data collection procedure.....	98
Chapter six: Statistical Analysis.....	99
6.1 Introduction.....	99
6.2 Descriptive analysis.....	99
6.2.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample.....	99
6.2.2 Travel behavior.....	103
6.2.3 Descriptive analysis of measurement variables	109
6.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modeling.....	113

6.4 Nostalgia scale for travel (NOSTOUR).....	114
6.5 Mediation effect of nostalgia to travel constraints on the intention to revisit rural Europe.....	135
6.6 Validation of the global model.....	137
6.7 Hypothesis testing.....	151
Chapter seven: Conclusions and implications.....	153
7.1 Conclusions and implications.....	153
7.2 Limitations of the study and future research.....	166
References.....	168
Appendix.....	199
Appendix one: Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI).....	199
Appendix two: Script of the semi-structured questionnaire for to explore the North American behavior.....	201
Appendix three: Questionnaire.....	202
Appendix four: Outputs of the statistical analysis.....	206

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	Rank of the 15 main destinations of US residents travelling abroad (Outbound 2008/2009)	14
Table 2:	Visitation to Europe: main destinations	16
Table 3:	Residence of US travellers that travelled to Europe (2008/2009)	18
Table 4:	Trends in payments (Millions os US dollars)	19
Table 5:	Socio-demographic characteristics of US residents travelling to Europe (2008/ 2009)	20
Table 6:	Travel behaviour of US residents in Europe (before the trip)	20
Table 7:	Travel behaviour of US residents in Europe (during the trip)	21
Table 8	Definitions of nostalgia	38
Table 9	Types of nostalgia	39
Table 10	Definitions of heritage tourism	44
Table 11:	Wang’s taxonomy of the three types of authenticity in tourism	47
Table 12:	Travel motivation (according to MacIntosh et al, 1990)	49
Table 13:	Scales of nostalgia	51
Table 14:	A summary of time perspectives	59
Table 15a:	Zimbardo Time Perspective Index (ZTPI) itens	66
Table 16:	Summary of the research hypothesis	83
Table 17:	Operationalization of the constructs	84
Table 18:	Description of the participants	87
Table 19:	Goals of a pretest problem identification and questions to address	93
Table 20:	Socio-demographic characteristics	94
Table 21:	Travel behavior before the trip (sources of information)	94
Table 22:	Travel behavior on site (during the trip)	95
Table 23:	Nostalgia	95
Table24:	Travel constraints	96
Table 25:	Negotiation	96
Table 26:	Travel expertise	97
Table 27:	Familiarity	97
Table 28:	Time perspective	97

Table 29:	Intentions to visit rural Europe	97
Table 30:	Satisfaction/ Root/ legacy travel/ multi-destination travel	98
Table 31:	Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents	100
Table 32:	A summary of living birth generations	101
Table 33:	Sources of information	104
Table 34:	Booking	104
Table 35:	Transport used to travel to Europe	105
Table 36:	Transport used to move in Europe	105
Table 37:	Length of stay	106
Table 38:	Accommodation	107
Table 39:	Group of travel	108
Table 40:	Descriptive Analysis for Nostalgia	109
Table 41:	Descriptive Analysis for Time Perspective (Past positive perspective).	110
Table 42:	Descriptive Analysis for Travel Constraints	110
Table 43:	Descriptive Analysis for Negotiation	111
Table 44:	Descriptive Analysis for Travel expertise (differential semantic question)	111
Table 45:	Descriptive Analysis for Familiarity	112
Table 46:	Descriptive Analysis for Intentions	112
Table 47:	Initial scale of nostalgia	117
Table 48:	Items of nostalgia	120
Table 49:	EFA results for NOSTOUR scale	123
Table 50:	Goodness of Fit Indices of the CFA	126
Table 51:	Bootstrapped standardized regression weights for the scale (M2)	127
Table 52:	EFA of Positive time perspective	129
Table 53:	Results of the T-test: Differences by gender	131
Table 54:	Results of the T-test: Differences by age	132
Table 55:	Results of the T-test: Differences between European Americans	132
Table 56:	Results of the T-test: Differences by roots travel	133
Table 57:	Results of the T-test: Differences by satisfaction	133

Table 58:	Results of the T-test: Differences between country visited	133
Table 59:	Travel constraints items	134
Table 60:	EFA results for Travel constraints	135
Table 61:	EFA results for familiarity, expertise and intentions	136
Table 62:	Summary of the measurement model statistics	137
Table 63:	Bootstrapped estimates and confidence intervals at 90%	140
Table 64:	Summary of the measurement model statistics	141
Table 65:	Bootstrapped estimates and confidence intervals at 90% for model of nostalgia and intentions to return and visit rural Europe	142
Table 66:	Bootstrapped estimates and confidence intervals at 90% for model of constraints, negotiation and intentions to revisit Europe	144
Table 67:	Bootstrapped estimates and confidence intervals at 90% for model of experience in travel and intentions to revisit Europe	145
Table 68:	Bootstrapped estimates and confidence intervals at 90% for full structural model	147
Table 69:	Hypotheses testing	152

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1:	Methodology	10
Figure 2:	Trends in departures	15
Figure 3:	Map of USA	17
Figure 4:	Nostalgia dimensions	52
Figure 5:	A hierarchical model of leisure constraints	62
Figure 6:	Conceptual model and proposed hypothesis	82
Figure 7:	Localization of the Mid-Atlantic Region	88
Figure 8:	NOSTOUR scale (M1) with standardized solution estimates	125
Figure 9:	NOSTOUR scale (M2) with standardized solution estimates	127
Figure 10:	Convergence model between NOSTOUR and Time Perspective Inventory (past positive) with standardized solution estimates	130
Figure 11:	Mediation Model	139
Figure 12:	Model with standardized solution estimates	140
Figure 13:	Path diagram of nostalgia and intentions to return and visit rural Europe	144
Figure 14:	Path diagram of constraints, negotiation and intentions to revisit Europe	145
Figure 15:	Path diagram of experience in travel and intentions to revisit Europe	146
Figure 16:	Path diagram of the overall model with standardized solution estimates	147
Figure 17:	Model of intention to revisit rural Europe based on nostalgia, travel constraints, negotiation and experience in travel	162

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Diaspora: A group of voluntary immigrants that share a collective identity and maintain ties with the homeland (Faist, 2010).

ETC (European Travel Commission): is a non-profit making organisation with its headquarters in Brussels. Its members are the 35 National Tourism Organisations (NTOs) of Europe, whose role is to market and promote tourism to Europe in general, and to their individual countries in particular (www.etc.corporate.org).

ETM (European Travel Monitor): The sole and largest tourism database worldwide providing comparable travel data on the European, American and Asian outbound travel volume and travel behavior. (<http://www.ipkinternational.com/>)

Europe: The sixth-largest continent, extending west from the Dardanelles, Black Sea, and Ural Mountains. It is technically a vast peninsula of the Eurasian land mass. Europe is united by its shared history and culture, but remains a continent of extraordinary diversity (Minahan, 2000). Europe is constituted by 44 independent states and has been called a “family of cultures” (Ostergren & Le Bossé, 2011).

MPI (Migration Policy Institute): MPI provides analysis, development, and evaluation of migration and refugee policies at the local, national, and international levels. It aims to meet the rising demand for pragmatic and thoughtful responses to the challenges and opportunities that large-scale migration, whether voluntary or forced, presents to communities and institutions in an increasingly integrated world (<http://www.migrationpolicy.org/>).

Nostalgia: A preference (general liking, positive attitude or favourable affect) toward objects (people, places or things) that were more common (popular, fashionable or widely circulated) when one was younger (in early adulthood, in adolescence, in childhood or even before birth) (Holbrook & Schindler, 1991).

Rural tourism: Any tourism activity that takes place in rural areas (commission of the European Communities, 1986)

SME (Small Medium Enterprise): Enterprises with less than 10 employees (micro), less than 50 employees (micro) or less than 250 employees (small) (EU, 2009).

SNS (Southampton Nostalgia Scale): is a 5 item scale that measures nostalgia proneness (Zhou et al, 2008).

Travel constraints: “factors that are assumed by researchers and/ or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/ or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure.” (Jackson, 2000: 62 cited by Jackson, 2005).

UNESCO (The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization): was created on 16 November 1945. UNESCO works to create the conditions for dialogue among civilizations, cultures and peoples, based upon respect for commonly shared values. It is through this dialogue that the world can achieve global visions of sustainable development encompassing observance of human rights, mutual respect and the alleviation of poverty, all of which are at the heart of UNESCO’S mission and activities (<http://www.unesco.org/new/en/unesco/>).

UNWTO (United Nations World Travel Organization): an intergovernmental organization that serves as a global forum for tourism policy and issues (<http://unwto.org/>).

USA (United States of America): The United States of America (also called the United States, the U.S., the USA, America, and the States) is a federal constitutional republic comprising fifty states and a federal district. The country is situated mostly in central North America, where its forty-eight contiguous states and Washington, D.C., the capital

district, lie between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, bordered by Canada to the north and Mexico to the south. The state of Alaska is in the northwest of the continent, with Canada to the east and Russia to the west across the Bering Strait. The state of Hawaii is an archipelago in the mid-Pacific. The country also possesses several territories in the Pacific and Caribbean. At 3.79 million square miles (9.83 million km²) and with over 312 million people, the United States is the third or fourth largest country by total area, and the third largest by both land area and population. It is one of the world's most ethnically diverse and multicultural nations, the product of large-scale immigration from many countries. The U.S. economy is the world's largest national economy, with an estimated 2011 GDP of \$15.1 trillion (22% of nominal global GDP and over 19% of global GDP at purchasing-power parity) (http://www.census.gov/geo/www/cob/cs_metadata.html).

ZTPI (Zimbardo's Time Perspective Inventory): is an instrument that aims to assess individual differences in terms of attitudes believed to identify persons of past, present or future orientation (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999).

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The willingness of North American tourists to visit rural Europe

Europe is characterized by a large cultural diversity, with varying metropolitan and rural landscapes, and vibrant costumes and languages. Europe is the world's most visited macro-destination; however, according to UNWTO (ETC, 2008), 87% of all international tourist arrivals in Europe come from within the European region and only 12% arrive from other regions (the origin of the 1% remaining was not specified). The growth of long-haul travel to Europe is often unevenly distributed, with one or two market regions contributing to the bulk of the increase in that kind of travel. Americas are the most important source of inter-regional visitors to Europe and USA, in particular, remain by far Europe's largest single long-haul market country. According to ETC "In addition to history, culture and gastronomy American and Canadian travellers strongly associate Europe with scenic beauty – in its landscapes, small towns and villages, and even its cities. Scenic beauty is one of the few topics on which the trade and consumer findings differ. Members of the trade were somewhat less likely to cite scenic beauty as a top-of-mind association with Europe, perhaps because many European tour products have a predominantly urban focus" (ETC, 2004:77). Although package holidays have expanded enormously in the tourism industry (Rewtrakunphaiboon & Oppewal, 2008) and North American organized mass tourists constitute an important market for Europe, little research has been done neither about the characteristics of this market segment nor about the potential to expand the independent North American traveller market. What is known is that the long-haul market typically visits the most important cities in Europe, neglecting its rural areas, which may be due to the organization of package tours, thought, rather than a lack of interest of the market. According to a study of ETC-UNWTO (2011: 1) "Europe remains an inspirational 'must-see' destination for Americans. Its appeal is

deeply embedded in the American mind.”

Europe has a range of diversified tourism products but rural tourism and all associated with cultural products and experiences have registered very fast growth in demand. The declaration of Cork (Delgado et al, 2003) states that one quarter of the European population lives in rural areas which represent 80% of the European territory. This document, elaborated during the conference for rural development, shows that this territory is marked by a particular set of social, cultural and economic characteristics resulting in a great diversity of activities and landscapes (varying from forests, farms, villages, little towns and small industries). According to Gaffey (2004) “the rural” represents a liminal zone which is seen as occupying a ground between tradition and modernity and the societies they represent. During this project an ethnographic study was undertaken in the state of Pennsylvania, USA and it was observed that North Americans have some constraints to travel to Europe, but those who have European direct or remote origins, still maintain their ethnic identity. That is sometimes described as the ‘new white ethnic movement’ (Stein & Hill, 1977): the desire of white suburban, middle-class assimilated citizens, to effectively unassimilate themselves and recover a more distinct, particular ethnic identity among their social networks (Waters, 1990). Gans (1994) speaks of “symbolic ethnicity”: “The consumption and use of ethnic symbols intended mainly for the purpose of feeling or being identified with a particular ethnicity, but without participating in an existing ethnic organization (formal or informal) or practicing an on-going ethnic culture” (Gans, 1994:577-578). These symbolic identifications are “generally whimsical, and invoked at will for leisure, family events or during some holidays” (Waters, 1990). This selective attachment to one’s ethnic “roots” creates a desire to travel to experience or observe, first-hand, one’s uniqueness and distinction. This predisposition makes the nostalgic migrant an interesting market segment for countries with large diasporic communities; however, there is still much need for research examining how nostalgia works and how this sentiment can be leveraged by origin countries/regions to draw nostalgic migrants to countries of origin and to the respective touristic destinations.

According to Casey (1987), the 18th century philosophers Rousseau and Kant, argue that temporal distance was more related to nostalgia than spatial distance. Kant explains that when nostalgic people return home they feel often very disappointed but at the same time they feel cured. Casey (1987) explained that the history of nostalgia within philosophy hinges upon the role of place. While specific place diminished in stature during the eighteenth and nineteenth century, the desire for a return to imagination as the knowledge about the world increased. Put in another way, by the late eighteenth century, as the geographic site of home was stripped from nostalgia, it was replaced with a spiritual return, an attachment to a way of being in the world. Artists, unlike most philosophers, elevated and refined the uses of nostalgia in terms of actual homes, and if not in terms of descriptions of physical structures, then in terms of the hope of return – often in the face of great odds. With the contemporary geographical mobility the previous feelings of being un-rooted tended to erode (Holak & Havlena, 1992). Sedikies et al (2004; 2006) and Routledge et al (2008) focused on the construct for its positive and self-relevant implications and they found that from this perspective nostalgia serves four specific psychological functions: a) as a repository of positive feelings; b) as contributing to self-positivity; c) as strengthening social connectedness; and d) as eventually providing perceptions of meaning of life that facilitate coping with existential concerns. Nostalgia is a protection against loneliness which explains why this feeling is very common among migrants and minorities (Zhou et al, 2008). Proponents of the contemporary boom in nostalgia describe the phenomenon as a means by which people can preserve their identities while critics suggest that it is a social disease. That is, society has become obsessed with preservation of sanitised pasts striving for authenticity (Chostowska, 2010), while omitting to take account of the often difficult realities faced by our ancestors and the dystopian¹ reality of contemporary life (Turner, 1987).

In tourism it is relevant to study the non-visitors, which could be those who are not aware of the product, be past visitors who ceased to come back to the tourist

¹ Dystopia: a fictional society that is a direct contrast or exact opposite of human efforts to create a better or perhaps perfect society (Greenlee, 2006).

destination, or just infrequent visitors who may be struggling to visit the destination as often as they would like (Hudson & Gilbert, 2000). It is necessary to know what the main constraints to travel are, and the mediation factors that could transform a non-visitor into a repeat or frequent visitor. Travel constraints have been examined extensively in leisure studies (Huang & Hsu, 2009). That body of literature contains ample evidence that a perceived constraint has a negative effect on participation in leisure activities (Jackson, 2005; Virden & Walker, 2005). According to Crawford and Godbey (1987), constraints may be analysed considering three dimensions: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural (see also Nyaupane et al, 2004; Pennington-Gray & Kernstetter, 2002; Raymore, 2002; Jackson, 2005). But constraints are negotiable (Scott, 1991), as people modify their behaviours to pursue strategies that allow them to continue to travel. This process is fluid so that “variations in the reporting of constraints can be viewed not only as variations in the experience of constraints but also as variations in success in negotiating them” (Jackson et al, 1993: 6).

In this study a new model to study the intentions of North-American tourists to travel to rural Europe is proposed and examined. The proposed model resulted from insight gained through an exploratory qualitative study conducted in North America, and from a thorough revision of the literature. This model intends to explain the travel intentions of North-Americans to rural European destination through the interaction of nostalgia, travel constraints, negotiation and experience in travel.

According to Batcho (1998) individuals who often experience nostalgia also experience a need for achievement. Nostalgia is a complex emotion that can be triggered by a negative situation that needs to be mitigated. Zhou et al. (2008) showed in a study the possibility that nostalgia mitigates reductions in perceived social support caused by loneliness. In a study using 758 Chinese students that moved from rural areas to a city they verified that (1) loneliness was negatively associated with perceived social support, (2) loneliness was positively associated with nostalgia and (3) nostalgia was positively associated with perceived social support. Their study showed that, whereas the direct effect of loneliness is to decrease perceived social support, the indirect effect of

loneliness is to increase perceived social support onto both loneliness and nostalgia. Perceived constraints are a negative situation that could trigger nostalgia. In this way, perceived travel constraints reduce the intention to revisit rural places in Europe but when nostalgia mediates the effect the intention to return and visit rural Europe increases. For Schalock et al (2010) it is important to understand the role of mediators and moderators of personal outcomes since that knowledge indicates the maturity of a discipline, and is also at the heart of model development and theory construction in social science (Cohen et al, 2003). The mediation effect could be increased with the existence of more determinants. So, the effect of the mediation in travel constraints through nostalgia can be increased by the experience in travel. In this model experience in travel is based in two concepts familiarity and expertise. According to Alba and Hutchinson (1987: 411), expertise is “the ability to perform product-related tasks successfully” in tourism is centered in level of the capacity of searching information about a tourist destination. Expertise, in this work, will be analyzed through self-confidence which reflects their perceived ability to travel successfully in a foreign environment. Familiarity in the context of consumer behaviour has been defined as “the number of product related experiences accumulated over time” (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987: 411). Some studies (Milberg et al, 1997; Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Jacoby et al. 1986) verified a positive relationship between product familiarity and expertise, thus increased product familiarity results in consumer expertise and a bigger willingness to consume. In the next, chapters it will be presented the literature review, the methodology used and the analysis to verify if this new model helps to explain the intentions of North-Americans to return to Europe and visit rural destinations.

1.2 Purpose of the study

North America is the biggest long haul tourist market to Europe, but the number of tourists has been decreasing over the last years and most of these trips are to cities. But in spite of the relevance of this market to Europe it has been understudied by researchers. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the role of travel constraints, nostalgia

and travel experience in shaping North American tourists' intentions to revisit rural European destinations. To pursue this purpose the following research questions are addressed:

RQ1. What is the definition and scope of nostalgia, and how can this construct be operationalized in the context of North American tourists returning to rural Europe?

Addressing RQ1 required following standard scale development steps as outlined by DeVellis (2003). Details on steps taken to develop the NOSTOUR scale are provided on Chapter 5.

To address RQ 1 the following hypotheses are tested:

- H1: Nostalgia evoked by tourism has four dimensions, namely, personal, intrapersonal, cultural and virtual
- H2: Past positive time perception is positively related to nostalgia

RQ2. To what extent do travel constraints, nostalgia and travel experience influence North American tourists' intentions to revisit rural destinations in Europe?

To address RQ2 the following hypotheses are tested:

- H3: Nostalgia has a positive direct effect on the intentions to return rural Europe
- H4: Travel constraints have a negative direct effect on intentions to return to rural Europe
- H5: Travel constraints have a positive direct effect on nostalgia
- H6: Nostalgia positively mediates the negative relationship between travel constraints and intentions to return to Europe
- H7: Constraints have a positive direct effect on negotiation
- H8: Negotiation has a positive direct effect on intentions to return to Europe
- H9: Experience in travel has a positive direct effect on intentions to return to rural Europe

1.3 Significance of the study

The growth of long Haul travel to Europe is often unevenly distributed, with one or two regions contributing to the bulk of the increase in travel. The Americas is the most important source of inter-regional tourists for Europe and USA remains by far Europe's largest single long-haul market. But despite these references of the relevance from this market in statistics there is a lack of studies about this subject. Most of the North Americans that visit Europe stay in urban areas which limit the potential effect of tourism to balance the economic growth in the European region, mostly in rural areas. If tourism is to truly be a positive force of equitable and balance development in Europe, then consumer behavior researchers must try to understand why they do not venture to the rural areas that allegedly have the traditional and authentic cultural capital that the nostalgic tourists want. This dissertation intends to contribute to the knowledge of the under-studied North-American market to Europe.

Therefore there is a need for more empirical research to understand the North-American market to Europe. Consumers may have a variety of reasons for buy this tourism product, which need to be analyzed. In this work the focus is on the role of nostalgia as a positive factor that could motivate this market to undertake travels to the rural European milieu. Despite of the references to nostalgia in tourism research, mainly in qualitative studies, relatively very little attention has been paid to the development of research tools of nostalgia for quantitative research on travel behavior. This study makes an effort to fill this gap. Therefore, there is a need to further understand the role of nostalgia for travel and discuss practical and research implications.

This study is not only significant for tourism marketers but also for academia. First, a nostalgia scale for travel has been developed in this study. Nostalgia has received considerable attention in sociology, anthropology, psychology, consumer behaviour, and marketing but not in tourism research. In this context, this work adds a fresh perspective of nostalgia as a determinant of travel behaviour to the evolving body of tourism literature. It provides a multi-item scale that can be adapted to other tourism contexts and

markets, as researchers attempt to understand this construct and its role in influencing tourist behaviour.

Second, North-Americans are a major long-haul market to Europe but there is very limited research about this market in particular. Moreover, the North American market is treated as a common mass market – consequently, most tourist behaviour research and practice dealing with North Americans fails to consider that this population is largely made up of people living in diaspora or descendants of first generation immigrants. This feature will surely influence consumer behaviour beyond looking at sanitized variables such as satisfaction, value, destination image and hedonistic motivations. According to Pearce et al (2011) at this moment one of the challenges faced by researchers interested in the study of motivations is to trace how motivation changes with experience and the role of emotions. Most of studies in positive psychology have addressed the effect of simple emotions, such as, contentment, joy, pride and interest in travel motivation, but there is a lack of studies analysing complex emotions like nostalgia. In this work are given insights about nostalgia as factor that could motivate individuals to travel to rural Europe. In USA, there is a large group of European descendants, designated as European Americans and this work intends to provide a contribution to the knowledge of factors that could improve the understanding of this North-American travellers.

Third, this study may have a specific value to travel agents and tour operators. It provides information about the profile of the North-American visitors that travel to Europe (in this case, Italy and Portugal). This study could give insights to travel agents and tour operators that intend to develop new products for the North-American tourist interested in Europe based on nostalgia. Based on the application of the here developed “nostalgia scale”, tour operators and travel agents could deeper the here initiated approach, identify distinct types or segments of nostalgia-driven tourists and thereby create more tailor –made sophisticated tourism products.

Fourth, this study can also help destination marketers in Europe to explore

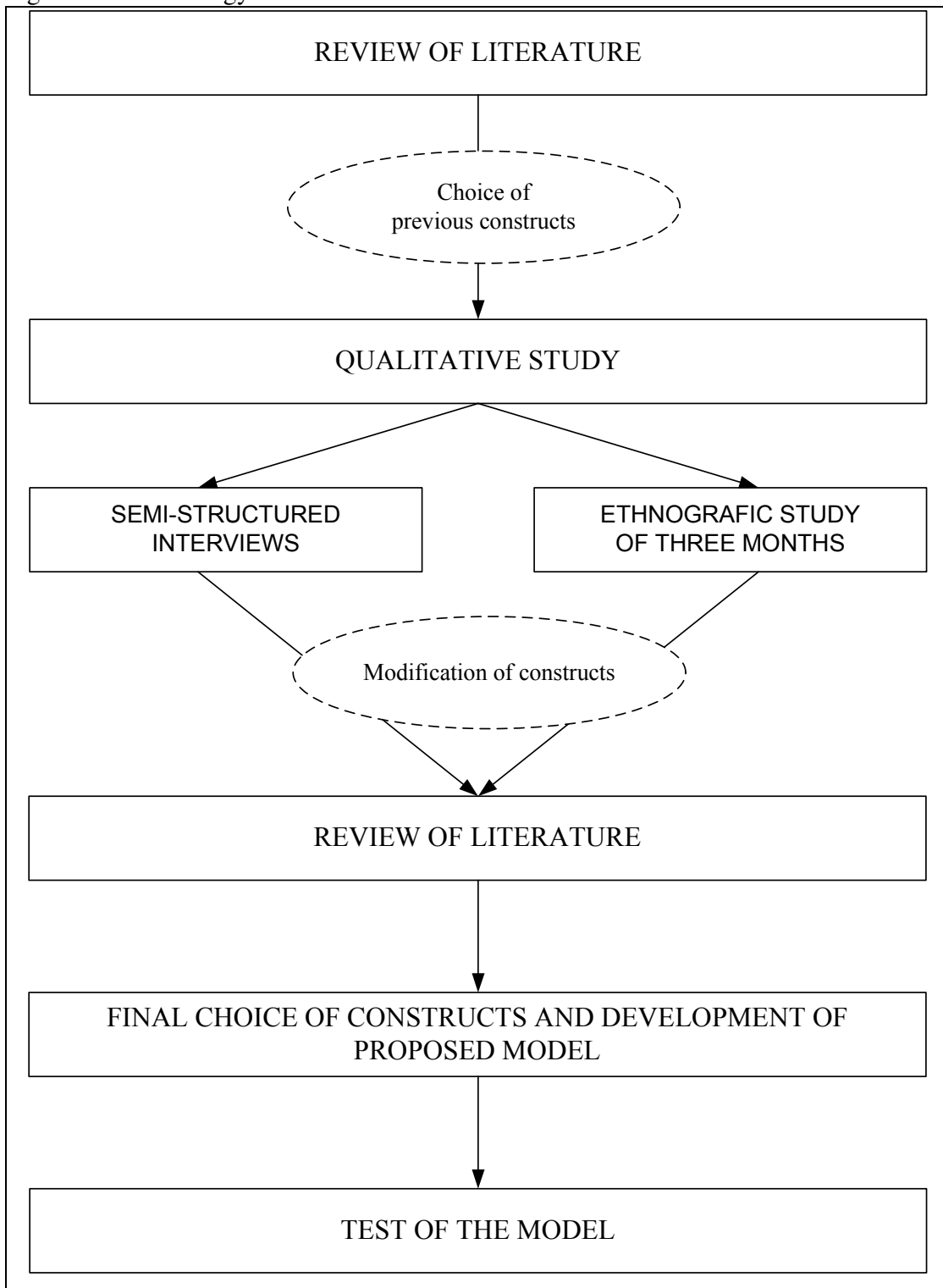
potential opportunities to expand to different markets, not only amongst the North-American, but also other tourists that could be nostalgia driven. Simultaneous the promotion efforts to these markets may be optimized, using nostalgia themes.

Finally, this study proposes a framework to analyse the role of nostalgia as a positive factor that could lead the North-American market to negotiate travel constraints and to undertake a repeat travel to rural Europe. In the tourism literature there is no previous work that has proposed a framework to analyse the intentions of the North-American market to visit rural Europe, and none is known that has addressed the role of nostalgia for visiting Europe.

1.4 Methodology

For to achieving the objectives of the thesis the methodology used is based on the application of a questionnaire-based survey. The research was done following several steps (see Figure 1) starting with an exploratory revision of literature. In the beginning the main theme of the thesis was multi-destination travel patterns of the North American market, a long-haul market to Europe. The first literature review showed an analysis of the travel patterns of this market to Europe could be difficult, since it is a large territory. The second step was based an exploratory study undertake for three months in a region of USA based on a qualitative technique, namely, participant observation and semi-structured interviews. From this study resulted the constructs that are the theoretical basis for the construction of the research framework. After a review of literature and the development of the proposed model it was used SPSS for the univariate analysis, EFA and t-tests and AMOS to develop CFA and SEM analysis.

Figure 1: Methodology of the work



1.5 Structure of the thesis

This dissertation follows the structure proposed by Altinay and Paraskevas (2008:228), namely: Cover page; Abstract; Acknowledgements; Table of contents; List of tables and figures; Introduction; Chapters of literature review; Chapter of methodology; Chapter of findings and discussion; Conclusion; References; Appendices. According to the authors this structure allows an easy reading of the work undertaken. This study is organized and presented as follows:

- Chapter 1-Introduction: presents the scope of the research. Introducing the main research objectives, significance of the study and methodology.
- Chapter 2: Overview of the study population – North American outbound travel market and rural tourism in Europe- In this chapter a revision of literature about the American market and the rural tourism in Europe it is presented focusing on the most relevant aspects necessary for the study.
- Chapter 3: Literature review - review of the literature related to the main constructs, namely nostalgia, time perspective, travel expertise, familiarity, travel constraints and negotiation.
- Chapter 4- Proposed framework and research hypothesis: presents the research hypotheses explained with a summarised theoretical background, the research framework and the operationalization of the constructs are also presented
- Chapter 5 Methodology: describes the methodology used in the dissertation. Here it is also presented the descriptions of the data collection, sample selection and statistical analysis procedures;
- Chapter 6- Statistical analysis: presents results of the statistical analysis, specifically descriptive analysis, as well as multivariate analysis (CFA and SEM).
- Chapter 7: Conclusions and implications: provides a summary and conclusions of the research, a discussion of managerial and theoretical implications, limitations and future research directions.
- The appendix includes a copy of the questionnaire and outputs of the statistical tests.

In the next chapter a brief revision of literature about the American outbound market and rural tourism in Europe will be presented followed by a brief theoretical overview about the constructs used in this dissertation.

CHAPTER 2
OVERVIEW OF STUDY POPULATION –NORTH AMERICAN OUTBOND
TRAVEL MARKET AND RURAL TOURISM IN EUROPE

2.1 The North American Market to Europe

International travel and tourism has grown at a rapid rate since the end of the Second World War which marked the beginning of modern international tourism (Crouch, 1994). Jud (1974:22 cited by Crouch, 1994) suggests that

“Many factors common to modern industrial societies have contributed to the growth of foreign tourism. Increasing urbanization, population and leisure time have all stimulated the desire of individuals in the developed countries for foreign travel. Rising incomes and declining costs of international travel have also contributed significantly to the rapid expansion of international tourism”.

In the context of international tourism, long-haul travel stands out for several reasons. Long-haul travel can be defined as an inter-regional travel of at least six hours of duration (Harrison-Hill, 2001). Long-haul tourism is characterized not only by long outward and return flights but also by qualitative features: the further people travel from home, the more intense their desire to see and experience, be active and make the best of the short time available. Studies also show that long distance travellers have different requirements and behavioural characteristics from people holidaying closer to home (Müller, 1997). McKercher and Du Cross (2003) note that short-haul visitors to Hong Kong came primarily for rest, relaxation and escapism, while long-haul visitors search more altruistic benefits, including learning about different cultures or improving their own knowledge.

According to several authors, the pattern of visiting several destinations during one holiday trip is more evident for tourists that have to overcome longer distances (Tye, 1989; Dellaert *et al*, 1998). However, this reality has not attracted much attention amongst researchers and several authors underline the need to understand this type of

travel behaviour more profoundly. Particularly in the European context this subject theme is increasingly recognized as most relevant, but still not very much explored, given the tendency for longer stays of the long –haul market.

According to ITA (2009) the main purpose of the overseas trip was leisure/recreation/holiday for 40 percent of the travellers, the same as in 2009. VFR (visit friends and relatives) was the second highest main purpose of trip at 37 percent, up from 34 percent. Business travel comprised 16 percent of outbound travel, down 2 percentage points from 2008. The Overall U.S. outbound market totalled in 2009 about 61.453 million travellers, down by three percent compared to 2008. The most relevant countries are shown in Table 1, were the neighbouring countries, Mexico and Canada stand out as the main foreign destinations of US residents (however suffering a decrease of 4% and 11%, respectively from 2008 to 2009) Within Europe the main destinations are United Kingdom, France, Italy and Germany, however all of these destinations suffering a decrease between 2008 and 2009. According to Javalgi et al (1992), many European countries had been successful in attracting large number of American tourists, because much of the US population growth has been the result of the legal immigration to the USA for permanent settlement.

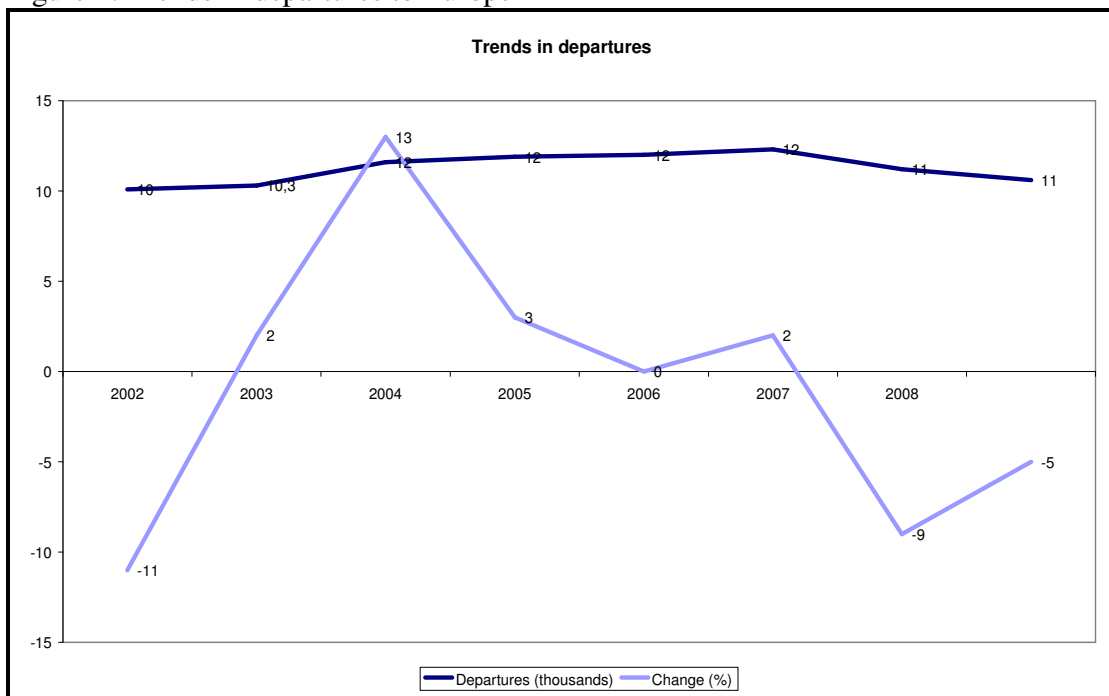
Table 1: Rank of the 15 main destinations of US residents travelling abroad (Outbound 2008/2009)

Rank	Country	2008	2009	% change (2008/2009)
1	Mexico	20.271	19.452	-4
2	Canada	12.504	5.264	-11
3	United Kingdom	2.894	11.667	-7
4	France	2.124	3.280	-9
5	Italy	1.940	2.727	-6
6	Germany	1.601	1.909	-10
7	Japan	1.601	1.848	-5
8	Dominican Republic	*	1.545	Na
9	Jamaica	1.447	1.515	-2
10	People's Republic of China	1.201	1.454	-2
11	Spain	1.139	1.424	1
12	India	1.016	1.151	4
13	Hong Kong	924	1.061	-15
14	Netherlands	893	788	-19
15	Brazil	*	727	Na
15	Israel	616	667	8
15	Republic of Korea	616	667	8

Source: ITA, 2011

As visible in Figure 12 the number of departures to Europe has increased between 2002 and 2004 but has been decreasing since then. Between 2008 and 2009 there was a growth of four percent in the volume of departures. Because of the September 11 (2001) events, tourism decreased, but as shown in the Figure 12 it started to recover in 2002. The devaluation of the U.S. dollar relatively to the Euro leads to a loss of purchasing power of the North-American market and to a decrease in tourism trips to Europe.

Figure 2: Trends in departures to Europe



Source: ITA, 2011

The most relevant European tourist destinations for the North-American market, in 2009 (see Table 2), were basically located in Western Europe (92.5%), namely, the United Kingdom (25.67%), France (17.9%), Italy (17.5%), Germany (14.6%) and Spain (10.7%). According to the ETC (2011), arrivals from the US accelerated in 2010, but the ash cloud phenomenon, occurred in April, has slowed down the trend in that period. In 2009 the world economy faced a financial and economic crisis, but according to Smeral (2009), the crisis should affect more the short distance and short-haul travel, rather than

the long-distance destinations. This author suggests that tourists will tend to undertake a longer trip, rather than several short trips along the year.

Table 2: Visitation to Europe: main destinations

Destinations	Market Share 2008 (%)	Vol 2008 (000)	Market Share 2009 (%)	Vol 2009 (000)
Europe		11.238		10.635
Western Europe	93.2	10.474	92.5	9.838
United Kingdom	25.7	2.888	25.6	2.723
France	19.1	2.146	17.9	1.904
Italy	17.3	1.944	17.5	1.861
Germany	14.3	1.607	14.6	1.553
Spain	10.0	1.124	10.7	1.138
Netherlands	8.1	910	6.8	723
Greece	4.5	506	5.6	596
Ireland	6.1	686	5.4	574
Switzerland	5.6	629	4.4	468
Austria	3.8	427	3.6	383
Other Western Europe	3.2	360	3.3	351
Eastern Europe	10.7	1.202	12.1	1.287
Czech Republic	3.0	337	3.2	340
Russia	2.7	303	2.7	287
Poland	2.1	236	2.3	245

Source: ITA, 2011

Most of the US tourists that travelled to Europe in 2009 did come from the Middle Atlantic Region² (30.3%), South Atlantic Region³ (25.3%) and the Pacific Region⁴ (14.1%). The US outbound market is not mature yet, because only about 20% has travelled abroad. The US State Department estimates that approximately 68-70 million US citizens possess passports, a figure equivalent to around 30% of the total population (Intel, 2006). Most of these passports belong to residents in California, New York, Florida and Texas, which are the top four regions for travel out of the US. In 2009 the state of New York State (17.0%) was the primary source of US outbound travellers,

² The Mid-Atlantic States, also called Middle Atlantic States or simply the mid Atlantic, form a region of the states generally located between New England and the South. Its exact definition differs upon source, but the region typically includes Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Washington D.C., Virginia, New York, West Virginia.

³ The South Atlantic States include eight states and one district; Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia.

⁴ The Pacific States form one of the nine geographic divisions within the United States that are officially recognized by that country's census bureau. There are five states in this division — Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, Washington — and, as its name suggests, they all have coastlines on the Pacific Ocean (and are the only American states that border that ocean).

followed by California (10.7%) and Florida (9.4%). Correspondingly, these states' main airports are the busiest in terms of outgoing US traffic. New York City was in 2009 the most relevant city in terms of US outbound travel to Europe.

Figure 3: Map of USA



Source: <http://www.united-states-map.com/usa7243z.htm>

Table 3: Residence of US travellers that travelled to Europe (2008/2009)

Residence	Market Share 2008 (%)	Vol 2008 (000)	Market Share 2009 (%)	Vol 2009 (000)
Regions				
Midle Atlantc	34.1	3.832	30.3	3.223
South Atlantic	18.5	2.079	25.3	2.691
Pacific	17.2	1.933	14.1	1.500
East North Central	8.8	989	7.8	830
New England	8.9	1.000	7.3	776
West South Central	4.7	528	5.3	564
Mountain	3.5	393	5.1	542
States				
New York	17.8	2.000	17.0	1.808
California	13.3	1.495	10.7	1.138
Florida	6.9	775	9.4	1.000
Pennsylvania	9.0	1.011	7.2	766
New Jersey	7.2	809	6.1	649
Georgia	1.1	124	4.1	436
Texas	3.9	438	4.1	436
Virginia	3.4	382	3.9	415
Illinois	3.8	427	3.7	394
Connecticut	3.2	360	3.2	340
Maryland	2.6	292	3.0	319
Massachusetts	4.0	450	3.0	319
Cities				
New York City	14.5	1.629	14.0	1.489
Philadelphia	5.6	629	4.1	436
DC Metro Area	2.7	303	3.2	340
Atlanta	0.8	90	2.8	298
Chicago	2.9	326	2.8	298

Source: ITA, 2011

According Han et al (2004), the world's top tourism spenders in 2002 were the US Travellers. The US is the world's second-largest spender on tourism, and the third-largest in terms of outbound traveller volume after Germany and UK (Laitamaki, 2009). Table 3 shows that between 2001 and 2002 there was a decrease of the payments for travel to Europe (associable to 11 Sep.), between 2003 and 2008 expenses had increased but in 2009 suffered a decrease from the previous year by 19%. In 2009 the economic and financial crisis and the swine flu pandemic have had significantly negative impacts on tourism (Page et al, 2011) explaining this big decrease. Still, the overall trend between

2002 and 2009 is positive by an average of five percent.

Table 4: Trends in payments (Millions os US dollars)

Payments									Trends
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2009/ 2002
Total									
travel and tourism payments	\$30.769	\$30.986	\$34.796	\$34.656	\$36.826	\$30.374	\$40.069	\$32.337	\$1.568
Travel payments	\$20.785	\$19.923	\$22.038	\$23.273	\$22.829	\$24.345	\$24.769	\$20.271	\$64
Passenger fare payments	\$9.984	\$11.063	\$12.758	\$13.383	\$13.997	\$14029	\$15.300	\$11.616	\$1.632
% Change in total payments	-11	1	12	5	0	4	4	-19	5

Source: ITA, 2011

The American travellers to Europe are in the average aged between 45 and 48 years, and are equally distributed between male and female (see Table 5). According to Laitamaki (2009) the baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964), with both time and money for travel, are the most important segment of the US outbound market. Mintel 2008 (cited by Laitamaki, 2009) quotes that younger Baby Boomers (44-54), are more inclined than older ones (55-62) to travel abroad. The average household income has decreased from 2008 to 2009, with a mean average of US \$106.800 per year

Table 5: Socio-demographic characteristics of US residents travelling to Europe (2008/2009)

	2008	2009	Point change
Gender (%)			
Male	50	46	-4.1 pts
Female	50	54	-4.1 pts
Average Age			
Male	48	47	-0.9
Female	46	45	-1.2
Household income			
Mean average	\$123.100	\$116.000	-\$7.100
Median average	\$115.400	\$106.800	-\$8.600

Source: ITA, 2011

According to ITA (2011) before to travel to Europe 47% of North-Americans look for information to plan the trip through personal computer (47%), directly from airlines (27%), about 26% requested information from the services of a travel agency and 15% had used informal sources of recommendations by family and friends (see Table 6), with most planning their trip more than 3 months abroad.

Table 6: Travel behaviour of US residents in Europe (before the trip)

	2008 (%)	2009 (%)	Point change
Information sources used to plan trip (multiple response: top 4 of 12)			
Personal computer	45	47	2.6
Airlines directly	26	27	1.1
Travel Agency	25	26	0.5
Friends/ relatives	13	15	1.9
Advance trip decision time			
mean days	114	103	-10.4 days
median days	90	75	-15.0 days
Prepaid package	15%	12%	-2.6 points
First International Trip	5%	8%	2.4 points

Source: ITA, 2011

Most of the North Americans that travelled to Europe between 2008 and 2009 were in leisure, recreations or holidays (43%). The travel for to visit friends and relatives was also a very important motivation (17%) followed by business and professional travels (17%).

Table 7: Travel behaviour of US residents in Europe (during the trip)

	2008 (%)	2009 (%)	Point change
Main purpose of trip (top 4 of 8)			
Leisure/ recreation/ holidays	43	43	0.3
Visit friends and relatives	28	32	4.2
Business/ professional	20	17	-3.9
Study/ teaching	5	5	-0.5
Transportation used within Europe (multiple response: top 5 of 8)			
Taxi/ cab/ limousine	41	38	-2.1
Airlines outside USA	40	37	-2.5
City subway/ tram/ bus	30	31	1.1
Railroad between cities	30	29	-1.5
Company or private auto	22	25	2.8
Activity participation within Europe (multiple response: top 10 of 25)			
Dining in restaurants	86	85	-0.2
Shopping	72	75	2.6
Visit historical places	69	70	0.4
Sightseeing in cities	53	53	0.4
Visit small towns	53	53	0.4
Cultural heritage sites	40	42	1.8
Art gallery/ museum	42	41	-0.6
Touring countryside	41	40	-1.0
Guided tours	21	21	-0.1
Nightclubs/ dancing	18	19	1.5
Length of Stay			
mean nights	18.2	18.3	0.1 nights
median nights	11	11	0 nights
Number of countries visited (% of one country)			
	68%	70%	1.5 pts
Average number of destinations visited			
	2.1	2.1	0.0
Hotel/ Motel (% of 1 or more nights)			
	67%	61%	-6.2 pts.
Average number of nights in Hotel/ Motel			
	9.2	8.5	-0.7 nights
Travel Party Size (mean number of persons)			
	1.5	1.5	0.0
Household			
mean average	\$123.100	\$116.800	-\$7.100
median average	\$115.400	\$106.800	-\$8.600

Source: ITA, 2011

Most of the trips undertaken within Europe were done by public transportation

taxi (38%), Airlines (37%), City subway (31% and railroad (29%). The trend of using mostly cars to travel inside the US does not apply to the travelling within Europe where just 25% of the travellers chose this mode of transportation. In 2009, the most popular tourist activities done in Europe vary from dining in restaurants (85%), shopping (75%), visit historical places (70%), sightseeing in cities (53%), visit small towns (53%), visit cultural heritage sites (42%), visit art galleries and museums (41%) and touring in the countryside (40%). These activities may reveal a predominant movement to cities, where most of these attractions and facilities are concentrated. However, also potentialities for the countryside should be acknowledged, where some historical cultural heritage sites are located, unique gastronomy may be tasted and traditional products (e.g. handcraft be purchased).

2.2 Ethnic diversity of US and its relevance to tourism

According to Singh and Gopal (2002) since the inception of its immigration policy, the US has increasingly become a country of multiple ethnicity and diversity. The US achieved independence in 1776, (Conlin, 2010; Edling, 2003). The first immigrants that came to America were of French, English and Dutch origin, but gradually people from all over Europe found themselves attracted to America. American immigration has undergone several overhauls and changes since its inception. Today US immigration policy allows qualified individuals from all nations and all races migrate to the US. According to the Census Bureau's 2009 American Community Survey, the US immigrant population accounted for 12.5% of the total US population. Between 2008 and 2009 the number of foreign born living in the United States increased by 1.5% (about 556,000 people). In general, the number of immigrants living in the United States remained virtually flat in 2007, 2008, and 2009, but, according to the MPI (2011) the data show that immigration may be on the upswing again after the number of foreign born fell by 100,000 people between 2007 and 2008, from 38,059,694 to 37,960,935. While this was not a conspicuous change relative to the overall size of the immigrant population, the drop was in sharp contrast with the rapid increase in the immigrant population — about 1 million per year — recorded during the last two decades. In this case, what could be seen

as "no change" was in fact a fairly substantial change indeed. According to the MPI (2011) Mexican-born immigrants accounted for 29.8 percent of all foreign born residing in the United States in 2009, by far the largest immigrant group in the United States. The Philippines accounted for 4.5 percent of all foreign born, followed by India and China (excluding Hong Kong and Taiwan) with 4.3 percent and 3.7 percent, respectively. These four countries — together with Vietnam (3.0 percent), El Salvador (3.0 percent), Korea (2.6 percent), Cuba (2.6 percent), Canada (2.1 percent), and the Dominican Republic (2.1 percent) — made up 57.7 percent of all foreign born residing in the United States in 2009. The predominance of immigrants from Mexico and Asian countries in the early 21st century starkly contrasts with the trend seen in 1960, when immigrants were more likely to be from European countries. Italian-born immigrants made up 13.0 percent of all foreign born in 1960, followed by those born in Germany and Canada (accounting for 10.2 and 9.8 percent, respectively). Unlike in 2009, no single country accounted for more than 15.0 percent of the total immigrant population in 1960 (MPI, 2011).

The United States is known as a nation of immigrants and almost every person in the United States is descended from someone who arrived from another country. (Raymond, 2001). There is still a large number of European migrants that came every year to USA most with academic skills that work in well paid jobs and who have a huge willingness to travel to Europe for holidays. But today the overwhelming majority of white ethnics of European extraction are third, fourth and later-generation Americans (Waters, 1990). Most of these European Americans are now successful professionals but “contrary to what some of the theorists predicted and hoped for those Americans have not given up their ethnic identity” (Waters, 1990: 3). That is sometimes described as the ‘new white ethnic movement’ (Stein & Robert, 1997): the desire of white suburban, middle-class, assimilated citizens to effectively unassimilated⁵ themselves and recover a more

⁵ According to Brown and Bean (2006) assimilation, sometimes known as integration or incorporation, is the process by which the characteristics of members of immigrant groups and host societies come to resemble one another. That process, which has both economic and socio-cultural dimensions, begins with the immigrant generation and continues through the second generation and beyond. Although the experiences of European groups coming to the United States in the early-20th century suggest that full assimilation generally occurs within three to four generations, no fixed timetable governs completion of the process. For example, recent historical research by sociologist Sharon L. Sassler on European immigrants to the United States has shown that, in 1920, the educational attainment of even third-generation Irish and

distinct, particular ethnic identity (Waters, 2001), choose from one of their grandparents. Stein and Hill (1977) argue that the suburban middle class of later generations and of mixed ancestry have what they call “dime store ethnicity⁶”, they choose an ancestor to identify with and thus become symbolically descendant of that group, as if they had bought a product in a dime store. These authors distinguish the Euro-Americans in two distinct groups: (a) “unreal” ethnicity, the “dime store ethnics”, they are fake because consciously choose an ethnicity and parade with it in public; (b) “real ethnics” are real because they are not conscious of the subtle influence their ethnic heritage continues to assert in their daily lives. The designation of European Americans has been given by Richard Alba (1990) in the book “Ethnic Identity: The Transformation of White America”. In his work the author argues that the American melting pot has been a roaring success, so long as its ingredients have been white. With the exception of Jews, virtually every group of European immigrants has, within three generations, become largely indistinguishable from the others. The ultimate test of assimilation is the ease and frequency of intermarriage. On this score, there is virtually no European group that has failed to mingle with the rest. Three quarters of the marriages of white people today cut across lines of European nationality. Indeed, as the author argues, at this rate the very

Germans lagged well behind that of whites who had been in the country more than three generations (Brown and Bean, 2006). The process is complex. In 1993, Nathan Glazer (cited by Brown and Bean, 2006) published an influential essay titled "Is Assimilation Dead?" Glazer argued that, in general, the answer was no. Alejandro Portes and Min Zhou (1993, cited by Brown and Bean, 2006) introduced the concept of segmented assimilation, which stressed a three-part path: assimilation for those with advantages in human capital, ethnic disadvantage for some because of poverty and racialization, and the selective retention of ethnicity for yet others. Thus began a re-examination of assimilation theory, with new stress on institutional roles and the contingent nature of ethnic identification.

⁶ Ethnicity is a fundamental category of social organization which is based on membership defined by a sense of common historical origins and which may also include shared culture, religion or language. It is to be distinguished from kinship in so far as kinship depends on biological inheritance. The term is derived from the Greek noun *ethnos*, which may be translated as ‘a people or nation’. One of the most influential definitions of ethnicity can be found in Max Weber’s *Economy and Society* (1968 [1922]) where he describes ethnic groups as ‘human groups (other than kinship groups) which cherish a belief in their common origins of such a kind that it provides a basis for the creation of a community’. The difficulty in reaching a precise definition of the term is reflected in the many different words employed in the literature to describe related or similar concepts, such as race and nation. While usage varies, ‘race’, like kinship, has biological connotations, although these are frequently without foundation, and nation implies a political agenda—the goal of separate statehood beyond that generally associated with ethnic groups. According to Weber (1968 [1922]), ‘a nation is the political extension of the ethnic community as its members and leadership search for a unique political structure by establishing an independent state’. In predominantly immigrant societies, like the USA, Argentina, Australia and Canada, the study of ethnic groups forms a central theme of their social, economic and political life (Stone & Rutledge, 2003)

notion of European ethnicity is blurring.

According to Gans (1994: 577-578) ethnicity has become mostly subjective identity for contemporary white European Americans. For this author later-generation white ethnics may practice what he calls symbolic ethnicity, “The consumption and use of ethnic symbols intended mainly for the purpose of feeling or being identified with a particular ethnicity, but without participating in an existing ethnic organization (formal or informal) or practicing an ongoing ethnic culture.” He views this symbolic identification as more or less leisure time activity. For instance, an individual identify as Irish on occasions such as Saint Patrick’s Day, on family’s holidays, or for vacations. For this group, later generation of white European Americans, ethnicity is something that not influences their life unless they want it. Ethnicity as become a subjective identity, invoked at will by the individual (Waters, 2001). Ethnicity in the United States is being transformed among white European Americans and symbolic ethnicity is one outcome of such a transformation (Smith & Hendry, 2007; Smith, 2009).

For Coleman and Rainwater (1978:11 cited by Waters, 2001) ethnicity adds emotion to an otherwise bland existence, that ethnic identity is important to people because “it gives a sense of heritage and roots to a highly mobile population. If people no longer perceive a threat to their individual life from ethnic discrimination, their ethnic identity can be used at will and discarded when its psychological or social purpose is fulfilled (Waters, 2001). *“Perhaps this sense of exile evinced by many informants is less a result of any historical trauma than that consequence of modernity described by Peter Berger et al. as ‘a metaphysical loss of “home”’*” (Basu: 2005:145), that leads to nostalgia. Basu (2005) studied the phenomena of “roots tourism” in the Scottish Highlands with descendants (or partly-descendants) from Australia, Canada, New Zealand and USA and he found out that their imaginary about certain historic events was different from the way those events were related in Scotland. This “different reality” came from the histories eared, books and films. This travel to see “roots places” is influenced by different types of nostalgia, namely, cultural nostalgia with the influence made by histories and imaginary told in certain communities about their roots of the country they migrated; Virtual nostalgia, the history these migrants read in books and saw

in films, television and other media; and by intrapersonal nostalgia, the stories their familiars told them. It is relevant to analyse this attachment to their roots of European Americans in order to maximize this tourist market to Europe.

2.3 Rural Tourism in Europe

2.3.1 A brief history of rural tourism and recreation

According to Hall and Page (2006) the rural environments in the developed and developing world have a long history of being used for tourism and recreational activities. Towner (1996) in his work “An historical geography of the recreation and tourism world 1540-1940”⁷ documents some historical changes and factors that have shaped tourism and leisure in the rural environment. The author indicates that in certain periods of history the rural landscape has been very fashionable and developed for the use of social elites, the affluent began to move from town to the country side for tourism purposes (rest and relaxation), on both a short-term and long-term basis. This led to the building of rural villas from the Roman period to the Renaissance and again in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, creating exclusive forms of rural recreation. In Italy, the process of withdrawing to a country side villa was called *villeggiatura* during the Renaissance.

In England, the sale of Church lands after the dissolution of the monasteries by Henry VIII freed vast areas of land that provided the basis for country estates as places for recreation and tourism (Page, 2009). According to Roberts and Hall (2001), until the late eighteenth century opportunities to participate in recreation and tourism in rural areas were very limited. In this period travel was very slow, uncomfortable and frequently dangerous, particularly in upland and forested areas. The “Grand Tour” in Europe, undertaken by British upper classes between the mid sixteenth and eighteenth centuries

⁷ His work links historical and geographical approaches to the growth of tourism in the UK, Europe and North America.

and thereafter by the middle classes, incorporated a special interest in rural environments which contained elements of romanticism and scenery (Towner, 1985). In the nineteenth century there was a rise of visits to the countryside by the middle classes often promoted by the popular culture of the period, but also, by rural migrants or descendants that were travelling to rural space at least to visit friends and family. From the 1840s, with the rise of the train travel became easier and safer, and the remote areas started to become more accessible.

In the twentieth century questions of access to rural places and the preservation of valued landscapes were becoming popular issues (Roberts & Hall, 2001). That led, for instance, in England to the creation of the principle of recreational access to the UK National Parks and access to the Countryside Act of 1949 and to similar principles in other European countries. Due to substantial changes in agriculture and forestry occurring in the second half of the twentieth century, many landed states developed for recreational purposes rendered economically unviable and were sold for agriculture and other purposes. In Europe many peripheral rural areas started to suffer from human desertification due to the lack of job opportunities and economic viability of traditional activities like traditional agriculture and pastoralism.

In the last decades a growing demand for alternative forms of tourism is observable, with rural areas becoming more and more searched and chosen as tourist destinations, mainly for the contact with traditional ways of life, traditions and outdoor recreational opportunities by the so called postmodern tourists (Cawley, 2010; Lane, 2009; Kastenholz et al, 2011; Frochot, 2004; Kastenholz et al, 1999). At the same time there is a growing interest of the national and local authorities in developing tourism in rural areas, shared with the interest in taking advantages of the funds available for rural tourism projects, mainly through the European Union initiatives.

2.3.2 Rural tourism

For Figueiredo and Raschi (2011) the continuing loss of economic and social relevance of agricultural activities and the awareness of the environmental and social importance of rural areas has led to the conception of the rural as a multifunctional space. Oliver and Jenkins (2003) conceptualize 'the rural' as no longer synonymous of agriculture, but as a rapidly changing concept that is reflected in the landscape as well as in rural demography, employment, mobility and consumption. Nowadays, the isolation and remoteness of rural represent peace, difference, even exoticism. And, rurality means nature - for mental contemplation, aesthetic appreciation or physical activity (Brown & Hall, 1999). As Figueiredo and Raschi (2011:16) quote "rural areas,..., are increasingly perceived and valued for their environmental and traditional qualities which are frequently and globally translated, in social narratives and representations, by the expression rural idyll". In this context, 'rural tourism' is not restricted to farm-based or agro-tourism, and can encompass all tourism based in, and making use of, rural landscapes and resources. Rural tourism in the last years has played an important role in Europe at the level of the economic restructuring of rural areas (Paniagua, 2002; Jenkins et al, 1998). According to Paniagua (2002), several strategic documents of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) have proposed that rural tourism should be integrated with agricultural activities in a process of diversification (Commission of the European Communities 1985, 1988).

Once spontaneous and marginal, rural tourism is now characterized by a specialized activity that is having a significant impact on rural areas. According to Pulina et al (2006) the annual expenditure in rural tourism is approximately 12 billion Euros and, taking into account added value and multiplier effects, brings the figure close to 26 billion Euros. Furthermore, an estimated 500.000 jobs have been created by rural tourism. The countries of Europe contain many diverse rural cultures, which present wide-ranging development opportunities for small-scale, high income, locally controlled tourism generation (Hall, 2004).

Due to the differences amongst rural places, characteristics and cultural backgrounds in different countries, and the whole range of activities that can be undertaken making rural tourism very diversified, addressing diverse needs of a heterogeneous market (Frochot, 2005; Barke, 2004).

The OECD's Council on Rural development agreed that rural areas should be classified as (OECD, 1993 in Lane, 2009: 355):

- Economically Integrated Areas: close to cities and towns, rural in appearance but economically and culturally close to cities. These areas tend to have high levels of day visit tourism, and tend to have farm economies increasingly related to visitation pressures to both use and conserve landscapes can be considerable.
- Intermediate Areas: the rural heartland, comprising the majority of rural land, relatively distant from urban areas with largely agricultural/ forestry land uses. Here tourism tends to be largely in terms of overnight stays, with growth concentrated in scenic areas, often in protected areas, often in protected areas with heritage/ cultural strengths, and areas with special qualities and niche market attractions such as bird breeding/ feeding grounds, or cycling routes. Intermediate areas with good road, rail or even air connections can be especially attractive in tourism terms.
- Remote areas: often sparsely populated, far from major urban areas, often with low quality land, from the third part of the typology. Tourism in remote rural areas functions largely as a result of outstanding natural heritage and scenery, but also as a niche market for those who wish to escape into a quiet zone, away from pressures of modern life.

For Lane (2004), this multifaceted characteristic renders a definition problematic, but nevertheless this author identifies four criteria to qualify rural tourism:

- Tourism taking place in rural areas, built upon the specificities of the rural world (open space, rural heritage, ...);
- Rural in scale (usually implying small scale);
- Representing the complex pattern of the rural world (environment, economy,

history and location).

This definition focuses on the fact that rural tourism is based on a multiple choice of options a tourist disposes of rural a destination. Hall (2004) distinguishes three main critical issues in the rural tourism development:

- (i) Although visitors are attracted to rural areas by their distinctive regional, social and cultural heritage, landscape qualities and perceived cleaner environment, these very qualities may be threatened by the impacts of tourism and recreational activity;
- (ii) Training for rural tourism provision is often not available or not taken up to assist improvement in the quality and appropriateness of rural tourism products;
- (iii) Rural tourism products can be relatively isolated and in most cases will benefit from collaboration and networking in promotion and marketing.

As a matter of fact, one of the most striking weaknesses of rural tourism businesses has been identified as the individual owners' inability to market their property and associated services adequately (Cai, 2002). Rural tourism businesses are largely Small and Medium Enterprises being estimated in two-and-a-half million and 81,5% are included in the micro category of employees. (Mitchel & Hall, 2005). The fragmentation and small scale of rural tourism businesses, associated with a general lack of resources, leads to an increasing call for integrated destination planning and management, stimulated by network approaches (Hegarty & Prezezborka, 2005) In this context, joining forces with partners and a better use of integrated marketing strategies and action may reduce the isolation of small rural businesses and enable them to use resources more effectively, which in the end may be the key factor of success of rural tourism as a development tool (Fra, 2004; Moutinho, 2000; Rodrigues et al, 2009).

The European Union has, amongst other initiatives, has given considerable support to the integration of projects that use the networks methodology in the rural context, aggregating projects in different countries in the European Union, for example the European Village Tourism Network. Based on these supports and incentives new

rural destinations have emerged, many of them associated in networks at a regional, national and international level (within the European Union). Most of the market of these rural destinations is the “short break” based on tourists from the internal and short-distance market. One of the challenges is to attract long-haul markets that tend to stay more time in tourist destinations and undertake multi-destination travel (Oppermann, 1995; Oppermann, 1994; Oppermann, 1992, Lue et al, 1993; Ayala, 1993; Wing, 1989; Murthy and Keller, 1990; Teye, 1989; Pearce, 1987). The USA is one of the most important long-haul markets to Europe, however the North-American tourist mainly visits urban destinations, that are why the study of this market regarding its travel patterns and the potential to increasingly integrate rural destinations in long-haul trips to Europe, is relevant also for practical, namely, destination marketing purposes.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW- DEFINING THE THEORETICAL RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

In this chapter, the literature review is organized into five parts. First, the travel decision-making process is briefly discussed, then the here central concept of nostalgia is reviewed, both considering its general definition, roots and relevance for human behavior and its particular relation with the tourism phenomenon. Second, nostalgia is analyzed from a time perspective, with a particular emphasis on the work of Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) that explains human behavior as influenced by how individuals relate to past, present, and imaginary future events. Third, the three-dimensional conceptual model of travel constraints is analyzed. Fourth, negotiation as a construct related with travel constraints is discussed. Lastly, the notions of travel expertise and familiarity (with products) and their relevance for tourism are discussed.

3.1 The decision-making process in tourism

Research in marketing that analyses the buying process started in the 1950's. At that time, most studies were focused on the buying process for tangible and manufactured products (Engel et al, 1968; Runyon, 1980; Howard, 1994), but they still make the basis for studying the purchase process of tourism products (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2004). Several authors have studied this subject and there are some very known models, such as: the model suggested by Schmoll (1977); the one proposed by Mathieson and Wall (1982); the one suggested by Mayo and Jarvis (1987). Middleton's model (Middleton, 1988); Woodside and Lysonski's model (Woodside & Lusonski, 1989); Um and Crompton's model (Um & Crompton, 1990); and the one proposed by Mill and Morrison (1992). Um and Crompton (1999) identify travel constraints as a very important factor in the choice of a destination and Hudson and Gilbert (2000) suggest travel constraints as most relevant

for analyzing the behavior of non-visitors, being them tourists that had never travelled to a destination or visitors that did not return to a certain location. If constraints can explain why consumers do not travel to a certain destination, it is also most important to study mediation constructs that can interfere with these factors making people eventually overcome the constraints and realize their travel desire. In the leisure and tourism literature there are studies that analyze negotiation as a process to make people overcome the perceived travel constraints. This study presents a new approach to analyze the buying process of North-Americans to rural destinations in Europe, with a particular consideration of the role of nostalgia, travel constraints, negotiation and experience in travel.

3.2 Nostalgia

Tulving (2007), asked in an essay about memory ‘Are there 256 kinds of memory?’ This author arrived at this number by collecting a list of phrases over many years in which memory was the noun and some other term was the modifier, but according to Roediger and Wertsch (2008) “if there is one fact of which we can be certain, it is that his list underestimates the actual number of terms. Certainly the future will see his list expanded.” In Tulving’s list one may find, amongst other types of memory: active cultural memory, archival cultural memory, autobiographical memory, collective memory, context-dependent memory, cultural memory, discovered memory, dynamic memory, emotional memory, episodic memory, explicit memory, false memory, fear-dependent memory, flashbulb memory, general political memory, historical memory, implicit memory, involuntary memory, meta-memory, narrative memory, particular political memory, personal semantic memory, public autobiographical memory, reconstructed memory, recovered memory, self memory, semantic memory, social memory, tacit memory, transactive memory, traumatic memory, unconscious memory and working memory. In this work, nostalgic memory will be analysed.

Nostalgia comes from the Greek word *nostos*, meaning “return home” and *algia*,

meaning pain or longing. This term was used originally to refer to a medical condition discovered by Johannes Hofer in the 17th century, who wrote the thesis “A medical dissertation on nostalgia” (Prete, 2001). The symptoms of nostalgia indicated by Johannes Hofer were: persistent thoughts about home, melancholy, insomnia, anorexia, weakness, anxiety, lack of breath and palpitations of the heart. The patients suffering from nostalgia included people who were forced to move like soldiers or who did that voluntarily like students. Hofer regarded nostalgia as a “cerebral disease” (McCann, 1941 cited by Sedikies *et al*, 2006). The concept of nostalgia as a mental disease was maintained till the 19th century, then started to be seen as an emotion. According to Sedikies *et al* (2006), by the early 19th century nostalgia was no longer regarded as a neurological disorder, but instead, came to be considered a form of melancholia or depression. This gloomy perspective can be attributed to the fact that nostalgia has long been equated with homesickness. In the romantic period, the term has been freed from its strictly medical meaning and phenomena echoed in other languages with expressions such as “*mal du pays*”, “*rimpianto*”, homesickness, “*anoranza*”, and “*saudade*”, although never quite coinciding with these terms (Prete, 2001). According to Davis (1979), college students associated words like a “warm”, an “old times”, “childhood” and a “yearning” more frequently with nostalgia than “homesickness”, suggesting that students could discriminate between these two concepts. The word nostalgia is today commonly used to describe the psychological state of individuals who appear to have the thirst for longing for the past (Davis, 1979).

Nostalgia is a phenomenon that has bloomed in the western world (Goulding, 2001). There is now a growing literature of homesickness mostly based on problems associated with transition to boarding school or university (Van Tilburg *et al*, 1996). The research on nostalgia is based mostly in consumer behaviour and marketing (Arnould and Thompson, 2005; Goulding, 2001; Schindler & Holbrook, 2003a; Holbrook & Schindler, 2003b; Holak and Havlena, 1998; Kahle, 1996; Holbrook, 1993), being evoked through films (Bandyopadhyay, 2008; Lee, 1993), music (Holbrook & Schindler, 1991), communication strategies (Holbrook, 1993), advertising (Holak *et al*, 2007; Howell, 1991; Stern, 1992), clothes and personal appearance (Schindler & Holbrook, 1993a; Holbrook

& Schindler, 2003b), retailing (Norman, 1990), and through heritage and tourism (Poria *et al.*, 2009; Bandyopadhyay, 2008; Caton & Santos, 2007; Lowenthal, 1981).

3.2.1 Definition of nostalgia

The group of sentiments that nostalgia designates are as old as human language, but the word is a modern one (Prete, 2001). The word first appeared in the work of Hofer in 1688 and was added to the clinical dictionary as an illness already known in German-speaking Switzerland by the name of “*Heimweh*”. The term nostalgia was based on the myth of odyssey, the classic hero of return, or *nostos* (Sedikides, 2006). According to Kessous and Roux (2008), afterwards nostalgia was the object of numerous interpretations, each with its source in one of the triple dimensions of time: past/ present/ future. In clinical psychology, nostalgia is considered as a desire to go back to the womb (a theory oriented to the past), eventually manifested in a maladjustment to one’s environment (a theory oriented to the present). The theory oriented to the future suggests that the individual has an idea of his/ her future, with nostalgia shaping or conditioning this future and their feelings regarding it. For instance, older people tend to focus on the past (nostalgia) to comfort them in relation to the limited time of life in the future (Kessous & Roux, 2008). The philosophers of the 18th century, namely Rousseau and Kant, presented the first modern definition of nostalgia, in which they affirm that temporal distance is more related to nostalgia than spatial distance. For Kant, when nostalgic people return home they feel often very disappointed, but at the same time they feel cured (see Table 8).

For Casey (1987) the history of nostalgia within philosophy hinges upon the role of place. While the relevance of specific places has diminished during the eighteenth and nineteenth century, the desire for a return to imagination as the source of the world has increased. Put another way, by the late eighteenth century, as the geographic site of home was stripped from nostalgia, it was replaced with a spiritual return home, an attachment to a way of being in the world. Artists, unlike most philosophers, elevated and refined the

uses of nostalgia in terms of actual homes, and if not in terms of descriptions of physical structures, then in terms of the hope of return—often in the face of great odds. With the contemporary geographical mobility, the previous feelings of being unrooted tend to erase (Holak & Havlena, 1992). In the book “The homeless mind” Berger et al (1974) suggest that the modernization process of societies, mainly items of technological production and bureaucracy, are giving individuals feelings of anxiety and confusion by introducing them to varied viewpoints, so those individuals try to lower this cognitive dissonance⁸ by adopting separate thought processes for public and private life. This action, along with other facets of modernization, remove from the individual the feeling of belonging and increase feelings of isolation, therefore bringing about a feeling of psychological homelessness, a state of distress. Many methods of attempting to resist modernization are intrinsically paradoxical, and thus this situation of homelessness resulting from modernity has no easy solutions (Wilson, 1996).

“...The secularizing effect of pluralization has gone hand in hand with other secularizing forces in modern society. The final consequence of all this can be put very simply (though the simplicity is deceptive): modern man has suffered from a deepening condition of "homelessness." The correlate of the migratory character of his experience of society and of self has been what might be called a metaphysical loss of "home." It goes without saying that this condition is psychologically hard to bear”. (Berger et al, 1974: 82)

According to Basu (2007), the man alienated from place and corresponding social structures, which so far conferred an externally determined and given identity, is forced to search “inside himself” for some coherent sense of self in a world that is increasingly fragmented, plural and shifting. In that resulting disorientation (physical, social and psychological), the individual engenders his/her own nostalgias (Basu, 2007). Sedikies *et al* (2004; 2006) and Routledge *et al* (2008) focus on the construct for its positive and self-relevant implications and suggest that from this perspective nostalgia serves four specific psychological functions: a) as a repository of positive feelings; b) contributing to self-positivity; c) strengthening social connectedness; d) it may provide perceptions of meaning in life that facilitate coping with existential concerns.

⁸ Cognitive dissonance is a discomfort caused by holding conflicting ideas simultaneously.

The definition of nostalgia most spread in consumer behaviour and marketing literature (see Table 8) is the one proposed by Holbrook and Schindler (1991), being more focused on objects. Holak and Havlena (1998) extended this perspective to include a more affective meaning. The definitions presented in Table 8 differ in some degree, but all express a positive feeling regarding persons, places, objects or events from the past. Based on an analysis of several definitions of nostalgia, Sedikies et al (2004) distinguish three groups of emotions that could be associated with nostalgia:

a) Positive emotion: “Nostalgia is memory with the pain removed,” exclaims the columnist Herb Caen (1975). Similarly, Davis (1979: 18) uses the term nostalgia as “a positively toned evocation of a lived past” and states that “the nostalgic experience is infused with imputations of past beauty, pleasure, joy, satisfaction, goodness, happiness, love. Nostalgic feeling is almost never infused with those sentiments we commonly think of as negative — for example, unhappiness, frustration, despair, hate, shame, abuse”. Kaplan (1987:465) presents a similar view considering nostalgia a “warm feeling about the past, a past that is imbued with happy memories, pleasures, and joy” and argues that the feeling is “basically one of joyousness, producing an air of infatuation and a feeling of elation”. Holak and Havlena (1998) also consider nostalgia a being a positive emotion.

b) Negative emotion: authors like Johnson-Laird and Oatley (1989; Best and Nelson, 1985; Hertz, 1990 and Holbrook, 1993, 1994 cited by Sedikies et al, 2004), argue that the experience of nostalgia is immersed in sadness, as the nostalgic individual realizes that the past is irredeemably lost. Peters (1985: 135) presents a more vivid description of the attributed negative content of the nostalgic experience, stating that it varies from “a fleeting sadness and yearning to an overwhelming craving that persists and profoundly interferes with the individual’s attempts to cope with his present circumstances”.

c) Bittersweet emotion: Despite labelling nostalgia a positive emotion, Davis (1979) acknowledges the ambivalence involved in yearning for an experience while fully well recognizing that it is bygone. Nostalgia involves a “wistful pleasure, a joy tinged with sadness,” Werman (1977: 393) asserts. Socarides (1977) adds that nostalgia involves psychological pain, a view shared by Fodor (1950 cited by Sedikies et al, 2004).

Table 8: Definitions of nostalgia

Author	Date	Definition
Hofer, Joannes	1688	“think continually about fatherland” (cited by Casey, 2000)
Kant	1798	What the nostalgic desires is not the place of his youth, but youth itself, his childhood. His desire of not a direct thing that could not be recovered but towards a time that is irretrievable (cited by Starobinski, 1966: 106).
Jankélévitch	1974	Nostalgia oscillates between two regrets: the regret, from afar, of a lost fatherland, the regret upon return of missed adventures”
Davis	1979	A positively toned evocation of the past.
Belk	1990	A wistful mood that may be prompted by an object, scenery, a smell, or a strain of music.
Holbrook and Schindler	1991	A preference (general liking, positive attitude or favourable affect) toward objects (people, places or things) that were more common (popular, fashionable or widely circulated) when one was younger (in early adulthood, in adolescence, in childhood or even before birth).
Stern	1992	An emotional state in which an individual yearns for an idealized past or a sanitized version of an earlier period.
Baker and Kenedy	1994	Wistful experience, product or service from the past.
Holak and Havlena	1998	Nostalgia is a positively balanced complex feeling, emotion or mood produced by reflection on things (objects, persons, experiences, ideas) associated with the past.
Fairley	2003	“A preference (general liking, positive attitude or favourable affect) towards objects (people, places, experiences, or things) from when one was younger or from times about which one has learned vicariously, perhaps through socialization or the media”.

Source: Prete (2001); Casey (2000); Fairley, 2003

3.2.2 Types of nostalgia

Apart from the different definitions of nostalgia, some authors analysed and proposed different types of nostalgia (see Table 9). Davis (1979:21) distinguishes among three orders or levels of nostalgic experience. The so called first order or simple nostalgia is associated with the simple, unquestioning belief that "things were better in the past." Second order or reflexive nostalgia involves a critical analysis of the past rather than sentimentalization of it. Finally, in a third order of nostalgic experience, or interpreted nostalgia, the individual analyses the nostalgic experience itself (Havlena & Holak, 1996). Ungler et al (1991) distinguishes nostalgia in two types the private experienced by

individuals and collective. Stern (1992) distinguishes two dimensions of nostalgia: personal, one's own memory of the past and historical, where the past is viewed as superior to the present.

Table 9: Types of nostalgia

Author	Types of nostalgia	Description
Davis (1979)	Simple	Reflects an unquestioning belief that things were better in the past.
	Reflexive	Involves a critical analysis of the past rather than a sentimentalization of it.
	Interpreted	Describes individual rumination of the nostalgic experience itself.
Ungler <i>et al</i> (1991)	Private	Is individually experienced and is a reflexion on past events or experiences.
	Public	Is related to historical events or times that are socially or collectively held of value.
Stern (1992)	Historical	Expresses a desire to retreat from the present to a time in the past that is viewed as superior to the present.
	Personal	Reflects a sentimentalized view of one's own memory of the past.
Baker and Kennedy (1994)	Real	Describes a "sentimental or bittersweet yearning for the experienced past"
	Simulated	"sentimental or bittersweet for directly experienced past that may be remembered through the eyes and stories of a loved one"
	Collective	"sentimental or bittersweet yearning for the past that represents culture, a generation or a nation"
Holak <i>et al</i> (2007)	Personal	Based on direct experience that is the subject of most psychological and sociological analysis.
	Interpersonal	Based on interpersonal communication concerning the memories of the others and combines the other person's experiences with the individual's own interaction with that person.
	Cultural	Direct experience where members of the group share a similar response that helps to create a cultural identity The emotion is based upon shared indirect experience. For instance, by the observation of images
	Virtual	"Virtual nostalgia, dealing with indirect, collective experience, may involve one's own cultural history or may reflect a longing for a different cultural environment. The basis of virtual nostalgia is in non-personal communication, whereas interpersonal nostalgia is rooted in personal relationships with others who communicate their own nostalgia"

Source: Davis (1979); Ungler *et al* (1991); Stern (1992); Baker & Kennedy (1994); Holak *et al* (2007); Havlena & Holak (1996)

Based on the dimensions suggested by Stern (1992) Marcheani and Phau (2009) studied the effects of personal nostalgic response intensity on cognitions, attitudes, and intentions. Baker and Kennedy (1994) distinguish three dimensions of nostalgia, namely, real, simulated and collective, in all the dimensions the authors describe nostalgia as a “sentimental or bittersweet yearning”. In real nostalgia that yearning is related to a lived past, in simulated nostalgia it can be induced by a beloved one and in collective nostalgia it could represent or could help to create cultural identity. Finally, Holak *et al* (2007) distinguish in four dimensions of nostalgia: individual, interpersonal, cultural and virtual. This concept will be explained in more detail in the next section, since in this research project its structure will be used to work with the construct nostalgia.

3.2.3 Nostalgia and diaspora

Migrant communities and tourism have been studied in several subject fields like those concerning second homes, labour, cultural events and cultural changes in the host country (Hall & Rath, 2007; Shaw & Williams, 2004; Christiansen, 2003), retirement migration (Keating, 2010; Mantecón & Huete, 2008) and VFR (visit friends and relatives) tourism (Williams, 2009; Scheyvens, 2007; Boyne *et al*, 2002; Moscardo *et al*, 2000). However there is a lack of studies relating these subjects to the construct of nostalgia. According to Nguyen and King (2004) nostalgia is a widespread phenomenon among migrants and can colour the images that potential travellers have towards their homeland. Prevot (1993, cited by Nguyen & King, 2004) explains that “for a long time immigrants’ needs may centre on keeping in touch with the home country through nostalgic festivities, patriotic commemorations or even temporary trips home. Sometimes traditions and rituals that have disappeared in the home country are kept alive in the migrant communities. Migrants are increasingly torn between the desire to preserve their culture and the need to come to terms with standards and customs of the host society”.

Davis (1979: 18) termed nostalgia as “a positively toned evocation of a lived past,” while Kaplan (1987) considered nostalgia a “*warm feeling about the past, a past*”

that is imbued with happy memories, pleasures and joy". With the contemporary geographical mobility the previous feelings of being un-rooted tend to erase (Holak & Havlena, 1992). Sedikies *et al* (2004; 2006) and Routledge *et al* (2008) focused on the construct for its positive and self-relevant implications and they found that from this perspective nostalgia serves four specific psychological functions: a) as a repository of positive feelings; b) contributing to self-positivity; c) strengthening social connectedness; d) eventually providing perceptions of meaning of life that facilitate coping with existential concerns. Nostalgia is a protection against loneliness and it is very common in migrants and minorities, leading to an increased willingness to travel (Zou *et al*, 2008). This willingness to travel makes the nostalgic migrant an interesting market to explore but it is necessary to understand how nostalgia works and how it could lead the migrant to explore the country of origin using the touristic resources of the respective destination.

Nowadays, it is possible to find migrant communities all over the globe, but there are countries where most of the population is descendant of migrants, like the USA. As discussed in section 2.2, the United States are known as a nation of immigrants and almost every US resident is descended from someone who had come from another country. This characteristic of the USA makes every American a potential nostalgic traveller.

3.2.4 Nostalgia has a heritage motivation

The things of the past are never viewed in their true perspective or receive their just value; but value and perspective change with the individual or the nation that is looking back on its past. (Nietzsche, 1957: 19)

Heritage tourism has a long history but the term was first used in the 70's (Sethi, 2005). For Ashworth and Howard (1999) the definition of heritage is problematic. The Roman term "*Patrimonium*" associated with material possessions of a family has evolved into a collective concept of common good, a symbol of a nation, or collective identity. In

its broadest sense, now heritage can be defined as all tangible and intangible traces of the past, including the natural landscape, the built environment, cultural crafts, languages, religious beliefs and cultural traditions. On other hand, the definition of culture is also complex. It may be useful to begin with the definition of 'culture' suggested by Edward Burnett Tylor in his definition of culture (1871 cited by Chick & Dong, 2005): “*Culture ... is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society*”. With the development of anthropological science, the definition has gradually become more complex (Chick and Dong, 2005). In 1972 UNESCO defines cultural heritage as term that encompasses several categories:

-Tangible cultural heritage:

- movable cultural heritage (paintings, sculptures, coins, manuscripts, etc.)
- immovable cultural heritage (monuments, archaeological sites, and so on)
- underwater cultural heritage (shipwrecks, underwater ruins and cities and so on)

-Intangible cultural heritage (oral traditions, performing arts, rituals, and so on)

-Natural heritage (natural sites with cultural aspects such as cultural landscapes, physical, biological or geological formations, and so on)

-Heritage in the event of armed conflict.

- And in 2009 was added with the “Kazan resolution” the concept of “tangible astronomical heritage” was added and defined as:

“Tangible astronomical heritage is the material evidence relating to astronomy and representations of astronomy. Astronomy is characterised by the observation and coherent interpretation of celestial objects and events from the earliest stages of human evolution through to the modern world, including but not confined to the history of contemporary science”.

However, Hewison (1987) believes that this interest in heritage is in fact nostalgia, which has given rise to the development of the “heritage industry”, a condition that Lowenthal (1985) sees as either attracting or affecting most levels of society. The job of interpreting the past, apart from the individual’s own imagination, is the task of this

heritage industry. For Lasch (1991: 82 cited by Lisle, 2010) there is a difference between memory and nostalgia:

Just as we should reject the thoughtless equation of progress and hope, so we need to distinguish between nostalgia and the reassuring memory of happy times, which serves to link the present to the past and to provide a sense of continuity. The emotional appeal of happy memories does not depend on disparagement of the present, the hallmark of the nostalgic attitude. Nostalgia appeals to the feeling that the past offered delights no longer obtainable. Nostalgic representations of the past evoke a time irretrievably lost and are for that reason timeless and unchanging. Strictly speaking, nostalgia does not entail the exercise of memory at all, since the past it idealizes stands outside time, frozen in unchanging perfection. Memory too may idealize the past, but not in order to condemn the present. It draws hope and comfort from the past in order to enrich the present and to face what comes with good cheer. It sees past, present, and future as continuous. It is less concerned with loss than with our continuing indebtedness to a past the formative influence of which lives on in our patterns of speech, our gestures, our standards of honour, our expectations, our basic disposition toward the world around us.

There is evidence in literature that these positive feelings, which result from nostalgia, tend to be selective and often filtered through ‘rose-colored glasses’ (Holak & Havlena, 1992; Stern, 1992; Belk 1990, 1991; Havlena & Holak, 1991) revealing that a consumer’s memory process generally filters out any thoughts that are unpleasant in nostalgic memory/thoughts (Davis, 1979).

In heritage destinations, tourists seek out the past through images of what they think the past was like and what is offered to them as commercial reproductions (Vesey & Dimanche, 2003). People are nostalgic about old ways of life, and they want to relive them in the form of tourism, at least temporarily. Nostalgia is a universal catchword for looking back. Lowenthal (1990:4) states that, “*if the past is a foreign country, nostalgia has made it a foreign country with the healthiest tourist trade of all*”. (Given this centrality of nostalgia as a motivation for tourism, Pratiwi, 2008 hypothesized that satisfaction with heritage places depends not on its authenticity in the literal sense of whether or not it is an accurate re-creation of some past condition, but rather on its *perceived authenticity* (consistency with nostalgia for some real or imagined past).

Table 10: Definitions of heritage tourism

Definitions of heritage tourism	
Author	Definition
Hewison (1989)	History is gradually being bent into something called Heritage... Heritage is gradually effacing History, by substituting an image of the past for its reality... At a time when the country is obsessed by the past, we have a fading sense of continuity and change, which is being replaced by a fragmented and piecemeal idea of the past, constructed out of costume dramas on television, re-enactment of civil war battles and misleading celebrations of events such as Glorious Revolution.
Ashworth and Goodall (1990)	Heritage is an idea compounded of many different emotions, including nostalgia, romanticism, aesthetic pleasure, and a sense of belonging in time and space.
Yale, 1991	"Tourism centred on what we have inherited, which can mean anything from historic buildings, to art works, to beautiful scenery"
Zeppel and Hall (1992)	Heritage tourism is a broad field of specialty travel, based on nostalgia for the past and the desire to experience diverse cultural landscapes and forms.
Prentice (1993)	Essentially in tourism, the term "heritage" has come to mean not only landscapes, natural history, buildings, artefacts, cultural traditions and the like which are literally or metaphorically passed on from one generation to the other, but those among these things which can be portrayed for promotion as tourism products. Prentice in 1993 suggested that heritage sites should be differentiated in terms of types of heritage: built, natural, and cultural heritage.
Sharpley (1993)	Heritage is literally defined as what we have inherited from our past. Over the last decade, however, it has become more broadly applied and now the term is used to describe virtually everything associated with the nation's history, culture, wildlife, and landscape.
Peterson (1994)	We think of heritage tourism as visiting sites or areas which make the visitor think of an earlier time.
Lane (1994)	Heritage tourism can be seen as one of the activities of rural tourism.
Nuryanti, (1996)	Heritage tourism '... is characterized by two seemingly contradictory phenomena: the unique and the universal. Each heritage site has unique attributes; but heritage, although its meaning and significance may be contested, reinterpreted and even recreated, is shared by all
Fyall and Garrod (1998)	Heritage tourism can be seen as economic activity driven that makes use of socio-cultural assets to attract tourists and visitors.
Poria et al., (2001)	'Heritage tourism is a phenomenon based on tourists' motivations and perceptions rather than on specific site attributes ... Heritage tourism is a subgroup of tourism, in which the main motivation for visiting a site is based on the place's heritage characteristics according to the tourists' perception of their own heritage'
Trotter, (2005)	Cultural, or heritage, tourism is that form of tourism which emphasises particular products (heritage, museums, historic homes/precincts/spaces) and motivators appropriate to such products (historic and/or intellectual enquiry, nostalgia, antiquarian interest, search for roots, pilgrimage etc.) that push (or pull, depending on the theoretical perspective adopted) tourists toward specific destinations, sites and/or activities.

There are many definitions of heritage tourism, (see Table 10) and one may stress two definitions that focus on nostalgia as core element of heritage tourism, (outlined in grey in the Table 10). According to Pratiwi (2008) heritage is thus created and re-created from surviving memories, artefacts, and sites of the past to serve contemporary demand. Heritage has in fact, many creators, purposes, and consumers (Ashworth, 1992; Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 1998). Not every component of the experience need be authentic (or even satisfactory) as long as the combination of elements generates the required nostalgic feelings. In this case, Caton and Santos (2007: 384) emphasize the heritage tourist experience as a search for nostalgia or a particular version of the past.

According to Boyer, 1994 (cited by Vesey & Dimanche, 2003) tourists seek the past in a nostalgic mode, where authentication is not as important as the ontological event of experiencing the past in a picture-perfect form. Therefore, total authentic representations are not central to the nostalgic heritage experience. What is perceived as authentic, only needs to support the idealised image of history, not its reality in context. According to Timothy and Boyd (2003) many people visit heritage sites motivated by nostalgia. This motivation leads people to visit heritage places of a strong personal connection (i.e. homelands, cemeteries, old homes), national landmarks that evoke strong feelings of patriotism and pride (i.e. national cemeteries, war memorials, battlefields) and perhaps even sites of global importance that include emotions of aware reverence and respect for people and events of the past (i.e. holocaust sites, ancient temples, castles, mines). The centrality of nostalgia as a motivation for experiencing heritage tourism reveals the importance of the process of sharing feelings, surviving memories, artefacts and sites of the past, creating perceived authenticity and enhancing tourist satisfaction from heritage tourism products (Sigala, 2003). Chabra et al (2005) defines this perceived authenticity as “*consistency with nostalgia for some real or imagined past*”, and not authenticity in the literal sense, whether or not it is an accurate re-creation of some past condition, that actually enhanced tourists’ perceptions about authenticity and quality of heritage products. Modern thought invents the principle of cultural authenticity as, actually, nostalgia for authenticity (Maleuve, 1999). According to Cohen (2007), there are multiple meanings and definitions of authenticity. For this author, authenticity

theorists have come to define authenticity through other, different definitions, in order to explain the perspectives they investigate.

Cohen (2007) cites six alternative definitions, namely (a) authenticity as “origins” customary practice or long usage, where the opposite is falsification; (b) authenticity as “genuineness” in the sense of unaltered product; (c) authenticity as “pristinity”, an unaltered state, particularly of nature; (d) authenticity as “sincerity” when applied to relationships; (e) authenticity as “creativity” with special relevance to cultural performances including dance and music; (f) authenticity as the “flow of life”, it is authentic because it is not an attraction.

Wang (1999: 352) distinguishes three main types of authenticity, which he clusters into two main groups, namely object-related authenticity and activity related authenticity (see Table 11). These approaches emerge from the theoretical foundations of objectivism, constructivism and postmodernism ,with object-related authenticity in tourism consisting in two types: (a) *Objective authenticity*: the authenticity of a tourism experience is associated with a cognitive experience of the authenticity of the objects, refers to the authenticity of cultural heritage as identified by the Nara document of authenticity⁹ and assumed in the theory of staged authenticity of McCannell (Reisinger & Steiner, 2005; Ivanovic, 2009). The museum is an example of this authenticity (Midtgard, 2005). Bruner (1994) defines four different meanings of this kind of objective authenticity, as objectively understood: 1) an authentic reproduction as like the original as possible; 2) object that is historically accurate and conformed; 3) an original, as opposed to a copy; 4) as a certificated or branded good, by someone authorised.

⁹ At the Nara Conference on Authenticity, held from 1-6 November 1994, forty five participants from twenty eight countries discussed the many complex issues associated with defining and assessing authenticity. It was noted that in some languages, there is no word to express precisely the concept of authenticity. The results of the experts' deliberations are contained in the Nara Document on Authenticity. The World Heritage Committee notes a general consensus that authenticity is an essential element in defining, assessing, and monitoring cultural heritage. The experts gave particular attention to exploring the diversity of cultures in the world and the many expressions of this diversity, ranging from monuments and sites through cultural landscapes to intangible heritage. Of particular importance in the view that the concept and application of authenticity as it relates in cultural heritage is rooted in specific cultural contexts and should be considered accordingly (Nara Document on Authenticity, <http://whc.unesco.org/archive/nara94.htm>)

(b) *Constructive authenticity*: the authenticity projected onto toured objects by tourists or tourism producers in terms of their imagery, expectations, preferences, beliefs, powers, etc. there are various versions of authenticity regarding the same objects, so, that every single object can be presented and interpreted in many different ways depending on the interpreter (Ivanovic, 2009).

According to Wang (1999: 351) “*things appear authentic not because they are inherently authentic but because they are constructed as such terms of points of view, beliefs, perspectives or powers. This notion is relative, negotiable...*”. It could be described such as symbolic authenticity, being a result of social construction (Midtgard, 2003).

Table 11: Wang’s taxonomy of the three types of authenticity in tourism

Wang’s taxonomy of the three types of authenticity in tourism	
Object-related Authenticity in Tourism	Activity-related Authenticity in Tourism
<p><i>Object authenticity</i>: refers to the authenticity of originals. Correspondingly, authentic experiences in tourism are equated to an epistemological experience (i.e. cognition) of the authenticity of original.</p> <p><i>Constructive authenticity</i>: refers to the objects by tourist or tourism producers in terms of their imagery, expectations, preferences, beliefs, powers, etc. There are various versions of authenticities regarding the same objects. Correspondingly, authentic experiences in tourism and authenticity of toured objects are constitutive of one another. In this sense, the authenticity of toured object is in fact symbolic authenticity.</p>	<p><i>Existential authenticity</i>: refers to a potential existential state of Being that is to activated by tourism activities. Correspondingly, authentic experiences in tourism are to be achieving this activated existential state of Being within the liminal ¹⁰ process of tourism. Existential authenticity can have nothing to do with the authenticity of toured objects.</p>

Source: Belhassen et al (2008)

¹⁰ Liminal means “on a threshold” not quite in not quite out, like living between two places, the known and unknown (Moore, 2004). It is used in the anthropological theories of ritual by such writers as Arnold van Gennep and Victor Turner (Thomasen, 2009).

Activity-related authenticity in tourism establishes a link between the tourism activity and authenticity of the tourist experience. The tourist activity itself is regarded as an enabler of authentic experiences. *Existential authenticity* is defined by a so-called existential state of being (Midtgard, 2003). The tourists feel themselves to be much more authentic and expressive than in their everyday lives. Existential authenticity can be attained when the individual is far away from everyday life and open to new ideas and impressions and there is a true emotional fascination with the place being visited.

According to Wang (1999:360), “*tourism is regarded as a simpler, freer, more spontaneous, more authentic, or less serious, less utilitarian and romantic lifestyle which enables people to keep distance from, or transcend, daily lives*”. Nostalgia and romanticism, despite being classified as subjective feelings, appear real to tourists, since they are able to instigate a sense of “real-self”. In the circumstances created by modernity, the “real-self” emerges as an ideal within and tends to reverse the rational order, symbolic of authenticity, created by institutionalized modern society (Ivanivc, 2009). Wang (1999) separates existential authenticity in “intra-personal” and “inter-personal authenticity”. The intra-personal is based on bodily feelings, related to relaxation, rehabilitation, diversion, recreation, entertainment, refreshment, sensation-seeking, sensual pleasures, excitement, play, amongst others. Additionally, self-making with daily routine, some individuals tend to achieve a “feeling of loss”, “if they cannot realize their authentic selves in everyday life, then they are liable to turn to tourism” (Wang, 1999: 363).

Table 12: Travel motivation (according to Macintosh et al, 1990)

Travel motivator	Explanation
Physical	Physical motivators indicate the need for physical activities. This can be either the need for rest, relaxation and simple things like getting a suntan or the need for active participation in exercises and health-related activities – any activity motivated by the desire for reducing tension or refreshing the body while on holiday
Emotional	Emotional motivators indicate the influence of emotions on travel behaviour and may include travelling activities related to romance, adventure, spirituality, escapism or nostalgia
Cultural	Cultural motivators indicate the need or desire to explore and learn about the destination, its culture and heritage, or to generally expand one’s horizons and knowledge by travelling to new places
Interpersonal	Interpersonal motivators indicate the need for maintaining existing relationships or developing new relationships. This includes visits to family, friends and relatives, or the holiday is taken in order to meet new people
Status and prestige	Travelling is motivated by the desire for enhancing ones status and receiving attention and appreciation from others, but can also include travelling for the purpose of personal development (e.g. increasing knowledge or learning new skills)

Source: Heitman, 2011

Nostalgia itself as motivation can be seen as a push factor (Dan, 1977 Uysal et al, 2008). Following Tolman’s (1959) work, Dann (1977) introduced the concept of push–pull of tourist motivation in tourism research. In answering the question ‘What makes tourists travel?’ he indicated that there is a distinction between ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors (Uysal et al, 2008). Pull factors are those which attract the tourist to a given destination, (for example, sun, sea, nature,) and whose value is seen to reside in the object of travel, while push factors refer to the tourist as subject and deal with those factors predisposing him/her to travel, for example, escape or nostalgia. This theory suggests that people travel

because they are ‘pushed’ by internal and ‘pulled’ by external forces. In other words, these forces describe how individuals are pushed by motivational variables into making a travel decision and how they are pulled or attracted by the destination area (Baluglu & Uysal, 1996).

MacIntosh et al. (1990 cited by Heitman, 2011) propose five categories of motivations (see Table 12) that reflect the ideas of Maslow’s hierarchy and take the purpose as the key motivating force (push factors). According to Heitman (2011) acting as cultural heritage may have a relevant influence on travel behaviour, acting as a motivator or travel purpose. Tourists might travel to sites because they consider them to be part of their heritage or they might travel to heritage sites that are not necessarily connected to their own heritage. For instance, Portuguese tourists visiting the Monastery of Jeronimos in Lisbon might have different motivations to travel there than North-American tourists visiting that site. However, the heritage experience is not “monolithic” and moreover, it can be argued that the same individual may be interested in several simultaneous experiences with nostalgia being just one of the dimensions of the heritage experience. For Poria et al (2009) “*a visitor, for example, may be interested in a search for nostalgia (which he or she may regard as naïve), educational experience, and revalidating his or her identity, although the former may be a means to achieve the latter*”. Poria et al’s (2009) study on visitor preferences regarding the Wailing Wall, a religious attraction in Jerusalem, suggested the need to adopt innovative approaches to the management of heritage tourist attractions providing different interpretations for different visitors, actually motivated by distinct themes. Nostalgia may be one of these, as will be shown in the present study.

3.2.5 Nostalgia scales

Most of the studies that analyse nostalgia are in the field of marketing and consumer behaviour. Sierra and McQuity (2007) analysed the content and empirical approach of 13 studies on nostalgia (see figure 7). Some studies used the nostalgia index (Holak & Havlena, 1992; Holbrook, 1993; Holbrook & Schindler, 1994; Schindler & Holbrook, 2003; Reisenwitz et al, 2004) created by the psychologist Krystine Batcho

(1995), who attempted to measure how often and how deeply people feel nostalgic (see Table 13).

Table 13: Scales for assessing nostalgia

Authors	Name	Items	Obs.
Holbrook and Schindler (1994)	Nostalgia proneness scale	They don't make'em like they used to do; Products are getting shoddier and shoddier; Technological change will ensure a brighter future; History involves a steady improvement in human welfare; We are experiencing a decline in the quality of life; Steady growth of GNP has brought increased human happiness; Modern business constantly builds better tomorrow.	Nostalgia proneness can be defined as a facet of individual character, aspect of lifestyle or general individual characteristic that varies amongst individuals.
Batcho (1995)	Nostalgia Scale	Family/ Heroes or heroines/ Not having to worry/ Places/ Music/ Someone you loved/ Friends/ Things you did/ Toys/ The way people were/ Feelings you had/ TV shows, movies/ School/ Having someone to depend on/ Holidays/ The way society was/ Pet or pets/ Not knowing sad or evil things/ Church or temple, etc./ Your house	
Pascal et al (2002)	Evoked nostalgia scale (NOST)	Reminds me of the past; helps me recall pleasant memories; makes me feel nostalgic; makes me reminisce about a previous time; makes me think about when I was younger; evokes found memories; is a pleasant reminder of the past; brings back memories of good times in the past; reminds me good old days; reminds me of good times in the past.	
Routledge et al. (2008)	Southampton nostalgia scale	1. How valuable is nostalgia for you?; 2. How important is it for you to bring to mind nostalgic experiences?; 3. How significant is it for you to feel nostalgic?; 4. How prone are you to feeling nostalgic?; 5. How often do you experience nostalgia?; 6. Generally speaking, how often do you bring to mind nostalgic experiences?; 7. Specifically, how often do you bring to mind nostalgic experiences? (Please check one.)____ At least once a day____ Three to four times a week____ Approximately twice a week____ Approximately once a week____ Once or twice a month____ Once every couple of months____ Once or twice a year	Defines nostalgia according with the Oxford Dictionary, is a 'sentimental longing for the past.'

Some authors used other scales or combinations of several scales. For example, in a study about early experience as a determinant of consumer preferences, Schindler and Holbrook (2003) used Holbrook and Schindler’s (1994) nostalgia proneness scale, an antiquarianism scale from McKeachie (1974, 1977) and a Taylor and Konrad’s (1980) experience scale. Additionally, Pascal et al. (2002) developed a ten-item “evoked nostalgia scale” (NOST) in order to assess the potential nostalgic feelings stimulated by focal marketing stimuli. The items used were created based on the conceptualization of nostalgia presented by Holbrook and Schindler (1991). But there is no scale of nostalgia that focuses specifically on tourism or that can be easily adapted to the tourism context.

3.2.6 Concept of nostalgia used in this work

In this work nostalgia is conceptualized along the dimensions suggested by Holak *et al* (2007). However, the conceptual framework and particularly its operationalization were substantially modified to take into account the unique reality of the tourism experience.

Figure 4: Nostalgia dimensions

	PERSONAL	COLECTIVE
DIRECT	INDIVIDUAL	INTRAPERSONAL
INDIRECT	CULTURAL	VIRTUAL

Source: Holak *et al*, 2007; Havlena and Holak, 1996

Holak et al (2007) suggest that nostalgia can be viewed in two ways:

- i) as personal or as collective in nature (Havlena & Holak, 2007)
- ii) as a direct or indirect experience (Havlena & Holak, 2007; Havlena & Holak, 1996).

When considering the combinations between the aforementioned forms of nostalgia, four dimensions emerge, as follows:

a) Individual nostalgia

Refers to all the nostalgia that is related to the memory of life and direct experience of an individual, an idealized and imaginatively shaped perception of one's past. The focus of the memory is the home "feeling" of one's childhood (Davis 1979), recollected in adulthood, as a source of joy and security. The personal nostalgia does not depend on a happy childhood, but a fiction rebuilt. In personal nostalgia, the awareness that one is aging and becoming marginal in a society in constant change can trigger a desire to return to the first stages of life, such as visiting the localities of youth or childhood, or enjoying a reunion with relatives or long-time friends, participating in sports, having a second "honeymoon" or being pampered as a child. Even the wellness clinics can be a form of nostalgia, materialized in the effort to return to being in shape (Jafari, 2000). Another form of personal nostalgia focuses on the Diaspora. Diaspora tourism by definition is based on the continued existence of the diaspora, not referring only to types of personal nostalgia. Few tourists seeking their ancestral home really want to live there (Cohen, 2004). Nostalgia is a phenomenon that is common among diaspora communities and can colour the images that these potential visitors have of the destination (Coles & Timothy, 2004).

b) Interpersonal nostalgia

This kind of nostalgia includes experience-based interpersonal communication with others regarding the memories of others and the combination of the experiences of others with the individual's personal interaction with these people (Holak et al, 2007). Family stories are one way by which we learn who we are, being sometimes considered the basic "stuff of ethnic identity" (Clark, 1991:21). They influence our lives and facilitate the role that families play as agents of ethnicity (Stone 1988). Families are

“communities of memory” through which ethnicity is transmitted (Bellah et al. 1996:154; Stone 1988; Smith, 2009). Reminiscing is part of everyday social interactions within virtually all families. Whether over the dinner table, during bedtime routines, while carpooling or doing homework, references to past events are frequent and often extended. These stories of the past may be simple references to events of the day, they may be more extended, shared reminiscing about events the family experienced together, or they may be stories about the familiar past, about the parent’s childhood or the grandparents’ adventures (Fivush, 2008).

c) Cultural nostalgia

It comes from direct experience including where members of a group share the same experiences that helps create a cultural identity (Holak et al, 2007). Boyarin and Boyarin (1993:693) argue: "Group identity has been constructed traditionally in two ways. It has been figured on the one hand as the product of a common genealogical origin and on the other, as produced by common geographical origins". For Hall (1993), cultural identity is a matter of ‘becoming’ (or a process of identification, which shows the discontinuity in our identity formation), as well as of ‘being’ (which offers a sense of unity and commonality).

“It belongs to the future as much as to the past. It is not something which already exists, transcending place, time, history and culture. Cultural identities come from somewhere, have histories. But, like everything which is historical, they undergo in constant transformation....identities are the names we give to the different ways we are positioned by, and position ourselves within, the narratives of the past” (Hall, 1993: 225).

Cultural identity depends, correspondingly, on some degree of continuity with the past – the geography, culture and location. It has its own history which is constructed on the binary of self and other.

d) Virtual nostalgia

This term refers to nostalgia evoked by an experience shared in an indirect

manner (Holak et al, 2007), for example, with the experience of media messages. “Virtual nostalgia”, dealing with indirect, collective experience, may involve one's own cultural history or may reflect a longing for a different cultural environment. The basis of virtual nostalgia is in non-personal communication, whereas interpersonal nostalgia is rooted in personal relationships with others who communicate their “own nostalgia” (Havlena & Holak, 1996: 39). According to Henry (2000, quoted by Casey, 2003) the result of the growth of cultural heritage and the need for objectivisation and materialization of culture leads to a consumer need for nostalgia evoking products. The historian Michael Kammen (1991:20 quoted by Casey, 2003) calls the memory nostalgia consumable that "fulfils (the consumer) with some new and old emotions, a sense of nostalgia collection. For Appadurai (2008: 76)

“The effort to inculcate nostalgia is a central feature of modern merchandising and is best seen in the graphics and texts of gift-order catalogs in the United States....these forms of mass advertising teach consumers to miss things they have never lost. That is, they create experiences of duration, passage, and loss that rewrite the lived histories of individuals, families, ethnic groups, and classes. In thus creating experiences of losses that never took place, these advertisements create what might be called “imagined nostalgia” thus inverts the temporal logic fantasy (which tutors the subject to imagine what could or might happen) and creates much deeper wants than simple envy, imitation, or greed could by themselves invite”.

Tourism can be a nostalgic form of past, staged in a commercial manner, or may be a way to differentiate the past from the present. For example, in dark tourism, tourists visit the scene of tragedy, the site of tragedy, which allow the experience of danger without actually being in danger (Harlow, 2005).

For Morley and Robins (1995: 90), the “questions of identity, memory and nostalgia, have become inextricably interlinked with patterns and flows of communication”. For the authors “memory banks” of our times are in some part built from the materials supplied by the film and television industries.

Another example of virtual nostalgia lies in the industry of music festivals,

staging of traditional events (invented for the tourists), which feeds the nostalgia reinventing cultural experiences. Several researchers have identified nostalgia as an emotion often triggered by music (Janata et al, 2007; Juslin et al, 2008; Zentner et al, 2008). Barret et al (2010) found that both the number of positive emotions experienced and the number of negative emotions experienced were significant predictors of more intense music-evoked nostalgia. The number of positive emotions experienced during a song was a much stronger predictor of music-evoked nostalgia than was the number of negative emotions experienced or the incidence of mixed emotions.

Nacy Pearl (2010) in her book “Book lust to go: recommended reading for travellers, vagabonds and dreamers” recommends readings for people who want to “travel” by reading (i.e. without leaving home) or want to read a romance about a place to be visited. Basu (2005) observes that some individuals with Highland descent overseas possess imagined histories of the past not derived from histories passed down within the family or historical records, but rather acquired from popular history books and historical fiction. In the families the memories of the past were positive and the “created” memories that dominate some narratives have created new exilic imagination. For Basu (2005) this comes with what is sometimes described as the “new white ethnic movement”, i.e. the desire of the white suburban, middle class, assimilated citizens to effectively unassimilated themselves and recover a more distinct, particular ethnic identity. Individuals seek in the stories of their ancestors and in families as well as in books and choose to identify with what they want to identify with, and the more “ethnic” and the more prosecuted one’s imagined past, the better. For the author, this phenomenon observed among descendants of the Scottish diaspora, is not restricted to this group.

According to Manson (2009:226), the tourists’ imagination and consumption of destinations are no longer influenced by destinations’ promotion materials like brochures and advertisements. Nowadays, in Western Societies, tourists are largely influenced by media products like literature and film. For the identification and study of other media-inducing tourism phenomena the overarching term of ‘fictional media tourism’ has been suggested. Fictional media is the presentation of fictions through different media (Croy &

Heitamnn, 2011), like movies, television, DVDs and the like, literary works, art and music as tourism-inducing agents (Tighe, 1986; Squire, 1993; Busby & Klug, 2001; Croy & Walker, 2003). Jenkins (2006 cited by Fusco & Lombardi, 2010) affirms that there is a circle of production, circulation and consumption of images, for what the author calls a “spiral of representation”. This phenomenon begins before the tourist leaves home. It starts with the pleasure of forming personal expectations and mental images, based on travel guides, post cards, websites, documentaries, films, music and pictures taken by other tourists.

3.3 Time Perspective Theory

Independently of the theoretical approach, time as been pointed out in many occasions a most relevant dimension for the analysis of human behavior. According to Ortunõ and Gamboa (2009), in philosophy it is possible to “see” time as a structural component of human thoughts and behaviours (Kant, 1781/1997). Physics, on the other hand, admits find time on one character but not fortuitous is thus largely determined by experiences and human contexts, but also decisive of them (Schwartz & McGuinness, 2009).”Time appears as an ordering parameter in the sense that there is a separation of temporal experience into the “past”, the “present” and the “future”... Another facet of time in physics is to view it from the contemporary perspective of “becoming” - the idea of time arises in saying “how things change” (Isham & Savvidou, 2002: 9). Psychology announces time as a core component under which human behaviour and events take place and are interpreted (Nuttin, 1964).

Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) explain time perspective to be *‘the often unconscious process whereby the continual flows of personal and social experiences are assigned to temporal categories, or time frames, that help to give order, coherence, and meaning to those events.’* So time perspective and time orientation describe a personal tendency to have our behavior influenced by how we relate to past, present, and imaginary future events. Time perspective refers to the way we relate our experiences to our personal time line, our personal history. Zimbardo refers to in this context to cognitive frames, which connect abstract, psychological constructions of the past and anticipated future events, through concrete representations of the present.

Table 14: A summary of time perspectives

Time Perspective	Description
Past-Negative	A bias to think about and interpret the present in light of a generally unhappy, aversive view of the past.
Past-Positive	A bias to think about and interpret the present in light of a warm, sentimental attitude toward the past.
Present-Fatalistic	A bias to think about and interpret the present in light of a helpless and hopeless attitude toward life that is related to external locus of control.
Present-Hedonistic	A bias to think about and interpret the present in light of a indulgent, risk-taking, “devil might care” attitude toward life.
Future	A bias to think about and interpret the present in light of anticipated goals and rewards.

Source: Shores and Scott, 2007; Zimbardo and Boyd, 1999

According to Shores (2005), several attempts were made to capture time perspective like the “Thematic Apperception test” (Wohlford, 1996), the “Experiential Inventory” (Cottle, 1968), “the circles test” (Cotle, 1968), and an instrument called “Time Lines” (Rapport, 1990), but none of these methods has been consensually acknowledged as generate reliable findings.

The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI) is an instrument that aims to assess individual differences in terms of attitudes believed to identify persons of past, present or future orientation based on 56 items or Likert-type scales (Verdugo *et al*, 2006) (see Appendix 1). Research using ZTPI for assessing (time perspective) describes how a bias toward a specific time perspective is related to individuals’ attitudes and behaviors (Shores, 2005). The notion of time perspective has been correlated with a number of psychological and sociological concepts. According to Corral-Verdugo *et al* (2006) such temporal frameworks – past, present and future – help in codifying, storing and evoking

experienced situations, goals, contingencies and imagined contexts. The tool has been used to investigate the relationship with the present and future, but there is less empirical attention to past time orientations (Shores and Scott, 2007). In some studies the future time orientation has been related to many positive consequences including high socioeconomic status (Guthrie *et al*, 2009), superior academic achievement (Raynor and Burbin, 2001), wellbeing (Drake *et al*, 2008) and sustainable behavior (Corral-Verdugo *et al*, 2006). Some authors associate present time perspectives with more frequent use of alcohol, drugs or tobacco (Keough *et al*, 2001; Apostolidis *et al*, 2006).

The association with the past are the dimensions less published in research, Bryant *et al* (2005) reported that positive perceptions of the past predicted self-reported indices of psychological adjustment, such as increased well-being and decreased anxiety or depression. Routledge *et al* (2008) used this scale to measure to see if it was internally consistent and correlated with other measures of nostalgia, namely the Southampton Nostalgia Scale (SNS). This measure was used in a pilot study in which the authors, Routledge *et al* (2008) reported that the SNS correlated with the 8 items from the Time Perspective Inventory (TPI; Zimbardo and Boyd, 1999) that measure nostalgia-related attitudes toward the past, ($r = .36, p < .05$).

3.4 Travel Constraints

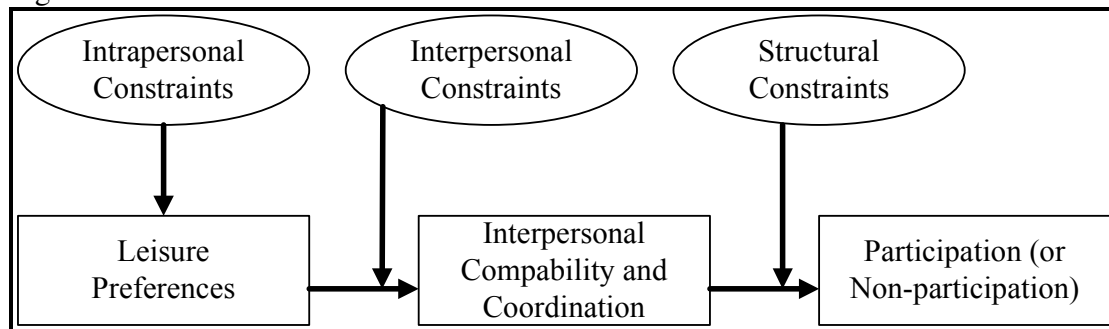
Loudon and Della Bitta (1993 cited by Hudson & Gilbert, 1999) in a section on usage segmentation, advise that marketing efforts should generally be aimed at light to heavy users rather than at non-users. However, they do acknowledge that for many products, non-users may represent a significant marketing opportunity, and research should endeavor to uncover the constraints preventing this group from consumption (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999). Tourism is a sector that could most benefit from that knowledge, given the existence of a huge non-user, but potential market. Constraints have been studied in a more extensive manner in the leisure than the tourism literature (Huang & Hsu, 2009). Leisure studies indicate that a perceived constraint has a negative effect on participation in leisure activities (Jackson, 2005; Virden & Walker, 2005; Alexandris et al, 2007; Son et al, 2008). According to many authors, constraints may be analyzed considering three dimensions: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural (Jackson & Godbey, 1987; Nyaupane et al, 2004; Pennington-Gray & Kernstetter, 2002; Raymore, 2002; Jackson, 2005).

The origins of constraints research may be traced back to the 1960's (White, 2007; Jackson, 2005). Constraints research has gone through substantial changes during the past thirty years (Hung & Petrick, 2010). Jackson and Scot (1999 cited by Hung & Petrick, 2010) identify four stages of evolution of the leisure literature in constraints, namely:

- 1) pre-barrier stage, researchers made assumptions about the cause of recreation non-participation;
- 2) experimental stage, researchers tend to provide answers to specific problems;
- 3) assumption-driven stage, here research was driven by two major assumptions: i) constraints function only as barriers to participation after preference for an activity is formed. And, ii) there is a positive relationship between constraints and the level of leisure non-participation;
- 4) theory driven stage, more theoretical frameworks are developed and more sophisticated statistical tools are applied to validate theory (Crawford & Jackson, 2005).

Leisure constraints research aims to “investigate factors that are assumed by researchers and/ or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/ or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure.” (Jackson, 2000: 62 cited by Jackson, 2005). According to Nyaupane *et al* (2006), the most widely accepted theoretical framework of leisure constraints was initially proposed by Jackson and Gobey (1987) and later elaborated by Crawford *et al* (1991). In a model proposed by Crawford *et al* (1991) the leisure constraints are categorized into three hierarchically organized levels (see Figure 5): intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural.

Figure 5: A hierarchical model of leisure constraints



Source: Crawford *et al*, 1991

In the past thirty years, constraints had been more studied in leisure than in tourism (Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Hinch & Jackson, 2000; Penington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002; Nyaupane *et al*, 2004; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007; McDonald & Murthy, 2007; Silva & Correia, 2008; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Funk *et al*, 2009; Hung & Petrick, 2010). In tourism studies the concept of constraints has been used to analyse different research themes (see Table 15). Nyaupane and Andereck (2007) investigated constraints to undertake a trip in Arizona, finding support for the model proposed by Crawford and Godbey in 1987. Several authors had studied constraints in the process of decision-making. Um and Cromton (1990) developed a two stage approach based on the construct of “evoked set”, namely evolution from an “evoked set” from the initial “awareness set” and, destination selection based on the “evoked set”. Here attitude

(toward the destination) was operationalized as the difference between perceived inhibitors and perceived facilitators. They observed that this attitude was influential in determining whether a potential destination was selected as part of the “evoked set” and in selecting a final destination.

Hong et al (2006) studied potential visitors’ intentions to visit eight national parks in Korea, revealing affective images of the destinations and the individuals’ constraints as influential variables in the decision-making process. Carneiro et al (2010) analysed the effect of familiarity and structural constraints in the decision-making process to visit two natural parks in Portugal, observing that financial constraints encourage people to engage in search, but time and accessibility constraints do not exert any influence on search. Hung and Petrick (2010; 2011) studied tourists’ decision making regarding a cruise travel and verified that constraints are an important variable influencing travel intentions in this segment, being the most relevant the intrapersonal (worries about the security of the ship, lack of companionship) and structural (lack of time and family/ work obligations) constraints and a fourth category called “not an option” . They found that intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints may frustrate people’s intention to cruise even before attempting to surmount structural constraints.

Huang and Hsu (2009) studied the role of travel constraints in revisit intention, observing that the influence of a perceived constraint on visitation intention may depend on a specific tourism context. In their study a new type of impact, namely, disinterest or lack of interest, surfaced as an influential factor, similar to the Hung and Petrick’s (2010) “no option” category, mentioned before. Disinterest had a strong negative effect on revisit intention.

Hinch and Jackson (2000) found the constraints framework useful for understanding tourism seasonality. Several authors analysed constraints on specific tourism activities, like skiing, rafting, horseback riding or in the context of specific settings, like natural areas and cities.

Gilbert and Hudson (2000), focusing on skiing, verified that non-skiers were constrained by personal constraints, while skiers had other structural constraints, namely, time, economic factors and family. Hudson et al (2010) explored the constraints to downhill skiing in a group of Chinese-Canadians and a group of Anglo-Canadians and found that for the Chinese-Canadians the most relevant constraints were intrapersonal and for Anglo-Canadian the key constraints were structural. Hinch et al (2005) observed that sport tourism like skiing it is generally constrained by spatial barriers such as travel distance and physical barriers such as fitness.

Nyaupane et al (2004) compared constraints to participate in three distinct nature-based activities (rafting, horse-back riding and canoeing). The authors suggest that the most important structural constraints can be divided in three sub-dimensions, namely place attributes, cost and lack of time. As far as nature tourism is concerned Penington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) showed further that constraints are different with regards to age and family life cycle stage. McDonald and Murthy (2007) analysed the constraints and facilitators with tourist decision making for short-break vacations in Melbourne. They found that key constraints such as time and awareness inhibited visitors from visiting attractions.

In the field of events, Funk et al (2009), observed that the interaction between motives and perceived constraints led to two different forms of behavioural intentions, intentions to travel and attend the event versus intention to stay home and watch the event (on TV), while Kim and Chalip (2004) found that financial constraints did not affect the desire to attend a mega event.

Considering further different tourist segments several authors focused on the senior market, women that travel solo and people with disabilities (in the accessible tourism research line). Fleischer and Pizam (2002) found that for senior tourists leisure time, discretionary income and health were important constraints. Wilson and Little (2005) observed that women who travel alone feel constraints to travel, which may be grouped into four dimensions: socio-cultural, personal, practical and spatial. Some studies

related to tourism and people with disabilities focused on the barriers to travel, with Darcy (2006) suggesting that the study of constraints is fundamental to understand accessible tourism. Daniels et al (2005) found out that amongst travellers with physical disabilities there are different types of constraints and negotiation. Lee et al (2012) analyzed learned helplessness¹¹ as a mediator between tourism constraints and intention to travel and identified travel constraints for people with disabilities falling into three sub-dimensions, these being intrinsic, environmental, and interactive; two of the three dimensions (intrinsic and environmental) were found to be statistically significantly associated with learned helplessness on travel intentions.

¹¹ According to this theory, if a person is prevented from behaving freely, they may then become more determined to behave in the way in which they want. However, if they are repeatedly prevented from doing so, they may perceive the desired behavior to be beyond their control. As a result, they may either give up and/or lose confidence in trying to achieve it, and consequently experience helplessness, even if circumstances change, enabling them to subsequently behave in the manner to which they desired in the first place. In such cases, the individual has learned to behave helplessly irrespective of whether the opportunity is restored to help themselves, by avoiding unpleasant or harmful circumstances to which they have been subjected (Lee et al, 2012).

Table 15: Themes in tourism analyzed with the construct constraints

Themes in Tourism analysed with constraints	Authors
Decision-making	Um and Crompton (1990) Carneiro and Crompton (2010) Hong et al (2006) Hung and Petrick (2011)
Seasonality	Hinch and Jackson (2000)
Ski tourism	Hudson and Gilbert (1999) Gilbert and Hudson (2000) Williams and Fidgeon (2000) Hinch et al (2005) Hudson et al (2010)
Senior tourism	Fleisher and Pizam (2001)
Nature Tourism	Peninghton-Grey and Kernstetter (2002)
Nature based activities: rafting; horse-back riding and canoeing	Nyaupane et al (2004)
Mega Events	Kim and Chalip (2004) Funk et al (2009)
Accessible tourism	Daniels et al (2005) Lee et al (2011) Darcy (2006)
Short-break tourism in cities	McDonald and Murthy (2007)
Cruise tourism	Hung and Petrick (2010)
Love hotels in Taiwan	Chang et al (2012)
Revisit intention	Huang and Hsu (2009)
Women that travel alone	Wilson and Litle (2005)

There are also authors that studied constraints to travel in segments of accommodation users, like Chang et al (2012) who analysed the market of the love hotels in Taiwan, based on a concept of physical and relationship constraints on leisure , observing that the “push” factors based on a need for escape were weaker than the “pull” factors for comfort and privacy.

Most of these studies analysed topics that are also common to the leisure domain, like sport activities and the access of people with disabilities. None of the studies

analysed were developed in the field of rural tourism, a gap which will be filled by the present research work.

3.4.1 Intrapersonal Constraints

These constraints reflect intrapersonal psychological states, personality characteristics and beliefs (Daniels et al, 2005). Plog (1977's highly cited model e.g. in Hall & Page, 2006) classifies the tourists within a typology ranging from "allocentric" to "psychocentric". The group of "allocentrics" feel attracted to new unknown destinations, where there is no previous tourism development and where the traveler can integrate into life and local customs. The group of "psychocentrics", however, look for familiarity, do not venture to travel to unknown places, do not adapt to the customs of the visited regions and typically need tourism infrastructures and levels of comfort and a type of environment they are used to in their daily lives. The more adventurous, allocentric people are more likely to participate in tourism activities, particularly involving travel over longer distances to places perceived as very distinct from their home.

Similarly, Cohen's (1972 cited by Cooper *et al*, 2007) theory suggests that tourism combines the curiosity to seek new experiences with the need to maintain familiar aspects in the context of travel and offers a continuum of possible combinations between novelty and familiarity (Cooper *et al*, 2007). In the present study, those respondents seeking a dimension of familiarity, or the more "psychocentric" tourists, typically feel more resistant to visit the countryside in Europe. This should be particularly true for those who do not have any family or cultural ties to Europe, which may increase, in this case, the feeling of familiarity.

3.4.2 Interpersonal Constraints

These constraints result from interpersonal interactions and individual

relationships established with others (MacDonald & Murphy, 2008). These are composed of family, peers, other tourists, services staff, the local population, and authority figures. The stage of the family life cycle largely influences this type of constraints, for example when a person moves from the status of single to married, with children, later without children at home (empty nesters), among other situations, the decision-making processes concerning travelling are shaped by each phase's particular social context. Thus, the preferences of other family members and of friends can influence the decision to travel. On the other hand, missing company of others may prevent from travelling at all.

3.4.3 Structural Constraints

The structural constraints are associated with a broader context, beyond the personal context of the individual and includes physical and social institutions, organizations and beliefs associated with the society in which one lives. Jackson (2000) suggests that everyone has an embarrassment whatsoever, that no one is totally free from constraints; these constraints can be of various degrees of intensity. In an ethnographic study undertaken in the exploratory phase of this PhD project one major constraint, as indicated by all respondents was the lack of money to travel to Europe, a constraint worsened with the fall of the dollar against the Euro. The geographical distance from the destination was mentioned as a constraint associated with the discomfort of travelling long haul and / or the time required for undertaking the trip in a convenient way. Crompton (1977 cited by Um & Crompton, 2000) developed a two-stage model to describe a tourist's destination choice process that emphasises the role of perceived constraints and image. In that study the choice of a destination was characterized as a function of the interaction between perceived constraints such as time, money and travel ability, and destination image. He suggests that destination images are first prioritizing in terms of ideal preference and the prioritization is then amended by the impact of perceived constraints. Um and Crompton (2000) analysing the role of image and perceived constraints at different stages in the tourists' decision making process, verified that destination choice is constraint driven. Also in this later study they confirm a greater

importance of image at the early stage, but a prevalence of constraints in the final decision. They suggest that the “*model of tourism behaviour reflects that it is the risk reduction constraint factors which are likely to be deterministic, rather than the attributes of the amenities or attractions of a destination.*”

Time and money

According to Godbey (2005) “*time constraints our lives and our leisure. We are changed and controlled by time more than we change and control it. In the modern and postmodern worlds, time is often thought of as the primary constraint to leisure.*” In leisure and in tourism the most cited and studied structural constraints that have been mentioned are time and money (Nyaupane et al, 2004; Silva & Correia, 2007).

3.4.4 Negotiation

According to White (2007) the concept of negotiation was introduced to explain how leisure constraints may be overcome or mitigated. The conceptualization of constraints as negotiable emerged in the early 1990s, offering a refinement to the leisure constraints body of knowledge. Jackson et al (1993) proposed that constraints modify participation rather than create non-participation. Later Raymore (2002) developed a model to incorporate both constraints and facilitators to leisure participation. This model was adapted to the hierarchical model suggested Crawford et al (2001). Raymore (2002) proposes that within the hierarchical model of constraints, negotiation has the same hierarchical order. If persons cannot overcome inner doubts, cannot identify their desire for a particular activity, they will not advance to the next level of negotiation (McDonald & Muthy, 2008).

Scott (1991) asserts that constraints are not necessarily insurmountable; instead, people might find a way to modify behaviors to sustain leisure involvement. As explained by Jackson (1999: 196), this perspective “proposed that people ‘negotiate around’ constraints using a variety of strategies, achieving their leisure goals, but often in a way

that differs from how their leisure would have been if constraints had been absent”.

Researchers have shown that people adopt strategies to negotiate through the various levels of constraints to fulfill their leisure desires (Jackson, 2005). Kay and Jackson (1991) present evidence out that people adjust time and money constraints by trying to find the cheapest opportunity, saving money to participate, making economies in other things not related to leisure, reducing the time on tasks related to house-holding activities and reducing working time.

3.5. Experience in travel

3.5.1 Travel Expertise

According to Gursoy and McCleary (2004) one of the first steps in the vacation decision-making process is the search for information that also affects on-site decisions such as selecting accommodation, transport, activities and tours. Information search can be defined as “*the motivated activation of knowledge stored in memory or acquisition of information from environment*” (Engel et al, 1990:494). According to Gursoy and Chen (2000) information search can be either internal or external; internal search is based on retrieval of knowledge from memory and external search consists of collecting information from the marketplace.

Fodness and Murray (1999) examined the influence of situational factors, product characteristics, tourist characteristics and search outcomes on external information search behaviour. Their findings suggest that tourist information search strategies are the result of a dynamic process in which travelers use various types and amounts of information sources to respond to internal and external contingencies. According to Gursoy, 2003 (cited by Gursoy & McCleary, 2004) notes that, in the contingency model, travelers’ prior knowledge was measured by a single indicator, previous visits to a destination, even though the consumer behavior literature suggests that product knowledge is not a uni-dimensional construct. Gursoy and McCleary (2004) refer to Alba and Hutchison (1987) proposing that knowledge has two major components familiarity and expertise and cannot be measured by a single indicator. Consumer behavior literature also suggests that prior product knowledge may influence the selective search behavior and the depth of analysis.

Expertise

Alba and Hutchinson (1987) defines expertise as the product-related experiences such as advertising exposures, information search, interactions with sales persons, choice and decision making, purchasing and product usage in various situations. According to

Perdue (2001) as expertise increases, it is postulated that the individual has greater ability to utilize his/ her existing knowledge structures to interpret and elaborate on new product information resulting in increasingly specific and precise product images and preferences. This expertise can be linked to the concept of self-efficacy.

According to Anckar and Walden (2000) cited by Li and Buhalis (2008) the notion of perceived behaviour control can also be expressed by using the concept of self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) indicates that consumers are knowledgeable of their own abilities and personal characteristics. Consumer can predict their ability to do something and are aware of their own levels of confidence to achieve certain goals. Perceptions of self-efficacy tend to be domain or situation specific and are subject to the available opportunities to act, skills/ abilities, past experiences and social/ cultural norms or attitudes. Self reflections influence perceptions of self efficacy and consumers adjust their thinking accordingly. Individual's belief/ confidence and subjective expectancy to succeed is the single most powerful influence on motivation/ intention and quality outcomes. Negative self-image adversely influences behaviour outcomes beliefs with less demanding tasks even if the person has all the required skills or competences to perform the required tasks (Gountas & Mavondo, 2005).

3.5.2 Familiarity

In the context of consumer behaviour familiarity has been defined as “the number of product related experiences accumulated over time” (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987: 411). Some studies (Milberg et al, 1997; Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Jacoby et al. 1986) verified a positive relationship between product familiarity and expertise, with increased product familiarity resulting in consumer expertise. According to Nacif (2003) researchers distinguish true expertise from mere product familiarity, not only because familiarity is said to be accurate naturally from any product-related encounter, but also because expertise has to be measured. Alba and Hutchinson (1987 cited by Nacif, 2003) based on empirical results from learning and information processing literature, identify

five different facets of consumer expertise that can be improved as product familiarity increases:

- The cognitive structures used to differentiate products became more refined and more complete as familiarity increases;
- Simple repetition improves task performance by reducing cognitive effort required to perform the task and, in some cases, repetition leads to performance that is automatic;
- The ability to analyse information, isolating that which is most important and task-relevant, improves as familiarity increases;
- The ability to elaborate on given information and to generate accurate knowledge that goes beyond what is given improves as familiarity increases;
- The ability to memorize product information improves as familiarity increases.

Expertise is related to the number of attributes a customer considers in evaluating products in a category and his/ her perceptual acuity. When decisions are based on internal information, knowledge may offer to an expert consumer an opportunity to use processing decision strategies that are very different from the ones of the consumer who is low in expertise may use (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004; Moorthy et al, 1997). In addition, the familiarity effect also contributes to future purchase and usage conditions.

Since familiarity represents early stages of learning, consumers are likely to gain knowledge and, therefore, familiarity through ongoing information search, such as reading guidebooks, advertisements, talking with family and friends, and so on. According to Vogt and Fesenmeier (1998), product familiarity has direct impact on consumer's information search behaviour. If travellers are very familiar with a destination, they may not need to collect any additional information from external sources because they are likely to make their decisions based on their familiarity with the destination (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004).

In the exploratory study about the willingness of North Americans to travel to rural Europe that initiates the empirical approach of this thesis some respondents revealed

that some constraints were related to lack of expertise in searching information, since some information about Europe is not in English. At the same time nostalgia was associated with familiarity with the destination (being that one direct or indirect). In this work it is tested if expertise in information search and familiarity with rural destinations would be a predictor of the willingness of return to rural Europe, alternative to the hypothesised connection between nostalgia, travel constraints and negotiation.

In this section the constructs that will be used in the proposed research model aiming at the analysis of the willingness of North Americans to return to rural Europe are presented. Nostalgia is an emotion that could be a “preference (general liking, positive attitude or favourable affect) toward objects (people, places or things) that were more common (popular, fashionable or widely circulated) when one was younger (in early adulthood, in adolescence, in childhood or even before birth)” (Holbrook and Schindler, 1991). In travel this emotion can be triggered through four different situations that could be designated as personal, interpersonal, cultural and virtual dimensions. The personal dimension is related to the life of a person, the interpersonal to the close relations with family and friends, cultural dimension with the group/ community that a person is integrated in and virtual is related to the influence exerted by the popular media, namely literature, TV, cinema, images and music. A previous visit, mixed with the influence of popular media, can trigger this emotion and motivate a tourist to return to a previously visited destination, in this case rural Europe, even though there might be perceived constraints.

Travel constraints are one of the most relevant constructs to analyse the non visitors, e.g. people that had never visited a destination before or visitors that do not return (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999). In this work travel constraints are analysed in a market that already visited a destination, rural Europe. Travel constraints can be defined as “factors that are assumed by researchers and/ or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/ or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure.” (Jackson, 2000: 62 cited by Jackson, 2005). Researchers have discovered that they could be overcome by motivation or/ and by negotiation. Nostalgia,

triggered by the nostalgic memories of a previous visit, can act as a travel motivation (a push factor according to Dann, 1977) and could mitigate the negative effect of constraints in the intentions to return to rural Europe. US travellers visiting Europe tend to feel relatively high levels of insecurity and anxiety when travelling to rural areas, as reflected in perceived travel constraints. The travellers analyzed in this work have already travelled to rural Europe, meaning that they have already experience in travelling at the level of searching information and some familiarity of the rural destinations. This construct associated to nostalgia as a mediator of constraints can act as a positive factor for the return of the North American travellers to rural destinations in Europe. In the next chapter the proposed framework of this work is presented, and the research hypothesis and the operationalization of the constructs detailed.

CHAPTER 4

PROPOSED RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the procedures employed to achieve the aims of this research project, whose the main objectives may be summarized as:

- Development of a theoretical framework for the study of the North-American market regarding its interest in travelling to rural areas within Europe, as well as a framework for analysing decision-making of a long-haul travel market, considering perceived travel constraints, the negotiation taking place to overcome these constraints and the potential role of nostalgia and travel expertise in this context. This objective has been achieved by the first three chapters of this thesis, which are the foundation of the empirical approach that may be described as follows:
- Development of a nostalgia scale for assessing nostalgia, in a quantitative research approach, in the context of vacation travel;
- Development and validation of a model that permits a better understanding of the decision-making process of the North-American travel market regarding their intention to revisit rural areas in Europe, more precisely the role played by travel expertise, familiarity, travel constraints, negotiation and nostalgia in this context.

The research hypotheses will be presented in this chapter as a result of the literature review undertaken before, highlighting the most relevant literature bases of these hypotheses, and visualizing these hypotheses in an integrated manner, in a research model. At the end of the chapter, the research hypotheses are summarized in a table.

4.2 Research Hypotheses and proposed research model

4.2.1 Research hypotheses

Before presenting the proposed theoretical model, the hypotheses will be individually formulated, as derived from the literature review. Their validity will be checked with results from a survey. The research hypotheses are the following:

H1: Nostalgia evoked by tourism has four dimensions, namely an individual, interpersonal, cultural and virtual dimension.

Based on 27 interviews and on a literature review, it is hypothesised that nostalgia can be understood as a complex construct, composed of four dimensions namely, personal, interpersonal, cultural and virtual:

a) Individual nostalgia

Refers to all the nostalgia that is related to the memory of life and direct experience of an individual, it may be understood as an idealized and imaginatively (re)created memory. The focus of the memory is the home "feeling" of a childhood (Davis, 1979), recollected in adulthood, as a source of joy and security. Individual nostalgia does not depend on a happy childhood, but on a fiction rebuilt. In Individual nostalgia, the awareness of the individual's aging and becoming marginal in a society in constant change can trigger a desire to return to the first stages of one's life, such as through visiting the localities of youth or childhood, or enjoying socializing with relatives or long-time friends, participating in sports or recreational activities one used to engage in, having a second "honeymoon" or being pampered like a child.

b) Interpersonal nostalgia

This kind of nostalgia includes experience-based interpersonal communication with others regarding the memories of others and the combination of the experiences of others with the individual's personal interaction with these people (Holak et al, 2007). Family stories are one way by which we learn who we are and may be considered "the

stuff of ethnic identity” (Clark, 1991:21). They influence our lives and facilitate the role that families play as agents of ethnicity (Stone 1988).

c) Cultural nostalgia

This type of nostalgia derives from direct experience, such as when members of a group share the same experiences which helps create a cultural identity (Holak et al, 2007). Boyarin and Boyarin (1993) explain group identity as constructed traditionally in two ways -on the one hand as the “product of a common genealogical origin”, on the other, as a result of “common geographical origins”.

d) Virtual nostalgia

This is a form of nostalgia evoked by an experience shared in an indirect manner (Holak et al, 2007), for example, with the experience of media such as films, music, literature and images “Virtual nostalgia, dealing with indirect, collective experience, may involve one's own cultural history or may reflect a longing for a different cultural environment. The basis of virtual nostalgia is in non-personal communication, whereas interpersonal nostalgia is rooted in personal relationships with others who communicate their own nostalgia” (Havlena & Holak, 1996: 39).

H2: “Past positive time perception” is positively related to nostalgia

According to Zimbardo (1999), people with a past positive perception of time have the tendency to think about and interpret the present in light of a warm, sentimental attitude towards the past. This converges with the definition of nostalgia suggested by Holak and Havlena (1998): Nostalgia as a positively balanced complex feeling, emotion or mood produced by reflection on things (objects, persons, experiences, ideas) associated with the past.

H3: Nostalgia has a positive direct effect on the intentions to return to rural Europe.

Nostalgia is a “preference (general liking, positive attitude or favourable affect) toward objects (people, places or things) that were more common (popular, fashionable

or widely circulated) when one was younger (in early adulthood, in adolescence, in childhood or even before birth)” (Holbrook & Schindler, 1991). In the exploratory study of this research it was verified that those subjects interviewed who showed to feel nostalgia from the European destination visited were more motivated to return.

A nostalgic feeling about a destination is an emotion, which could lead to a motivation to visit a destination, in this case to return to rural Europe.

H4: Perceived travel constraints have a negative direct effect on the intentions to return to rural Europe

Leisure/ tourism constraints correspond to “investigate factors that are assumed by researchers and/ or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/ or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure.” (Jackson, 2000: 62 cited by Jackson, 2005). In the exploratory study of this research project it was observed that North-Americans feel, indeed, several serious constraints regarding their possible travel to rural Europe

H5: Perceived travel constraints increase Nostalgia

Nostalgia has the capacity of motivating people to overcome negative situations (Sedikies et al, 2004); however the study about this emotion is still very incipient. Wildshut et al. (2006) analyzed a group of British students and verified under which situation they became nostalgic and most of the participants listed negative affect as a trigger of nostalgia (“Generally I think about nostalgic experiences when things are not going very well”).

Perceived travel constraints may be understood as a negative situation, a “thing that is not going very well”, that needs to be overcome in order to travel to the desired

destination, triggering a nostalgia emotion regarding that destination. So, when a person faces constraints to return to a certain destination, that person may tend to feel more nostalgic. This phenomenon might increase nostalgia felt regarding travelling to (and revisiting) a certain destination, namely to rural Europe.

H6: Nostalgia positively mediates the negative relationship between perceived travel constraints and intention to return to rural Europe

If nostalgia is associated to travelling to this destination, it should help overcome constraints felt regarding travelling to the respective destination, thereby acting as a mediating variable between travel constraints and intentions to visit rural Europe. Hubbard and Mannel (2001) and White (2008) found that higher the motivation higher the intention of participate in this case in return to rural Europe.

Zhou et al. (2008) showed in a study the possibility that nostalgia mitigates reductions in perceived social support caused by loneliness. In a study using 758 Chinese students that moved from rural areas to a city they verified that (1) loneliness was negatively associated with perceived social support, (2) loneliness was positively associated with nostalgia and (3) nostalgia was positively associated with perceived social support. Their study showed that, whereas the direct effect of loneliness is to decrease perceived social support, the indirect effect of loneliness is to increase perceived social support onto both loneliness and nostalgia.

Like in the study of Zhou et al. (2008), the previously defined hypotheses raise the possibility that travel constraints influence revisit intention in two different ways. Firstly, the direct effect of travel constraints is to reduce intention to revisit. Secondly, travel constraints may also have an indirect effect by increasing revisit intention via nostalgia. This pattern of relationships would give rise to a situation of statistical

suppression¹². Such situation occurs if the direct effect of travel constraints is in the opposite direction of its indirect effect via nostalgia, that is, the direct and indirect effects have opposite signs.

H7: Perceived travel constraints has a positive direct effect on negotiation

Several authors verified that constraints (Crawford *et al*, 1991; Scott, 1991; Jackson, 1999; Hubbard & Mannel, 2001; Raymore, 2002; Jackson, 2005) are negotiable and people adopt strategies to fulfil their leisure travel needs and desires. The existence of travel constraints increases the necessity to develop negotiation strategies in order to mitigate them.

H8: Negotiation has a positive direct effect on the intentions to return to rural Europe

According to Jackson (1999: 196), “people ‘negotiate around’ constraints using a variety of strategies, making them achieve their leisure goals, but often in a way that differs from how their leisure would have been if constraints had been absent”. Through negotiation people develop strategies to overcome the travel constraints in order to concretize their intentions to return to rural Europe.

H9: Travel experience (expertise and familiarity) has a positive effect on the intentions to return to rural Europe

Alba and Hutchinson (1987) define (product) expertise as product-related experiences such as advertising exposures, information search, interactions with sales

¹² According to Tzelgov & Henik (1991, cited by MacKinnon *et al*, 2000: 174): a suppression variable is “a variable which increases the predictive validity of another variable (or set of variables) by its inclusion in a regression equation” where predictive validity is assessed by the magnitude of the regression coefficient. Thus, a situation in which the magnitude of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable becomes larger when a third variable is included would indicate suppression.”

persons, choice and decision making, purchasing and product usage in various situations. According to Perdue (2001) as experience increases, it is postulated that the individual has greater ability to utilize his/ her existing knowledge structures to interpret and elaborate on new product information resulting in increasingly specific and precise product images and preferences.

In the context of consumer behavior familiarity has been defined as “the number of product related experiences accumulated over time” (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987: 411). Some studies (Milberg et al, 1997; Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Jacoby et al. 1986) show a positive relationship between product familiarity and expertise, thus increased product familiarity results in consumer expertise. Milman and Pizam (1995) observed that when consumers are familiar with a destination their interest and likelihood to visit increase.

Figure 6: Conceptual Model and proposed Hypotheses

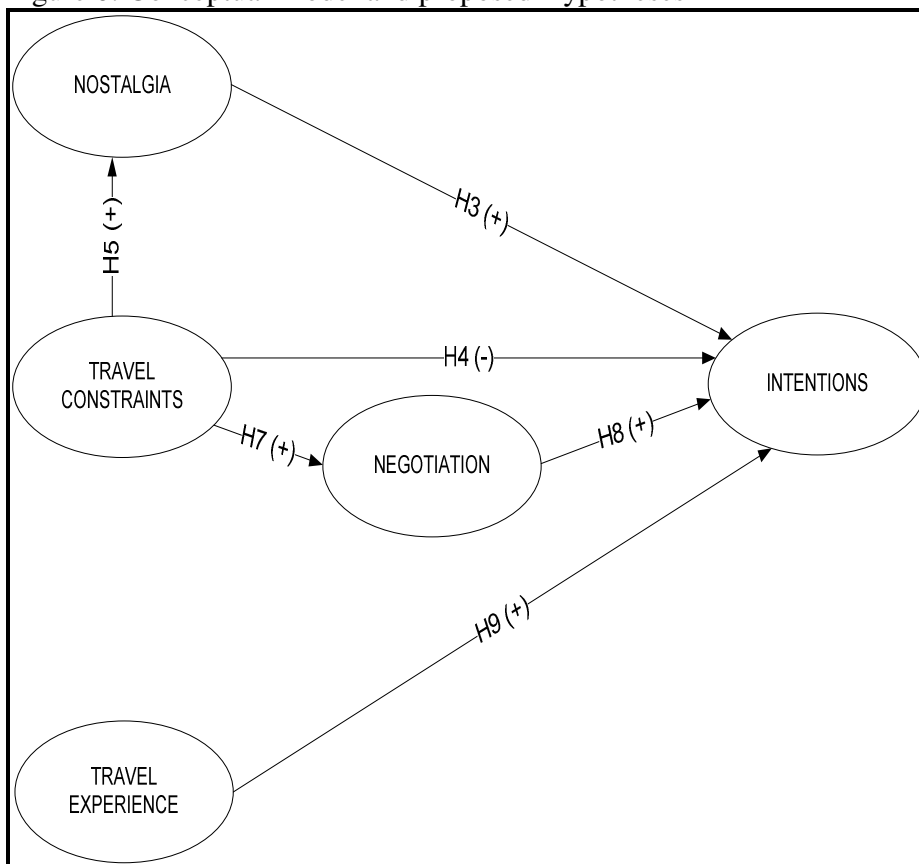


Table 16: Summary of the research hypothesis

Research hypothesis
H1: Nostalgia evoked by tourism has four dimensions, namely, Individual, intrapersonal, cultural and virtual
H2: “Past positive time perception” is positively related to nostalgia
H3: Nostalgia has a positive direct effect on the intentions to visit rural Europe
H4: Perceived travel constraints has a negative direct effect on intentions to return to rural Europe
H5: Perceived travel constraints increase Nostalgia
H6: Nostalgia positively mediates the negative relationship between perceived travel constraints and intention to return to Europe
H7: Perceived travel constraints has a positive direct effect on negotiation
H8: Negotiation has a positive direct effect on intentions to return to Europe
H9: Experience in travel has a positive direct effect on intentions to return to rural Europe

4.3 Operationalization of the constructs

Constructs are a theoretical concept, a construction of a phenomenon cause and can never be measured directly. In social science, it is typically necessary to operationalize the construct through measuring behaviors and statements regarding attitudes, motivations, perceptions and behaviors. The operationalization of the constructs used in this work is presented in the Table 17. In the next chapter, the methodology used to support the proposed research hypotheses will be explained.

Table 17: Operationalization of the constructs

Construct	Resources for the item development	Scale
<p>Nostalgia <i>“A preference (general liking, positive attitude or favourable affect) toward objects (people, places or things) that were more common (popular, fashionable or widely circulated) when one was younger (in early adulthood, in adolescence, in childhood or even before birth)”.</i> (Holbrook & Schindler, 1991)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews to North Americans • Holak and Havlena, 1998; • Holak and Havlena, 1992; • Havlena and Holak, 2007 • Pascal et al (2002) 	<p>Five point Likert (1-disagree completely to 5-Agree completely)</p>
<p>Time perspective <i>‘the often unconscious process whereby the continual flows of personal and social experiences are assigned to temporal categories, or time frames, that help to give order, coherence, and meaning to those events.’</i> Zimbardo & Boyd (1999)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) 	<p>Five point Likert1-Very untrue; to 5-Very true)</p>
<p>Travel constraints <i>can be defined as factors that “inhibit people’s ability to participate in leisure activities, to spend more time doing so, to take advantage of leisure services, or to achieve a desired level of satisfaction”</i> (Jackson, 1988: 203)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nyaupane et al, 2004; • Pennington-Gray and Kernstetter, 2002; • Jackson, 2005; • Daniels et al, 2005 	<p>Scale: Five point Likert (1-disagree completely to 5-Agree completely)</p>
<p>Negotiation <i>“people ‘negotiate around’ constraints using a variety of strategies, achieving their leisure goals, but often in a way that differs from how their leisure would have been if constraints had been absent”</i> Jackson (1999: 196),</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • White (2007); • Crawford et al (2001); • Raymore (2002) • Jackson (1999) 	<p>Five point Likert (1-disagree completely to 5-Agree completely)</p>
<p>Expertise <i>(product) expertise is the product-related experiences such as advertising exposures, information search, interactions with sales persons, choice and decision making, purchasing and product usage in various situations.</i> Alba & Hutchinson (1987)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Netemeyer and Bearden; (1992) Alba and Hutchison (1987) 	<p>Seven-point semantic differential</p>
<p>Familiarity <i>“the number of product related experiences accumulated over time”</i> (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987: 411)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alba and Hutchison (1987) 	<p>Five point Likert ((1-disagree completely to 5-Agree completely)</p>

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the different methods used in this project and also presents a justification of their use. According to Henderson (1990) the researcher who understands the different possibilities offered by quantitative and qualitative research methods can address the most suitable ways to study the issues related to tourism. In this project both qualitative and quantitative methods were applied, which will be described and discussed in the following parts of this chapter.

5.2 Qualitative research versus quantitative research

According to Hara (2008), qualitative methods can be very useful to clear thinking processes. After all, good research questions will not be generated by statistical software but by researchers with clear vision and insights on observed phenomena, data and trends. Good quantitative research often originates from solid qualitative thoughts. According to Reichardt and Cook (1979), researchers must focus on the needs of their research, which may require both qualitative and quantitative methods. Indeed, “treating the method-types as incompatible obviously encourages researchers to use only one or other when it may be a combination of the two that is best suited to research needs” (Reichardt and Cook, 1979:11).

As far as this project is concerned, a combination of both methods seems the most adequate procedure, since the understanding of the long-haul market’s decision-making process regarding rural Europe is an understudied field, requiring qualitative in-depth studies to identify most relevant themes and intervening constructs, such as nostalgia in its diverse dimensions related to travelling, which itself constitutes another understudied field.

5.3 Qualitative research

According to Newman and Benz (1998:9) qualitative research methods are frequently used under the heading “ethnography”. Qualitative research designs in the social sciences are based on traditions in anthropology and sociology, whose epistemological grounds emphasise the phenomenological nature of the study of mankind, the attempt to understand the “meaning” of phenomena for the people under examination. This is referred as the *Verstehen* (German word for understanding) approach¹³. Often in a qualitative design only one subject, one case, or one unit is the focus of investigation over an extended period of time.

5.3.1 Exploratory study for identifying relevant constructs and developing the research model

The exploratory data collection for the development of the model was based on a qualitative analysis undertaken with 27 semi-structured interviews (see Table 18) and an anthropological study over a period of three months. Ethnographic studies are a technique from the discipline of Social Anthropology, which aims to study an object by direct experience of the reality, in which it falls (Nash, 2004). This approach seems particularly adequate for analyzing tourism, since according to Palmer (2001), research on tourism often presents many complexities that are best observed in a direct manner.

¹³ Wilhelm Dilthey, in the 1890s, emphasized the meaningfulness of human phenomena and put forward the method of *verstehen* and the primacy of “lived experience” in the interpretation of human affairs. These two perspectives--empiricist and causal, anti-empiricist and hermeneutic, have set the stage for much current thinking about the logic and method of the human sciences since the nineteenth century (Little, 1995). The *verstehen* approach holds that the most basic ontology of social life is the meaning of an action. Social life is constituted by social actions, and actions are meaningful to the actors and to the other social participants. Moreover, subsequent actions are oriented towards the meanings of prior actions; so understanding the later action requires that we have an interpretation of the meanings that various participants assign to their own actions and those of others. (Central exponents of this tradition include Weber, Dilthey, Heidegger, Ricoeur, and Gadamer.)

Table 18: Description of participants

Num	Gender	Age group	Connection with Europe	Experience of travel to Europe
1	Female	30-40 years	Military father worked in Europe, Indirect Italian origin	Travelled to several countries in Europe in childhood
2	Male	30-40 years	Parents of European origin (France and Germany)	Travelled through France, Germany, Spain and England
3	Female	20-30 years	Grandparents of European origin	Has travelled to Europe once: Switzerland
4	Male	50-60 years	Father of Italian origin	Travelled to several European countries for vacation and worked in Italy
5	Male	20-30 years	Parents of European origin (second generation)	Has never travelled to Europe
6	Male	50-60 years	Without direct European origin	Travelled to several European countries for business
7	Female	30-40 years	Without direct European origin, but within a community with strong traditions of Scotland	Has never travelled to Europe
8	Female	More than 65 years	Does not know if origin is European	Has never travelled to Europe
9	Female	More than 65 years	Does not know if origin is European	Has never travelled to Europe
10	Female	More than 65 years	Descendant of Poles	Has never travelled to Europe
11	Female	30-40 years	The husband is English	Travelled to Europe once
12	Male	30-40 years	Does not know if origin is European	Has never travelled to Europe
13	Male	30-40 years	European grandparents	Has never travelled to Europe
14	Male	30-40 years	Does not know if origin is European	Has never travelled to Europe
15	Female	30-40 years	Does not know if origin is European	Has travelled to Europe once: Italy
16	Male	30-40 years	Remote Irish descent	Has never travelled to Europe
17	Male	40-50 years	Italian origins	Lived in Europe up to 12 years
18	Female	40-50 years	Does not know if origin is European	Lived in Europe for a few years of childhood because his father worked in England
19	Female	30-40 years	Descendants of remote ancestors Europe (Germany)	Has never travelled to Europe
20	Male	30-40 years	Does not know if origin is European	Has never travelled to Europe
21	Female	20-30 anos	Does not know if origin is European	Has never travelled to Europe
22	Male	20-30 anos	Descendant of Germans	Has travelled to Europe once: Germany
23	Female	30-40 years	Does not know if origin is European	Has never travelled to Europe
24	Female	50-60 anos	Offspring of Italian and Scottish	Has travelled to Europe once: Italy
25	Female	30-40 years	It has Italian grandparents	Has travelled to Europe once: Italy
26	Female	30-40 years	Offspring in the family of France, Italy and England	Has travelled to Europe once: France
27	Male	30-40 years	Italian descendant	Has travelled to Europe once: France, Italy and England

Source: author

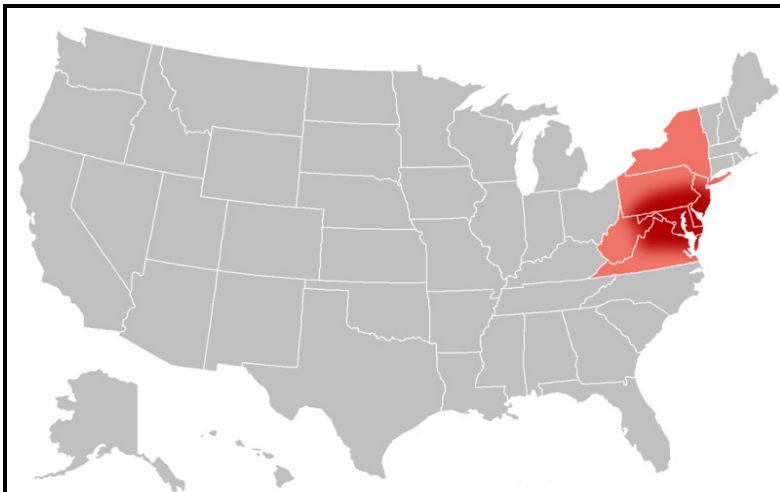
Participant observation is a method by which researchers make observations during the participation in the activities of individuals who are studied (Chambliss & Schutt, 2009; Spradley, 1980). As in other methods of observation, it is important to recognize the chance to win an in-depth knowledge of the situation in its social, natural or usual context, especially providing a sense of what is called "view of who is inside" the situation or context (Belsky, 2004). Participant observation was conducted by talking to and observing behavior of Americans living in the Mid-Atlantic U.S., specifically in

public places, work and leisure settings. This approach was conducted during a three month stay in Pennsylvania.

The interview process

For the sample adults of U.S. citizenship were selected, who should show some habit of travelling. At least some respondents should already have experienced travelling to Europe. The study was conducted in the state of Pennsylvania, the Mid-Atlantic U.S.¹⁴ between June and August 2009. According to ITA (2009), in 2009, 40% of the US resident travelers to overseas destinations were residents in the Mid-Atlantic region.

Figure 7: location of the Mid-Atlantic region



Source: www.united-states-map.com

¹⁴ The Mid-Atlantic States, also called “Middle Atlantic states” or simply the “Mid Atlantic”, form a region of the United States generally located between New England and the South. Its exact definition differs upon source, but the region often includes Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Washington D.C., and sometimes New York, Virginia and West Virginia. The Mid-Atlantic has played an important role in the development of American culture, commerce, trade, and industry, yet it is one of the least self-conscious of American regions. It has been called “the typically American” region by Frederick Jackson Turner. Religious pluralism and ethnic diversity have been important elements of Mid-Atlantic society from its settlement by Dutch, Swedes, English Catholics, and Quakers through to the period of English rule, and beyond. After the American Revolution, the Mid-Atlantic region hosted each of the historic capitals of the United States, including the current federal capital, Washington D.C.. Large numbers of German, Irish, Italian, Jewish, Polish, and other immigrants transformed the region, especially coastal cities such as New York City, Newark, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, but also interior cities such as Pittsburgh and Buffalo.

The respondents were contacted using the snowball method, with the interviewer asking the respondents who were personally addressed for the interview to indicate other persons, known by the first, who possess the characteristics of the target group to be also interviewed (Babbie, 2009). The interviews intended to explore the factors that lead respondents to travel or not to rural Europe, thereby eliciting relevant themes and factors facilitating, inhibiting and conditioning this travel decision.

The interviews had a duration ranging from half an hour to two hours. After responding to personal data, and information on their prior experience of travel to Europe, three open-ended questions were directed to participants. These open questions intended to introduce the participants to the particular topic of interest and let them develop their ideas and perspectives on the subject addressed, namely the (potential and/ or already undertaken) travel to rural areas in Europe. Based on these interviews, it could be concluded that the participants perceive many constraints regarding travel to Europe and particularly concerning travel to European rural areas, as visible in the following statements:

"I have to pay the loan of the University, the mortgage and all the years I visited my parents and my husband's parents who live in different parts of the U.S. and at a long distance. So, I have few financial resources and time to travel to Europe." (respondent n° 25, see table 18)

"Europe is a very expensive destination is far away and the rural people should not speak English and there should not exist public transport." (respondent n° 13, see Table 18)

However, another factor common to most respondents was the existence of nostalgia for Europe which led many participants to negotiate the constraints that prevented them from visiting Europe, as visible in the statement:

"I had to visit the land of my grandmother, where she grew up, hearing so many stories about Germany that I got a huge desire to go there. I had to raise money for two years." (respondent n° 22, see Table 18)

As a result of qualitative research the theme of nostalgia was identified as a most relevant determinant of a possible decision to travel to Europe, including its rural areas, a destination that is perceived as imposing many constraints that need to be overcome and negotiated. These results, together with a correspondingly (re-)directed literature review helped design the research model, define and delineate the most relevant constructs, the relationships between them and thus prepare a quantitative research approach, aiming at validating this model.

Another aspect relevant to the study was to verify that North Americans see Rural Europe not as one single place but divided by regions, with some being more known than others. Tuscany in Italy has an iconic status in North America, presenting an image that is transmitted through the high number of Italian descendants and the popular media, with references to the Tuscan way of life visible on television and in shopping malls. Countless television shows, novels and memoirs like “Bella Tuscany: The sweet life in Italy” (Mayes, 2000), “The reluctant Tuscan: How I discovered my inner Italian” (2006) and “A thousand days in Tuscany: A bittersweet adventure” (Blasi, 2005), embellish this popular image. Films like “A Room with a View”, “The English Patient” and “Stealing Beauty” celebrate the pleasures and adventures to be experienced “under the Tuscan sun” (Gaggio, 2011). Tuscany is thus represented collectively as a sort of exotic dreamland, where the beauty of landscape and art takes away inhibitions and frees the souls, so that visitors discover their own feelings, emotions and sensuality (Bellini, 2008). Ireland and Scotland are also well-known areas, mostly because of the high number of descendants of immigrants of those nationalities.

However, there are also rural areas that are largely unknown, undiscovered like rural Portugal. Santos (2002) analyzed travel articles about Portugal in selected American newspapers—New York Times, Washington Post, Los Angeles Times, and USA Today—travel sections’ coverage of tourism in Portugal. She found that American travel writing framing of Portugal presents two types of frames, namely traditional and contemporary. An analysis of a sample of the articles published reveals various terminologies used to describe Portugal, including: “traditional,” as well as “medieval,”

“antiquated,” “resistant to modernization,” “slow paced,” “time stood still,” and “old-fashioned.” Conversely, this analysis also reveals the use of terminology that stands in significant opposition and describes Portugal as “contemporary,” “modern,” “sophisticated,” “ever changing,” “transformed,” and “hastily developing.” More recently the National Geographic added the Douro Region to the collection of Geotourism maps and has published some articles related to Portugal, but still the knowledge of rural Portugal in North America is scarce and the destination is relatively unknown, since the development of a destination image requires a lot of time and needs to be nourished by many distinct experiences, both related to travel and originating from general media, as already suggested by Gunn (1992) when distinguishing organic, induced and real images.

In order to explore the North American tourists’ motivation to travel to rural Europe and eventually revisit it, to areas with different characteristics, the survey was administered in both one region very popular to the North American market, Tuscany in Italy and another relatively unfamiliar region, the Rural North of Portugal.

5.4 Quantitative research

Quantitative research is more traditional in psychology and behavioural science and has been extensively used in marketing research, in general, and tourism marketing research, in particular (Newman & Benz, 1998). Quantitative designs include experimental studies, quasi-experimental studies, pretest-posttest designs, randomization; valid and reliable measures are required and generalizability from the sample to the population is the aim. Data in quantitative studies are coded according to a priori operational and standardized definitions, which are reflected in the questions/items used in the questionnaire

5.4 1 Procedures for the development of the pre-test questionnaire

According to Czaja and Blair (1996:11) there are five general steps for the development and completion of a survey approach, namely: (1) Survey design and preliminary planning; (2) pretesting; (3) final survey design and planning; (4) data collection; (5) data coding, data-file construction, analysis and final report.

A pre-test was undertaken to analyze the validity of the questionnaire and at the same time to validate the scales to be applied, based on the procedure suggested by Devellis (2003). According to Czaja (1998) it is important to pre-test the questionnaire in order to verify if the tool is adequate in five main dimensions, namely regarding respondent comprehension, burden and interest; interviewer tasks; other questionnaire issues; sampling procedures; and coding and analysis (see Table 19). The pre-test was applied in Portugal between March 1 and April 29. Some spelling mistakes were identified and the layout was altered in order to facilitate the application of the questionnaire.

Table 19: Goals of a Pretest - Problem Identification and Questions to Address

Problem	Questions to Address
Respondent Comprehension, Burden, and Interest	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Do respondents have difficulty understanding words, terms or concepts? · Is the sentence structure too complex? Do respondents understand the question, the task required, and the answer format? · Do respondents interpret the question as the researcher intends? · Do respondents use different response categories or choices than those offered? · Are respondents willing and able to perform the tasks required to provide accurate and complete answers? · Are respondents attentive and interested in the questions?
Interviewer Tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Do interviewers have difficulty pronouncing words or reading particular sentences? · Do interviewers leave out words or modify the question wording in other ways? · Do interviewers read the question and probe in a neutral manner? · Do interviewers follow skip patterns and other instructions correctly? · Do interviewers record complete answers? Is adequate space provided? · Are there any other tasks interviewers have difficulty performing?
Other Questionnaire Issues	<p>Do the sections of the questionnaire and the questions within sections have a logical flow?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Are the skip instructions correct? · Is there evidence of question order effects?
Sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · What is the response rate? Does the response rate indicate any potential problems? · Are the eligibility rates as expected; do these rates indicate any unexpected problems? · Are there any indications of problems with the completeness and accuracy of the sampling frame?
Coding and Analysis	<p>Is it difficult to construct code categories for the question or to code responses to open-ended questions?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Is the level of variation in responses to each question acceptable?

Source: Czaja, 1998

5.4.2 Final version of the quantitative research instrument (questionnaire)

A comprehensive questionnaire was developed to interview US residents who live in the country for more than ten years and have travelled to Europe in the past five years. The questionnaire is composed of the following sections:

a) Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents (European roots, gender, age, nationality, education, professional status);

Table 20: Socio-demographic characteristics

European roots	Yes/no
Employment	Manager; student; craftsperson; minister/priest; sales or clerical; service worker; retired; agriculture; teacher; other.
Education	Grade school; high school; college; graduate school.
Gender	Male/ female
Age*	Open-ended question

b) Behavior before travelling to Europe (sources of information)

Table 21: Travel behavior before the trip (planning)

Sources of information before travel	Family/ friends; previous visit; internet; tourist board; travel agency; TV/ radio; tour operator brochure; guide books.
Organization	All inclusive package; travel and accommodation booked separately; nothing booked in advance

c) Behavior at the tourism destination (sources of information; transportation; Accommodation; travel group)

Table 22: Travel behavior on site (during the trip)

Accommodation	Hotel; own home; second residence; self catering accommodation; bed & breakfast; with family and friends; other (specify)
Travel group	Spouse; children; friends; business peers; organized tour group; other (specify)
Length of stay	Open ended question
Transport to Europe	Plane; cruise, other (specify)
Transport in destination	Rented car; family & friends car; bus; train; airplane; other (specify)

d) Nostalgia (individual, intrapersonal, cultural, virtual)

Table 23: Nostalgia

NOST1	The trip to ___ reminded me of the stories I heard about that place
NOST2	The trip to__ evoked good feelings about a special time of my life
NOST3	The trip to__ made me think about special persons, places, or things in my youth
NOST4	The trip to__ made me feel back home
NOST5	The trip to__ reminded me of an era before my birth
NOST6	The music I heard from ___before the trip made me feel nostalgic about that place
NOST7	The trip to ___ made me reconnect with my ancestral roots
NOST8	The trip to__ evoked good feelings about a time before my birth
NOST9	Before my trip to__ some films evoked nostalgia from that place
NOST10	The trip to ___ made me reminisce about my roots
NOST11	The trip to ___ evoked me about the roots of the community I'm now integrated in
NOST12	The trip to _____made me feel good about a previous time
NOST13	The images I've seen about ___before my trip made me feel nostalgic about that place
NOST14	The trip to__ made me wish I could go back to a time before I was born
NOST15	The books that I read connected to ___made me feel nostalgic about that place
NOST16	The trip to__ made me reminisce about a special time in my life

e) Constraints (personal, intrapersonal, structural and cultural)

Table 24: Travel constraints regarding your travel to rural Europe (Concerns I have pertaining to go on rural holidays to Europe)

Intrapersonal constraints

- CONST4 I have no information about rural Europe
CONST5 It's a crowded place.
CONST9 Travelling to rural Europe involves too much risk
CONST7 I am unable to drive.
CONST10 My health does not allow me to travel.

Travel constraints: interpersonal

- CONST12 I have no one to travel with/ it's not fun to travel by my self
CONST13 My family and friends are not interested in travelling

Travel constraints: structural constraints

- CONST1 I have no time to make a trip
CONST2 The long distance of international travel is a big problem.
CONST3 The high cost of travelling to rural Europe is a big problem.
-

f) Negotiation

Table 25: Negotiation (When you want to travel to Europe you try to):

- NEG1 Find people with similar interests
NEG2 Bring other people to make me feel safer.
NEG3 Organize trips with your own group
NEG4 Try to budget money
NEG5 Set aside money to use for to travel
NEG6 Get time to travel to Europe.
-

g) Travel expertise

Table 26: Travel expertise: How do you feel about travelling to rural Europe?

EXP1	Knowledgeable / Not knowledgeable
EXP2	Competent / not competent
EXP3	Expert / not expert
EXP4	Experienced / not experienced

h) Familiarity

Table 27: Familiarity

FAM1	I am familiar with trips to rural locations in Europe
FAM2	I am familiar with search for information related to travelling to rural Europe
FMA3	I am familiar with travelling outside the USA

i) Time perspective (past positive, past negative)

Table 28: Time perspective (How characteristic or true is this of me?)

TP3	Familiar childhood sights, sounds, smells often bring back a flood of wonderful memories
TP4	Even when I am enjoying the present, I am drawn back to comparisons with similar past experiences
TP6	I get nostalgic about my childhood
TP8	I find myself tuning out when family members talk about the way things used to be
TP9	I like family rituals and traditions that are regularly repeated.
TP13	Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind
TP15	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.

j) Intentions to visit rural Europe (return, recommend)

Table 29: Intentions to visit rural Europe*

INT2	I intend to recommend this (rural) destination (in Europe) to my friends and family.
INT5	I have intention to return to Europe and visit rural places.

* Five point Likert (1-disagree completely to 5-Agree completely)

l) European destination visited (Italy or Portugal)

m) Satisfaction, multi-destination, root/ legacy travel

Table 30: Root/ legacy travel*

TR This travel was to search my roots.

Satisfaction*

ST I'm very satisfied with these holidays

multi-destination*

MD I had a multi-destination travel pattern mixing rural and urban places

** Five point Likert (1-disagree completely to 5-Agree completely)*

5.4.3 Data collection procedure

The survey was conducted between May and November 2010. The questionnaire was self-administered after being delivered by the interviewer in rural hotels, cruises and tourism offices of the selected regions on days that were randomly chosen. Additionally, questionnaires were distributed at the airport of Newark (USA) to passengers that were returning from Portugal and Italy. Flights were randomly chosen and all passengers that were returning from the selected regions were asked to answer. From 1800 questionnaires distributed, 456 usable responses were received, corresponding to an effective response rate of 25.3%.

CHAPTER 6

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the main results of the quantitative study that resulted from the information collected through the questionnaire will be analyzed and presented. First, the socio-economic profile and the travel behavior of the sample is presented based on descriptive analysis. After this step and based on descriptive and univariate analysis a deeper multivariate analysis is presented. The models assessing each construct are validated through CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis). The research model and the hypotheses are tested using SEM techniques (Structural Equation Modeling). For undertaking these analyses SPSS 18 and AMOS 19 (Arbuckle, 2010) was used. This chapter ends with a synthesis of the main results of the analysis undertaken.

6.2 Descriptive analysis of collected data

6.2.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample

A total of 456 interviews were conducted in Italy (Toscana), Portugal (Douro and Center Region) and at the airport of Newark (US), with individuals who had undertaken flights coming back from Portugal or Italy. Among all the respondents, 67.5% reveal having European roots, i.e., they were European-Americans (see Table 31).

For Schuman (2011) the future growth of tourism depends on how well the tourism industry understands the social and demographic trends influencing traveller behaviour. The demographic variable that for a very long time was recognized as the major one was age. However, some authors have recognized that not only chronological

age but also life cycles and generational cohorts need to be studied (Moscardo et al, 2011). Cohort analysis provides a major research tool for considering the implications of more profound social and demographic changes on tourism.

Table 31: Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

<i>Age</i>	N	%
18-30 years old	197	44.5
31-40 years old	144	32.5
41-50 years old	82	18.5
51-60 years old	9	2.0
More than 65 years old	11	2.5
Total	443	100.0
<i>Gender</i>	N	%
Female	209	46.0
Male	245	54.0
Total	454	100.0
<i>Level of education</i>	N	%
Grade school	10	2.2
High school	54	11.9
College	359	78.9
Graduate school	32	7.0
Total	455	100.0
<i>Employment</i>	N	%
Manager	32	7.1
Student	144	31.9
Craftsperson	13	2.9
Minister/ Priest	1	.2
Sales or clerical	15	3.3
Service worker	159	35.2
Retired	14	3.1
Teacher	25	5.5
Other	49	10.8
Total	452	100.0
<i>European roots</i>	N	%
Yes	306	67.5
No	147	32.5
Total	453	100.0

The majority of the respondents were between 18-40 years old (77.5 %) being mostly in the range between 18-30 years (44.5%), which corresponds, according to Table 32, to 41% of the total US population nowadays, namely the so-called *Generation Y*.

According to ITA (2011) the average age of the US outbound tourist market to Europe is 45-47 years, while Laitamaki (2009) quotes that the most relevant outbound tourists are the Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964), followed by Generation X (born between 1965 and 1980). The important number of relatively young respondents may be related to older tourists' stronger resistance identified in the survey administration process, regarding responding to the questionnaire, which might constitute a limitation in this study.

Table 32: A summary of living birth generations

Birth years	Generation name	Age range in 2010	Current population in USA (%)	Working age in USA (%)
1901-1924	GI	110-87	3	0
1925-1942	Silent	86-69	14	8
1943-1960	Baby Boomer	68-51	27	42
1961-1981	Gen X	50-30	15	24
1982-2002	Gen Y	29-9	41	26
2003-.....	Gen Z	8-....	----	----

Source: Pendergast, 2010 and Brooks, 2006 cited by Pendergast, 2010

Generation units are the subgroups within the generation time span, which typically varies within a 20-22-year generation location span. There is no agreement on when exactly a generation begins and ends, it depends on the events used to determine the year, which is naturally also conditioned by the larger socio-cultural context of the society under analysis. In this work the generations defined in the book "Tourism and generation" by Benckendorff et al (2011) are considered. As mentioned before, most of the respondents are thus integrated in the so-called *generation Y* (see Tables 31 and 32), the most recent generation completing its birth cycle. According to Pendergast (2010), this generation is made up of three generation units and there are seven core traits typifying them. The three generation units are:

- 1) Generation Why (born 1982-1985);
- 2) Millennials (MilGens; born 1985-1999); and

3) iGeneration (born 1999-2002).

and the seven core traits typifying them as a collective are:

- (a) special;
- (b) sheltered;
- (c) confident;
- (d) team-oriented;
- (e) conventional;
- (f) pressured; and
- (g) achieving.

A study cited by Pendergast (2010), which interviewed more than 8500 Y-Generation travellers, revealed the following key features about these travellers they:

- a) travel more often;
- b) explore more destinations;
- c) spend more on travel;
- d) book more over the internet;
- e) are hungry for experience;
- f) are hungry for information;
- g) intrepid travellers; and
- h) get a lot out of their travel.

As far as gender is concerned, the sample is almost equilibrated, being 54% males. In terms of education a large majority of the respondents possessed a bachelor's degree or higher (78.9%). Most of the respondents are service workers (35.2%) and students (31.9%).

6.2.2 Travel behavior

Information sources can be classified as internal and external. Internal sources are derived from personal memory and experience while external sources result from the collection of market information. When the collection of internal information provides sufficient recourses for decision making, the usage of external resources is less necessary (Gursoy and Umbreit, 2004; Beatty and Smith, 1987).

The information search is performed through various distribution and communication channels, such as travel agents, friends and family, newspapers and magazines and the Internet. In the last decade, the use of the Internet to search for tourist information has been increasing and is currently one of the information resources most commonly used (Litvin et al, 2008; Frias et al, 2007; Pan & Fesenmeier, 2004; Peterson & Merino, 2003). According to Table 33 more than half of the sample had searched information about the trip through the internet (56.5%), which might also be a result of the prevalence of relatively young respondents, while also interpersonal communication with family and friends were an important source of information identified (30.1%).

According to Sweeney et al (2008), word of mouth (WOM) is becoming increasingly recognized as an important form of promotion, particularly within professional services environments, where credence qualities play a critical role in consumers' choices as well as in the domain of tourism destination choice (Wesley & Sutherland, 2008). Word of mouth (WOM) is direct and informal communication between individuals who possess a social relationship (Murray, 1991; Brown & Peter, 1987; Reigen, 1997), like family and friends, but the meaning of the phrase "word of mouth" has expanded since its inception. Due to the range of communications technologies today, WOM information is no longer passed necessarily between "mouths", i.e. in a personal, face-to-face communication act. Text messages, emails, phone calls, etc., all qualify as media through which WOM can be distributed (Dougherty & Green, 2011), with electronic word of mouth (e-WOM) being considered as a particularly and increasingly relevant and impacting communication tool (Gruen et al, 2006).

Table 33: Sources of information

	N	%
Internet	257	56.5
Family/ friends	137	30.1
Previous visit	38	8.4
Guide books	12	2.6
Travel agency	7	1.5
Tour operator brochure	2	.4
Tourist board	1	.2
TV/ radio	1	.2
Total	455	100.0

Most of the respondents booked travel and accommodation separately (71.4%) or did not book anything in advance (15%), revealing e that most of these travelers are independent travelers, with the all-inclusive solution being a secondary option (see Table 34). According to Hyde (2008; 2003), independent travelers are all tourists who are not package travelers; they are all the vacation travelers who have not booked an air travel and accommodation package with a travel retailer, having booked only a minimum of their transportation and accommodation prior to their vacation. This means that those vacation travelers who had booked only air travel with the travel retailer would be considered independent travelers; those who had booked their travel or accommodation through the Internet would also be considered independent travelers. These results are in agreement with Hyde and Lawson (2008) who identify a tendency for a growth of the independent travel and a relative decline in package travel.

Table 34: Booking

	N	%
All-inclusive package	62	13.7
Travel and accommodation booked separately	324	71.4
Nothing booked in advance	68	15.0
Total	454	100.0

The majority of the respondents traveled to Europe by plane (see Table 35), for international tourism, air transport constitutes the bulk (OECD, 2010). Many studies show that overseas travelers prefer to travel by air (Hayeard, 2002). Even if cruise was used just by an extremely small percentage of the sample (0.66%) this data is interesting because in some exceptions the travel to the destination could be by itself the attraction, or one of the attractions, as for example, the travel by cruise (Cooper & hall, 2008).

Table 35: Transport used to travel to Europe

	N	%
Plane	452	99.34
Cruise	3	0.66
Total	455	100.0

Most of the respondents used public transportation to move in Europe (70.5%), namely bus (47.5%) and train (23%). In USA, car and rented car is the most popular way of transport used by travelers (ITA, 2010) but, in Europe it seems not to be so usual and just 13.9% adventured themselves using rented car.

Table 36: Transport used to move within Europe

	N	%
Bus	215	47.5
Train	104	23.0
Rented car	63	13.9
Family & friends	61	13.5
Other	7	1.5
Airplane	3	.7
Total	453	100.0

Crotts and Reid (1993) report that long-haul traveler's stay significantly longer in destinations than other travellers. Most of the respondents in this study stayed between 5 and 15 days (48.8%) at the destination, but there is a considerable number of respondents that stayed more than one month (24 %). This could be related with the fact that some

respondents stayed in a second home in Europe or with family and friends (See Table 37), evidencing that they are probably immigrants or descendants of immigrants. Another explanation is related with the relevance of the study abroad programs that exist in Italy, where North American students stay for more than one month at the destination.

Table 37: Length of stay

	N	%
1-4 days	20	7.6
5-10 days	65	24.8
11-15 days	63	24.0
16-20 days	20	7.6
21-25 days	20	7.6
26-30 days	11	4.2
More than one month	63	24.0
Total	262	100.0
Missing (N=456)	194	42.5

Most of the respondents preferred to stay overnight in hotels (61.3%) and bread & breakfast establishments (15%). But there is a considerable number of respondents that stayed with friends and family (13.7%). There is not a clear definition of what VFR is (Backer, 2007). Poel et al (2006) suggest that a VFR (Visit friends and relatives) tourist is a person whose main “purpose [is to] visit friends and relatives”. This motivation is a relevant driver of the travel market in USA (ITA, 2011; Hu & Morrison, 2002), and some studies show that this is closely related with the history of immigration from diverse countries (Jackson, 1990; Paci, 1994). Because of this relation King (1996) and King and Gamage (1994) suggested that ethnic tourism was virtually synonymous with VFR, even if not exactly the same. Ethnic tourism is based on the motivation to reunite or trace one’s ethnic roots or to experience the culture of an ethnic group, while VFR categorises visitors by type of accommodation (Hu & Morrison, 2002).

For Asiedu (2008 cited by Hansel & Metzner, 2011) visiting friends and relatives (VFR) can be seen as an “umbrella term that accommodates all these variants whose motivations are based on exploring the trip marker’s past”. King (1996) suggests that the

visit of friends and relatives (VFR) can be seen from four different perspectives, as a:

- (a) motivation for travel;
- (b) trip purpose;
- (c) vacation activity; and
- (d) form of accommodation used.

Table 38: Accommodation

	N	%
Hotel	277	61.3
Bed & breakfast/ room in private house	68	15.0
With family and friends	62	13.7
Second residence	16	3.5
Self catering accommodation	12	2.7
Own house	10	2.2
Other	7	1.5
Total	452	100.0

Most of the respondents travelled with friends (44.8 %) or in couple (22.9 %) with children (2.2 %) and family (6.6 %). Just one small minority travel alone (6.4 %). So and Letho (2006) examined Japanese family travellers to Taiwan by comparing and contrasting them with other travel companionship groups including travelling with friends and travelling alone. The results indicated that Japanese family travellers exhibited unique characteristics when travelling. Family travellers tended to be more motivated by learning-oriented themes and participated enthusiastically in activities that facilitated experiential learning as well as total physical relaxation. The "travelling with friends" and "travelling solo" segments tended to be seeking more of activities that had strong entertaining and socializing undertones. The travelling solo group appeared to be the most evasive or the least understood in what their needs and preferences were.

Table 39: Group of travel

	N	%
Friends	204	44.8
Spouse	104	22.9
Organized tour group	53	11.6
Family	30	6.6
Alone	29	6.4
Business peers	13	2.9
Other	12	2.6
Children	10	2.2
Total	455	100.0

6.2.3 Descriptive analysis of measurement variables

Table 40 shows the means and the standard deviation of the 16 measurement variables of nostalgia. The items describe four different dimensions of nostalgia, individual, interpersonal and virtual. Most of the respondents agreed with the quote that the trip evoked a “...special time in my life” (mean of 3.52) which is related to individual nostalgia and “...the stories I heard about that place” (mean of 3.38) which is related to interpersonal nostalgia. Individual nostalgia and interpersonal nostalgia, according to Holak and Havlena (2007) are the two forms of direct, most involving nostalgia, acquired through personal experiences and the contact with friends and family. More than 60 % of the respondents have European roots meaning that they have been born and lived in Europe, having personal memories of the destination visited. Some are descendants of Europeans, meaning that the histories, images and culture of Europe were present at home triggering nostalgia when visiting places in Europe.

Table 40: Descriptive Analysis for Nostalgia

Description	Mean	SD
The trip to ___ evoked good feelings about a special time of my life	3.52	1.253
The trip to ___ reminded me of the stories I heard about that place.	3.38	1.064
This trip to ___ reminded me an era before my birth	3.16	1.309
The trip to ___ made me think about special persons, places, or things in my youth	3.06	1.288
The trip to ___ made me feel good about a previous time	2.97	1.166
The trip to ___ made me reminisce about a special time in my life	2.91	1.335
The images I've seen about ___ before my trip made me feel nostalgic about that place	2.91	1.224
This trip to ___ made me feel back home	2.72	1.382
The trip to ___ made me wish I could go back to a time before I was born	2.72	1.356
Before my trip to _____ some films evoked me nostalgia from that place	2.69	1.245
The books that I read connected to ___ made me feel nostalgic about that place	2.63	1.244
This trip to ___ evoked good feelings about a time before my birth	2.55	1.273
The trip to ___ made me reminisce about my roots	2.50	1.384
The music I heard from this place before the trip to _____ made me feel nostalgic about that place	2.47	1.296
The trip to ___ evoked evoked me good memories about the roots of the community I'm now integrated in	2.45	1.259
This trip to ___ made reconnect with my ancestral roots	2.43	1.443

Regarding the past positive perspective (see Table 41), respondents identify themselves more with the quotes “Happy memories of good times spring readily in my mind” (mean of 3.49), “I like family rituals and traditions that are regularly repeated” (mean of 3.48) and “It gives me pleasure to think about my past” (mean of 3.47).

Table 41: Descriptive Analysis for Time Perspective (Past positive perspective)

Description	Mean	SD
Happy memories of good times spring readily in my mind	3.49	1.220
I like family rituals and traditions that are regularly repeated	3.48	1.200
It gives me pleasure to think about my past	3.47	1.192
Familiar childhood sights, sounds, smells often bring back a flood of wonderful memories	3.38	1.245
Even when I am enjoying the present, I am drawn back to comparisons with similar experiences	3.27	1.218
I get nostalgic about my childhood	3.16	1.150

Long haul travel tends to be very expensive (see Table 42) it is shown that the high cost of the trip to Europe (mean of 4.03) is one of the main perceived travel constraints followed by the long distance of the travel (mean of 3.05) and the lack of time to travel (mean of 2.98). The reported main perceived travel constraints are related to structural constraints (cost, long distance and time).

Table 42: Descriptive Analysis for Travel Constraints

Description	Mean	SD
The high cost	4.03	1.265
The long distance of international travel	3.05	1.355
I have no time to make a trip	2.98	1.282
I have no information about rural Europe	2.22	1.222
I have no one to travel with/ it's not fun to travel by my self.	2.19	1.303
My family and friends are not interested in travelling	2.14	1.363
It's a crowded place	1.76	.994
Travelling to rural Europe involves too much risk.	1.67	1.021
I'm unable to drive	1.54	.901
My health does not aloud me to travel.	1.52	.899

The negotiation option for the respondents with the highest mean is related to save money for to travel, namely, “Set aside money to use to travel” (mean of 3.79) followed by “Try to budget money” (mean of 3.53), in an attempt to overcome the before mentioned most relevant perceived travel constraints.

Table 43: Descriptive Analysis for Negotiation

Description	Mean	SD
Set aside money to use to travel	3.79	1.071
Try to budget money	3.57	1.198
Getting time to travel to Europe	3.53	1.061
Organize trips with my own group	3.38	1.22
Find people with similar interests	3.28	1.135
Bring people to make me feel safer	3.14	1.227

The expertise scale is based on the measurement developed by Netemeyer and Bearden (1992) for to maintain the original format of the scale it was used a seven-point semantic differential scale. For the analysis of the items the data was recoded form 1 Knowledgeable to 5- Not Knowledgeable to the opposite (1-Not Knowledgeable to 5-Knowledgeable) for to be with the same characteristics of the other measurement scales. In average the respondents felt more expert (3.64), trained (3.62) and experienced in travel (3.44).

Table 44: Descriptive Analysis for Travel Expertise

Description	Mean	SD
Expert/Not expert	3.64	1.424
Trained/Not Trained	3.62	1.500
Experienced/ Not experienced	3.44	1.447
Knowledgeable/ Not Knowledgeable	3.12	1.381
Competent/ Not competent	2.94	1.278

As far as familiarity with the destination is concerned, this seems to be more associated to the habit of travelling outside the US than travelling to rural areas (see table 45).

Table 45: Descriptive Analysis for Familiarity

Description	Mean	SD
I am used to travelling outside USA	3.60	2.187
I am used to searching for information related to travel	3.44	1.675
I am used to travel to rural locations	3.33	1.011

It is interesting to note that respondents have tendentially more intentions to return “I have intention to return to Europe and visit rural places” (3.64) than to recommend “I intend to recommend this destination to my friends and family” (3.59), which contrasts with results from many other studies, where typically the probability to recommend is higher than that to return (e.g. Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Kastenzholz, 2002; Baloglu, 1996).

Table 46: Descriptive Analysis for Intentions

Description	Mean	SD
I intend to recommend this destination to my friends and family	3.59	1.239
I have intention to return to Europe and visit rural places	3.64	1.187

6.3 Confirmatory Factor Analyses and Structural Equation Modeling

As explained previously in the introduction to this chapter, this analysis will be divided in three parts, namely a development of a nostalgia scale for tourism, an analysis to a mediation effect hypothesized and an analysis of a model determining the intention to revisit the rural European destination, with the latent variables previously validated. For achieving these analyses Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equations Modeling (SEM) will be used.

For the analysis, the following assumptions were taken into account:

(a) The missing values: the number of missing values was extremely low, namely, two missing values in the construct travel expertise and familiarity. For Hair et al (2005) mean substitution is one acceptable means of generating missing data. This procedure was adopted with help of the SPSS software.

(b) Multivariate normality and outliers: for assessing the normality of distribution and outliers first the univariate and multivariate outliers were analyzed. With the exclusion of the most severe outliers, the results of the tests were worse, so it was decided to maintain all cases in the data. The values of multivariate Kurtosis show non-normality. Consequently, instead using the ADF or GLS estimation methods, the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation method was adopted jointly with bootstrap procedure to provide the mean, standard estimates and the subsequent confidence intervals as well as the p-values. Additionally, the Bollen-Steine bootstrap procedure was also chosen to provide a good fit statistic (Bollen & Stine, 1993).

Since AMOS does not provide the Bentley-Santora Chi-Square test and the results of ADF and GLS estimations were worse than the ML estimations, this method was choose and also a bootstrap analysis was undertaken to assess the confidence intervals and Bollen Stine Bootstrap¹⁵ (instead of Bentley-Santora)

¹⁵ Amos offers a variety of Bootstrap analyses in this work it is used Bollen-Stine bootstrap option.

6.4 Nostalgia scale for travel (NOSTOUR)

In this study, individuals' nostalgia towards the destination culture/region visited is hypothesized as a central aspect in the decision-making process. While much has been written about nostalgia, most work has been conceptual and as a result there is no conceptually grounded and empirically validated scale to measure nostalgia for tourism studies. Consequently, one of the most relevant contributions of this research project, permitting a quantitative analysis of the phenomenon was the development of a Tourism Nostalgia Scale (NOSTOUR), which could be used in this study and then be adapted and refined by other authors in similar contexts.

According to DeVellis (2003) the term "scale" is commonly used to refer to a measurement instrument developed for the purpose of measuring a theoretical phenomenon that cannot be readily observed or assessed directly. The scale development process is of critical importance and specific steps should be carried out in order for the researcher to construct a reliable and valid measure and to have any confidence in drawing conclusions about the construct(s) being measured (Osteen, 2004). The development of a nostalgia scale followed the steps suggested by DeVellis (2003):

1. Definition of the construct
2. Generation of an item pool
3. Determination of the form of measurement
4. Review of initial item pool by experts
5. Administration of items to a development sample

The Bollen-Stine option signifies a modified bootstrap method for the chi-square goodness of fit statistics, and provides a means of testing the null hypothesis that the model is correct. For a good-fitting model, Bollen-Stine p should be greater than 0.05 (Raoprasert & Islam, 2010; Bollen & Stine, 1993). The Bollen-Stine is better than Satorra-Bentley option, except when samples are large. For large samples, the Bollen-Stine bootstrapped p -value is comparable to the p -value obtained after the Satorra-Bentley chi-square adjustment (Bollen & Stine, 1992). For smaller samples, the bootstrap algorithm seems to give a closer approximation of the correct rejection probabilities. In other words, the Satorra-Bentley adjusted chi-square seems to require relatively large samples of at least 200+ cases, while the bootstrap algorithm miraculously seems to get away with fewer cases. Using a conventional significance level of 0.05, the model should be rejected if p -value is smaller than 0.05. If p -value is larger than 0.05, the model should not be rejected, i.e., you would accept the model, and thus conclude that the model fit the data well.

6. Evaluation of items, and
7. Optimization of scale length
8. Scale validation

a) Definition of the construct and generation of an item pool

“Defining the construct may be the most difficult part of scale construction” (Spector, 1992: 14). DeVellis (2003) argues that constructs are more clearly defined when authors can benefit from theoretical specificity. Conversely, more complex exploratory research is necessary when little is known about a phenomenon (Diamantopoulos & Souchon, 1999; Salkind, 2010) and particularly when no reliable and valid quantitative measures of a construct exists (Patton, 1980).

The initial focus was to develop an operational definition of nostalgia. As reported in Chapter 3, literature distinguishes two separate dimensions of nostalgia (Holak *et al*, 2007; Davis, 1979): (1) personal versus collective and (2) related to the basis of the feeling being either direct or indirect. Based on these two dimensions, Holak *et al* (2007) proposed four ways to classify the nostalgic experience: (a) individual nostalgia (direct individual experience); (b) interpersonal nostalgia (indirect individual experience); (c) cultural nostalgia (direct collective nostalgia); and (d) virtual nostalgia (indirect collective experience). In addition to a review of related literature, the initial nostalgia item-pool was developed from data collected during a 3-month exploratory fieldwork in the Mid-Atlantic region of the US. The data included notes from unstructured observations and transcriptions of 27 semi-structured interviews. Details about this step of the study are outlined in Chapter 5, under heading “Exploratory data collection for the choice of the constructs and development of the model” As a result of the process, an initial pool of 26 items was created.

According to Noar (2003: 624), scale developers should (a) write clear concise, with one thought per item; (b) try to avoid jargon, slang and dated wording; (c) avoid

ambiguous sentences, words, and double negatives; (d) if possible, include both positively and negatively worded items, so individuals must clearly pay attention to the scale items when answering them; (e) try to portray the same thought in a number of different ways; (f) be gender and culturally sensitive when writing items; (g) keep the reading level of items low, so that they can be used with various populations; and (h) be sure and write items that cover the entire content domain suggested by theory and literature.

At this stage of the process several items portraying the same thought should be retained because it will be unclear until later which items portray the thought in the best way. After the initial twenty six items were chosen, they were shared with a group of experts who were asked to edit them for clarity and to assign them to the dimensions of nostalgia, as specified in the operational definitions provided to them. Sixteen items were consistently classified by the expert panel, so these items were retained and edited so as to assure clarity and improve grammatical structure. Six of the sixteen items were rewritten and/or edited in this part of the process. Two items were shortened for improved clarity, and any of the items were negatively worded items were because they were excessively confusing. There are no rules about the number of items that a scale should have, however keeping a measure short is an effective means of minimizing response biases caused by boredom and fatigue or even non-response or abandoning of the response process (Hinkin, 1998; Smitt & Stults, 1985; Schriesheim & Eisenbach, 1990). The item pool consisted of the following items organized by dimensions:

Table 47: Initial Scale of Nostalgia

Initial Scale of Nostalgia

Individual nostalgia (Individual, direct)

The trip evoked good feelings about a special time of my life

The trip made me think about special persons, places, or things in my youth

The trip made me reminisce about a special time in my life

The trip made me feel back home

Intrapersonal Nostalgia (Individual, indirect)

The trip evoked me about the roots of the community I'm now integrated in

The trip reminded me of the stories I heard about that place

The trip made me reconnect with my ancestral roots

The trip made me reminisce about my roots

Virtual nostalgia (collective, indirect)

The images I've seen of Europe before my trip made me feel nostalgic about that place

The music I heard of Europe before the trip made me feel nostalgic about that place

The books that I read connected to Europe made me feel nostalgic about that place

Before my trip to Europe some films evoked nostalgia from that place

Cultural nostalgia (collective, direct)

The trip evoked good feelings about a time before my birth

The trip made me wish I could go back to a time before I was born

The trip reminded me of an era before my birth

The trip made me feel good about a previous time

b) Determination of the form for measurement

The items of the scale were declarative statements anchored with a likert-type scale ranging from 1-strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree. McIver and Carmines (1981: 22-23) describe the Likert scale as follows:

“A set of items, composed of approximately an equal number of favorable and unfavorable statements concerning the attitude object, is given to a

group of subjects. They are asked to respond to each statement in terms of their own degree of agreement or disagreement. Typically, they are instructed to select one of five responses: strongly agree, agree undecided, disagree, or strongly disagree. The specific responses to the items are combined so that individuals with the most favorable attitudes will have the highest scores while individuals with the least favorable (or unfavorable) attitudes will have the lowest scores. While not all summated scales are created according to Likert's specific procedures, all such scales share the basic logic associated with Likert scaling".

This form of measurement was chosen because it is the most common used scale in tourism literature (Nykiel, 2007; Finn et al, 2000; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999). It is a method that is easy to develop and administer in a questionnaire, it has been shown to possess a high reliability and is best suited to research designs that use self-administered surveys, personal interviews and most online methods to collect data. (Monette et al, 2011; van Peer, 1986; Hair et al, 2003). The objective in this scale is for to be implemented in a self-administered questionnaire, but due to the growing interest in the administration of questionnaires online/ onsite/ through cell phone this scale could be also easily implemented in research instruments spread through those resources. Another advantage of the Likert-scales is that they can be used as metric variables permitting the analysis of means and standard deviations, which is an important advantage in statistical terms.

c) Experts review of the item pool

The expert review of the item pool was undertaken first through an on-line questionnaire sent to 10 tourism experts. It was asked to give an opinion about the scale: "This is a pre-test questionnaire, please, can you give your opinion about the scale sent that refers to the construct Nostalgia ("Nostalgia is a positively balanced complex feeling, emotion or mood produced by reflection on things -objects, persons, experiences, ideas-

associated with the past”, Holak & Havlena, 1998: 218).” In this phase, most of the opinions received were related to changing the order of the questions (“randomize the order of the questions to cancel out order effects”) and there was a suggestion to insert a “don’t know” option in the questions. However, since this could lead to a high number of “missing values”, this option was not adopted.

Additionally, the item pool was shared in person with selected participants in academic tourism meetings in Europe between December 2009 and February 2010; namely the *Consumer Behaviour Tourism Symposium (CBTS) 2009* (in Brunico, Italy); the *New minorities in Tourism Workshop*, EURAC, in Bolzano, Italy), and the *IV CER (Congresso de Estudos Rurais)* (in Aveiro, Portugal) – in total, 12 tourism scholars contributed with feedback on the scale through these face-to-face interviews. It was as a result of these seminars and the personal discussions with some of the experts, some of whom most knowledgeable on the construct, that the most relevant changes were decided upon.

The sentences started with “The trip” or in the case of virtual nostalgia the statements started with “The images I’ve seen of Europe”, but this could have been confusing to respondents, since the respondent could have travelled through several different countries/ regions and in Europe the culture of two countries could be completely different. It could cause ambiguity and be confusing to the respondent, so that the sentences were changed to “This trip to (specific country/area/region)” and “The images I’ve seen about (specific country/ area/ region)” followed by the items of each dimension. The resulting items are listed in Table 48.

Table 48: Items of nostalgia (definitive scale)

Dimensions of nostalgia

Individual nostalgia (Individual, direct)

- NOST2 The trip to__ evoked good feelings about a special time of my life
NOST3 The trip to__ made me think about special persons, places, or things in my youth
NOST16 The trip to__ made me reminisce about a special time in my life
NOST4 The trip to__ made me feel back home

Intrapersonal Nostalgia (Individual, indirect)

- NOST11 The trip to __ evoked me about the roots of the community I'm now integrated in
NOST1 The trip to ___ reminded me of the stories I heard about that place
NOST7 The trip to __ made me reconnect with my ancestral roots
NOST10 The trip to __ made me reminisce about my roots

Virtual nostalgia (collective, indirect)

- NOST13 The images I've seen about ___before my trip made me feel nostalgic about that place
NOST6 The music I heard from ___before the trip made me feel nostalgic about that place
NOST15 The books that I read connected to ___made me feel nostalgic about that place
NOST9 Before my trip to__ some films evoked nostalgia from that place

Cultural nostalgia (collective, direct)

- NOST8 The trip to__ evoked good feelings about a time before my birth
NOST14 The trip to__ made me wish I could go back to a time before I was born
NOST5 The trip to__ reminded me of an era before my birth
NOST12 The trip to _____ made me feel good about a previous time
-

d) Administration of the items to a development sample

Once the initial pool and the scale complements like response formats, instructions, questions had been developed the scale was applied to a pilot sample, with the aim of validating the scale. According to Robins et al (2007) the pilot study can be developed in a small sample of convenience and/ or with an expert review. This

procedure can help to identify potential problems such as: confusing items or instructions, objectionable content, or the lack of items in an important content area. There is no agreement on the correct number of respondents for the sample in a pilot test: Due to time and budget constraints, thirty four questionnaires were administered to a Portuguese group of respondents that understood English. The objective was to verify if:

- most people were giving similar answers to a question. However, the respondents answered within the entire range of the scale (1 to 5), both amongst the items and in the whole scale.

- the respondents understood the intended meaning of the question and statements. The pilot sample was composed of respondents that were not native speakers of English. They did not show any difficulties in answering the scale.

- there was a large non-response bias to a particular item. This could be related to a misunderstanding of the question, to a “delicate” subject or to a situation that is not relevant or that did not occur. There was not any such non-response pattern in the responses.

- even if the sample was small, an EFA with the ML methods that enable researchers to conduct significance tests of the factor loadings and correlations among factors was undertaken. The KMO measure (.687) revealed an adequate sampling adequacy. The second indicator demonstrated that the correlation matrix of the sixteen items is significantly different from an identity matrix ($X^2(120)= 331.247; p=.000$).

After this pilot study of the scale a comprehensive questionnaire was developed to interview inhabitants of North-America for more than ten years that were travelling to Europe (Portugal and Italy). The questionnaire was applied from May to November 2010 in Portugal (Douro and Center Region), Italy (Tuscany) and Newark, US (passengers that were returning from Portugal and Italy). Of the 1800 questionnaires distributed, 612 were received (34%), but some were not filled in completely or appropriately. The final sample consists of 456 usable responses, corresponding to 25.3% of the total of questionnaires distributed.

e) Evaluation of items and optimization of the scale length

After the development and the refinement of the scale, it was necessary to determine its reliability by examining the relationship among the items (Netmeyer et al, 2003). The structure of the scale was examined using Exploratory Factor Analysis, with the program SPSS 18.0. According to Gable and Wolf (1993) factor analysis is a method of identifying or verifying within a given set of items, subsets of those items which are clustered together by shared variation to form constructs or factors. If it is simply an exploratory analysis, one enters the items into the analysis and describes the resulting factors, independently of any preconceived theory of interrelations. But in the case of instrument development, this technique is used to examine relationships between the judgmentally developed content categories and the empirically derived constructs. To estimate internal consistent reliability an Exploratory Factor Analysis with Maximum Likelihood (ML) extraction was used, with the criteria of Eigenvalues bigger than one. According to Reis and Judd (2000: 415), ML methods enable researchers to conduct significance tests of the factor loadings and correlations among factors. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and the Bartlett's Sphericity Tests provide an encompassing examination of the scale's dimensional structure (Hair et al, 2006). The KMO value (.857) reveals a good sampling adequacy. The second indicator demonstrates that the correlation matrix of the sixteen items is significantly different from an identity matrix ($\chi^2(120)= 2734.860$; $p=.000$). The solution yielded four factors, as illustrated in Table 50. Based on the analysis of the EFA, it is possible to verify that NOST1, NOST4 and NOST12 present the lowest communalities.

Table 49: EFA results for NOSTOUR scale

		Factor				Com.
		1	2	3	4	
NOST15	The books that I read connected to____made me feel nostalgic about that place	.791				.643
NOST14	The trip to ____made me wish I could go back to a time before I was born	.682				.521
NOST16	The trip to____made me reminisce about a special time in my life	.659				.686
NOST13	The images I've seen about____before my trip made me feel nostalgic about that place	.640				.479
NOST9	Before my trip to____some films evoked me nostalgia from that place	.593				.479
NOST6	The music I heard from this place before the trip to____made me feel nostalgic about that place	.501				.325
NOST12	The trip to____made me feel good about a previous time	.455				.390
NOST7	This trip to____made reconnect with my ancestral roots		.747			.602
NOST10	The trip to____made me reminisce about my roots		.718			.677
NOST 11	The trip to__evoked evoked me good memories about the roots of the community I'm now integrated in		.616			.477
NOST4	This trip to____made me feel back home		.453			.274
NOST3	The trip to____made me think about special persons, places, or things in my youth			.688		.572
NOST2	The trip to____evoked good feelings about a special time of my life			.642		.465
NOST1	The trip to____reminded me of the stories I heard about that place.			.339		.126
NOST8	This trip to____evoked good feelings about a time before my birth				.644	.724
NOST5	This trip to____remided me an era before my birth				.502	.455
% of variance explained		34,769	11,535	7,986	6,900	
KMO	.857					

After this step and in order to arrive at a valid NOSTOUR scale a series of CFA were estimated on the initial items. All the questionnaires with incomplete data on the question related to this scale were removed, so there were no missing values in the 456 accepted questionnaires. The statistical software AMOS 19 (Arbuckle, 2010) with Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation was used to verify whether the observed data fit the dimensions of the expected factor structure of the scale. The model was also estimated with the ADF and ULS criteria, but the measures of ML were better.

Several criteria were used to assess the goodness of fit to the observed data. The chi-square was not used in this analysis because it is affected by the size of the sample and the size of the correlations in the model: the larger the correlations, the poorer the fit (Yang, 2010; Sapsford, 2007; Schumacker and Lomax, 1996; Tran & Cox, 2009). Additionally, the chi-square is non-significant when the data is found to be multivariate non-normal (Grover & Vriens, 2006; Timm, 2002), which was the case in this study, as based on the Mardia's coefficient's (see Appendix 4). The bootstrap method is used in further analyses and the Bollen-Stine p statistic calculated. The Bollen-Stine p statistic should be non-significant in a good fitting model (see Table 50). Besides the chi-square alternative measures of fit were used. Statisticians have invented several methods to assess the goodness of fit and Hair et al (2006: 752-3) recommend that researchers use different measures together in a flexible way to obtain a multifaceted view to model fit. In this study a non-centrality-based index, RMSEA, was used. Byrne (1989) recognizes RMSEA as one of the most informative criteria in SEM, because the index takes into account the error of approximation. Apart from this three absolute fit indices were used, namely, GFI, AIC, ECVI. The AIC measure indicates a better fit when it is smaller, being used to compare two models, with the one presenting lower AIC preferable (Cagné, 2007: 205). According to Byrne (1989), the model having the smallest ECVI presents the greatest potential of replication. Table 51 presents the values of the Goodness of Fit Indices.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was first constructed to test the two measurement models (Marques et al, 2010). Several alternative models were examined, but the one with best results was based on the original four dimensional structures, namely individual nostalgia, interpersonal nostalgia cultural nostalgia and virtual nostalgia. Some items were deleted. The criteria used in deciding whether to delete an item were its corrected item-to-total correlation and whether the elimination improved the corresponding alpha values (Parasuraman *et al*, 1988). In general, items with corrected item-total correlations below 0.30 were eliminated.

In the dimension "individual nostalgia" :

-NOST16 "The trip to__ made me reminisce about a special time in my life" and,

-NOST4 “The trip to__ made me feel back home” were deleted.

In the “interpersonal nostalgia” dimension:

-NOST1 “The trip to ___ reminded me of the stories I heard about that place” was suppressed.

In “virtual nostalgia” all the items were maintained.

“Cultural nostalgia” was the dimension where it was necessary to suppress more items, namely:

-NOST8 “The trip to__ evoked good feelings about a time before my birth” and

-NOST12 “The trip to ____made me feel good about a previous time”.

-NOST5 “The trip to__ reminded me of an era before my birth” First the item NOST5 was maintained in the model (see M1) to avoid having a dimension with just one item, but the retention of NOST5 reduced the strength of the fit indices and was subsequently deleted.

Figure 8: NOSTOUR scale (M1) with standardized solution estimates

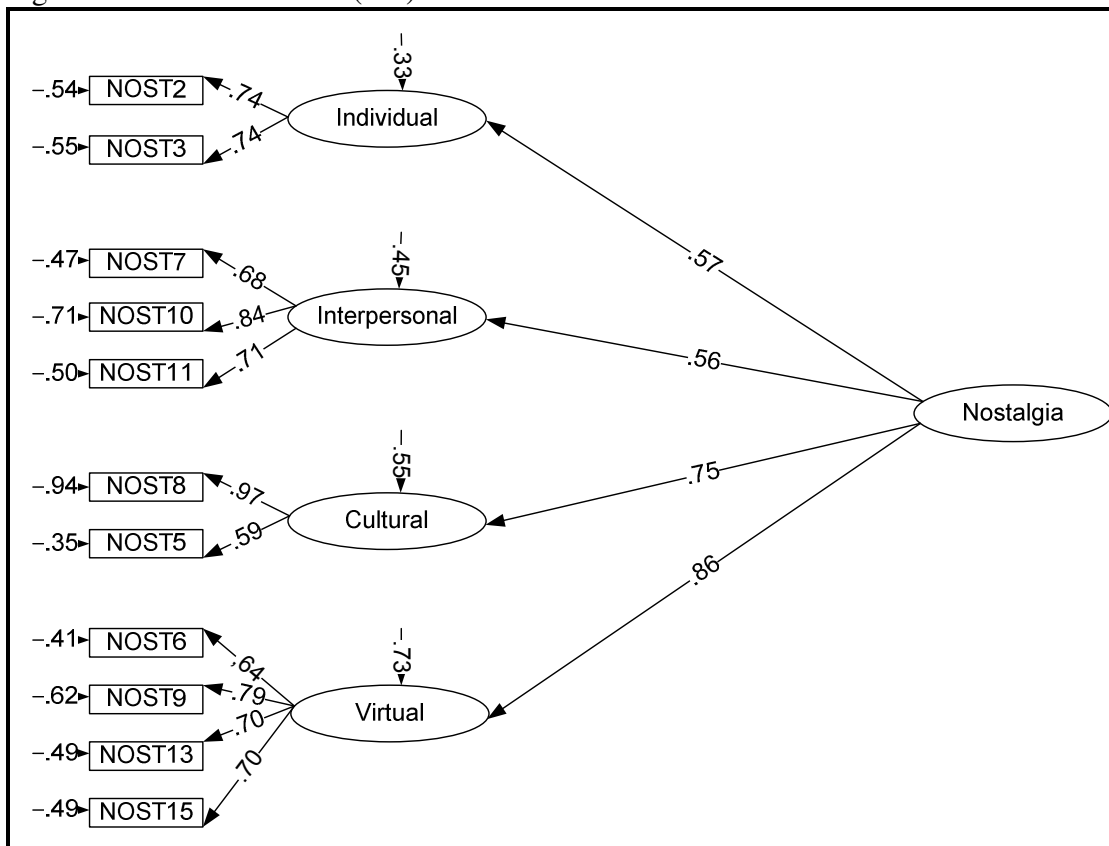


Table 50: Goodness of Fit Indices of the CFA

Goodness of Fit Indices	Criteria	M1	M2
X ²		185.2	132.593
<i>Df</i>		44	36
Bollen-Stein <i>p</i>		.596	.493
CFI	>.90	.918	.936
GFI	>.90	.928	.945
RMSEA	<.09	.084	.077
AIC	Smallest	229.183	170.593
ECVI	Smallest	.504	.375

Model M2 presents better fit indices, RMSEA= 0.077, CFI=0.936, GFI=0.945 and the values of AIC and ECVI were smaller. Byrne (2009) recommends that between alternative nested models researchers should choose the one with smaller AIC and ECVI (Byrne, 2009). In addition, in this model, the standardized factor loadings were significant and exceeded 0.637 and the squared multiple correlation coefficients were higher than 0.405. In this second order model it is observed that the dimension of “virtual nostalgia” has a bigger weight on the overall nostalgia, presenting the biggest regression coefficient (0.857), followed by “cultural nostalgia” (0.739), “interpersonal nostalgia” (0.673) and the dimension that has the lowest weight is “individual nostalgia” (0.570).

Figure 9: NOSTOUR scale (M2) with standardized solution estimates

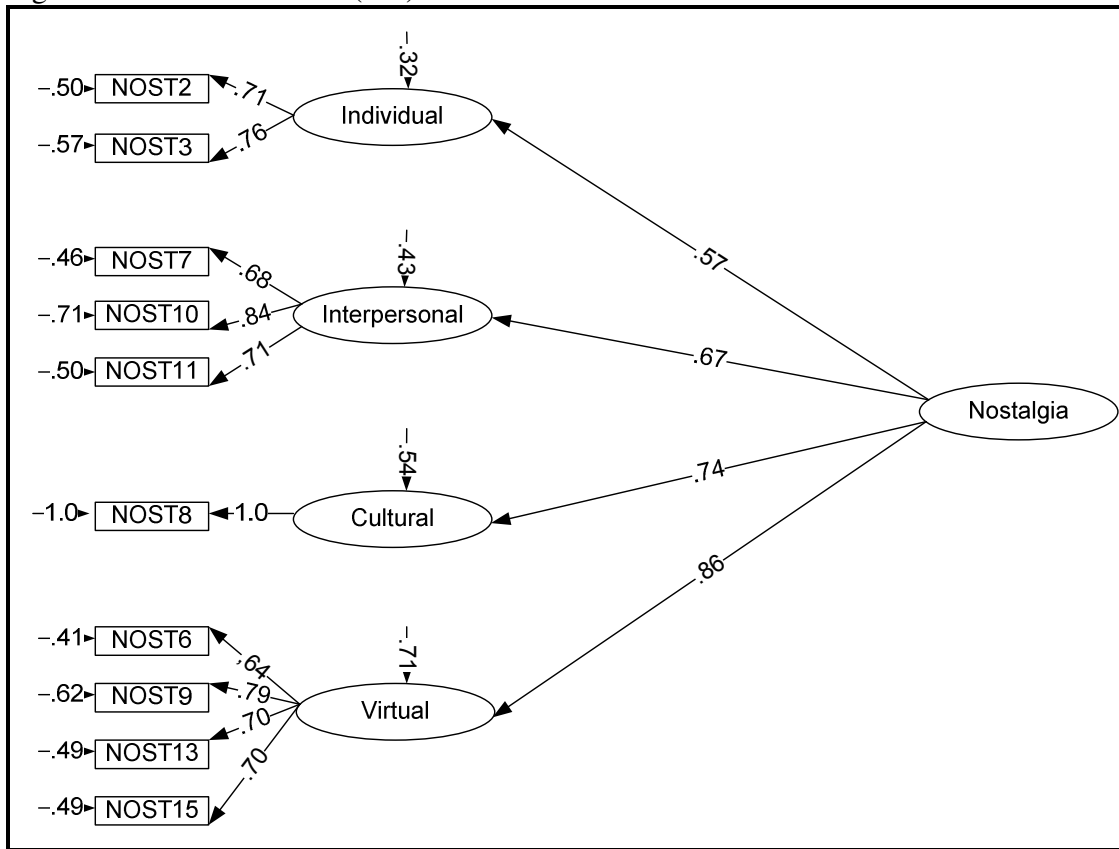


Table 51: Bootstrapped estimates and confidence intervals at 90% for the Scale (M2)

Parameter		Estimate	Lower	Upper	P
Cultural	<--- Nostalgia	1.1477	1.0137	1.3056	.0010
Interpersonal	<--- Nostalgia	.8903	.8100	.9724	.0010
Individual	<--- Nostalgia	.6647	.5100	.8516	.0010
Virtual	<--- Nostalgia	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST3	<--- Individual	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST2	<--- Individual	.9013	.7552	1.0813	.0010
NOST11	<--- Interpersonal	.7675	.6729	.8619	.0010
NOST10	<--- Interpersonal	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST7	<--- Interpersonal	.8903	.8100	.9724	.0010
NOST8	<--- Cultural	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST13	<--- Virtual	.8742	.7677	.9937	.0010
NOST15	<--- Virtual	.8870	.7759	1.0040	.0010
NOST9	<--- Virtual	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST6	<--- Virtual	.8334	.7329	.9417	.0010

The hypothesis H1 (Nostalgia evoked by tourism has four dimensions, namely, individual, intrapersonal, cultural and virtual) is confirmed.

f) Scale validation

f.1) Discriminant validity

Construct validation is the extent to which the test is shown to measure a theoretical construct or trait (Lewis-Beck, 1995). In order to validate the scale tests of discriminant validity and nomological validity were undertaken (Netmeyer *et al*, 2003).

Discriminant validity assesses the degree to which the new measurement is statistically related to a known measurement of a similar, but conceptually different construct. Discriminant validity is the extent to which the measure is indeed novel and not simply a new assessment of some other variable. For Churchill (1979) scales that correlate too highly may be measuring the same rather than different constructs. Discriminant validity is indicated by low correlations between the measure of interest and other measures that are supposedly not measuring the same variable or concept.

To assess NOSTOUR's discriminant validity, the scores in NOSTOUR sale were analysed in relation to select items from the Time Perspective Inventory (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). The Time Perspective Inventory is a 56-item scale that measures attitudes related to the future, present and past. The past dimension is divided in two subgroups - past negative and past positive. Zimbardo and Boyd (1999), Bryant *et al* (2005) and Zhang and Howell (2010) found that positive perceptions of the past predicted self-reported indices of psychological adjustment, such as increased well-being, decreased anxiety or depression and life satisfaction. The past positive items are also associated with nostalgia proneness (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999; Routhledge *et al*, 2008). For Boyd and Zimbardo (2005), time perspective represents the relationship an individual has with time, referring to a subjective process whereby individuals parcel their personal and social experiences into temporal categories. According to Zhang and Howell (2010) it is recognized that how individuals use their temporal thinking styles is closely associated with their personality and when such cognitive time frames develop into a tendency they become part of the individuals' disposition (see discussion about Time Perspective

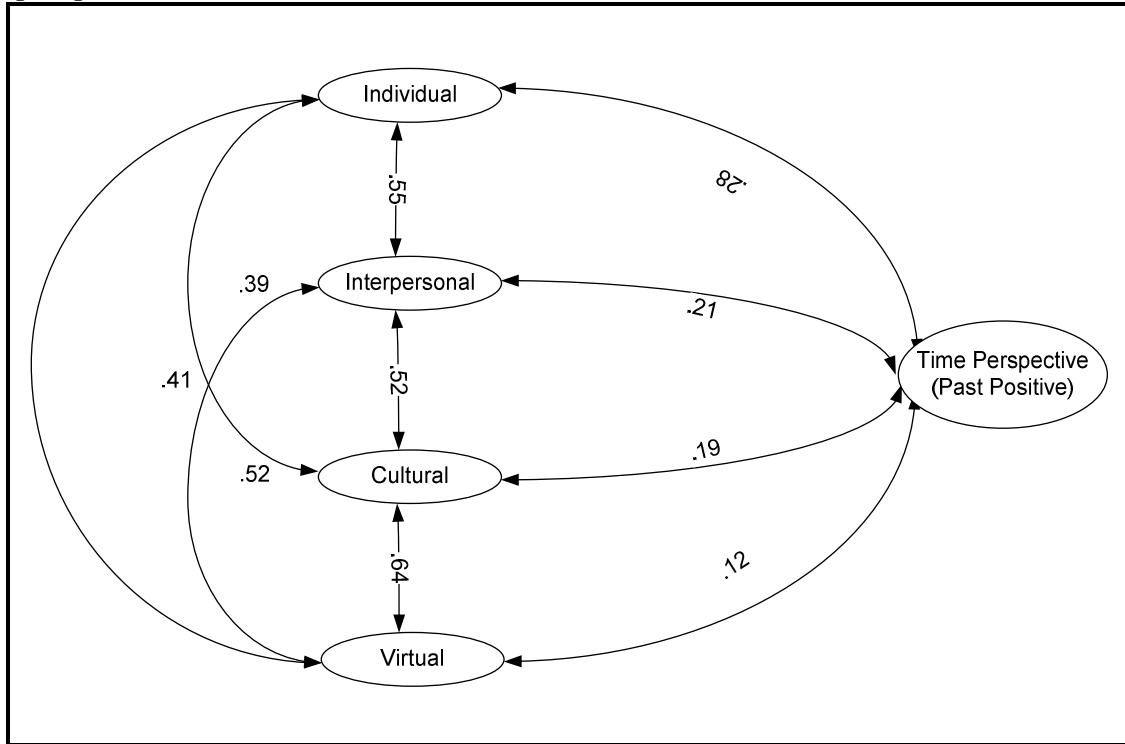
Inventory in the session 3.3 of this document). An EFA was undertaken with Maximum Likelihood (ML) extraction criteria, with the common factors retained with an *eigenvalue* superior to one. The KMO test of 0.762 shows that the EFA presents a good sample adequacy and the Bartlett's test observed a significance level of .000, showing that the strength of the relationship among variables is strong (see Table 52).

Table 52: EFA of Positive Time Perspective

		Factor	Com.
TP4	Even when I am enjoying the present, I am drawn back to comparisons with similar experiences	.798	.638
TP6	I get nostalgic about my childhood	.621	.368
TP9	I like family rituals and traditions that are regularly repeated	.619	.385
TP3	Familiar childhood sights, sounds, smells often bring back a flood of wonderful memories	.607	.383
TP20	It gives me pleasure to think about my past	.511	.249
TP13	Happy memories of good times spring readily in my mind	.499	.125
TP15	Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life in the past	.354	.261
KMO: 0.762			
43.107% variance explained			

The analysis of convergence of the Past Positive Time Perspective scale items with the NOSTOUR scale is presented in the Figure 10. The items indicated in Table 53 were added to the CFA of NOSTUR to analyse the convergence of the two scales. Some items that presented a low value of loading and R^2 were removed. Only the item TP15 was removed, because it presented a very low $\beta=.35$ loading, the other items presented β superior to .60. After the removal of the items the CFA results revealed a good fit with the data ($X^2(86)= 297.252$; CFI=0.899; GFI= 0.921; RMSEA= 0.073). The past positive time perspective scale has a positive convergence with the NOSTOUR scale, but Figure 10 shows that they are not the same, because the relationship between the two measures are moderate. The biggest convergence between Time Perspective and NOSTOUR is between the first construct with “personal nostalgia” ($\beta=.28$).

Figure 10: Convergence model between NOSTOUR and Time Perspective Inventory (past positive) with standardized solution estimates



The hypothesis H2: Past positive time perception is positively related to nostalgia, is confirmed.

f.2) Hypothesis testing for the scale of nostalgia

According to Netemeyer et al (2003: 82), nomological validity shows the extent to which the measure fits “lawfully” into a network of relationships or a “nomological network”. It is one aspect of construct validity that involves the extent to which a measure fits within a set of theoretical constructs and their respective measures (Cavusgil et al, 2009).

In order to verify if there were groups who feel more nostalgia than others a set

of student's t tests with the scores of the NOSTOUR scale and the variables gender, age, European Americans, visiting Portugal or Italy and satisfaction, were applied.

The t-tests made to verify if there are gender differences on nostalgia for travel among the sample show that there are no gender effects. Routledge *et al* (2008) did also not find gender effects in any experiment related with the development of the Southampton Nostalgia Proneness scale, but Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton (1981) showed that men and women demonstrated different nostalgia intensities from the same stimuli, due to different forms of socialization. For example, Schindler and Holbrook's research reveals that nostalgic preference for automobiles from the past exists for men, but not for women (Rindfleisch & Sprott, 2000). This finding is congruent with earlier research which finds that nostalgic sentiments for cultural products appear to be stronger among men than women (e.g., Holbrook & Schindler 1994).

Thus, gender differences in terms of the impact of nostalgia on consumer preference appear to be an emergent empirical generalization worthy of future research among other product or service domains. The results visible in Table 53 show that the gender difference is not evident in travel in general, but it is necessary to verify that aspect in other products related to tourism, like events, tourist activities and in different types of tourism

Table 53: Results of the T-test: Differences by gender

Dimension	Item	Mean	SD	P (2-tailed)
Nostalgia	Male	2.4418	.79304	0.815
	Female	2.2161	.70468	
Virtual	Male	2.8308	0.93361	0.830
	Female	2.5286	0.85182	
Cultural	Male	2.6026	1.34585	0.591
	Female	2.4865	1.19095	
Interpersonal	Male	2.6854	1.07225	0.870
	Female	2.3280	.98527	
Individual	Male	2.7441	.84030	0.978
	Female	2.5937	.80763	

For analysing the differences amongst the age groups, this variable was recoded into two and three groups. With the two groups a t-test (see Table 54) was undertaken and with the three groups One-way Anova and Kruskal-Wallis tests were applied, but in the two situations no statistically significant differences between the different age groups were observable.

Table 54: Results of the T-test: Differences by age

Dimension	Item	Mean	SD	P (2-tailed)
Nostalgia	Less than 29	2.3044	.74309	0.48
	More than 30	2.4359	.82448	
Virtual	Less than 29	2.6383	.88827	0.971
	More than 30	2.8415	.97467	
Cultural	Less than 29	2.5543	1.29507	0.030
	More than 30	2.5490	1.25570	
Interpersonal	Less than 29	2.4596	1.02240	0.712
	More than 30	2.7157	1.10793	
Individual	Less than 29	2.6616	.81783	0.127
	More than 30	2.6964	.88108	

There are no statistically significant differences between European Americans and the other Americans. The sample being very young, most of these European Americans must be second, firth and fourth generation.

Table 55: Results of the T-test: Differences between European Americans

Dimension	Item	Mean	SD	P (2-tailed)
Nostalgia	Yes	2.3536	.81792	0.378
	No	2.2864	.61700	
Virtual	Yes	2.7273	.96235	0.137
	No	2.5920	.77097	
Cultural	Yes	2.5081	1.30587	0.356
	No	2.6259	1.20052	
Interpersonal	Yes	2.5708	1.09165	0.078
	No	2.3865	.93102	
Individual	Yes	2.6720	.88956	0.966
	No	2.6685	.68006	

Table 56 shows that there are statistically significant differences between the

tourists that were searching/ visiting their roots and other tourists. This effect is not evident for cultural nostalgia ($p=0.062$), though.

Table 56: Results of the T-test:Differences by roots travel

Dimension	Item	Mean	SD	P (2-tailed)
Nostalgia	No	2.2677	0.76822	0.002
	Yes	2.5469	0.79984	
Virtual	No	2.6422	0.89686	0.030
	Yes	2.8735	1.01848	
Cultural	No	2.5128	1.31427	0.062
	Yes	2.7863	1.23755	
Interpersonal	No	2.2802	1.04634	0.000
	Yes	2.9518	1.07916	
Individual	No	2.6276	0.80762	0.013
	Yes	2.8588	0.84689	

According to Table 57, there are significant differences in all dimensions of nostalgia for the tourists who are more satisfied versus those that were not very satisfied with the trip, except for “interpersonal nostalgia” ($p=0.274$; $p<0.05$). Interestingly, results show that the tourists who felt more satisfied with the trip feel more nostalgia. In research literature satisfaction is related with intention to return; showing that a satisfactory travel experience contributes to destination loyalty (Chi & Qu, 2008; Alexandris et al, 2006; Bramwell, 1998; Oppermann, 2000; Pritchard & Howard, 1997), but there is a lack of studies relating satisfaction with nostalgia.

Table 57: Results of the T-test: Differences by satisfaction

Dimension	Item	Mean	SD	P (2-tailed)
Nostalgia	Satisfied	2.3655	.74369	.008
	Not satisfied	2.0709	.83068	
Virtual	Satisfied	2.7205	.88805	.015
	Not satisfied	2.3976	1.00219	
Cultural	Satisfied	2.5306	1.27686	.010
	Not satisfied	2.1346	1.17204	
Interpersonal	Satisfied	2.5306	1.03241	.274
	Not satisfied	2.3619	1.13866	
Individual	Satisfied	2.7135	0.80407	.002
	Not satisfied	2.3395	0.93149	

The Table 58 shows that there are differences in nostalgia proneness for travel between tourists that travelled to Portugal comparing to ones that travelled to Italy. The T-test shows that the differences are on the overall Nostalgia ($p=0.001$), on Virtual ($p=0.000$), interpersonal ($p=0.000$) and Individual (0.052) but not in Cultural nostalgia ($p=0.331$). According to the Table 58, visitors of Portugal feel more nostalgia than the ones who travel to Italy.

Table 58: Results of the T-test: Differences between country visited

Dimension	Item	Mean	SD	P (2-tailed)
Nostalgia	Portugal	2.4418	0.79304	0.001
	Italy	2.2161	0.70468	
Virtual	Portugal	2.8308	0.93361	0.000
	Italy	2.5286	0.85182	
Cultural	Portugal	2.6026	1.34585	0.331
	Italy	2.4865	1.19095	
Interpersonal	Portugal	2.6854	1.07225	0.000
	Italy	2.3280	0.98527	
Individual	Portugal	2.7441	0.84030	0.052
	Italy	2.5937	0.80763	

6.5 EFA analysis for Travel constraints, familiarity, expertise and intentions

Travel Constraints.

The travel constraints items obtained in the literature research (see Table 59) were divided in three dimensions, namely, structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal.

Table 59: Travel constraints items

Dimensions of travel constraints	
<i>Structural constraints</i>	
CONST1	I have no time to make a Trip
CONST2	The long distance of international travel
CONST3	The high cost
<i>Interpersonal constraints</i>	
CONST12	I have no one to travel with/ it's not fun to travel by my self.
CONST13	My family and friends are not interested in travelling
<i>Intrapersonal constraints</i>	
CONST4	I have no information about rural Europe
CONST5	It's a crowded place.
CONST9	Travelling to rural Europe involves too much risk.
CONST7	I am unable to drive.
CONST10	My health does not aloud me to travel

An EFA was undertaken with the Maximum Likelihood (ML) extraction criteria, with the common factors retained with a fixed number of three factors, and a Varimax rotation. Varimax is the most commonly used method for rotation. Its goal is to minimize the complexity of the components by making the large loadings larger and the small loadings smaller within each component. The KMO value of 0.752 shows that the EFA presents sample adequacy and the Bartlett's test reveals a significance level of .000. It shows a sufficiently strong relationship among variables (see Table 60).

Table 60: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with a Varimax rotation of Travel Constraints

		Factor		
		Intrapersonal	Structural	Interpersonal
CONST9	Travelling to rural Europe involves too much risk.	.817		
CONST10	My health does not aloud me to travel.	.806		
CONST7	I'm unable to drive	.649		
CONST5	It's a crowded place	.543		
CONST4	I have no information about rural Europe	.498		
CONST1	I have no time to make a trip		.824	
CONST2	The long distance of international travel		.807	
CONST3	The high cost		.469	
CONST13	My family and friends are not interested in travelling			.947
CONST12	I have no one to travel with/ it's not fun to travel by my self.			.687
	% of variance explained	38.392	19.237	10.771
	KMO: 0,752			

Additionally, an EFA with Maximum Likelihood (ML) extraction criteria was applied for the constructs “familiarity”, “travel expertise” and “intentions to revisit”. For “familiarity” the KMO value of 0.580 shows that the EFA presents reasonable sampling adequacy and the Bartlet’s test observed a significance level of .000. “Travel expertise” presents a KMO¹⁶ test of 0.820 which shows that the EFA presents a good sampling adequacy and the Bartlet’s test shows a significance level of .000, mirroring a strong relationship among variables for these two constructs (see Table 61). But for the construct “intentions to revisit” the degrees of freedom were negative so an EFA was not applicable. The item INT2 was removed and for the structural analysis remained the item INT5.

¹⁶ The Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO), which compares with the simple partial correlations between observed variables, where values between 1 and 0.9 are very good, 0.8 to 0.9 are good, 0.7 to 0.8 is average, from 0.6 to 0.7 are reasonable, from 0.5 to 0.6 are bad and lower values are unacceptable (Hair et al, 2006).

Table 61: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) of Familiarity, Expertise

Familiarity		Factor	Com.
FAM1	I am used to travel to rural locations	.566	.321
FAM2	I am used to searching for information related to travel	.415	.172
FAM3	I am used to travelling outside USA	.367	.135
% of Variance explained		25.042	
KMO	.580		
Expertise		Factor	Com.
EXP4R	Experienced	.880	.774
EXP5R	Trained	.795	.632
EXP1R	Knowledgeable	.755	.570
EXP3R	Expert	.753	.568
EXP2R	Competent	.715	.512
% of variance explained		68.823	
KMO	.820		

6.6 Mediation effect of nostalgia regarding the relationship between perceived travel constraints and the intention to revisit rural Europe

According to Preacher and Hayes (2008: 879), the behavioral science literature is replete with studies demonstrating that a particular independent variable explains variability in a dependent variable. Establishing relationships between variables is important, because correlation is a necessary (but not sufficient) condition for claiming that two variables are causally related. Of even greater scientific interest is explaining how or by what means a causal effect occurs. Questions about understanding in further detail cause–effect relations invoke the idea of mediation, the process by which some variables exert influences on others through intervening or mediator variables.

A mediator variable influences the relation between an independent variable and

an outcome variable and exhibits indirect causation, connection or relation (Schallock et al, 2010). A mediating effect is identified when a third factor intervenes between the independent and outcome variable (Hair et al, 2006). A mediation model (see Figure 11) assumes a three variable system such that there are two causal paths feeding into the outcome variable: the direct impact of the independent variable (path C) and the indirect impact of through the mediator (path B), which implies another path from the independent variable to the mediator (path A) (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

According to Baron and Kenny (1986: 1176), a variable functions as a mediator when it meets the following conditions:

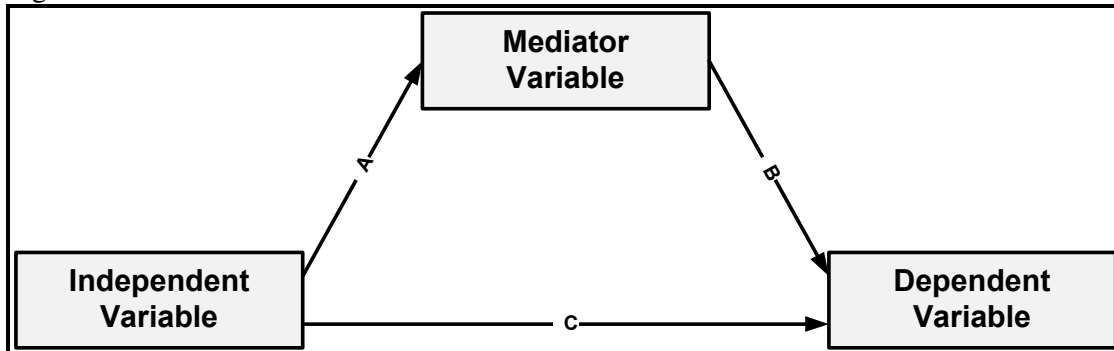
- a) Variations in levels of the independent variable significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator (i.e. path A);
- b) Variations in the mediator significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (i.e. path B);
- c) When paths A and B are controlled, a previously significant relation between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant, with the strongest demonstration of mediation occurring when the impact of path C is zero.

In regard to the last condition we may envisage a continuum. When path C is reduced to zero, we have strong evidence for a single, dominant mediator. If the residual path C is not zero, this indicates the operation of multiple mediating factors. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), since most social sciences treat phenomena that have multiple causes, a more realistic goal may be to seek mediators that significantly decrease the impact of path C rather than eliminating the relation between the independent and dependent variables altogether.

For Baron and Kenny (1986) the search for mediator variables is relatively recent in psychology but these authors cite a work of 1928, where the formation of a mediation hypothesis was posited. In the last years there is a growing number of research studies that use mediation hypotheses, such as in the field of psychology (Wegner and Fabrigar, 2000), management, quality of life studies (Schallock et al, 2010), leisure (Thapa, 2010; Thapa et al, 2005) and tourism studies (Gnoth et al, 2006; Cole & Illum, 2006; He &

Song, 2010). Schallock et al (2010) argues that it is important to understand the role of mediators and moderators of personal behavior outcomes, since this kind of more detailed knowledge indicates the maturity of a discipline, being at the heart of model development and theory construction in social science (Cohen et al, 2003).

Figure 11: Mediation model



Source: Baron and Kenny (1986)

For analyzing the mediation effect of nostalgia on the relationship between travel constraints and intention to revisit rural Europe, first the issues related to instrument reliability and validity were examined. The statistical technique of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to eliminate items that did not meet pre-specified criteria for inter-item correlations and factor loadings (Hair et al, 2006). The EFA for the nostalgia scale and constraints is presented in the previous section. The validity of the measures was examined through a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Results, as interpreted by the goodness-of-fit measures, show that the model fits the data, confirming the convergent validity characteristic of the measures.

The model resulted in 130 degrees of freedom, $X^2=361.556$, $p=.000$. Because Mardia's coefficient indicated non-normality, the model was rerun with 2000 bootstraps. The Bollen-Steine p of 0,975 which is non-significant suggests a good model fit. The model fit indicators of CFI =.926, GFI= .919, and RMSEA = .063 support the fit of the model. The bias-corrected bootstrapped parameter estimates (Standardized Regression Weights) for this model were significant.

Table 62: Summary of measurement model statistics

Factor Models	X ²	df	p	Bollen-Stein p	CFI	GFI	RMSEA
Nostalgia	155.809	44	.001	.549*	.927	.942	.075
Constraints	81.188	17	.000	.398*	.958	.957	.091

*Non significant; A non significant Bollen-Stein p suggests a good model fit.

Figure 12: Path diagram of the model with standardized solution estimates

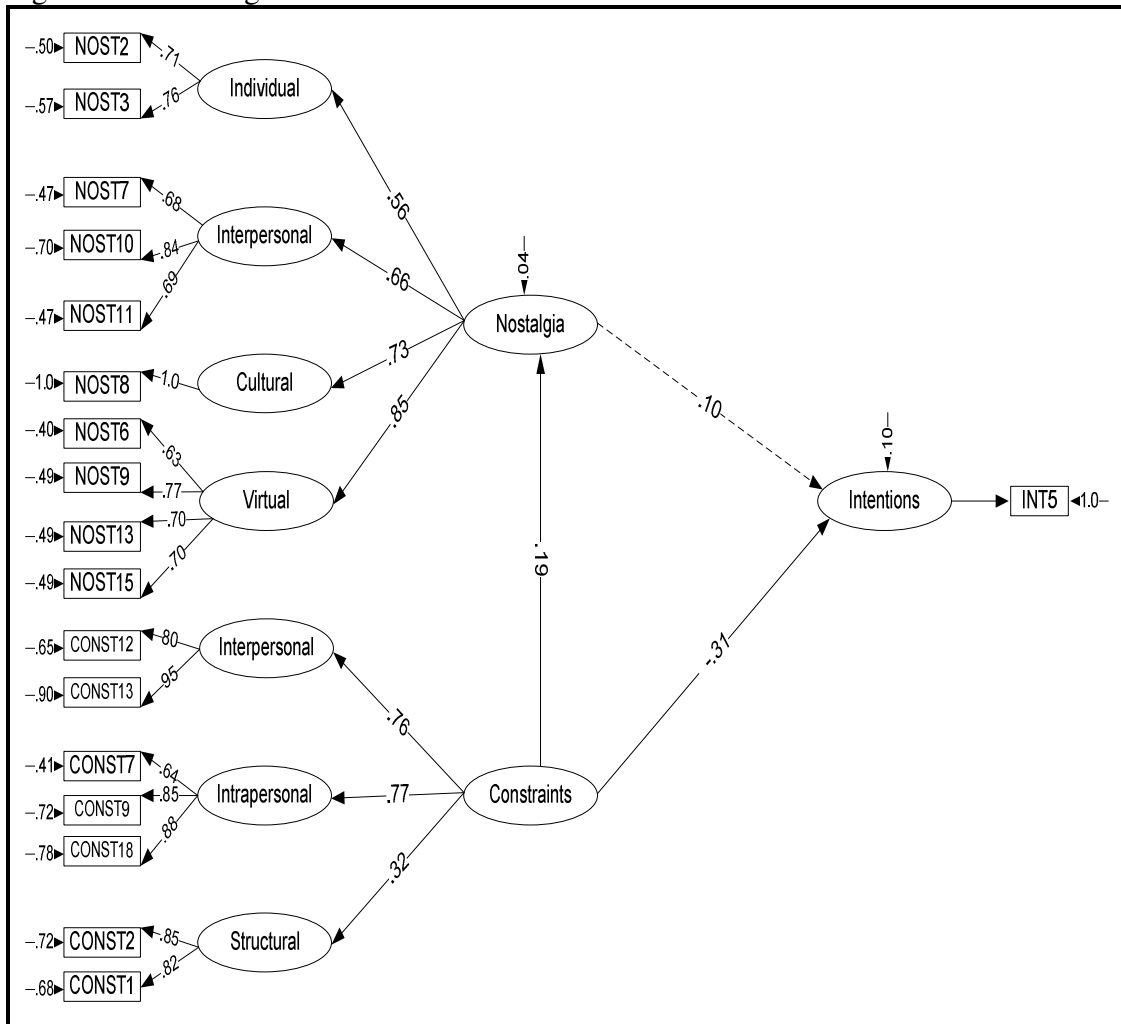


Figure 12 shows the structural model of the mediation effect of nostalgia on the

relationship between travel constraints to travel and intention to revisit rural Europe. According to the analysis, nostalgia does not mediate the effect of the travel constraints on revisit intention, since the direct effect of constraints on nostalgia is significant ($p < 0.01$), the effect of constraints in nostalgia is significant ($p < 0.05$), but the effect of nostalgia in intentions is not significant ($p > 0.05$).

This means that it will be necessary to discover other determinants that together with nostalgia could mitigate the effect of constraints. It is interesting to note that constraints have a negative impact on the intention to revisit, but the existence of constraints to travel increases the nostalgia felt for the destination and the impact of nostalgia, even if not statistically significant, is positive, suggesting the eventual existence of a suppressing variable in a more complex model.

Table 63: Bootstrapped estimates and confidence interval at 90% for full structural model

Parameter		Estimate	Lower	Upper	P
Nostalgia	<--- constraints	.4580	.1379	.9805	.0170
Cultural	<--- Nostalgia	1.1333	1.0028	1.2895	.0010
Interpersonal	<--- Nostalgia	.8869	.8124	.9761	.0007
Individual	<--- Nostalgia	.6507	.5116	.8163	.0009
Virtual	<--- Nostalgia	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
Interpersonal	<--- Constraints	2.8363	1.6974	4.8539	.0026
Intrapersonal	<--- Constraints	1.7602	.9510	4.2550	.0010
Structural	<--- Constraints	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
Intentions	<--- Constraints	-1.0738	-2.2249	-.5102	.0013
Intentions	<--- Nostalgia	.1430	.0066	.2966	.0913
NOST3	<--- Individual	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST2	<--- Individual	.8974	.7484	1.0748	.0010
NOST11	<--- Interpersonal	.7665	.6709	.8741	.0007
NOST10	<--- Interpersonal	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST7	<--- Interpersonal	.8869	.8124	.9761	.0007
NOST8	<--- Cultural	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST13	<--- Virtual	.8734	.7609	1.0017	.0008
NOST15	<--- Virtual	.8873	.7789	1.0024	.0008
NOST9	<--- Virtual	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST6	<--- Virtual	.8331	.7367	.9324	.0010
CONST13	<--- Interpersonal	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
CONST12	<--- Interpersonal	.8103	.6384	.9955	.0011
CONST10	<--- Intrapersonal	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
CONST9	<--- Intrapersonal	1.0947	.9959	1.2124	.0010
CONST7	<--- Intrapersonal	.7277	.5667	.8771	.0014
CONST2	<--- Structural	1.0251	.7832	1.3389	.0011
CONST1	<--- Structural	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
INT5	<--- Intentions	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...

The hypothesis H6: Nostalgia positively mediates the negative relationship between

perceived travel constraints and intention to return to Europe, is not confirmed.

6.7 Validation of the Global Model

For analyzing the determinants of the intention to return to Europe and visit rural places, the proposed model includes the following exogenous variables: nostalgia, travel constraints, negotiation and experience in travel. This parametric approach permits to establish the causal relationships from these variables to intention to return. The relations are presented in the Figure 6. These relations are based on the theoretical literature shown in chapter 3 and on the hypothesis formulated in Chapter 4. The model resulted in 260 degrees of freedom, $\chi^2 = 1038.919$, $p = .000$. As Mardia's coefficient indicated non-normality, the model was rerun with 500 bootstraps. The Bollen-Stine p of 1.781 which is non-significant, suggests a good model fit. The model fit indicators of CFI = .818, GFI = .839, and RMSEA = .081 support the fit of the model, even if the CFI and GFI are a bit lower than the cut-off of .90. The bias-corrected bootstrapped parameter estimates (Standardized Regression Weights) for this model were significant at 90% intervals (see Table 64. The second order scale of nostalgia and the mediation effect of nostalgia on constraints were analyzed in the previous sections of the work.

Table 64: Summary of measurement model statistics

Factor Models	χ^2	df	p	Bollen-Stine p	CFI	GFI	RMSEA
Nostalgia	224.388	45	.000	.551*	.883	.917	.094
Constraints and negotiation	141.677	31	.000	.586*	.943	.942	.089
Experience in travel	6.109	4	.630*	.187*	.997	.995	.034

*Non significant; A non significant Bollen-Stein p suggests a good model fit.

In the previous sections the construct validity of the nostalgia scale (NOSTOUR) and its mediation effect on the relationship between travel constraints and intention to revisit rural Europe were analyzed.

The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR) were analysed in the measurement model. The use of CR and AVE emanates from the two-step procedure recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) varies from 0 to 1, and it represents the ratio of the total variance that is due to the latent variable. AVE values greater than .50 are considered satisfactory in that they indicate that at least 50% of the variance in a measure is due to the hypothesized underlying trait (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), i.e. indicates that the validity of both the construct and the individual variables is high (Dillon et al, 1991). Composite Reliability (CR) is a measure of the overall reliability of a collection of heterogeneous but similar items, proposed by Bagozzi (1980), it is recommended to present values over .70. The scale of nostalgia (NOSTOUR) presents the following values of AVE and CR. Individual nostalgia, AVE (0.43) and CR (0.60), Interpersonal nostalgia AVE (0.45) and CR (0.71), cultural nostalgia (has just one item), Virtual nostalgia AVE (0.60) and CR (0.33). NOSTOUR presents some values lower than the recommended values but according to Ping (2005), in an initial measure of a construct this is acceptable, the scale needs be refined and improved in future studies. Perceived travel constraints have values above the minimal criteria for AVE and CR in all the dimensions, namely for structural constraints AVE (0.56) and CR (0.72), Interpersonal constraints AVE (0.63) and CR (0.77), intrapersonal AVE (0.62) and CR (0.77). Familiarity and intentions to revisit have just one item, so that the values of AVE and CR were not measured. Expertise also shows values above the recommended AVE (0.51) and CR (0.76).

Figure 13: Path diagram of nostalgia and intentions to return and visit rural Europe

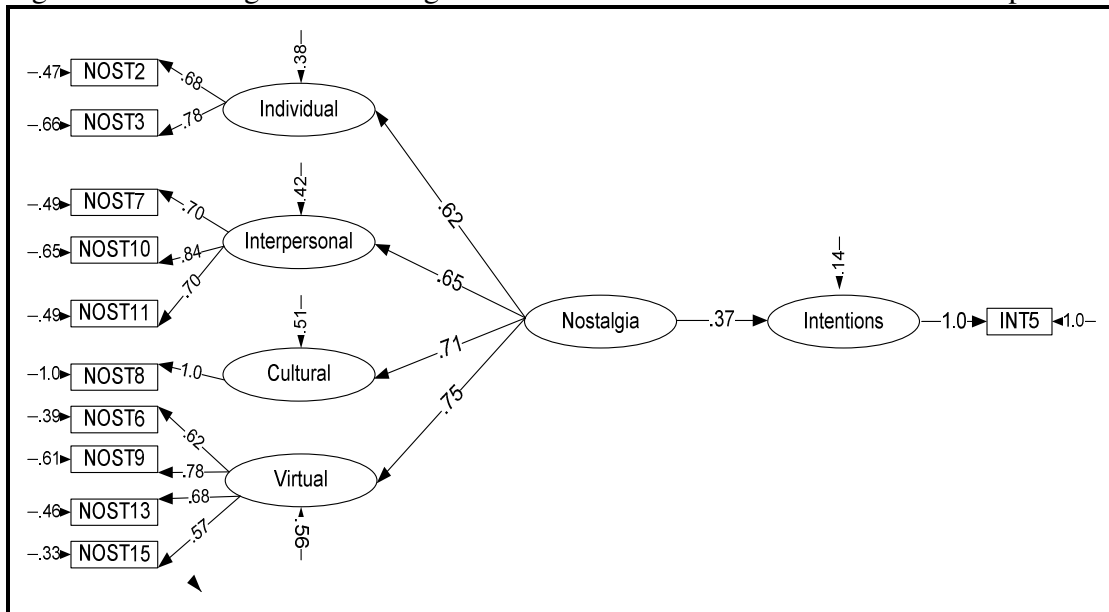


Table 65: Bootstrapped estimates and confidence interval at 90% for model of nostalgia and intentions to return and visit rural Europe

Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	P
Cultural <--- Nostalgia	1.2607	1.1033	1.5322	.0024
Interpersonal <--- Nostalgia	.9550	.8653	1.0659	.0034
Individual <--- Nostalgia	.8470	.6442	1.1051	.0040
Virtual <--- Nostalgia	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
Intentions <--- Nostalgia	.6687	.5494	.8271	.0025
NOST3 <--- Individual	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST2 <--- Individual	.8481	.7018	1.0210	.0025
NOST11 <--- Interpersonal	.8151	.6995	.9345	.0043
NOST10 <--- Interpersonal	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST7 <--- Interpersonal	.9550	.8653	1.0659	.0034
NOST8 <--- Cultural	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST13 <--- Virtual	.6687	.5494	.8271	.0025
NOST15 <--- Virtual	.8611	.7579	.9868	.0023
NOST9 <--- Virtual	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST6 <--- Virtual	.8236	.7279	.9267	.0039
INT5 <--- Intentions	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...

According to prior research on the topic, nostalgia could be a push factor to travel (Dann, 1977). Push factors refer to the tourist as a subject and deal with those factors

predisposing him/her to travel. In Figure 14 (which does not consider travel constraints nor negotiation) nostalgia increases the willingness to travel to Europe and visit rural places.

Figure 14: Path diagram of constraints, negotiation and intentions to revisit Europe

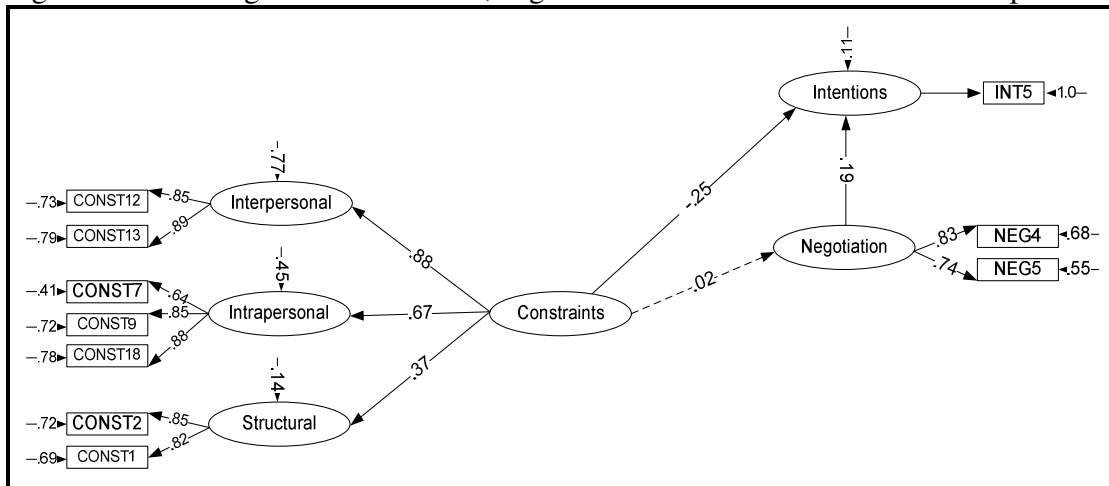


Table 66: Bootstrapped estimates and confidence interval at 90% for model of constraints, negotiation and intentions to revisit Europe

	Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	P
Negotiation	<--- constraints	-.0872	-.8148	.0648	.4088
Interpersonal	<--- constraints	2.6535	1.5769	4.0988	.0168
Intrapersonal	<--- constraints	1.3243	.7930	3.2843	.0064
Structural	<--- constraints	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
Intentions	<--- constraints	-.7440	-1.7019	-.2930	.0094
Intentions	<--- Negotiation	.3633	.1915	.5158	.0050
CONST13	<--- Interpersonal	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
CONST12	<--- Interpersonal	.9141	.7911	1.0676	.0040
CONST10	<--- Intrapersonal	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
CONST9	<--- Intrapersonal	1.0911	.9979	1.2169	.0026
CONST7	<--- Intrapersonal	.7292	.5614	.8657	.0062
CONST2	<--- Structural	1.0340	.8456	1.3051	.0043
CONST1	<--- Structural	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NEG4	<--- Negotiation	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NEG5	<--- Negotiation	2.0766	1.3637	5.3918	.0023
INT5	<--- Intentions	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...

Previous studies (Crawford et al, 1991; Nyaupane et al, 2004; Pennington-Gray & Kernstetter, 2002; Raymore, 2002; Jackson, 2005) observed that, when people face constraints, they tend not to be passively accepting these barriers, but proactively try to

find alternatives to mitigate the obstacles. These alternatives are designated as negotiation. In a study developed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), the authors found that negotiation partially mediated the relationship between constraints and physically active leisure.

The authors verified that, even if the travel constraints influenced negatively the participation in leisure, the use of mitigation strategies amongst respondents had a positive effect that helped overcome the negative effects of constraints. In this case negotiation does not have a mediation effect on the relationship between travel constraints to travel and intention to revisit rural Europe. It is possible to see that the interpersonal and the ($\beta=.88$) and the intrapersonal dimension ($\beta=.67$) have a bigger effect on constraints. These respondents already did travel to Europe, maybe for them it was easier to negotiate forms of finding time and money to travel, but it is more difficult in to deal with health problems and in finding people to travel with them.

Figure 15: Path diagram of the model of experience in travel and intentions to revisit Europe

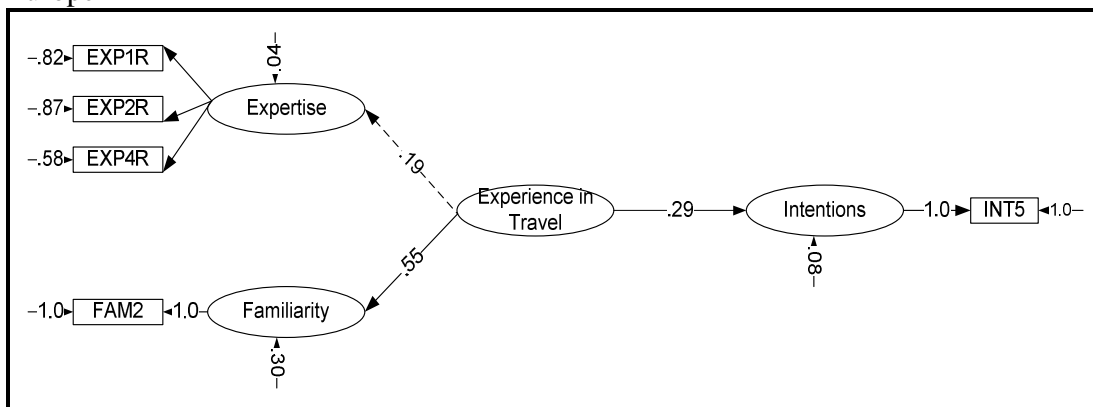


Table 67: Bootstrapped estimates and confidence interval at 90% for model of experience in travel and intentions to revisit Europe

		Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	P
Expertise	<---	ET	.4658	.0347	1.1940	.0706
Familiarity	<---	ET	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
Intentions	<---	ET	.6669	.1286	2.3832	.0070
INT5	<---	Intentions	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
FAMR2	<---	Familiarity	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
EXP1R	<---	Expertise	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
EXP2R	<---	Expertise	.8345	.7494	.9352	.0023
EXP4R	<---	Expertise	.8418	.7472	.9260	.0051

Experience in travel is based on two concepts - familiarity and expertise. According to Alba and Hutchinson (1987: 411), expertise is “the ability to perform product-related tasks successfully”; in tourism the construct is centered on the capacity of searching information about a tourist destination. Expertise (operationalized here based on the scale of Netemeyer and Bearden, 1992) in this work is viewed from the angle of the self-confidence which reflects the general perceived ability to operate successfully in the marketplace. Thus, consumer self-confidence is a broader concept that does not depend on products or experience with products.

Familiarity was defined by Cohen (1972) as a preference for the “tourist bubble”, standing essentially for the comfort of a familiar tourism environment. In the context of consumer behaviour, familiarity has been defined as “the number of product related experiences accumulated over time” (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987: 411). Some studies (Milberg et al, 1997; Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Jacoby et al. 1986) verified that increased product familiarity results in consumer expertise.

In this study, the role of familiarity was analyzed on three levels: familiarity with information search (FAM2), familiarity with rural tourism destinations (FAM1) and familiarity with travelling outside the USA (FAM3). Figure 16 shows that experience in travel is influenced by familiarity with information search but not by expertise. Interestingly, familiarity in searching information is thus found to be more influential than expertise when explaining travel experience. The tourists analyzed, in fact, already

have travelled to Europe and searched for information, they are familiar with the resources, but they do not feel experts, with only experience in information search identified as a relevant indicator of travel experience.

Figure 16: Path diagram of the overall Model with standardized solution estimates

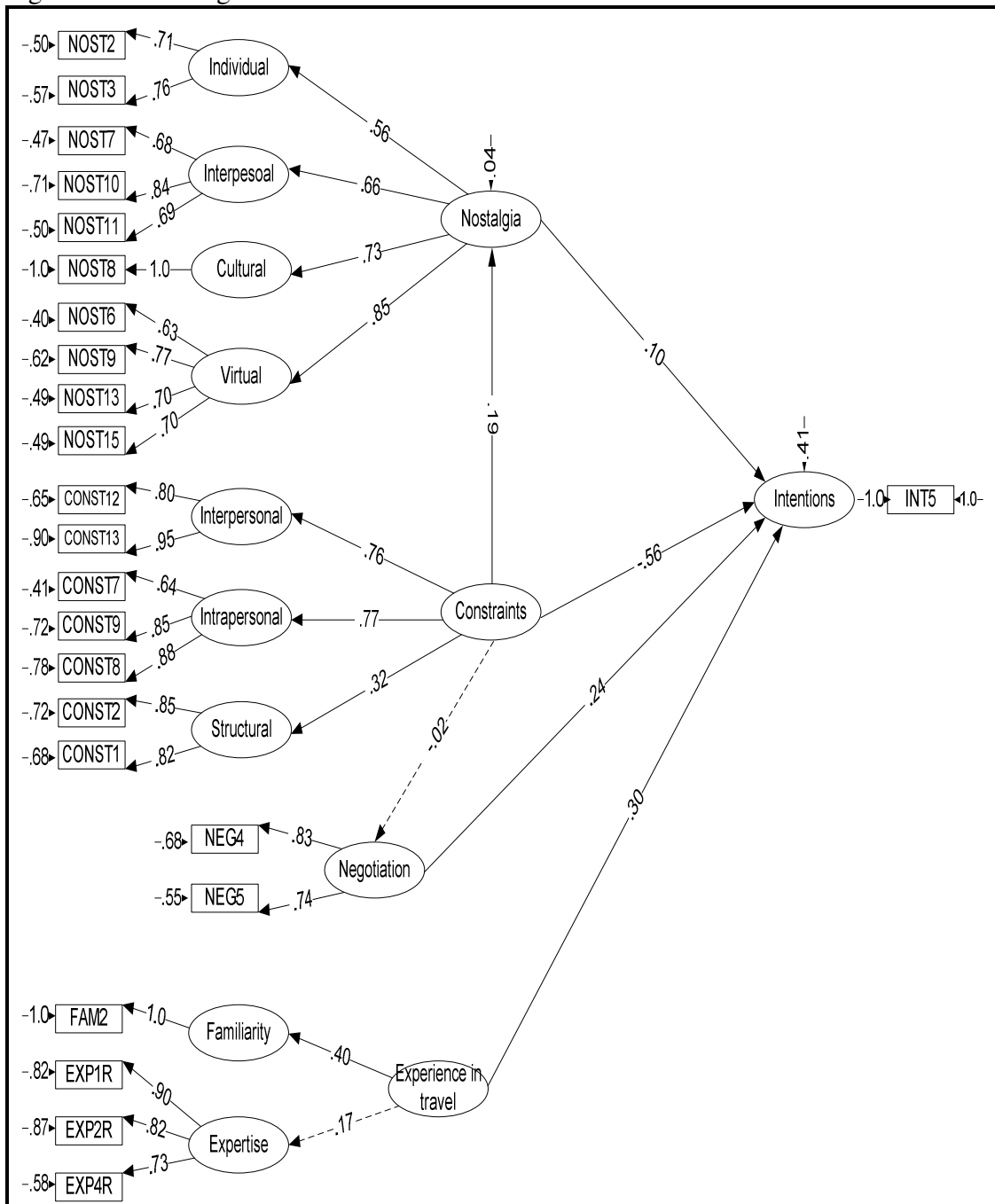


Table 68: Bootstrapped standardized regression weights for full structural model

		Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	P
Nostalgia	<---	Constraints	.7270	.2930	2.1661	.0037
Negotiation	<---	Constraints	.0343	-.6042	1.2222	.9266
Cultural	<---	Nostalgia	1.3262	1.2297	1.4530	.0018
Interpersonal	<---	Nostalgia	1.1054	1.0268	1.2359	.0014
Individual	<---	Nostalgia	1.0743	.8491	1.4769	.0041
Virtual	<---	Nostalgia	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
Interpersonal	<---	constraints	1.1054	1.0268	1.2359	.0014
Intrapersonal	<---	constraints	1.0743	.8491	1.4769	.0041
Structural	<---	constraints	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
Intentions	<---	constraints	-1.5965	-4.9506	-.8169	.0044
Intentions	<---	Negotiation	.3277	.1182	.5121	.0154
Expertise	<---	ET	.5571	-.2037	1.3889	.2278
Intentions	<---	Nostalgia	.8652	.6917	1.0366	.0100
Familiarity	<---	ET	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
Intentions	<---	ET	.9813	.9142	1.0625	.0021
NOST3	<---	Individual	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST2	<---	Individual	.7852	.6931	.8966	.0019
NOST11	<---	Interpersonal	.8940	.8029	.9808	.0050
NOST10	<---	Interpersonal	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST7	<---	Interpersonal	1.1054	1.0268	1.2359	.0014
NOST8	<---	Cultural	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST13	<---	Virtual	.8652	.6917	1.0366	.0100
NOST15	<---	Virtual	1.1774	1.0868	1.2750	.0040
NOST9	<---	Virtual	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NOST6	<---	Virtual	.8824	.8124	.9422	.0051
CONST13	<---	Inter	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
CONST12	<---	Inter	1.1774	1.0868	1.2750	.0040
CONST10	<---	Intrapersonal	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
CONST9	<---	Intrapersonal	.9813	.9142	1.0625	.0021
CONST7	<---	Intrapersonal	.7852	.6931	.8966	.0019
CONST2	<---	Structural	1.3262	1.2297	1.4530	.0018
CONST1	<---	Structural	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NEG4	<---	Negotiation	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
NEG5	<---	Negotiation	.8824	.8124	.9422	.0051
INT5	<---	Intentions	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
FAMR2	<---	Familiarity	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
EXP1R	<---	Expertise	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	...
EXP2R	<---	Expertise	.8362	.7486	.9447	.0030
EXP4R	<---	Expertise	.8436	.7555	.9275	.0045

Figure 16 shows all the factors that could, directly and indirectly, influence the willingness of North-Americans to revisit rural European destinations. Travel experience, nostalgia and negotiation all show a positive relation with the intentions to revisit Europe. It is further important to note that, in an isolated manner, nostalgia does not show a mediating effect on the relationship between travel constraints to travel and intention to revisit rural Europe, but when simultaneously considering the effects of travel experience

and negotiation, a suppression effect could be demonstrated. According to Tzelgov & Henik (1991, cited by MacKinnon et al, 2000: 174): a suppression variable is “a variable which increases the predictive validity of another variable (or set of variables) by its inclusion in a regression equation”, where predictive validity is assessed by the magnitude of the regression coefficient. Thus, a situation in which the magnitude of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable becomes larger when a third variable is included, would indicate suppression.”

Results show that all the proposed paths in the structural model are statistically significant and can be summarized as follows: (1) Travel constraints have a positive direct effect on nostalgia (0.19, $p < 0.01$). These results indicate that the higher the level of travel constraints, the greater the level of nostalgia; (2) Similarly, nostalgia has a positive direct effect, although being weak, on the intentions to revisit rural Europe (0.10, $p < 0.01$); (3) Constraints to travel negatively influences the intentions to return to rural Europe (-0.56, $p < 0.01$), showing that the higher the level of travel constraints, the lower the intentions to return.

The hypotheses H3, H4, H5, H7 and H8 are thus confirmed. The hypothesis 9 (H9) is partially confirmed, since expertise has no effect in returning to rural Europe. The hypothesis H6 (Nostalgia positively mediates the negative relationship between perceived travel constraints and intention to return to Europe) was not confirmed in the previous section, but with the addition of travel experience to the model, it is confirmed. The mediation effect exists through a rare phenomenon designated as suppression effect. We may thus conclude that H6 is partially confirmed.

6.8 Hypothesis testing

The analysis undertaken in the previous section permitted the test of the hypotheses developed in this work (see chapter 4). First, the hypothesis regarding the composition of the nostalgia scale was validated and then its mediating effect on the relationship between travel constraints to travel and intention to revisit rural Europe, then the remaining hypotheses were analyzed through their inclusion within the structural equation model presented in figure 16 (of the previous session).

The confirmed hypotheses are:

- H1: The nostalgia scale for tourism (NOSTOUR) has four dimensions: individual, interpersonal, cultural and, virtual)
- H2: “Past Positive Time Perspective” has a positive convergence with the NOSTOUR scale.
- H3: Nostalgia has a positive direct effect on the intention to return to rural Europe
- H4: Travel constraints have a negative direct effect on the intention to return to rural Europe
- H5: Travel constraints increase nostalgia
- H8: Negotiation has a positive direct effect on intention to return to rural Europe

The rejected hypotheses are:

- H7: Travel constraints have a positive direct effect on negotiation

Partially accepted hypotheses are:

- H6: Nostalgia positively mediates the negative relationship between perceived travel constraints and intention to return to rural Europe partially accepted, being rejected in its separate test, but accepted within the overall model
- H9: Travel experience (expertise and familiarity) has a positive effect on intentions to revisit rural Europe. This hypothesis is partially accepted, because expertise does not affect travel experience.

Table 69 presents the statistical significance values of the hypotheses.

Table 69: Hypotheses testing

Num	Hypothesis	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Confirm	
H1	Nostalgia scale for tourism (NOSTOUR) has four dimensions:				
	-individual,	.57	<.001	Confirmed	
	-interpersonal,	.47	<.001		
	-cultural and,	.54	<.001		
-virtual)	.71	<.001			
H2	“Past Positive” perception scale has a positive convergence with NOSTUR	.28		Confirmed	
		.21			
		.19			
		.12			
H3	Nostalgia has a positive direct effect on the intentions to visit rural Europe	.10	<0.01	Confirmed	
H4	Perceived travel constraints has a negative direct effect on intentions to return to rural Europe	.31	<0.01	Confirmed	
H5	Perceived travel constraints increase Nostalgia	.19	<0.05	Confirmed	
H6	Nostalgia positively mediates the negative relationship between perceived travel constraints and intention to return to Europe			Partially confirmed	
H7	Constraints has a positive direct effect on negotiation	.02	>0.05	Not confirmed	
H8	Negotiation has a positive direct effect on intentions to return to Europe	.24	<0.05	Confirmed	
H9	Experience in travel (expertise and familiarity) has a positive direct effect on intentions to return to rural Europe			Partially Confirmed	
		Expertise	.17		>0.05
		Familiarity	.40		<0.01

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In the previous chapters, a research model was conceptually developed and empirically validated, that aims at extending the knowledge about the role of nostalgia in the willingness of North-Americans to revisit rural places in Europe. Even if the North-American tourist market to Europe is one of the most relevant (ETC, 2008), there is a lack of studies that analyze it. Also the interest of long-haul travelers in rural areas in Europe is a topic worthwhile reflecting on, since these travelers typically visit the big European cities, ignoring the rural hinterland, despite the increasing interest in authenticity and diversity within the general tourist market (ETC-UNWTO, 2011; Knudsen & Waaden, 2010; MacLeod, 2010; Cole, 2007; Kim & Jamal, 2007; Wang, 2007; Steiner & Reisinger, 2006). In addition, the thesis contributes to the development of tourism theory by creating an initial quantitative tool to assess nostalgia felt in the tourism context. This research has thus the potential of making a unique contribution to both academia and destination marketers.

The methodology followed a first exploratory study based on participant observation during three months in the state of Pennsylvania, the Mid-Atlantic U.S. between June and August 2009, and a group of semi-structured interviews, to find the main processes and factors that motivate and hinder North-American tourists to visit rural Europe. In the tourism literature there is little information about the tourist behavior of North-Americans that travel to Europe, but according to existing evidence this market travels mostly to cities (ETC, 2004).

Most of the respondents indicated that they were facing constraints to travel to Europe, particularly concerning travel to rural areas. However, another factor common to most respondents was the existence of nostalgia for Europe, which led many participants to negotiate the constraints that prevented them from visiting this continent. Based on the

exploratory interviews and on a complementary literature review, it was decided to analyze the role of nostalgia, travel constraints, negotiation and experience of travel in the process of defining intentions to revisit rural Europe.

Nostalgia is an emotion that may be defined as a “preference (general liking, positive attitude or favourable affect) toward objects (people, places or things) that were more common (popular, fashionable or widely circulated) when one was younger (in early adulthood, in adolescence, in childhood or even before birth)” (Holbrook & Schindler, 1991). In the travelling context this emotion can be triggered through four different situations that could be designated as personal, interpersonal, cultural and virtual dimensions. The personal dimension is related to the life of a person, the interpersonal to the close relations with family and friends, the cultural dimension with the group/community that a person is integrated in and, last but not least, virtual nostalgia is related to the influence exerted by the popular media, namely literature, television, cinema, publicly presented images, pictures taken during holidays by the visitor or friends and music. A previous visit, combined with the influence of popular media, can also trigger this emotion and motivate a tourist to return to a previously visited destination, in this case to rural European places or regions, even though there might be perceived constraints, as was observably in the results of the exploratory study presented in this thesis.

Travel constraints should be recognized as one of the most relevant constructs to analyse in the case of non visitors, e.g. people that had never visited a destination before or visitors that do not return (Hudson & Gilbert, 1999). These visitors may be an important potential tourist market, which is sometimes neglected in marketing research (outra ref?). In the present research project travel constraints are analysed in a market that had already visited a destination, namely places in rural Europe. Travel constraints can be defined as “factors that are assumed by researchers and/ or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/ or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure.” (Jackson, 2000: 62 cited by Jackson, 2005). Researchers have discovered that travel constraints could be overcome by motivation or/

and by negotiation. In this context, nostalgia, triggered by the nostalgic memories of a previous visit, can act as a travel motivation (a push factor according to Dann, 1977) and could mitigate the negative effect of constraints in the intentions to return to rural Europe. US travellers visiting Europe tend to feel relatively high levels of insecurity and anxiety when travelling to rural areas, as reflected in perceived travel constraints. The travellers analyzed in this work have already travelled to rural Europe, meaning that they had already overcome some of these constraints before and already present some familiarity with rural destinations in Europe, which might still not be sufficient for not feeling any travel constraints, typically associated to rural Europe (e.g. increased difficulty of communication and getting along) any more. This (however reduced) perceived travel constraint could here act positively reinforcing the effect of nostalgia (as a “surpressing” mediator variable of travel constraints), thereby enhancing the North American travellers’ intention to revisit rural destinations in Europe. However, all these suggested relationships require empirical validation, and in the case of the construct “nostalgia” felt in tourism, a valid operationalization needed to be found.

Since no nostalgia scale for the tourism context could be identified in the scientific literature, this research project integrates the development of a Tourism Nostalgia Scale (NOSTOUR) that was used in the quantitative part of this study, a first scale, validated with North American tourists who had travelled to rural areas in Europe, that might be refined by other authors in future research and eventually adapted to distinct contexts. The items were selected from previous literature and based on the semi-structured interviews of the exploratory part of the study and discussed with a panel of specialists, leading to a final selection of 16 items. After this process, a pre-test for the questionnaire was applied and the last corrections were made.

The final questionnaire was applied to inhabitants of North-America, residing there for more than ten years, who were travelling in Italy and Portugal. A total sample of 456 valid responses was obtained. Descriptive analysis shows that 67.5% of all respondents have European roots, i.e. they were European-Americans; the majority of respondents were between 18-40 years old (77.5 %), mostly in the range between 18-20

years (44.5%). More than half of the sample had searched for information about the trip in the internet (56.5%) and communication with family and friends (30.1%). According to Sweeney et al (2008), Word of Mouth (WOM) is becoming increasingly recognized as an important form of promotion, especially when credence qualities play a critical role in consumer choices, like in the case of tourism destination choice (Wesley & Sutherland, 2008). This suggests that the internet is a very important source of information, which should be timely, up-to-date, avoid information overload and offer an adequate website structure and efficient and usable search engines. But results show that destination marketers should not just rely on the internet, being the traditional WOM still very important, which is, however, increasingly also transmitted in electronic contexts (e.g. web 2.0, e-WOM, internet communities) (Chiappa, 2011;. Bronner, 2011;Ascaniis & Morasso, 2011; Zhu &Lai,2009).

Most of the respondents booked travel and accommodation separately (71.4%) or did not booked anything in advance (15%), implying that most of these travelers are independent travelers. These results are in agreement with Hyde and Lawson (2008) who identify a tendency of growth of the independent travel and a relative decline in package travel. The majority of the respondents traveled to Europe by plane, which is typical for international tourism (OECD, 2010). Most respondents used public transportation to move within Europe (70.5%), namely bus (47.5%) and train (23%). Most respondents stayed at the destination between 5 and 15 days (48.8%), but there is a considerable number of respondents who stayed more than one month (24 %), corroborating Crotts and Reid's study (1993) revealing that long-haul travelers stayed significantly longer at destinations than other tourists. In the present sample, this may be related with the respondents who stayed in a second home in Europe with family and friends, evidencing that many are probably immigrants or descendants of immigrants. Another explanation is related with the relevance of the study abroad programs that exist in Italy leading to stays above one month. Most respondents preferred to stay overnight in hotels (61.3%) and bread & breakfast establishments (15 %), with a considerable number of respondents staying with friends and family (13.7%). Most of the respondents travelled with friends (44.8%), in couple (22.9%), only a minority were travelling alone (6.4%).

For the proposed model, first the scales for the constructs were analyzed, the validity of the scales was confirmed and the proposed model was validated through a structural equation analysis. These procedures permitted the test of the suggested hypotheses, which were derived from the literature review, as detailed in chapter 4.

Hypothesis 1 (H1) proposes that the *nostalgia* construct, in the tourism context, is composed of four dimensions, namely *individual*, *interpersonal*, *cultural* and *virtual nostalgia*. The exploratory factor analysis resulted in four dimensions, with some items with low loadings (either in EFA or subsequent CFA) being removed. The four dimensions, integrated in the second order structural model corresponded to those suggested by the literature on nostalgia. The results thereby confirm that the construct *nostalgia* is multidimensional, triggered by four different perspectives, more specifically nostalgia related to personal life history (*individual nostalgia*), nostalgia resulting from interaction/ relationships with family (*interpersonal nostalgia*), nostalgia emerging from the belonging to a group or cultural context (*cultural nostalgia*) and, last but not least, nostalgia as created/ enhanced by popular media sources (*virtual nostalgia*).

It could be observed that nostalgia increases with satisfaction regarding the previous travel. In the tourism research literature satisfaction is related with the intention to return; showing that a satisfactory travel experience contributes to destination loyalty (Chi & Qu, 2008; Alexandris et al, 2006; Bramwell, 1998; Oppermann, 2000; Pritchard & Howard, 1997). Numerous studies have investigated the impact of emotions on customer satisfaction but they have operationalized emotions in a broad scope, distinguishing mainly positive and negative emotions or pleasure and arousal (Faullant *et al*, 2011); none that the author is aware of, has studied the role of specific, complex emotions such as nostalgia, on travel decision making.

Interestingly, the respondents who travelled in search of their “roots” revealed to be more nostalgic. Many Euro-American travelers could, indeed, be traveling because of what Stein and Hill (1977) call “dime store ethnicity”. This search for the “roots” or

choose roots could be related with Durkheim's concept of anomie (Dann, 1977), a state of normlessness, powerlessness and meaninglessness that pervades society and could motivate those Americans to "find meaning" by the search for an identity in their roots, a meaning in life. For Dann (1977) anomie, as nostalgia is a push factor to travel, eventually resulting in a desire of differentiating themselves and create an individual ethnic identity in a massified society.

It is interesting to note that those who travelled to Portugal felt more nostalgia than those who travelled to Italy. Tuscany in Italy has an iconic status in North America, presenting an image that is transmitted through the high number of Italian descendants and the popular media, with references to the Tuscan way of life visible on television and in shopping malls, (Mayes, 2000), films (Gaggio, 2011) and literature (Blasi, 2005). Portugal is, particularly in its rural areas undiscovered and unknown, where probably many of the travelers interviewed were Portuguese or Portuguese descendants. That is why the nostalgia at stake may be more personally involving and impactful in the tourism context. Nostalgia does not significantly differ due to gender, age or the fact of belonging to the group of Euro-Americans or not. However, there are previous studies which show that there are differences between men and women in terms of nostalgia; in tourism it may be necessary to verify if the level of nostalgia is related to different kinds of tourism or activities undertaken during the tourist stay, like sports or attending events.

Hypothesis 2 (H2) suggests that past positive time perception is positively related to nostalgia. According to Zimbardo (1999), people with a past positive perception of time have the tendency to think about and interpret the present in light of a warm, sentimental attitude towards the past. This converges with the definition of nostalgia suggested by Holak and Havlena (1998): Nostalgia as a positively balanced complex feeling, emotion or mood produced by reflection on things (objects, persons, experiences, ideas) associated with the past. In fact, data show that the *past positive time perspective scale* has a positive convergence with the NOSTOUR scale, however with a moderate relationship implying that the scales are not the same. This hypothesis was confirmed,

with the most important convergence between the two scales regards the dimension *individual nostalgia* ($\beta=.28$).

Hypothesis 3 (H3) states that nostalgia has a positive direct effect on the intentions to return to rural Europe. Results from the global structural equations model show indeed that the NOSTOUR scale has a positive direct effect, although weak, on the intentions to return to rural Europe, with $\beta= .10$ and $p<0.01$. This demonstrates that, when the nostalgia emotion is triggered, the individual tends to feel motivated to return to that destination.

Perceived travel constraints have a negative direct effect on the intentions to return to rural Europe as hypothesized in Hypothesis 4 (H4), ($\beta=-.31$ and $p<0.01$). Leisure/ tourism constraints correspond to “factors that are assumed by researchers and/ or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/ or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure.” (Jackson, 2000: 62 cited by Jackson, 2005). There is, however, a lack of studies about non-users in the work of consumer behavior, in general, and in tourism in particular, with the few studies existing being segmentation studies (Frochot & Morrison, 2001). Authors refer that it is most important to make an effort on users, but non-users can represent a significant marketing opportunity (Loudon et al, 1993). Tourism research about non-users is, in fact, difficult but should be recognized as fundamental. The non-users could be ex-users who need to be tempted back, those who are aware of the product but are not buying it and those who are not aware at all (Hudson & Gilbert, 2000).

As suggested in literature, nostalgia has the capacity of motivating people to overcome negative situations (Sedikies et al, 2004), which was also stated in Hypothesis 5 (H5): perceived travel constraints increase nostalgia feelings. The results of our data analysis ($\beta=.19$ and $p<0.05$) show that travel constraints, in fact, do increase nostalgia feelings. Travel constraints have, on the one hand, a negative relation with the intention of revisit but the existence of constraints to travel increases the nostalgia felt for the destination. A study undertaken by Wildshut et al (2010) verified that loneliness, a

negative affect, increased nostalgia, showing that lonely people seek refuge in nostalgia. In this study it is also possible to observe that when the respondents face constraints to travel, a negative situation, they tend to seek refuge in nostalgia.

As far as the hypothesis 6 (H6) is concerned, nostalgia does not clearly mediate the effect of travel constraints on revisit intention. Even if the direct effect of constraints on nostalgia is significant ($p < 0.01$), and the effect of constraints on revisit intentions is significant ($p < 0.05$), the effect of nostalgia on intentions to revisit rural Europe is not significant ($p > 0.05$). However, when the mediation effect of a construct does not result in a model focusing on the three variables in question, it does not mean that the effect could not occur in a more complex model. In the present case, with the presence of travel experience in the model the hypothesized mediation effect occurs. Travel constraints do have a negative relation to intention to revisit, but the existence of constraints to travel increases the nostalgia for the destination, which in the end positively impacts on the intention to revisit. The mediation effect caused by nostalgia is one particular case of mediation, a suppression effect. According to Tzelgov and Henik (1991, cited by MacKinnon et al, 2000: 174): a suppression variable is “a variable which increases the predictive validity of another variable (or set of variables) by its inclusion in a regression equation”, where predictive validity is assessed by the magnitude of the regression coefficient. Thus, a situation in which the magnitude of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable becomes larger when a third variable is included would indicate suppression.” Such situation occurs if the direct effect of travel constraints is in the opposite direction of its indirect effect via nostalgia, that is, the direct and indirect effects have opposite signs, as is here the case.

In the literature on leisure/ tourism constraints it was verified that people negotiate travel constraints in order to find solutions to undertake their travel to the desired destination. This led to hypothesis 7 (H7), suggesting that travel constraints have a positive direct effect on negotiation. Contrary to what some authors found (White, 2008; Jackson et al. 1993; Crawford et al, 1991), a confirmation of this hypothesis was not possible. The relation between travel constraints and negotiation is statistically not

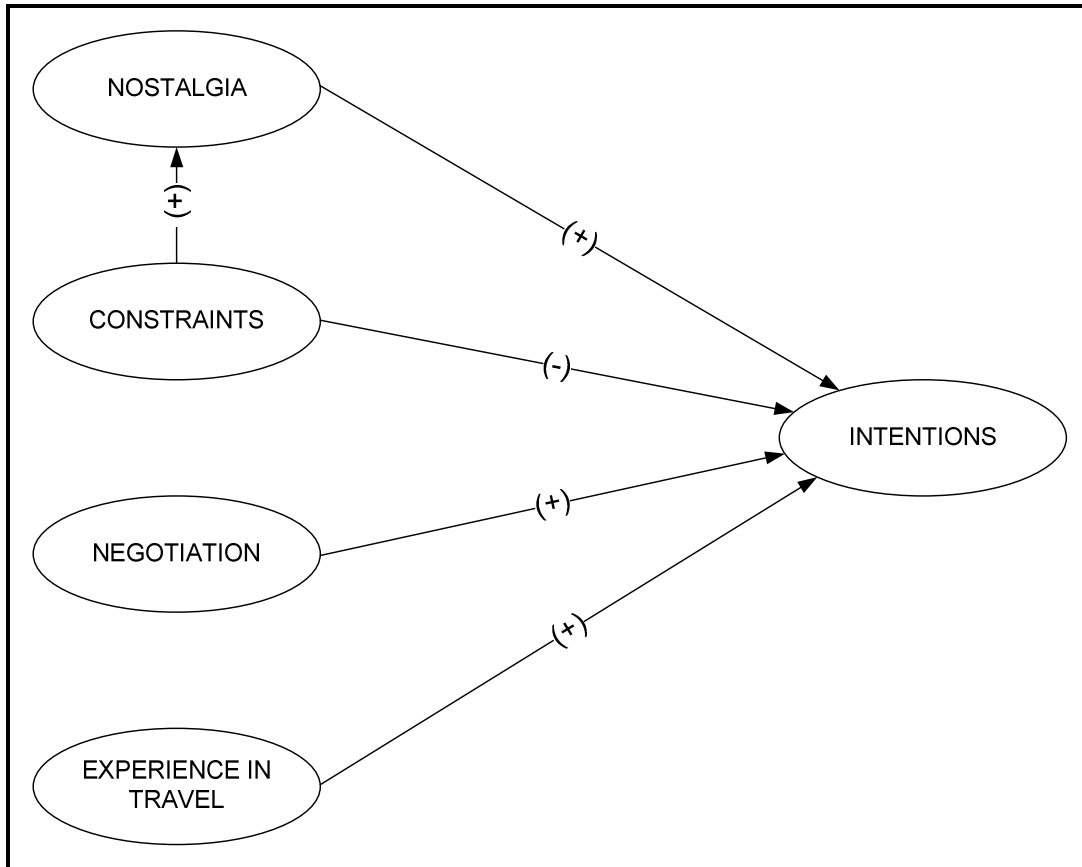
significant ($\beta=-.02$ and $p>0.05$).

As suggested in hypothesis 8 (H8), negotiation has, indeed, a positive direct effect on the intentions to return to rural Europe ($\beta=-.24$ and $p<0.05$). “Negotiation” refers to attitudes and arguments that a traveler generates to make possible his/ her trip to a tourist destination, revealing a strong intention to travel. On the other hand, previous studies mostly in the area of leisure had found that negotiation has a mediation effect on the relation between perceived travel constraints and intention to repeat behavior (Huang & Hsu, 2009), but the results in this work did not corroborate that evidence. Eventually in tourism the study related with constraints and negotiation could be more complex having other determinants that could change the effect of perceived travel constraints and the role of negotiation in tourists’ intention of revisit a destination.

Hypothesis 9 (H9) suggests that experience in travel (expertise and familiarity) has a positive direct effect on intentions to return to rural Europe. Travel experience has a positive effect on the intentions to travel to Europe ($\beta=.30$; $p<0.01$). However, travel experience is influenced by familiarity ($\beta=.40$; $p<0.01$), but not by expertise ($\beta=.17$; $p>0.05$). The familiarity in searching information is more influential than felt self-confidence. The respondents in this study had already travelled to Europe and had already searched for information, this could mean that they already possess some degree of familiarity with the visited destination, but this does not mean that they could feel expert, with only experience in information search identified as a relevant indicator of travel experience. These not so strong results concerning the diverse variables and respective dimensions suggested in H9 leads to only a partial confirmation of this hypothesis.

In summary, travel experience, nostalgia and negotiation have a positive relation with the intentions to revisit rural areas in Europe. Individually, nostalgia does not show a mediator effect on the relation between perceived travel constraints and revisit intention, but when the constructs “experience in travel” and “negotiation” are included in the model, it shows a mediation effect, more specifically, in this case a suppression effect. The relationships are presented, in a simplified format, in figure 17.

Figure 17: Model of intention to revisit rural Europe based on Nostalgia, travel constraints, negotiation and experience in travel



Generally, it must be acknowledged that the analysis of the non-users is very relevant in tourism and it is important to identify those non-users that may be potential consumers for better targeted destination marketing. The North-American market is one of the most relevant long-haul markets to Europe, but it has been decreasing and it is known that they typically prefer city destinations. At the same time, a large part of the North American population has a migrant origin, which makes them a possible nostalgic traveller. In this study it was verified that nostalgia could play a relevant role in mitigating perceived travel constraints and increase the motivation to revisit rural areas already visited in Europe. Nostalgia is, interestingly, increased by the existence of perceived travel constraints. It is consequently relevant to use nostalgia appeals in the

tourism promotion, particularly of rural European destination, especially if they are related in the US population to a relevant migration group. But nostalgia in the tourism context is multidimensional and is influenced by several factors, as individual experiences, that could be of childhood or of a previous visit. The influence of WOM is also very relevant in triggering nostalgia, and interpersonal nostalgia is acquired through the influence of friends and family. The culture in which the tourist is integrated plays also a relevant role. Cultural identity depends on some degree of continuity with the past – the geography, culture and location. It has its own history which is constructed on the binary of self and other. Boyarin and Boyarin (1993:693) argue: "Group identity has been constructed traditionally in two ways. It has been figured on the one hand as the product of a common genealogical origin and on the other, as produced by common geographical origins". Last, but not least, virtual nostalgia is triggered through music, films, images and books, which might be relevant to potential tourists, even without any personal migration background. In today's Western Societies, tourists are largely influenced by media products, which might generate imaginary of an idealized way of life, considered appealing and meaningful, associated to certain places, people start feeling nostalgic about. This phenomenon begins before the tourist leaves home. It starts with the pleasure of forming personal expectations and mental images based on travel guides, post cards, websites, documentaries, films, music and pictures taken by the tourist itself and by other tourists.

Based on the results of the study it is recommended that European tourism marketers who are interested in capturing the North American market to visit and revisit European rural destinations should focus on the following points:

- Nostalgia: in this study the existence of four types of nostalgia is shown, that can be triggered in relation to a (rural) tourist destination. Nostalgia may indeed be a factor can make a US tourist overcome the travel constraints perceived visit or even return to rural Europe. It is now relevant to study specifically what contents, stimuli, symbols, stories, images, and slogans would be most powerful to trigger nostalgia in tourists by tourism marketers. For instance, there are studies that reveal the role of music as a relevant

element in evoking nostalgia (Barret et al, 2010; Zentner et al, 2008; Muheling & Sprott, 2007; Juslin et al, 2008; Janata et al, 2007) and in creating attachment to consuming objects and places (Cassia, 2000; Havlena & Holak, 1991; Holbrook & Schindler, 1991, 2006), which might also be powerful elements in tourism marketing.

- Ancestry: most of the North Americans are descendants from another country, being a large number of the population Euro Americans. The ancestry and its meaning for identity creation and consolidation amongst these populations (Alba, 1990) make these consumers a nostalgic market. As shown in this thesis, nostalgia has the capacity to make people overcome travel constraints and effectively travel, even to (less well known) rural places in Europe. In another study conducted by the European Travel Monitor (2001) ancestry is recognized as one of the major motivations to travel to Europe, even if this motivation has not been shown as determinant for the majority of its tourists.
- Developing and promoting “roots travel”: some countries, such as Ireland and Scotland, have already developed sites and different tools related to the search for the ancestry making the “roots travel”, which is by nature nostalgic travel of descendents from these countries, more appealing. Portugal for instance, although being a country with a large Diaspora abroad, does not dispose of these tools, while the nostalgia and ancestry market is still very insipient and not effectively catered to.
- All promotion resources in English: If catering to the North American traveller market, European countries and even (particularly their rural and less well known regions and places) should present their tourist sites in English and inform that in the promoted region it is possible to find people speaking English. As seen in the exploratory study, for the North American market foreign languages and nobody available speaking English, could cause anxiety and be a very relevant structural constraint to travel, starting at the level of searching information about the tourist destination. For instance, the Douro region in Portugal is a very appealing region to the North American market because of the opportunity to have a cruise line operating on the river and

organizing all-inclusive trips with English speaking guides and tourism professionals, associated to the popularity of the Port wine in that country, but a few years ago the main constraint that this market was reporting was that the lack of information about that Portuguese Region in English (CCDR-N, 2010).

- Personalised and nostalgically enriched interpretation of heritage: for instance, as Basu (2005) noticed, the Scottish diaspora in the USA had different imaginaries about the country's history, based on what is spread in the popular media in the USA. When actually travelling to Scotland, these tourists were facing another interpretation of this heritage, creating some dissatisfaction and even conflicting feelings amongst visitors. It is necessary to know and understand the imaginaries of the nostalgic market for creating personalized interpretation formats for specific segments in order to deliver satisfying and meaningful experiences ("authentic experiences", in Wang's (1999) conceptualization), without however delivering untrue messages, i.e. helping tourists to relate to the places and heritage visited, to live meaningful experiences, but to simultaneously cautiously integrate them into the whole historical and cultural background.

All these results have relevant implications for governments, rural communities and tourism marketers. The findings of the present study present relevant information for academia, rural communities and rural destination marketers who might improve research and action by understanding a bit more a market that has been understudied: the North-American market travelling to rural Europe.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Despite the theoretical and practical findings, this study had several limitations that need to be addressed. Limitations represent both the foundations and reasons to continue investigating. First, the current study was an initial attempt to develop a measurement scale for assessing nostalgia in the tourism context. The scale was only applied to North-American residents traveling to rural areas in Europe and to a sample that was mostly composed of young respondents. Further testing in other contexts will be needed in order to examine if the scale is applicable to other regions and travel settings. In a preliminary stage of the work on the scale the dimensions and the items were collected based on a literature review and on interviews made to North-Americans. The interviews were undertaken based on the objective of the study, to analyze the willingness of North-Americans to travel to rural destinations in Europe. Future studies should also explore tourists from other nationalities.

Second, several items in the dimensions of the factors were dropped due to low reliability coefficients. In future studies it is advisable to introduce more items to increase the individual loadings on their latent constructs. The variable “intention to return” was measured with just one variable. In future studies the number of items should be increased in order to improve the reliability of that factor. The NOSTOUR scale needs to be refined and improved in order to present higher levels of AVE and RC.

Due to time and budget constraints the sample was collected just amongst Portugal and Italy visitors. Future studies should extend the sample to other rural European destinations and try to collect an equilibrated number between all the age cohorts. It will be also interesting to investigate in future research through multi-group analysis (Byrne, 2009) differences between Portugal and Italy and other countries analyzed in future research, between “root tourists” and other type of tourists and different age cohorts.

It might further be interesting to understand the eventual role of nostalgia on travelers visiting city destinations in Europe and compare results. Eventually other factors may shape the relationships identified in the presented model, such as place attachment (Yuksel et al, 2010; Lewika, 2008; Gross & Brow, 2006; Gu & Ryan, 2008; Hwang et al, 2005), cultural distance (Smith, 2009; Martin & Bosque, 2008; Ng et al, 2007), cultural proximity (Kastenholz, 2010), which may be analyzed as moderation variables in future research.

Despite the limitations, this study acknowledges the role of nostalgia in contributing for the willingness of North-Americans to travel to rural Europe. The study developed an initial measure for nostalgia proneness for a tourist destination and showed the role of nostalgia as a factor that could make the North-American tourists return to rural places already visited in Europe, with future studies desirable to validate and eventually refine the NOSTOUR scale, to validate the model in diverse destination and market contexts and to enrich the model with distinct constructs.

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APPENDIX ONE: ZIMBARDO TIME PERSPECTIVE INDEX (ZTPI)

Zimbarido Time Perspective Index (ZTPI) items (a)

1. I believe that getting together with one's friends to party is one of life's important pleasures.
 2. Familiar childhood sights, sounds, smells often bring back a flood of wonderful memories.
 3. Fate determines much in my life.
 4. I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.
 5. My decisions are mostly influenced by people and things around me.
 6. I believe that a person's day should be planned ahead each morning
 7. It gives me pleasure to think about my past.
 8. I do things impulsively.
 9. If things don't get done on time, I don't worry about it.
 10. When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.
 11. On balance, there is much more good to recall than bad in my past
 12. When listening to my favorite music, I often lose all track of time.
 13. Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.
 14. Since whatever will be will be, it doesn't really matter what I do.
 15. I enjoy stories about how things used to be in the good old times."
 16. Painful past experiences keep being replayed in my mind.
 17. I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.
 18. It upsets me to be late for appointments.
 19. Ideally, I would live each day as if it were my last.
 20. Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.
 21. I meet my obligations to friends and authorities on time.
 22. I've taken my share of abuse and rejection in the past.
 23. I make decisions on the spur of the moment.
 24. I take each day as it is rather than try to plan it out.
 25. The past has too many unpleasant memories that I prefer not to think about.
 26. It is important to put excitement in my life
 27. I've made mistakes in the past that I wish I could undo.
 28. I feel that it's more important to enjoy what you're doing than to get work done on time.
 29. I get nostalgic about my childhood.
 30. Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.
-

Zimbardo Time Perspective Index (ZTPI) items (b)

31. Taking risks keeps my life from becoming boring.
 32. It is more important for me to enjoy life's journey than to focus only on the destination.
 33. Things rarely work out as I expected.
 34. It's hard for me to forget unpleasant images of my youth.
 35. It takes joy out of the process and flow of my activities, if I have to think about goals, outcomes, and products.
 36. Even when I am enjoying the present, I am drawn back to comparisons with similar past experiences.
 37. You can't really plan for the future because things change so much.
 38. My life path is controlled by forces I cannot influence.
 39. It doesn't make sense to worry about the future, since there is nothing that I can do about it anyway.
 40. I complete projects on time by making steady progress.
 41. I find myself tuning out when family members talk about the way things used to be.
 42. I take risks to put excitement in my life.
 43. I make lists of things to do.
 44. I often follow my heart more than my head.
 45. I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is work to be done.
 46. I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.
 47. Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.
 48. I prefer friends who are spontaneous rather than predictable.
 49. I like family rituals and traditions that are regularly repeated.
 50. I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.
 51. I keep working at difficult, uninteresting tasks if they will help me get ahead.
 52. Spending what I earn on pleasures today is better than saving for tomorrow's security.
 53. Often luck pays off better than hard work.
 54. I think about the good things that I have missed out on in my life.
 55. I like my close relationships to be passionate.
 56. There will always be time to catch up on my work.
-

**APPENDIX TWO: SCRIPT OF THE SEMI-STRUCTURED
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TO EXPLORE THE NORTH AMERICAN
BEHAVIOUR**

Appendix one: Scrip of the semi-structured questionnaire for to explore the North American behaviour (The interview process was not recorded, because it was a preliminary exploratory phase of the research. And, due to lack of time related to the period of residence in the PSU there was no time for to request an authorization of the ethics committee of the University. Due to this constraint, the interview process was conducted in the form of informal conversations with the intervened subjects.)

Questionnaire:

Q1: What comes on your mind when you think about rural Europe?

Q2: Why did you travelled to Europe?

Q3: Why don't you travel more often to Europe?

APPENDIX THREE: QUESTIONNAIRE



Thanks for participating in this survey!

This study aims to help us to understand the willingness of North Americans to visit rural Europe. And is being conducted by Áurea Rodrigues (aurea@ua.pt) a PhD student in Tourism at the University of Aveiro, Portugal (www.ua.pt). **After completing the survey, your email will enter in a drawing for the following voucher: A week in "Casa de Saramago" (7 nights including breakfast). CASA DE SARAMAGO is a rural lodging unit in Alentejo, Portugal**

1- Please tell us the destination you visited on your last trip to Europe (i.e. the country in which you spent the most time): _____

2- The following questions will be related to that country that you indicated in the previous question (Please indicate the degree to which you 1-disagree to 5-agree with each of the following statements)

	1	2	3	4	5
The trip to ____ reminded me of the stories I heard about that place.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ evoked good feelings about a special time of my life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ made me think about special persons, places, or things in my youth	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ made me feel back home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ reminded me of an era before my birth	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The music I heard from ____ before the trip made me feel nostalgic about that place.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ made me reconnect with my ancestral roots	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ evoked good feelings about a time before my birth	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Before my trip to ____ some films evoked nostalgia from that place	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ made me reminisce about my roots.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ evoked me memories about the roots of the community I'm now integrated in	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ made me feel good about a previous time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The images I've seen about ____ before my trip made me feel nostalgic about that place	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ made me wish I could go back to a time before I was born	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The books that I read connected to ____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

made me feel nostalgic about that place	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The trip to ____ made me reminisce about a special time in my life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3- Concerns I have pertaining to go on rural holidays to Europe (Please indicate the degree to which you 1-disagree to 5-agree with each of the following statements)

	1	2	3	4	5
I have no time to make a Trip.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The long distance of international travel.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The high cost.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have no information about rural Europe.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It's a crowded place.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I cannot travel to Europe because I feel that those countries have a very different culture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I'm unable to drive	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I cannot travel to Europe because it's not very well accepted in the culture I belong to travel abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Travelling to rural Europe involves too much risk.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My health does not allow me to travel.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I cannot travel to Europe because I have social and cultural obligations on holidays like visiting my family	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have no one to travel with/ it's not fun to travel by my self.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My family and friends are not interested in travelling	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4 - When you want to travel to Europe you try to:

	1	2	3	4	5
Find people with similar interests.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bring other people to make you feel safer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Organize trips with your own group	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Try to budget money	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Set aside money to use for to travel	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Getting time to travel to Europe.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5 - Read each item and, as honestly as you can, answer the question:

	1	2	3	4	5
This travel was to search my roots.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I intend to recommend this destination to my friends and family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I'm very satisfied with these holidays.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I had a multi-destination travel pattern mixing rural and urban places	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have intention to return to Europe and visit rural places.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6- While researching information about Europe before the trip and while at destination I felt: (Please indicate the degree

APPENDIX FOUR: OUTPUTS OF THE STATISITICAL ANALYSES

NORMALITY TESTS

OUTLIERS

(UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS)

UNIVARIATE OUTLIERS	
Nostalgia	
NOST1	354,410,412,427
NOST2	No cases
NOST3	No cases
NOST4	No cases
NOST5	No cases
NOST6	No cases
NOST7	No cases
NOST8	442, 448, 450, 454
NOST9	No cases
NOST10	No cases
NOST11	No cases
NOST12	No cases
NOST13	No cases
NOST14	No cases
NOST15	438, 449, 450, 454
NOST16	No cases

UNIVARIATE OUTLIERS	
Constraints	
CONST1	No cases
CONST2	No cases
CONST3	No cases
CONST4	No cases
CONST5	279, 319, 335, 354, 414, 427, 431
CONST7	202, 319, 333, 354, 358, 343, 363
CONST9	234, 252, 333, 354, 358, 436, 309
CONST10	168, 201, 202, 275, 319, 354, 333
CONST12	No cases
CONST13	No cases

UNIVARIATE OUTLIERS	
Negotiation	
NEG1	No cases
NEG2	No cases
NEG3	407,426,451,455
NEG4	No cases
NEG5	No cases
NEG6	353, 355, 358, 413

UNIVARIATE OUTLIERS	
Expertise	
EXP1	No cases
EXP2	No cases
EXP3	284, 392, 335, 307, 401, 440, 437
EXP4	No cases
EXP5	355, 418, 392, 356, 408, 442, 421, 410, 394, 399, 388

UNIVARIATE OUTLIERS	
Familiarity	
FAM1	435, 379, 303, 353
FAM2	402, 345, 325, 353
FAM3	140, 345, 339, 353

UNIVARIATE OUTLIERS	
Intentions	
INT2	No cases
INT5	No cases

(MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS)

N O S T A L G I A				
O b s e r v a t i o n n u m b e r	M a h a l a n o b i s d - s q u a r e d	p 1	p 2	D 2 / d f
282	32,258	0	0,152	3,2258
185	30,865	0,001	0,033	3,0865
317	30,865	0,001	0,003	3,0865
318	30,865	0,001	0	3,0865
393	29,202	0,001	0	2,9202
96	26,611	0,003	0,003	2,6611
187	24,46	0,006	0,031	2,446
279	23,632	0,009	0,047	2,3632
440	23,632	0,009	0,019	2,3632
40	23,165	0,01	0,02	2,3165
8	23,005	0,011	0,011	2,3005
441	23,005	0,011	0,004	2,3005
201	22,903	0,011	0,002	2,2903
408	22,903	0,011	0,001	2,2903
119	22,892	0,011	0	2,2892
354	22,869	0,011	0	2,2869
221	22,424	0,013	0	2,2424
316	22,082	0,015	0	2,2082
84	21,123	0,02	0,003	2,1123
335	20,729	0,023	0,005	2,0729
147	20,646	0,024	0,003	2,0646
78	19,879	0,03	0,025	1,9879
186	19,732	0,032	0,022	1,9732
136	19,483	0,035	0,029	1,9483
138	19,105	0,039	0,057	1,9105
302	18,763	0,043	0,098	1,8763
386	18,465	0,048	0,147	1,8465
276	18,294	0,05	0,161	1,8294
387	18,207	0,052	0,146	1,8207
42	18,134	0,053	0,128	1,8134
93	18,133	0,053	0,092	1,8133
452	17,907	0,057	0,125	1,7907
25	16,842	0,078	0,696	1,6842
264	16,793	0,079	0,664	1,6793
104	16,699	0,081	0,663	1,6699
6	16,556	0,085	0,697	1,6556
442	16,556	0,085	0,634	1,6556
305	16,51	0,086	0,603	1,651
22	16,49	0,086	0,552	1,649
307	16,49	0,086	0,485	1,649
444	16,49	0,086	0,42	1,649
218	16,474	0,087	0,368	1,6474
219	16,474	0,087	0,309	1,6474
266	16,443	0,088	0,274	1,6443
10	16,435	0,088	0,228	1,6435
103	16,435	0,088	0,182	1,6435
15	16,403	0,089	0,159	1,6403
191	16,403	0,089	0,124	1,6403
11	16,316	0,091	0,127	1,6316
269	16,255	0,093	0,121	1,6255
270	16,255	0,093	0,093	1,6255
132	16,244	0,093	0,073	1,6244
315	16,236	0,093	0,056	1,6236
359	16,09	0,097	0,075	1,609
438	16,057	0,098	0,064	1,6057
283	15,683	0,109	0,192	1,5683

M E D I A T I O N M O D E L				
O b s e r v a t i o n n u m b e r	M a h a l a n o b i s d - s q u a r e d	p 1	p 2	D 2 / d f
39	78,883	0	0	3,286792
201	67,802	0	0	2,825083
78	60,214	0	0	2,508917
227	57,026	0	0	2,376083
354	56,134	0	0	2,338917
319	55,755	0	0	2,323125
27	54,558	0	0	2,27325
157	54,043	0	0	2,251792
3	53,949	0	0	2,247875
5	53,639	0	0	2,234958
427	53,421	0,001	0	2,225875
211	53,183	0,001	0	2,215958
11	52,764	0,001	0	2,1985
98	50,985	0,001	0	2,124375
63	50,928	0,001	0	2,122
1	50,111	0,001	0	2,087958
48	49,817	0,001	0	2,075708
68	49,065	0,002	0	2,044375
30	49,049	0,002	0	2,043708
187	48,904	0,002	0	2,037667
8	48,282	0,002	0	2,01175
89	47,674	0,003	0	1,986417
333	47,673	0,003	0	1,986375
101	47,383	0,003	0	1,974292
393	47,255	0,003	0	1,968958
126	46,052	0,004	0	1,918833
164	45,946	0,004	0	1,914417
139	45,758	0,005	0	1,906583
172	45,7	0,005	0	1,904167
186	45,668	0,005	0	1,902833
358	45,277	0,005	0	1,886542
167	44,029	0,008	0	1,834542
234	43,361	0,009	0	1,806708
87	43,24	0,009	0	1,801667
275	42,282	0,012	0	1,76175
113	42,14	0,012	0	1,755833
313	41,213	0,016	0	1,717208
441	41,213	0,016	0	1,717208
42	40,818	0,017	0	1,70075
165	40,196	0,02	0	1,674833
73	39,791	0,023	0	1,657958
115	39,673	0,023	0	1,653042
45	39,423	0,025	0	1,642625
400	39,281	0,026	0	1,636708
221	39,256	0,026	0	1,635667
25	39,043	0,027	0	1,626792
60	38,957	0,028	0	1,623208
96	38,904	0,028	0	1,621
314	38,811	0,029	0	1,617125
120	38,746	0,029	0	1,614417
202	38,703	0,029	0	1,612625
233	38,478	0,031	0	1,60325
363	38,297	0,032	0	1,595708
318	38,039	0,034	0	1,584958
18	37,989	0,035	0	1,582875
302	37,76	0,037	0	1,573333

Assessment of normality (Mediation model)

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
INT5	1,0000	5,0000	-,6966	-6,0727	-,2455	-1,0703
CONST1	1,0000	5,0000	-,2366	-2,0630	-1,0443	-4,5520
CONST2	1,0000	5,0000	-,2215	-1,9306	-1,1814	-5,1495
CONST7	1,0000	5,0000	1,9825	17,2830	3,9771	17,3356
CONST9	1,0000	5,0000	1,7937	15,6372	2,8239	12,3089
CONST10	1,0000	5,0000	2,0512	17,8819	4,1877	18,2536
CONST12	1,0000	5,0000	,7066	6,1601	-,7781	-3,3916
CONST13	1,0000	5,0000	,8144	7,0998	-,7350	-3,2036
NOST6	1,0000	5,0000	,5467	4,7660	-,7832	-3,4140
NOST9	1,0000	5,0000	,2107	1,8366	-,9722	-4,2376
NOST15	1,0000	5,0000	,3052	2,6606	-,8682	-3,7845
NOST13	1,0000	5,0000	-,0038	-,0330	-,9164	-3,9946
NOST8	1,0000	5,0000	,4668	4,0693	-,8355	-3,6417
NOST7	1,0000	5,0000	,5356	4,6693	-1,1371	-4,9564
NOST10	1,0000	5,0000	,4395	3,8316	-1,1501	-5,0131
NOST11	1,0000	5,0000	,5409	4,7154	-,8128	-3,5428
NOST2	1,0000	5,0000	-,5033	-4,3880	-,7462	-3,2525
NOST3	1,0000	5,0000	-,0486	-,4239	-1,1138	-4,8551
Multivariate					55,7339	22,1772

M O D E L O F D E T E R M I N A N T S				
O b s e r v a t i o n n u m b e r	M a h a l a n o b i s d - s q u a r e d	p 1	p 2	D 2 / d f
78	57,629	0	0,002	3,201611
201	51,99	0	0	2,888333
427	49,847	0	0	2,769278
3	49,841	0	0	2,768944
354	48,797	0	0	2,710944
319	47,005	0	0	2,611389
211	46,837	0	0	2,602056
5	46,718	0	0	2,595444
98	45,988	0	0	2,554889
68	44,762	0	0	2,486778
11	44,383	0,001	0	2,465722
187	44,37	0,001	0	2,465
101	43,593	0,001	0	2,421833
172	43,518	0,001	0	2,417667
89	42,673	0,001	0	2,370722
157	42,172	0,001	0	2,342889
48	41,279	0,001	0	2,293278
63	41,178	0,001	0	2,287667
139	40,695	0,002	0	2,260833
39	40,334	0,002	0	2,240778
1	38,666	0,003	0	2,148111
313	38,486	0,003	0	2,138111
165	37,212	0,005	0	2,067333
358	37,022	0,005	0	2,056778
234	36,201	0,007	0	2,011167
282	36,123	0,007	0	2,006833
221	36,095	0,007	0	2,005278
318	35,436	0,008	0	1,968667
8	35,176	0,009	0	1,954222
393	34,988	0,009	0	1,943778
185	34,915	0,01	0	1,939722
73	34,909	0,01	0	1,939389
233	34,714	0,01	0	1,928556
317	34,294	0,012	0	1,905222
314	34,234	0,012	0	1,901889
45	34,076	0,012	0	1,893111
25	33,821	0,013	0	1,878944
275	33,148	0,016	0	1,841556
18	32,759	0,018	0	1,819944
302	32,579	0,019	0	1,809944
363	32,515	0,019	0	1,806389
309	32,509	0,019	0	1,806056
166	32,289	0,02	0	1,793833
96	32,188	0,021	0	1,788222
441	31,981	0,022	0	1,776722
436	31,817	0,023	0	1,767611
186	31,074	0,028	0	1,726333
295	31,061	0,028	0	1,725611
301	30,932	0,029	0	1,718444
241	30,829	0,03	0	1,712722
147	30,824	0,03	0	1,712444
119	30,794	0,03	0	1,710778
202	29,93	0,038	0	1,662778
316	29,859	0,039	0	1,658833
167	29,805	0,039	0	1,655833
367	29,573	0,042	0	1,642944

Assessment of normality (model of determinants)

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
EXP4R	1,0000	7,0000	-,3022	-2,6344	,0023	,0101
EXP2R	1,0000	7,0000	-,3764	-3,2817	,1226	,5346
EXP1R	1,0000	7,0000	-,2446	-2,1319	-,1812	-,7896
FAMR2	1,0000	5,0000	-,3069	-2,6753	,0638	,2780
NEG5	1,0000	5,0000	-,7510	-6,5468	,1737	,7570
NEG4	1,0000	5,0000	-,4489	-3,9131	-,7653	-3,3360
INT5	1,0000	5,0000	-,6966	-6,0727	-,2455	-1,0703
CONST1	1,0000	5,0000	-,2366	-2,0630	-1,0443	-4,5520
CONST2	1,0000	5,0000	-,2215	-1,9306	-1,1814	-5,1495
CONST7	1,0000	5,0000	1,9825	17,2830	3,9771	17,3356
CONST9	1,0000	5,0000	1,7937	15,6372	2,8239	12,3089
CONST10	1,0000	5,0000	2,0512	17,8819	4,1877	18,2536
CONST12	1,0000	5,0000	,7066	6,1601	-,7781	-3,3916
CONST13	1,0000	5,0000	,8144	7,0998	-,7350	-3,2036
NOST6	1,0000	5,0000	,5467	4,7660	-,7832	-3,4140
NOST9	1,0000	5,0000	,2107	1,8366	-,9722	-4,2376
NOST15	1,0000	5,0000	,3052	2,6606	-,8682	-3,7845
NOST13	1,0000	5,0000	-,0038	-,0330	-,9164	-3,9946
NOST8	1,0000	5,0000	,4668	4,0693	-,8355	-3,6417
NOST7	1,0000	5,0000	,5356	4,6693	-1,1371	-4,9564
NOST10	1,0000	5,0000	,4395	3,8316	-1,1501	-5,0131
NOST11	1,0000	5,0000	,5409	4,7154	-,8128	-3,5428
NOST2	1,0000	5,0000	-,5033	-4,3880	-,7462	-3,2525
NOST3	1,0000	5,0000	-,0486	-,4239	-1,1138	-4,8551
Multivariate					84,9974	25,6892

OUTPUT FROM THE NOSTOUR ANALYSIS

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	19	132,593	36	,000	3,683
Saturated model	55	,000	0		
Independence model	10	1558,070	45	,000	34,624

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	,118	,945	,916	,619
Saturated model	,000	1,000		
Independence model	,540	,464	,345	,380

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	,915	,894	,937	,920	,936
Saturated model	1,000		1,000		1,000
Independence model	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	,800	,732	,749
Saturated model	,000	,000	,000
Independence model	1,000	,000	,000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	96,593	65,099	135,671
Saturated model	,000	,000	,000
Independence model	1513,070	1387,803	1645,713

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	,291	,212	,143	,298
Saturated model	,000	,000	,000	,000
Independence model	3,424	3,325	3,050	3,617

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	,077	,063	,091	,001
Independence model	,272	,260	,284	,000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	170,593	171,535	248,921	267,921
Saturated model	110,000	112,725	336,737	391,737
Independence model	1578,070	1578,566	1619,295	1629,295

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	,375	,306	,461	,377
Saturated model	,242	,242	,242	,248
Independence model	3,468	3,193	3,760	3,469

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER	HOELTER
Default model	.05	.01
Independence model	19	21

Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model); Scalar Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model); Maximum Likelihood

Estimates**Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)**

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Cultural <--- Nostalgia	1,093	,074	14,798	***	W4
Interpersonal <--- Nostalgia	,872	,042	20,964	***	W5
Individual <--- Nostalgia	,634	,073	8,686	***	W6
Virtual <--- Nostalgia	1,000				
NOST3 <--- Individual	1,000				
NOST2 <--- Individual	,899	,082	11,008	***	W3
NOST11 <--- Interpersonal	,770	,049	15,625	***	W9
NOST10 <--- Interpersonal	1,000				
NOST7 <--- Interpersonal	,872	,042	20,964	***	W5
NOST8 <--- Cultural	1,000				
NOST13 <--- Virtual	,851	,056	15,110	***	W15
NOST15 <--- Virtual	,863	,057	15,085	***	W1
NOST9 <--- Virtual	1,000				
NOST6 <--- Virtual	,813	,060	13,492	***	W12

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
Cultural <--- Nostalgia	,739
Interpersonal <--- Nostalgia	,673
Individual <--- Nostalgia	,570
Virtual <--- Nostalgia	,857
NOST3 <--- Individual	,757
NOST2 <--- Individual	,708
NOST11 <--- Interpersonal	,707
NOST10 <--- Interpersonal	,840
NOST7 <--- Interpersonal	,682
NOST8 <--- Cultural	1,000
NOST13 <--- Virtual	,702
NOST15 <--- Virtual	,701
NOST9 <--- Virtual	,788
NOST6 <--- Virtual	,637

Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Nostalgia	,773	,056	13,802	***	V7
e16	,643	,097	6,642	***	V3
e17	,712	,071	9,981	***	V4
e18	,766	,061	12,591	***	V5
e19	,279	,065	4,319	***	V6
e3	,712	,071	9,981	***	V4
e2	,766	,061	12,591	***	V5
e11	,773	,056	13,802	***	V7
e10	,542	,069	7,826	***	V8
e7	1,139	,092	12,392	***	V9
e8	,000				
e13	,781	,064	12,214	***	V17
e15	,809	,066	12,230	***	V18
e9	,640	,062	10,313	***	V19
e6	1,021	,078	13,089	***	V20

Squared Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
Virtual	,735
Cultural	,546
Interpersonal	,452
Individual	,325
NOST6	,405
NOST9	,622
NOST15	,492
NOST13	,493
NOST8	1,000
NOST7	,465
NOST10	,706
NOST11	,500
NOST2	,501
NOST3	,572

OUTPUT OF THE T-TESTS

Group Statistics

Destination visited on the last trip to Europe		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Virtual	Portugal	234	2,8308	,93361	,06103
	Italy	222	2,5286	,85182	,05717
Cultural	Portugal	234	2,6026	1,34585	,08798
	Italy	222	2,4865	1,19095	,07993
Interpersonal	Portugal	234	2,6854	1,07225	,07010
	Italy	222	2,3280	,98527	,06613
Individual	Portugal	234	2,7441	,84030	,05493
	Italy	222	2,5937	,80763	,05420
Nostalgia	Portugal	234	2,4418	,79304	,05184
	Italy	222	2,2161	,70468	,04729

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence	
									Lower	Upper
Virtual	Equal variances assumed	,427	,514	3,605	454	,000	,30221	,08383	,13747	,46695
	Equal variances not assumed			3,614	453,316	,000	,30221	,08363	,13786	,46655
Cultural	Equal variances assumed	6,034	,014	,973	454	,331	,11608	,11925	-,11827	,35043
	Equal variances not assumed			,977	451,833	,329	,11608	,11887	-,11753	,34968
Interpersonal	Equal variances assumed	,715	,398	3,701	454	,000	,35742	,09658	,16762	,54722
	Equal variances not assumed			3,709	453,542	,000	,35742	,09636	,16804	,54680
Individual	Equal variances assumed	1,126	,289	1,947	454	,052	,15038	,07725	-,00144	,30220
	Equal variances not assumed			1,949	453,922	,052	,15038	,07717	-,00128	,30204
Nostalgia	Equal variances assumed	2,329	,128	3,206	454	,001	,22567	,07039	,08733	,36400
	Equal variances not assumed			3,216	452,082	,001	,22567	,07017	,08776	,36358

Group Statistics

European Roots		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Virtual	Yes	309	2,7273	,96235	,05475
	No	147	2,5920	,77097	,06359
Cultural	Yes	309	2,5081	1,30587	,07429
	No	147	2,6259	1,20052	,09902
Interpersonal	Yes	309	2,5708	1,09165	,06210
	No	147	2,3865	,93102	,07679
Individual	Yes	309	2,6720	,88956	,05061
	No	147	2,6685	,68006	,05609
Nostalgia	Yes	309	2,3536	,81792	,04653
	No	147	2,2864	,61700	,05089

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence	
									Lower	Upper
Virtual	Equal variances assumed	10,254	,001	1,492	454	,137	,13529	,09070	-,04296	,31353
	Equal variances not assumed			1,612	351,187	,108	,13529	,08391	-,02974	,30031
Cultural	Equal variances assumed	2,537	,112	-,923	454	,356	-,11776	,12754	-,36841	,13289
	Equal variances not assumed			-,951	310,054	,342	-,11776	,12379	-,36133	,12581
Interpersonal	Equal variances assumed	10,530	,001	1,764	454	,078	,18428	,10447	-,02103	,38959
	Equal variances not assumed			1,866	332,096	,063	,18428	,09876	-,00999	,37855
Individual	Equal variances assumed	18,215	,000	,043	454	,966	,00353	,08296	-,15950	,16656
	Equal variances not assumed			,047	365,597	,963	,00353	,07554	-,14503	,15209
Nostalgia	Equal variances assumed	17,327	,000	,883	454	,378	,06716	,07606	-,08231	,21664
	Equal variances not assumed			,974	369,682	,331	,06716	,06895	-,06843	,20276

Group Statistics

Age grouped		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Virtual	1,00	341	2,6383	,88827	,04810
	2,00	102	2,8415	,97467	,09651
Cultural	1,00	341	2,5543	1,29507	,07013
	2,00	102	2,5490	1,25570	,12433
Interpersonal	1,00	341	2,4596	1,02240	,05537
	2,00	102	2,7157	1,10793	,10970
Individual	1,00	341	2,6616	,81783	,04429
	2,00	102	2,6964	,88108	,08724
Nostalgia	1,00	341	2,3044	,74309	,04024
	2,00	102	2,4359	,82448	,08164

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence	
									Lower	Upper
Virtual	Equal variances assumed	1,172	,279	-1,982	441	,048	-,20327	,10256	-,40484	-,00170
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,885	154,584	,061	-,20327	,10783	-,41628	,00975
Cultural	Equal variances assumed	,695	,405	,036	441	,971	,00523	,14515	-,28004	,29051
	Equal variances not assumed			,037	170,371	,971	,00523	,14275	-,27655	,28702
Interpersonal	Equal variances assumed	,844	,359	-2,177	441	,030	-,25613	,11766	-,48738	-,02488
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,084	156,000	,039	-,25613	,12288	-,49886	-,01340
Individual	Equal variances assumed	1,842	,175	-,370	441	,712	-,03474	,09398	-,21945	,14996
	Equal variances not assumed			-,355	156,676	,723	-,03474	,09784	-,22799	,15851
Nostalgia	Equal variances assumed	1,160	,282	-1,528	441	,127	-,13149	,08605	-,30061	,03764
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,445	153,355	,151	-,13149	,09101	-,31129	,04832

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Virtual	Male	209	2,6917	,83152	,05752
	Female	245	2,6733	,97002	,06197
Cultural	Male	209	2,5789	1,32460	,09162
	Female	245	2,5143	1,23341	,07880
Interpersonal	Male	209	2,5029	1,01015	,06987
	Female	245	2,5190	1,07950	,06897
Individual	Male	209	2,6664	,80689	,05581
	Female	245	2,6685	,84494	,05398
Nostalgia	Male	209	2,3394	,72270	,04999
	Female	245	2,3226	,79211	,05061

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Virtual	Equal variances assumed	8,011	,005	,215	452	,830	,01844	,08558	-,14975	,18663
	Equal variances not assumed			,218	451,988	,827	,01844	,08455	-,14772	,18460
Cultural	Equal variances assumed	2,524	,113	,538	452	,591	,06466	,12017	-,17149	,30082
	Equal variances not assumed			,535	429,285	,593	,06466	,12085	-,17287	,30219
Interpersonal	Equal variances assumed	1,635	,202	-,163	452	,870	-,01612	,09870	-,21008	,17784
	Equal variances not assumed			-,164	448,124	,870	-,01612	,09818	-,20907	,17682
Individual	Equal variances assumed	1,097	,296	-,028	452	,978	-,00215	,07793	-,15530	,15101
	Equal variances not assumed			-,028	446,263	,978	-,00215	,07765	-,15475	,15046
Nostalgia	Equal variances assumed	3,576	,059	,234	452	,815	,01679	,07165	-,12403	,15760
	Equal variances not assumed			,236	449,943	,814	,01679	,07113	-,12301	,15658

Group Statistics

I'm very satisfied with these holidays		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Nostalgia	>= 3	404	2,3655	,74369	,03700
	< 3	52	2,0709	,83068	,11519
Virtual	>= 3	404	2,7205	,88805	,04418
	< 3	52	2,3976	1,00219	,13898
Cultural	>= 3	404	2,5990	1,27686	,06353
	< 3	52	2,1346	1,17204	,16253
Interpersonal	>= 3	404	2,5306	1,03241	,05136
	< 3	52	2,3619	1,13866	,15790
Individual	>= 3	404	2,7135	,80407	,04000
	< 3	52	2,3395	,93149	,12917

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Nostalgia	Equal variances assumed	,778	,378	2,652	454	,008	,29458	,11108	,07628	,51288
	Equal variances not assumed			2,435	61,982	,018	,29458	,12099	,05272	,53644
Virtual	Equal variances assumed	1,319	,251	2,431	454	,015	,32289	,13283	,06185	,58393
	Equal variances not assumed			2,214	61,750	,031	,32289	,14583	,03135	,61443
Cultural	Equal variances assumed	7,749	,006	2,491	454	,013	,46439	,16645	,09799	,83080
	Equal variances not assumed			2,661	67,573	,010	,46439	,17451	,11613	,81266
Interpersonal	Equal variances assumed	1,059	,304	1,096	454	,274	,16868	,15394	-,13385	,47121
	Equal variances not assumed			1,016	62,276	,314	,16868	,16605	-,16321	,50958
Individual	Equal variances assumed	3,008	,084	3,098	454	,002	,37402	,12072	,13678	,61126
	Equal variances not assumed			2,766	61,180	,007	,37402	,13523	,10363	,64441

Group Statistics

Search roots		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Nostalgia	No	234	2,2677	,76822	,05022
	Yes	117	2,5469	,79984	,07395
Virtual	No	234	2,6422	,89686	,05863
	Yes	117	2,8735	1,01848	,09416
Cultural	No	234	2,5128	1,31427	,08592
	Yes	117	2,7863	1,23755	,11441
Interpersonal	No	234	2,2802	1,04634	,06840
	Yes	117	2,9518	1,07916	,09977
Individual	No	234	2,6276	,80762	,05280
	Yes	117	2,8588	,84689	,07830

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Nostalgia	Equal variances assumed	,531	,467	-3,165	349	,002	-,27915	,08819	-,45261	-,10570
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,123	223,967	,002	-,27915	,06939	-,45530	-,10301
Virtual	Equal variances assumed	4,020	,046	-2,175	349	,030	-,23127	,10833	-,44039	-,02215
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,085	207,834	,038	-,23127	,11092	-,44994	-,01260
Cultural	Equal variances assumed	,328	,567	-1,874	349	,062	-,27350	,14598	-,56062	,01361
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,912	244,938	,057	-,27350	,14308	-,55533	,00832
Interpersonal	Equal variances assumed	,133	,715	-5,610	349	,000	-,67161	,11972	-,90708	-,43614
	Equal variances not assumed			-5,552	225,840	,000	-,67161	,12096	-,90997	-,43324
Individual	Equal variances assumed	1,218	,271	-2,488	349	,013	-,23121	,09295	-,41402	-,04841
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,448	222,565	,015	-,23121	,09443	-,41731	-,04512

OUTPUT OF THE MEDIATION MODEL

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	41	361,556	130	,000	2,781
Saturated model	171	,000	0		
Independence model	18	3281,672	153	,000	21,449

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	,101	,919	,894	,699
Saturated model	,000	1,000		
Independence model	,380	,467	,404	,418

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	,890	,870	,927	,913	,926
Saturated model	1,000		1,000		1,000
Independence model	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	,850	,756	,787
Saturated model	,000	,000	,000
Independence model	1,000	,000	,000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	231,556	178,687	292,077
Saturated model	,000	,000	,000
Independence model	3128,672	2946,018	3318,642

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	,795	,509	,393	,642
Saturated model	,000	,000	,000	,000
Independence model	7,212	6,876	6,475	7,294

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	,063	,055	,070	,004
Independence model	,212	,206	,218	,000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	443,556	447,129	612,578	653,578
Saturated model	342,000	356,904	1046,946	1217,946
Independence model	3317,672	3319,241	3391,877	3409,877

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	,975	,859	1,108	,983
Saturated model	,752	,752	,752	,784
Independence model	7,292	6,890	7,709	7,295

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	199	215
Independence model	26	28

Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model): Scalar Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model): Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Nostalgia <--- constraints	,458	,178	2,576	,010	par_26
Cultural <--- Nostalgia	1,133	,093	12,129	***	W4
Interpersonal <--- Nostalgia	,887	,047	19,044	***	W5
Individual <--- Nostalgia	,651	,082	7,923	***	W6
Virtual <--- Nostalgia	1,000				
Inter <--- constraints	2,836	,618	4,588	***	par_24
Intrapersonal <--- constraints	1,760	,384	4,581	***	par_25
Structural <--- constraints	1,000				
Intentions <--- constraints	-1,074	,286	-3,760	***	par_27
Intentions <--- Nostalgia	,143	,077	1,858	,063	par_28
NOST3 <--- Individual	1,000				
NOST2 <--- Individual	,897	,083	10,801	***	W3
NOST11 <--- Interpersonal	,766	,051	14,889	***	W9
NOST10 <--- Interpersonal	1,000				
NOST7 <--- Interpersonal	,887	,047	19,044	***	W5
NOST8 <--- Cultural	1,000				
NOST13 <--- Virtual	,873	,062	14,038	***	W15
NOST15 <--- Virtual	,887	,063	14,037	***	W1
NOST9 <--- Virtual	1,000				
NOST6 <--- Virtual	,833	,066	12,639	***	W12
CONST13 <--- Inter	1,000				
CONST12 <--- Inter	,810	,053	15,146	***	par_20
CONST10 <--- Intrapersonal	1,000				
CONST9 <--- Intrapersonal	1,095	,057	19,303	***	par_21
CONST7 <--- Intrapersonal	,728	,051	14,355	***	par_22
CONST2 <--- Structural	1,025	,166	6,179	***	par_23
CONST1 <--- Structural	1,000				
INT5 <--- Intentions	1,000				

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

		Estimate
Nostalgia	<--- constraints	,192
Cultural	<--- Nostalgia	,732
Interpersonal	<--- Nostalgia	,658
Individual	<--- Nostalgia	,557
Virtual	<--- Nostalgia	,848
Inter	<--- constraints	,763
Intrapersonal	<--- constraints	,773
Structural	<--- constraints	,319
Intentions	<--- constraints	-,315
Intentions	<--- Nostalgia	,100
NOST3	<--- Individual	,755
NOST2	<--- Individual	,705
NOST11	<--- Interpersonal	,689
NOST10	<--- Interpersonal	,836
NOST7	<--- Interpersonal	,682
NOST8	<--- Cultural	1,000
NOST13	<--- Virtual	,697
NOST15	<--- Virtual	,697
NOST9	<--- Virtual	,773
NOST6	<--- Virtual	,629
CONST13	<--- Inter	,949
CONST12	<--- Inter	,804
CONST10	<--- Intrapersonal	,881
CONST9	<--- Intrapersonal	,850
CONST7	<--- Intrapersonal	,640
CONST2	<--- Structural	,825
CONST1	<--- Structural	,850
INT5	<--- Intentions	1,000

Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e37	,121	,049	2,475	,013	par_29
e36	,666	,087	7,615	***	par_30
e16	,651	,098	6,629	***	V3
e17	,711	,072	9,868	***	V4
e18	,767	,062	12,430	***	V5
e19	,271	,063	4,336	***	V6
e32	,699	,164	4,262	***	par_31
e33	,252	,059	4,311	***	par_32
e34	1,065	,196	5,432	***	par_33
e35	1,269	,088	14,341	***	par_34
e3	,711	,072	9,868	***	V4
e2	,767	,062	12,430	***	V5
e11	,816	,069	11,798	***	V7
e10	,539	,070	7,746	***	V8
e7	1,133	,093	12,180	***	V9
e8	,000				
e13	,776	,064	12,117	***	V17
e15	,801	,066	12,118	***	V18
e9	,649	,062	10,444	***	V19
e6	1,020	,078	13,047	***	V20
c5	,000				
i13	,184	,093	1,971	,049	par_35
i12	,598	,072	8,258	***	par_36
i10	,180	,027	6,781	***	par_37
i9	,290	,034	8,404	***	par_38
i7	,477	,035	13,582	***	par_39
i2	,586	,200	2,935	,003	par_40
i1	,454	,189	2,403	,016	par_41

Squared Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
constraints	,000
Nostalgia	,037
Intentions	,097
Structural	,102
Intrapersonal	,597
Inter	,582
Virtual	,718
Cultural	,536
Interpersonal	,433
Individual	,310
INT5	1,000
CONST1	,723
CONST2	,680
CONST7	,410
CONST9	,722
CONST10	,777
CONST12	,647
CONST13	,901
NOST6	,396
NOST9	,597
NOST15	,486
NOST13	,486
NOST8	1,000
NOST7	,466
NOST10	,700
NOST11	,474
NOST2	,497
NOST3	,570

Matrices (Group number 1 - Default model)

Total Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	Nostalgia	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Nostalgia	,458	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intentions	-1,008	,143	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Structural	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intrapersonal	1,760	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Inter	2,836	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Virtual	,458	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Cultural	,519	1,133	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Interpersonal	,406	,887	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Individual	,298	,651	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
INT5	-1,008	,143	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST1	1,000	,000	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST2	1,025	,000	1,025	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST7	1,281	,000	,000	,728	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST9	1,927	,000	,000	1,095	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST10	1,760	,000	,000	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST12	2,298	,000	,000	,000	,810	,000	,000	,000
CONST13	2,836	,000	,000	,000	1,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST6	,382	,833	,000	,000	,000	,833	,000	,000
NOST9	,458	1,000	,000	,000	,000	1,000	,000	,000
NOST15	,406	,887	,000	,000	,000	,887	,000	,000
NOST13	,400	,873	,000	,000	,000	,873	,000	,000
NOST8	,519	1,133	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST7	,360	,787	,000	,000	,000	,000	,887	,000
NOST10	,406	,887	,000	,000	,000	,000	1,000	,000
NOST11	,311	,680	,000	,000	,000	,000	,766	,000
NOST2	,267	,584	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,897
NOST3	,298	,651	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	1,000

Standardized Total Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	Nostalgia	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Nostalgia	,192	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intentions	-,296	,100	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Structural	,319	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intrapersonal	,773	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Inter	,763	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Virtual	,162	,848	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Cultural	,140	,732	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Interpersonal	,126	,658	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Individual	,107	,557	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
INT5	-,296	,100	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST1	,271	,000	,850	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST2	,263	,000	,825	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST7	,495	,000	,000	,640	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST9	,657	,000	,000	,850	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST10	,681	,000	,000	,881	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST12	,614	,000	,000	,000	,804	,000	,000	,000
CONST13	,724	,000	,000	,000	,949	,000	,000	,000
NOST6	,102	,533	,000	,000	,000	,629	,000	,000
NOST9	,125	,655	,000	,000	,000	,773	,000	,000
NOST15	,113	,591	,000	,000	,000	,697	,000	,000
NOST13	,113	,591	,000	,000	,000	,697	,000	,000
NOST8	,140	,732	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST7	,086	,449	,000	,000	,000	,000	,682	,000
NOST10	,105	,550	,000	,000	,000	,000	,836	,000
NOST11	,087	,453	,000	,000	,000	,000	,689	,000
NOST2	,075	,393	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,705
NOST3	,081	,421	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,755

Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	Nostalgia	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Nostalgia	,458	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intentions	-1,074	,143	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Structural	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intrapersonal	1,760	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Inter	2,836	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Virtual	,000	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Cultural	,000	1,133	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Interpersonal	,000	,887	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Individual	,000	,651	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
INT5	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST1	,000	,000	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST2	,000	,000	1,025	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST7	,000	,000	,000	,728	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST9	,000	,000	,000	1,095	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST10	,000	,000	,000	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST12	,000	,000	,000	,000	,810	,000	,000	,000
CONST13	,000	,000	,000	,000	1,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST6	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,833	,000	,000
NOST9	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	1,000	,000	,000
NOST15	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,887	,000	,000
NOST13	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,873	,000	,000
NOST8	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST7	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,887	,000
NOST10	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	1,000	,000
NOST11	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,766	,000
NOST2	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,897
NOST3	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	1,000

Standardized Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	Nostalgia	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Nostalgia	,192	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intentions	-,315	,100	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Structural	,319	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intrapersonal	,773	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Inter	,763	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Virtual	,000	,848	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Cultural	,000	,732	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Interpersonal	,000	,658	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Individual	,000	,557	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
INT5	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST1	,000	,000	,850	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST2	,000	,000	,825	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST7	,000	,000	,000	,640	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST9	,000	,000	,000	,850	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST10	,000	,000	,000	,881	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST12	,000	,000	,000	,000	,804	,000	,000	,000
CONST13	,000	,000	,000	,000	,949	,000	,000	,000
NOST6	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,629	,000	,000
NOST9	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,773	,000	,000
NOST15	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,697	,000	,000
NOST13	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,697	,000	,000
NOST8	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST7	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,682	,000
NOST10	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,836	,000
NOST11	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,689	,000
NOST2	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,705
NOST3	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,755

Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	Nostalgia	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Nostalgia	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intentions	,066	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Structural	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intrapersonal	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Inter	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Virtual	,458	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Cultural	,519	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Interpersonal	,406	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Individual	,298	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
INT5	-1,008	,143	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST1	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST2	1,025	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST7	1,281	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST9	1,927	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST10	1,760	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST12	2,298	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST13	2,836	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST6	,382	,833	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST9	,458	1,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST15	,406	,887	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST13	,400	,873	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST8	,519	1,133	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST7	,360	,787	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST10	,406	,887	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST11	,311	,680	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST2	,267	,584	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST3	,298	,651	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000

Standardized Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	Nostalgia	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Nostalgia		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intentions		,019	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Structural		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Intrapersonal		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Inter		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Virtual		,162	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Cultural		,140	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Interpersonal		,126	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
Individual		,107	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
INT5		-.296	,100	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST1		,271	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST2	,263	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST7	,495	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST9	,657	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST10	,681	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST12	,614	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
CONST13	,724	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST6	,102	,533	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST9	,125	,655	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST15	,113	,591	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST13	,113	,591	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST8	,140	,732	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST7	,086	,449	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST10	,105	,550	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST11	,087	,453	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST2	,075	,393	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
NOST3	,081	,421	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000

OUTPUT OF THE DETERMINATS MODEL

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	40	1038,9191	260	,0000	3,9958
Saturated model	300	,0000	0		
Independence model	24	4556,4080	276	,0000	16,5087

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	,1442	,8395	,8148	,7276
Saturated model	,0000	1,0000		
Independence model	,3297	,4755	,4299	,4375

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	,7720	,7580	,8187	,8068	,8180
Saturated model	1,0000		1,0000		1,0000
Independence model	,0000	,0000	,0000	,0000	,0000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	,9420	,7272	,7706
Saturated model	,0000	,0000	,0000
Independence model	1,0000	,0000	,0000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	778,9191	683,4781	881,9078
Saturated model	,0000	,0000	,0000
Independence model	4280,4080	4065,2797	4502,8031

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	2,2833	1,7119	1,5021	1,9383
Saturated model	,0000	,0000	,0000	,0000
Independence model	10,0141	9,4075	8,9347	9,8963

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	,0811	,0760	,0863	,0000
Independence model	,1846	,1799	,1894	,0000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	1118,9191	1123,5702	1283,8188	1323,8188
Saturated model	600,0000	634,8837	1836,7478	2136,7478
Independence model	4604,4080	4607,1987	4703,3478	4727,3478

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	2,4592	2,2494	2,6855	2,4694
Saturated model	1,3187	1,3187	1,3187	1,3953
Independence model	10,1196	9,6468	10,6084	10,1257

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	131	139
Independence model	32	34

**Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model), Scalar Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model),
Maximum Likelihood Estimates, Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)**

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P Label
Nostalgia	<--	constraints	0,727	0,1206	6,0282	*** W7
Negotiation	<--	constraints	0,0343	0,1621	0,2119	0,8322 W25
Cultural	<--	Nostalgia	1,3262	0,0629	21,0878	*** W4
Interpersonal	<--	Nostalgia	1,1054	0,0419	26,3755	*** W5
Individual	<--	Nostalgia	1,0743	0,0846	12,693	*** W6
Virtual	<--	Nostalgia	1			
Inter	<--	constraints	1,1054	0,0419	26,3755	*** W5
Intrapersonal	<--	constraints	1,0743	0,0846	12,693	*** W6
Structural	<--	constraints	1			
Intentions	<--	constraints	-1,5965	0,2488	-6,418	*** W8
Intentions	<--	Negotiation	0,3277	0,0721	4,5477	*** W14
Expertise	<--	ET	0,5571	0,3837	1,452	0,1465 W23
Intentions	<--	Nostalgia	0,8652	0,0604	14,323	*** W15
Fam	<--	ET	1			
Intentions	<--	ET	0,9813	0,0502	19,532	*** W2
NOST3	<--	Individual	1			
NOST2	<--	Individual	0,7852	0,0407	19,2981	*** W3
NOST11	<--	Interpersonal	0,894	0,0509	17,5695	*** W9
NOST10	<--	Interpersonal	1			
NOST7	<--	Interpersonal	1,1054	0,0419	26,3755	*** W5
NOST8	<--	Cultural	1			
NOST13	<--	Virtual	0,8652	0,0604	14,323	*** W15
NOST15	<--	Virtual	1,1774	0,0497	23,6742	*** W1
NOST9	<--	Virtual	1			
NOST6	<--	Virtual	0,8824	0,0474	18,6219	*** W12
CONST13	<--	Inter	1			
CONST12	<--	Inter	1,1774	0,0497	23,6742	*** W1
CONST10	<--	Intrapersonal	1			
CONST9	<--	Intrapersonal	0,9813	0,0502	19,532	*** W2
CONST7	<--	Intrapersonal	0,7852	0,0407	19,2981	*** W3
CONST2	<--	Structural	1,3262	0,0629	21,0878	*** W4
CONST1	<--	Structural	1			
NEG4	<--	Negotiation	1			
NEG5	<--	Negotiation	0,8824	0,0474	18,6219	*** W12
INT5	<--	Intentions	1			
FAMR2	<--	Fam	1			
EXP1R	<--	Expertise	1			
EXP2R	<--	Expertise	0,8362	0,0457	18,306	*** W18
EXP4R	<--	Expertise	0,8436	0,051	16,5456	*** W20

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - C

			Estimate
Nostalgia	<--	constraints	0,4888
Negotiation	<--	constraints	0,0162
Cultural	<--	Nostalgia	0,7006
Interpersonal	<--	Nostalgia	0,7049
Individual	<--	Nostalgia	0,7845
Virtual	<--	Nostalgia	0,7363
Inter	<--	constraints	0,4659
Intrapersonal	<--	constraints	0,4811
Structural	<--	constraints	0,463
Intentions	<--	constraints	-0,5584
Intentions	<--	Negotiation	0,2428
Expertise	<--	ET	0,1671
Intentions	<--	Nostalgia	0,4501
Fam	<--	ET	0,4041
Intentions	<--	ET	0,2982
NOST3	<--	Individual	0,7762
NOST2	<--	Individual	0,6229
NOST11	<--	Interpersonal	0,7253
NOST10	<--	Interpersonal	0,7432
NOST7	<--	Interpersonal	0,7965
NOST8	<--	Cultural	1
NOST13	<--	Virtual	0,6421
NOST15	<--	Virtual	0,8172
NOST9	<--	Virtual	0,7061
NOST6	<--	Virtual	0,5986
CONST13	<--	Inter	0,746
CONST12	<--	Inter	0,9714
CONST10	<--	Intrapersonal	0,8704
CONST9	<--	Intrapersonal	0,7981
CONST7	<--	Intrapersonal	0,6576
CONST2	<--	Structural	0,9025
CONST1	<--	Structural	0,7374
NEG4	<--	Negotiation	0,8263
NEG5	<--	Negotiation	0,7443
INT5	<--	Intentions	1
FAMR2	<--	Fam	1
EXP1R	<--	Expertise	0,9036
EXP2R	<--	Expertise	0,8174
EXP4R	<--	Expertise	0,7279

Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P Label
e37	0,185	0,0342	5,4107	*** V13
e36	0,3115	0,0395	7,8836	*** V12
e54	0,1396	0,0512	2,7244	0,0064 V30
e55	0,8301	0,0583	14,2297	*** V1
e16	0,2951	0,0357	8,2592	*** V3
e17	0,5062	0,0359	14,0815	*** V4
e18	0,7464	0,036	20,7265	*** V5
e19	0,3457	0,0435	7,9494	*** V6
e32	0,8154	0,0549	14,8623	*** V8
e33	0,7087	0,0523	13,5519	*** V9
e34	0,6781	0,0807	8,4026	*** V10
e35	0,8863	0,1082	8,188	*** V11
e52	0,7155	0,0691	10,3538	*** V28
e53	1,5078	0,1437	10,491	*** V29
e3	0,5062	0,0359	14,0815	*** V4
e2	0,7464	0,036	20,7265	*** V5
e11	0,7244	0,045	16,0806	*** V7
e10	0,8154	0,0549	14,8623	*** V8
e7	0,7087	0,0523	13,5519	*** V9
e8	0			
e13	0,8056	0,0624	12,9091	*** V17
e15	0,5205	0,0411	12,6586	*** V18
e9	0,7592	0,0619	12,2581	*** V19
e6	1,0525	0,078	13,488	*** V20
c5	0			
i13	0,8301	0,0583	14,2297	*** V1
i12	0,0862	0,075	1,15	0,2502 V2
i10	0,2951	0,0357	8,2592	*** V3
i9	0,5062	0,0359	14,0815	*** V4
i7	0,7464	0,036	20,7265	*** V5
i2	0,3457	0,0435	7,9494	*** V6
i1	0,7244	0,045	16,0806	*** V7
n4	0,3858	0,0605	6,3807	*** V14
e42	0,5205	0,0411	12,6586	*** V18
f2	0			
x1	0,3488	0,067	5,2066	*** V23
x2	0,5387	0,0567	9,5077	*** V24
x4	0,9798	0,0789	12,4148	*** V26

Squared Multiple Correlati

	Estimate
constraints	0
ET	0
Negotiation	0,0003
Nostalgia	0,2389
Expertise	0,0279
Fam	0,1633
Intentions	0,4139
Structural	0,2143
Intrapersonal	0,2315
Inter	0,217
Virtual	0,5421
Cultural	0,4909
Interpersonal	0,4969
Individual	0,6154
EXP4R	0,5298
EXP2R	0,6682
EXP1R	0,8164
FAMR2	1
NEG5	0,554
NEG4	0,6828
INT5	1
CONST1	0,5437
CONST2	0,8145
CONST7	0,4324
CONST9	0,6369
CONST10	0,7576
CONST12	0,9436
CONST13	0,5565
NOST6	0,3583
NOST9	0,4986
NOST15	0,6678
NOST13	0,4123
NOST8	1
NOST7	0,6344
NOST10	0,5524
NOST11	0,5261
NOST2	0,388
NOST3	0,6025

Total Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	ET	Negotiaton	Nostalgia	Expertise	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Negotiaton	0,0343	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nostalgia	0,727	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Expertise	0	0,5571	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fam	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intentions	-0,9563	0,9813	0,3277	0,8652	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Structural	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intrapersonal	1,0743	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Inter	1,1054	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Virtual	0,727	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cultural	0,9641	0	0	1,3262	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Interpersonal	0,8036	0	0	1,1054	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Individual	0,781	0	0	1,0743	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP4R	0	0,47	0	0	0,8436	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP2R	0	0,4659	0	0	0,8362	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP1R	0	0,5571	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
FAMR2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG5	0,0303	0	0,8824	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG4	0,0343	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
INT5	-0,9563	0,9813	0,3277	0,8652	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
CONST2	1,3262	0	0	0	0	1,3262	0	0	0	0	0
CONST7	0,8435	0	0	0	0	0	0,7852	0	0	0	0
CONST9	1,0541	0	0	0	0	0	0,9813	0	0	0	0
CONST10	1,0743	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CONST12	1,3015	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,1774	0	0	0
CONST13	1,1054	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
NOST6	0,6414	0	0	0,8824	0	0	0	0,8824	0	0	0
NOST9	0,727	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
NOST15	0,8559	0	0	1,1774	0	0	0	0	1,1774	0	0
NOST13	0,629	0	0	0,8652	0	0	0	0	0,8652	0	0
NOST8	0,9641	0	0	1,3262	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST7	0,8883	0	0	1,222	0	0	0	0	0	1,1054	0
NOST10	0,8036	0	0	1,1054	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
NOST11	0,7184	0	0	0,9882	0	0	0	0	0	0,894	0
NOST2	0,6132	0	0	0,8435	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7852
NOST3	0,781	0	0	1,0743	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Standardized Total Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	ET	Negotiaton	Nostalgia	Expertise	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Negotiaton	0,0162	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nostalgia	0,4888	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Expertise	0	0,1671	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fam	0	0,4041	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intentions	-0,3345	0,2982	0,2428	0,4501	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Structural	0,463	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intrapersonal	0,4811	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Inter	0,4659	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Virtual	0,3599	0	0	0,7363	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cultural	0,3425	0	0	0,7006	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Interpersonal	0,3446	0	0	0,7049	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Individual	0,3834	0	0	0,7845	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP4R	0	0,1217	0	0	0,7279	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP2R	0	0,1366	0	0	0,8174	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP1R	0	0,151	0	0	0,9036	0	0	0	0	0	0
FAMR2	0	0,4041	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG5	0,0121	0	0,7443	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG4	0,0134	0	0,8263	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
INT5	-0,3345	0,2982	0,2428	0,4501	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST1	0,3414	0	0	0	0	0,7374	0	0	0	0	0
CONST2	0,4178	0	0	0	0	0,9025	0	0	0	0	0
CONST7	0,3164	0	0	0	0	0	0,6576	0	0	0	0
CONST9	0,384	0	0	0	0	0	0,7981	0	0	0	0
CONST10	0,4188	0	0	0	0	0	0,8704	0	0	0	0
CONST12	0,4526	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,9714	0	0	0
CONST13	0,3475	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,746	0	0	0
NOST6	0,2154	0	0	0,4407	0	0	0	0	0,5986	0	0
NOST9	0,2541	0	0	0,5199	0	0	0	0	0,7061	0	0
NOST15	0,2941	0	0	0,6017	0	0	0	0	0,8172	0	0
NOST13	0,2311	0	0	0,4728	0	0	0	0	0,6421	0	0
NOST8	0,3425	0	0	0,7006	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST7	0,2744	0	0	0,5615	0	0	0	0	0	0,7965	0
NOST10	0,2561	0	0	0,5239	0	0	0	0	0	0,7432	0
NOST11	0,2499	0	0	0,5113	0	0	0	0	0	0,7253	0
NOST2	0,2388	0	0	0,4886	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,6229
NOST3	0,2976	0	0	0,6089	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7762

Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	ET	Negotiaton	Nostalgia	Expertise	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Negotiaton	0,0343	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nostalgia	0,727	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Expertise	0	0,5571	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fam	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intentions	-1,5965	0,9813	0,3277	0,8652	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Structural	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intrapersonal	1,0743	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Inter	1,1054	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Virtual	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cultural	0	0	0	1,3262	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Interpersonal	0	0	0	1,1054	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Individual	0	0	0	1,0743	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP4R	0	0	0	0	0,8436	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP2R	0	0	0	0	0,8362	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP1R	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
FAMR2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG5	0	0	0,8824	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
INT5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
CONST2	0	0	0	0	0	1,3262	0	0	0	0	0
CONST7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7852	0	0	0	0
CONST9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,9813	0	0	0	0
CONST10	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CONST12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,1774	0	0	0
CONST13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
NOST6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,8824	0	0	0
NOST9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
NOST15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,1774	0	0
NOST13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,8652	0	0
NOST8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,1054	0
NOST10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
NOST11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,894	0
NOST2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7852
NOST3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Standardized Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	ET	Negotiaton	Nostalgia	Expertise	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Negotiaton	0,0162	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nostalgia	0,4888	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Expertise	0	0,1671	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fam	0	0,4041	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intentions	-0,5584	0,2982	0,2428	0,4501	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Structural	0,463	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intrapersonal	0,4811	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Inter	0,4659	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Virtual	0	0	0	0,7363	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cultural	0	0	0	0,7006	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Interpersonal	0	0	0	0,7049	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Individual	0	0	0	0,7845	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP4R	0	0	0	0	0,7279	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP2R	0	0	0	0	0,8174	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP1R	0	0	0	0	0,9036	0	0	0	0	0	0
FAMR2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG5	0	0	0,7443	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG4	0	0	0,8263	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
INT5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST1	0	0	0	0	0	0,7374	0	0	0	0	0
CONST2	0	0	0	0	0	0,9025	0	0	0	0	0
CONST7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,6576	0	0	0	0
CONST9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7981	0	0	0	0
CONST10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,8704	0	0	0	0
CONST12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,9714	0	0	0
CONST13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,746	0	0	0
NOST6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,5986	0	0
NOST9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7061	0	0
NOST15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,8172	0	0
NOST13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,6421	0	0
NOST8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7965	0
NOST10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7432	0
NOST11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7253	0
NOST2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,6229
NOST3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,7762

Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	ET	Negotiaton	Nostalgia	Expertise	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Negotiaton	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nostalgia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Expertise	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fam	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intentions	0,6403	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Structural	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intrapersonal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Inter	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Virtual	0,727	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cultural	0,9641	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Interpersonal	0,8036	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Individual	0,781	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP4R	0	0,47	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP2R	0	0,4659	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP1R	0	0,5571	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FAMR2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG5	0,0303	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG4	0,0343	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
INT5	-0,9563	0,9813	0,3277	0,8652	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST2	1,3262	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST7	0,8435	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST9	1,0541	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST10	1,0743	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST12	1,3015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST13	1,1054	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST6	0,6414	0	0	0,8824	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST9	0,727	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST15	0,8559	0	0	1,1774	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST13	0,629	0	0	0,8652	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST8	0,9641	0	0	1,3262	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST7	0,8883	0	0	1,222	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST10	0,8036	0	0	1,1054	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST11	0,7184	0	0	0,9882	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST2	0,6132	0	0	0,8435	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST3	0,781	0	0	1,0743	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Standardized Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	constraints	ET	Negotiaton	Nostalgia	Expertise	Structural	Intrapersonal	Inter	Virtual	Interpersonal	Individual
Negotiaton	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nostalgia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Expertise	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fam	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intentions	0,2239	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Structural	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intrapersonal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Inter	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Virtual	0,3599	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cultural	0,3425	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Interpersonal	0,3446	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Individual	0,3834	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP4R	0	0,1217	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP2R	0	0,1366	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXP1R	0	0,151	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FAMR2	0	0,4041	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG5	0,0121	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEG4	0,0134	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
INT5	-0,3345	0,2982	0,2428	0,4501	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST1	0,3414	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST2	0,4178	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST7	0,3164	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST9	0,384	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST10	0,4188	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST12	0,4526	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CONST13	0,3475	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST6	0,2154	0	0	0,4407	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST9	0,2541	0	0	0,5199	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST15	0,2941	0	0	0,6017	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST13	0,2311	0	0	0,4728	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST8	0,3425	0	0	0,7006	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST7	0,2744	0	0	0,5615	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST10	0,2561	0	0	0,5239	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST11	0,2499	0	0	0,5113	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST2	0,2388	0	0	0,4886	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOST3	0,2976	0	0	0,6089	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

